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PLANNING FOR THE UNITED ARAB REPUBLIC*

by

Professor RAGNAR FRISCH

Introduction

I feel that I must begin this lecture by a declaration of love and faith. All my sympathy, as well as that of Mrs. Frisch, has since long been with the Arab Nation and its leaders, and in particular with the great leader of the United Arab Republic, His Excellency Gamal Abdel Nasser, whom I have had the honour to meet. This feeling of sympathy with the Arab Nation has recently been even more strengthened, because my only child, a daughter, has married a young Moroccan, and has a beautiful little girl, very Arab looking.

I don't know very much about the conditions in the other countries of the Arab Nation, but I believe that, through my several stays in Egypt, I have come to know something about the conditions for economic and social development in the United Arab Republic. This knowledge has made me confident that the Republic has a great economic and social future provided its economy is planned in a wise way.

This love to and faith in the Republic gives me the privilege, or rather makes it my duty, to express my frank opinion on certain aspects of its planning system that can, in my opinion, be considerably improved. What I have particularly in mind is to base final decisions on a scientifically worked out global plan with *optimality computations*. I might even say that such an improvement is a *conditio sine qua non* for a speedy and safe economic development of the country.

The technique for the elaboration of a global and optimal plan frame has been the main concern of the Operations Research Center in the Institute of National Planning, and it is this work I would like to tell you something about.

The work stems from what the President explained to me in private conversations four years ago. His main theme was "I want to know how to plan". Our work since then has aimed at answer-

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*Public lecture delivered on February 8, 1964 in the Egyptian Society for Political Economy, Legislation and Statistics, at the invitation of Cairo University.

ing this question. And we believe that now we are in a position to give an answer.

The general line of approach has been mapped out by me, but the implementation of the ideas is the work of several Egyptian collaborators. A list of them with my grateful acknowledgment is given in an earlier publication. The work in its most recent stage is due to Dr. Salah Hamid, the powerful Director of the Operations Research Center, to Dr. Nazih Deif, Under-Secretary of State in the Ministry of National Planning, who has provided us with the data, to Dr. Salib Roufael, Professor in Ain Shams University and to Mrs. Mary Naguib, who has been in charge of the electronic computer in the Operations Research Center. In a general way we have also profited by remarks made by Dr. Mahmoud Shafie, Director of His Excellency, Vice-President Abdel Latif El Boghdady's technical secretariat.

Before embarking on a description of the technique for elaborating a global and optimal plan frame, I must state quite explicitly that this technique only aims at being an *aid* for decisions on the economic policy, just like the compass is an aid for the master of a ship when he decides what course to follow. The final decisions on economic policy must, of course, reside with the top level authorities. But the technique of a global and optimal plan frame, is, as I see it, a necessary condition for making wise decisions. It is an indispensable compass for steering the economy.

The three basic aspects

A development plan contains a great number of different aspects. Even if we aggregate the details into broad categories, we are left with a considerable number. In the present work which is coded for the electronic computer, there are 115 different aspects. It would only lead to confusion if I should try to speak about all these aspects at the same time. Therefore, let me begin by pointing out three of the most basic aspects of the economy which any planner must keep in mind, namely the increase in national income seen in long perspective, the protection of the balance of payments and the level of private consumption (1) over the years in the immediate future. These three aspects gear into each other,

(1) Government consumption is in most countries smaller in size, perhaps around 10 per cent of private consumption, and may, therefore, be disregarded when we concentrate on the three *most basic* aspects.

and our first task is to express in figures *how* they gear into each other.

When we speak of the increase in national income, the first thought that comes to your mind is probably the target of doubling the national income in ten years. I think that this target is excellent as a *stimulous to effort*. It is a whip that will force everybody concerned with the development of the economy to use his imagination and to do his utmost.

But the simple figure which will measure the national income in any specific year, such as 1970, can not be taken as the basis for the machinery of scientific planning. To focus all attention on the year 1970 and disregard what is happening after that date, will lead astray. The perspective must be much longer, when one had to decide about what actions to take this year or in any specific year in the immediate future.

I think it was a very wise decision to start to build the High Dam. But this is not because of the contribution which the High Dam may make to the national income in the year 1970, but because the Dam will yield a great contribution to national income over a very long time, virtually an indefinite time into the future. Similarly for the decision to build a thermal power station. With normal maintenance the power station will yield good service for 50 or more years. So we must concentrate our attention on the accumulated income which an investment will create. We must take the *sum* of all the annual incomes which the investment will create in all the years of the whole life expectancy of the real capital goods that emerge from the investment.

If increase in national income is what is wanted, the scientific planner who is to give an advice on how to shape a five year plan, must look for that particular pattern of action in the plan period which will produce *the highest possible* accumulated income creation over all the future years until the effects of the plan period action, particularly the effects of the plan period investment startings (1) have tapered off and finally have been exhausted. This is the essence of a global and optimal plan frame.

(1) One must distinguish between investment *starting* and investment *sinking*. Investment starting in any given year is the total outlay which it is estimated that the projects started that year *will have entailed* when they are finally completed at some future date. Investment sinking in any given year is the value of goods and services that were actually used (that were "sunk") that particular year in order to carry towards completion projects which were started that year or some previous year. The distinction between investment starting and investment sinking is absolutely essential in an analysis that is to be *truly dynamic*.

This optimal action is, of course, subject to a number of *conditions*. Foremost among them is the condition which stems from the concern about the balance of payments and the condition which stems from the concern about the private consumption of the population. I must say a few words about each of these two conditions.

In all essentials the annual balance of payments is the total value of the goods and services that have left the country in a given year, minus the total value of the goods and services that have entered into the country in that same year. This difference is a clear cut concept that can be observed statistically with a fairly high degree of accuracy. When we speak of the annual balance of payments, it is this *physical* definition we should concentrate on. If we begin to think in terms of financial concepts, such as the contraction of a loan abroad or the paying back of a loan, there is a great risk that we will be lead astray and end up with confusion and mistakes. For instance, the mere contraction of a loan abroad has no effect on the balance of payments. Nothing at all will really happen to the balance of payments until we start to draw on this loan. What will happen when we start to do so? We may perhaps use part of the new loan to pay back an old indebtedness. If we do, this in itself has no effect on the balance of payments. It only means that we have, pound by pound, changed one kind of indebtedness into another kind. It is only at the moment when we use part of the new loan to pay for imports of goods and services, that something really happens. And the thing that now happens can, pound by pound, be measured by the value of the goods imported. A similar argument can be made regarding the financial transactions involved in the export of goods from the country. Therefore, in the end, the net effect on the annual balance of payments in any given year is essentially the total value of goods and services exported this year minus the total value of goods and services imported this year.

This difference may be positive, negative or zero. It is positive if the country has exported more than it has imported. It is negative in the opposite case. And it is zero if total exports equal total imports. If gifts to or from the country occurs, a correctional term must be enteredto account for these unilateral transfers.

The annual balance of payments in a given year is the same as the *change* that has taken place this year in the country's not creditor position with the rest of the world. If the annual balance of payments in a given year is positive, the country's net creditor position with the rest of the world has improved this year. If the annual balance of payments is negative, the net creditor position has become worse.

If we consider the *accumulated* balance of payments, that is to say, if to the annual balance of payments in the first year of the plan we add the annual balance of payments in the second year of the plan and to this we add the annual balance of payments in the third year of the plan, and so on up to any given year where we want to stop, this accumulated sum is equal to the *total* change, i.e. the total improvement or worsening that has taken place in the country's net creditor position with the rest of the world since the beginning of the plan period up to the year where we stopped the accumulation. Since we may stop the accumulation in *any* year, we see that if the annual balance of payments in each year is given, it is any easy matter to compute what the accumulated balance of payments, i.e. the country's net creditor position with the rest of the world, will be in any future year reckoned from the beginning of the plan period.

This accumulated balance of payments is an extremely important aspect of the national economy. In a country which is going through an economic development process, the accumulated balance of payments will to begin with be negative and will get worse and worse from year to year, that is to say it will become more and more negative because the country is heavily importing in order to build up its real capital equipment through investment. This will continue until a certain year when the *peak load* on the accumulated balance of payments that is, the peak load on foreign indebtedness, is reached. From this year on the accumulated balance of payments may go on improving because now the fruits of the investments start to emerge. The peak load on the accumulated balance of payments which is caused by action in the plan period, is an extremely important figure, which the planner and the responsible politicians must watch carefully.

The peak load on foreign indebtedness can be foreseen

To any given distribution of investments over the various sectors of the economy and over the various years in the plan period, and any given pattern of private consumption and Government use of goods and services in the various years of the plan, will correspond a certain size of the peak load of the accumulated balance of payments, that is to say, a certain size of the highest foreign indebtedness reached as a consequence of the investment and consumption policy that was carried out in the plan period. It is possible to compute in figures with a fair dlgree of accuracy how high a peak load on foreign indebtedness that will follow from a given investment and consumption policy in the plan period. It is possible to do it, and we have done it. In performing these computations we have taken account of all effects, direct as well as indirect. We have equations that will tell us with a fair degree of accuracy what the peak load will be for any given size of investments and private and Governmental consumption in the plan period. Once a given constellation of the five year plan is fixed, we can *foresee* with a fair degree of accuracy what the peak load on net foreign indebtedness will be, and we can foresee *when* this peak load will occur.

A lack of understanding of this has been a weak point in economic planning in many underdeveloped countries. I am seriously concerned about this, because this lack of understanding may lead to an investment and consumption policy that will cause *balance of payments surprises of a critical order of magnitude*. It is as if, in a military operation, one should fail to evaluate correctly the enemy's strength. The reason for the too optimistic estimate is primarily, I believe, that there is a temptation to reckon only with direct effects that are immediately visible and attracts attention, while the indirect effects will only appear after a patient study of a global decision model.

There is for example a popular belief that if goods and services needed for consumption or investment purposes can be provided by domestic sectors of production, these goods and services will *not* fall as a burden on the balance of payments. This is a fundamental mistake. If all indirect effects are taken account of, one will find that the burden on the balance of payments is much higher than what appear prima facie.

The fact that we are able to compute the size of the peak load on foreign indebtedness and the year when it will occur, when we have given the investment and consumption policy in the plan period, is important. But there is an other fact that is still more important from the viewpoint of rational planning. We are also able to perform the computations in the reverse direction. By this I mean the following.

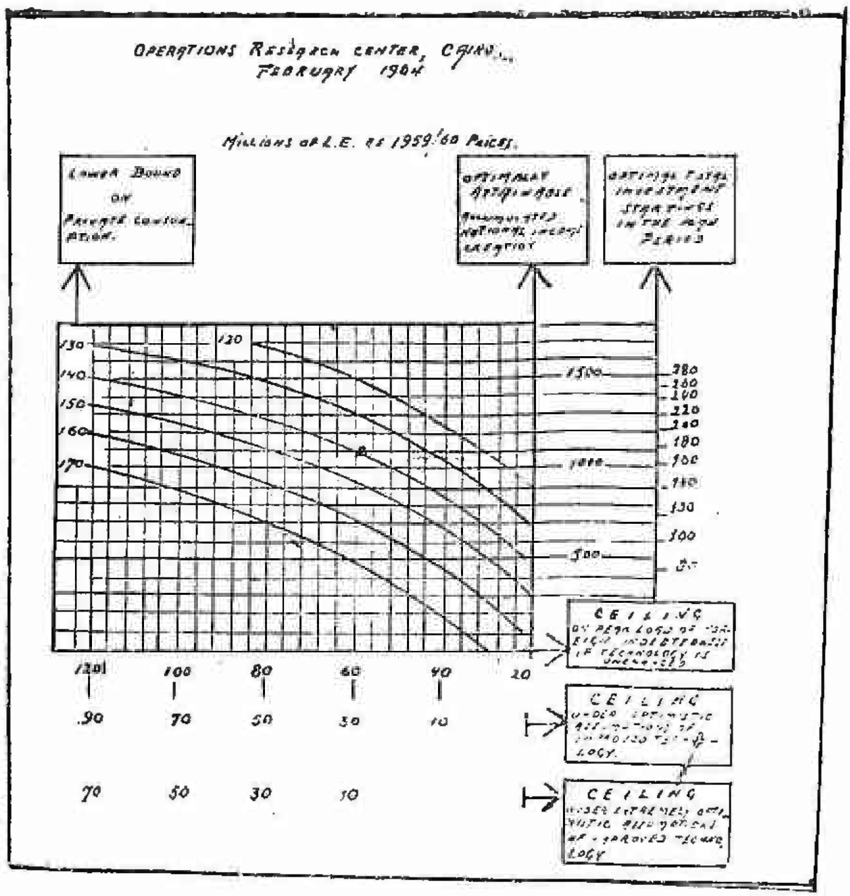
A ceiling on the peak load of foreign indebtedness

Suppose that we put a *ceiling* on the peak load of foreign indebtedness. That is to say, we will allow the foreign indebtedness to go up to a certain point, but not beyond this point. We can express it by saying that we put a lower bound on the accumulated balance of payments. This lower bound will be a *condition* put on the kind of consumption and investment policy we are allowed to follow in the plan period. There are, of course, still a great variety of such policies that are open to us, but they must be chosen in such a way that they do not break the ceiling that has been imposed on the peak load of the foreign indebtedness.

When this ceiling on the peak load of foreign indebtedness is given, we are able to determine in figures an *optimum constellation* of the investment and consumption policy in the plan period. That is to say an investment and consumption policy which is such that it will produce the largest size of accumulated national income creation which it is possible to attain when the ceiling on the peak load of foreign indebtedness is given. The more liberal we have been when we put the ceiling on the foreign indebtedness, that is to say the deeper we have allowed the country to go in foreign indebtedness, the higher it will be possible to reach in accumulated national income creation. And the more stringent we have been when we put the ceiling on the peak load of foreign indebtedness, that is to say the smaller peak load we have allowed for the country's foreign indebtedness, the smaller will be the maximum size which we can reach in accumulated national income creation.

We can illustrate this by a curve. Take for example the curve marked 140 in the Basic Policy Chart. I shall later have more to say about these down-sloping curves, but for the moment take the particular curve marked 140 as an illustration.

Figures and curves for the Basic Policy Chart resulting from actual computations made for the Egyptian economy have been made known to the appropriate Egyptian authorities. The figures given in the chart accompanying this paper have been altered. Those familiar with the United Arab Republic economy will see that the figures here given are much smaller than those applicable in the realistic situation. The figures given in the chart will, however, give a good illustration of what can be achieved through a rational form of optimality analysis in national planning. The figures and curves in the Basic Policy Chart have been worked out by Dr. Salib Roufael who has done a most excellent job in this connection.



The Basic Policy Chart

Showing how five basic aspects of the economy gear into each other.

Computed and drawn by

Dr. Salib Roufael.

The printed output from the electronic computer gives details showing how 115 different aspects of the economy gear into each other as a consequence of a given action in the plan period.

So let us now follow the downsloping curve marked 140. Let us start by reading off the point 60 on the horizontal axis. This means a ceiling of 60 millions of Egyptian foreign indebtedness as a consequence of action taken in the plan period 1965/70. The figures are expressed in 1959/60 prices.

From the point 60 we move vertically up until we hit the downsloping curve marked 140. And from this point we move horizontally to the right until we hit the vertical axis. Here we read off the value 1100. This means that if we impose the condition that the peak load on the foreign indebtedness due to action in the plan period is not to be more than 60 millions, then we can, if the investment and consumption policy in the plan period is determined in an optimal way, reach an accumulated national income creation of 1100. Note that 1100 is not the annual income in any single year, but the sum of national income creation over all the years covered by the life expectancy of the capital goods created through investment startings in the plan period.

Similarly we read off from the chart that, if the ceiling on the peak load of foreign indebtedness is as stringent as 40, we will only be able to reach an optimal accumulated income creation of about 830. And if the ceiling is as liberal as 80, we will be able to reach an optimal acuemulated income creation of about 1300.

A fourth aspect : Total investment startings in the plan period

An optimal economic policy has, of course, many aspects to it other than national income creation, protection of the balance of payments and concern about private consumption. One of these other aspects is the total size of investment startings in the plan period (1). This is a fourth of the basic aspects of the economy which we will now draw into the picture. This total size can be read off from the second vertical axis, the one to the extreme right. To the peak load ceiling of 60 corresponds on the curve 140 an accumulated national income creation of 1100 and a total plan period investment of about 180.

This means that if the ceiling on the peak load of foreign indebtedness is given as 60, and we determine the investment and consumption policy in the plan period in such a way as to maximize the accumulated national income creation, we will find that

(1) For the distinction between investment starting and investment sinking, see the footnote in the above section "The three basic aspects".

we need to make a total investment starting in the plan period of some 180 millions.

Similarly, if we put on the peak load ceiling of 80, we read off from the chart—using the curve 140—that the optimal total invesment starting will be about 220.

The consumption policy

All the explanations given so far refer to a situation where we have decided to follow a given policy pattern with respect to private consumption. In the case of the downsloping curve marked 140 in the Basic Policy Chart this policy was defined by the condition that total annual private consumption in any year in the plan should never fall below 140 millions (1). If we had decided to follow a drastic austerity policy by imposing a lower bound of only 130 millions on private consumption, we would have been able to *reduce* the burden on the foreign indebtedness. But still the situation would have been precisely the same as before. To any given ceiling on the peak load of the foreign indebtedness, will also now correspond a certain optimal value of the accumulated income creation. The only difference is that now we have to use the curve marked 130.

For instance, let us start on the horizontal axis at a point indicating a ceiling of 60. Moving vertically up to the consumption curve 130, and then to the right, we read off an optimally attainable accumulated income creation of 1300 and a total plan period investment starting of about 220.

The interaction of five basic aspects of planning

By a little exercise one will quickly learn to make readings in the graph and thereby see at a glance how four extremely important aspects of the planned economy gear into each other, namely : Optimally attainable accumulated national income creation, ceiling on the peak load of foreign indebtedness, lower bound on private consumption and total investment in the plan period.

When *using* the chart we have two "degrees of manœuvrability" in the sense that when any two of the four aspects are given, we can read off what the other two aspects will be. In the computations which are to be made in order to construct the

(1) In the computation Government consumption was assumed to bear a constant proportion to private consumption. The proportion was taken as 9 per cent.

chart, we take the ceiling on the peak load of foreign indebtedness and the lower bound on private consumption, as the two given aspects. These two aspects are therefore, computationally speaking, the "causes" of the other aspects represented in the Basic Policy Chart.

In the ceiling figures on the heavy horizontal axis is, as I have already stated, not included the effect of an improved technology. This represents a fifth aspect. Under an *optimistic* assumption about the possibility of realizing a gain through improved technology, the ceiling figures may perhaps be reduced by 30, that is to say, instead of the figure 60 one may use the figure 30, and so on. These optimistically amended figures are written in the horizontal row *below* the figures that belong to the heavy horizontal axis. If we can make this optimistic amendment, we find that a ceiling of 30 on the peak load of foreign indebtedness and an austerity policy corresponding to the consumption curve 130 will make room for a total plan period investment starting of about 220.

If one wants to be *extremely* optimistic about the possibility of an improved technology, one may perhaps reduce the ceiling figures by a further 20 as indicated in the bottom row under the horizontal axis. Using these figures one finds that a ceiling of 30 on the peak load of foreign indebtedness and a strong, but not excessive austerity policy would make room for a total plan period investment starting of about 250.

The Basic Policy Chart as now explained will exhibit the way in which *five* aspects gear into each other, the fifth being the possibility of technological improvement. This last factor has in the present analysis only been treated by a very uncertain estimate. It is possible to study this factor in a more precise way by including into the optimality analysis what I call *infra* investments, i.e. investments which aim at changing the coefficients that express the needs for inputs into production sectors, or aim at changing other coefficients in the decision model used. I have discussed this in some detail, in other memoranda. It will make the programming analysis at least quadratic and can only be handled by the use of a bigger electronic computer.

It is possible to add still another aspect in the Basic Policy Chart, namely the accumulated *employment creation* due to action in the plan period. This can be done by adding another vertical axis parallel to the axis of the accumulated national income creation. One may even add a few more aspects to be represented in the chart by vertical axes. The number of "degrees of manœuvrability" in the chart would remain the same, namely two. They may be thought of as being represented by the two aspects : peak load on foreign indebtedness and lower bound on private consumption.

The decision making process

What is the use of such a graph ? It is intended to be presented to the authorities as an aid for making the *first* step in a decision process, which will end up by fixing an optimal constellation of the five year plan. This is a much more rational approach than to have the authorities proceed *directly* to deciding on specific measures, one by one, say deciding on whether or not a specific investment project is to be accepted. Such decisions should only come at a later stage.

Since any point in the Basic Policy Chart will simultaneously define four (or even five or more) of the most basic aspects of the five year plan, any responsible politician will be able to say which one of the points (i.e. small square cells) in the chart he prefers the most. He will even be able to rank the points in a preference order.

The recording of the preferences can be done as follows.

We give each voter a total sum of, say, 100 points and ask him to distribute these points in any way he prefers over the small square cells of the chart.

A final top level decision will fix the specific point we should concentrate on. From this follow the *main aspects* of the five year plan.

When this is done, we can go to the second step in the decision process. We can now make several new specific runs on the computer and now we will present more details, all of which pertain, however, to the situation where the ceiling on the peak load of the foreign indebtedness and the lower bound on private consumption are given *at the levels* that were decided upon through the technique of the Basic Policy Chart.

We can further make what we call a stochastic sensitivity analysis by changing at random some of the data to test the precision of the analysis. In this way we can determine a number of different solutions that are *from the practical point of view* equally optimal. We can work out, say, 10 different but equally optimal alternatives regarding the *size* and the *phasing* of the investments in the various sectors over the plan period.

We have worked out a voting chart intended for voting on 10 such alternatives. Again we may let each voter be allotted a sum of 100 points. He should distribute these points over the 10 alternatives in the way which best suits his preferences. And again a final top level decision will fix the alternative to be chosen. Or alternatively, one may compute a new alternative which is the average of the 10 alternatives, weighted according to the number of votes each alternative has received.

The third step will consists in presenting tables that show the several aspects which the computer can give us. Practically all these aspects will be *consequences* of the decisions that were made in the first and second step.

Conclusion

To conclude I would like to say that a rational plan frame work of the kind here suggested will mean millions and millions to the Republic and will do away with a large part of the balance of peyments hazards now experienced. It will also activate a close cooperation between top level authoritities and the analytical experts.

In the end this will be the decisive factor in the economic and social development of the country. And it will also be the decisive factor in making other Arab countries look to Cairo for technical and economic guidance.

THE NATIONAL INCOME OF IRAQ
1962 and 1963

by

Dr. K. HASEEB
Governor of the Central Bank of Iraq

Introduction

I do not intend in this paper to go into a discussion of the definitions or the many conceptual and theoretical aspects and problems of national income. So much literature is available on these aspects that there is very little, if anything, to be added to it. In general, I shall follow the recommendations and rules laid down by the Statistical Office of the United Nations in their various publications on the subject. Where I have deviated from these rules, this will be indicated.

This paper is intended primarily to reveal the results of the recent estimates of the national product (National Income) of Iraq for the years 1962 and 1963 (1). It includes also certain revisions of the already published estimates for 1953-1961 (2). It is then intended to analyse the results by giving the rate of growth of the economy as a whole, as well as the different sectors, over the period ,and to describe the structure of the Iraq economy as indicated by the recent national income figures. To complete the picture of the Iraqi Economy, an attempt was also made to show the estimates of the national income (excluding agriculture) by main factor incomes, the contribution of the private and public sectors to the national income ,and the regional distribution o fthe national product. An attempt was also

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(1) I want to acknowledge my gratitude to Mr. A. W. Al-Makhzoumi and to Miss Nuha Sami Fattah, both of the Central Bank of Iraq, who helped a great deal in preparing the 1962 and 1963 estimates. It is only their help which made possible the estimations of the national income for 1963 before the end of April 1964.

(2) a) K. Haseeb, *The National Income of Iraq 1953-1961* (issued under the auspicies of the Royal Institute of International Affairs, Oxford University Press. 1964).

b) K. Haseeb, *The Estimation of the National Income of Iraq 1953-1961*, Al-Taleea' Press. Beirut, 1964 (in Arabic).

made to compare my estimates of the national income with the other estimates for Iraq. A summary of the sources and methods of estimation is also given.

For this purpose, the paper is divided into two parts. In part I a summary and analysis of the result is given, and in part II the sources and methods of estimation are indicated.

PART I

Summary and Analysis of the Results

Table (1) gives the national income figures for 1953-63 at both current and constant (3) (1956) prices with the percentage increase for each year over the preceding one. Table (2) shows the per capita national income, again at both current and at constant prices. Tables (3) and (4) give the details of the national product (national income) at current and at constant prices ,respectively, and give breakdowns for the value added (net of depreciation) of each sector of the economy with figures for sub-sectors in certain cases. Tables (5) and (6) are the same as those of tables (3) and (4), except that the value added of each sector is gross of depreciation. Tables (7) and (8) show the percentage contribution of each sector to the national product at current and at constant prices respectively. Table (9) gives the growth of the national product at constant prices by sectors. Table (10) gives the national income excluding oil revenues. Tables (11) and (12) show the national income, excluding agriculture, by factor incomes, and tables (13), (14) and (15) give the contribution of private and public sectors to the national income in 1953, 1956 and 1960. Table (16) shows the subsistence national income during 1953-1956, while table (17) gives the regional distribution of the national product in 1956. Table (18) shows a comparison of my estimates of the national income with other estimates for Iraq.

On studying the figures given in the mentioned tables, the following conclusions and remarks seem indicative:-

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(3) The term constant prices is used throughout this paper to mean "at 1956 prices" unless otherwise indicated.

a- Rates of Growth

1 — It is clear from table (1) that there was a steady growth of the national income over the period ,with the exception of 1953 and 1963. where the national income in 1955 showed a decline of over 7 percent at constant prices, and in 1963 where it registered a drop of over 2 percent at current prices and about 3 percent at constant prices.

The main reason for the decline in 1955, at constant prices, was the failure in agriculture in that year, since the value added in agriculture went down from about ID 114 million in 1954 to 68 million in 1955, a decrease of about 40 percent at constant prices. All the rest of the sectors showed an increase in 1955 over 1954 but could not make up for the decline in the agricultural sector.

In 1963, we notice not only that the agricultural sector showed a decline of over 29 percent over 1962, at constant prices, but also that other sectors of the economy (manufacturing, transportation and communications, wholesale and retail trade ,and banking) showed slight decreases. In spite of the rise in crude oil setor of over 15 percent, there was an absolute decline in the national income as a whole in that year. There were many reasons for that. Due to the irregular rainfall in 1963, and the military operations in the north, field crops (mainly wheat and barley grown in the rainfed areas in the north) were badly hurt in spite of the fact that the area cultivated for the 1963 crop was the highest ever cultivated between 1953-1963 (5). The decline in the agricultural products affected other sectors of the economy, because it amounted to a decline in the purchasing power of the rural population, which amounted to a decrease in demand on consumer goods, locally produced and imported. The Military events in the north meant a

(4) There was a small increase of about 2 percent at current prices.

(5) This also answers the unjustified accusation that the land reform form was responsible for the failure of agriculture in 1963. As was mentioned above, the area cultivated for the 1963 crop, which is what matters in this respect, was higher than in the years before the introduction of land reform in 1958 and earlier. Moreover, in 1962, a year after the land reform, field crops production attained a level which was more than that recorded in most of the pre-land reform years with the exception of 1954 and 1957 which were exceptionally good years.

heavy burden on the budget of the government ,and some of the usual capital expenditure by the government had to be cut down, with its multi effects on different sectors of the economy. The politial events in Iraq during 1963 were also partly responsable for some of the decline.

2. The national income ,at current prices ,increased from about ID 244 million in 1953 to over 515 million in 1963, i.e. more than doubled in ten years, and had it not been for the decline in 1963, it would have doubled also at constant prices. Percentage wise ,the national income increased between 1953 and 1963 at an average compound (6) annual rate of growth of 7.8 percent at current prices and at 6.4 percent at constant prices.

If we excluded the 1963 figures, we get an annual rate of increase of 7.5 percent between 1953 and 1962 at constant prices.

It is interesting to note that the rate of growth of the national income before and after he 1958 revolution was not very different. Between 1953 and 1958 the rate of growth was 6.7 percent, at constant prices, while between 1958 and 1963 it was 6.2 percent. If we were to exclude 1963, we would get closer figures .

The rate of growth of the national income was not the same throughout the period. Taking the constant prices figures, the years 1954, 1956, 1960 and 1962 noticed the highest rates, although the high rate of 1956 is partly due to the decline in the previous year .

3. Per capita national income, as shown in table (2), increased, at current prices ,from about ID 42 in 1953 to ID 73 in 1963 (76 in 1962), and from ID 45 in 1953 at constant prices to just over ID 69 in 1963 (about 73 in 1962), giving an average annual rate of growth of 5.8 percent at current prices and 4.4 percent at constant prices between 1953 and 1963.

4. It is clear also from table (9), that rates of the growth of different sectors were not similar. The highest average annual rate of growth at constant prices, between 1953 and 1963 was registered by the electricity and water sector (16.7 per-

(6) All annual rates of growth given in this paper are compound rates unless otherwise indicated.

cent) followed by the manufacturing sector (11.5 percent), the banking sector (11.3), the public administration (10.5), the mining sector (8.4), services (8.3), and transport (6.0). The only sector which registered a negative rate of growth during the period was agriculture, which showed about 1 percent negative rate (0.6).

5. It appears from table (4) that the rate of growth of the material sectors producing goods was less than that of the service sectors. The rate of growth of the former was 6 percent ,compared with about 8 percent for the latter (7.7) percent. The picture is more serious if we exclude the value added of the crude oil sector from the other goods sectors, since the rate of growth of the rest of the goods sectors will appear to be about 3 percent only.

6. It is important to notice that the direct effect of the oil revenues, reflected in the crude oil sector, on the growth of the national income as a whole is not as sometimes thought. As it appears from table (10), the national income, excluding oil revenues, increased between 1953 and 1963 at an average annual rae of 8.1 and 6.3 at current and constant prices respectively, compared with the rate of growth of the national income as a whole (including oil revenues) or 7.8 percent and 6.4 at current and constant prices respectively. In other words, the national income excluding oil revenues increased at a slightly higher rate than the national income as a whole. But it must be remembered that the above comparison takes into account the direct effect of the oil revenues. The importance of the indirect effects of the oil sector will be discussed later on.

7. It is very important to notice, as shown in table (1), that the national income achieved such a high rate of growth with very little rise in prices; prices increased at 1.3 percent only per annum. It is also important to notice that the prices of almost all the goods and services have increased during the period, the price of crude oil decreased.

b - Structure of the Economy

Tables (7) and (8), show the contribution of each sector to the national product at current and at constant prices respectively.

1. The tables show that the two most important sectors are agriculture (including livestock, forestry, and fishing) and the crude oil sector adjusted to allow for income to abroad representing the share of profits of the oil companies. At conspectively while the adjusted crude oil sector accounted for about 33 and 16 percent of the national income in 1953 and 1963 restant prices, the value added in agriculture accounted for about 21 and 29 percent respectively. Next to agriculture and crude oil comes the manufacturing sector which increased in importance from just over 7 percent in 1953 to over 11 percent in 1963 with its absolute values added more than trebled the period. Public administration and defence come fourth, which increase in importance from about 9 percent in 1953 to about 13 percent in 1963. The importance of the services sector showed a slight increase of 1.5 percent. But the contributions of the sectors of construction and transport ,show slight decreases over the period.

2. It is interesting to note that the relative importance of agriculture to the national income is declining. The value added in agriculture accounted for about 33 percent of the national income in 1953, but for 16 percent only in 1963. Even if we exclude the year 1963, agriculture accounted for about 23 percent only of the national income in 1962. This is not as healthy a situation as it seems on the face of it. It does not really mean that the economy is less dependent on agriculture now than it was in 1953. It is a result of the fact that in spite of the heavy investment in agriculture in terms of dams, irrigation and other projects by the different governments and regimes during the last ten years ,which exceeded the hundred million Iraqi dinars ,the agricultural sector was lagging behind, and even if we exclude 1963 we get an average annual rate of growth for agriculture between 1953 and 1962 of just over 3 percent only ,at constant prices. This is not the place for discussing the agricultural policy of the country, but one thing one can say is that the present policy, if any, needs a drastic revision and that due care should be given to livestock which seems to have contributed to agriculture more than field crops.

3. It was stated earlier that the direct effect of oil revenues on the rate of growth of national income is not as important as sometimes thought, and was pointed out that the

national income excluding oil revenues increased at almost the same rate, slightly higher at current prices, over the period. But it must be remembered that the indirect effects of oil revenues on the growth of other sectors are equally important, since abotu 50 percent of the revenues of the ordinary budget of the government, which is generating the value added in the public administration and defence sector, comes from the oil revenues, and most of the investment by the Planning Board are financed from the oil revenues. It is also important to notice that in terms of the percentage contribution to the national income, the crude oil sector maintained its same importance in 1962 compared with 1953, although in 1963 it showed a higher percentage ,due to the decline in the national income as a whole and the increase in the crude oil sector in that year by 15 percent.

Another important fact appears from the figures which is that in spite of the very little increase in oil revenues in 1961 and 1962 over 1960, a measure which was used by the oil companies in these two year to exercise some economic pressure on the government, the national income attained a rate of growth of about 10 percent per annum at both current and at constant prices. This means that the sectors of economy, excluding the crude oil sectors which achieved very little increase, managed by themselves to attain such a high rate of growth and to make up for the crude oil sector also.

One can conclude in this respect that, although a minimum of oil revenues is still essential to the national income, the increase over that minimum is not as decisive to the growth of the national income as used to be, and, given a normal state of affairs in the economy, the other sectors of the economy could by themselves achieve a reasonable growth of the national income. This means that national income growth is less dependent on the growth in oil revenues as before. But on the other hand ,as the import and export figures show, Iraq is getting more dependent on oil revenues as the main source of foreign exchange, while imports are increasing, exports other than crude oil were declining.

4. The contribution of the value added, at constant prices. of the sectors producing goods amounted to about 73 percent

of the net domestic product in 1953 and to just over 69 percent in 1963. If we exclude the crude oil sectors ,the rest of the goods sectors contribute about 57 of the net domestic product excluding crude oil in 1953 compared with just over 53 percent in 1963. This shows that the sectors producing goods are lagging behind the services sectors.

c - National Income by Factor Incomes

An attempt was made to estimate the national income by factor incomes, i.e. from the income side. It was decided, because of the nature of the data available, to divide the national income into four main incomes: wages and salaries, rent, interest ,and profits. Profits are defined to include earnings of self-employed and undistributed profits ,and are estimated before the deduction of income tax.

The value added of each sector, estimated initially from the output side ,was divided between these four factor incomes, on the basis of the information available. In many cases profits were estimated as residuals after deducting the wages and salaries, rent and interest from the value added of the individual sectors. However, this could not be applied to agriculture, as the wages and rent concepts have different meanings in agriculture, and, after discussion with people concerned, it was decided to exclude the value in agriculture from such division. Figures were not available for the later years and 1960 was the latest year for which such figures were available.

Table (11) gives the national income by factor incomes, with the factor incomes in agriculture merged together, for 1953, 1956 and 1960. Excluding agricultural incomes ,there was a redistribution of incomes to the benefit of wages and salaries (labour income); while they accounted for just over 31 percent of the national income ,excluding agriculture, in 1953, they increased their share to over 40 percent in 1960. The share of profits, on the other hand, declined from about 60 percent in 1953 to about 54 percent in 1960.

d - Contribution of the Private and Public Sectors

An attempt was made to estimate the contribution of the Private and Public Sectors of the economy to the national income of Iraq. Since our main interest is in the changes over the period, estimates are given for 1953, 1956, and 1960 only. Detailed information is not available for 1961-1963. The estimates were arrived at by dividing the value added of each sector between Public and Private sectors.

Table (15) shows that the Private Sector is dominant although the Public Sector is growing in importance. The Private Sector accounted in 1960 for 77 percent of the national income, compared with 85 percent in 1953. On the other hand, the contribution of the Public Sector increased from 15 percent in 1953 to 23 percent in 1960. However, if Crude oil Extraction is excluded as in table (14), the contribution of the Private Sector decreased from 80 per cent in 1951 3o percent in 1960.

Table (15) gives details of the Contribution of the Public and Private Sector to each branch of the economy. Certain branches came wholly within the Public Sector in 1960, i.e., Oil Refining (part of the manufacturing sectors) Electricity and water and the Public administration and Defence. On the other hand Agriculture, almost the whole of Mining and Quarrying, Construction ,almost the whole of Wholesale and Retal Trade, and Ownership of Dwellings were completely Private Sector. The Private Sector was also dominant in Manufacturing, while the Public Sector was dominant in Banking and Insurance and Services. Both sectors contributed to Transport and communication ,although the private sector still contributed the larger part, about 58 percent in 1960.

e - Subsistence National Income

In estimating the gross output of goods and services of each sector, we find that not all the products find their way to the market, and some of them have no monetary value. We are then faced with a number of untraded goods and services, many of them produced and consumed by the same entity. These range, for example ,from the subsistance output of farms, and the unpaid personal services of housewives and other members of the family or of broader social groups, to the services yielded by owner-occupied houses, or by consumer-owned durable goods.

To confine this study to the market economy only, and to include only goods and services marketed would limit and undermine the usefulness of the estimates of national income. It would not only make comparisons with countries at different stages of economic development meaningless ,but would also invalidate comparison of such estimates for the same country over a period in which there was an important change in the economy. On the other hand the inclusion of all the goods and services produced, whether intended for market or for self-consumption ,involves a great number of problems arising from the scarcity of data and from the valuation of many of these untraded products. In practice the final decision is made, in most cases, on the basis of expediency.

In my estimate of the national product of Iraq, I have defined the production boundary by following the convention laid down by the U.N. Statistical Office: "In the case of primary producers that is these engaged in agriculture, forestry, hunting, fishing, mining and quarrying, all primary production whether exchanged or not and all other goods and services produced and exchanged are included in the total of production. In the case of other producers, that is, those engaged in all other industries listed in the International Standard Industrial Classification, the total of their primary production is included as for producers. In addition, there is included the total of their other production which is exchanged together with the unexchanged part of their production in their own trade. As a result of these rules there is omitted from production the net amount of all nonprimary production performed by producers outside their own trades and consumed by themselves. Nonprimary production may be defined broadly as the transformation and distribution of tangible commodities as well as the rendering of services" (7).

I have included in the agricultural sector the farmers' subsistence output of agricultural products and the imputed value

(7) U.N. Statistical Office, *A System of National Accounts and Supporting Tables*, Studies in Methods, No. 2, New York, 1953.

of the services of their own means of transport which are used in transporting their own products to the market; an imputed figure for the value of the labour of the farmers in their own-account rural building construction has been included in the construction sector; and an imputed value for the unpaid services of the owner-occupied dwellings, (both urban and rural)[8] has been included in the ownership of dwellings sector. On the other hand no imputation was made in respect of the unpaid personal services of housewives or other similar personal services, nor was allowance made for the unpaid services rendered by consumer durable goods, other than owner-occupied dwellings owned by household.

Table (16) shows the subsistence national income in Iraq during the years 1953-6, at both current and constant prices. Figures for later years were not available. The principal contributions to the total subsistence output were made by agriculture and the sector called "ownership of dwellings". The table shows that, on average, subsistence national income was over 9 percent of the total national income during 1953-6 at current prices and over 10 percent at constant prices. It also shows that the subsistence value added of agriculture (including livestocks, forestry, and fishing) was on average about 29 percent of the total value added of agriculture during the period. Even allowing for the possible margins of error involved, it does not seem likely to exceed 11 percent (12 percent at constant prices) of the total national income, while the subsistence value added of agriculture is not likely to exceed 35 percent of the total value added of agriculture. These results may surprise many economists who have dealt with the economy of Iraq, and who have tended to exaggerate the importance of the subsistence economy.

f - Regional Distribution of the National Product.

I have attempted in this study to give two types of regional distribution for each of the fourteen provinces of Iraq. One

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(8) We have only included 50 % of the imputed rental value of the owner-occupied rural dwellings, on the grounds that the rural dwellings (mostly owner-occupied) are not only places of residence, but also to a large extent a workplace, and that a part of the rent of these houses, arbitrarily taken as 50 %, is implicitly included in the income of farmers. There will, therefore, be double-counting if we were to include the whole imputed rent of rural dwellings.

is a regional distribution which shows the geographical distribution of the national product. The value added of each sector was distributed between the province in the value added of the various sectors were then added up together, with that part of the product of the region which was due to the rest of the world; thus the contribution of each province to the national product was estimated. Though this distribution is useful in itself ,its usefulness in assessing the levels of living and in other respects is limited, because it is not adjusted for transfers in and out the main distorting factor is the crude oil production. The profits from crude oil production which accrue to the Government in terms of oil revenues constitute a part of the value added of the provinces where this crude oil is produced. Since these profits have no direct effect on the people living in the oil producing provinces, and their indirect effect applies to all the provinces, they should be excluded; oil revenues have, therefore, been excluded from the value added of the provinces concerned (Kirkuk, Basrah, Mosul, Ramadi, and Baghdad), where either the oil is produced and/or the oil pipelines or the management are located. This second calculation gives a regional distribution of the National Product excluding oil revenues. The wages and salaries paid of the value added, were retained in this second regional distribution, as they go to employees living in the province itself.

The regional distribution is given for 1956 only, which is thought to represent a normal year during the period covered by this study. It was not possible, because of the limited time and information available, to calculate a regional distribution for later years.

Table (17) shows two types of regional distribution, for 1956 only. The first (Column I) gives that part of the national income (Net National Product) originating in each province (liwa). Column 2 shows the percentage contribution of each province to the national income in 1956. Baghdad contributed most (accounting for about 30 percent), followed by Kirkuk (accounting for over 15 percent), Basrah (about 12 percent), and Mosul (over 9 percent), Kut, Kerbalah and Nasiriyan contributed least.

The usefulness of this first distribution for the purposes such as assessing the levels of living is limited by the fact that certain factors of production employed in one province may be owned by residents of other provinces. Remittances by persons or relatives or dependents in other provinces should also be considered. In other words, allowance should be made for incomes across province lines.

The main transfer is that of oil revenues to the Iraq government (the share in profits) which though attributed to the provinces where the oil was produced or transported, do not affect directly the residents of these provinces and which indirectly are likely to benefit the country as a whole.

Columns (3) and (4) of table (17) show the absolute and percentage distribution of the national income (excluding oil revenues) in 1956 by provinces. The table shows that after excluding oil revenues, the relative importance of the provinces changed. Although Baghdad still contributed most (accounting for about 36 percent), Mosul came second (accounting for about 11 percent), followed by Basrah third and Kirkuk fourth.

However, mere figures or percentages are of limited use. Columns (6) and (7) therefore give the average per capita income, once including oil revenues and once excluding them, in each province in 1956. Column (7) shows the large disparities in average per capita incomes, excluding oil revenues: while the average per capita income in Baghdad was about ID 74 it was only ID 22 in Nasiriyah.

g - Comparison with other Estimates

Three other estimates are available for the national income of Iraq -

Dr. Fenelon's Estimates

Dr. K. G. Fenelon was, until the end of f1958, the Statistical Expert to the Iraqi Government and was in charge of the Principal Bureau of Statistics. In a lecture which he delivered to the Kirkuk Field Club in June 1957 he released his unoffficial preliminary estimates of the national income and product of Iraq for 1956, in which he gave two estimates : one from the income side, and the other by the production approach (9). In

(9) K. G. Fenelon, *Fact Finding in Iraq*, extracts from a lecture to the Kirkuk Field Club, 11 June 1957 (Baghdad, IPC, Public Relations, mimeo), p. 4. See also *The Economist*, Economic Suppl., June 1957, p. 14.

both cases he estimated the national income, as ID 292.4 million.

In 1958 Dr. Fenelon published his estimates for 1950-6, in which the national income was measured from the expenditure side. He did not attempt the other two approaches, and he chose the expenditure approach because, in his own words. ...as one of the main objects of this study is to provide a series of figures which would cover the years 1950-1956, it seemed best starting with as detailed computations for the year 1956 as possible because in that year more data were available than for previous years. The National Expenditure approach has been selected because fewer estimates are needed for those earlier years than would be involved in direct income calculations (10).

Dr. Fenelon's estimates of the national income at current and at 1956 prices together with my own estimates ,are shown in Table 11.

The firm estimate in Dr. Fenelon's figures, as he explained was his national expenditure (National Income) for 1956, which is ID 303 million (compared with his earlier estimates from the income and production sides for 1956 of ID 292.4 million). His estimate for 1956 is about 10 percent less than my estimate for that year (ID 334.8 million), while his 1953 figure (based on the 1956 firm estimate) was over 6 percent more than my own for the same year. Thus the difference between his estimates and mine for the years 1953-6 is more serious than that for 1956, for while Dr. Fenelon's estimates give a compound rate of increase of the national income between 1953 and 1956 of about 5.4 percent per annum at current prices and about 3.2 percent at constant (1956) prices ,my estimates give 11.1 and 8.4 percent at current and constant prices respectively.

Maniakin's Estimates

In 1961 the Central Statistical Office of the Ministry of Planning published estimates for the national income of Iraq for the period 1956-60 which were prepared for them by the Soviet statistician, Mr. V. Maniakin II. These estimates, shown

(10) Fenelon, K. G., *Iraq National Income and Expenditure, 1950-1956*. Al-Rabita Press, Baghdad, 1958.

(11) V. Maniakin, *Introduction to National Accounting in Iraq for 1956-60* (1961, mimeo), Ministry of Planning, Iraq.

in Table 18, are made by using the production approach, and thus represent the national product.

Maniakin was influenced by the Marxist concept of national income and divided the national income into two spheres; the first he called the 'productive sphere', which included industry ,oil industry, construction, agriculture and livestock, carriage of goods (road tranport), trade and public food establishment, and other branches of the produtive sphere (forestry, collecting metal scrap, handicrafts, gathering natural forest products, individual fishing and hunting). The second he called the 'non-productive sphere', which covered services supplied to the community by municipalities and private persons, passenger transport (excluding railway transport), administration and national defence, science, education, health, etc. and finance. However, he did not follow the marxist concept of national income; although he divided the national product in the way described above, he nevertheless included (12) both productive and non-productive output in his estimates.

Very little information is available in the report on how he estimated the figures or about his sources. From what is given in the report ,the following points are worth mentioning:-

1. He seems to have defined the national income to represent the value of the net production, which in itself is a difference between the value of the gross production and the material expenditure in manufacturing this production (13). It thus seems that input of services was not deducted from the gross output of each sector in arriving at the value added, and that inputs were confined to material inputs only.

2. It seems that Maniakin excluded two sectors at least from the national product. These were banking and insurance, and ownership of dwellings (14). The value added of these two sect-

(12) It is understood that this was the result of pressure on him by the Ministry of Planning.

(13) Maniakin, *op. cit.*, p. 1.

(14) This is also the view of Drs. Ashour and Arnest. See Isam Ashour, *National Income Statistics in the Arab Countries*, Arabic Economic R. (Beirut), June 1962, p. 113 ; J. Arnest, *Iraqi National Income Accounts* (Iraq), *Economist* (Journal of Iraqi Economic Association), Apr. 1962, p. 29.

ors in 1956 and 1960, in my estimates, was about ID 14 and 16 million respectively.

3. It is not clear whether his estimates are 'at market prices' or "at factor costs" (15), i.e. whether they include indirect taxes (net of subsidies) or not, although it seems from his table on the gross and net production of refineries in Iraq, that his gross production figures included excise duties which were not deducted in arriving at the net production (16).

4. It is not clear whether the estimates represent what is known as the net national product or the GNP, as it is not clear whether "provisions for the consumption of fixed capital" were deducted or not. It is implicity understood that such provisions were deducted in the oil-refining sector, but no mention is made of other sectors.

5. It seems that "net income to abroad" covered the shares of the oil companies in the profits of crude-oil extraction only, and did not allow for other incomes to and from abroad; other net incomes were, in fact, insignificant, except in 1956 and 1957 when they were about +ID 3.4 and 2.5 million respectively.

Table 18 shows that Maniakin's estimates are, in general, lower than mine. His estimates for 1956 and 1960, at current prices, are 12.9 and 1.4 percent lower respectively than mine. Maniakin's estimates give an annual compound rate of growth of over 10.2 percent at current prices and about 9.7 percent at constant (1956) prices, compared with 3.4 & 5.9 percent respectively in my estimates.

Dr. Kanaan's Study

In 1963, Dr. T. H. Kanaan completed his "Study in the Structure of Iraqi Economy (17) which included 20×20 input — output matrices for 1960, and an estimate of the claims on

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(15) Dr. Ashour (p. 112) shares the same view.

(16) Maniakin, p. 19. Here Maniakin seems to have gone completely wrong. His gross production figures included excise duties and his inputs (defined as "material expenditures" in his estimates) were based on the assumption that they were about 20 percent of the gross production. Thus while he gives the net product of oil refining in 1956 and 1960 as I.D.8.8 and 11.5 m. respectively, my estimates of the value added in oil refining, based on actual detailed accounts obtained from GORA, were ID.2.6 and 5.2 m. respectively. The total of his material expenditures in 1956 was ID. 2.1 m., while in fact it was ID.3.34 m. for excise duties, ID.3.6 m. for inputs, and ID.1.6 m. for depreciation.

Iraq's gross national product made by private consumption, public consumption, gross capital formation, and the rest of the world. This amounted to national expenditure on goods and services disaggregated in the same order as the matrices, and classified as between the domestic and imported origin of goods and services.

Compared with our previously published estimates for 1960, Dr. Kanaan's estimates verified several of our own figures but produced different estimates in the two cases of construction, and manufacturing. With regard to manufacturing, the difference was due to the disaggregated nature of Kanaan's estimates which resulted in an extension of the boundaries of production in his case. As for the difference about construction, it was partly due to Kanaan's stimulation that we revised our previously published estimates to those presented in this paper. According to Kanaan the final demand claims on Iraq's gross domestic product for 1960 are distributed in the following percentage:

	%
Private consumption	48
Government consumption	17
Gross capital formation	20
Exports-Imports	14
Net change in stocks	1
	100

TABLE (1)
NATIONAL INCOME OF IRAQ, 1953-1963

Year	At Current Prices ID. Million	At Current Prices % Increase Over Preceding Year	At Constant (1956) Prices ID. Million	At Constant (1956) Prices % Increase Over Preceding Year	Implicit Price Index 1956 = 100
1953	244.0	—	262.8	—	92.8
1954	284.0	16.4	322.6	22.8	88.0
1955	289.3	1.9	299.0	— 7.3	96.8
1956	334.8	15.7	334.8	12.0	100.0
1957	352.7	5.4	348.4	4.1	101.2
1958	374.0	6.0	363.2	4.2	103.0
1959	391.6	4.7	368.6	1.5	106.2
1960	437.1	11.6	412.7	12.0	105.9
1961	484.2	10.8	468.6	13.6	103.3
1962	526.5	8.7	503.1	7.4	104.7
1963	515.4	— 2.1	489.5	— 2.7	105.3

(17) A Ph.D. Dissertation at Cambridge University, Unpublished.

TABLE (2)

PER CAPITA NATIONAL INCOME, 1953-1963

Year	National Income At Current Prices	National Income At 1956 Prices	Population* (000)	Per Capita Income at current Price ID.	Per Capita Income at current Price % Increase Over Preceding Year	Per Capita Income at 1956 prices ID.	Per Capita Income at 1956 prices % Increase Over Preceding Year
1953	244.0	262.8	5832	41.8	—	45.1	—
1954	284.0	322.6	5945	47.8	14.4	54.3	20.4
1955	289.3	299.0	6061	47.7	-0.2	49.3	-9.2
1956	334.8	334.8	6180	54.2	13.6	54.2	9.9
1957	352.7	348.4	6301	56.0	3.3	55.3	2.0
1958	374.0	363.2	6423	58.2	3.9	56.5	2.2
1959	391.6	368.6	6548	59.8	2.7	56.3	-0.4
1960	437.1	412.7	6675	65.5	9.5	61.8	9.8
1961	484.2	468.6	6804	71.2	8.7	68.9	11.5
1962	526.5	503.1	6936	75.9	6.6	72.5	5.2
1963	515.4	489.5	7071	72.9	-4.0	69.2	-4.6

*The population figures were interpolated from the adjusted 1947 and 1957 Censuses of Population. The FAO adjusted population figures for 1947 were used (see U.N. Food and Agriculture Organisation, Mediterranean Development Project, Iraq Country Report, Rome, 1959, p. 6). FAO gives a total population of 5.2 m. in 1947 compared with 4.8 m. reported in the Census. The 1957 Census was also adjusted to exclude the "estimated late registration" after the date of the Census and to include the "actual late registration" and to exclude also Iraqis living abroad at the time of the Census who were not covered by the 1947 Census. The 1957 Census gave 69,000 as living in the deserts. This was distributed between Mosul, Dulaim, Diwaniyah and Kerbela in proportion to the rural population in each of them. The 1957 adjusted figure is 6.3 m. On this basis the average compound rate of increase is 1.94 percent per annum.

TABLE (3)

Net National Product at Current Factor Cost Prices, 1953-1963
(National Income at Current Prices)
(ID. Million)

Sector	1953	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1960	1961	1962	1963
1. Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing											
a) Field Crops	23.83	27.73	19.04	27.29	33.20	27.59	26.71	26.47	32.45	37.08	22,31
b) Vegetables	12.27	13.99	7.96	14.05	14.99	10.33	6.12	10.99	14.08	15.73	17,72
c) Fruit and dates	7.53	7.55	7.57	6.73	8.95	8.66	5.37	6.86	8.92	13.90	9,61
d) Livestock	25.58	32.85	27.90	37.59	50.62	42.23	39.96	49.44	57.24	68.93	53,74
e) Forestry	0.82	0.87	1.02	1.12	1.11	1.27	1.17	1.08	1.14	0.96	1,14
f) Fishery	0.58	0.76	0.81	1.29	1.45	1.37	1.40	1.68	1.68	1.96	2,02
Total Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing	70.61	83.75	64.30	88.07	110.32	91.45	80.73	96.52	115.51	138.56	106,54
2. Mining and Quarrying											
a) Crude Oil Extraction	121.21	141.43	152.36	143.15	103.59	166.10	181.17	199.37	198.64	199.11	228,36
b) Other Mining and Quarrying	0.85	0.88	1.48	1.55	1.65	1.75	1.72	1.59	2.04	1.76	1,75
Total Mining and Quarrying	122.06	142.31	153.84	144.70	105.24	167.85	182.89	200.96	200.68	200.87	230.11
3. Manufacturing											
a) Oil Refining	1.73	2.21	2.36	2.61	3.04	3.48	4.21	5.17	6.74	6.91	7,09
b) Other Manufacturing	16.75	18.21	21.97	26.32	28.15	28.46	35.48	43.61	47.33	52.33	50,37
Total Manufacturing...	18.48	20.42	24.33	28.93	31.19	31.94	39.69	48.78	54.07	59.24	57,46
4. Construction...	9.76	14.72	18.20	21.41	23.74	25.49	24.38	19.87	20.84	17.39	17,53
5. Electricity and Water	1.20	1.46	1.78	2.07	2.19	2.27	2.43	2.66	3.34	3.71	3,74
6. Transport, Communications and Storage	17.28	18.62	20.34	22.92	25.02	25.40	27.86	33.33	38.42	39.96	39,49
7. Wholesale and retail trade	17.33	20.06	20.86	26.11	28.80	26.72	25.47	31.60	35.52	37.44	34,31
8. Banking, Insurance and Real Estate	3.17	3.56	4.42	6.19	6.51	7.30	8.11	8.58	10.81	11.31	12,56
9. Ownership of Dwellings	7.28	7.46	7.64	7.78	7.99	7.79	7.19	7.39	7.52	7.71	7,38
10. Public Administration and Defence	18.29	20.80	24.34	28.12	32.06	37.57	45.65	45.71	51.46	59.76	66.38
11. Services	16.12	18.52	20.47	23.95	26.06	28.71	32.35	37.06	40.27	45.41	47,99
12. Net Domestic Product at Factor Cost	301.58	351.68	360.52	400.25	399.12	452.49	477.35	532.46	578.44	620.36	623.49
13. Less Income to Abroad	57.63	67.66	71.24	65.49	46.40	78.45	85.73	95.33	94.20	93.87	108.12
14. Net National Product at Factor Cost	243.95	284.02	289.28	334.76	352.72	374.04	391.62	437.13	484.24	526.49	515.37

TABLE (4)

Net National Product at Constant (1956) Factor Cost Prices, 1953-1963
(National Income at Constant Prices)
(ID. Million)

Sector	1953	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1960	1961	1962	1963
1. Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing											
a) Field Crops ...	29.92	43.38	20.00	27.29	41.21	27.19	18.41	20.74	26.54	33.08	15,75
b) Vegetables ...	15,08	20.56	8.18	14.05	18.68	9.96	4.22	8.89	13.98	15.79	17.67
c) Fruit and dates ...	7.73	9.65	7.38	6.73	9.17	8.16	4.05	5.38	7.39	9.50	6,03
d) Livestock ...	31.25	38.37	30.91	37.59	44.95	41.22	37.12	38.63	45.82	52.56	38,42
e) Forestry ...	0.96	1.02	1.06	1.12	1.18	1.27	1.29	1.19	1.21	0.93	1,00
f) Fishery ...	0,76	0,84	0.87	1.29	1.32	1.36	1.39	1.42	1.46	1.49	1.54
Total Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing ...	85.70	113,82	68.40	88.07	116.51	89.16	66.48	76.25	96.90	113.35	80.41
2. Mining and Quarrying											
a) Crude Oil Extraction ...	121.21	141.43	152.36	143.15	97.82	166.14	195.07	226.80	233.70	234.96	270,46
b) Other Mining and Quarrying ...	0,85	0.88	1.48	1.55	1.65	1.75	1.72	1.59	2.04	1.76	1.75
Total Mining and Quarrying ...	122,06	142.31	153.84	144.70	99.47	167.89	196.79	228.39	235.74	236.72	272.21
3. Manufacturing											
a) Oil Refining ...	1.73	2.21	2.36	2.61	3.04	3.75	4.48	5.46	6.89	7.06	7.24
b) Other Manufacturing ...	17,00	19.06	22.23	26.32	26.80	27.95	33.93	42.06	44.39	50.02	48.14
Total Manufacturing...	18.73	21.27	24.59	28.93	29.84	31.70	38.41	47.52	51.29	57.08	55.38
4. Construction...	11,79	16.13	19.70	21.41	23.74	23.43	21.24	16.91	17.77	14.73	14.39
5. Electricity and Water ...	1,06	1.10	1.73	2.07	2.50	2.67	2.01	3.46	3.91	4.85	4.95
6. Transport, Communications and Storage ...	18,67	19.14	20.63	22.92	23.52	23.33	24.43	29.67	33.82	35.16	33.46
7. Wholesale and retail trade ...	18,61	23.04	21.94	26.11	28.17	25.91	23.87	29.20	34.95	37.04	32.45
8. Banking, Insurance and Real Estate ...	3,26	5.11	5.41	6.19	7.00	8.51	8.74	8.42	9.11	9.63	9.53
9. Ownership of Dwellings ...	7,25	7.40	7.58	7.78	7.93	8.12	8.37	8.58	8.84	9.06	9.31
10. Public Administration and Defence ...	22,68	23.93	27.68	28.12	29.70	34.48	40.69	40.03	47.75	55.45	61.60
11. Services ...	19,81	21.32	22.48	23.95	24.68	26.53	29.93	34.05	40.96	42.50	44.06
12. Net Domestic Product at Factor Cost ...	329,62	394.57	373.98	400.25	393.06	441.73	461.86	522.48	581.03	615.57	618.85
13. Less Income to Abroad ...	66,80	71.94	75.01	65.49	44.66	78.56	93.26	109.80	112.40	112.44	128.89
14. Net National Product at Factor Cost ...	262,82	322.63	298.97	334.76	348.40	363.17	368.60	412.68	468.63	503.13	489.46

TABLE (5)

Gross Domestic Products, Gross National Product, and Net National Product
At Current Factor Cost Prices, 1953-1963
(ID. Million)

Sector	1953	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1960	1961	1962	1963
1. Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing											
a) Field Crops	24,72	28.71	20.07	28.45	34.45	28.90	27.99	27.79	33.92	38.90	23.39
b) Vegetables	12,27	13.98	7.96	14.05	14.99	10.33	6.12	10.99	14.08	15.73	17.72
c) Fruit and dates	7,53	7.55	7.57	6.73	8.95	8.66	5.37	6.86	8.92	13.90	9.61
d) Livestock	25.58	32.85	27.90	37.59	50.62	42.23	39.96	49.44	57.24	68.93	53,74
e) Forestry	0,82	0.87	1.02	1.12	1.11	1.27	1.17	1.08	1.14	0.96	1.14
f) Fishery	0,58	0.76	0.81	1.29	1.45	1.37	1.40	1.68	1.68	2.96	2.02
Total Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing	71,50	84.72	65.33	89.23	111.57	92.76	82.01	97.84	116.98	140.38	107 62
2. Mining and Quarrying											
a) Crude Oil Extraction	128.91	149,53	161.16	152.45	113.10	175.43	190.00	208.07	209.03	210.23	238.84
b) Other Mining and Quarrying	0,89	0.93	1.56	1.64	1.74	1.85	1.81	1.68	2.15	1.86	1.84
Total Mining and Quarrying	129,80	150,46	162.72	154.09	114.84	177.28	191.81	209.75	211.18	212.09	240.68
3. Manufacturing											
a) Oil Refining	1,91	2.46	3.45	4.19	4.99	5.74	6.45	7,79	9.39	9.67	9.92
b) Other Manufacturing	17,83	19.42	23.47	27.88	30.26	31.05	38.38	46.61	50.12	55.41	53.30
Total Manufacturing...	19,74	21,88	26.92	32.07	35.25	36.79	44.83	54.40	59.51	65.08	63.22
4. Construction...	11,27	17.21	21.29	24.83	27.68	29.83	28.72	23.08	23.88	19.64	19.96
5. Electricity and Water	1.46	1,78	2.17	2.53	2.68	2.78	2.97	3.62	4.96	5.54	5.09
6. Transport, Communications and Storage	21,37	22.06	24.56	27.55	29.92	30.61	34.29	39.72	45.95	47.02	48.09
7. Wholesale and retail trade	17,85	20,67	21.48	26.90	29.67	27.52	26.23	32.55	36.48	38,56	35,34
8. Banking, Insurance and Real Estate	3.23	3,63	4.49	6.28	6.60	7.40	8.20	8.69	11.06	11,38	12.57
9. Ownership of Dwellings	11,61	11.91	12,20	12.47	12.80	12.51	11.58	11.89	12.13	12.45	11.96
10. Public Administration and Defence	18,29	20.80	24.34	28.12	32.06	37.57	45.65	45.71	51.46	59.76	66.38
11. Services	16,83	19,25	21.26	24.83	26.99	29.65	33.33	38.11	41.37	46.52	49.20
12. Gross Domestic Product at Factor Cost	322,95	374,37	386.70	428.90	430.06	484.70	509.62	565.36	615.06	658.42	660.71
13. Less Income to Abroad	57,63	67.66	71.24	65.49	46.40	78.45	85.73	95.33	94.20	93.87	108.12
14. Gross National Product at Factor Cost	265,32	306.71	315.52	363.41	383.66	406.25	423.89	470.03	520.86	564.55	552.59
15. Less Provision for the consumption of Fixed Capital	21,37	22.69	26.24	28.65	30.94	32.21	32.27	32.90	36.62	38.06	37.22
16. Net National Product at Factor Cost	243,95	284,02	289.28	334.76	352.72	374.04	391.62	437.13	484.24	526.49	515.37

TABLE (6)

Gross Domestic Product, Gross National Product, and Net National Product At Constant (1956) Factor Cost Prices, 1953-1963

Sector	1953	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1960	1961	1962	1963
1 Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing											
a) Field Crops	30,81	44.36	21.03	28.45	42.46	28.50	19.69	22.07	28.01	34.89	16.83
b) Vegetables	15,08	20.56	8.18	14.05	18.68	9.96	4.22	8.89	13.98	15.79	17.67
c) Fruit and dates	7,73	9.65	7.38	6.73	9.17	8.16	4.05	5.38	7.89	9.50	6.03
d) Livestock	31.25	38.37	30.91	37.59	44.95	41.22	37.12	38.63	45.82	52.56	38.42
e) Forestry	0,96	1.02	1.06	1.12	1.18	1.27	1.29	1.19	1.21	0.93	1.00
f) Fishery	0,76	0.84	0.87	1.29	1.32	1.36	1.89	1.42	1.46	1.49	1.54
Total Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing	86,59	114.80	69.43	89.23	117.76	90.47	67.76	77.58	98.37	115.16	81.49
2. Mining and Quarrying											
a) Crude Oil Extraction	128.91	149.53	161.16	152.45	107.34	175.47	203.90	235.50	244.10	246.08	280.93
b) Other Mining and Quarrying	0,89	0,93	1.56	1.64	1.74	1.85	1.81	1.68	2.15	1.86	1.84
Total Mining and Quarrying	129,80	150.46	162.72	154.09	109.08	177.32	205.71	237.18	246.25	247.94	282.77
3. Manufacturing											
a) Oil Refining	1,91	2.46	3.45	4.19	4.99	6.00	6.72	8.08	9.60	9.89	10.15
b) Other Manufacturing	18,08	20,26	23.73	27.88	28.91	30,54	36.83	45.06	48.19	52.98	51.78
Total Manufacturing...	19,99	22.72	27.18	32.07	33.90	36.54	43.55	53.14	57.79	62.87	61.93
4. Construction...	13,63	18.87	23.09	24.83	27.68	27.41	24.41	19.63	20.34	16.63	17.06
5. Electricity and Water	1.33	1,43	2.13	2.53	2.99	3.18	3.45	4.12	5.43	6.44	6.64
6. Transport, Communications and Storage	22,46	23,05	24.92	27.55	28.48	28.60	30.91	36.11	41.40	43.19	42 06
7. Wholesale and retail trade	19.16	23,73	22.60	26.90	29.02	26.69	24.59	30.08	36.00	38.15	33.43
8. Banking, Insurance and Real Estate	3.87	5.15	5.89	6.28	7.84	8.82	8.59	9.20	9.33	9.73	9.61
9. Ownership of Dwellings	11,58	11.85	12.15	12.47	12.75	13.06	13.44	13.80	14.19	14.56	14.95
10. Public Administration and Defence	22.68	23,93	27.68	28.12	29.70	34.48	40.69	40.03	47.75	55.45	61.60
11. Services	20.58	22.12	23.31	24.83	25.57	27.45	30.87	35.03	41.99	43.56	45.15
12. Gross Domestic Product at Factor Cost	351.67	418,11	401.10	428.90	424.77	474.02	493.97	555.90	618.84	653.68	656.69
13. Less Income to Abroad	66.80	71.94	75.01	65.49	44.66	78.56	93.26	109.80	112.40	112.44	128.89
14. Gross National Product at Factor Cost	284,87	346.17	326.09	363.41	380.11	395.46	400.71	446,10	506.44	541.24	527.83
15. Less Provision for the consumption of Fixed Capital	22.05	23.54	27.12	28.65	31.71	32.29	32.11	33.42	37.81	38.11	38.34
16. Net National Product at Factor Cost	262.82	322.63	298.97	334.76	348.40	363.17	368.60	412.68	468.63	503.13	489 46

TABLE (7)

Percentage Contribution of Each Sector
To The National Product At Current Prices

Sector	1953	1958	1961	1962	1963
14 Net National Product At Factor Cost					
1 Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing					
(a) Field Crops	9.8	7.4	6.7	7.0	4.3
(b) Vegetables	5.0	2.8	2.9	3.0	3.5
(c) Fruit and Dates	3.1	2.3	1.9	2.6	1.9
(d) Livestock	10.5	11.3	11.8	13.1	10.4
(e) Forestry...	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2
(f) Fishery...	0.2	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Total Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing... ...	28.9	24.5	23.9	26.3	20.7
2 —Mining and Quarrying					
(a) Crude Oil Extraction	49.7	44.4	41.0	37.8	44.3
(b) Other Mining & Quarrying	0.3	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.3
Total Mining & Quarrying	50.0	44.9	41.4	38.1	44.6
3—Manufacturing					
(a) Oil Refining	0.7	0.9	1.4	1.3	1.4
(b) Other Manufacturing	6.9	7.6	9.8	9.9	9.8
Total Manufacturing... ...	7.6	8.5	11.2	11.2	11.2
4—Construction	4.0	6.8	4.3	3.3	3.4
5—Electricity and Water ...	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.7
6—Transport, Communications and Storage	7.1	6.8	7.9	7.4	7.7
7—Wholesale & Retail Trade	7.1	7.1	7.3	7.1	6.7
8—Banking, Insurance and Real Estate	1.3	2.0	2.2	2.2	2.4
9—Ownership of Dwellings ...	3.0	2.1	1.6	1.5	1.4
10—Public Administration and Defence	7.5	10.0	10.6	11.4	12.9
11—Services	6.6	7.7	8.3	8.6	9.3
12—Net Domestic Product At Factor Cost	123.6	121.0	119.4	117.8	121.0
13—Less Income to Abroad ...	- 23.6	- 21.0	- 19.4	- 17.8	- 21.0
14—Net National Product At Factor Cost	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

TABLE (8)

Percentage Contribution of Each
Sector To The National Product At Constant Prices

Sector	1953	1958	1961	1962	1963
1—Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing					
(a) Field Crops	11.4	7.5	5.7	6.6	3.2
(b) Vegetables	5.7	2.7	3.0	3.1	3.6
(c) Fruit and Dates	2.9	2.2	1.7	1.9	1.2
(d) Livestock	11.9	11.4	9.8	10.4	7.9
(e) Forestry	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.2
(f) Fishery	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3
Total Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing	32.6	24.6	20.8	22.5	16.4
2—Mining and Quarrying					
(a) Crude Oil Extraction...	46.1	45.8	49.9	46.7	55.3
(b) Other Mining & Quarrying	0.3	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.4
Total Mining & Quarrying	46.4	46.3	50.3	47.0	55.7
3—Manufacturing					
(a) Oil Refining	0.7	1.0	1.4	1.4	1.5
(b) Other Manufacturing	6.5	7.7	9.5	9.9	9.8
Total Manufacturing ...	7.2	8.7	10.9	11.3	11.3
4—Construction...	4.5	6.5	3.8	2.9	3.1
5—Electricity and Water ...	0.4	0.7	0.8	1.0	1.0
6—Transport, Communications and Storage...	7.1	6.4	7.2	7.0	6.8
7—Wholesale & Retail Trade	7.1	7.1	7.5	7.4	6.6
8—Banking, Insurance and Real Estate	1.2	2.3	1.9	1.9	1.9
9—Ownership of Dwellings ...	2.8	2.2	1.9	1.8	1.9
10—Public Administration and Defence	8.6	9.5	10.2	11.0	12.6
11—Services	7.5	7.3	8.7	8.4	9.0
12—Net Domestic Product At Factor Cost	125.4	121.6	124.0	122.3	126.3
13—Less Income to Abroad ...	- 25.4	- 21.6	- 24.0	- 22.3	- 26.3
14—Net National Product At Factor Cost	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

TABLE (9)

Growth of National Product at Constant Prices

1953 = 100

Sector	1953	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1960	1961	1962	1963	Growth Rate of Compound 1953-63
1. Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing												%
a) Field Crops	100	145	67	91	133	91	62	69	89	111	53	-6.2
b) Vegetables	100	136	54	93	124	66	28	59	93	106	117	1.6
c) Fruit and dates	100	125	95	87	119	106	52	70	102	123	78	-2.5
d) Livestock	100	123	93	120	144	132	119	124	147	168	123	2.1
e) Forestry	100	106	110	117	123	132	134	124	126	97	104	0.3
f) Fishery	100	111	114	170	174	179	183	187	192	196	203	7.3
Total Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing	100	133	80	103	136	104	78	89	113	132	94	-0.6
2. Mining and Quarrying												
a) Crude Oil Extraction	100	117	126	118	84	137	161	187	193	201	223	8.4
b) Other Mining and Quarrying	100	104	174	182	194	206	202	187	240	207	206	7.5
Total Mining and Quarrying	100	117	126	119	81	138	161	187	193	194	223	8.4
3. Manufacturing												
a) Oil Refining	100	128	136	151	176	217	259	316	398	408	418	15.4
b) Other Manufacturing	100	112	131	155	158	164	200	247	261	294	283	11.0
Total Manufacturing...	100	114	131	154	159	169	205	254	274	305	296	11.5
4. Construction...	100	137	167	182	201	199	180	143	151	125	127	2.4
5. Electricity and Water	100	104	163	195	236	252	275	326	369	458	467	16.7
6. Transport, Communications and Storage	100	103	110	123	126	125	131	159	181	188	179	6.0
7. Wholesale and retail trade	100	124	118	140	151	139	128	157	188	199	174	6.0
8. Banking, Insurance and Real Estate	100	157	166	190	215	261	268	258	279	295	292	11.3
9. Ownership of Dwellings	100	102	105	107	109	112	115	118	122	125	128	2.5
10. Public Administration and Defence	100	106	122	124	131	152	179	176	211	244	272	10.5
11. Services	100	108	113	121	125	134	151	172	207	215	222	8.3
12. Net Domestic Product at Factor Cost	100	120	113	121	119	134	140	159	176	187	188	6.5
13. Less Income to Abroad	100	108	112	98	67	118	140	164	168	168	193	6.8
14. Net National Product at Factor Cost	100	123	114	127	133	138	140	157	178	191	186	6.4

TABLE (10)

National Income At Current and at Constant Prices
Excluding Oil Revenues From Oil Companies

Year	At Current Prices			At 1956 Prices		
	National Income	Oil Revenues	National Income Excluding Oil Revenues	National Income	Oil Revenues	National Income Excluding Oil Revenues
1953	243.950	58.343	185.607	262.820	67.534	195.286
1954	284.020	68.371	215.649	322.630	72.708	249.922
1955	289.280	73.748	215.532	298.970	77.701	221.269
1956	334.760	68.859	265.901	334.760	68.859	265.901
1957	352.720	48.858	303.862	348.400	47.030	301.370
1958	374.040	79.888	294.152	363.170	80.104	283.066
1959	391.620	86.602	305.018	368.600	94.112	274.488
1960	437.130	95.092	342.038	412.680	109.573	303.107
1961	484.240	94.828	389.412	468.630	113.001	355.629
1962	526.490	95.124	431.366	503.130	113.655	389.475
1963	515,370	110,049	405.325	489.460	130.696	358.764

TABLE (11)

Distribution of National Incomes By Current Factor Incomes,
1953, 1956 and 1960

	1953		1956		1960	
	ID. Mill.	%	ID. Mill.	%	ID. Mill.	%
Agricultural Incomes (1)	70.6	29	88.1	26	96.5	22
Wages and Salaries	54.2	22	88.3	26	137.3	31
Rent	12.7	5	15.4	5	17.0	4
Interest	2.8	1	6.6	2	3.5	1
Profits (2)	103.6	43	136.4	41	182.8	42
Total	244.0	100	344.8	100	437.1	100

(1) Inculding all types of Factor Incomes.

(2) Including earnings of self-employed. Profits are estimated before the deduction of income tax, and also include undistributed profits and the share of Government and Oil Companies in profits from Crude Oil Extraction.

TABLE (12)

Distribution of National Income, Excluding Agriculture
By Current Factor Incomes, 1953, 1956 and 1960

	1953		1956		1960	
	ID. Mill.	%	ID. Mill.	%	ID. Mill.	%
Wages and Salaries	54.2	31.3	88.3	35.8	137.3	40.3
Rent	12.7	7.3	15.4	6.2	17.0	5.0
Interest	2.8	1.6	6.6	2.7	3.5	1.0
Profits	103.6	59.8	136.4	55.3	182.8	53.7
Total	173.3	100.0	246.7	100.0	340.6	100.0

TABLE (13)

Contribution of Private and Public Sectors To The National Income,
1953, 1956 and 1960

	1953		1956		1960	
	ID. M.	%	ID. M.	%	ID. M.	%
Private Sector	208.3	85	275.1	82	337.4	77
Public Sector	35.7	15	59.7	18	99.7	23
Total	244.0	100	334.8	100	437.1	100

TABLE (14)

Contribution of Private and Public Sectors To The Net
Domestic Product, Excluding Crude Oil Extraction,
1953, 1956 and 1960

	1953		1956		1960	
	ID. M.	%	ID. M.	%	ID. M.	%
Private Sector	144.7	80	197.4	77	233.4	70
Public Sector	35.7	20	59.7	23	99.7	30
Total	180.4	100	257.1	100	333.1	100

TABLE (15)

Details of the Contribution of Private and Public Sectors to the National Income, 1953, 1956 and 1960

(ID. Million)

	1953			1956			1960		
	Public Sector	Private Sector	Total	Public Sector	Private Sector	Total	Public Sector	Private Sector	Total
1. Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing	—	70.61	70.61	—	88.07	88.07	—	96.52	96.52
2. Mining and Quarrying									
a) Crude Oil Extraction	—	121.21	121.21	—	143.15	143.15	—	199.37	199.37
b) Other Mining and Quarrying	0.05	0.80	0.25	0.05	1.50	1.55	0.04	1.55	1.59
3. Manufacturing									
a) Oil Refining	1.73	—	1.73	2.61	—	2.61	5.17	—	5.17
b) Other Manufacturing	0.43	16.32	16.75	0.76	25.56	26.32	2.59	41.02	43 61
4. Construction...	—	9.76	9.76	—	21.41	21.41	—	19.87	19.87
5. Electricity and Water	0.70	0.50	1.20	2.07	—	2.07	2.66	—	2.66
6. Transport, Communications and Storage	4.72	12.56	17.28	8.20	14.72	22.92	13.55	19.78	33.69
7. Wholesale and retail trade	0.19	17.14	17.33	0.69	25.42	26.11	0.82	30.78	33.33
8. Banking, Insurance and Real Estate	2.73	0.44	3.17	5.14	1.05	6.19	6.61	1.97	8.58
9. Ownership of Dwellings	—	7.28	7.28	—	7.78	7.78	—	7.39	7.39
10. Public Administration and Defence	18.29	—	18.29	28.12	—	28.12	45.71	—	45.71
11. Services	6.84	9.28	16.12	12.08	11.87	23.95	22.57	14.49	37.06
12. Net Domestic Product at Factor Cost	35.68	265.90	301.58	59.72	340.53	400.25	99.72	432.74	532.46
13. Less Income to Abroad (1)		-57.63	-57.63		-65.49	-65.49		-95.33	-95.33
14. Net National Product at Factor Cost ... ... (National Products)	35.68	208.27	243.95	59.72	275.04	334.76	99.72	337.41	437 13

(1) Almost all the income to abroad is representing the share of the oil companies in the profits from crude oil extraction.

TABLE (16)

Subsistence National Income, 1953-1956
(ID. Million)

	At Current Prices				At 1956 Prices			
	1953	1954	1455	1956	1953	1954	1955	1956
1. Agriculture								
1.1—Field Crops ...	10.08	12.03	9.77	14.90	13.56	21.39	10.62	14 90
1.2—Vegetables ...	1.23	1.40	0.80	1.41	1.51	2.06	0.82	1.41
1.3—Fruit and Dates ...	0.70	0.70	0.72	0.67	0.73	0.91	0.71	0.67
1.4—Livestock ...	6.81	8.69	6.74	8.95	7.72	9.60	7.05	8.95
1.5—Forestry...	0.13	0.14	0.16	0.15	0.14	0.15	0.15	0.15
1.6—Fishing ...	0.10	0.13	0.14	0.15	0.13	0.14	0.15	0.15
Total Agriculture ...	19.05	23.09	18.33	26.23	23.79	34.25	19.50	26.23
2. Manufacturing ...	0.20	0.20	0.20	0.20	0.20	0.20	0.20	0.20
3. Construction... ...	0.58	0.39	0.60	0.61	0.58	0.59	0.60	0.61
4. Ownership of Dwellings ...	4.38	4.49	4.60	4.68	4.36	4.46	4.56	4.68
Total Subsistance National Income ...	24.21	28.17	23.73	31.72	28.93	39.50	24.86	31.72
National Income	243.95	284.02	289.28	334.76	262.82	322.63	298.97	334.76
Subsistence National Income as a percentage of total National Income	9.9	9.9	8.2	9.5	11.0	12.2	8.3	9.5
Subsistence National Income in Agriculture as a percentage of total value added in Agriculture	27.0	27.6	28.5	29.8	27.8	30.1	28.5	29 8

TABLE (17)

Regional Distribution of the National Income, 1956

Province	National Income (Net National Product)		National Income (Excl. Oil Revenues)			Average per Capita Income	
	ID.000	%	ID.000	%	Population* 000	Incl. Oil Revenues ID.	Excl. Oil Revenues ID.
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Mosul	30807	9.2	28417	10.7	735	41.9	38.7
Arbil	10769	3.2	10769	4.0	269	40.0	40.0
Kirkuk	51718	15.5	16948	6.4	383	135.0	44.3
Sulaimaniyah	11386	3.4	11386	4.3	295	38.6	38.6
Baghdad	99123	29.6	94407	35.5	1285	77.1	73.5
Diyalah	12188	3.6	12188	4.6	326	37.4	37.4
Ramadi	17472	5.2	7846	2.9	241	72.5	32.6
Hilla	13291	4.0	13291	5.0	348	38.2	38.2
Kerbela	6611	2.0	6611	2.5	216	30.6	30.6
Kut	9297	2.8	9297	8.5	285	34.5	34.5
Basrah	38578	11.5	21220	3.5	285	34.5	34.5
Diwaniyah	12484	3.7	12484	4.7	524	23.8	23.8
Nasiriyah	9832	2.9	9832	3.7	449	21.9	21.9
Amarah	11199	3.4	11199	4.2	325	34.5	34.5
TOTAL	334755	100.0	265895	100.0	6176		

*The 1956 figures were interpolated separately from the population of each province in the adjusted 1947 and 1957 Census of population.

TABLE (18)

Comparison of Estimates of the National Income of Iraq, 1950-1963
ID. Million

	Fenelon		Manlakin		Haseeb	
	At Current prices	At 1956 prices	At Current prices	At 1956 prices	At Current prices	At 1956 prices
1950	158	165	—	—	—	—
1951	184	179	—	—	—	—
1952	217	199	—	—	—	—
1953	259	276	—	—	243.9	262.8
1954	268	291	—	—	284.0	322.6
1955	289	307	—	—	289.3	299.0
1956	303	303	291.7	291.7	334.8	334.8
1957	—	—	298.0	290.1	352.7	348.4
1958	—	—	318.6	317.8	374.0	363.2
1959	—	—	379.8	373.3	391.6	368.6
1960	—	—	431.0	422.1	437.1	412.7
1961	—	—	—	—	484.2	468.6
1962	—	—	—	—	526.5	503.1
1963	—	—	—	—	515.4	489.5

PART II

SOURCES AND METHODS OF ESTIMATION

The following gives a brief summary of the information used and methods applied in processing this information to estimate the value added in each sector.

1 - Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing :-

This sector was dealt with in six parts, namely :-
1. Field Crops, 2. Vegetables, 3. Dates and Fruits. 4. Livestock and Livestock Products, 5. Foretsry and 6. Fishing.

1 - 1. Field Crops :

The value added of field crops is estimated in stages. The physical output of each crop is first determined on the basis of the area under which the crop concerned was sown and harvested, and the yield per meshara (donum) (18). The quantity is then valued at the appropriate prices. The value of by-products, if any, has to be added to it and deductions for production costs have to be made. The resulting figures are the value added of field crops.

The physical output of field crops except cotton and tobacco, is estimated for each province separately from the adjusted annual returns of the Ministry of Agriculture which maintains figure for the area cultivated and average yield of each of these crops and for each province separately. The Ministry of Agriculture returns were adjusted by applying to them a correction coefficient representing the ratio of the quantity produced of each crop in 1958 as revealed by the 1958/59 Census of Agriculture to that returned by the Ministry of Agriculture. For raw cotton (unginned), the quantity produced during the period under review is estimated on the basis of quantities which ar-

(18) The standard unit used in Iraq for Land Measurement is the Meshara "Donum".

One Meshara (or donum) = 0.62 acres = 2.500 square metres.
Four Meshara = one hectare.

rived at the cotton ginneries for tobacco,. the cultivation and sale of which is under the control of the Tobacco Monopoly (T.M.). the output is estimated on the basis of the quantities sold to the TM with some allowance for subsistence output and illegal sales.

Except for tobacco and cotton, the quantity of each crop for each province was valued by taking a weighted average of the average monthly prices in the Provincial Centres for the twelve monthly prices in the Provincial Centres for the twelve months following the beginning of the harvest. The prices used for the basic year were the "Istihlak" (Consumption) prices maintained by the government authorities on the basis of which the Istihlak tax is levied on the marketed crops, and the Baghdad, Mosul and Basrah Chambers of Commerce wholesale prices were used for later years. The weights used for the monthly prices were the quantities marketed and consumed (subsistence output each month for a base year. For cotton, a weighted average of the Baghdad 12 average Monthly Wholesale Prices, published in the Statistical Abstract, were used. For tobacco, the Monopoly prices are used for the valuation of the output sold to the T.M. while the subsistence and illegally sold output is valued at the estimated prices ruling in the black market.

No value of fodder crops of by-products (mainly straw) is added, since most of their supply is meant for feeding the livestock, and they will neither be included as an output item under field crops nor deducted as a cost item in the livestock.

The cost of production (including seeds; wastage; fertilisers; maintenance cost of service animals; fuels and oil and current repairs of agricultural machinery and implements; marketing charges and depreciation), was estimated on the basis of different information obtained and the value added was then arrived at.

1 - 2. Vegetables :

The value added of vegetables was estimated by stages. First of all the output of each type of vegetables for 1958 - 1963 was estimated from the returns of the Agricultural Economics Department of the Ministry off Agriculture, which are not available for the earlier period. To these quantities we applied an average price of each type based on a simple average of the lowest three monthly retail prices (available for for 1955 and 1957-63 from the same department) in each province for each vegetable. with these provinces average prices weighted by their output in 1960 to arrive at the national averages. These retail prices were adjujsted to wholesale prices on the basis of local enquiries made in Baghdad, which is estimated at about 73 percent of retail prices.

The value of gross output of vegetables during 1953-57 was then estimated by applying to the 1961 value the quantum index number of field crops, and then using the available 1955 and 1957 vegetables prices (adjujsted to wholesale prices) and the wholesale price index of field crops, we estimated the value of G.O. during 1953-1963.

Input items, including wastage, were estimated on the basis of local enquiries. Subsistence value added is estimated as 10 percent of the total value added.

1 . . 3. *Fruit and Dates :-*

Fruit :

The value of gross output of fruits for 1958 was first estimated on the basis of the physical output of each type of fruit in 1958, as revealed by the 1958-59 Census of Agriculture, and the retail prices of the Ministry of Agriculture, using a simple average of the lowest two monthly prices in each province for each fruit in 1958 to arrive at the national average price. Retail average prices were converted to wholesale prices on the basis of information obtained from the Baghdad Chamber of Commerce.

For the estimation of the value of gross output for 1953 - 1957 and 1959 - 1963, we applied to the estimated 1958 value of gross output the quantum index number of field crops during the period, and the adjusted retail prices (in wholesale prices) of the Ministre of Agriculture for

1955, 1957 and 1959-1963, and the index number of wholesale prices of field crops for the rest of the period for which fruit prices are not available.

Inputs, including wastage, were estimated on the basis of local enquiries. Subsistence output is roughly estimated as 10 percent of total value added.

Dates:

Figures of the output of dates, mostly unpublished were obtained from the Data Organisation directly. The output of the varieties subject to the Monopoly agreements, between the Date Organisation and the Iraqi Date Trade Company in Basrah and the Middle Region Date Trade Company in Baghdad, was valued at the Monopoly prices. Istihlak prices were used for the valuation of the output of the varieties in the provinces and/or of the years, which were not covered by the Monopoly agreements.

Inputs and subsistence output were estimated on the basis of local enquiries.

1 - 4. Livestock and Livestock Products :

The number of each species of livestock population was estimated first on the basis of the 1946 and 1956 figures of the Veterinary Department and certain local enquiries.

The value of the output of *meat, hides, skins, offals, hoves, tips and similar products* was estimated on the basis of the number of animals slaughtered obtained from the Veterinary Department, adjusted to account for illicit slaughtering and slaughter of animals in homes, multiplated with an estimated average dressed weight for each species obtained from the Animal Husbandry Division of the Ministry of Agriculture, and then valued by using the available monthly wholesale prices of mutton and beef in Mosul, Baghdad, with certain adjustments for goat, buffalo, and camel meat. On the basis of local enquiries it was assumed that the value of skins, hides, viscera, limbs, heads and other by-products of the livestock slaughtered to be equal to expenses and profits of the wholesale trade which should have been deducted from the value of gross output of meat.

The value of *milk and milk products* was estimated by determining first the number of milking animals of each type and species, based on local enquiries on the proportion of each species which are milkers and an average yields of milk for each species based on different published and unpublished estimates made in this respect. The total milk production is then divided into its different utilizations, and using the conversion factors of milk to milk products, obtained from the Animal Husbandry Division we estimated the quantities of the different kinds of milk products. Wholesale prices of milk and ghee available in the S.A. and Istihlak prices of ghee were used for valuation by valuing some of the milk products on the basis of the value of quantities of milk utilized for this purpose. Marketing charges were assumed as 10 percent of the wholesale value.

The value of *wool, goat hair, and camel hair,* was estimated on the basis of the percentage of sheep, goat, and camels sheared or clipped, and the yield per each, all of which based on local enquiries and some unpublished reports. Wholesale prices published in the S.A. were used, and marketing charges were then estimated.

The value of *dung for fuel* was estimated on the basis of local information obtained and the average quantity of dung evacuate by each species ,the proportion of this which is used by the farmers as fuel and for heating purposes, and the proportion marketed to city dwellers, together with the prices concerned. This estimate was checked by estimating the expenditure on dung for fuel from the 1954 Household Budget Enquiry.

The value of *poultry (meat and eggs)* was estimated by determining first the poultry population which was based on the adjusted expenditure on eggs as revealed by the 1954 Household Budget Enquiry, together with the average price per egg and the average value of eggs laid per hen, which gives us the number of hens in 1954. To this we applied the ratio of hens to the total number of poultry as estimated by the Animal Husbandry Division. The annual rate of increase applied was based on information obtained from 122 villages.

The output of eggs for human consumption was valued at an average price which is a simple average of the lowest six monthly wholesale prices of eggs in Baghdad, published in the S.A. Marketing expenses are estimated as 10 percent of the wholesale value.

The number of birds killed for meat each year and the composition of these birds were estimated by the use or the results of a "Model" which was built up for poultry on the basis of some information collected for this purpose. These were then valued at an average price derived from the unpublished monthly retail prices of chickens in provinces during 1957-1960 which were adjusted to ex-farm prices, and the index number of prices of meat.

The same prices were used to estimate the value of poultry exported, the number of which is published in the Trade figures.

The increment to the stocks of poultry was valued at the same producers' prices used for birds killed and exported.

The value of the output of *honey* was estimated on the basis of the adjusted number of beehives reported in the 1958/59 Census of Agriculture and an average income per beehive, obtained from the farmers in the Sulaimaniyah province.

For the value of *net exports of livestock,* the number of livestock exported, by species, was estimated from the Annual Foreign Trade Statistics, adjusted for illicit exports. Export prices were adjusted to ex-farm prices.

The *increment to stock* of livestock was estimated from the figures of livestock population estimated earlier to which we applied, with certain exceptions, the average ex-farm prices used earlier for exports valuation.

The *maintenance cost* of livestock (inputs) was then estimated. No deduction was necessary for the expense of straw, grass, and other items the value of which has been deliberately excluded from our calculation of agricultural output. The items to be deducted are the cost of concentrates; i.e. of grain, cotton seed, etc. Maintenance cost will be deducted here in respect of sheep, goats, cattle, buffaloes and milking camels. The maintenance cost of camels for services, horses, mules, and asses, which are all used for services in agriculture, was deducted as a cost of production from the agricultural output.

On the basis of unpublished information and local enquiries the average cost of items, as qualified above, used for the maintenance per head of each species was estimated, which was then applied to the number of each species of livestock which needs maintenance, with some differentiation between those kept on the farms and those in the towns.

By deducting the maintenance cost from the value of all livestock and livestock products estimated above, the value added is estimated.

Subsistence output of each type was estimated on the basis of local enquiries.

1 - 5. Fishing :

The value added of fishing was estimated on the basis of the Istihlak tax returns of fish marketed during 1952/53 and 1953/54, adjusted for tax fraud and tax evasion and for subsistence output ; FAO Yearbook of Fisheries Statistics figures on production of fish in Iraq during 1953-1956 ; the rate of increase of the urban population ; and the Official Index Number of Wholsale Prices of Meat and Milk Products in Baghdad. Inputs were estimated as 20 percent of the value of gross output.

1 - 6. Forestry :

This included fire-wood and charcoal; timber for building purposes ; gull-nut, gum, green seed, sumach, etc.; and reeds and liquarice roots.

The value added of charcoal and firewood was estimated from the estimated of F.W. Chapman, an expert in Forests with a long experience in Iraq, on marketed output with an estimate of Subsistence Output, making use of the wholesale price of charcoal in Baghdad and firewood in Mosul and the Official Wholesale Price Index of Fuel in Baghdad.

The value added of the rest of the forestry products was estimated on the basis of the interpolated 1952 Istihlak tax returns on these products, adjusted for tax evasion and tax fraud and for subsistene output, together with the rate of increase of the rural population. Marketing expenses were estimated as 10 percent of the value of gross output.

2 - *Mining and Quarrying*

1. Crude Oil Extraction :

This includes the crude oil extraction by I.P.C., B.P.C., M.P.C., and K.O.C. We have included all the value added of the crude oil industry in Iraq in the domestic product, and then treated the oil companies' share of the profits, including undistributed profits, as property income paid abroad, when arriving at the national income or national product.

The value added was built up by the distributive share approach and has been estimated by adding together the wages and salaries paid in Iraq; twice the 50 percent profits paid to the Iraqi Government; and interest paid in Iraq. Rent is insignificant and was not accounted for. The information necessary for the above items were obtained from the Oil Companies concerned.

For the value added of crude oil of the three oil companies at 1956 prices, we used the index number of the physical output of crude oil of each company during 1953-1963 with the 1056 value added of each company. For the value added of K.O.C. at 1956 prices, which is negligible, we used for deflation the Index Number of Average Earnings in the Manufacture Industry in Iraq during 1953-1963.

2 - 2. Other Mining and Quarrying :

This includes stone quarrying, clay (including earth), sand and gravel, and salt.

The value added in stone quarrying was estimated on the basis of the adjusted figures of the 1954 Industrial Census and the ndex of the number of the cost of new building licences. That of clay was estimated on the basis of special enquiries in respect of the cost of clay used in the brick making industry, where is mainly used, in 1953 with the index of the cost of new building licences for later years. As to sand and gravel, which are mainly used by mixing them with cement, for concrete manufacture (or mixed with cement concrete is used), or in brick making (in respect of sand), or in other minor use like gardens etc. The value added is estimated on the basis of quantities of cement used in concrete making and quantities of sand and gravel mixed with it with prices obtained from local enquiries ; cost of road construction and the percentage of the cost which represents the cost of sand and gravel, net of transport changes ; the value of brick used ; with a token allowance for the minor uses. The value added of salt which is a monopoly of the Government, was estimated as equal to the actual cost incurred by the authorities in this respect. as the salt prices charged by the Government bears little relations to the cost incurred and the profits seem to be akin to indirect taxes and are best treated as such.

3 - Manufacturing

3 - 1. Manufacturing other than oil refining :

Due to the nature of the available information, the estimation of the value added during 1953-1963 at current and at 1956 prices was attempted in four stages. Firstly, the value added in 1953 was estimated ; secondly, the 1962 value added was attempted ; thirdly the value added during 1953-1961 and for 1963 at current prices was attempted ; and fourthly, the value added of 1953-1963 at constant (1956) prices was estimated.

The value added in 1953 was estimated on the basis of the 1954 Industrial Census, adjusted for incomplete coverage and under or over-statement of the returns, and the yet unpublished returns of a survey undertaken by the Iraqi Federation of Industries analysing the accounts of about 60 large industrial establishments between 1956 and 1961 which accounted for over 30 percent of the output of all manufacturing establishments in Iraq, in 1961.

The value added in 1962 was estimated on the basis of the results of the 1962 Monthly Industrial Survey, undertaken by the Central Statistics Office (C.S.O.) in respect of establishments employing ten persons or more each the adjusted returns of C.S.O. in respect of manufacturing establishments employing under 10 persons each in June 1962 and December, adjusted for a yearly coverage; and the returns of the survey of the Federation of Industries.

For the value added during 1954-1961 and for 1963, and for the value added during 1953-1963 at constant prices, we relied on many sources of information including the Annual Returns of the then Directorate General of Industry in respect of certain groups of principal industries for the period 1953/54 to 1956/57; the results of the Survey of the Federation of Industries, the yet unpublished returns of the 1963 Monthly Industrial Survey, the index of the number of new building licences for the production of building materials, and figures on actual production and prices of certain industries and production and prices of certain industries and products.

3 - 2. *Oil Refining :*

Oil refined is defined to include oil products distribution (filling stations) as well, as the accounts published cover the two processes jointly. Enough information and details were available and were obtained from the Government Oil Refineries Administration for purpose of estimating the value added.

4 - *Construction :*

The estimation of the value added in construction was approached in two stages; in the first stage the value added of the building industry was determined, based in the main on the licences (published by the C.S.O.) combined with information on the cost of constructing such buildings and distribution of this cost over the different elements, based on the C.S.O. as well as local enquiries and interviews. Rural buildings were accounted for. In the second stage the value added of construction other than buildings was estimated from the expenditure of government and public authorities on such construction works, obtained from their accounts, as well as the Census of Construction from 1961 and 1962, and the proportion of such expenditure which represents the value added of these activities, based on special enquiries and interviews, as well as the Census of Construction of 1961 and 1962, undertaken by the C.S.O. in respect of the elements we are concerned with.

5 - *Electricity and Water :*

This industry with the exception of the pre-1958 period, is run by public bodies of one form or another. Detailed actual accounts, mostly unpublished, were obtained from them (including the pre-1958 private Baghdad Light and Power Company Limited) which provided us with detailed information on gross output and inputs. On the basis of these accounts, and with a rough estimate of the insignificant value added of the private establishments during 1953-1955, the value added in Electricity and Water was estimated for 1953-1963 at current prices. The value added at constant prices was estimated for 1953-1963 at current prices. The value added at constant prices was estimated with the help of a specially constructed "weighted index number of the number of units of water and electricity produced" for deflating the gross output, and the official Index Number of Wholesale Prices of Fuels in Baghdad for deflating the input.

6 - *Transport, Communications, and Storage :*

The methods used in estimating the value added of the different means of transport, of communication and storage, differed according to the information available. For Public Enterprises such as the Iraqi Railways, the

Ports Administration, the Iraqi Airways, the Post Office, nad the silos operated by the Grain Board, the financial accounts of these enterprises are used as a basis for estimating their value added. For most of the road transport, the number of taxis, buses, lorries, horse-drawn passenger carriages and horse-drawn wagons are available, and with certain adjustments, these figures were combined with an estimate of an average value of gross output and input per vehicle of each type to obtain the value added. For the rest of the sector, mainly river transport, branches of Air Companies, and porterage, the employment figures were estimated and used with an estimated average of value added per person employed in such activities, based on different enquiries.

7 - *Wholesale and Retail Trade :*

The value added in 1955 was first estimated on the basis of the adjusted turnover returns of the 1956 Census of Distribution (in respect of the turnover in 1955) as well as the special enquiries made through the Chambers of Commerce (as well as other sources) in regard of the "Cost of the goods sold" and the cost of materials and services bought from other sections. We then applied to the 1955 value added a composite indicator representing imports and transit trade + marketed agricultural output + gross manufacturing output (at both current and at constant prices) and estimated the value added in the rest of the period at current and at constant prices.

8 - *Banking, Insurance and Real Estate :*

This includes Banks, Sarrafs, Post Office Saving Deposits, Insurance and Real Estate.

In estimating the value added of banking (the first three items mentioned above) in Iraq we have followed the reccommendations of the Statistical Office of the United Nations by evaluating it as the sum of wages and salaries, profits, net rents, and provisions for the consumption of fixed capital. An attempt is also made to estimate the imputed service charges recommended in the case of banking and to split it into final and intermediate products according to a rough estimate of the ratio of personal deposits to business deposits. The imputed charges to business was then split between the different business sectors (industries). The value added, thus defined, was estimated on the basis of the actual accounts of most of the banks, supplemented with information obtained from the Census of Services 1957, with the total deposits (credits in respect of the Central Bank and loans in respect of the specialized public banks) as an indicator for the value added at constant prices.

The value added in Insurance was estimated on the basis of the information on net premiums received and net incurred losses by all insurance companies published in the Statistical Abstract, the special report of the Directorate General of Companies and Registration on Insurance, together with information on premiums, losses, and the profits and loss account of the National Insurance Company for the whole period, and the accounts of two other big insurance companies for 1959-1963.

The value added of Real Estate covered Estate Companies and House Brokers. For Estate Companies, the detailed accounts of one large company in 1960 and 1961 was used, and with the information available on the paid up capital of these companies in these two years, and with the index of the "number of new Building licences" and the Official Wholesale Price Index as an indicator for the rest of the period and for the value added by House Brokers was estimated on the basis of their number as given in the 1957 Census of Services, and an average value added per broker based on local enquiries. This value added was taken constant throughout, as it is believed that there was very little increase in the number of houses for letting and most of the new houses are owner-occupied.

9 - *Ownership of Dwellings :*

The value added in this sector included the net rental value of dwellings, whether rented of owner-occupied (imputed rent).

The value added in 1956 was first estimated on the basis of the number of urban and rural houses (rented and owner-occupied) estimated from the Housing Census of 1956 and the urban and the rural population in that year. To the figures of rented houses we applied an average rent derived from the Housing Census. For owner-occupied houses an average rent for each locality was estimated as a percentage of the average rental value of the rented houses in that locality on the basis of unpublished data collected from the Property Tax Authorities. Current expenses were then estimated and deducted. For the rental value during 1953-1955 and 1957-1963 we applied the index number of the urban and rural population in those years to their respective net rental values in 1956, with some allowances for the changes in the average rent since 1959.

10 - Public Adminisration and Defence :

This sector is confined to the "Public Administration and Defence" sector suggested by the U.N. for the industral classification of the gross domestic product, with the exception that it covers, in addition to public administration and defence, government services in the field of agriculture, forestry, irrigation, and industry and a few others. This extension is necessitated by the nature of the data available and because they are of a relatively little significance. But it does not cover the government services in the field of education, health, and veterinary services, which are included in the "Services" sector, not does it include the activities of the government institutions, covered in this sector, in the form of construction activities which were included in the construction sector.

For most of these government services, there is no market price and they are conventionally valued at cost. The value added (net output) of these services is taken as "consisting of compensation of employees and rent, including imputed rent on building owned and occupied by civilian branches of the government (office premises, schools, hospitals, etc., but not museums and similar buildings)".

Government accounts are available for fiscal years (1st April - 31st March), and are mostly closed (actual) accounts.

The 1952/3 - 1960/1 accounts of the Iraqi Government Central and provincial) are published, and those for 1961/2 to 1963/4 are unpublished accounts obtained by the writer from the Directorate General of Accounts. All the rest of the accounts, of the local administrations, the municipalities, the grain board, directorate general of Date Association, the Awqaf Administration, and few others, are unpublished and were obtained from the departments concerned in as much detail as was necessary for our purpose.

Enough details are given in these accounts to enable us to estimate the compensation of employees in the way defined above. Only in a few cases, which are quantitatively of little importance the labour payment were hidden with other current purchases and a split was necessary, for which certain assumptions were made on the basis of whatever information is available, though some of these decisions were arbitrary.

Rents paid are available in the different accounts consulted. The imputed rent of the buildings owned and occupied by the civilian branches of the government was estimated on the basis of the number of provinces, districts (Qadha) and sub-districts (Nahiyah), the types and number of administrations existing in each of them, and an arbitrary average rental value of each. However, the resulting estimates of the imputed rents are likely to contain a wide margin of error, and this should be emphasised, although no more accurate method was possible.

For the value added at constant prices, an estimated index number of the average earnings per permanent civil servant employed by the Public Administration of the Ministry of Interior between 1953 and 1961 was used to revalue the value added (income arising) at 1956 prices, except for clothes and food allowances, where the official cost of living index of clothes and food were used respectively. The same price relations between 1956 and 1961 was applied to 1962 and 1963.

11 - Services :

This sector covers groups 821-849 (inclusive) of the ISIC with two minor exceptions. First, the services of consulting engineers and architects are excluded, as they were included in the "Construction Sector". Second, the operation of lock-up garages, and stables (Commercial), are included in this sector instead of "Banks, Insurance and Real Estate" as suggested in the UN Standard Tables. Apart from these two exceptions, which are insignificant, this sector corresponds to the UN Standard Tables suggested by the Statistical Office of the United Nations for the industrial classification of gross domestic product 19.

Not all the necessary information to estimate the value added of these activities is available, with the exception of government services in the fields of education and health. Where output figures exist, they are mostly for one year. Employment figures are available for some of them, and only the number of establishments is available for others. It was therefore necessary to use different sources of information, with different degrees of reliability, in a few cases amounting to sheer guesses.

For some of these services, the Census of Services and Service Industries in Iraq for 1957 (20) (in respect of 1956 for the returns of output, wages and salaries, and rents) was used to estimate their value added in 1956. For some of the others, employment figures were available which were combined with average value added per person engaged, estimated from whatever information is available. Where the number of establishments only is available, an average number of persons employed by these establishments was estimated, and the resulting employment figures were used in conjunctions with average value added per person engaged, in order to estimate the value added of those establishments. For the value added in the other years, where the same set of figures is not available for all the period under review, and for output at constant (1956) prices when no direct indicator is available, the rate

(19) *A System of National Accounts and Supporting Tables, op. cit.*, p. 40.

(20) Principal Bureau of Statistics, Ministry of Economics, Government of Iraq, "Report on the Census of Services and Service Industries in Iraq for 1957" (Government Press, Baghdad 1958). The report is of two identical parts: one in English and the other in Arabic.

of increase of the urban population and the official cost of living index number of unskilled labourers in Baghdad or its component indexes were used.

12 - *Net Factor Income Payments to the Rest of the World:*

This was estimated from the details available in the I.M.F. Balance of Payments Yearbook. For the Net Factor Incomes at constant prices, the item was split into two parts. The first one representing the shares of the profits of the oil companies which represent most of the items, which was estimated by revaluing the crude oil produced by the oil companies at 1956 prices and then deducting from it the 1956 "fixed costs" and taking 50 per cent of the rest which represents the profits of the oil companies at 1956 prices. The second, i.e. the net income to abroad, other than the share of profits of the oil companies, we applied the official wholesale price index. We thus estimated the net factor income payments to the rest of the world at 1956 prices.

ETUDE COMPAREE DE LA REVOLUTION DE JUILLET 1952 AVEC D'AUTRES REVOLUTIONS MODERNES*

par le

Professeur Dr. AHMED SOWELEM EL-EMARY

AVANT-PROPOS

Ce sujet retient l'attention par son originalité est la multitude des révolutions socialistes que nous vivons, et qui sont le nouveau visage du monde actuel. Ces révolutions cherchent à résoudre par des mesures draconiennes et non par l'évolution lente et hésitante les problèmes dont souffrent les peuples minés par les guerres, les crises économiques et sociales et la surpopulation. Ces révolutions diffèrent des révolutions de la fin du dix-huitième siècle qui furent des révolutions politiques des philosophes à la recherche d'une égalité politico-juridique. basée sur la déclaration des droits de l'homme et de la souveraineté du peuple.

On va essayer de traiter le sujet en s'intéressant aux définitions de la révolution. On va étudier également les sortes de révoltes et révolutions, puis les moyens de les réaliser et la façon dont elles se déclanchent. Ensuite, on demontrera que "les fins justifient les moyens", pour réaliser les réformes tant désirées par des peuples qui se soulèvent contre les régimes stagnants. Dans cette étude, on ne manquera pas aussi de citer quelques exemples des révolutions de notre époque actuelle avec les réformes et les idéologies.

Finalement, on démontrera les deux côtés utopiste et réaliste des révolutions, tout en composant une comparaison avec notre chère révolution de Juillet 1952 ascendante et bienfaisante.

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*Résumé de la conférence publiée en arabe dans ce même numéro.

LA DEFINITION

Définir avec précision la révolution en générale n'est pas tâche aisée. La révolution, qui indique une situation abstraite avec des conséquences qui bouleversent et renversent la structure politico-sociale et le régime établi pour ériger sur parfois des décombres un nouveau régime basé sur les principes révolutionnaires, ne peut avoir une définition acceptable par tous les auteurs et spécialistes. Elle part des troubles, coups d'Etat, sédition, pronunciamento, révolte pour aller jusqu'à la tourmente de la révolution à la façon de la révolution française de 1789 et de la révolution bolchévique de 1917. Mais il ne faut pas croire que le fer et le sang sont indispensables pour réussir une révolution. Car, on peut réussir et réaliser les rêves de ses précurseurs et meneurs sans recourir à la terreur.

La définition linguistique de la révolution d'après le dictionnaire "Petit Littré" est comme suit : "Changement dans les choses du monde, dans les opinion, etc..." Aussi: "Changement brusque et violent dans la politique et le gouvernement d'un Etat", et aussi "La révolution, système d'opinions composées d'hostilité au passé et de recherche d'un nouvel avenir". Le philosophe Littré donne une définition réussie de la révolution comme suit : "La révolution est une transition entre un ordre ancien qui tombe en ruine et un ordre nouveau qui se fonde".

Quant aux stades, moyens, meneurs et profiteurs de la révolution les penseurs et hommes d'Etat n'ont pas manqué de les décrire. Le Duc de la Rouchefoucauld dit au Roi pour marquer la différence entre une révolte et une révolution : "Sire, ce n'est pas une révolte, c'est une révolution." Aussi, Napoléon Bonaparte dit en ce qui concerne ceux qui font les révolutions et ceux qui en profitent : "Dans les révolutions, il y a deux sortes de gens, ceux qui les font et ceux qui en profitent."

Enfin, Jaurès, le socialiste pacifiste français qui avait foi dans la conscience des hommes, dit : "Il n'y peut y avoir révolution que là où il y a conscience."

En bref, on peut donner comme définition indicative de la révolution la suivante : "La révolution c'est l'état dynamique jusqu'à l'extrême d'une nation où une société politique déjà organisée qui subit des mesures draconiennes avec parfois un bouleversement total, dans le but de bâtir une société nouvelle rejoiinant les idéologies, les philosophies et les utopies avec les programmes pratiques des réformes."

LES ASPECTS ET LES MOYENS

L'individu, d'après les philosophies de la Grèce Antique, est un animal politique. Il ne peut se dispenser des entre-aides et des services réciproques et mutuels pour acquérir ses besoins et assurer son pain quotidien. De même, la vie politique est Ce dynamisme peut aller jusqu'à la tourmente de la révolution avec la terreur et la guillotine pour épurer, réaliser et bâtir.

Mais la revolution n'éclate pas instantanément. Elle a ses précurseurs et ses origines intellectuelles, et sa réussite ne réside pas simplement dans les essais et idéologies des philosophes comme Platon dans sa "république", Campanella dans "Cité Soleil", Thomas More et son "Utopie", Saint-Simon et son programme socialiste basé sur l'intervention de l'Etat, le planning, la stratégie économique et la technologie, Fourier et son rêve de dissoudre l'Etat dans la société, Robert Owen et ses associations libres et co-opératives pour aider les petits propriétaires à combattre le monopole, Proudhon et ses attaques contre la propriété qui ne remplit pas sa vraie mission de servir l'humanité en disant par exemple : "la propriété c'est le vol", Cabet et "Le voyage sur l'île de l'Icarie", Louis Blanc et les ateliers nationaux, Marx et son matérialisme historique et sa prédiction de la fin du capitalisme par l'appropriation de la communauté de la propriété, biens et outils de la production, Lenine et sa conviction que l'atelier remplacera l'Etat et sa propagande pour sauver le nouveau régime bolchévique par le slogan adressé aux soldats et paysans : "Paix et terre". Mais le succès est dû également à la ténacité des promoteurs et la volonté du peuple. On n'oublie pas également les révolutions basées sur la liberté individuelle, le respect du travail, le "habaes corpus" et "my home is my castle" et le gouvernement du peuple, par le peuple et pour le peuple. Il ne faut pas oublier aussi les cris révolutionnaires suivants de Patrick Henry haranguant le 23 mars 1775 la seconde convention révolutionnaire américaine, réunie à Richmond en Virginie : "La vie nous est-elle si chère ou la paix si douce que nous l'achetions au prix des chaînes et de l'esclavage ? Empêchez cela, Dieu Tout Puissant ! Je ne sais pas quel est le chemin que d'autres pourront suivre, mais en ce qui me concerne, donnez-moi la liberté ou donnez-moi la mort !" Enfin, on peut citer les principes essentiels des droits de l'homme qui résident dans : "Liberté, égalité et fraternité" comme slogan de la Révolution française.

Ainsi fut la cavalcade des pensées et des révolutions sociales et politiques à travers les siècles jusqu'au communisme actuel, son dialectique matériel, la dictature du prolétariat et la préparation à la révolution universelle. Puis l'antithèse du matérialisme historique propagée par l'existentialisme et l'existence avant l'essence de Sartre, et la libre action de l'individu qui le mène à son bonheur ou à son malheur et la disparition de la civilisation par la bombe atomique.

Il ne faut pas aussi oublier que le milieu physique et géographique agit sur les mouvements politiques et les perturbations des peuples. Ce fut la thèse défendue par Ibn-Khaldûn, Montesquieu et Siegfried. Le Bassin Méditerranéen, d'après Siegfried, fut influencé par le soleil, le vent, l'abondance de l'eau, la fécondité des terres, l'humidité, la chaleur, le désert, les vallées, les lever et les coucher du soleil brusques et la facilité des communications. Le Nord, habité par les Anglo-Saxons et les Peuples Germaniques, fut influencé par le froid, le brouillard, le temps sombre, et les tempêtes de grêle. Les peuples méditerranéens brillent, d'après l'auteur déjà indiqué, par l'éloquence ; ils se distinguent par les révolutions, le changement continuel des régimes et les lois écrites qui lièrent les gouvernements. Les peuples du Nord subissent une évolution basée sur la coutume et continuent l'effort par l'épargne, la coopération et les lois non écrites. Ainsi diffèrent les moyens et les fins des révolutions.

LES FINS

Les fins ne suivent pas toujours les lignes indiquées par les idéologistes et les promoteurs des révolutions. Il y a une différence à retenir l'attention entre le thème et l'application. On cherche à réaliser les rêves des utopistes pour le bonheur de l'individu et de la société politique.

L'égalité politique et juridique d'après les droits de l'homme, comme base des révolutions anglaise, américaine et française, ne fut qu'un mirage. Le prolétariat victime de la machine, la production en masse et la révolution industrielle tomba à la merci d'une liberté absolue qui le rendait vaincu et sans défense vis-à-vis des grandes entreprises.

Puis la marche du temps et des révolutions depuis la moitié du siècle dernier amena le suffrage universel et direct sans être conditionné par un impôt payé par le votant, la justice sociale, la législation ouvrière et industrielle avec les garanties économiques dans les préambules et textes des constitutions, le droit au travail aux assurances sociales et indemnités des accidents du travail. Les garanties économiques pour la protection de l'individu prirent une grande envergure à la suite des crises déclanchées par les deux guerres mondiales, le déclin de l'impérialisme, les rivalités internationales, le réveil des nations et continents opprimés et enfin le grave problème de la surpopulation.

Les révolutions continueront à la recherche du bonheur perdu et d'un paradis qui sauverait l'individu tombé vaincu par les crises. Mais ce ne fut qu'un mirage dans un vaste désert où l'être humain doit continuer sa marche pour atteindre l'oasis de l'espoir. Il y a la révolution russe avec son système du parti communiste unique, de la bureaucratie et du renforcement de l'Etat qui est théoriquement antagoniste avec la philosophie de la dictature du prolétariat et de la révolution universelle. Il y a également la révolution chinoise avec la réforme agraire et la lutte contre les éléments de la nature te la faim : car il est à remarquer que la Chine fut hantée depuis les siècles les plus reculés par le danger de la disette, au point que les chinois qui se saluent le matin disent les uns aux autres : "As-tu déjà mangé ?"

Il y a également notre grande révolution du 23 Juillet 1952 qui fut la marée montante de la jeunesss pour accomplir des réformes depuis les racines pour rebâtir sur les débris d'un régime politico-social stagnant. Cette révolution généreuse sert comme modèle aux peuples en voie de développement.

NOTRE REVOLUTION SOCIALISTE DU 23 JUILLET 1952

Notre révolution de Juillet 1952 est une révolution qui répond aux vœux et désirs de la nation toute entière et qui accomplit la tâche grandiose de bâtir une nouvelle structure sociale et économique un vrai eldorado sans diffusion d'une goutte de sang depuis son éclosion.

Elle trouvait son origine dans la lutte politique pour la liberté de l'individu, à l'instar des libertés anglaise, française et surtout américaine. Car notre révolution ressemble à la Révolution Américaine par la lutte âpre des deux contre la colonisation, l'impérialisme, l'occupation anglaise et pour réaliser la liberté du citoyen.

Elle est également socialiste et humaine en propageant ce qui est bon et généreux dans les cœurs des humains. La réforme agraire qu'elle décreta par les lois de 1952 et 1961, la liquidation de la féodalité forteresse des grands propriétaires terriens, la justice et assurances sociales en faveur des ouvriers et salariés, le planning industriel pour relever le niveau de vie, renforcer le potentiel économique et exploiter les ressources des richesses, la liquidation du monopole, de l'impérialisme de la domination du capital et son influence néfaste sur les destinées du pays, l'élimination des éléments étrangers et autres qui menacent la fortune nationale et la souveraineté du peuple, et enfin l'organisation de la liberté de l'individu et de la société pour réaliser un progrès que la simple évolution fut incapable de réaliser ; toutes ces réformes et autres qui trouvent leurs sources dans l'idéologie et le programme de la révolution sont les acquisitions précieuses de notre socialisme révolutionnaire arabe.

En outre, notre socialisme arabe a eu comme cadre non seulement le sol où naquit la révolution de Juillet 1952, mais il chercha à se répandre à travers les pays arabes pour mettre en pratique une philosophie politique arabe de l'unité qui répond à la resurrection du peuple arabe, à l'élan de la marche rapide vers une nouvelle destinée et un désir du peuple de vouloir vivre dans l'harmonie d'un ensemble commun.

La révolution de Juillet 1952, qui est le mouvement de la jeunesse pleine de foi dans l'avenir, a également son idéologie et ses grandes lignes politiques des relations extérieures. En plus, de l'unité arabe qu'elle prêcha avec foi, elle créa un bloc fort bravant les intrigues et manœuvres de l'impérialisme et du zionisme, sous l'appellation de tiers monde (un groupe des états d'Asie et d'Afrique en plus de la Yougoslavie) pour se mettre à l'abris de la guerre froide ou chaude et pour s'éloigner des alliances militaires. Notre chère révolution fonda, avec les pays des Accords de Bandœng, de Casablanca, d'Accra et d'Addis-Abéba, la politique de Neutralité et de neutralisme positif. Cette politique cherche également à appuyer avec force la paix et la lutte contre toute persécution et ségrégation, dans le cadre de la Charte des Nations Unies. Mais, elle ne manquera nullement de porter aide aux peuples amis pour pouvoir se libérer du joug de la colonisation, et elle leur prête les secours matériels et techniques nécessaires.

Ces principes et réformes sont également cités dans notre Charte Nationale de Mai 1962, qui cherche à organiser le capital comme fonction et non comme privilège d'exploitation d'autrui, à mettre fin à l'impérialisme, à l'influence étrangère néfaste, et au monopole. La Charte aussi cite parmi ces principes essentiels l'effort de l'Etat pour augmenter la richesse nationale, renforcer la politique de nationalisation y compris la nationalisation de la Compagnie Universelle du Canal Maritime de Suez et créer une armée solide pour défendre le sol national et l'Unité Arabe contre toute agression. Quant à l'idéologie arabe notre Charte insiste sur une fondation de base solide de l'Unité comme un fait accompli, d'après l'histoire, la civilisation, la conscience, le destin et la resurrection du peuple arabe.

En bref, on trouve que les moyens et les fins diffèrent d'après les révolutions ; et on voit l'imagination primant le savoir et la connaissance. Il va sans trop dire que l'imagination dépasse par son importance la connaissance ; et l'imagination c'est tout dans notre civilisation comme dit avec raison Anatole France.

LA METHODE SCIENTIFIQUE DANS NOTRE PHILOSOPHIE POLITIQUE REVOLUTIONNAIRE*

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par

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Loin d'être idéaliste, notre philosophie politique révolutionnaire est essentiellement scientifique. En effet, telle qu'elle est exprimée dans la Charte de 1962, elle procède des phénomènes sociaux et les analyse afin d'aboutir à des "régularités" et construit, en conséquence, un ordre scientifique valable pour résoudre un problème fondamental de la société politique, soit "le problème de la contradiction entre le pouvoir et la liberté".

En effet, en se basant sur l'observation et l'expérience nationale, et par conséquent loin de toute utopie, la philosophie de la Charte aboutit à des "régularités" précises, entre autres en ce qui concerna la question de la démocratie et celle de la propriété des moyens de production.

En ce qui a trait au problème de la "Démocratie", il est dit dans la Charte :

> "La profondeur de la prise de conscience et la volonté ferme de la Revolution établirent avec succès l'emblème de la démocratie saine parmi les six principes, tracèrent — à travers la réalité et l'expérience, dans l'espoir de l'avenir — la définition de la démocratie populaire... la démocratie de tout le peuple des travailleurs.
>
> 1. La démocratie politique ne peut être détachée de la démocratie sociale...
>
> 2. La démocratie politique ne peut se réaliser sous la domination d'une classe aux dépens des autres..."

La même méthode scientifique a été suivie en ce qui concerne le problème de la propriété des moyens de production. Pour résoudre ce problème, la philosophie de la Charte s'est également basée sur l'expérience nationale, sans toutefois renoncer à bénéficier de l'expérience des autres.

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*Résumé de la conférence publiée en arabe dans ce numéro.

Tout en maintenant l'aspect de la propriété indivduelle toutes les fois que cela était en harmonie avec nos traditions, la philosophie de la Charte a repoussé cet aspect lorsque notre expérience nationale nous apprenait qu'on se trouvait en présence d'une propriété exploitante. Notre expérience a démontré que la notion de "propriété droit" a abouti chez nous, en fait, à une sorte de propriété exploitante sous deux aspects, le capitalisme exploitant et la féodalité agraire. Ces deux aspects de la propriété aboutissent fatalement à la dépendance politique, comme résultat de la dépendance économique et, par conséquent, à la domination politique et à l'accaparement du pouvoir.

Par ailleurs — et profitant de l'expérience des autres, — la philosophie de notre Charte a repoussé l'idée de "l'Etat propriétaire" des moyens de production, comme substitut à la notion de "propriété droit" dans sa pratique exploitante. L'expérience, en effet, a démontré que le capitalisme d'Etat n'était en définitive qu'une sorte de propriété individuelle poussée à l'excès et présentant, par contre, pour la liberté une menace plus terrible. Concentrer la propriété capitaliste entre les mains de l'Etat, représenté par ses organes bureaucratiques, ne fait que renforcer à l'extrême le pouvoir politique au détriment de la liberté. Cette forme de la propriété capitaliste ne pouvait donc résoudre la question de la contradiction entre le pouvoir et la liberté et bien au contraire, elle ne fait que la compliquer au profit du "pouvoir".

Pour mettre fin au problème de la contradiction entre le pouvoir et la liberté, au profit de la liberté, la philosophie de la Charte a dû trouver un nouveau concept de la propriété. Ce concept est celui de la "propriété populaire".

La propriété des moyens de production dans la philosophie de la Charte est une propriété populaire, en ce sens qu'elle n'appartient en propre ni à l'individu, ni à l'Etat : il s'agit d'un droit exercé pour compte de la collectivité du peuple.

1. Soit par le procédé du secteur public, auquel se trouve transférée l'ancienne propriété capitaliste exploitante ;

2. Soit par l'individu à titre de fonction sociale exercée au nom et dans l'intérêt de la collectivité du peuple, toutes les fois que l'intérêt national exige l'adoption de ce concept de popriété. C'est la notion de "propriété fonction" au sens strict du terme.

Dans ce sens, il est dit dans la Charte que :

> "L'application arabe du socialisme dans le domaine de l'agriculture n'a pas foi dans la nationalisation de la terre et son intégration au secteur public, mais il a foi, en base de l'étude et de l'expérience, dans la propriété privée de la terre dans les limites qui excluent tout accaparement féodal."

Ces deux solutions positives aux problèmes de la démocratie politique et de la propriété des moyens de production, illustrent clairement le procédé scientifique adopté par la philosophie de la Charte pour affronter la grande question politique de la contradiction entre le pouvoir et la liberté.

La philosophie de la Charte en collectivisant le concept de la propriété a, par voie de conséquence, collectivisé le concept du "pouvoir politique", et en assurant la domination de la collectivite sur les moyens de production, la philosophie de la Charte a assuré la domination du peuple sur le pouvoir politique, par l'intermédiaire de l'Union Socialiste Arabe. Grâce à cette domination populaire sur la "décision politique", la liberté n'est plus menacée.

Cela dit, nous pouvons proposer un ordre scientifique pour notre philosophie politique révolutionnaire comme suit :

La philosophie de la Charte a repoussé les effets traditionnels de la contradiction entre le pouvoir et la liberté. Sa solution du problème, basée sur l'observation et l'expérience, se ramène aux points suivants :

1. La domination économique est un vestige de la propriété individuelle, sous sa forme exploitante ; la domination politique est le produit inéluctable de la domination économique. La contradiction profonde entre le pouvoir et la liberté au détriment de celle-ci, en est précisément le résultat.

2. Pour se débarrasser de cette contradiction, il faut refuser aussi bien à l'Etat qu'à l'individu le droit de propriété, car en tant que droit individuel, il donne naissance à la contradiction, et en tant que droit de l'Etat, il conduit à cette contradiction à ses extrêmes limites.

3. Le substitut à cela est précisément le concept de "propriété populaire", car le régime politique est le reflet nécessaire du régime économique, et le droit de pro-

priété populaire conduit au droit de la collectivité populaire au pouvoir politique, et c'est avec la collectivisation du pouvoir au profit du peuple que se trouve résolu le problème de contradiction entre le pouvoir et la liberté, au profit de celle-ci.

C'est ainsi que notre philosophie révolutionnaire procède de la contradiction entre le pouvoir et la liberté comme phénomène social, pour ensuite aboutir à une solution au profit de la liberté, tout en sauvegardant le concept "pouvoir" et "propriété". La collectivisation de la propriété n'a précisément été que l'instrument de la collectivisation du pouvoir au profit de la liberté en définitive.

Il convient de faire allusion ici à la méthode marxiste qui aboutit à des résultats en opposition totale avec ceux de notre conception politique révolutionnaire. En effet, Marx a procédé de la propriété comme "phénomène social" pour l'anéantir, en définitive, comme concept économique dans une société sans pouvoir politique ; alors que notre philosophie politique révolutionnaire procède du problème de la contradiction entre le pouvoir et la liberté afin de le résoudre au profit de la liberté, tout en sauvegardant la "propriété" comme concept économique et le "puovoir" comme concet politique.

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