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# THE BIRTH RATE AND FERTILITY TRENDS IN EGYPT

## (Summary and Conclusions)

by

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### INTRODUCTION.

Population problems are of paramount importance. They lie in the foundation of every political, social and economic problem. For a long time mortality has been the main factor in population movements. Now fertility is the main factor. The relation between the two cannot be ignored. In the measurement of population growth—which is the real aim of Demography—the two are equally important.

#### **The Birth Rate in Egypt.**

##### *1.—The Crude Birth Rate.*

We have only about 30 years of reliable Birth Rates of Egypt as a whole. They round about 43 ‰ which is one of the highest all over the world.

It is difficult to find any general trend in the period 1917-1945. It was subject to casual fluctuations; reached a minimum of 37.7 in 1919 and a maximum of 45.4 in 1930. The period 1903-1916 shows a higher level due to the fact that this period is concerned with Egyptians only, the birth rate of foreigners being less than 1/3 that of Egyptians. The main reason, however, is the deficiency in the enumeration of people in the early censuses by a relatively higher degree than that in the registration of births.

To deal with the problem of deficiency in the birth registration a comparison between the urban and rural districts has been made. The birth rate in the urban is 10 % higher. The rural districts of Lower Egypt show a higher birth rate

than in Upper Egypt, the urban show nearly the same. The average birth rates in towns are higher than those of other Health-Bureau Localities, these are higher than those of Localities having no Health Bureaus.

The differentiations in various districts, being signs of deficiency in birth registration, may be indications of real differentiations in fertility. The district of Guiza is the highest, that of Assuan is the lowest.

### 2.—*The Fall of the Birth Rate.*

It has been difficult to trace any general trend of increase or decrease in the Birth Rate of Egypt. The suspected stability no doubt conceals a downward trend if the birth registration is believed to have grown in recent years more efficient. To approach the real position of Egypt in the remarkable phenomenon "The Fall of the Birth Rate", a discussion of history and causes has been made. It has been found that birth control is the fundamental cause. It is closely connected with education and high socio-economic status.

### 3.—*The Masculinity Ratio.*

The ratio of male to female births in Egypt is 106-110, averaging about 108.4 in the period 1917-1945. In Egypt there is no complaint of disequilibrium in the Sex Ratio. However, the Masculinity Ratio in Egypt seems high owing to relative deficiency in the registration of female births. This can be seen from the increase in Masculinity Ratios of rural districts especially those of Upper Egypt. The increase may be due also to bad economic conditions.

### 4.—*Plural Births.*

These are 1 to every 77 births. It has been found that plural births correspond positively to higher ages of parents, especially the age of mother.

### 5.—*Illegitimate Births.*

The data are deficient. They are concerned with localities having Health-Bureaus and deal only with foundlings and babies with father unknown. The ratios of illegitimate births to un-

married women 15-49 and to all births are less than one tenth those found in Western Europe. No doubt there is some deficiency in the registration of illegitimate births, but it is also that our traditions do not accept illegitimate relations before marriage. The highest illegitimate birth rates in Egypt are found in the coastal regions, the lowest in Upper Egypt.

#### 6.—*Still Births.*

Registration here is terribly deficient. One cannot believe that the rate of still births in Egypt is less than one third that in England. Still births are more common in males than in females. The rate increases in the lowest and highest ages of father and mother.

#### 7.—*The Standardized Birth Rate.*

The standardization of birth rates has been briefly discussed. The direct method using an ideal distribution of population has been compared with the indirect method using ideal specific birth rates.

#### 8.—*The Natural Rate of Increase.*

This is very high, about 16 ‰, although the Death Rate is one of the highest all over the world. A grave defect in this rate is that it cannot express the changes in the age structure of population.

### **The Rate of Infant Survivorship.**

The infant mortality in Egypt is very high. The figures are less than reality owing to the deficiency of registration. One fifth of births die under one year. This means a sharp lessening of Egypt's high birth rate. Probabilities of life for male births are less than those for female births. The infant mortality rate in Egypt as a whole is less than that of all localities having Health Bureaus, by nearly 20 %. The deficiency of registration is very obvious in the twelfth month, it is even higher in the dates near birth. The conditions of infant mortality are worse to a greater degree in poor districts, but the deficiency of registration in Localities having no Health-Bureaus showed an inverse position. The construction of life tables for infants under one presented fine results regarding the birth rate itself.

### Miscellaneous Methods for the Measurement of Fertility.

#### 1.—*The Ratio of Births to Marriages.*

Marriage Statistics for all Egypt are found since 1935. This ratio (2.5—3.8) is defective and do not express real fertility. It includes repeated marriages. Illegitimate and legitimate births are taken together. Of course births are not the result of contemporary marriages. In discussing the period 1935-1943 the dispersion of rates is less when more years of marriages are taken. The best is to take the same year and the last six to eight years. If these ideas are considered, the new ratio is 4.4 for 1943.

#### 2.—*The Ratio of Births to Dissolved Marriages.*

The ratio of births to marriages dissolved by death or divorce shows higher rates of fertility, nearly double the ratio to contracted marriages. Owing to the lack of data, this ratio has been computed only for Cairo and Alexandria. It shows higher fertility in Alexandria. Average ratios of births to dissolved and contracted marriages have been computed on different scales.

#### 3.—*Number of Births to every Dissolved Marriage.*

The lack of data is found here. But this rate does not envisage a true picture of fertility because the marriage dissolved by death or divorce is not the typical marriage. The average born to divorced women has been computed for the last and former marriages.

#### 4.—*Number of Births to every Wife in the Census.*

The defects of such a measurement are numerous. Census data required are not available.

#### 5.—*Number of Children in the Census related to Population.*

Sadler's method of relating children under 10 to population 15—39, Willcox's relating children under 5 to population 15—49 and Rossiter's relating children under 10 to average population in the last ten years have been computed for the purpose of regional comparison.

### Social Classes and Fertility.

Sufficient data are not found. Tables showing numbers of live births by occupation of father and order of new born in H.B.L. have been used. It has been estimated that the fertility of the 3 classes correspond to  $1:1\frac{1}{2}:1\frac{1}{2}$ . By the application of sampling theories, the differentiations proved significant, showing strong inverse relation between fertility and socio-economic status.

### Fertility and Duration of Marriage.

Because of insufficient data, tables showing numbers of live births by duration of marriage and order of new born in H.B.L. have been used. It has been observed that the numbers of births in the first year are very little (4 % of those born in the second year as against 25 % in England 1914). The difference is due to errors of registration in Egypt and the high figures of legitimized births in England. The average wife brings forth of 40 % of her births before 7.5 years duration, 60 % before 12.5 and 80 % in 17.5 years. The correlation coefficient between the number of births and duration of marriage is + 0.82, the Correlation Ratio + 0.84, the Regression Line is not linear. It can be shown by the equation :

$$Y = 0.299 + 0.508 x - 0.00656 x^2$$

$Y$  being the number of children,  $x$  being the duration of marriage in years.

### The Mean Life in the Period 15-49.

This is essential for the investigations in fertility. Kuczynski's method has been used in the computation. The probabilities of life for males are far less than those of females. The average female born lives during the child-bearing period about 19.7 years in 1917, 20.8 in 1927 and 19.3 in 1937.

### Fertility of Women.

The General Fertility Rate, *i.e.* the ratio of births to women 15—49, is about  $180\text{‰}$ . A grave defect is the lack of data about births by age groups of mother. The Specific Fertility Rates have been computed by using the relative distribution of

births over age groups of mother in H.B.L. The results show continuous increases in the specific fertility rates under 30, relative stability after 30. Then the Total Fertility is computed. It has been seen that the specific fertility rates are deeply influenced by the changes in the relative distribution of births year after year. The figures of total fertility are near one another. By using relative distributions of certain foreign countries, the same result is attained. The specific fertility rates, especially those of lowest and highest ages, are different. The application of specific fertility rates of same foreign countries is tried. All these rates give nearly the same shape of curve with a positive skewness, fertility reaching a peak in the group 25-29. The derivation of total fertility from the general fertility rate gives nearly similar results. The Gross Reproduction Rate is then computed by elimination of male births. The Net Reproduction Rate is calculated by using the mean life of females during the child-bearing period.

	1917	1927	1937
Total Fertility Rate ..	5.5	5.7	5.9
G.R.R. . . . . .	2.7	2.7	2.8
N.R.R. . . . . .	1.5	1.6	1.6

These rates are very high in comparison with those of many European countries where the G.R.R. itself has become less than unity, *i.e.* under the replacement level, even if every woman reaches the age of 50.

For fitting a curve for the specific fertility rates in Egypt, typical average approximate rates have been used:

Age	Specific Fertility Rates
-20 .. . . . . .	75
20-24 .. . . . . .	250
25-29 .. . . . . .	300
30-34 .. . . . . .	275
35-39 .. . . . . .	200
40-44 .. . . . . .	50
45-49 .. . . . . .	30
Total Fertility .. . . .	5900

The equation of best curve fitting is as follows :

$$y = 267.3810 - 72.2617 x - 24.7024 x^2 + 7.0833 x^3$$

where  $y$  is the specific fertility rate and

$$x = \frac{\text{Age of woman in years} - 32.5 \text{ years}}{5}$$

By fitting a curve for the rate of survivorship of females during the child-bearing period, according to the conditions of 1937, we obtain the equation :

$$y = 555.664 - 9.173 x - 0.249 x^2$$

where  $y$  is the rate of Survivorship for 1000 females born and

$$x = \frac{\text{Age of woman in years} - 32.5 \text{ years}}{2.5}$$

By multiplying the corresponding theoretical results of the two equations for every year in the child-bearing period we have what may be called Net Fertility which equals 3.3. If male births are eliminated we obtain 1.6 for the N.R.R. as previously attained. This rate equals in forecasting a natural rate of increase of 16%.

Specific fertility rates, total fertility and G.R.R.'s for Governorates and Districts in 1927 and 1937 are calculated for the purpose of regional comparison.

### Fertility of Wives.

All measures of fertility graduating from the crude birth rate to the N.R.R. disregard the importance of marriage in fertility. Thus the general fertility, specific fertility rates, total fertility are to be calculated for wives on the same bases previously used. The curve fitting of the Fertility of wives during the child-bearing period gives the equation :

$$y = 34.2 + .4084315 x - .7466656 x^2 + .0299513 x^3$$

where  $y$  is the specific fertility rate per 100 wives 1937 and

$$x = \frac{\text{Age of wife in years} - 25 \text{ years}}{2.5}$$

The computation of the N.R.R. of wives from their G.R.R. has been difficult owing to lack of data. By comparing the

mortality of women over 15 years with that of wives in Cairo and Alexandria the difference is significant. Mortality of wives is 60 % of women's mortality. Applying this result, the average wife lives in 1937 about 20.05 years in the period 15-49 as against 19.30 for the average woman as a whole.

	Child-bearing Period	
	15-49	16-49
Total Fertility of wives 1937..	7.8	7.6
G.R.R.           "   "   ..	3.8	3.6
N.R.R.           "   "   ..	2.2	2.1

This means that the average wife according to the conditions of 1937 produces a little more than 2 girls before she is dead.

Specific fertility rates, total fertility and G.R.R.s for wives in Governorates and Districts in 1927 and 1937 have been calculated for the purpose of regional comparison.

### **The Relation between Fertility and some other Phenomena.**

#### *1.—The Relation between Different Measures of Fertility.*

Spearman's Rank-Coefficient of Correlation has been used in more than 100 cases for the purpose of measuring relations based on regional and time comparisons.

Legitimate and illegitimate rates are weakly correlated. The latter have a strong relation with regions. Correlations for fertility measures graduating from the crude birth rate to the fertility of wives 15-49 are very strong specially between measures which are directly derived one from the other. This is logical because all of them depend on the number of births. Correlation of specific fertility rates according to groups of ages is very strong. For specific fertility rates of wives the same strength is found except in the relation between the group-20 and other groups which is weak. The measurement of correlation between the specific fertility rates of women and wives gives coefficients near unity for middle age groups, very strong for higher ages in the child-bearing period, but very weak for

the group under 20. No doubt there has been some agitation in this group owing to the decrease in early marriages.

Correlation between the fertility of wives 15-49 and Sadler's fertility rates (children -10 divided by Population 15-39) is very weak or may be no relation at all. Sadler's method is defective.

2.—*The Relation between the Birth Rate and the Death Rate.*

Both influence each other. The positive and very strong relation is found out by regional correlations.

3.—*The Relation between the Birth Rate and the Infant Mortality Rate.*

Correlation in Cairo districts 1939 prove positive but not strong. If Infant Mortality Rates 1940 are taken, correlation becomes less strong because the majority of infant deaths occur in the same year of birth and but little in the next year.

4.—*The Relation between Fertility and Seasons.*

The study of monthly birth rates in Egypt 1925-1944 assures real seasonal variations. Birth rates increase in Winter (November-April) and decrease in Summer (May-October). Yule's Coefficient of Association is 0.9.

5.—*The Relation between Fertility and Age at Marriage.*

The influence of marrying early in the lengthening of child-bearing period passed in marital life, the influence of postponement in the increase of sterility and the grave decrease in fertility of women after a certain age, have been discussed.

The difference between the Average Age at marriage and the Mean Age at Marriage computed from Nuptiality probabilities has been discussed also.

6.—*The Relation between Fertility and the Marriage Rate.*

The increase of the marriage rate means increase in early marriages. The relation between the birth rate and the marriage rate in Egypt gives strong positive correlation ; the former lagging 3 years after the latter. Correlation in Cairo districts 1939 gives a Rank Coefficient of + 0.26. If the Divorce rate is subtracted it becomes + 0.57. Marriage rates and divorce rates are in the meantime correlated at + 0.96.

7.—*The Relation between Fertility and the Business Cycle.*

The business cycle influences fertility through the marriage rate and the age at marriage. The influence is quick and direct. Thus 3 years period of lag separates the cycle from the birth rate. The relation between illegitimate fertility and prosperity is inverse.

8.—*The Differentiations of Fertility in Rural and Urban Districts.*

The general wellknown phenomenon is the decrease of fertility in towns than in villages and the tendency to diminish wherever urbanization is found. In Egypt the contrary is noticed owing to the deficiency of birth registration in rural districts. The American demographers over-estimate these differentiations of fertility and look to other differences as mere reflections of them. No doubt these represent only one phase of the problem.

9.—*The Differentiations of Fertility in Social Classes.*

In our study of fertility and socio-economic status the inverse relation is assured. This phenomenon will not last if the poor become accustomed to birth control. The inverse relation between fertility and income, between fertility and education is world famous. In Stockholm the contrary is now reached. Correlating the birth rate and the rate of illiteracy among females over 5 years in Cairo districts 1937 presents a Rank Coefficient of + 0.74.

### **The Future of Population in Egypt.**

1.—*A Glance on the Theory of Population.*

Population theories discussed have been divided to natural (Sadler's theory of Density, Doubleday's true law of population expressing the inverse relation between Nutrition and Reproduction, Spencer's biological theory, *i.e.* inverse relation between Individuation and Genesis, Brownlee's theory of cyclical variations in fertility occurring every 200 years), and social (Malthusianism and Neo-Malthusianism, Ibn Khaldoun's theory expressing the relation between fertility and the rise and fall of the state, Dumont's theory of Social Capillarity and the theory of Optimum Population by Carr-Saunders).

2.—*The Future of Population in Egypt.*

Famous forecasts leading to different estimates have been dealt with. A study of various methods of forecasting has been made dealing with : Extrapolation by the arithmetical or geometrical methods, using the Logistic Curve, curve fitting of Census data available, applying Lotka's Natural Rate of increase, Kuczynski's N.R.R., Bergdorfer's Correct Birth Rate and Death Rate, and the Effective Reproduction Rate.

The demographic position of Egypt has been discussed. Our population is progressive, with a regular pyramid like structure, males and females in equilibrium. There is a tendency of decrease in early marriages.

The Average Crude Birth Rate in Egypt 1917-45	42.35
(Taking into account 10 % deficiency in birth registration and 5 % in the enumeration of population) it becomes .. .. .	44.70
The Average Crude Death Rate in Egypt 1917-45	27-39
(With Infant Mortality raised by 25 % which means a rise of 10 % in the Death Rate, and with 5 % deficiency in the enumeration of population) it becomes .. .. .	28.62
The Average Natural Rate of Increase 1917-45..	14.96
becomes .. .. .	16.08

On the hypothesis that the present conditions in fertility and mortality will continue or that the probable slight decrease will be the same in both, forecasting for Egypt gives an estimate of 78 millions in 2037 based on geometrical annual increase of  $16 \frac{1}{100}$ . Clyde V. Kiser's estimates for 1970 by using different methods of extrapolating Census figures 1882-1937 are from 18.1 to 20.8. It is certain now that the year 1950 has brought population to 20 millions. Our forecast is strengthened by the application of the N.R.R. 1.6. It is supposed, however, that the rise and survivorship of the State will continue.

3.—*A Plan for Population in Egypt.*

Our forecast is based on the hypothesis that the natural rate of increase will remain as it is, that there will be no increase in mortality as a result of population pressure on our resources. Birth control as a scheme is discussed. Owing to

the slowness of the agricultural progress in last decades', Cleland and the pessimists argue that Egypt is already living under high population pressure. This is not true. The standard of living will not be raised by birth control but by quick economic progress. We are now in the age of planning. Birth control is responsible for the catastrophic fall of fertility in Western countries which arises the problem of fear from the decrease in population. Population plans used by Germany and Italy for military purposes have been discussed. The large size of population is preferable in a world governed by the law of the forest. Our plan is not to interfere in fertility. Egypt's economy should be transferred from the agricultural to the industrial stage. Quality and quantity can be secured.

### CONCLUSION.

To what extent of reliability the results based on our Vital Statistics are not injured by defects in the available data used? The defects which may be summarized in : (1) Shortness of the period covered by Statistics ; (2) Inadequacy of data ; (3) Deficiency of registration ; (4) The lack of demographic informations ; (5) The delay in publishing Statistical Tables, are all found in other countries and can be defeated.

EL SAYED ABDEL HAMID EL DALY.

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# A HISTRO-POLITICAL ANALYSIS FOR THE SCHEMES FOR ARAB UNITY

## THE CAUSES OF ITS FAILURE AND SUCCESS

*by*

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The Arab's land is sometimes called the Levant or "land of the rising sun." It is characterized by its peculiar geography, age-old history, and its unusual resources. It is the historic home of Western civilization and was the seat of most of the great empires of ancient times. In modern times, this region has become increasingly an arena of struggle among greater empires located wholly or mainly in the Western hemisphere. Broadly speaking, geographically, four groups of territories comprise the region. They are the fertile margin of North Africa, the fertile eastern shore of the Mediterranean, the Arabian peninsula, and the valley of the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers. This region presents no great difficulties of natural boundaries or of climate. From the north there is the Taurus mountains; from the east, the Persian gulf and the Tigris River; from the south, the Indian Ocean and from the west, the Atlantic Ocean. Between these borders lies the so-called "Fertile Crescent" formed by the valley of the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers, the Mediterranean plain and the Nile valley. As for climate, it is rainy in winter, never severely cold. In summer it is dry and hot.

Strategically, it possesses an unusual position. These lands constitute a transit zone or strategic "bridge" from Europe to the Indian Ocean. Two arms of the Indian Ocean reach deeply into the desert barrier. From the head of one of these arms, the Red Sea and the Suez Canal, form a navigable way from the Eastern Mediterranean to the Indian Ocean. From the head of the other, the Persian gulf, waterways through the Tigris and the Euphrates, roads, and railroads stretch west to the Mediter-

anean and north to the Caspian Sea. It holds the keyway to three continents, Asia, Africa, and Europe. The development of aviation and motor transportation increased the importance of this region, which was destined to become the "Suez Canal of the Air". While it is difficult to forecast exactly what changes will take place in this Mediterranean-Indian corridor as a result of the introduction of civil aviation, it is beyond doubt the value of this territory will be greatly enhanced and will continue to increase in proportion to the progress made by the conquest of the air.

Economically, this area possesses rich resources. The soil of the land is one of the most fertile in the World. It is one of the world's richest sources for petroleum, which is found in Iraq, Saudi Arabia, Syria and Egypt. There are also large deposits of minerals, nickel, zinc, phosphate, nitrate, and recently large deposits of iron ore have been discovered in Egypt. There is no coal. It is, however, a rich field for the investment of industrial capital.

This land is possessed by the Semitic Arabs who hold most of Arabia, Syria, Lebanon, Palestine, Trans-Jordan and Egypt. Each of these countries has its own variant of the parent stock and each speaks some version of the original Arabic. Despite the slight differences of race, language and social status, certain common heritages bind the Arabs together; the great past to which the present generation is heir, the culture, the literature and language. These common roots in the past give the Arabs the motive for the modern unity. Between the Atlantic and the Persian Gulf, there live together some 40,000,000 Arabs. Most of them are Muhammadans, but not all Muhammadans are Arabs, nor are all Arabic speaking people Muhammadan. The ancestry of the Arabs living in the west is mixed. They have intermarried with native Egyptians in the land of the Nile, with Negroid tribes in the Sudan, and with Berbers on the Barbary Coast. Their language and culture are Arabic, but their racial strain is blended.

The plan of forming an Arab Union is not new. It is an idea which lived in the minds of the Arabs for centuries.

A religious Arab-Union had been achieved in the form of a vast empire extending from the Pyrennees to India. The first stone in this empire was built by the Prophet Muhammad.

After his death, the first Caliph Abu Bakr continued the building and in 636 A.D. invaded Syria. During the reign of the second Caliph, Umar, Iraq and Persia were annexed in 637 A.D. Very soon Egypt was added to the empire. The fourth Caliph transferred the capital from Al Madinah to Al Kufah in Iraq. After the death of Ali, the fourth Caliph, the period of the Republic came to an end.

During the period of the Republic the Caliph possessed both political and religious powers. The letter and spirit of the pure Islamic law was applied in every phase of life. There was one central authority in Al Madinah and the different territories annexed were considered provinces with governors appointed from Al Madinah.

The Umayyad dynasty followed, taking Damascus as their capital. This dynasty lasted from 661 to 750 A.D. The Abbasid dynasty succeeded the Umayyad and transferred the capital to Baghdad in Iraq.

During the days of the Umayyad and the Abbasid dynasties, Baghdad and Damascus were the centers of the Empires, and all the countries which belonged to them were provinces to the mother land. Islam was the real bond that connected these different parts constituting the Empire. The two Empires were a religious union.

During the decline of the Abbasid, nationalities arose in the different parts of the empire and independent states emerged from the wreckage. The Tulunide, the Ikshidit and the Fatimite dynasties arose successively in Egypt. The Hamdands and the Ayubites arose in Syria. In 1171, Salah Al-Din became the ruler of Egypt.

As quickly as they had climbed the pinnacle of fame, the Arabs fell from their high estate, as if they had exhausted their energy in one spurt of dynamic achievement. In Europe, they were ousted by Spain. In Africa and Asia they fell under the heels of the Ottomans, followers of the same religion but of different blood. From 1516 A.D. to 1914, the Arabic countries were united with Turkey under one Caliphate, administered from the new capital, Constantinople. The Caliphs were not Arabs but the people accepted them as brothers in religion.

In the nineteenth century (from 1809-1840), there was an

attempt by Muhammad Ali, the Turkish ruler of Egypt, toward forming a political Arab Union.

His attempt was based on his ambitions to build an Empire for himself. The main purpose was self-interest rather than the interest of the Arabs. The conflicting interests of the Western Powers wrecked the plan. The ill-fated Empire of Muhammad Ali is a forceful evidence of the possibility of forming an Arab Union, provided the western powers agree to the plan, or if the Union is powerful enough to stand against these powers in case of war.

Towards the end of the nineteenth century and the beginning of the twentieth century a new Arab movement began in Syria, Paris and Cairo. The movement was slow in gathering momentum because the ruling Ottoman Empire was all eyes for just such a movement and its hand was heavy on Arab patriots.

Some years elapsed before the beginning of the second Arab attempt. The plan for this attempt was made by the Sharif Hussein of Mecca in 1915. The outbreak of the first World War in 1914, with its slogans of democracy and the rights of small nations, stimulated Arab nationalism. In 1915, the Allies decided to make use of the Arab desire for independence. The British promises to the Arabs were made in the course of correspondence between Sir Henry McMahon, High Commissioner in Cairo, and the Sharif Hussein of Mecca. The British negotiations with Hussein led to a diplomatic exchange with France which resulted in the Secret Sykes-Picot agreement of May 16, 1916, between Great Britain, France and Russia. France was to obtain Syria and Lebanon; Great Britain was to take Iraq and all the provinces on the Persian Gulf. A National Home for the Jews was to be established in Palestine. This agreement was communicated neither to Italy nor Hussein.

Sharif Hussein in his attempt to unite the Arabs was motivated by a religious zeal. His ambitions to create a religious Arab Union and to become the Caliph of the Muslim World were the powers behind his efforts. He did not give any attention to the interests or aspirations of the Christian inhabitants of the Arab world, who, although they were in a minority constituted a strong element in the Arab land. They wanted a secular and not a religious Arab Union. Sharif Hussein, in

his Declaration of Independence outlined the future of the Arab world as an Islamic Union. The Christians being uninterested in this form of a union did not cooperate.

The lack of unity in the Arab front was its weakness and encouraged the Western Powers to achieve their political ambitions and to defeat the Arab cause.

Sharif Hussein by his success and by his failure is a living example that the Arabs will never progress, or achieve a lasting success as long as they use religion as a means for political ends.

The period between the first and the second World Wars was a period of struggle between Arab nationalism and the European imperialism. Victory was on the side of nationalism. Iraq won its independence in 1932, and entered the League of Nations. In 1936, Egypt completed its independence ; Syria and Lebanon in 1941. Palestine during the intra-war period was a field of friction between the Arabs and the Jews. Many attempts were made to solve this problem but no solution could be reached.

In the intra-war period the Arabs did not forget their aspiration for forming an Arab Union but they knew that the Western powers were against such a Union, and that their opposition was strong enough to doom its accomplishment in its infancy.

During World War II the importance of the Near East and its political significance emphasized the necessity for an Arab Union which would administer affairs in this strategic sphere. The war brought changes in the Balance of Powers. Some of the Big Powers lost their supremacy, others appeared in the picture.

Britain who is farsighted, realized that she was losing her supremacy to two new world powers, the United States and Russia. Realizing her inability to compete with them she decided to make a friend and an ally of the Arab world.

The Arabs knew that small and weak countries could not live in this world and understood fully that unity between the Arab states was essential for their survival.

The interests of the Arabs and those of Britain met. This was a vital step in the formation of the Arab Union which came to be the League of the Arab States.

In May 1941, Mr. Anthony Eden, the British Secretary of foreign affairs declared that Britain would give full support to any plan for forming Arab unity. But the Arabs ignored this declaration. They doubted the sincerity of Britain. They were afraid that Britain would use them for her own interests as she had done before. Again in 1943 Mr. Eden repeated his declaration. By this time the Arabs were convinced of Britain's sincerity because of her assistance and support of Syria and Lebanon in their fight for independence. The plan of Nuri Al Said, Prime Minister of Iraq to unite the Arabs in 1942, as cited in his Blue Book, did not succeed. Many Arab Nationalists believed that there were defects and dangers in his proposals. They were afraid that the inclusion of Palestine in this union with its *status quo* might result in the expansion of the Zionist movement in the Arab land. Moreover the proposals that the Christians of Lebanon would revert to the status they held before 1914, which allayed the fear of some Christians that they would be swallowed up in an Arab Muslim state, nevertheless revived all of the disadvantages of the old regime : the limitation of opportunity which forced many of the Christian inhabitants to emigrate in the past, the feeling of separation and distinction which a special regime inevitably gave them, and the encouragement of outside loyalties, without providing any new or positive advantages. In 1943, Egypt took the lead and invited all of the Independent Arab states to send representatives to Egypt to discuss the question of a League of Arab States.

In the preliminary negotiations the ambitions of Sharif Hussein's family reappeared. King Abdullah of Transjordan tried to convince the Arab states to help him annex Syria, Lebanon, Palestine and Transjordan under his rule. But none of them helped him satisfy his ambition except Iraq.

Out of the negotiations come the willingness of all the Arab countries to cooperate and in October 1944 they signed the "Alexandria Protocol". Thus the Arab League was formed which was to strengthen and consolidate the ties which would bind all Arab countries and direct them toward the general welfare of the Arab world : to improve its conditions : insure its future and help realize its hopes and aspirations. In March 1945, all of the Arab countries signed the Pact of the League.

Since its formation the League has faced many difficulties. All of the Arab countries dominated by the Western Powers appealed to the League for help. She did not hesitate to do everything in her power to give the desired help. This antagonized the ruling countries.

The League was not always successful. One particular case was that of the Palestinian questions. In this the Arab League was defeated. It has also been shown that some of the Arab ruling families are looking after their own self-interests rather than for the common interests of the Arabs.

### CONCLUSION.

There are forceful evidences of the possibility of forming an Arab Union provided the Western Powers agree to the plan, or if the union is powerful enough to stand against these powers in case of war, and provided the union is not based upon religious beliefs.

The attempt of Muhammad Ali to unite the Arabs in one Empire in 1840, was wrecked because the Western Powers did not agree to the plan and the Union was not powerful enough to stand against these powers.

The plan of Sharif Hussein of Mecca to form an Arab Union in 1916 failed because he based his attempt on pure religious tenents.

A strong Arab League is hopeless until the ruling dynasties and the Arab Leaders sacrifice their personal ambitions for the general good. In the meantime, the Arab League should curtail its activities in the Arab lands dominated by the Western Powers in order to gain their sympathy and support while she is still an infant.

Dr. A. HAMDY.



# THE KEYNESIAN ECONOMICS-ONCE MORE

by

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In this article, I have been concerned with :—

- (a) The static character of the Keynesian system.
- (b) The ambiguity of the concepts of saving and investment.
- (c) The limitation of the liquidity preference theory.
- (d) Some socio-economic fallacies.

## Introduction.

Keynes' General Theory is a treatise on short-run equilibrium and devotes only a few pages to the discussion of the business cycle. This discussion is far from revolutionary, whether or not we agree that the rest of Keynes' system is fundamentally novel. Keynes' main interest was in monetary theory and policy. The development of his thinking was directed towards pushing monetary theory back towards becoming a theory of output as a whole (1). His process can be traced in the transition from  $MV = PT$  to  $I + C = Y$ . The main concern of business cycle theory whether monetary or non-monetary has been with the fluctuations of income, output, and employment. In this sense we had half a century or more macro-economics before the general theory appeared (2). But there have been formal difficulties with both sides of the quantity equation. In the General Theory,  $MV = PT$  was replaced by  $I + C = Y$ . But one can readily see the old equation underneath.  $Y$  is  $PT$ : investment and consumption are the components of income through which monetary changes register their effects. Though not in the equation, the quantity

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(1) Keynes : *The General Theory* ; Preface, page VI.

(2) *Ibid*, page VII.

of money (together with the liquidity preference) determine the interest rate, which (in relation to the expected profit rate—the marginal efficiency of capital) determines the volume of investment. The demand for money is broken down into 3 strands that had been implicit in the analysis since Marshall.  $V$  become the multiplier, command-over-consumption-units becomes the propensity to consume, and the distinction between the decision to save and the decision to invest becomes the liquidity preference.

### **The Static Character of Keynesian System.**

The first criticism is methodological in character, yet dislike of controversies about method must not hinder one from realizing that important issues of substance may be involved. Keynes followed Cambridge tradition in using the concept of equilibrium under static conditions, *i.e.* tastes methods of production, and the like are generally assumed to be relatively unchanging. By employing the concept of income as the principle variable which determined consumption, and by emphasizing the rôle of expectations in entrepreneurial decisions, he broadened neo-classical economics to include situations of underemployment equilibrium. In Keynesian economics, the return of investment anticipated by entrepreneurs and the rate of interest which must be paid to lenders to part with their cash results in varying levels of stable income and employment. To the student of business cycle the paramount question is whether or not the Keynesian system, in which variables and structural relationships are said to determine a situation of stable equilibrium, is adequate for studying the cyclical phenomenon. In other words can a static theory, whose main object is to formulate the conditions under which employers will have no incentive to expand or contract employment, furnish a satisfactory base from which to set out on the journey of exploring the mechanisms that produce cycles?

Static equilibrium analysis must ignore the influence of the time factor and speed of the variables' reactions included in the system. Yet these considerations are the essence of the business cycle problem. Because of the lags in various parts of the

economy between the receipts of income and expenditures on consumption and investment a cumulative process is likely to develop. As this process unfolds, changes occur which might be incompatible with the conditions postulated in the static theory. Without a knowledge of the rate of change of the variables and the impact they have upon each other, one cannot tell whether the fluctuations will be more intensified or will dampen, and approach the equilibrium described by the theory.

The methodological differences between process analysis and instantaneous equilibrium analysis largely explains the disputes of the past decade centering around the concept of saving and investment. In the *General Theory* Keynes claimed that saving and investment are necessarily equal, Robertson, Ohlin and others maintained that investment may be greater or less than saving. Some writers, tired perhaps of these disputes, attempted to dismiss the matter by sayings that it was entirely a question of definition. But the issues could not be disposed off so readily, for behind the terminological controversies was the important consideration that the kind of definition one adopted determined the course of analysis.

### The Concepts of Saving and Investment.

It is difficult to define saving in an exact sense; its definition remains among those "unsettled". The controversy that has raged ever since the appearance of the *General Theory* arises chiefly from the timelessness of the Keynesian system. The resulting difficulties are relieved nowise by his setting of saving equal investment. Because of his terminology the controversy has at times been quite bitter. Prof. Ellis expressed the difficulty involved when he observed that (1) "There is, for example an arithmetic, conceptual, or taxonomic sense in which  $S$  equals  $I$ ; this equation resembles the monetary equation of exchange, the equality of debit and credit sides in the balance of payment or the statement that quantity supplied in a market equals quantity purchased; all those are truisms. On the other hand there is a sense of tendency, causation, or operating forces in

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(1) H. S. Ellis: *Notes on Recent Business-Cycle Literature*; Review of Economic Statistics, August 1938.

the economic system, in which saving may tend to equal investment or vice versa, but since this implies the operation of forces (and not simply definitions) counter forces may cause saving to be unequal to investment; this resembles such statements as the quantity theory postulates that price varies with  $MI$ , as the tendency to equality of exports and imports, and the tendency of market price to rest at the intersection of demand and supply schedules".

Keynesians pass from one of these meanings to the other with implacable urbanity, for the time being lags are ignored. Lerner seeks to assure that there has been much other over nothing.  $S$  equals  $I$  is a piece of very "simple arithmetics", that it is "implicit in our definitions" and that "it has nothing to do with any kind of equilibrium" (1). Harrod considers that saving and investment "are really but one magnitude" for "they are necessarily and ineluctably equal" (2). Keynes, in answer to Hawtry's charge (3) that  $S$  and  $I$  are not only equal but identical, responded that they are "necessarily equal in the same way in which the aggregate purchases of anything on the market are equal to the aggregate sales" (4).

It does seem all the more certain that Keynes means by saving (or investment) what he wishes to mean, because he makes his system timeless.

### The Limitation of the Liquidity Preference.

The liquidity preference theory of interest as developed by Keynes is most provocative. Certainly neo-classical productivity theory has not filled in the holes, the explanation of the investment process and the appearance of interest as a price, any too well; it has been weak in relating the supply of money to saving and investment and specially in establishing the connection of  $S$  and  $I$  during disequilibrium periods. There is a large measure of agreement that Keynes's monetary theory of interest has

(1) Lerner: *Quarterly Journal of Economics* 1937-38, page 299. 304, 305.

(2) Harrod: *The Trade Cycle*, page 162.

(3) Hawtry: *Capital and Employment*, page 174.

(4) *Economic Journal*, 1937, p. 249.

caused economists to attach greater importance to the problem of the generation of income, and at the same time made them fully conscious of the problem of hoarding. But the critics of Keynes have pointed out that the liquidity preference factor need not be so magnified as to exclude other elements which heretofore has been considered relevant to the determination of the rate of interest. Keynes was wrong in maintaining that the loanable funds theory is essentially the same as the classic theory namely that the interest rate is determined by the supply and demand curves of saving. There are many sources of loanable funds other than savings *e.g.* bank credit, and dishoarding. On the demand side, loanable funds may be used for increasing working capital or fixed capital, replacing existing equipment, increasing consumption, and adding to inactive cash balances (1).

Critics of the theory that the interest rate is the price for inducing people to part with cash, have pointed out that Keynes' monetary theory does not exclude the factors of productivity and thrift. Productivity may disappear as an element influencing the interest rate in Keynes' saving-investment equation, but returns through the back door of his monetary equation, where the demand and supply of cash balances are equal. An increase in investment arising from a favorable effect upon the marginal efficiency of capital—whether due to inventions, optimistic expectations, or increased consumers' expenditure—will require an increase in cash for business transactions ( $M_1$ ). If the banks do not augment the supply of money, there will be less cash available for hoarding purposes to satisfy the desire for liquidity ( $M_2$ ), and will thus cause the interest rate to rise.

With respect to Keynes' contention that savings do not govern the interest rate since the supply curve of savings is not independent of changes in investment and income, his critics replied that the liquidity preference curve was in a similar position. Changes of income affect the demand for cash for business

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(1) Robertson : *Essays in Monetary Theory*, Chapter I. Robertson : *A Survey of Modern Monetary Controversy*, in *Readings in Business Cycle Theory*, p. 311-29. Haberler : *Prosperity and Depression*, p. 195-221.

transactions ( $M_1$ ) and thereby influence the supply of cash available for liquidity purposes ( $M_2$ )—assuming a fixed supply of money. According to Keynes, an increase in the propensity to save does not lower the interest rate, but, *ceteris paribus*, decreases income. However, a decrease in income involves both a drop in the transactions' demand for money and a greater supply available for cash balances. By this indirect route the thrift factor exerts its influence and lower the rate of interest. According to Robertson, however the route between savings and interest is more direct. An increase in propensity to save may directly affect the interest rate, by increasing the demand for securities: a rise in the price of securities is equivalent to the lowering of interest rate, the lower interest rate induces people to raise the proportion of their assets held in the form of cash; and the rise in cash holdings may result in a decrease of income.

### Some Socio-Economic Fallacies.

1.—“Investment by private enterprise does not depend alone on the amount of consumption and therefore upon the “underwriting of consumption” through continuous deficit spending”:

What Keynes introduced as propensity to consume, we can only accept as one explanation of the conditions of a depressed economy, particularly when it is related to the desire for liquidity. It cannot be looked upon as a long run concept (1). The evidence statistical and theoretical does not seem to justify any other interpretation of it (2). The declining propensity to consume is if anything a short run concept, and it is only one of probably many forces feeding the cumulative downward movement of the cycle. In principle to argue that man is saving proportionately more out of his income than before is truly an irrational proposition. When not prevented from so doing, man is always trying to make the best use of his resources. He does not have overly many of them; or why the shift to the accumulation of

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- (1) See Frank H. Knight: *The business cycle, Interest and Money*, Review of Economic Statistics, Vol. 23, p. 57-58, May 1941.  
 (2) See M. Ezekiel: *Statistical Investigations of Saving, Consumption and Investment*, I and II, American Economic Review, Vol. 32, p. 22-49, and 272-307, March and June, 1942.

surplus in the form of cash or its equivalent. Underconsumption as a continuing phenomenon must still be explained.

The marxians, who quite early developed theories of underconsumption were probably influenced by the kind of investments made in Germany, Austria, France and other continental countries. There when an industrialist or a banker made his "pile", instead of expanding his industry, or making more industrial loans, he usually put his fortune into land (as is quite familiar with the Egyptian situation probably until now.) The investment in land may not be far removed from the seeking of excess cash balances or the liquidity that may be achieved by the holding of short-term government securities. But these shifts to liquidity are largely the effects of political uncertainty. If man wants to hold his wealth in such forms as yield a relatively small but assured income or in cash, it is because non-economic motives prompt him to take such irrational action. If our knowledge of the individuals' economic action and the reasons for it are to be extended, we must go beyond the implicit theorizing of the Keynesian school.

2.—*"Economic progress still requires saving and that underconsumption as a primary cause of depression is an illusion."*

3.—*"Economic progress still depends upon the advance of specialization of labor and machinery, and upon a climate favorable to "risk-taking" in the making of new investment."*

The rate of interest, once the pet of the Keynesians had fallen in regard. It must be admitted that empirical investigation seems to yield the conclusion that interest rates by themselves do not influence saving or investments decisively. Those who save are not much stimulated by higher rates, or discouraged by lower ones (1). Those who borrow likewise are not much encouraged by lower rates, nor discouraged by higher ones (2). Indeed it appears that interest rates should be looked upon as the resultant

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(1) This is not universally held. R. Harrod by use of a dynamic equation reaches the conclusions that the level of interest rates may be a material positive factor in stimulating savings. *Towards a Dynamic Economics*, p. 49.

(2) This too is not universally believed. The role of interest cost in housing and public utilities investment are often averred to be a leading if not decisive influence.

of monetary policy, and not the cause of either borrowers or savers behaviour.

Since the War, Keynesian economics has undergone a number of significant shifts. Faced with a condition of inflation as alarming and seemingly intractable, as the deflation Keynes faced when he wrote his book, the stagnation thesis has receded into the background of the theory. The difficulties for the determinacy of the theory have been increased by the new conditions, and its applicability to policy has become less clear cut (1). One of the new questions is the relative importance of monetary and fiscal policies. Control over the broad aggregates of the income equation, as against more specific (including direct controls) policies. In other words, is Beveridge's program for full employment (2), and that of the six Oxford economists (3), a logical following out of the Keynesian theory (as they assume), or a contradiction to it?

A. R. ABDEL MEGUID.

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- (1) The best illustration for this is the supposedly Keynesian policy pursued by Dr. Dalton in the postwar U.K. The misunderstanding of the Keynesian policy, or its vagueness can lead,—and in fact nearly did—the country to bankrupt.
  - (2) Lord Beveridge, *Full Employment in a Free Society*, London, 1944.
  - (3) *The Economics of Full Employment*, Oxford 1944.

# LA PROPRIETE AGRAIRE EN EGYPTE AVANT ET APRES LA REFORME

*par*

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Dernièrement, a paru le décret-loi n° 178 de 1952 (9/9/52), modifié par plusieurs autres lois parues sitôt après. Cette réforme judiciaire a mis fin aux nombreuses iniquités et injustices qui pesaient sur notre économie agraire, ces injustices qui avaient transformé l'Égypte en un pays médiéval, féodal, où une infime partie possédait de grandes surfaces de terres fertiles, tandis que la grande majorité des habitants ne trouvait pas de quoi manger.

La propriété agraire au lieu de s'améliorer et de s'adapter aux idées d'égalité, et aux doctrines socialistes appliquées partout, ne faisait qu'empirer et élargir les différences et les écarts entre les diverses classes et nous rapprocher de plus en plus des systèmes féodaux abhorrés. La limitation de la propriété agraire était nécessaire, et il serait utile de retracer une étude analytique de l'évolution de la propriété agraire.

## L'EVOLUTION DE LA PROPRIETE AGRAIRE

### 1. Avant l'Occupation Anglaise.

Durant le règne de Mohamed Ali, les fellahs n'avaient que le droit de l'usufruit des terres Kharaguiehs. Ils ne pouvaient pas disposer de leurs terres (ventes, hypothèques, héritages, etc...). Le Walli se considérait comme seul propriétaire de toutes les terres d'Égypte. La déclaration de Saïd (Al Laéha Al Saïdia) en 1854, améliorait faiblement cet état de choses, reconnaissant le droit de disposer des terres ; toutefois le gouvernement se réservait le droit d'expropriation sans dédommager le propriétaire, si ce dernier n'y avait pas planté des arbres ou fait une construction quelconque. Mais avant la fin du siècle dernier la propriété entière était complètement reconnue.

## 2. 1882-1914.

C'est la période qui commence avec l'occupation anglaise, et qui finit au début des hostilités (première guerre mondiale). En cette période le nombre des grands propriétaires ainsi que la surface de terre qu'ils possédaient ont beaucoup augmenté, comme nous le montre le tableau suivant :

Limite des classes	ANNEE 1894				
	Propriétaires		Surface		Moyenne en fedd.
	Nombre	%	Feddans	%	
de 1 à 5 feddans ...	512.160	77.6	930.600	19.8	1.8
» 5 » 10 » ...	75.240	11.4	549.900	11.7	7.33
» 10 » 20 » ...	39.600	6	554.600	11.3	14.2
» 20 » 30 » ...	39.600	6	324.300	6.9	25
» 30 » 50 » ...	8.580	1.3	343.100	7.3	40
plus de 50 » ...	11.220	1.7	1.997.500	42.5	181.54
Total ... ..	660.000	100	4.700.000	100	7.12

Limite des classes	ANNEE 1914				
	Propriétaires		Surface		Moyenne en fedd.
	Nombre	%	Feddans	%	
de 1 à 5 feddans...	1.414.920	90.7	1.425.060	26.1	1
» 5 » 10 » ...	76.440	4.9	529.620	9.7	6.96
» 10 » 20 » ...	37.440	2.4	507.780	9.3	13.6
» 20 » 30 » ...	10.920	0.7	267.540	4.9	24.3
» 30 » 50 » ...	7.800	0.5	333.060	6.1	42.7
plus de 50 » ...	12.480	100	5.460.000	100	3.43
Total ... ..	1.560.000	100	5.460.000	100	3.43

Du précédent tableau nous constatons que le nombre des propriétaires de chaque catégorie a augmenté à peu près du double de ce qu'il était en 1894, tandis que la surface qu'ils possèdent n'a augmenté que de 10 %. La propriété moyenne a baissé de 7,12 en 1894 à 3,43 feddans en 1914 (soit la moitié), c'est une baisse très sensible.

Tandis que le nombre de petits propriétaires (1 à 5 feddans) a passé de 512.000 à 1.415.000 (ou de 77,6 à 90,7 %), la moyenne de ce qu'ils possédaient a baissé de 1,8 à 1 feddan ; en même temps le nombre des gros propriétaires terriens a augmenté ainsi que la moyenne de ce qu'ils possèdent (de 181,54 à 198,8) ; en d'autres termes il y avait un penchant vers la concentration de

la propriété entre les mains de quelques propriétaires, c'est-à-dire que le capitalisme agraire est devenu plus puissant dans cette période. Rien n'est étrange en cela, on s'était désintéressé de l'industrie, car le seul souci du capitaliste était d'investir son argent dans la culture du coton seulement.

### 3. 1914-1939.

Limite des classes	ANNEE 1914				
	Propriétaires		Surface		Propriété moyenne feddans
	Nombre	%	Feddans	%	
Jusqu'à 5 feddans ...	1.414.920	90,7	1.425.060	26,1	1
de 5 à 50 » ...	132.600	8,5	1.638.000	30	10,07
Plus de 50 feddans...	12.480	0,8	2.396.940	43,9	199
Total...	1.560.000	100	5.460.000	100	3,43

Limite des classes	ANNEE 1930				
	Propriétaires		Surface		Propriété moyenne feddans
	Nombre	%	Feddans	%	
Jusqu'à 5 feddans ...	2.141.334	93,1	1.874.304	31,6	0,87
de 5 à 50 » ...	146.046	6,3	1.758.781	29,7	12,04
Plus de 50 feddans...	12.599	0,6	2.285.305	38,7	181,4
Total...	2.299.979	100	5.918.390	100	2,6

Limite des classes	ANNEE 1938				
	Propriétaires		Surface		Propriété moyenne feddans
	Nombre	%	Feddans	%	
Jusqu'à 5 feddans ...	2.286.157	93,5	1.870.425	32,1	0,81
de 5 à 50 » ...	147.013	6	1.756.371	30	12
Plus de 50 feddans...	12.511	0,5	2.204.760	37,9	176,23
Total...	2.445.681	100	5.831.556	100	2,38

Nous remarquons de ce tableau que la surface possédée a diminué entre 1930 et 1938, ainsi que le nombre des propriétaires, d'après nous cette diminution est due à une amélioration dans les calculs d'arpentage.

La proportion des gros propriétaires a diminué également (malgré l'augmentation de leur nombre), et une diminution pareille est constatée dans la propriété moyenne de 199 feddans en 1914, à 181,4 feddans en 1930 et 176,2 en 1938.

Pour ce qui concerne les petits propriétaires (moins d'un feddan à 5 feddans) la moyenne que possède chacun d'eux a diminué de 1 feddan en 1914 à 0,87 en 1930 et 0,81 en 1938.

Si nous analysons davantage la propriété agraire en 1938, nous trouvons que près de 1.767.706 personnes possèdent moins d'un feddan avec une propriété de 705.061 feddans, soit une moyenne de 0,41 par propriétaire, ce qui ne nous permet pas de trop espérer et d'être optimistes.

On remarque du précédent tableau, que la moyenne générale de la propriété a baissé sensiblement de 3,43 feddans en 1914 à 2,6 en 1930, et 2,38 feddans en 1938.

#### 4. La période de guerre et d'après-guerre (de 1939 à nos jours). ANNEE 1946

Catégorie de propriétés	Nombre des propriétaires		Surface feddans		Propriété moyen. par propriétaire feddans
		%		%	
Jusqu'à 1 feddan...	1.874.715	74,04	752.956	14	0,4
de 1 à 5 feddans	499.161	19,72	1.226.076	22	2,5
» 5 » 10 »	83.403	3,29	564.413	9	6,9
» 10 » 20 »	41.476	1,64	571.094	9	13,9
» 20 » 30 »	11.919	0,47	290.965	4	26,3
» 30 » 50 »	9.200	0,36	357.063	6	39,6
Plus de 50 »	12.118	0,48	2.140.560	36	178,2
Total...	2.531.992	100	5.903.123	100	2,33

Des précédents chiffres, il nous apparaît que la surface possédée a augmenté de 700.000 feddans sur ce qu'elle était en 1938, mais une légère baisse s'est produite dans la moyenne générale de 2,38 en 1938 à 2,33 feddans en 1946. Le nombre total des propriétaires a augmenté de près de 100.000 dont la plupart se trouve dans la catégorie des petits propriétaires. Le nombre des gros propriétaires a diminué également (plus de 50 feddans), de 12,511 en 1938 à 12.118 en 1946 et la moyenne de feddans qu'ils détiennent a passé de 176,23 à 178,2. Les petits propriétaires qui détiennent jusqu'à 5 feddans (les deux premières catégories), soit 93,76 % (74,04 + 19,72) possèdent seulement 36 % de la surface totale, tandis qu'en 1938 ils n'étaient que 93,5 % avec 32,1 % de la propriété totale. Cette classe a subi une très forte dépression en une période où les doctrines socialistes battaient leur plein et

annonçaient la fin d'une ère féodale révolue ; là nous apparaît nettement la principale cause de l'écroulement de notre ancien système agraire. Une réforme complète était donc nécessaire. L'égalité économique devait naître à la suite d'un éveil politique.

### La courbe de Lorny.

Pour prouver que l'Égypte ne connaissait aucune égalité dans la distribution des terres, nous indiquerons la Courbe de Lorny montrant comment les terres étaient beaucoup plus mal distribuées en Égypte (1944) qu'en U.S.A. (1925).

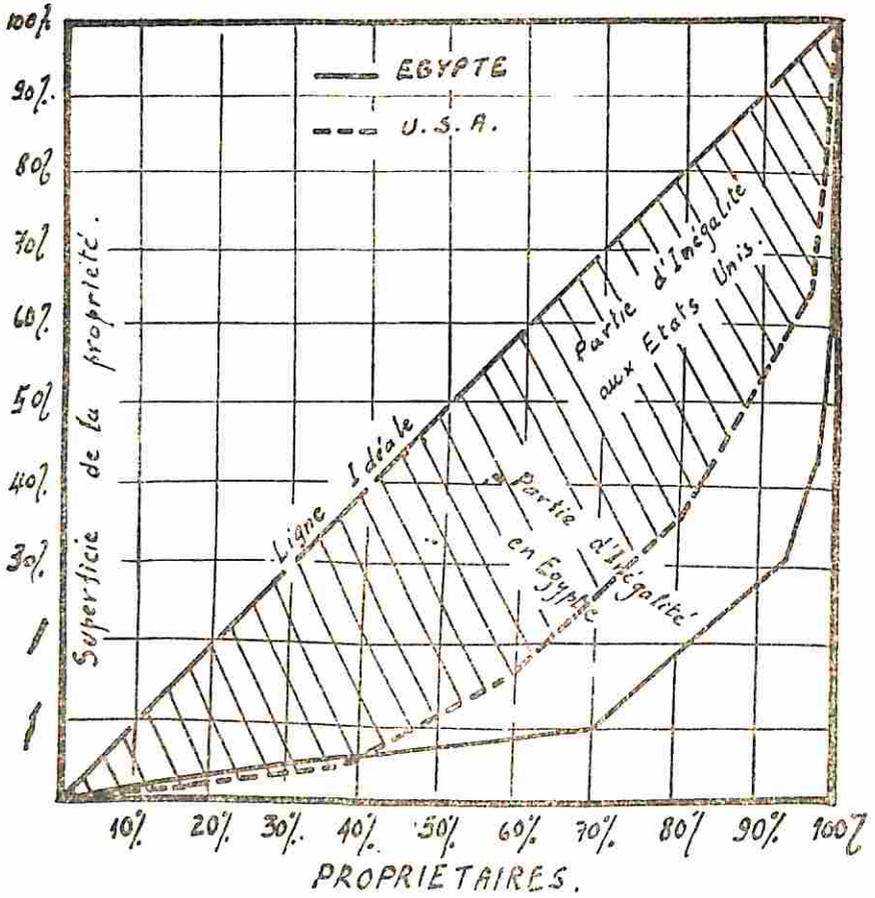
#### LA PROPRIETE AGRAIRE EN EGYPTE (1944)

Groupes de Propriétés	Nombre de Propriétaires	Surface en feddans
Moins d'un feddan ... ..	1.779.780	724.642
de 1 à 5 feddans ... ..	582.869	1.205.309
» 5 » 10 » ... ..	86.364	568.742
» 10 » 20 » ... ..	41.129	559.247
» 20 » 30 » ... ..	11.645	285.954
» 30 » 50 » ... ..	9.323	353.153
» 50 » 100 » ... ..	6.795	469.689
» 100 » 200 » ... ..	3.152	440.533
» 200 » 400 » ... ..	1.305	367.035

#### LA PROPRIETE AGRAIRE AUX ETATS-UNIS (1925)

Groupes de Propriétés	Nombre de Propriétaires	Surface en feddans
Moins de 20 feddans... ..	966.584	10.156.000
de 20 à 49 feddans ... ..	1.450.643	46.405.000
» 50 » 99 » ... ..	1.421.078	101.906.000
» 100 » 174 » ... ..	1.383.777	185.708.000
» 175 » 499 » ... ..	942.378	258.204.000
» 500 » 999 » ... ..	143.852	94.468.000
1000 et plus feddans... ..	63.328	224.472.000
Total ...	6.371.640	924.319.000

Ensuite nous devons dresser deux tableaux, l'un pour l'Égypte, l'autre pour les États-Unis, en employant la méthode de *Cumulative Frequency Distribution* (en français : Nombres cumulés selon A. Vassereau : *La Statistique, Que sais-je ?*), pour



trouver l'importance relative de chaque groupe (1), et ces pourcentages seront reproduits sur le dessin graphique.

**DISTRIBUTION CUMULEE PROPORTIONNELLE  
EGYPTE 1944**

Maximum du Groupe de Propriétés	Les Propriétaires	La Surface
Moins d'un feddan .....	70.5 %	12.4 %
» de 5 feddans .....	93.65 %	33 %
» » 10 » .....	97.5 %	42.7 %
» » 20 » .....	98.5 %	52.2 %
» » 50 » .....	99.5 %	63.1 %
Total ...	100 %	100 %

**DISTRIBUTION CUMULEE PROPORTIONNELLE  
ETATS-UNIS 1925**

Maximum du Groupe de Propriétés	Les Propriétaires	La Surface
Moins de 20 feddans .....	15.2 %	1.1 %
» » 49 » .....	37.9 %	6.3 %
» » 99 » .....	60.2 %	17.3 %
» » 174 » .....	81.9 %	37.3 %
» » 499 » .....	96.7 %	65.2 %
» » 999 » .....	99 %	75 %
Total ...	100 %	100 %

Théoriquement pour que l'égalité dans la distribution des terres se réalise, il faut que, proportionnellement, propriétaires et propriétés s'égalisent, en d'autres termes 10 % des terres doivent être possédées par 10 % de propriétaires, 20 % des propriétaires devront posséder 20 % des terres, et ainsi de suite (voir la *ligne idéale* sur le dessin). L'écart entre la ligne idéale et la courbe représente la part d'inégalité.

On constate que la part d'inégalité en Egypte est plus grande que celle des Etats-Unis, spécialement dans les grandes propriétés. D'ailleurs la comparaison n'est pas tout à fait parfaite, car les Etats-Unis de 1950 diffèrent de ceux de 1925 : actuellement les

(1) Pour trouver la *Cumulative Frequency Distribution Ascendent*, on procède comme suit :

	Nombre de Propriétaires
Moins d'un feddan	1.779.780
Moins de 5 feddans	2.362.649 (ce chiffre est la somme de 1.779.780 + 582.869). Puis on calcule le pourcentage de chaque groupe directement, par exemple $779.780 = 70.5 \%$ des propriétaires: $2.362.649 = 93.65 \%$ du total des propriétaires.

U.S.A. appliquent sur une grande échelle, les principes socialistes qui mettent une limite dans la propriété agraire, etc.

Ci-bas une répartition de la propriété foncière entre les diverses classes en Egypte, d'après les statistiques de 1937 et 1947.

	Terres privées	Wakfs	Terres d'Etat	Terres d'utilité publique	Totaux
	Feddans	Feddans	Feddans	Feddans	Feddans
1937					
Ensemble des terres cadastrées... ..	5.349.298	525.234	1.554.426	844.625	8.273.583
Non cultivées... ..	592.368	174.124	1.412.565	813.831	2.992.888
Cultivées... ..	4.756.935	351.110	141.861	30.794	5.280.700
1947					
Ensemble des terres cadastrées... ..	5.295.728	622.628	1.474.480	644.870	8.142.461
Non cultivées... ..	—	—	—	—	2.381.072
Cultivées... ..	—	—	—	—	5.761.389

D'après nous ces chiffres ne reflètent pas la réalité, car parmi les terres privées se trouvent celles de la famille royale. Si ces chiffres sont exacts, le gouvernement aurait manqué à son devoir envers la nation en n'exploitant pas ses propres terres qui s'élèvent à 17 % du total des terres (voir 3<sup>me</sup> colonne) : 9 % seulement de ses terres sont cultivées, soit 1,5 % de la surface totale de 1937. Nous constatons un progrès entre 1937 et 1947. Près d'un demi million de feddans non cultivés ont été défrichés. La baisse des terres privées et celles de l'Etat a passé aux Wakfs.

En 1937 le nombre des propriétaires s'élevait à 2.439.171 avec une propriété moyenne de 2,4 feddans, et une propriété totale de 5.834.269 feddans. Parmi ces propriétaires on comptait 5.556 étrangers possédant 428.726 feddans, soit une moyenne de 77,16 feddans par propriétaire, chiffre imposant, et qui ne peut se retrouver dans un autre pays (1).

En parlant des Wakfs, nous voyons devant nous se représenter l'Eglise au Moyen-âge, qui détenait le cinquième des terres de l'Europe juste avant la Révolution Française.

(1) En 1947, il y avait 4.654 étrangers qui possédaient 348.105 feddans, soit une moyenne de 72,64 feddans par propriétaire; cette baisse est due à la Loi des Sociétés qui a paru la même année.

Il était donc tout naturel que la loi sur la suppression des wakfs non-Khaïri soit promulguée (décret-loi n° 180 de 1952) (1).

Le Prof. Wahib Messiha, dans son livre *La Philosophie de l'Economie* (paru en arabe), croit que le partage des terres n'augmentera pas la production agricole, nos malheurs résidant dans ce flot continu d'accroissement humain qu'il faut éviter. Mais il oublie que la redistribution des terres mettra fin à ces grands écarts et qu'une classe moyenne surgira.

D'ailleurs la nouvelle loi a prévu le cas de dédommagement des gros propriétaires qui pourront investir leur argent dans l'industrie qui en a grand besoin : c'est ce qui est arrivé au Mexique.

D'après nous la concentration de la propriété agraire entre les mains de quelques-uns était un vol protégé par la loi. Nul ne peut acquérir une si grande richesse dépassant la logique, qu'au moyen du vol de la société.

La terre en Egypte revêtait son propriétaire d'un pouvoir magique et lui donnait accès au pouvoir politique. L'Egypte était gouvernée par des "Princes Féodaux". Il fallait donc aller de pair avec les idées actuelles qui sont appliquées partout, et réaliser la démocratie complète, l'égalité politique et économique de tous les citoyens.

Personnellement, en jetant un regard sur la situation actuelle de l'Egypte, je préfère la limitation de la propriété à l'augmentation de l'impôt sur le revenu (impôt sur les bénéfices commerciaux, l'impôt sur le revenu du travail, l'impôt général sur les revenus). Tous deux, la limitation de la propriété et les impôts diminuent les revenus, mais les impôts sur les revenus constituent un obstacle pour l'entrée des capitaux étrangers, tandis que la limitation frappera les propriétaires actuels seulement. Il serait même utile de réduire les impôts, vu nos grands besoins de capitaux étrangers.

M. SACHS.

(1) Au lieu de diminuer, la surface de Wakfs a passé à 622.628 feddans en 1947, soit une augmentation de 18 % de ce qu'elle était en 1937.

N.B. Cet article est basé sur une recherche que nous avons faite avant le Mouvement de l'Armée, et ce qui s'ensulvit des lois de réforme; nous avons essayé de l'adapter aux circonstances actuelles en modifiant certaines parties.



# ANALYSES ET COMPTES RENDUS

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M. LEPÈDE. — *Problèmes économiques et sociaux soulevés par la réforme agraire.*

C'est le titre d'une communication d'un grand intérêt d'actualité pour notre pays, faite par M. M. Lepède à la VIII<sup>e</sup> conférence internationale des économistes agraires tenue à East Laming, Michigan, du 15 au 22 Août 1952.

Les actes de cette conférence ont paru intégralement dans le fascicule de Juillet-Décembre 1952 de la *Rivista di Economia agraria*.

Les sujets abordés par sa communication, dit l'auteur, sont aussi vieux que l'agriculture. Dès que la terre disponible s'avère insuffisante, elle doit être divisée.

L'histoire de la civilisation européenne depuis le IX<sup>e</sup> siècle A.C. est marqué de crises et de réformes agraires. Il en est de même pour d'autres continents.

De nos jours, signale l'auteur, "les pays qui ont des problèmes de cet ordre constituent des points névralgiques du monde politique".

Dans les pays sous-développés qui n'ont pas de ressources autres que l'agriculture en quantités suffisantes pour permettre aux non-agriculteurs de se procurer des moyens de subsistance en dehors d'une certaine part du revenu agricole, la possession de la terre a une grande importance. "Dans ces pays le conflit entre l'idéologie de l'Occident et celle soviétique menace de s'aggraver et de s'élargir par la révolution dans le triomphe, ne fait-ce que temporaire, de l'une ou l'autre de ces deux formes".

Voici les problèmes qui se présentent toutes les fois que l'on se propose d'établir une structure agraire basée sur l'entreprise familiale comme c'est le cas en Egypte :

- a) Dimensions de l'entreprise familiale ;
- b) Financement du transfert des droits de propriété ;
- c) Choix des cultivateurs ;
- d) Besoin de capitaux.

a) *Dimension de l'entreprise familiale.*

La plus favorable, estime l'auteur, est celle qui assure

l'emploi total de la main-d'œuvre d'une famille et un niveau de vie convenable.

Il est évident que cette dimension varie suivant la fertilité du sol, le genre de culture, la structure sociale et le nombre des membres de la famille. Elle varie aussi non seulement d'une région à l'autre, mais aussi dans le temps. En outre la mécanisation et les progrès techniques ont en la matière une influence appréciable. "A brève échéance une des plus graves faiblesses résultant d'une structure agraire rigide, comme par exemple, le système de l'entreprise agricole conduite par les propriétaires eux-mêmes, est celle de ne pas permettre les variations de l'ampleur du domaine et les changements dans le nombre des travailleurs utilisables".

b) *Financement du transfert des droits de propriété.*

L'indemnisation des propriétaires expropriés soulève de graves problèmes économiques et financiers. L'auteur ne s'attarde pas sur celui d'ordre économique consistant dans les effets inflationnistes résultant de la conversion en liquide des capitaux fonciers. Il s'arrête particulièrement sur celui de savoir si un régime d'entreprises familiales exploitées à titre de propriété est préférable au régime des entreprises familiales en location.

Si l'indemnité à verser au propriétaire exproprié est proportionnelle à la valeur marchande de la terre qui est généralement élevée dans les pays comme le nôtre où les loyers sont aussi élevés, le nouveau propriétaire, aussi bas que puisse être le taux de l'intérêt, aura à supporter un charge financière plus forte que le montant du fermage.

Dans ce cas, estime l'auteur, une réglementation des fermages qui les stabilise à un niveau raisonnable pourrait constituer une solution des difficultés économiques meilleure que l'achat des terres moyennant un emprunt.

c) *Choix des cultivateurs.*

Si l'on veut suivre le principe "la terre à celui qui la cultive" on sera amené à exproprier de vastes domaines au profit de cultivateurs dont la propriété s'avérera trop petite pour pourvoir aux besoins familiaux.

Et si les nouveaux propriétaires ne sont pas à même de faire face à leurs nouvelles responsabilités: la réforme ne pour-

rait avoir de succès que si l'on met à leur disposition des conseillers compétents.

d) *Besoin de capitaux.*

Les nouveaux propriétaires sont généralement dépourvus de capitaux, et leur gêne s'aggrave s'ils doivent acheter la terre moyennant un emprunt même à un taux d'intérêt modéré.

Un moyen de créer de nouveaux capitaux fonciers sous le régime de l'entreprise familiale en location à laquelle va la préférence de l'auteur, est, dit-il, d'instaurer la *propriété culturale* ou le droit du fermier de vendre son contrat d'achat tout en se réservant l'usage du lot. Cela lui permettra de se procurer les capitaux d'exploitation et les réserves pour les dépenses courantes. Lorsque la réforme agraire est d'un caractère plus classique, une puissante organisation de crédit agricole s'impose.

Dans certains pays les habitations des ouvriers agricoles sont groupées en des points déterminés, de sorte qu'ils peuvent être facilement constitués en équipes et envoyés travailler en des points éloignés par les soins du propriétaire du domaine.

A la suite de la réforme agraire le besoin s'impose à l'ouvrier d'avoir son habitation sur le sol qui lui a été attribué. D'où le besoin de construire des habitations par priorité aux achats de machines et autres. Le besoin de fournir l'outillage vient ensuite.

Ces besoins font ressortir la nécessité de compléter la répartition des terres par un certain nombre d'institutions de caractère collectif, afin que les entreprises familiales ne se trouvent pas isolées et puissent survivre.

*Types de culture.* — Les réformes agraires ont en définitive accru la production. Mais les entreprises familiales ont tendance à donner la préférence à des cultures répondant aux besoins familiaux et à pratiquer une culture intensive, tandis que les grands domaines pratiquent une culture extensive. Aussi les réformateurs doivent-ils intervenir dans le choix des cultivateurs dans un esprit économique tendant à intensifier la culture.

La réforme sur la base d'entreprises familiales exige un effort de modernisation et d'équipement considérable.

Aussi d'aucuns estiment-ils que le régime des fermes collectives est le plus efficace pour les pays sous-développés.

Une des conditions essentielles d'une réforme agraire c'est

le remembrement des parcelles éparpillées appartenant au même cultivateur.

Les difficultés inhérentes à une réforme agraire constituent l'adoption d'un système souple susceptible d'évolution.

*Système de production.* — Le régime de la propriété individuelle est plus efficace que celui des fermages, car le locataire d'une terre pour une durée limitée l'épuise, tandis que le premier en assure la conservation de la productivité.

Les réformateurs ne doivent pas négliger de réserver une partie des terres expropriées aux cultures forestières et de pâturage.

La communication de M. Lebède donna lieu à un débat au cours duquel un des participants déclara que la dimension de l'entreprise familiale qui doit nécessairement varier suivant la fertilité du sol, les conditions climatiques, le type de culture, etc., peut être établie en prenant pour base les données fiscales qui tiennent compte de ces facteurs pour l'établissement de l'impôt.

La réforme agraire doit être accompagnée d'un programme de développement économique général de manière à faire face à l'accroissement de la famille qui rendrait insuffisante la dimension de l'entreprise familiale et nécessiterait l'engagement de certains de ses membres dans d'autres activités artisanales ou industrielles.

L'orateur confirme le caractère indispensable de la création d'associations entre les entreprises familiales afin d'assurer leur viabilité. Ces associations pourraient assumer la forme de coopératives constituées et dirigées par les agriculteurs ou celle de sociétés anonymes dans lesquelles les agriculteurs participeront à côté d'une banque ou d'un institut chargé du contrôle financier et administratif.

D'aucuns opinent que la réforme agraire peut occasionner une baisse de la production. L'orateur est d'avis que ce danger peut être évité par l'action des associations familiales.

D'autres soutiennent, dit-il, que la réforme, notamment dans les pays surpeuplés peut accroître le chômage, les nouveaux propriétaires étant enclins à allonger les journées de travail plutôt qu'engager des journaliers.

L'orateur a proposé d'ouvrir le débat sur ce sujet, mais, malheureusement la revue prémentionnée ne nous en donne pas un compte rendu.

Nous nous réservons de revenir sur ce sujet d'une grande actualité lorsque nous serons en possession du compte rendu officiel du congrès.

I. J. L.

... and the ... of ...

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## كتب حديثة

يونيو — أغسطس سنة ١٩٥٣

# OUVRAGES REÇUS

Troisième Trimestre 1953.

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# RELEVÉ DES PRINCIPAUX ARTICLES PARUS DANS LES REVUES EGYPTIENNES ET ETRANGERES

Troisième Trimestre 1953.

## REVUES EGYPTIENNES

### الاقتصاد والمحاسبة

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- الحكومة ومكافحة الغلاء.  
الدكتور ميلاس سفير اليونان يتحدث  
في السياسة الاقتصادية  
وديع فلسطين : اقتصاديات الشرق الاوسط بعد  
الحرب العالمية الثانية - الحركة التعاونية  
الزراعية والصناعية في باكستان للاستاذ  
مالك بشير احمد الملحق التجارى لباكستان  
في مصر  
اقتصاديات الشرق الاوسط : تجارة سوريا  
الخارجية سنة ١٩٥٢  
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- ارقام واحصاءات  
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موسى حقى : سياسة التوسع فى المنشآت  
اخبار اقتصادية  
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التاجر - فى ركاب العلم - من اخبار المعادن  
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احمد حمدي حافظ : التجارة والمحاسبة امام  
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- رب ضارة نافعة  
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السيد خلوصي طوغاي سفير تركيا يتحدث عن  
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وديع فلسطين : فى السياسة الاقتصادية : فترة  
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### مجلة غرفة الاسكندرية

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The agrarian reform.

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# جداول إحصائية

## STATISTICAL TABLES

### إيرادات الدولة ومصروفاتها

#### الحساب الختامي

### BUDGETARY REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE

#### FINAL ACCOUNTS.

(L.E. 000's)

( بالآلاف الجنيهات )

FINANCIAL YEAR (*)	الإيرادات REVENUE	المصروفات EXPEN- DITURE	الفائض + أو العجز - SURPLUS + DEFICIT -	السنة المالية (*)
1938-1939	44207	47889	- 3682	١٩٣٩ - ١٩٣٨
1939-1940	46080	48639	- 2559	١٩٤٠ - ١٩٣٩
1940-1941	43677	42559	+ 1118	١٩٤١ - ١٩٤٠
1941-1942	56336	46062	+ 10274	١٩٤٢ - ١٩٤١
1942-1943	67141	56553	+ 10588	١٩٤٣ - ١٩٤٢
1943-1944	77774	71938	+ 5836	١٩٤٤ - ١٩٤٣
1944-1945	87731	82097	+ 5634	١٩٤٥ - ١٩٤٤
1945-1946	103500	95304	+ 8196	١٩٤٦ - ١٩٤٥
1946-1947	112793	102492	+ 10301	١٩٤٧ - ١٩٤٦
1947-1948	101495	94548	+ 6948	١٩٤٨ - ١٩٤٧
1948-1949	170476	157695	+ 12781	١٩٤٩ - ١٩٤٨
1949-1950	173593	163809	+ 9784	١٩٥٠ - ١٩٤٩
1950-1951	191806	190184	+ 1622	١٩٥١ - ١٩٥٠
1951 March/June	63922	60820	+ 3102	١٩٥١ : مارس/يونيو
1951/1952 : July/S pt.	41228	29394	+ 11834	١٩٥٢/١٩٥١ : يوليو/سبتمبر
Oct./Dec.	51122	42758	+ 8364	أكتوبر/ديسمبر
Jan./March	46380	50347	- 3967	يناير/مارس

(\*) From 1st May to 30th April until 1946-1947.

From 1st May to 29th February for 1947-1948.

From 1st March to 28th February until 1950-1951.

From 1st March to 30th June 1951 owing to change of financial year thereafter to 1st July.

(\*) من أول مايو الى ٣٠ ابريل حتى سنة ١٩٤٧/١٩٤٦

ومن أول مايو الى ٢٩ فبراير عن سنة ١٩٤٨/١٩٤٧

ومن أول مارس الى ٢٨ فبراير حتى سنة ١٩٥١/١٩٥٠

ومن أول مارس الى ٣٠ يونيو سنة ١٩٥١ لاعتبار بدء السنة المالية من أول يوليو بعد ذلك التاريخ .

**BANK DEPOSITS AND SAVINGS - ودائع البنوك و صناديق التوفير - (بالآلاف الجنيهات)**

END OF	الودائع بالبنوك التجارية (١)						الودائع صندوق مصلحة البريد (٢)		في آخر ديسمبر
	DEPOSITS WITH COMMERCIAL BANKS (1)						DEPOSITS IN THE POST OFFICE SAVINGS BANK (2)		
	حسابات جارية SIGHT DEPOSITS		حكومة GOVERN- MENT	ودائع لأجل TIME DEPOSITS PRIVATE	ودائع التوفير SAVINGS DEPOSITS	المجملة TOTAL	الجملة TOTAL		
	لأفراد PRIVATE	للحكومة GOVERN- MENT							
December 1938	31611	3399	5566	2678	43254	7804	1939		
" 1941	56033	18186	6764	2475	83458	9299	1941		
" 1943	107126	67954	5965	4641	185686	19206	1943		
" 1945	206108	61741	12795	8626	289270	33468	1945		
" 1946	188277	30499	11876	8707	289359	33739	1946		
" 1947	173968	87624	13886	8426	269904	32154	1947		
" 1948	194472	32322	14819	7823	269436	29771	1948		
" 1949	183753	72211	20492	8212	284668	30035	1949		
" 1950	180150	58913	26735	8354	273252	29680	1950		
" 1951	173751	33854	24146	8561	240312	28446	1951		
" 1952	160025	3061	26115	9783	198954	27541	1952		
January 1953	161866	1895	26764	9973	200498	27679	يناير		
February "	161323	2299	26520	10121	200263	27783	فبراير		
March "	164044	10691	24927	10238	209300	27701	مارس		
April "	162567	10917	27193	10609	211291	27514	أبريل		
May "	164638	13044	25699	10611	216047	27215	مايو		
June "	166280	14044	22164	10740	213228	27060	يونيه		
July "	167550	7665	22720	10839	208774	26904	يوليه		
August "	170038	8213	22975	10928	212154	26833	أغسطس		

(1) Figures for 16 banks, including National Bank of Egypt.

(١) تشمل بيانات ١٦ بنوك بما في ذلك البنك الأهلي المصري

(2) Figures for 10 banks including National Bank of Egypt.

(٢) تشمل بيانات ١٠ بنوك بما في ذلك البنك الأهلي المصري

وسايل الشراء

PURCHASING MEDIA

(L.E. 000's)

( بالآلاف الجنيهات )

END OF	Banking Money*		N.B.E. NOTES		SUBSIDIARY NOTES & COINS.		Total Net Currency Circulation	TOTAL PURCHASING MEDIA
	أموال البنوك*	Issue	مكثرت البنوك الأهل المصري	Issue	أوراق الصلة والتداول	Issue		
1939	43.3	28	1.6	26.4	0.05	—	26.5	69.8
1945	237.2	148.0	7.3	140.7	1.9	—	142.6	436.8
1946	239.4	145.0	7.8	137.2	2.1	—	139.3	428.7
1947	237.7	145.0	12.9	132.1	9.3	0.3	141.1	428.8
1948	274.2	164.0	18.3	145.7	9.4	0.3	154.8	429.0
1949	233.5	174.0	13.3	150.7	9.8	0.2	170.3	458.8
1950	274.6	191.0	12.6	178.4	10.6	0.3	183.7	463.3
1951	252.2	211.0	17.2	193.8	10.6	0.3	204.1	456.3
1952	217.9	209.0	14.3	194.7	12.5	0.4	206.8	424.7
1953	224.4	209.0	14.3	194.7	12.5	0.5	206.7	431.1
January	222.0	206.0	14.1	191.9	12.5	0.5	203.9	425.9
February	223.5	202.0	14.9	187.1	12.5	0.5	199.1	422.6
March	225.1	199.0	15.5	183.5	12.5	0.5	195.5	420.6
April	229.0	194.0	15.4	178.6	12.5	0.5	190.6	419.6
May								

Figures for 16 banks, including N.B.E. Banking money  
\* includes current A/c's., time deposits, savings and deposits  
of other banks with N.B.E.

الإرقام من بيانات ١٦ بنكا بما في ذلك البنك الأهل المصري  
\* أموال البنوك تشمل الحسابات الجارية، الودائع لإجمال وودائع التوفير وودائع  
البنوك الأخرى مع البنك الأهل المصري

**البنك الاهل المصري**  
أرقام المقارنة  
في نهاية الفترة

**NATIONAL BANK OF EGYPT**  
COMPARATIVE FIGURES  
END OF PERIOD

(L.E. 000's)

(بالآلاف الجنيهات)

قسم اصدار البنكوت

	1938	1947	1948	1949	1950	1951	1952	اغتسطس August 1953
<b>Liabilities:</b>								
Notes Issued ... ..	22200	145000	164000	174000	191000	211000	203000	187000
Reserves ... ..						11761	11761	--
	22200	145000	164000	174000	191000	222761	220761	187000
<b>Assets:</b>								
Gold ... ..	6241	6376	6376	6376	6376	60553	60553	60553
Egyptian & Foreign Govt. Treasury Bills & Securities	15959	133624	157624	167624	194624	162203	160208	126447
	22200	145000	164000	174000	191000	222761	220761	187000

قسم العمليات المصرفية

	1938	1947	1948	1949	1950	1951	1952	اغتسطس AUGUST 1953
<b>Liabilities:</b>								
Capital ... ..	2925	2925	2925	2925	2925	3000	3000	3000

خصوم

قيمة المصدر من اوراق البنكوت  
الاحتياطى

اصول

ذهب

اذون وصكوك حكومية مصرية واجنبية

خصوم

رأس المال

Reserves ... ..	2925	2925	2925	2925	2925	3000	3000	3000	3000
Government Deposits ... ..	4836	88737	45584	72720	61376	40115	1935	3699	
Egyptian Govt. Treasury Bills Special a/c.t. ... ..	—	—	35000(1)	40000(1)	60000(1)	80000(2)	70000(2)	45000(2)	
Egyptian Govt. T.B. Special a/c.t. (Law 294 of 1952) ... ..	—	—	—	—	—	—	7856	6997	
(Law 296 of 1953) ... ..	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	4994	
Other Deposits ... ..	17205	79566	100894	88478	88866	68995	63379	70676	
Bankers ... ..	608	40072	42859	24049	31287	51487	38158	63154	
Other Accounts ... ..	2269	6314	18465	14293	22583	35558	32597	29734	
<b>Assets:</b>	30768	220539	248652	245390	269962	280155	219925	230254	
Cash: N.B.E. Notes ... ..	1794	7472	10164	7834	7098	10083	8483	11238	
Other Notes & Coins	655	206	186	149	158	144	206	173	
Foreign Bankers and Corres- pondents & Money at Call	2449	7678	10350	7983	7256	10227	8689	11411	
Investments ... ..	—	32752	35898	57015	50324	30015	19557	19830	
Advances ... ..	14478	167417	176600	149420	153169	676552	131763	155463	
Bills ... ..	8259	6987	8165	17296	31918	28999	27287	16165	
Other Accounts ... ..	1903	283	150	278	487	307	884	120	
	3679	5352	17489	13393	36808	34055	31740	27265	
	30768	220539	248652	245390	269962	280155	219925	230254	

Source: National Bank of Egypt: Reports of the Ordinary  
General Meeting, Weekly Position.

(1) Treasury Bills Law No. 119 of 1948.

(2) Treasury Bills Art. 14 of Law No. 57 of 1951.

الإحتياطيات  
ودائع حكومية  
حساب الحكومة المصرية ( الخاص بأذون  
الخزينة )  
حساب خاص أذون الخزانة :  
بمقتضى القانون ٢٩٤ لسنة ١٩٥٢  
١٩٥٣ ٢٩٦  
ودائع أخرى  
حسابات البنوك  
حسابات أخرى

اصول  
فى الخزانة : بكتوت البنك الاهل المصرى  
عملات معدنية وورقية اخرى

البنوك والمراسلون بالخارج والمبالغ المقرضة  
تحت الطلب ولا مجال قصيرة  
محفظة الاوراق المالية  
قروض  
كسبيلات  
حسابات اخرى متنوعة

المصدر : البنك الاهل المصرى ، تقارير الجمعيات العمومية  
العادية ، والميزانيات الاسبوعية  
« ا » اذون خزانة ، مصدرة بمقتضى القانون رقم ١١٩ لسنة ١٩٤٨  
« ب » اذون خزانة ، مصدرة بمقتضى المادة ١٤ من قانون رقم ٥٧ لسنة ١٩٥١

**CONSOLIDATED BALANCE SHEET OF BANKS (1) — (١) — الميزانية الموحدة للبنوك**  
**END OF PERIOD** ( آلاف الجنيهات ) في آخر الفترة

(L.E. 000's)

	ديسمبر DEC. 1933	ديسمبر DEC. 1947	ديسمبر DEC. 1948	ديسمبر DEC. 1949	ديسمبر DEC. 1950	ديسمبر DEC. 1951	ديسمبر DEC. 1952	ديسمبر DEC. 1953	الوجبة JUNE 1953
<b>Liabilities</b>									
Capital... ..	2573	3250	3250	3250	3250	3600	3687	4037	رأس المال
Reserves ... ..	1296	4241	5183	7702	5854	6515	6935	7752	الإحتياطيات
Current, Deposit and other Accounts ... ..	30339	126383	140572	139654	138309	149410	140929	149499	حسابات الودائع وغيرها حسابات الحكومة
Govt. Accounts ... ..	1047	3490	4464	2412	2473	3463	3265	200	حسابات الحكومة
Bankers Accounts ... ..	1793	5212	5020	6546	20178	24613	8907	6627	حسابات البنوك
Acceptances, etc. ... ..	2784	6075	7808	19362	9591	9768	7718	8527	أوراق مقبولة الخ
Sundry Accounts (2) ... ..	4084	12141	10333	9609	11505	7663	9152	12376	حسابات أخرى متنوعة (٢)
Total... ..	44404	160792	176630	188535	191160	204032	180593	189018	الجملة
<b>Assets</b>									
Investments ... ..	4336	16457	14304	14372	9748	11130	17096	17329	الاصول
Advances ... ..	14545	53387	69377	92397	102973	104312	91640	59988	استثمارات
Bills Discounted ... ..	2638	4480	4347	3273	4771	6798	7133	10416	سلفيات
Building, Furniture ... ..	735	556	713	715	769	1127	1309	1377	حولات مضمونة
Debit Accounts (3) ... ..	12885	33244	26287	23630	22078	16448	14117	20205	مجان ، وائاث الخ
Clients Liability for acceptances, etc. ... ..	2764	6075	7808	19362	9591	9768	7718	8527	حسابات مدينة (٣)
Cash at Banks and in hand ... ..	3416	44403	51346	32913	39375	52873	39905	68030	تقديرات مقابل أوراق مقبولة
Sundry Accounts ... ..	3145	2185	2443	1873	1855	1576	1675	3146	التقديرات المبرازين ولدى البنوك
Total... ..	44404	160792	176630	188535	191160	204032	180593	189018	حسابات أخرى متنوعة الجملة

(1) Aggregate of 13 balance sheets of banks, excluding National Bank of Egypt.

(2) Include Profit & Loss A/c's.

(3) Include bankers A/c's.

(١) تشمل المجموع الاجمالي لميزانيات ١٣ بنكاً لا يدخل ضمنها البنك الاصل المصري  
 (٢) تشمل حسابات الارباح والخسائر  
 (٣) تشمل حسابات البنوك

**INDEX NUMBER OF WHOLESALE PRICES - الرقم القياسي لاسعار الجملة -**  
 (June-August 1939 = 100) (يونيو - أغسطس سنة ١٩٣٩ = ١٠٠)

MONTHS	المواد الغذائية FOODSTUFFS										المواد الصناعية INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTS AND MATERIALS										الشهور
	CEREALS الحبوب	DAIRY PRODUCE منتجات الألبان	OILS الزيوت	MEAT & FISH اللحم والأسماك	SUGAR, TEA & COFFEE السكر والشاي والقهوة	OTHERS أخرى	TOTAL إجمالي	FUEL الوقود	SOAP & CHEMICALS صابون وكيماويات	PAPER الورق	Building Materials مواد البناء	FERTILIZERS الأسمدة	METALS المعادن	TEXTILES النسيج والخيوط	LEATHERS & TANNING الجلود ومنتجاتها	PHARMACEUTICALS الطباقية الطبية	PHARMACEUTICALS الطباقية الصناعية	TOTAL إجمالي			
December 1940	113	132	166	121	136	152	—	204	162	251	221	101	234	143	159	125	—	142.5			
1941	109	162	188	153	157	183	—	222	214	367	261	228	294	169	202	140	—	182.5			
1943	231	335	319	233	240	351	—	253	320	1704	319	326	460	266	311	180	—	202.7			
1945	233	424	343	294	241	389	—	232	378	1221	623	310	393	305	438	200	—	333.4			
1946	269	434	406	308	239	458	—	243	386	461	370	298	340	277	348	300	—	316			
1947	243	386	468	302	241	352	297.1	248	381	443	418	239	373	318	340	300	—	311			
1948	251	369	369	317	233	278	298.8	259	395	410	403	341	375	343	230	290	354.8	324.3			
1949	223	389	345	323	289	341	291.4	272	362	351	347	366	358	358	329	280	360.8	322			
1950	273	440	399	339	278	413	334.6	268	374	703	364	365	466	431	358	310	428.5	376.1			
1951	274	463	437	366	327	410	350.1	269	406	647	446	366	526	460	372	310	430.9	386.2			
1952	247	387	351	301	331	380	366.8	301	370	533	460	366	447	467	347	310	388.2	342.6			
1953	248	393	356	303	332	375	312.3	301	365	527	456	366	444	470	345	310	386.5	345.1			
February	232	383	363	296	339	377	317.8	301	361	528	452	366	443	461	354	310	386.5	343.3			
March	232	373	375	294	330	377	319.3	301	360	530	450	366	432	461	345	310	385.0	343.6			
April	253	362	375	306	330	360	317.1	298	359	515	448	366	430	455	342	310	382.1	346.1			
May	296	358	374	293	322	372	341.2	301	358	516	449	366	421	455	347	310	381.3	359.4			
June	299	358	355	293	321	365	337.3	301	358	513	449	366	442	457	345	310	382.6	338.1			
July	301	357	366	292	318	372	334.1	301	358	509	449	366	445	457	345	310	382.5	356.0			

## احصاءات عن القطن المصري

المساحة المزروعة ، متوسط محصول الفدان  
المخزون ، المحصول ، المستهلك ، والصادر

### EGYPTIAN COTTON STATISTICS CULTIVATED AREA, YIELD PER FEDDAN, STOCK, CROP, CONSUMPTION AND EXPORTS

السنوات (١) YEARS (1)	المساحة المزروعة (بالآلاف الأقدان) CULTIVATED AREA (FEDDANS 000's)	متوسط محصول الفدان (بالقطنار) YIELD PER FEDDAN (CANTARS)	المخزون ( أول سبتمبر ) (بالآلاف القطنار ) STOCK (SEPT. 1st) (CANTARS 000's)	المحصول (بالآلاف القطنار) CROP (CANTARS 000's)	المستهلك (بالآلاف القطنار) (٢) CONSUMPTION (2) (CANTARS 000's)	الصادرات ( بالآلاف القطنار ) EXPORTS (CANTARS 000's)
1937-1938	1978	5.6	517	11009	511	8919
1938-1939	1784	4.7	1970	8340	570	8484
1939-1940	1625	5.4	1010	8692	653	7504
1940-1941	1685	5.4	1560	9170	753	4118
1941-1942	1644	5.1	5757	8374	843	4609
1942-1943	706	5.9	8678	4233	891	2070
1943-1944	713	5.0	9808	3569	876	3610
1944-1945	853	5.4	8892	4640	1066	4228
1945-1946	982	5.3	8237	5221	1072	4413
1946-1947	1212	5.0	7824	6066	1099	6955
1947-1948	1254	5.1	5880	6370	1182	7798
1948-1949	1441	6.2	3256	8900	1444	7883
1949-1950	1692	5.1	2226	8704	1286	8848
1950-1951	1975	4.2	911	8500	1335	6426
1951-1952	1972	3.9	1648	7654	1391	4427
1952-1953	1967	4.8	2180	9431	1784(2)	7100 (2)

(1) Cotton season begins on 1st September and ends on 31st August.

(2) Up to the week ending 31 August 1953.

(١) يبدأ موسم القطن من أول سبتمبر  
وينتهى في آخر أغسطس

(٢) الأرقام لتأية الأسبوع المنتهى  
٣١ أغسطس سنة ١٩٥٣

## الميزان التجارى

### BALANCE OF TRADE

(Value in L.E. 000's)

( القيمة بالآلاف الجنيهات )

YEARS	الواردات (١) IMPORTS (1)	الصادرات (٢) EXPORTS (2)	الزيادة في الواردات (-) الصادرات (+) EXCESS OF IMPORTS — EXPORTS +	السنوات
1938	36954	30125	- 6829	١٩٣٨
1939	34081	34832	+ 751	١٩٣٩
1940	31738	28320	- 3056	١٩٤٠
1941	33127	22611	- 10516	١٩٤١
1942	55512	19285	- 36227	١٩٤٢
1943	39196	26579	- 12617	١٩٤٣
1944	51007	30001	- 21006	١٩٤٤
1945	60476	45159	- 15317	١٩٤٥
1946	83248	68993	- 14255	١٩٤٦
1947	102464	89837	- 12627	١٩٤٧
1948	172877	143101	- 29776	١٩٤٨
1949	178230	138002	- 40228	١٩٤٩
1950	212682	175428	- 37254	١٩٥٠
1951	241977	203080	- 38897	١٩٥١
1952	216464	145116	- 71348	١٩٥٢
1st Quarter 1953	35738	33744	- 1994	الربع الاول من ١٩٥٣
2nd Quarter 1953	45862	40728	- 5134	الربع الثانى من ١٩٥٣

(1) Excluding the value of imports of monetary gold.

(١) لا تشمل الواردات من الذهب للاغراض النقدية

(2) Including produce and manufactures of Egypt and exports of imported merchandise.

(٢) الأرقام تشمل صادرات البضائع الوطنية والاجنبية

حصة كل منطقة وكل دولة من الدول الهامة في اجمالي قيمة واردات مصر (1)  
SHARE OF EACH REGION AND EACH PRINCIPAL COUNTRY IN THE TOTAL VALUE OF EXPORTS OF EGYPT (1)

	1938		1939		1951		الربع الاول 1st quarter 1953		الربع الثاني 2nd quarter 1953	
	الاف L.E. 000's.	الاف L.E. 000's.	الاف L.E. 000's.	الاف L.E. 000's.						
	0.00	0/00	0/00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Middle East (2) ...	1862	50	20486	73	14647	68	2145	60	2714	59
Africa ...	83	2	8565	31	2700	12	582	16	635	14
Asia ...	4290	116	16441	59	14465	67	2143	60	3306	72
Europe ...	26658	724	141700	507	121810	563	18950	530	30800	674
The Americas ...	3853	102	73448	263	61046	282	11542	323	3234	180
Oceania ...	309	6	13870	67	1695	8	357	10	57	1
Others (3) ...	4	0	84	0	101	0	19	1	16	0
TOTAL... ..	36945	1000	279594	1000	216464	1009	35733	1000	45862	1000
Belgium ...	2069	56	8589	19	6148	23	775	22	757	17
France ...	1956	53	29282	73	14065	65	2588	72	4330	91
Germany ...	3753	102	9799	35	12244	57	3871	39	4836	106
Italy ...	3004	81	15665	57	12236	57	2579	72	3319	72
Sweden ...	531	14	6265	22	4420	20	576	16	824	13
Switzerland ...	597	16	2811	10	3292	15	967	27	1076	23
United Kingdom ...	8497	239	41927	150	29492	136	3528	90	3798	83
Japan ...	955	26	1208	4	1018	5	222	6	133	3
India ...	876	27	6695	24	4432	20	989	28	1265	28
United States ...	2456	66	65146	233	33333	155	7604	213	4561	99
Other Countries ...	12260	329	104207	373	95594	442	12039	466	20558	458
TOTAL... ..	36945	1000	279594	1000	216464	1000	35733	1000	45862	1000

(1) Excluding the value of imports of monetary gold.  
(2) Including: Cyprus, Iraq, Syria, Lebanon, Turkey, Iran, Palestine, Jordan, Saudi Arabia, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Libya and British East Africa. (3) From ships.  
(4) لا تشمل الواردات من الذهب لأغراض النقدية.  
(5) الشرق الأوسط يشمل قبرص والعراق وسوريا وليبنان وتركيا وإيران وفلسطين والأردن والمملكة العربية السعودية وأثيوبيا وأندريا وليبيا وأفريقيا الشرقية البريطانية. (6) من السفن.

حصص كل منطقة وكل دولة من الدول الهامة في إجمالي قيمة صادرات مصر

SHARE OF EACH REGION AND EACH PRINCIPAL COUNTRY IN THE TOTAL VALUE OF EXPORTS OF EGYPT

1938	1950		1951		الربع الأول 1953		الربع الثاني 1953			
	الولايات المتحدة L.E.		الولايات المتحدة L.E.		الولايات المتحدة L.E.		الولايات المتحدة L.E.			
	000 S.	%								
Middle East (1) ...	1334	44	3394	29	3326	26	1078	32	975	24
Africa ...	109	4	910	4	393	3	70	2	322	8
Asia ...	3785	125	49482	245	27531	190	7737	229	10454	257
Europe ...	23666	755	121602	596	93078	641	21606	229	25850	635
The Americas ...	358	33	20630	102	17796	595	29908	89	2520	62
Oceania ...	54	2	2012	10	595	4	30	1	346	8
Others (3) ...	219	7	2500	12	1832	225	225	7	261	6
TOTAL... ..	30125	1000	203080	1000	145116	1000	33744	1000	40728	1000
Belgium ...	501	17	1632	8	934	6	594	13	423	10
France ...	2467	82	20041	99	18443	127	5359	150	5047	124
Germany ...	3289	113	8614	42	11649	80	2525	75	1730	43
Italy ...	1813	60	16197	80	15655	108	2906	36	2422	59
Sweden ...	253	8	1227	6	935	6	364	11	447	11
Switzerland ...	1085	36	3095	15	4185	29	328	25	1342	33
United Kingdom ...	9935	330	38167	190	6597	45	2830	84	3698	91
Japan ...	1843	61	14670	72	6208	43	1452	42	2748	67
India ...	1543	51	29901	147	13526	93	4725	140	5936	147
United States ...	716	24	19599	97	16880	117	1677	52	1767	43
Other Countries ...	6580	218	49527	244	50104	346	10474	308	15109	372
TOTAL... ..	30125	1000	203080	1000	145116	1000	33744	1000	40728	1000

(1) Including: Cyprus, Iraq, Syria, Lebanon, Turkey, Iran, Palestine, Jordan, Saudi Arabia, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Libya and British East Africa (3) Bunkers, foreign ships.

(2) الشرق الأوسط يشمل قبرص والعمان وسوريا ولبنان وتركيا وإيران وفلسطين والأردن والمملكة العربية السعودية وأثيوبيا والدموم والسعودية والشرق الأوسط (3) استهلاك السفن الأجنبية

(١) الشرق الأوسط يشمل قبرص والعمان وسوريا ولبنان وتركيا وإيران وفلسطين والأردن والمملكة العربية السعودية وأثيوبيا والدموم والسعودية والشرق الأوسط (٣) استهلاك السفن الأجنبية

أهم الواردات

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES IMPORTED

Value in 000's L.E., Quantity in Tons.

القيمة بالآلاف الجنيهات ، المقادير بالأطنان

ARTICLES	1938		1952		1st Qrt. 1953		الربع الثاني 2nd Qrt. 1953		الإصناف
	الكمية Quantity	القيمة Value	الكمية Quantity	القيمة Value	الكمية Quantity	القيمة Value	الكمية Quantity	القيمة Value	
Wheat	808	6	710442	32597	125193	5513	175484	7616	قمح
Maize	3633	46	42706	1870	—	—	—	—	ذرة
Tea	7833	831	16231	6481	4341	1481	6373	2462	شاي
Kerosene	308875	1136	476053	6620	48544	1398	101172	1434	كبروزين
Oil, Diesel, Mazout & Solar	229	649	593174	5472	73195	703	73351	733	زيت هيزل مازوت وغاز صولر
Coal	1548	2007	205143	1464	6233	54	19266	103	فحم حجري
Paper, news print	10373	111	13543	1034	4888	255	3040	156	ورق براند ومجلات
Tobacco	5893	605	11976	4856	2424	1011	2576	1122	تبغ ( دخان )
Fertilizers	514	2936	629015	13734	62875	1415	147318	3234	أسمدة
Textiles	1646	2828	1782	2161	256	300	506	693	قطنية
Woolen	388	211	1201	3638	134	373	91	232	صوفية
Artificial silk	230	1220	152117	5263	69	191	74	209	حرير صناعي
Wood for building	74709	699	54786	2525	27389	851	45642	1399	أخشاب لبناء،
Bars, iron or steel	918	73	3534	794	7012	293	25085	898	أسياخ من حديد أو فولاد
Tractors	8790	1052	12894	5992	186	52	273	62	جرارات
Motor-cars, buses, lorries	—	21663	1167609	123098	1235	546	1472	620	سيارات أمبوس وركوب ونقل
Other articles	—	—	—	—	234179	21297	246152	24889	أصناف أخرى
TOTAL...	—	36934	4092735	218866	598153	35738	867875	45862	جملة

The values of Imports are C.I.F. The values expressed in the currencies of the countries of export are converted into Egyptian currency at exchange rates on the day of clearing. Custom duties are excluded.

قيمة الواردات (سيف) أى قيمة البضاعة فى مكان الإرسال مضافا إليها تكاليف النقل والتأمين من ذلك المكان إلى الحدود المصرية بعد تحويل العملات الأجنبية إلى العملة المصرية بسمو المادة يوم التخليص عليها ، ولا تشمل الضريبة المصرية .

## اهم صادرات المنتجات والصنوعات المصرية

### PRINCIPAL EXPORTS OF PRODUCE AND MANUFACTURES OF EGYPT

Value in 000's L.E., Quantity in Tons.

القيمة بالآلاف الجنيهات ، المقدار بالاطنان

ARTICLES	1938		1952		الربع الاول 1st Qrt. 1953		الربع الثاني 2nd Qrt. 1953		الاصناف
	الكمية Quantity	القيمة Value	الكمية Quantity	القيمة Value	الكمية Quantity	القيمة Value	الكمية Quantity	القيمة Value	
	Cotton, raw ... ..	356594	21190	270393	126414	84458	28917	106349	
Cotton yarn ... ..	—	—	6622	3453	669	272	872	325	غزل قطن
Cake of cotton seed ... ..	256163	914	2635	161	710	7	13622	210	كسب بذرة قطن
Wool, raw ... ..	1378	90	357	180	4	1	62	35	صوف خام
Phosphate of lime ... ..	403	307	422805	1139	70230	196	123524	337	فوسفات الجير
Oils, diesel, mazout and solar ... ..	54	135	211450	1448	23565	152	28592	182	زيوت ديزل ومازوت وصوئر
Salt, common ... ..	284948	103	80471	96	60766	62	82249	74	ملح الطعام
Rise, bleached ... ..	42217	480	13840	769	96	3	94	3	ارز مبيض
Onions ... ..	143619	929	90164	2304	35539	1252	74172	2122	بصل
Molasses ... ..	23800	52	29790	320	12627	73	13454	79	عسل السكر
Tobacco and cigarettes... ..	316	184	84	103	31	34	24	28	تباغ ( دخان ) وسجاير
Furniture, wood ... ..	—	3	482	117	113	27	143	38	اثاث خشب
Hides and Skins, tanned	492	68	181	121	63	40	41	29	جلود مدبوغة
Other articles ... ..	—	4887	320668	—	144788	2047	142982	2392	مواد اخرى
<b>TOTAL... ..</b>	<b>—</b>	<b>29342</b>	<b>1449942</b>	<b>142855</b>	<b>433719</b>	<b>33083</b>	<b>586180</b>	<b>40327</b>	<b>حيلة</b>

The values of Exports are F.O.B. i.e. the values free on board or free on rail or road vehicle at the frontiers of Egypt, including custom duties.

قيمة الصادرات (فوب) اى خاصة المشارف للسفينة او للسكة الحديد او لحرية النقل عند الحدود المصرية ، مضافا اليها الخريبة المصرية

12

**GOLD & FOREIGN EXCHANGE HOLDINGS (1) (2)**  
 (Millions of U.S. dollars)

الذهب والعملات الأجنبية التي في حيازة الدول المختلفة (١) (٢)  
 (بلايين الدولارات)

END OF PERIOD	EGYPT (3)		IRAQ		IRAN		TURKEY		التحاد جنوب افريقيا Union of South Africa		الهند INDIA		بلجيكا BELGIUM	
	GOLD	EXCHANGE	GOLD	EXCHANGE	GOLD	EXCHANGE	GOLD	EXCHANGE	GOLD	EXCHANGE	GOLD	EXCHANGE	GOLD	EXCHANGE
December 1937	55	39	—	—	26	9	29	20	189	39	274	316	826	1
" 1939	53	42	4.4	—	26	16	29	9	243	43	274	342	714	2
" 1945	52	111.6	12.4	—	127	100	241	46	914	232	274	504.0	716	82
" 1947	53	103.2	3.9	—	142	104	170	99	732	249	274	458.0	624	300
" 1946	53	104.4	3.3	—	140	134	162	30	133	147	236	309.0	549	314
" 1949	53	69.4	7.9	—	140	108	154	49	123	170	247	173.5	693	193
" 1950	53	63.6	25.4	—	139	102	159	65	197	279	247	173.2	587	162
" 1951	174	356	22.1	—	133	53	150	66	199	196	247	164.0	735	419
" 1952	174	209	33.0	—	138	39	143	47	170	211	247	143.2	706	367
January 1953	174	206	35.1	—	138	40	143	54	165	191	247	150.8	709	348
February 1953	174	—	32.9	—	136	37	144	76	173	172	247	151.3	701	350
March 1953	174	200	30.3	—	137	36	144	74	174	173	247	132.0	702	336
April "	174	210	33.5	—	137	36	144	76	173	153	247	150.4	690	330
May "	174	207	33.0	—	137	35	144	77	173	147	247	149.3	693	311
June "	174	212	31.6	—	137	34	144	70	173	131	247	143.8	696	325

(١) Source: reproduced from "Monthly Bulletin of Statistics, Statistical Office of the United Nations", Vol. VII, No. 8, August 1953, pp. 157-161.  
 (٢) Gross holdings of gold and short-term foreign assets of treasury, central banks, exchange stabilisation funds, and other official institutions unless otherwise stated.  
 (٣) Holdings of the National Bank. The series on gold relate to the holdings of the Issue and Banking Department; through 1939, and of the Issue Department thereafter.

# GOLD & FOREIGN EXCHANGE HOLDINGS

(Millions of U.S. dollars)

الذهب والعملات الأجنبية التي في حيازة الدول المختلفة

(بلايين الدولارات)

END OF PERIOD	فرنسا (٤)		إيطاليا		سويسرا		المملكة المتحدة (٥)		كندا		الولايات المتحدة (٦)		أستراليا		نيوزيلندا	
	FRANCE (4)	GOLD	ITALY	GOLD	SWITZERLAND	GOLD	UNITED KINGDOM (5)	CANADA	GOLD	U.S. STATES	GOLD	UNITED STATES (6)	AUSTRALIA	GOLD	NEW ZEALAND	GOLD
December 1937	2743	35	210	2	650	119	4065	180	15	12790	5	274	23	69	1827	
" 1939	2984	118	144	21	549	81	2638	218	83	17000	14	176	23	27	1878	
" 1945	1550	45	24	38	1342	38	2477	354	1154	20983	53	543	23	269	1845	
" 1947	550	252	38	188	1356	24	2030	287	215	22932	88	514	23	204	1847	
" 1948	548	—	112	421	1387	55	1357	401	597	24398	88	1126	23	177	1848	
" 1949	523	254	256	637	1504	61	1689	486	631	24563	88	962	27	105	1849	
" 1950	523	311	—	—	1470	60	3309	380	1162	22919	88	1237	29	136	1850	
" 1951	547	252	333	712	1451	53	2335	842	937	22873	112	904	32	95	1851	
" 1952	573	103	346	567	1422	114	1846	885	977	23252	112	831	33	87	1852	
January 1953	573	46	346	542	1417	109	1978	888	931	23079	113	885	33	111	1853	
February 1953	573	46	346	510	1416	108	2103	393	946	22751	112	922	33	149	1853	
March 1953	573	46	346	499	1418	109	2166	906	941	22362	—	—	33	151	1853	
April "	573	40	346	488	1417	129	2273	914	934	22639	—	—	33	167	1853	
May "	573	43	346	476	1432	120	2321	923	941	22590	—	—	33	187	1853	
June "	573	29	346	—	1440	122	2367	935	817	22521	—	—	33	183	1853	

(4) 1937-1947, holdings of Bank of France, Stabilization Fund and caisse centrale, beginning 1948 holdings of Bank of France only.

(5) Gold, U.S. and Canadian dollar holdings.

(6) Holdings of the Treasury and the gold held in the active portion of the Exchange Stabilization Fund.

(٤) الأرقام عن السنوات ١٩٣٧ - ١٩٤٧ عما في حيازة بنك فرنسا وصيد البيت والمصندوق المركزي - واعتبارا من سنة ١٩٤٨ عما في حيازة بنك فرنسا فقط. (٥) الأرقام عن الذهب والدولارات الأمريكية والكندية. (٦) بيان عما في حيازة الخزانة العامة والذهب الموجود تحت تصرف الخزانة المستعمل من رصيد تثبيت الصرف.

EXCHANGE RATES (1)(2) أسسهار الصر في (١) (٢)  
MONTHLY AVERAGES متوسطات شهرية

عدد السنتات الاخرية بالنسبة لوحدة العملة الاهلية - الرزم القياسي سنة ١٩٣٧ = ١٠٠ (3)  
U.S. Cents per unit of national currency — Index Number, Base Year 1937 = 100 (3)

COUNTRIES	UNIT OF NATIONAL CURRENCY	1937			1949			1953			العول
		U.S. CENTS	INDEX NUMBER	قبل التخفيض BEFORE DEVALUA- TION JAN.-AUG.	بعد التخفيض AFTER DEVALUA- TION SEPT.-DEC.	U.S. CENTS	INDEX NUMBER	يونية JUNE	U.S. CENTS	INDEX NUMBER	
Egypt	L.E.	507.1	100	413.3	81.5	287.2	56.6	287.2	56.6	جنية مصري	مصر
Iraq	Dinar	494.4	100	403	81.5	280.0	56.6	280.0	56.6	دينار	العراق
Lebanon	Official	79.55	100	45.63	57.3	45.63	57.3	45.25	56.9	جنية لبناني	لبنان
	Free	79.55	100	30.97	38.9	30.97	38.9	29.35	36.89	جنية لبناني	
Syria	Official	79.55	100	45.63	57.3	45.63	57.3	45.25	56.9	جنية سوري	سوريا
	Free	79.55	100	—	—	—	—	27.86	35.02	جنية سوري	
Iran	Official	6.083	100	3.077	50.6	9.077	50.6	3.077	80.6	ريال	ايران
	with certificate	—	100	2.208	56.3	2.208	36.3	1.000	16.43	ريال	
Turkey	L.T.	79.18	100	35.71	45.1	35.71	45.1	35.71	45.1	جنية تركي	تركيا
Union of South Africa	£ S.A.	491.8	100	403	81.9	280	56.9	280.0	56.9	جنية جنوب افريقيا	اتحاد جنوب افريقيا
India	Rupee	37.22	100	30.22	81.2	21.00	56.4	21.00	56.4	روبية	الهند
Pakistan	Rupee	37.22	100	30.22	81.2	30.22	81.2	30.22	81.2	روبية	الباكستان
Japan	Yen	26.81	100	0.2778	1.0	0.2778	1.0	0.2778	1.0	ين	اليابان

Asia Africa Middle East Arab States

البلد	العملة	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941	1942	1943	1944	1945	1946	1947	1948	1949	1950	1951	1952	1953	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1960	
Czechoslovakia	Kor.	3.486	100	2.000	57.3	2.000	57.3	2.000	57.3	2.000	57.3	2.000	57.3	2.000	57.3	2.000	57.3	2.000	57.3	2.000	57.3	2.000	57.3	2.000	57.3	2.000
Belgium	Franc	3.375	100	2.282	67.6	2.000	59.3	2.000	59.3	2.000	59.3	2.000	59.3	2.000	59.3	2.000	59.3	2.000	59.3	2.000	59.3	2.000	59.3	2.000	59.3	2.000
France	Franc	3.978	100	0.4657	11.7	.2858	7.2	0.2857	7.2	0.2857	7.2	0.2857	7.2	0.2857	7.2	0.2857	7.2	0.2857	7.2	0.2857	7.2	0.2857	7.2	0.2857	7.2	0.2857
Western Germany	D.M.	40.16	100	30.00	74.7	23.81	59.3	23.81	59.3	23.81	59.3	23.81	59.3	23.81	59.3	23.81	59.3	23.81	59.3	23.81	59.3	23.81	59.3	23.81	59.3	23.81
Italy	Official Lira	5.263	100	0.1739	3.3	0.1600	3.0	1.600	3.0	1.600	3.0	1.600	3.0	1.600	3.0	1.600	3.0	1.600	3.0	1.600	3.0	1.600	3.0	1.600	3.0	1.600
Italy	Curb Lira	—	100	0.1545	2.9	0.148	2.8	0.1594	2.8	0.1594	2.8	0.1594	2.8	0.1594	2.8	0.1594	2.8	0.1594	2.8	0.1594	2.8	0.1594	2.8	0.1594	2.8	0.1594
Netherlands	Gulden	54.95	100	37.70	82.0	26.32	57.3	26.32	57.3	26.32	57.3	26.32	57.3	26.32	57.3	26.32	57.3	26.32	57.3	26.32	57.3	26.32	57.3	26.32	57.3	26.32
Sweden	Krona	25.43	100	27.82	109.4	19.32	76.00	19.33	76.00	19.33	76.00	19.33	76.00	19.33	76.00	19.33	76.00	19.33	76.00	19.33	76.00	19.33	76.00	19.33	76.00	19.33
Switzerland	Franc	22.95	100	23.67	101.0	23.16	100.9	23.34	101.7	23.34	101.7	23.34	101.7	23.34	101.7	23.34	101.7	23.34	101.7	23.34	101.7	23.34	101.7	23.34	101.7	23.34
United Kingdom	Lst.	494.4	100	403	81.9	280	56.6	280	56.6	280	56.6	280	56.6	280	56.6	280	56.6	280	56.6	280	56.6	280	56.6	280	56.6	280
Canada	Dollar	100	100	100	100	90.91	90.91	100.6	100.6	100.6	100.6	100.6	100.6	100.6	100.6	100.6	100.6	100.6	100.6	100.6	100.6	100.6	100.6	100.6	100.6	100.6
Australia	L.A.	393.9	100	322.4	81.8	224.0	56.9	224.0	56.9	224.0	56.9	224.0	56.9	224.0	56.9	224.0	56.9	224.0	56.9	224.0	56.9	224.0	56.9	224.0	56.9	224.0
New Zealand	£N.Z.	398.1	100	403.0	101.2	280.0	70.3	280.0	70.3	280.0	70.3	280.0	70.3	280.0	70.3	280.0	70.3	280.0	70.3	280.0	70.3	280.0	70.3	280.0	70.3	280.0

(1) Source: Adapted from «Monthly Bulletin of Statistics, Statistical Office of the United Nations», Vol. VII, No. 8, August 1953, pp. 146-151.

(2) Data represent domestic per value or basic official rates for single rate countries and the domestic selling quotations for all significant rates for countries employing multiple rates of exchange.

(3) Index Number (base 1937=100) shows the changes in the value of the unit of national currency in relation to U.S. dollar.

(1) المصدر : مقتبسة من « النشرة الشهرية للإحصاءات ، مكتب الإحصاءات التابع لهيئة الأمم المتحدة » المجلد السابع العدد 8 عن شهر أغسطس ١٩٥٣ - الصفحات ١٤٦ - ١٥١

(٢) البيانات عن القيمة المحلية الأساسية أو الاسعار الرسمية للدول التي تستعمل سعر صرف مفرد وعن أسعار البيع المحلية للدول التي تستخدم أسعار صرف متعددة .

(٣) الرقم القياسي ( ١٩٣٧ = ١٠٠ ) يوضح تغيرات قيمة وحدة العملة المحلية بالنسبة للدولار الأمريكي .

WORLD TRADE BY COUNTRIES AND CONTINENTAL AREAS (1)  
 تجارة العالم حسب الدول والقارات (أ)  
 (Values in million U.S. dollars) (2)  
 القيمة بمليين الدولارات الأمريكية) (ب)

SYSTEM	الواردات (3) IMPORTS (3)				الصادرات (3) EXPORTS (3)				التعليق (5)	
	1937		1952		1937		1952			
	1st	2nd	1st	2nd	1st	2nd	1st	2nd		
Arab States	S	193	666	608	102	200	583	417	95	مصر (5) العراق سوريا ولبنان جملة
Egypt (5)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Iraq	S	47	143	173	--	28	82	56	--	
Syria-Lebanon	S	41	285	301	39	20	167	178	8	
TOTAL	...	281	1094	1082	141	248	832	651	103	
Iran	S	35	242	164	45	159	590	152	67	إيران
Turkey	S	91	402	556	118	109	314	363	106	تركيا
Other Middle East	...	121	518	232	128	87	270	174	51	دول أخرى
TOTAL	...	297	1162	952	291	355	1174	689	224	جملة
Middle East	...	40	213	234	--	45	209	216	--	كينيا - أوغندا (6)
Kenya-Uganda (6)	SI	40	213	234	--	45	209	216	--	
S. Rhodesia (7)	G	42	240	272	53	31	128	153	27	روديسيا الجنوبية (7)
Tunisia (6)	S	52	170	175	19	44	101	109	15	تونس (6)
Union of S. Africa	G	506	1447	1394	296	208	961	931	237	اتحاد جنوب أفريقيا
Other Africa	...	886	3104	3522	923	758	2778	2851	848	بلاد أخرى في أفريقيا
TOTAL	...	1526	5174	5497	1291	1086	4177	4260	1127	جملة
India (8), (12)	G	665	1816	1662	274	712	1640	1300	278	الهند (8) (12)
Indonesia (6)	S	276	803	975	107	548	1258	987	188	إندونيسيا (6)
Japan (10), (13)	G	1363	2044	2023	548	1200	1355	1273	276	اليابان (10) (13)
Pakistan	G	--	536	609	96	--	736	583	150	باكستان
Philippines (7)	G	121	522	469	65	139	409	349	53	الفلبين (7)
Other Asia	...	1341	4288	4866	1277	1671	5459	4728	1221	بلاد أخرى في آسيا
TOTAL	...	3766	10011	10549	2367	4270	10857	9170	2166	جملة

Europe	Belg.-Lux. (6) ... S	946	2544	2460	585	865	2651	2451	550	بلجيكا ولوكسمبورج (8)
	France (6) (9) (10) ... S	1700	4523	4413	1071	960	4150	3396	940	فرنسا (6) (9) (10)
	Italy ... S	735	2076	2313	613	550	1649	1833	342	إيطاليا
	Sweden ... S	541	1777	1739	379	510	1779	1563	309	السويد
	Switzerland ... S	415	1365	1295	272	295	1082	1100	286	سويسرا
	U.Kingdom (6) (12) ... Si	4716	10605	9346	2203	2578	7224	7227	1751	المملكة المتحدة (6) (10)
Other Europe ...	4336	12994	11527	2802	3863	9555	9638	2382	دول أخرى في أوروبا	
TOTAL ...	13389	35334	32994	7940	1012	26090	27747	6560	الجملة	
Canada (7) (11) ... S	832	4264	4532	1123	3299	14877	15026	3841	كندا (11) (7)	
U.S.A. (6) (7) ... G	3311	11897	11819	2784	350	1757	1409	312	الولايات المتحدة (6) (7)	
Brazil (8) ... G	335	2011	2010	282	219	573	565	152	البرازيل (8)	
Mexico (7) ... G	187	836	813	155	2020	6427	6038	1540	المكسيك (7)	
Other Americas ...	1645	6022	5996	1746	6900	27400	27510	6780	دول أخرى في الأمريكتين	
TOTAL ...	6370	25030	25170	6090	533	2040	1691	493	الجملة	
Australia (7) ... G	449	2318	1893	202	258	692	672	181	أستراليا (7)	
New Zealand (10) ... G	223	578	707	116	49	78	57	21	نيوزيلاند (10)	
Other Oceania ...	88	104	90	52	890	2810	2420	700	بلاد أخرى في الأوقيانوسية	
TOTAL ...	760	3000	2690	460	248	832	595	103	الجملة	
Summary ...	280	1094	1082	141	355	1174	414	224	ملخص	
Arab States ...	297	1162	952	291	1116	4177	4513	1127	دول عربية	
Other Middle East ...	1526	5174	5497	1291	4270	10357	9291	2168	الشرق الأوسط	
Countries ...	3766	10011	10549	2367	9621	28090	27747	6560	أفريقيا	
Africa ...	13389	35385	32994	7940	6900	27400	27510	6780	آسيا	
Asia ...	6370	25030	25170	6090	890	2810	2420	700	أوروبا	
Europe ...	760	3000	2690	460	23400	75400	72500	17660	الأمريكتان	
The Americas ...	26500	81400	79000	18580					الجملة العالم	
Oceania ...										
Total World ...										

See explanatory note on the following page.

تراجع الشروح على الصفحة التالية .

- مقتبسة من « النشرة الشهرية للإحصاءات - مكتب الإحصاء التابع لهيئة الأمم المتحدة  
مجلد ٧ عدد ٨ عن شهر أغسطس سنة ١٩٥٣ ( جداول خاصة )
- (١) البيانات عن البضائع بصفة عامة بما في ذلك الفضة في جميع أشكالها ماعدا السبائك الذهبية والعملات وأوراق العملة المصدرة
- (٢) العملات محولة الى دولارات أمريكية على أساس أسعار المبادلة الجارية التي يحددها صندوق النقد الدول
- (٣) قيمة الواردات ( سيف ) أى قيمة البضاعة في محل الإرسال مضافا إليها تكاليف النقل والتأمين • وقيمة الصادرات ( فوب ) أى قيمة البضاعة خالصة المصاريف للباخرة أو للسكة الحديد أو لعربة النقل •
- (٤) نظام التجارة - عام : يقصد به الواردات للاستهلاك المباشر مضافا إليها الواردات التي تدخل مخازن الاستيداع وصادرات المنتجات الأهلية مضافا إليها كل مايعاد تصديره
- خاص : يقصد به الواردات للاستهلاك المباشر مضافا إليها الواردات التي تخرج من مخازن الاستيداع ، وصادرات المنتجات الأهلية مضافا إليها فقط كل مايعاد تصديره بعد صيفه بالصيغة الأهلية
- نصف خاص : يقصد به الواردات العامة بعد استبعاد كل مايعاد تصديره وصادرات المنتجات الأهلية ( أو الصادرات العامة بعد استبعاد كل مايعاد تصديره )
- (٥) لاتشمل التجارة مع السودان (٦) لاتشمل الفضة (٧) الواردات التي أقر عنها على أساس القيمة (فوب) عدلت يجعلها على أساس القيمة (سيف) ( وذلك بإضافة ١٠ ٪ على القيمة الأولى ) (٨) تشمل الذهب (٩) تشمل مؤسسة الإغاثة والتعمير التابعة لهيئة الأمم المتحدة (١٠) تتضمن المساعدة الأجنبية (١١) تشمل نيوفونديلاند اعتبارا من أول إبريل ١٩٤٩ (١٢) الارقام لاتشمل تجارة الباكستان الخارجية ابتداء من أغسطس ١٩٤٧ • كما أنها لاتشمل التجارة بين الهند والباكستان قبل أول مارس ١٩٤٨ (١٣) تشمل التجارة بين اليابان وكوريا وفورموزا

Source: Adapted from "Monthly Bulletin of Statistics—Statistical Office of the United Nations", Vol. VII, No. 8, August 1953. (Special tables.)

(1) In general, the data relate to merchandise, inclusive of silver in all forms, but exclusive of gold specie and bullion and issued paper currency.

(2) Conversion into U.S. dollars being made at current exchange rates supplied by the International monetary fund.

(3) With certain exceptions, imports are valued c.i.f. and exports f.o.b.

(4) G: General trade, i.e., imports directly for consumption plus imports into warehouse, exports of national produce plus all re-exports.

S: Special trade, i.e., imports directly for consumption plus imports ex-warehouse: exports of national produce plus nationalised re-exports only.

Si: Semi-special trade, retained imports (or general imports minus all re-exports), exports of national produce (or general exports minus all re-exports).

(5) Excluding trade with the Sudan. (6) Excluding silver. (7) Imports reported f.o.b., adjusted to arbitrary c.i.f. (f.o.b. plus 10 per cent)• (8) Including gold. (9) Including UNRRA. (10) Including foreign aid. (11) Including Newfoundland from April 1949. (12) Excludes direct foreign trade of Pakistan from August 1947. Trade between India and Pakistan excluded prior to 1 March 1948. (13) Including trade between Japan, Korea and Formosa.

# INDEX NUMBER OF COST OF LIVING (1)(2)

BASE YEAR: 1948 = 100

الرقم القياسي لتكلفة المعيشة (١) (٢)

سنة الأساس : ١٩٤٨ = ١٠٠

	EGYPT (3) مصر	IRAQ (4) العراق	LEBANON (5) لبنان	IRAN إيران	TURKEY (6) تركيا	S. AFRICA UNION OF AFRICA (7) اتحاد جنوب افريقيا	FRANCE (8) فرنسا	WESTERN GERMANY المانيا الغربية	ITALY إيطاليا	SWITZERLAND سويسرا	United Kingdom المملكة المتحدة	INDIA (10) الهند	PAKISTAN (11) الباكستان	CANADA كندا	UNITED STATES الولايات المتحدة
1937	35	—	—	13	29	65	—	—	1.9	61	57	34	—	65	60
1939	36	19	20	16	29	68	—	—	2.2	62	60	35	—	65	58
1941	49	—	—	24	40	73	—	—	2.9	78	76	41	—	72	61
1945	104	108	123	101	102	89	—	—	4.9	93	87	78	—	77	75
1946	102	105	112	90	99	91	—	—	5.8	93	89	85	—	88	81
1947	99	111	102	91	100	95	—	—	9.0	97	94	92	—	88	93
1948	100	125	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1949	99	100	94	109	110	104	118	107	102	99	103	101	—	104	99
1950	104	91	87	89	104	108	131	100	100	98	106	103	95	107	100
1951	114	78	94	93	103	116	130	103	110	102	116	109	99	119	108
1952	113	84	94	101	109	126	145	110	114	105	126	111	101	121	110
1953	105	80	92	102	110	128	146	110	116	104	128	114	108	120	111
January	106	79	91	102	110	128	146	109	116	104	129	116	110	120	110
February	106	77	91	102	110	128	145	109	116	104	130	118	115	119	111
March	106	75	91	103	111	123	145	109	117	104	131	118	114	119	111
April	105	—	89	104	—	123	146	108	117	104	130	—	111	119	111
May	104	—	—	—	—	—	145	—	—	104	131	—	—	119	111
June	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	104	131	—	—	119	111

(1) Source: reproduced from "Monthly Bulletin of Statistics, Statistical Office of the United Nations", Vol. VII, No. 8, August 1953, pp. 134-141. (2) 1937-1952 Yearly averages, beginning 1953 monthly figures. (3) Cairo. (4) Baghdad. (5) Beyrouth. (6) Istanbul. (7) Europeans only. (8) Paris. (9) July-December. (10) Bombay. (11) Karachi.

(١) المصدر : تقلا عن « النشرة الشهرية للإحصاءات - مكتب الإحصاء التابع لهيئة الأمم المتحدة » المجلد السابع عدد ٨ شهر أغسطس ١٩٥٣ الصفحات ١٣٤ - ١٤١ (٢) الأرقام عن السنوات من ١٩٣٧ - ١٩٥٢ متوسطات سنوية وإبتداء من سنة ١٩٥٣ أرقام شهرية . (٣) القاهرة (٤) بغداد (٥) بيروت (٦) استانبول (٧) الأوربيين فقط (٨) باريس (٩) يوليو - ديسمبر (١٠) بومباي (١١) كراتشي .

## الرقم القياسى لنفقة المعيشة

( يونيو - أغسطس ١٩٣٩ = ١٠٠ )

الرقم القياسى لنفقة المعيشة الذى تصدره مصلحة الاحصاء والتعداد يعتمد فى حسابه على أساس بحث المصروفات العائلية بالنسبة لعائلات موظفى الحكومة من الطبقة المتوسطة فى الدرجة الاخيرة التى يتراوح دخلها ما بين ١٢-١٨ جنيها شهريا والتي يتألف عدد أفرادها من ٦٣ اشخاص تعادل ٥ أفراد ذكور بالغين من حيث الاستهلاك .

وأقسام المصروفات الرئيسية والنسب المئوية للوزن المعطى لكل قسم منها هو كما يلى :  
مواد الغذاء والوقود والصابون ٤٥ والسكن ١٦ واجور الانتقال ٣ والمصروفات النثرية ٨ مرد والملابس ١٦.٧ والمصروفات المدرسية ٥.٦ والمصاريف الاخرى ٧

حساب الارقام : فى التسمم الاول الخاص بالمواد الغذائية والوقود والصابون أخذت جملة المصروفات للمواد الرئيسية التى تدخل فى استهلاك العائلة والمعدلة بواسطة الكميات المقدرة لاستهلاك العائلة ونسبت الى فترة الاساس .

وبالنسبة للملابس فقد اختير عدد ٣٣ صنفا لتمثل الاصناف المعدة للاستعمال والمتوسط الحسابى للاسعار النسبية لهذه الاصناف يوضح نسبة الزيادة فى أسعار الملابس .

وقد روعيت الدقة الزائدة فى اختيار الاصناف سواء فى المواد الغذائية أو فى الملابس وذلك لضمان وجود وحدة التماثل طول السنة وحتى لا تتأثر بالمواسم أو بظهور أو اختفاء بعض الاصناف كما روعى أيضا فى اختيار هذه الاصناف أن تكون هى السائدة طول العام .

وقد روعى فى الايجار أن يغطى الضرائب المباشرة والعامه - أما المصروفات النثرية والمصروفات الاخرى فقد روعى فيها أن تتشعب مع الاقسام الاخرى زيادة أو نقصا .

## INDEX NUMBER OF COST OF LIVING

(June-August 1939 = 100)

The cost of living index number published by the Statistical Department, Ministry of Finance and Economy, is based on the principle of the family budget of expenditure. The families taken into account are those of the lower middle class with a monthly income of L.E. 12-18 and with 6.3 members on average (or 5 consumption units).

Main expenditure groups and the weight given to each group (in percentage) are :

Food, fuel and soap 45, Rent (including direct and general taxes on the permises) 16, Fares 3, Petty expenses 5.8, Clothing 16.7, School fees 6.5 and Sundry expenses 7.

*Computation* : in the group of food, fuel and soap, the aggregate expenditure of the principal articles of consumption weighted by the quantities necessary for the monthly consumption of the commodities therein of the said family is taken and related to that of the base period. For clothing the arithmetic mean of price relatives is used.

The choice of commodities in the foodstuffs and clothing groups has been made so as to ensure uniformity all the year round, in order that the index may not be affected by the seasonal appearance or disappearance of certain items.

# ESTIMATES OF TOTAL POPULATION (1) (2) (3)

(In thousands)

عدد السكان التقديري (١) (٢) (٣)

(بالآلاف)

	1937	1938	1940	1942	1944	1946	1948	1950	1951	1952
<b>Arab States</b>										
Egypt (4), (21) ...	16009	16300	16900	17522	18167	18835	19528	20439	20729	—
Iraq ...	—	—	—	3791	4303	4803	—	5100	—	—
Cyprus ...	371	370	401	412	425	447	466	484	492	498
Turkey (5) ...	10823	17156	17821	18209	18596	19040	19300	20935	—	—
Tanganyika (6), (21)	5165	5221	5290	5277	5459	5000	7478	7707	7827	7944
<b>Africa</b>										
Un. of S. Africa (7)	9805	9038	10355	10718	11084	11451	11890	12320	12646	12912
China ...	452460	—	458313	454849	450610	455592	463493	—	—	—
India (8), (22) ...	370342	374920	385343	393031	398416	404970	342120	358000	356829	367000
Indonesia ...	67393	68409	70476	—	—	—	72000	73500	76500	78163
Japan (9), (23) ...	70360	70390	71540	73450	73800	76155	80697	83200	84300	85500
Belgium (10), (21)	8346	8374	8301	8246	8291	8367	8357	8639	8678	8725
France (11) ...	41200	41100	30800	38700	38300	40300	41200	11900	42200	42500
Germany (12), (21), (24) ...	67831	68424	70113	70468	—	66007	46749	47662	48129	48478
Italy (13), (21) ...	42372	42696	43555	44178	44534	44994	45700	46272	46565	46889
Sweden (14), (21) ...	8270	8297	8356	8432	8561	8719	8883	7017	7074	7126
Switzerland (15), (21)	4180	4192	4226	4283	4362	4466	4609	4700	4750	4824
United Kingdom ...	47280	47494	48226	48400	49016	49217	50065	50608	50287	50429
<b>Europe</b>										
Canada (16) ...	11045	11152	11381	11654	11975	12507	12883	13945	14009	14430
United States (17) ...	128225	129825	131970	134665	138033	141235	146571	151772	154353	156931
Brazil (18) ...	38685	39477	41100	43100	45198	47398	49704	52124	53377	54660
Australia (19) ...	6336	6899	7039	7181	7310	7463	7710	8180	8431	8649
New Zealand ...	1387	1604	1636	1639	1654	1671	1840	1920	1948	2003
<b>The Americas</b>										
<b>Oceania</b>										

See explanatory note on the following page.

تراجع الشروح على الصفحة التالية

١٤

(١) المصدر : نقلا عن « النشرة الشهرية للإحصاءات مكتب الإحصاء التابع لهيئة الأمم المتحدة » المجلد السابع ، العدد ٨ ، عن شهر أغسطس سنة ١٩٥٣ الصفحات ١ - ٥

(٢) عدد السكان التقديرى فى منتصف السنة

(٣) الأرقام التقديرية لعدد السكان معدلة بحيث تشمل القوات المسلحة الموجودة خارج حدود القطر ولا تشمل القوات المسلحة الأجنبية الموجودة داخل حدود القطر مالم يذكر ما يخالف ذلك . كما أن التقديرات تشمل السكان الأصليين وأهل البادية والأفراد غير الموجودين فى محل إقامتهم المعتادة وكذا اللاجئين . ويشمل التقدير المساحة الكلية للقطر مالم يذكر ما يخالف ذلك . تاريخ أحدث تعداد للسكان والأرقام الاجمالية ( بالآلاف ) لكل دولة على الوجه الآتى :

عدد السكان	التاريخ	عدد السكان	التاريخ
٢٠٩٣٥	١٩٥٠	١٩٠٢٢	١٩٤٧
١١٤١٨	١٩٤٦	٧٤٧٨	١٩٤٨
٨٣٢٠٠	١٩٥٠	٣٥٦٨٢٩	١٩٥١
٣٩٨٢٠	١٩٤٦	٨٥١٢	١٩٥٠
٤٧٠٢١	١٩٥١	٦٥١٥١	١٩٤٦
٤٧١٥	١٩٥٠	٧٠٤٧	١٩٥٠
١٥٠٦٩٧	١٩٥٠	١٤٠٠٩	١٩٥١
٧٥٧٩	١٩٤٧	٥٢٦٤٥	١٩٥٠
		١٩٤٠	١٩٥١

(٢١) أجريت التقديرات باستخراج متوسط عدد السكان فى أول و آخر السنة (٢٢) الأرقام عن السنوات ١٩٣٧ الى ١٩٤٦ عن الهند باكملها قبل التقسيم - وابتداء من سنة ١٩٤٧ بعد التقسيم - عدد السكان التقديرى للباكستان فى منتصف سنة ١٩٤٩ يبلغ ٧٤٤٣٦٩٤٢ (٢٣) عدد السكان التقديرى للجزر الأربعة فى أول أكتوبر من كل عام ( ٣٤ ) السنوات ١٩٣٧ الى ١٩٤٦ حسب اقليم ١٩٣٧ ، أما تعداد سنة ١٩٤٦ فهو عن أربعة مناطق تشمل برلين ( تعداد المناطق المماثلة فى سنة ١٩٣٩ يبلغ ١٠٦٠٠٠٠ ) وابتداء من سنة ١٩٤٧ الأرقام عن غرب ألمانيا فقط

(1) Source: reproduced from "Monthly Bulletin of Statistics, Statistical office of the United Nations", Vol. 7, No. 8, August 1953, pp. 1-5.

(2) Mid year present in area population.  
 (3) The figures represent unless otherwise indicated, estimates of the total population present in the area modified to include armed forces stationed outside the contry, and to exclude armed forces of allied powers present in the country. Thus, aborigines and nomadic peoples, displaced persons and refugees are included in the estimates. Except where otherwise indicated the estimates refer to total present territory of the country.

Date of the latest available census and the total figures (in thousands) for every country are as follows:—

(4) 26 March 1947 ... ..	19022	(5) 22 October 1950... ..	20935
(6) 25 Feb. 1948... ..	7478	(7) 7 May 1946 ... ..	11418
(8) 1st March 1951 ... ..	356829	(9) 1st October 1950 ... ..	83200
(10) 31 December 1950 ... ..	8512	(11) 10 March 1946 ... ..	39830
(12) 29 October 1946... ..	65151	(13) 4 November 1951 ... ..	47021
(14) 31 December 1950 ... ..	7047	(15) 1st December 1950 ... ..	4715
(16) 1st June 1951 ... ..	14009	(17) 1st April 1950 ... ..	150697
(18) 1st July 1950 ... ..	52645	(19) 30 June 1947... ..	7579
(20) 17 April 1951... ..	1940		

(21) Estimates obtained by averaging population at beginning and end of each year. (22) 1937-1946 total territory pre-partition India; beginning 1947 post-partition India. 1949 mid-year estimates for Pakistan is 74,436 942. (23) 1st October estimate for the four principal islands. (24) 1937-1943 territory of 1937; 1946 population enumerated in four zones including Berlin (1939 enumerated for corresponding area was 58,610 600); beginning 1947. Western Germany only.

