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To the Committee on Graduate Study:

I am submitting to you a thesis written by Abdel Fattah Zayat entitled "Land Tenure in Egypt." I recommend that it be accepted for nine quarter hours of credit in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science, with a major in Agricultural Economics.

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We have read this thesis
and recommend its acceptance:

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LAND TENURE IN EGYPT

A THESIS

Submitted to
The Committee on Graduate Study
of
The University of Tennessee
in
Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the degree of
Master of Science

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by

Abdel Fattah Zayat

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INTRODUCTION

The term land tenure refers to the various arrangements under which farmers control land. It covers all those relationships established among men which determine their rights in the use of land. It is concerned with the manner in which and the period for which all kinds of rights in land are held. It involves control over land resources. As a topic for study it includes not only tenancy and ownership, but also inheritance, farm mortgage, credit arrangements, certain aspects of land prices, use, and occupancy, tenure-related interests of landless farm people, and economic and social problems of the various tenure groups.

Particularly in a country predominantly agricultural like Egypt, where the whole population is completely dependent on land either directly or indirectly, the land tenure system is very important. The land tenure problem of Egypt is an acute problem. In brief it is: insufficient land unevenly distributed and a growing population which over-runs the resources. Excess of human labor results in extremely low wages, high rents, inflated land prices, economic exploitation, poverty, malnutrition, poor social institutions, poor health, poor housing, improper clothing, little education, and many other social problems which spring from them.

Land tenure affects all the phases of social and economic life in the country: the citizens and their different social institutions, their minds, concepts and behavior. It has its roots in every problem and it shades all views of rural and urban life.

Egypt is a country of contrast--on the one hand a very rich land which Kipling calls, "A country which is not a country but a longish strip of market garden," and on the other hand an extremely wretched peasant who is suffering through living in this paradise.

Along the banks of the Nile one will see the best of modern irrigation works and machinery. One will also see the slender brown skinned fellah (peasant) irrigating his land by means of the shadoof (a primitive well-sweep with leather buckets).

Peasants barely exist under conditions of extreme degradation while living in filthy mud huts. The rich land owners and their families live in Cairo and other cities which have attained a high degree of civilization and luxury. The fellaheen are a class apart for they are isolated and suppressed.

The social system has been described as feudal, but it has, in fact, none of the merits of feudalism, for there is no element of responsibility. The capitalistic system has abolished the old patriarchal relations and replaced them

with a commercialized relation which is a mere economic exploitation. There is no human consideration at all. The fellah merely represents one of the production tools. A beautiful horse or a strong ox gets more of the landlord's attention than his fellah.

Land tenure is the root of the poverty which is responsible for this contrast and this human depreciation. "The peasant," says Dr. Keen, "is imprisoned within the walls of his own agricultural system; year by year his numbers grow and the walls remain."[1]

The walls are the methods of land tenure which stand in the way of progress, all the influences which make for poverty, indebtedness, ignorance and instability.[2] If the present system of land tenure continues, there can be little hope of any general improvement in the standard of living.

A general well being of the citizens can not be achieved without a satisfactory land tenure system.

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[1]Doreen Warriner, Land and Poverty in the Middle East (London & New York: Royal Institute of International Affairs, 1948), p. 4.

[2]Ibid., p. 4.

CHAPTER I

THE BACKGROUND

A. Geographical

Egypt occupies a unique position as the meeting place of the three old continents. It is a vast country extending from the Mediterranean Sea, lat. 31° 35' to parallel 22 N.I., thence southward to the Sudan (Anglo-Egyptian Sudan). The eastern boundary is the Red Sea and the western the Lybian Desert. The country extends some 650 miles north to south, and 600 miles east to west. Out of a total area of about 383,000 square miles only 14,000 square miles, an area about equal to that of Maryland, is used for permanent habitation.[1] This area is chiefly in the Nile Valley, a narrow strip of country hemmed in by the Arabian hills on the east and the Libyan mountains on the west, and varying in width from 2 to 120 miles. This fertile valley, in outline like the sacred lotus flower with the delta for the blossom, is a gift of the river.[2] Herodotus said that Egypt is the gift of the Nile.

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[1] Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia and Fact-Index, Vol. 4 (Chicago: F. E. Compton & Company, 1947), pp. 194-210.

[2] Ibid., pp. 194-210.

No description of Egypt, however brief, can fail to mention the Nile. Both geographically and historically, it is one of the most remarkable rivers of the world. It has from time immemorial irrigated and fertilized Egypt's soil. The most peculiar feature of the Nile is the seasonal flood between July and December, when an average rise in the level of the river of 24.6 feet is registered at Aswan and 14.8 feet at Cairo. Without the Nile, which for centuries has deposited a thin coating of rich mud upon the sand, Egypt would not be different from the rest of the desert.

The topography of Egypt is fairly simple. Parallel to the Red Sea runs a mountain range with peaks of over 7,000 feet which, after subsiding somewhat in the Sudan, rises again to considerable heights in Eritrea and Abyssinia.

As for climate, Egypt enjoys all the advantages and none of the disadvantages of a desert climate by combining a maximum degree of sunshine and dry atmosphere with a plentiful supply of water throughout most of the year. The low altitude of the Delta, as well as its low latitude, make winter rains both scanty and irregular, so that except in a narrow strip along the north-western coast they are nowhere sufficient for plant growth.

The most characteristic feature of the temperature is its great seasonal and daily variation. The seasonal range of temperature in Egypt is from 36°F to 40°F, the average

temperature in winter 50°F and 60°F to about 80°F in summer. Coupled with the great dryness of the atmosphere and the bright and prolonged sunshine which the country enjoys, this wide range of temperature enables Egypt to grow, during the winter months, all the plants of the Mediterranean and the warm temperature regions, while in the summer the temperature permits the growth of plants of the Savanna and Monsoon regions.[3]

Thus, thanks to its climate and to the abundant summer floods of the Nile, Egypt, within its small cultivatable area, is able to grow a greater variety of products than that in any other similar area in the whole world. Here the wheat, the maize, the cotton, and the rice belts of the vast Mississippi basin are all rolled into one in the narrow lower Nile Valley and Delta, permitting Egypt to enjoy a unique position among agricultural countries.[4]

B. Historical

The most outstanding feature in the history of Egypt is the importance of agriculture. In the past, as in the present, agriculture has been the basis of its economic life.

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[3]Hussein Kamel Selim, Twenty Years of Agricultural Development in Egypt (1919-1939) (Cairo: Government Press, 1940, p. 2.

[4]Ibid., p. 3.

There seems to be little doubt that cultivation from seed, which had previously been a haphazard and a secondary activity in man's search for food, was first systematically developed and organized as a staple industry in the lower Nile Valley.[5]

It was because of agriculture that Egypt, long before other countries, felt the need for unity and a strong government to execute and maintain irrigation works.

The second striking feature in Egypt's history is foreign domination. As a nation, the Egyptians have suffered more than their normal share of warring and duress. Egypt's inhabitants fell victims to an unbroken chain of alien invasions and intrusions more varied than those which have passed over any other people in the world. In spite of these invasions the masses of the people, particularly the fellaheen, have been able to preserve their customs and ways of life to an amazing degree.

The third striking historical feature is the intensive economic exploitation during this long history, represented in the exorbitant taxation, taken either in crop or in cash and collected by force and cruelty, the victims of which were the fellaheen.

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[5] Ibid., p. 1.

The rulers, the army, and the higher ranks of the bureaucracy were almost without exception foreigners whose one thought was to squeeze the utmost out of the fellaheen. This started when Rome regarded Egypt merely as a valuable granary and burdened the people with cruel taxes; it ended with England regarding Egypt as a cotton farm to provide Lancashire manufacturers with raw material.

The fourth historical feature, a depressing one, is the inferiority of the farmer's tilling land as an occupation. The foreign rulers and the higher classes looked down upon the fellaheen and kept rigidly aloof from them. There had never been any understanding or cooperation; there was just exploitation and a long, unbroken chain of slavery and misery.

In the field of land ownership, the fellaheen had never owned the land. They were only tillers. The system was either a feudal or a state ownership. It is said that the feudal system developed in Egypt. The age from about 2500-2800 B.C., which we may call the feudal age of Egypt, began when the great nobles became powerful enough to wrest many privileges from the Pharoahs, each ruling vast estates. Much as the barons did in the Middle Ages of Europe. During the Roman and the Byzantine age, the nobles developed large estates (30 B.C. to 640 A.D.).

Since the Arab conquest (640-642 A.D.) the system of land tenure turned to the feudal and has hardly changed.

The leading Mamelukes (1240-1805) parcelled out the country, each controlling a group of villages whose taxes he often farmed, and holding tax free land. Excluding Wakf (mortmains in favor of religious institutions), the bulk of the land consisted of communal land subject to tax. Peasants enjoyed no property rights, but, in practice, were left undisturbed and allowed to hand the plots to their children provided they met their taxes and supplied the requisite corvee labor on the tax farmer's estate and irrigation works.[6]

In 1805 Mohamed Ali started a new era in Egypt's history. He established order and security, developed the cultivation of cotton, and repaired and improved the irrigation systems which had been badly damaged during long years of internal strife. It is said that this was achieved only by terrible taxation and constant use of the corvee or forced labor on public works.

In 1811 he wiped out the Mameluke power for ever by slaughtering them at the Citadel. So he destroyed Mameluke feudalism and freed agriculture from its feudal shackles.

The land system was considerably modified. On the one hand, large tracts of uncultivated land were granted to the viceroy's relatives and followers. On the other, plots of three to five feddans (acres) were allotted to peasants, who,

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[6]A. E. Crouchley, The Economic Development of Modern Egypt (London: Longmans Green, 1938), p. 17.

though not enjoying legal ownership of the land, could freely dispose of the produce. A cadaster was made and the collective village responsibility for taxation was abolished in favor of individual responsibility. In 1846 transfers and mortgages of property were authorized. Under one of his successors, the rights of heirs were recognized. In 1858 foreigners were authorized to purchase land. In 1871 Ismail's financial embarrassments led him to offer absolute property rights to all those paying six years' taxes in advance (Mukabala law).[7]

The fellaheen revolution under the leadership of Arabi in 1882 ought to be mentioned because it is the first movement of the proletariat in Egypt. However, it is said that the Hebrew exodus from Egypt under the leadership of Moses may be considered as the first organized labor movement in history. Arabi revolution took its direct cause from the inequality of opportunities between Egyptians and Turks in the army, but the fundamental causes were maladjustments due to treating the Egyptian fellaheen as a subject race.

In 1882 the British landed troops in Egypt to oppose the forces of the fellah leader, Arabi. Thus the British occupation (1882-1922) started with the putting off of the fellaheen revolution.

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[7]Charles Issawi, Egypt: An Economic and Social Analysis (Oxford: Royal Institute of International Affairs, 1947), p. 14.

The British policy consisted in integrating Egypt as an agricultural colonial unit in its imperialistic system. Its main features were: (1) destroying all the local industries and even the domestic industries to make it an open market for the British industrial products; (2) specialization in cotton to provide the British industry with the raw materials; (3) the expansion of the cultivated area by means of dams and canals and control of the water supply and other natural factors.

But this system of expansion and control has never been extended to the human masses of the fellaheen. The symbol of the policy was the economic exploitation of the population through a partnership with the landlord class. Disarmament, impoverishment, and ignorance were the effective tools of manifesting this policy.

These are some of the most important historical features which affected the land tenure system in the past and which still affect it at the present time. They shape the fellaheen behavior and explain their proverbial docility and acceptance of the very hard conditions in which they subsist.

CHAPTER II

LAND AND POPULATION

Scarcity of land is the outstanding characteristic of Egypt's economy. The total area of Egypt is 1,020,000 miles, or about 252,000,000 acres, but this is almost a desert and the agricultural area is only 5,364,000 feddans* (about 2.13 per cent of the total area).

Area of arable land (Agricultural Census 1939):

Cultivated area	5,581,436 feddans
Uncultivated area	2,552,864 feddans
Total	8,134,302 feddans

This limitation of land is overcome by increasing its supply, which wholly depends upon the supply of irrigation water, in the following ways:

1. Increasing the cultivated area through the reclamation of new marshy and lake lands of the Delta. During the last years the cultivated area has not increased; reclamation has been held up because of the bureaucracy and the limited financial means of the government.
2. Increasing the crop area by converting the lands of basin irrigation to perennial irrigation and thus raising two crops instead of one in the same year. The crop area rose from 7.6 million feddans in 1907 to 8.5 million feddans in 1940.

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*Feddan is 1,038 acre, nearly an acre.

3. Increasing the production by means of scientific research, seed selection and other methods. The overall increase in agricultural production in the years 1924-1940 was 18 per cent because of large increase in crop yields.

These will be discussed in detail later in Irrigation and Population.

Population

The outstanding features of Egypt's population which affect man and land are:

1. The phenomenal rise of the population during the last hundred years from about 3,000,000 to 17,000,000. This is more than a five fold increase. This increase is shown in Table I. The increase is probably unparalleled by any other agricultural country. While Egypt's increase during this century is about 46 per cent, England and Wales increased only by 23 per cent, France 7.4 per cent, Italy 27 per cent and India 20 per cent.[1]

The factors which influence population are birth rate and death rate. Amongst recorded birth rates, Egypt has nearly the highest, and its death rate is also high, largely due to the heavy death rate among children. It is possible that the attention given to public health will

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[1]Ahmed Abdel Wahab, "Egypt's Agricultural Policy," Report of Agricultural Congress, Vol. I (Cairo: 1936), (Arabic).

TABLE I

THE INCREASE IN EGYPT'S POPULATION, 1897-1937[a]

Year	Population (Millions)	Factor of Increase in Ten Years	Percentage Increase Per Annum
1897	9.7	--	--
1907	11.29	1.163	1.52
1917	12.75	1.129	1.22
1927	14.22	1.115	1.10
1937	15.93	1.120	1.14

[a]Source: Annuaire Statistique de L'Egypte Department de la Statistique Generale (Cairo: Government Press, 1945).

cause the death rate, particularly that of children, to decrease in the immediate future, so that unless something happens to decrease the birth rate the rate of increase will become larger.

Unfortunately there are many considerations, economical, social and religious, which contribute to raise the birth rate:

a. The growth in Egypt's wealth, the extension of the cultivated area, the replacement of basin by perennial irrigation, and the improvement in the yield of crops.

b. The extension of cotton cultivation, which provides employment for children, turns the child into a financial asset at the early age of four or five.[2] A cotton expert recently declared that cotton requires not only a dense population but one with a birth rate above the average.[3]

c. The poverty and general wretchedness of the fellah makes procreation one of the few pleasures left to him and reproduces in the villages the psychology of the slum.

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[2]Charles Issawi, Egypt: An Economic and Social Analysis (Oxford: Royal Institute of International Affairs, 1947), p. 14.

[3]Ibid., p. 16.

d. Ignorance, unconsciousness, and shortsightedness prevailing in a sense of satisfaction, virtuous content, and lack of ambition.

e. Religious and ethical factors as to the early and obligatory nature of marriage. Religious fatalism holds that God creates the child and provides for his living at the same time, so that people do not have to worry about the security of their children's future. Just leave it to God, who gave them life and will give them food.

f. The landlord's encouragement of the fellaheen because of their need of cheap labor. The government does not yet have any plan for birth control, in spite of this serious situation.

Whatever may be the causes, this rapid increase, coupled with the very limited cultivatable area, which is no more than 3.3 per cent of Egypt's total area, depresses more and more the already low standard of living of the masses. This can be seen from Table II which shows a steady decrease of land per capita.

To see how population is over-running resources we deal with crop areas (land produces two crops a year) as well as cultivated areas. Table III shows population, crop and cultivated area per capita.

TABLE II

GROWTH OF POPULATION AND OF THE CULTIVATED AREA (1831-1937)[a]

Year	Population	Cultivated Area (Feddans*)	Share Per Capita (Feddans)
1831	3,430,000	3,865,613	1.07
1881	6,730,000	4,714,406	0.70
1917	12,750,918	5,319,148	0.41
1927	14,217,864	5,544,361	0.38
1937	15,904,525	5,288,622	0.33

[a]Source: Hussien Kamel Selim, Twenty Years of Agricultural Development in Egypt (1919-1939) (Cairo: Government Press, 1940), p. 76.

*Feddan = 1,038 acre.

TABLE III

POPULATION, CROP AND CULTIVATED AREA PER CAPITA[a]

	1907	1917	1927	1937	1940
Population (millions)	11.3	1.28	14.2	15.9	16.8
Area of crop (millions of feddans)	7.6	7.8	8.6	8.5	8.5
Area of crop per capita (feddans)	0.67	0.61	0.61	0.53	0.50
Area of cultivated land (millions of feddans)	5.4	5.3	5.5	5.3	5.2
Area of land per capita (feddans)	0.48	0.41	0.39	0.33	0.31

[a]Annuaire Statistique de L'Egypte Department de la Statistique Generale (Cairo Government Press, 1945).

As shown in Table II, there is a steady decrease of cultivated and crop areas per capita with a marked growth of population.

Egypt is faced by a limited area available for cultivation and by a rapidly growing population, mainly dependent on agriculture. It has been estimated that while the population grew by about 40 per cent between 1907 and 1937, the crop area increased by only 5.9 per cent in the same period.

Egypt's agricultural problem therefore is to intensify production within this constricted area. The system of farm production is highly intensive, probably the most intensive of any country in the world.[4]

2. The rural population. Of the total population around 75 per cent, or some twelve million, are rural. It is estimated by the Fellah Department, as follows:

Lower Egypt Population	6,312,000
Upper Egypt Population	5,639,000
Desert, Oases and Nomads	93,000
Rural Population	12,044,000
Total Population	15,932,694

Egypt has a rural population density of 1,450 to the square mile of cultivated land. This is a level more than twice as high as that of industrial countries in Europe. The density of total population in England and Wales is

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[4]Doreen Warriner, Land and Poverty in the Middle East (London & New York: Royal Institute of International Affairs, 1948), p. 26.

672 to the square mile. There are even some rural districts in Egypt where the density of total population is as high as 3,000 to the square mile.[5]

Egypt is perhaps the most densely populated country in the world. It is over-populated in the sense that a reduction of the farm population would not cause a decline in the output. In spite of the high labor requirements needed because of the intensity of cultivation and irrigation, there is at the present time a surplus of about six or seven million people. This can be easily understood when we assume that a man can soundly provide all the labor required to an acre. This excess of labor makes the problem of land tenure a compound one. There is a pressing need for increasing the cultivated area and the production, besides seeking other fields of economy such as industry and commerce, to meet this rapid growth.

Irrigation

Egyptian agriculture is characterized by a developed system of irrigation which is entirely dependent on the Nile water.

At the beginning of the nineteenth century all the

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[5] Ibid., p. 26.

cultivated area in Egypt received flood or basin irrigation. The whole country was divided into a chessboard of basins, the groups being connected with each other and fed by canals from the river. In August the basins remain there for a fortnight and then return to the river. After the flood has subsided, the seed is thrown in to the silt left behind and is harvested the following April and May, the land being left fallow during the summer. This is the method of cultivation practiced in Egypt for about a thousand years, and still practiced in some parts of Upper Egypt. It gives only one winter crop, and there is always the danger of poor flood and insufficient water, resulting in famines, as the seven year famine recorded in Scripture, which Joseph provided for by storing and rationing grain. Today perennial irrigation has solved the problem through storing and rationing water.

It was Mohamed Ali (1805-1894) who first attempted to establish perennial irrigation in order to introduce cotton cultivation. The system involves two processes: the raising of the level of the water by barrages, and the storing of water by dams. This is accomplished by a chain of barrages and dams with a network of canals of a total length of 22,000 kilometres. The Aswan dam is considered the paramount regulator for distribution and the reservoir of flood waters for disposal during the different seasons of the year. It has been heightened twice to increase storage capacity from

one and a half to five million cubic metres. The oldest and the most important barrage is the Delta barrage across the two branches of the river just below the point of its bifurcation north of Cairo. It dams up the water above it sufficiently to give command of the Delta lands. It can hold twelve to thirteen feet of water.

As a result of these great engineering projects four-fifths of the cultivated area has been converted to perennial irrigation. In upper Egypt there are still about one million acres under basin irrigation which will eventually be converted, as shown in Table IV.

The perennial irrigation resulted in a steady increase in both the cultivated and cropped areas. The increase in the cropped area meant that it became possible for more lands to raise two or even three crops a year. Summer cultivation, especially cotton, expanded.

The increase in the supply of water meant that new areas could be irrigated by means of reclamation of waste and marshy lands and a steady increase in the cultivated area could be achieved. This also meant a development in the agricultural production and no more danger of famine. A low level of flood might mean a shortage of crops but never a drought as formerly.

Table V points out the development of the cultivated and the crop area in recent years.

TABLE IV

CULTIVATED AREA, 1935 (FEDDANS)[a]

	Perennial Irrigation	Basin Irrigation	Total
Lower Egypt	3,331,700	--	3,331,700
Upper Egypt	1,100,000	1,135,000	2,235,000
Total	4,431,700	1,135,000	5,566,700

[a]Source: Hussein Sirry, Irrigation in Egypt, Its History and Development (Cairo: Government Press, 1937) (Arabic).

TABLE V

CULTIVATED AND CROP AREAS, 1900-1938 (FEDDANS)[a]

Year	Cultivated Area	Crop Area
1900	5,231,298	7,160,804
1905	5,403,891	7,563,119
1910	5,345,352	7,711,844
1915	5,308,890	7,825,922
1920	5,305,236	7,806,793
1925	5,420,193	8,213,416
1930	5,548,662	8,634,324
1935	5,229,320	8,053,540
1936	5,361,381	8,101,069
1937	5,288,622	8,358,284
1938	5,312,154	8,474,262

[a]Source: A. E. Crouchley, The Economic Development of Modern Egypt (London: Longmans Green, 1938), p. 259.

Drainage

Drainage is a twin to irrigation. One of the advantages of the old basin system was that it needed no drainage provisions because, as the flood diminished, the subsoil water drained back into the river and the soil dried up. As a result of the continuous irrigation the soil was never allowed to dry for very long at a time, and the river and canals were usually running full water at a high level. The soil became saturated with water and the subsoil water handicapped the roots growth. There was a serious problem; some of our best fertile lands became eroded and depleted. Nowadays the subsoil water has to be drained artificially for the purpose of reducing the level of the water table. Thus a drainage system has been established, with drains running along the low land between the canals. Their water flows into collectors and then into main drains from which it passes into the sea. The low altitude of the Delta, however, renders natural drainage difficult; artificial or lift drainage is needed. Some projects were erected which used huge pumps to evacuate the drains into the lakes or the sea. Some of the small farmers do not benefit completely from the drainage facilities because they are not able to make the necessary subsidiary drains in their own farms. Though general irrigation and drainage are supplied by the government

free, digging the canal requires much labor and expense and occupies a good deal of their precious little land.

Agriculture

Three factors have contributed to affect agriculture in Egypt:

1. The nature of the soil
2. The uniformity of climatic conditions
3. The Nile flood.

Egyptian agriculture is characterized by a developed system of irrigation, a backward technique, dependence on cotton, and a very unequal distribution of property accompanied by very small-scale tenure and farming.[6]

Soil and Fertility

The soil of Egypt is exclusively sedimentary, formed by the precipitation in the course of the ages of the mud brought by the Nile, resting on a foundation of sand and gravel. It reaches a depth of from 59 to 82 feet in the Delta.

Being alluvial it is porous and thus easy to till. This accounts for the simplicity of ploughing implements in use today.

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[6]Issawi, op. cit., p. 59.

Another factor is the enrichment of the soil and the consequent high productivity of the land through the precipitation of mud caused by the yearly inundation. Egypt's soil is considered to be on the whole one of the richest soils in the world. It is silt, the product of soil erosion in the igneous plateau of Abyssinia, consisting of a great variety of salts and minerals necessary to plant life, with the exception of nitrates.

Under the old basin system fertility was maintained with little need for fertilizers. Nowadays under the perennial system the cultivation of two or three crops a year in place of one tends to reduce soil fertility and makes a greater and a more scientific use of fertilizers imperative.

Fertility is also maintained by growing Berseem (Egyptian Clover) which works as a nitrogen fixer and a very good green fodder. Livestock are taken to the fields to graze Berseem and at the same time manure the land. Because of this organic fertilizer, many landlords prefer to divide their lands into small units and rent it to small tenants. Berseem may also be used as a green organic fertilizer. Some farmers do not cut it down for the fourth time. They plough the land burying Berseem, and through decomposition process it becomes a very good fertilizer.

Crops and Rotation

The agricultural year in Egypt is divided into three main seasons. These seasons are known as Shitwi (winter), Saifi (summer), and Nili (flood). They are determined not so much by climate as by irrigation and are distinguished according to the period in which they vegetate.

Shitwi crops are sown in November and harvested in May. Wheat is the chief Shitwi crop; after it comes Berseem (Egyptian Clover--Trifolium Alexandrinum), the most important green fodder crop, which acts as a nitrogen fixer. Other Shitwi crops are barley, beans, onions and lentils.

Saifi crops grow between March and September. The chief Saifi crop is cotton; others are millet and rice. The advance of perennial irrigation since the end of the last century has caused a great increase in the Saifi crops.

Nili crops grow at the time of the Nile flood, from July to November. The chief crop is maize (corn), sown in August and harvested in November. There is also the Nili rice which has a growing period of seventy days. Some fruit and vegetable crops grow in all seasons according to their different varieties. Sugar cane is a Saifi crop, but stays for two or three years.

All these crops tend to overlap, particularly the Saifi and Nili crops, and at almost every time in the year some crop is being harvested.

TABLE VI

TREND IN CULTIVATED AND CROP AREAS, 1911-1935[a]

	1911-1915		1935-1936	
	Lower Egypt	Upper Egypt	Lower Egypt	Upper Egypt
Cultivated area	3,305	2,196	3,139	2,221
Crop area	4,636	3,008	4,855	3,241
Winter area	1,888	1,866	2,118	1,723
Summer area	1,517	577	1,645	905
Flood area	1,215	560	1,054	595

[a]Source: Annuaire Statistique de L'Egypte Department de la Statistique. Areas are given in thousand feddans.

Rotation

While it is physically possible to grow three crops in one year, this rate of cropping is too exhausting. All perenially irrigated land is cultivated at least twice a year, with an interval of fallow between the crops of one season and those of another. In this way the total area of crops exceeds that of the cultivated land. Under the basin system of irrigation, however, only the winter crops were important. The usual rotation is biennial, as follows:

1. In the winter, wheat is sown on part of the land, Berseem on the remainder. The wheat is harvested in April or May and the Berseem cut two or three times for fodder.
2. The soil then remains fallow over the summer.
3. In mid-July the whole of the land is sown with maize (corn) which takes only four months to ripen and is harvested in November.
4. The land remains fallow until the following February or March.
5. Next it is sown with cotton as a Saifi crop, which lasts until November. Sometimes an extra Berseem crop may precede the cotton. It is often ploughed and buried down in the earth to become a natural manure. Cotton is the only crop which takes up the soil for the whole year.

6. In the following autumn, after the cotton harvest, wheat is sown again.

Thus, the same crop appears on the soil every two years. Other crops may take the place of wheat in the winter period, such as beans or barley, a crop usually grown on the poorer soils on the edge of the desert. In the north of the Delta rice is grown as a Saifi crop; it is the only crop which actually grows under water, so that it is used in the poor land's reclamation. In Upper Egypt sugar cane may remain two or three years on the same soil.

This biennial rotation is also exhausting and more progressive landlords now use a triennial rotation with periods of fallow. For the whole country the average cropping rate is one and a half crops per year. Two crops are grown in Lower Egypt and one in Upper Egypt; thus the total cropped area is 8.3 million feddans, on a total cultivated area of 5.2 million feddans. Table VII shows production and average yield in 1922-1923 and 1943-1944.

Table VIII shows the different main crops and their acreage in 1944-45.

Major Crops

1. Cotton: Cotton is the main product of Egypt, the fundamental source of its income and wealth, and the backbone of its economy. It is the basis of the country's

TABLE VII

PRODUCTION AND AVERAGE YIELD, 1922-1923 AND 1943-1944[a]

	Year	Cultivated Land (Feddans)	Total Production	Average Yield Per Feddan		Pounds
Cotton	(1922-23	1,715,150	6,531,457	3.81	Kantars*	381
	(1943-44	852,949	4,640,262	5.44	"	544
Wheat	(1922-23	1,480,618	7,376,133	4.98	Ardebs**	1643.4
	(1943-44	1,650,965	6,306,802	3.82	"	126.6
Maize	(1922-23	1,796,719	12,174,920	6.78	"	2237
	(1943-44	1,890,342	11,139,958	5.89	"	1944
Millett	(1922-23	224,048	1,804,197	8.05	"	2656.5
	(1943-44	728.178	5,454,299	7.49	"	2472
Rice	(1922-23	179,078	763,782	4.3	"	1419
	(1943-44	619,770	862,001	3.6	"	1188
Beans	(1922-23	471,096	2,085,762	4.43	"	1462
	(1943-44	424,755	2,079,796	4.9	"	1617
Barley	(1922-23	385,520	2,175,149	5.64	"	1861
	(1943-44	331,008	1,890,039	5.71	"	1884

[a]Source: The Agricultural Census of 1939.

*Approximately 100 lbs.

**Approximately 330 lbs.

TABLE VIII

MAJOR CROPS AND ACREAGE, 1944-45[a]

Crop	Acreage (Feddans)
Cotton	892,435
Maize	1,879,060
Millet	683,847
Rice	630,447
Wheat	1,646,930
Lentil	74,949
Beans	392,358
Barley	358,613
Sugar cane	96,322
Helba (Fenugreek)	54,574
Onions	25,518
Sesame	38,062
Peanuts	23,700
Berseem (Clover)	1,871,605
Lupine	16,077
Chick peas	19,253
Linen	6,809

[a]Source: The Agricultural Census of 1939.

agriculture, trade, finance and industry.

The Egyptian cotton holds first place among the long staple cotton crops of the world, owing to the length of its fibre, durability, lustre, fineness, regularity, and superior spinning qualities. Before the Second World War, Egypt could grow cotton on nearly forty per cent of its cultivatable land; now it is restricted to twenty per cent.

Production reached its peak in 1937 with 11,000,000 Kantar (Kantar = 100 lbs.). The cotton exports represent about eighty to one hundred per cent of the export trade. Table IX represents the cotton position in the export trade and the influx of foreign capital contrasted with total value of other commodities in Egyptian pounds (L.E. = four dollars).

This domination of cotton was the result of a set policy introduced by England and unanimously approved by the landlord ruling class. It aimed at exploiting Egypt's special advantages for cotton growing, while ignoring the dangers inherent in such dependence on this one crop. Cotton marketing depends largely on export trade, since manufacture, consumption and prices are beyond Egypt's control.

Although the need of breaking away from this servitude

TABLE IX

THE COTTON POSITION IN THE EGYPTIAN EXPORT TRADE, 1936-1939 IN L.E.[a]
(L.E. = four dollars)

	1936	1937	1938	1939
Total value of cotton and cotton products	28,223,000	32,388,000	24,010,000	26,779,000
Total value of all other products	4,775,000	7,371,000	5,332,000	7,302,000
Total value of Egyptian exports	32,978,000	39,759,000	29,342,000	34,081,000

[a]Source: Annuaire Statistique de L'Egypte Department de la Statistique Generale.

to cotton is felt and the advantages of diversification are evident, we did not yet make up our minds for an alternative.

Several causes are responsible for the popularity of cotton:

a. It is the only cash crop.

b. It is usually more profitable than other crops.

c. Cotton and tenancy are twins; the landlord prefers cotton because the crop is a collateral; he is sure to get his rent at the end of the year, as the tenant will be able to pay it. Furthermore it cannot be consumed by the tenant and his family, as could corn or wheat.

d. Farmers and tenants usually have speculative tendencies. Cotton prices are subject to sudden rises providing unexpected profit which fulfills this nature.

e. Cotton needs a great deal of labor and provides service for the fellah and his family who have no other occupation.

f. There is a continuous encouragement by the government to cotton and cotton growers by different means, including scientific research and new superior varieties, and the policy of fixing prices and purchasing cotton.

2. Maize (corn): It is called in Egypt "Durrah." It comes next to cotton because it is the staple food of the rural inhabitants, yet the acreage increase is not parallel to the growth of population. There was a striking decline in its acreage before the Second World War. However, there is a promising market for developing an export trade to Southern Europe and the Middle East.

Land tenure and tenancy may be an important factor in limiting the extension of the maize crop because it is eaten by the farmers. It is usually agreed that corn be left to the tenants to eat. They store it in their homes till the next crop. They are likely to have more security than the agricultural laborers who purchase it weekly from the village market and are subject to the progressive increase in prices. Usually prices of crops, particularly grain, are low at the harvest time when tenants are forced to sell in order to pay their rents. When the crop moves to the hands of the big landlords and merchants, prices start to move up as a result of speculation, exploitation and lack of government control. The victim is always the fellah, the landless laborer.

However, the government became somewhat aware of this during the war, and prices were fixed and crop credit assured.

Wages are determined by the prices of corn and have the same fluctuations, sometimes being paid in corn instead of cash; even now corn is used as a medium of exchange for some services. In some villages, for example, the village barber is paid in corn a yearly amount at harvest time.

3. Wheat: Wheat is the most important winter crop in Egypt and it is the main food of the urban inhabitants. In 1938 the crop acreage was 1,410,306 feddans (about 17.4 per cent of the total cultivated area).

The decline of wheat in comparison with cotton and maize was a striking feature during the last few years before the Second World War. This commodity, which for thousands of years had been the staple crop of Egypt and its principal export, finally became insufficient even for the local market. The extension of cotton and the principle of specialization on one hand, and the competition of cheap wheat from Australia, Canada and the Black Sea region on the other were responsible for this decline.

It may be in the interest of every country to specialize in whatever it is most fitted to produce and exchange for the products which it lacks with other specialized countries. This is recognized in the days of peace and free trade, but it does not work well in times of war and restricted trade.

Thus the government's policy is not one of specialization in cotton and wheat exchange, but is that of self-sufficiency to produce a crop sufficient for the country's requirements. This policy was implemented through protection from foreign competition by high tariffs on wheat and flour imports in order to preserve remunerative prices for the grower.

This protection granted to the wheat growers, composed of a few rich landlords, burdens the poor consumers who represent the vast majority of the population. The problem is aggravated by the large farmers' and merchants' abuse of this protection and attempts to corner the market, artificially raise prices, and thus increase the cost of living and make life more and more uneasy for the masses. In many cases the government was forced to import wheat, or at least to threaten to import in order to decrease prices.

Yields

The remarkable increase in the yields of almost all crops between 1918 and 1937 is due to scientific research in plant propagation and seed selections, the improvement of methods of cultivation, and control of plant pests.

From 1913 to 1937 the average yield increased by 25 per cent for cotton, 20 per cent for maize, 21 per cent for millett, 25 per cent for barley, 20 per cent for sugar cane.

In comparison with yields of other countries we quote what Miss Warriner has said:

> Even with the high cropping rate, yields are very high. The average wheat yield is nearly as high as that of Great Britain, with an average of seventeen hundredweight per acre. The maize (corn) yield is twenty hundredweight per acre, the highest in the world. For cotton, yields are also the highest in the world; in 1939 the average yield was 606 lbs. per acre, against 238 for the United States, and 368 for the Soviet Union.[7]

As for the productivity per acre, figures of gross output compiled by the Ministry of Agriculture give L.E. 100,000,000 ($400,000,000) as the value of output of Egyptian agriculture in 1939, which would give a gross output of L.E. 20 per acre ($80). This corresponds with an average gross income of about £5 to £10[8] (about $20 to $40).

Summary of the Recent Agricultural Development

1. Increase of the cultivated area by about 130,000 feddans and of the crop area by about 452,000 feddans.
2. Increase of available irrigation and construction of numerous drainage projects.
3. Intensification of the production of many agricultural commodities, especially cotton, cereals, fruits and sugar cane.

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[7] Warriner, op. cit., p. 29.

[8] Ibid., p. 34.

4. Improvement of the quality and increase of the yield per acre of most products.

It is deplorable that the fruits of the increments of these improvements were usurped by the landlords depriving the tenants and agricultural laborers of any benefits beside mere subsistence.

The new reclaimed lands are usually sold to large landlords, and the irrigation and drainage projects are sometimes started for the personal interest of certain politicians or landlords. The Ministry of Agriculture, concerned only with a limited number of large landlords, is without any care for the small owners or the tenants.

Jhon Stuart Mill says:

> The economical progress of a society constituted of landlords, capitalists, and laborers, tends to the progressive enrichment of the landlord class, while the cost of the laborers' subsistence tends on the whole to increase, and profits to fall. Agricultural improvements are a counteracting force to the two last effects, but the first, though a case is conceivable in which it would be temporarily checked, is ultimately in a high degree promoted by those improvements, and the increase of population tends to transfer all the benefits derived from agricultural improvements to the landlord's alone.[9]

All production factors get a respectable share of the government's attention except human labor. All patterns of agricultural production, land, seeds, livestock, pests and

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[9]Theodore W. Schultz, Agriculture in an Unstable Economy (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1945), pp. 48-49. Quoted from Jhon Stuart Mill, Principles of Political Economy, Book IV, Chapter III, Section 5, pp. 721-724.

even insects are more lucky than human beings. Man, the coordinator of all these elements, is utterly neglected, although he is the most valuable capital. Thus Egypt is considered as a poor and backward country in spite of her progressive agriculture, because the real progress of the country is measured by the standard of living of the majority of the people.

CHAPTER III

LAND TENURE

The Present Situation

When we speak of land tenure in our country we do not usually mention farmers because we do not have farmers in the sense understood in the United States: a man owning a farm (a family size farm) and cultivating it by his own labor with the help of his family. In our country we have something different. One is either a landlord, an owner who does no work, or a fellah, a peasant who tills the land as a tenant or a laborer and even a small part-owner. We have two nations: on one hand the fellaheen, tilling and sweating and living like animals; on the other hand the landlords reaping the fruits of their efforts, doing no work, enjoying all the privileges and pleasures, and living usually in towns.

Landlordism is an occupation, and it is the most respectable occupation. Whatever a man may own--either an acre or a hundred acres--he is a landlord and he is proud of it.

This is the situation in short. Those who own the land are not able to farm it, and those who farm it can not own it and can not even get a fair return for their labor. The whole population, urban and rural, is striving and

struggling for land against an acute land shortage and a serious land hunger.

Land Ownership

We summarize the characteristics of land ownership in the following points.

1. Scarcity: small and limited supply of land and a great demand because of a growing population.
2. Maldistribution: the concentration of land in the hands of a few.
3. Irregularity of farms: too large farms and too small plots of uneconomic units.
4. Absentee ownership: non farmers ownership, land-mindedness and land hunger.
5. Land investment, land speculation and inflated prices.
6. Social and political value of land ownership.

Scarcity of Land

On a cultivated area of about six million acres exists a total population of about eighteen millions with an average of 0.33 per cent acre per capita, while there is a rural population of twelve millions with an average of 0.5 acre per capita. These figures need no comment. Furthermore, the owners of the land are only about 2.5 millions and the rest of the inhabitants are landless.

If we assume that all land owners are rural and subtract 2.5 from the total rural population we will still have 10.5 million people willing to own land and able to till it, but unable to get it. Because of this scarcity the bulk of the rural inhabitants are forced to work for the owners, either as tenants or as hired laborers.

Maldistribution

If the six million acres were distributed evenly among the twelve million farm population, it would give a level of L.E. 10 ($40) per capita, that is to say, three acres for a family of six, with an income of L.E. 60 ($240). It would be possible for the rural population to exist in a better condition, though comparatively modest, and they would be able to improve their farms and have a better income, better homes and better living. This is only an imaginary estimate because it is something too different from the real situation.

The system of land ownership in our country is a system of complete, rugged individualism which resulted in the concentration of land into the hands of the privileged minority and the development of the large landlord class, some landlordships dating from the time of Mohamed Ali, others enriched by land reclamation, and speculation, the breakup of Khedive Ismail's estates, and the profits of cotton prices during the First World War.

Tables X and XI, which follow, show, respectively, the distribution of land in 1940 and the percentage of the number of proprietors and the area of each category, and the changes in land ownership between the years 1923 and 1944.

These two tables show that holdings of less than one feddan increased in number and area and so too of 1-5 feddans. The rest remained unchanged, especially over 50 feddans. The number of owners of under five feddans is about 90 per cent of the total owners with an area only about 30 per cent of the total area. About 40 per cent of the land is owned by large proprietors with estates over 50 feddans, of which about 22 per cent is owned by about 2,000 landlords with estates over 200 feddans. This represents the great accumulation of property in our nation.

It should be noted that the actual figures are somewhat different. The figures which relate to the number of proprietors are not an exact guide to ownership, since the figures really relate to the number of landed properties and not to proprietors; thus it is possible that one landowner may own several properties in different villages which are counted under separate proprietors in the returns. Also he may own different properties in the same village which are registered under different names--his late father or mother, or wife, or children. So the figures exaggerate the number of large landowners and reduce the average area owned by them.

TABLE X

LAND OWNERSHIP, 1940[a]

	Number of Proprietors	Percentage of Total	Area in Feddans	Percentage of Total	Average per Capita (Feddans)
Up to 1 feddan	1,763,702	70.73	724,156	12.40	0.41
1-5 feddans	570,449	22.85	1,171,321	20.05	2.05
Total under 5 feddans	2,336,151	93.58	1,895,477	32.45	0.81
5-10 feddans	85,622	3.43	573,038	9.81	6.69
10-20 feddans	41,455	1.66	558,790	9.57	13.48
20-30 feddans	11,907	0.47	288,654	4.94	24.24
30-50 feddans	9,179	0.37	356,538	6.10	38.84
Total 5-50 feddans	148,163	5.93	1,777,020	30.42	11.99
More than 50 feddans	12,232	0.49	2,168,514	37.13	177.28
Grand total	2,496,546		5,841,011		2.34

[a]Source: Doreen Warriner, Land and Poverty in the Middle East (London & New York: Royal Institute of International Affairs, 1948), p. 35.

TABLE XI

DISTRIBUTION OF LAND PROPERTY IN 1923 AND 1944[a]

	Number of Proprietors		Area Owned in Feddans	
	1923	1944	1923	1944
Up to 1 feddan	1,299,215	1,792,530	529,381	740,530
1-5 feddans	518,082	599,985	1,087,488	1,216,301
5-10 feddans	81,570	83,511	556,632	567,751
10-20 feddans	39,309	41,307	530,805	561,651
20-30 feddans	12,096	11,887	289,711	288,724
30-50 feddans	9,414	9,227	362,764	356,899
50-100 feddans	6,851	6,656	487,136	453,384
100-200 feddans	3,224	3,204	452,305	436,864
Over 200 feddans	2,604	2,272	1,301,694	1,251,112
Total	1,973,365	2,550,579	5,597,916	5,873,206

[a]Source: Annuaire Statistique de L'Egypte Department de la Statistique Generale (Cairo Government Press, 1945).

The census does not give any information on the number of farms and the amount of land held by each one of the large landlords. For political reasons neither the Census nor anybody else has ever attempted to collect such information because it will reveal that there is more concentration of land property in Egypt than in any other country.

Not more than one hundred individuals and families own the majority of the land. Some own thousands and even tens of thousands of feddans, whole villages (Taftish's and Ezba's) with their inhabitants, who typically do not possess any land and are therefore entirely dependent on the estate to which they are attached for their means of subsistence, either in the form of wages or of returns from various types of crop sharing, or both. In these cases there is a monopoly which strengthens the bargaining power of the landlord and forces the fellaheen to accept whatever the landlord may fix as a rent or as a wage.

There is fear also that the accumulation of large revenues in the hands of the large landlords may lead to more and more concentration of land in their hands, until the day will come when the whole country is owned by a small group of agrarians.

There are some distinguished large land owners who we cannot fail to mention. (1) The state owns at the present time 158,329 acres of the cultivated land and 1,384,235 of

non-cultivated land which could be reclaimed. (2) The land corporations and companies. They were first granted land free to carry out the reclamation operations and sell the reclaimed land to the peasants, but most of them now are keeping the land as an investment and turning away from their basic function. There are no accurate figures of the total land owned by these companies, but I can enumerate about twenty of them with an average of 20,000. (3) An important class is the foreigners. In 1943 there had been 5,404 foreigners owning 405,381 feddans, with an average of about 80 feddans per head, compared with 1.91 feddans for the Egyptians. (4) The "Wakf" or mortmains is an old system which puts certain restrictions upon the mobility of the land. It becomes inalienable, and can not be sold or mortgaged or subdivided between the heirs. It can be devoted to: charitable or religious purposes; family purposes, with usufructuary use of the land. In 1943, there was an acreage of 664,712 feddans for the benefit of 19,234 people with an average of about 35 feddans per capita.

Irregularity of Farms

Beside the large estates previously mentioned, there are too many dwarf holdings, extremely small farms, millions of plots of uneconomic units of land. The Census enumerates 1,792,530 who own less than one feddan and who together hold

an area of 740,530 acres. Acreage also may be scattered. A farmer may own one or two "Kerat" (1/24 of an acre) here and another within a distance of two or three miles, without any regard to the waste of effort. The land is very dear, the farmer spends all his life investing his savings in a ewe or a cow, hoping that the day will come when he will be able to buy even a very small tract of land, whatever may be the price he pays. This may be explained in his eagerness to move to the landlord class and in his natural adoration of the land. Also it is a security and a collateral which gives him priority when renting land. Subdivision may also be due to inheritance laws.

This parcellation, fragmentation and too minute subdivision may entail not only a smaller production unit to a family, but also positive damage to the soil and an ultimate decline in production.

The gap may have a social and psychological influence, either in a sense of inferiority, humility and submission, or in a sense of frustration and discontent, both of which are detrimental to the peace and unity of the country.

Absentee Ownership

There is no information about percentage of resident and absentee landlords, but, in my opinion, the absentee landlords own more than two-thirds of the land, including all

classes of large, medium, and small owners. Even some of the residents are transient; they live in the towns and come to their farms only during the harvest seasons to supervise collecting rent or selling the crops. Most of the large farms are operated from the towns either by proxy or by telephone. Usually large landlords live in towns and big cities, sometimes at a considerable distance, sometimes in foreign countries, without knowing where their lands are located. They do not by any means take an active interest in their farm's management. They hire an agent who is thinking only of himself, caring little for the fellaheen, endeavoring to profit by his position. In many cases they rob the landlords, at last becoming rich after impoverishing the main landlords.

The agents of the landlords are commonly called "Wakil" or "Muffatish" or "Nazir" according to the size of the estate. They usually receive a cash salary, often also enjoying the privilege of cultivating, at an appropriate rent, as much of the land as they want to.

Even the residents never work the land by themselves; they either manage a part of it while the remaining part is rented out to tenants, or they may hire a "Nazir" to manage the land, using hired labor. Sometimes they also rent big tracts of lands and manage them or sublease them to the small tenants.

This is the case with large landlords, but medium and small landlords usually rent the land to small tenants, making a few trips a year to their land. The most important thing is first to make the lease and second to collect the rent.

As a result of this absenteeism, the land is mined by tenants, and buildings and improvements frequently fall into disrepair. There is no correlation, understanding, mutual aid, or planning for the conservation of land and labor. This is only a case of drawing large revenues without effort, and of developing a class of idle rich who do not work.

An American writer remarks, "Next to war, pestilence, and famine, the worst thing that can happen to a rural community is absentee landlordism." This statement is true of Egypt.

Non-Farmers Ownership

The question of peasant ownership of land has never been seriously mentioned; there is no information at all which tells the number of farmers and non-farmers among owners. I think that non-farmers own more than two-thirds of the cultivated land in Egypt.

There is a striking feature of land ownership in Egypt. The people are anxious to obtain land, whether urban or rural. The banker, the merchant, the doctor, the lawyer, the sailor, the officer and the miner all have their roots in

the land, and their hopes are hung upon it. Every school boy's dream is to own an estate (ezba). Doctors and lawyers beginning their practice do their best to squeeze from their poor fellaheen customers sufficient money to acquire an ezba. When they fail to get it through a successful business, they turn the other way, searching for a rich landed wife. Everybody is striving for land and nothing but land. This is what may be called land mindedness, and results in severe land hunger.

People believe that "out of the land we come, and to it we must go."

This land rush boosts the land prices to some fantastic figures which make it impossible for any farmer to own the farm he tills or to climb the so-called agricultural ladder.

Land Investment

In Egypt land is looked upon as an investment, not in the sense of a home and a family farm, as in the United States. Owning land is a commercial business, something like owning shares and stocks in an industrial business. The peasants, either tenants or agricultural workers, are the laborers in this enterprise.

It is also a preferred investment, because of the land stability, indestructibility, the prospects of rising prices for the new lands, and other privileges of land ownership. Extensive areas of agricultural land and reclamation land

are still being bought by people with large capital who only make a pretext of farming. There are also others who make big money through land speculation which is considered illegitimate.

The rate on the capital investment of the landlords at the present time averages about 10 per cent annually with a maximum of 15 per cent and a minimum of 5 per cent. These rates vary with the fluctuation of the prices of agricultural products and the value of land. On the whole, the tendency is upward, because the amount of rent is increasing from year to year.

As a result of investment and speculation added to over-population and scarcity of land and land hunger, the value of land has been boosted to an excessive degree. At the present time the price of an acre ranges between L.E. 200-400 ($800-$1,600). These inflated prices encourage many owners of small and middle sized holdings to sell out the land they have inherited from their forefathers. Thus, there is a marked increase in the proletarization of the small proprietors.

This attraction of land explains the reluctance of Egyptian capitalists to invest their capital in industry. Therefore, land investment acts as a drawback to industrialization in a way which has been described as a "bottomless sink" for Egyptian capital. This state of things not only threatens to bring misfortune in the shape of high rents, low wages, and

exploitation to the farmers who are immediately concerned, but in the long run must affect the position of the farming class as a whole, and shake the structure of the rural society.

Social and Political Value of Land Ownership

Social prestige and political power have depended for a long time on the possession of land. A man's value is estimated by the number of acres he acquires. No matter how successful a doctor or lawyer or even banker he may be, the people will always ask, "How many acres has he?"

In the village the mayor "Omdah" must be a landlord with a minimum ownership of five acres. Only owners have the right to elect the "Omdah". It is a sort of landed aristocracy or landlords' government. The same is the case with the municipal, the county, and the province councils.

Large landowners can easily become senators and representatives and the majority of the members of the parliament are of the landlord class. Non-owners are not counted; they are out of bounds. No wonder we find people struggling desperately for land ownership.

Tenancy

About farm tenancy centers not one social problem, but a whole complex of them. In fact, tenancy has a bearing on almost every problem that the farm community experiences.

It bears directly on the functioning of all rural social institutions and plays a vital part in many economic considerations affecting agriculture.[1]

This is more true in a country of peasants, particularly tenants like those of Egypt, where tenancy is obligatory for a farmer, who has no other choice. Although he owns no land yet he has to farm to earn his living. There is no sufficient information about the accurate number of tenants, the total area operated by tenants, and the size of farms they operate. Also, there is no information about trends in tenancy, though it is understood that tenancy increases as population increases and as a result the size of farms decline and rent goes up because of the growing competition.

The number of male workers engaged in agriculture according to the 1937 Census is as follows:

Wage earners	1,457,267
Peasants helping their parents	1,226,887
Peasants owning their lands	959,975
Peasants leasing land	210,385
Shephards and poultry and animal breeders	78,696
Total males	3,683,776

The figures seem very small; in fact there are no boundaries between peasant classes and the figures usually overlap. It will be sound to count the peasants helping their parents and those owning their lands (part-time owners)

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[1]Paul H. Landis, Rural Life in Process (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1948), p. 415.

as tenants. The figures will be as follows:

	1,226,887
	959,975
	210,385
Total males	2,397,247

As for the area cultivated by tenants, it can be estimated by three million acres or about 60 per cent of the total cultivated area.

Systems of Tenancy

1. Cash rent: The prevalent system of tenancy in Egypt is cash rent. The tenant pays a fixed amount of money per year. In return he discharges the responsibility of the farm management and assumes the production risks.
2. Standing rent: The tenant is bound to offer a certain amount of the crops to the landlord. That is to say a fixed number of crop units (ex two Kantars of cotton (200 lb.) per acre without regard to the actual yield). The tenant undertakes all the expenses himself. This may insure the tenant against price fluctuations, but it does not give him any security against crop failure. It is said that this method encourages the tenant to do his best to increase the production for his own profit. The biggest disadvantage is that landlord's portions are extremely large.
3. Share rent: The tenant undertakes management and expenses without any contribution on the part of the landlord. The

landlord gets a fixed share of the crop, usually varying between one half and three fifths according to the fertility of the land and the amenities of the area.

4. Share cropping: Many variations are found in the detailed arrangements of share cropping. In the most common form the landlord provides the land and permanent equipment (seeds, fertilizers and other requirements), while the tenant provides the labor and the implements of husbandry and the produce is shared equally. In other cases the landlord furnishes everything but labor, and even advances the tenant money for his personal expenses until the crops are marketed, deducting interest and repayment from the tenant's share. In this case the tenant's share goes down to one fourth or one fifth according to the different conditions, obligations, the fertility of the soil, the kind of crop, and the degree of congestion in the area. Livestock enterprises are shared as well as crops, the landlord providing only his share of the breeding stock while the tenant furnishes everything else. This is usually a very profitable investment for the landlords.

Of share croppers, Adam Smith pointed out that it could never be to their interest to lay out in the improvement of the land any part of the little stock which they might save

from their own share of the product, because the lord who laid out nothing was to get one-half of what is produced. It might be to the interest of a share cropper to make the land produce as much as can be brought out of it by means of the stock furnished by the proprietor, but it could never be to his interest to mix any of his own with it.[2]

The landlords are always in a position of being able to choose the most profitable methods. Some use mixed methods of cash and share or cash and standing rent. By using cash for the corn they stay on the safe side, because corn is usually consumed by the tenant. Some contribute in the management, others rent the land for Berseem only in order to improve their lands by the tenants' livestock manure, while growing the cotton on their own.

The landlord usually regulates questions of water, drainage, and rotation, though some expenses are passed on to the tenants. The landlord also supervises the gathering of the crops and has them deposited in his stores so as to ensure the rent payment. The law gives him the right to make a seizure of the crops and livestock before harvest as a security. They also store crops to make profit of their knowledge of the market and price fluctuations while paying the tenants the harvest time low price. The large landlords

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[2]Adam Smith, Wealth of Nations, Book III. Quoted from Liversage, V., Land Tenure in the Colonies (Cambridge University Press, 1945), p. 118.

usually tend to become cotton merchants and speculators.

Too much has been written about the advantages and disadvantages of each from the landlord's point of view, but too little from the tenant's angle. The method per se does not make any difference; the weakness is the exploitative rent fees either in cash or in kind which ought to be fixed by regulating legislation.

Tenancy Problems

Tenancy problems may be summarized as follows:

1. the lease market,
2. high rents and unjust division of farm income,
3. insecurity of occupancy,
4. uncertainty regarding maintenance and development of farm improvements,
5. indebtedness,
6. high value for services rendered and high interest rate,
7. risks of prices and crop failure.

1. The lease market: Scarcity of land, unequal distribution of ownership, over-population, competition, poverty, ignorance and lack of unity of most of the tenants on the one hand, and monopoly, exploitation and supremacy of the landlords on the other hand, are factors which affect the lease market, oppress tenants, and strengthen the bargaining power of the landlords.

In former times there had been certain traditional relations between landlords and tenants which eased the unfavorable tenancy customs. Good will and benevolence on the part of the landlords and other social amenities softened the hardships of tenancy. The landlords were in a sense the guardians and the protectors of the weak tenants against some social abuses and against crop misfortune. There had been misunderstanding, responsibility and mutual cooperation.

When the individualistic and capitalistic system of economy came into play, agriculture was commercialized and so were human relations. The landlords are no longer raised or live on the farms. They are replaced by intermediaries or agents lacking interest in the people or in the land, having only one idea: to squeeze tenants in order to raise the landlord's income and to please him.

The position of the tenants became more and more disadvantageous. The scarcity of available land and the keen competition among tenants has brought serious dislocations. It has also introduced a serious form of instability. More tenants are looking for farms than there are farms available. These tenants desperately searching for a farm bid the rent up, sometimes knowing they can not live up to their promises. The bidding among tenants has resulted in unduly high cash rentals. It may happen that

the weakness of their bargaining power enables landlords to increase the rent so high as to leave the tenants nothing but bare subsistence and so prevent them from having the capital, or even the physical vigor requisite to render their labor adequately sufficient.

Sometimes the prospective tenant will assume liabilities which he can not meet. In addition, the smallness of the required capital and the absence of that degree of fixity of investment, and ignorance and shortsightedness, strengthen the inclination of the tenant to overburden himself and to be careless in assuming obligations. This tendency may be intensified by the fact that a tenant's failure in business does not involve a serious loss.

Usually the tenant's personal circumstances force him into engagements which he can not meet. There are no statistics available which show how many cases of eviction are due to non-fulfillment of contractual obligations of the tenant, but such cases were common during the last depression. There is no doubt that many tenants would keep their farms longer if they were able to meet the terms of the lease.

2. High rents and unjust division of farm income: When we come to the amount of rent, it is clear that the tenant is the weaker of the parties because land is scarce and the supply of tenants is large. The persons who want to

lease are numerous, offering competitive prices. Not only this, but the economic and political power the landlords acquire helps to aggravate the situation. Although rent is a price, its formation does not follow all the rules regarding the determination of prices in modern economics. The formation of rents is dependent to a very high degree upon the personal characteristics of the bargaining parties, and particularly upon those of the tenants. Often the rent is not determined by capitalistic calculations but by the tenant's vital desire to use his working power. Then the amount of rent is related rather to the intensity of the tenant's personal needs than to objective conditions. By all means it is a human rent rather than a land rent.

Egyptian tenants probably pay the highest rents for leased land in the world. The high rents result from gradual raising of the amount by the landlords at the time of new leases. Rents are usually fixed beforehand for each agricultural year, in accordance with the cotton prices. This method is on the whole unfair to the tenant as it does not allow for falling prices during the agricultural year, a fact which has often occurred since 1919. Besides, land rent, like prices, tends more easily to rise than to fall, so that during the greater part of the last twenty years, it did not fall in proportion with

the general fall in prices but remained unnecessarily high owing to the initial short period of 1918 and 1920, when cotton prices and land rents reached unprecedented heights.[3] It seems that rents usually precede prices when they increase and lag behind them when they decline.

The Fellah Department points out in a report introduced to the International Labor Office, as follows:

> No accurate statistics exist as to rent values. Data collected from various districts of the country shows, however, that the rent value is approximately equivalent to the whole yield of the land if cultivated for one's account, i.e., the tenant does not usually get a profit, all that he gets is the wages due to him for his work and the price of what he sells for "branch income" such as dairy products or poultry.
>
> In certain congested districts, rents may go up to such a figure as would leave no margin for the tenant equivalent to his full work. In less crowded areas little profits may be gained.[4]

The maximum rent runs as high as four-fifths and even nine-tenths of the crop, and the minimum is about one-half of the yield.

Because of high rents in Egypt there is no opportunity for a tenant to climb the so-called agricultural ladder to become an owner. The amount of rent varies greatly with localities and also with the types of rent payment.

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[3]Hussein Kamel Selim, Twenty Years of Agricultural Development in Egypt (1919-1939) (Cairo: Government Press, 1940), p. 95.

[4]Fellah Department, Report Introduced to the International Labor Office, on Questions Relating to Agriculture (Cairo: 1946).

It has often been observed that the rent of poor land is comparatively higher than the rent of good land. The same is true with respect to small and large holdings. Rents for a farm often exceed 5 per cent, and rents for parcels of land may amount to 10 per cent of the so-called basic value.

To give a general idea of the situation we present the next figures which show that total and average rents have risen considerably from 1892 to 1937.

In the 1892-1907 cadaster made by the taxation committees, the total rental value was estimated to be L.E. 16,356,000 ($65,424,000) with an average of L.E. 3,595 ($14.38) per feddan. The 1935-1937 cadaster gave a total of L.E. 34,420,000 ($137,680,000) with an average of L.E. 6,457 ($25.82) per feddan. The percentage of the total increase is 215 per cent. The percentage of the average increase is 180 per cent. It is to be noted that these estimates are fairly moderate because usually these committees fix low rents, trying to be courteous to the landlords and reduce the basis of land taxes (property tax is 16 per cent of the estimated rent).

Table XII shows a sharp reduction in these figures in 1932, but again prices tend to rise and recover the loss.

It is interesting to recall that average land rent in cotton areas in the United States was under $4.00 in 1933

TABLE XII

MOVEMENT OF RENTS, 1928-1937[a]
(In L.E. per Feddan)

	1928		1932		1937	
	L.E.	$	L.E.	$	L.E.	$
North Delta	7-8	28-32	3	12	5	20
South Delta	10-11	40-44	5	20	7-8	28-32
Minia (Upper Egypt)	18-20	72-80	8-9	32-36	10-12	40-48

[a]Source: A. Lambert, "Divers Modes de Faire Valoir les Terres en Egypte," Egypte Contemporaire, 1938.

and $5.00 in 1939, representing about 17 per cent of the total costs of production of cotton, including marketing.[5]

According to data gathered by the Fellah Department from the various parts of the country, the average rent value and the rates of increase in rents during years 1938-1944 were as shown in Table XIII. There was a continuous rise in rent values. The rate of increase in 1944-45 rent compared to 1938-39 amounted to 237.5 per cent, while the corresponding rise in the general agricultural income from the main crops was 228 per cent. This shows that the class of small tenants did not profit by the boom, seeing that the rise in the average rent value exceeded the rise in the net yield or income which was again exceeded by the percentage of the cost of living. This, however, may not represent the true fact of the matter since a good number of agricultural products were in many cases sold at much higher prices than the official rates. In addition, secondary products in the hands of smaller peasants, such as dairy products, poultry, eggs, meat and vegetables, were usually sold at much higher rates than those of other products.[6] This shows that small

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[5]Charles Issawi, Egypt: An Economic and Social Analysis (Oxford: Royal Institute of International Affairs, 1947), p. 76.

[6]Fellah Department, Report Introduced to the International Labor Office on Questions Relating to Agriculture (Cairo: 1946).

TABLE XIII

THE AVERAGE RENT AND THE RATE OF INCREASE, 1938-1945[a]

	1938/39		1942/43		1943/44		1944/45	
	L.E.*	$	L.E.	$	L.E.	$	L.E.	$
Average cash rent	8	32	15	60	18	72	19	76
Percentage of increase	100		187		225		237.5	

[a]Source: The Fellah Department.

*L.E.= $4.00

tenants did not profit from the war-inflated prices of crops because of the increase of rents. They are usually the victims of both booms and depressions, as these illustrations show.

In 1933 during the depth of the depression a tenant wrote to the Secretary of Agriculture, asking for rent reduction and relief. Describing the situation. he said, "I support five children and five acres."

In 1936 the Daily Journal "ALAHRAM" wrote describing the case of another, whose buffalo was seized to cover his debt, in his own words:

> "I have taken two feddans on lease, each for L.E. 12 ($48.00), and have expended to the inquirer L.E. 5 ($20.00) on manure, seeds, etc. in respect of each of them to say nothing of my labor, that of my children and the help of my animals during the whole year. And here is the result: one feddan has yielded 4 kantar (400 lbs,) of cotton sold at L.E. 12 ($48.00). My income being L.E. 25 ($100.00), of which L.E. 10 ($40.00) have already been spent, what else can I do to pay off my rent but to sell my buffalo?"
>
> "But since you are losing, why do you go on renting the plot?"
>
> "Because farming is the vocation I have inherited from my forefathers, and I can do no other work."
>
> "Then why do you pay such a high price for land?"
>
> "Because land owners in this region have united to maintain the price of the land and the fellaheen do not know how to make it go down."[7]

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[7]From the Daily Journal Alahram of November 3, 1936, (Arabic).

It is true that formal and non-formal associations and syndicates of landlords strengthen their bargaining power and protect their interests.

3. Insecurity of occupancy and short term leases: Land rents are usually fixed beforehand for each agricultural year in a system of year to year lease. Land is never leased for more than two or three years. Annual leases are more common and very often the duration may be confined to one crop, for the period of four to six months.

Oral agreements are rare; in most cases, with exception of some large landlords, leases are written. The printed contracts used are usually made in the favor of the landlord. Although it is understood that the lease is to be drawn in duplicate, each party keeping a copy, the general practice in regard to small tenants and large landlords relations is that the lease is drawn in one copy to be kept by the landlord.

The leases do not contain automatic renewal clauses or require adequate written notice of termination. The landlord reserves for himself free right to expel the tenant at the end of the lease duration without being liable to any claim on the part of the tenant in respect to any compensation for improvements. The position of the tenant is in a legal sense weak. He is dependent on the good will of the owner for the continuance of his tenancy because the prevailing duration of the lease is

only one year. This means that the tenant does not know whether he will cultivate next year the land which he controls this year or be thrown out. Furthermore some landlords require to take half a year's rent in advance as a security. Thus, the tenants make every effort to win the landlord's good will and to prevent the transfer of the lease to another person. They make presents, particularly wheat and butter, to the landlord on national holidays and other occasions. They literally follow the landlord's orders in regard to the crops, fertilizers, rotations, and the utilization of the land. In all, the tenants have to do what the landlord thinks best lest they be deprived of the lease. In this way the landlords are a political and economical power in rural Egypt. Their supremacy over the peasant tenants is somewhat like that of the feudal lords or the rural gentry of days gone by.

4. Uncertainty regarding maintenance and development of farm improvements: The tenant had no incentive to carry out improvements in the soil, which would remain to considerable extent exhausted at the end of his tenure. He has no right to compensation for the unexhausted value of improvements and in fact the rent might be raised as a result of the increased value due to his own improvements. There is a temptation to farmers to take

all that could be taken out of the land before the expiration of a lease. On the other hand the landlords try to preserve the property from spoilation by inserting in the tenancy agreement clauses which limit the tenant's freedom of cropping.

There is no provision for compensation to an outgoing tenant for unexhausted improvements. If the tenant farms the land well and tries to get it into good shape, he is certain to be turned out as soon as someone else will offer a better rent.

5. Indebtedness: Because of the exhorbitant rates, the tenants are unable to pay the yearly rent. They may be forced to sell their stock or mortgage their plots of land and even sell them to pay the accumulating rent. As a result there is a striking feature of tenancy increase owing to the chronic indebtedness of the small peasants to proprietors.

In a study I made of the conditions of the tenants of the Sheikh Fadl land company, I found that most of the tenants were sinking in too many old debts which resulted in a case of serfdom to the company. They were chained by their debts, sticking to the company and the land with no possibility of moving, turning to be something like laborers with a major difference that they did not get wages, losing sense of concern over the land and interest

in farming or good yields, because whatever the yield may be it was usually taken by the company to sink into the old debts.

6. High values for services and high interest rates: Some landlords, especially the large owners and large companies, render some services to the tenants, such as providing irrigation, clearing canals, or drains, purchasing seeds or fertilizers, and guarding stored crops expenses, etc. They do not discount it at the real cost of expenses, but usually make excessive profits.

   To get loans from the Agricultural Credit Bank the non-owning tenants must have the owner guarantee. Making use of this condition the landlords themselves get the loans at low rates and reloan them to the tenants at higher rates.

7. Risks of prices and crop failure: The cash tenants have to face the fluctuations of crop prices alone without any system of insurance or hedging.

   There are also some tenants suffering because of crop failures, especially because of cotton pests and effects of bad weather. A system of crop insurance may help them. The landlord must bear his share of this obligatory loss which is not due to the tenant's negligence.

There are two features adherent to tenancy in Egypt which need to be mentioned.

Intermediaries and Subletting. The severe pressure of population on the land and the tendency of peasant exploitation in the absence of regulating laws has developed subletting to the stage where it has become a very profitable and respectable occupation. A class of middlemen arose, including some of the large landlords and their sons who fail to finish their college or high school successfully, some town people, merchants, doctors, lawyers, and even government officials, buying and selling leaseholds. In the village the tax collector, the teachers of the grammar compulsory schools, and the preachers are also interested in this job. With no capital or with a small one they can make a fortune. Interest varies from 10 to 20 per cent or more of the rent. In this way many estates are rented to one big tenant who cultivates it for his own account or subleases it to smaller tenants at much higher rates. In rare cases two degrees of middlemen may exist.

The Public Auction Method. During the second half of the agricultural year (from May to October), newspapers are usually crowded with announcements advertising public auctions of large estates. The auctioneering is more prevalent in larger transactions, Wakfs, and official associations.

They are usually held in big towns too distant from the peasants, demanding certain requirements such as advance deposit or security which peasants are unable to fulfill;

furthermore the whole estate is usually rented in toto. So they are usually limited to intermediaries and large tenants. It often happens that crowding in auctions, coupled with competition and obstinacy, results in raising the rents to exorbitant values. These rents, plus some other good profits, are shifted to the poor peasants.

I have seen a strange case -- it was at a small local auction -- where the tenants had made some kind of agreement and arrangements to minimize the rent and allot the land to small suitable units, but one of these professional intermediaries suddenly appeared and constituted a threat to the tenants' plan. They started consulting and soon decided to pay him an amount of money in order that he would not interfere and bid the prices up. The smart intermediary accepted the deal and kept watching the operation until he received the money which he had made no effort to earn.

Disadvantages of Tenancy

The following are some of the disadvantages of tenancy:

1. waste of land resources,
2. lack of farm improvements and modern machinery,
3. poverty and low standard of living,
4. poor institutions and lack of community concern,
5. cotton corvee.

1. Waste of land resources: Although all the factors predisposing to soil exploitation are present yet there is no marked evidence of soil deterioration. It may be because of the lavish use of fertilizers and manure, or because of the yearly rich Nile silt. But in the long run the effect of the soil exploitation will appear. In the study I made of the conditions of the Skeikh Fadl tenants I found that some tenants prefer to make some money by selling the fertilizer which was rationed and sold at a fixed price by the government during the war, rather than to use it to fertilize the sugar cane. This was because of the lease system and the old debts which gave the company the right to absorb the whole crop either large or small.
2. Lack of farm improvements and modern technology: Because of poverty, ignorance and lack of interest the farms under tenancy are deprived of many required improvements, such as new methods of cultivation and modern machinery, while those operated by managers are more efficient, making full use of modern technology and machinery. Tenants use backward methods and prehistoric implements. The same type of hoe that man first used when he started cultivation is still in use today, together with primitive machines of irrigation, the pictures of which were depicted on the walls of the ancient tombs of Egypt.

The "Sakieh" or water wheel consisted of a horizontal wheel turned by one or two oxen which sets in motion a vertical wheel, around which are hung a number of jars, this wheel being sunk into a reservoir connected with the river. The jars thus scoop up the water and bring it to a trough on a level with the top. Into this trough each jar empties itself, and thence into the cultivated ground adjoining.[8]

The "Shadouf" consists of a leather bucket slung at one end of a pole which has a weight at the other, usually a piece of stone. It swings up and down on a vertical support scooping up the water to the earth's level. Several Shadoufs, rising one above the other on the river bank, are required. Compton's Encyclopedia's comment about this method is romantic: "About which Father Nile is made to climb the stairs, so to speak, and water the thirsty fields."[9]

The "Tambour" an Archimedean screw, is usually turned by the peasant while he is sitting with his legs dipped in the stream. Several "Tambours," rising one above the other and turned by several men, may be used if the level of the land is much higher than the water level.

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[8]The Encyclopedia Americana, Vol. 10 (New York: American Corporation, 1941), p. 2.

[9]Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia and Fact-Index, Vol. 4 (Chicago: F. E. Compton & Company, 1947), p. 195.

The old wooden plough is still used to furrow the soil.

The "Norag" used to thresh grain is perhaps the same type used by Joseph to prepare grain for the years of famine. It consists of a big wooden seat fixed over some heavy iron sledges which turn when the Norag is hauled by oxen, so crushing out the grain, which is tossed up to be separated from the chaff by being winnowed by the wind.

However, we must keep in mind that we are an over-populated country with a thick rural population depending on agricultural labor. We have to choose the suitable technology to bring out efficiency without turning out new surpluses of labor which may complicate our present problems.

As for buildings and peasants' homes, on the estates they are primitive and obsolete. The large landlords, lacking interest, leave them to turn to ruins. In my study of the Skeikh Fadl tenants' case I found some peasants living in ruins nearly in the open air, mud huts with neither ceiling nor doors. On the medium and small farms there are no buildings at all. Peasants have to live in the village at a distance of miles from the farm. The whole family, including the stock, has to go to the farm by sunrise and return to the village by sunset, making

two trips a day. Even the manure, which is often made at home, has to be removed to the farms by asses. The crops also have to be moved to the village to be stored and sold at home. By all means this is a waste of money and effort. The government has promised to enact a law to force landlords to provide for tenants good homes and public and sanitation services.

3. Poverty and low standard of living: It has been pointed out in different places that the distribution of income between landlords and tenants allow the latter no more than bare subsistence. This results in extreme poverty and wretchedness. The standard of living of the peasant will be discussed later.
4. Poor institutions and lack of community concern: It is clear that poverty leads to poor institutions, poor education, poor religious concern, poor and autocratic local government. Furthermore, the nature of work, full-time exhausting labor days, permits no recreation, no social activity, and no community concern.
5. Cotton corvee: The dependence on the one crop system with cotton as the only cash crop and subject to fluctuations of prices, is not advantageous. Prices and markets are completely beyond the range of the country's influence, having no relation to the quantity and quality of the crop. They closely follow the lead of English and American

prices. But they have their reactions on the whole country, particularly upon the remotest tenant, because they determine his net profit. If these prices are not commensurate with the amount of labor as well as with the high cost of production, the tenant will, in fact, be subject to a sort of international corvee in addition to the national corvee. However, the question arises as to the twin relations between cotton and tenancy. Is tenancy a cause of cotton cultivation or a result of it?

Can not we replace cotton partly or completely by some other food or vegetable crops which we need badly for improving the standard of nutrition of the masses, and which at the same time can supply the same or a larger amount of labor? But again tenancy stands in the way of progress. Tenants may eat these crops, thus landlords prefer to stick to cotton and the questions remain without answer.

Tenants' Disputes

The amount of rent which the landlords have been accustomed to collect from the tenants is so high, the duration of the lease contract is so short, and all the other conditions and customs of tenancy are so unfavorable to the tenants that their living conditions are miserable. When they harvest their crop, they have to pay first of all the rent and other debts which were incurred to meet the bare necessities of life during

the growing season. Most of them have nothing left. They have lost even their livestock. Thus social unrest is clear among tenants now. The echo of the voice of communism, all around us, was also heard in Egypt, where it reached the ears of all classes, even the peasant tenants who are mostly ignorant and helpless.

Accordingly they are trying to unite in one way or another, trying to form some kind of associations. They started to resist and struggle for lower rents and better living, and there arose some disputes. The purpose of the government was to eliminate such movements. Through the negligence and pressing of the police officers, with very limited social understanding and sympathy for the peasants, the tenants' situation was aggravated. The associations were considered illegal and dissolved.

As a result of these maladjustments and suppressions some disputes happened. In many cases bloody scenes were witnessed and some managers were killed. In Upper Egypt in 1946 tenants rose up against the Kom Ombo Company. Hundreds of tenants appeared in the office of the Company in Kom Ombo in an aggressive protest against the chief manager because of his raising rents. The police tried to eject them by force. This action caused more violence on the part of the desperate tenants. The sad end found some wounded tenants and a ruined office. Another serious case happened in 1947 in "Shoha"

Dakalieh when the tenants attacked the managers of a big estate owned by a foreigner, trying to take possession of the land they till.

At all events, the center of the tenants disputes is the too high rate or the increased rate of rent and the monopoly of landlords. We are fortunate in that the tenancy disputes which have arisen in our country have not assumed the grave proportions which they have reached in many other countries. Nevertheless, they are a source of social unrest, and the government must not neglect to find proper ways of dealing with these difficulties. There is a crying need for several laws and regulations to cope with the situation. Arbitration methods ought to be introduced, and the tenants rights to form unions must be assured.

Government's Intervention. Something must be done to regulate the relations between landlords and tenants in order to give the latter a just share of the land income and to give tenant equality and security in order to stop the diffusion of the dangerous communistic ideas.

This is a simple axiom, but no government until now has had the courage to touch the vested interests of the landlords. It was only once that there was a temporary reduction of rents in 1929 owing to the sharp fall in cotton prices. All rents were reduced by law from 25 to 40 per cent for the years 1929-1932. This was only a relief justifiable as an emergency

measure and it had to be replaced by a permanent method. If intervention by government was possible in years of distress, why should it not be so in regular times?

A progressive government should carry out a program for a rural reform, for tenants' salvation even facing the landlords' opposition, putting the public welfare in the first place.

In fact, the government is very tardy in taking any steps to cure social and economic evils of land tenure, in spite of hundreds of promises and pledges.

The prime minister, in 1944, admitted that the cause of the epidemic which caused the death of 100,000 in Upper Egypt was starvation and poverty due to unequal distribution of land. He stated that thirteen land companies controlled the greater part of the land in a monopolistic way, causing exorbitant rents and low wages. Rents went up to L.E. 105 ($420) per acre in some cases. In spite of this he did nothing to help the poor tenants for whom he was profoundly sorry.

The Fellah Department, being aware of this case, prepared a draft law for the fixation of a maximum rent value by way of local committees to be set up at each province, comprising representatives of tenants, landlords, and the Fellah Department. Apart from protecting tenants against exorbitant rents, the draft law provided that the copy of

the contract shall be kept by the tenant and the landlord alike and also prevented the landlord from ejecting the tenant as long as he was fulfilling his obligations. Unfortunately this draft law was rejected by the Committee of Agriculture in the House of Deputies, on the grounds that it was an attack on the rights of property, free competition, and freedom of contract.

In 1946 and again in 1947 at the Parliament Commencement the government promised that it would not permit land monopoly. A single landlord who owns all the whole land of a village will be forced to sell a quarter of the land to the peasants. Although this was an incomplete and vague remedy, nothing of the like has been done. It was just another promise and a hope to give the desperate tenants some patience.

Agricultural Laborers

The landless farm laborers are the most unhappy class among the farm population. Having no land to till, with no other occupation except cultivation available, they are forced to work for landlords and tenants to subsist. They sell their labor power at a very low price because of the over-abundant supply, which is due to the uneven man-land ratio and the competition of a growing rural population pressing more and more on the economic resources.

They form the majority of the fellaheen, but are socially and economically at the bottom of the scale. Heavy work, poor payment, and oppression are the fate of these underprivileged people.

The traditional attitude of society, considering farm work as an humble work, aggravates the miserable conditions of the workers and so the status of agriculture as an occupation is extremely low. Two factors have contributed to shape this stationary traditional character: (1) psychologically and historically the landlords and the ruling class used to look down upon the peasants, the attitude being that of a lord to a serf or a master to a servant; (2) the nature of cultivation and agricultural implements and tools. The nature of irrigated cultivation makes tilling the land a very hard, tiresome and dirty job. The fellah works all day and part of the night, bareheaded, barefooted, either in the burning sun or under the twinkling stars, fixing mud with his hands while wading into the canal up to his knees. Lacking advanced technology because of extreme poverty, the fellah is doing as heavy work as that of an animal or a physical implement. No wonder graduates of elementary schools refuse to go back to till the land, while landlords cry that education spoils the farm boys.

Generally the hired worker's situation is characterized by poverty, underemployment, low pay, long hours, hazardous

working conditions, exploitation of child labor, and mobility.

There are no accurate statistics about the laborers' conditions. The 1937 Census enumerates the male wage earners engaged in agriculture at 1,457,267. The Agricultural Census of 1939 gives figures for both males and females, as shown in Table XIV.

It is extremely difficult to draw an accurate picture of the farm laborer as he lives and works from day to day because adequate social data are not available and conditions vary considerably in different areas and in different operations and crops.

Farm laborers are commonly employed by the day and their wages vary according to seasons and demand.

Other methods, such as piece work, are followed and yield more income to the laborer than the normal daily wage. Such methods, however, are confined to certain operations such as dredging and rice and sugar cane harvesting.

They can be divided into three categories according to permanency of work.

1. "Tamallia," the permanently employed workers on big estates, are either daily or monthly paid, and are often allotted a piece of land, about one acre, which they cultivate for themselves at a reduced rent to be deducted from their wages. They usually live on the estate in dwellings given by the landlord.

TABLE XIV

DISTRIBUTION OF AGRICULTURAL WORKERS ACCORDING TO AGE[a]

	Less than Fifteen Years of Age	Fifteen years of age and Over	Total
Males	550,644	796,201	1,346,845
Females	166,656	114,128	280,784
Total	717,300	910,329	1,627,629

[a]Source: Agricultural Census of 1939.

2. "Khotaria," temporary day to day workers, are often paid in cash.

3. "Tarahil," or migratory laborers, are a certain class of seasonal workers moving from the congested areas to other places looking for work opportunities. Usually a contractor undertakes the supply of migratory gangs for a period of from one to six months, charging excessive fees, at least 10 per cent of the wages. The living conditions of this group are deplorable and shocking. They usually come from the basin irrigation areas in Upper Egypt, or from the "Menofia" province in the Delta, leaving their homes and families, trying to make some money, carrying a hoe and a sack full of bread and butterless cheese which is sufficient food for the whole journey. When no farm work is available they work on roads, clear canals or drains, or whatever they can find to do. They have no housing or sanitary facilities; for shelter they sometimes get a chance to camp in some unused hut on a farm. In other cases, with the ground for the only floor and the sky for the only ceiling, they sleep in groups on common or waste land, or singly on any unused bit of rough ground, using sacks as the only cover in the cold winter nights. No wonder in many cases they are reduced to beggary.

There exists no legislation to regulate the work or housing of this class or even to protect their health.

4. Gangs. During the harvesting or peak seasons of employment the estates require what may be called "gang labor," using gangs of laborers who are organized by overseers. The gang system is open to obvious abuses, employment of children and exploitation by the gang leader being the worst of these. It is not uncommon to see gangs of small girls from five years upwards picking cotton, followed by the gang leader with a whip.[10] They are often oppressed by their employers and suffer because of the cruelty of their agents, who have them at their mercy.

Wages are normally paid in cash. In certain cases, especially in grain harvesting and threshing, wages are paid in kind according to customary rates.

They get no optional holidays except on rare occasions, i.e., feasts, which do not exceed three or four days per year.

No legislation exists providing for paid holidays for agricultural wage earners.

The Working Day

The working day for the agricultural laborer is long, frequently from sunrise to sunset, with an interval of rest

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[10] Doreen Warriner, Land and Poverty in the Middle East (London and New York: Royal Institute of International Affairs, 1948), p. 37.

at noon. Travelling to and from work often adds still more to a day already too long. There is some variation in the average length of the working day according to the kind of labor (permanent or temporary), the type of work, and seasons. The Fellah Department estimation is from eight to ten hours per day.[11]

The Work Days Per Year

The pressure of population upon the land results in a case of underemployment for agricultural workers. The days of employment vary according to areas, irrigation, and crops. No accurate data exists as to the number of working days per year. However, the information collected by the Fellah Department from various parts of the country points out that the number of working days for agricultural workers varies between:

165-210 days for men
130-160 days for boys
Up to 140 days for women.[12]

Woman and Child Labor

According to the Ministry of Agriculture Census of 1939 the percentage of women hired on farms (see Table XIV) is about 17 per cent of the total number of agricultural

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[11]Fellah Department, op. cit., p. 3.

[12]Ibid., p. 3.

laborers. Women do not work in fields in Upper Egypt, according to tradition. Children under 15 years of age are about 44 per cent of the total number of agricultural laborers. This shows the large amount of child labor. Usually boys and girls undertake agricultural work from the early age of 7 or 8, being unable to attend school. Because of the cotton and the need of cheap labor, the child turns into an asset at a very early age. Although education is compulsory some fathers prefer to pay fines rather than to send their children to school and lose a source of income. There are too many causes which urge the prohibition of child labor besides the child's health, education and recreation. Furthermore, their cheap labor competition lowers more and more the adults' wages. This prohibition also may have a real effect upon birth control by removing the encouraging economic factor.

Wages

No complete statistics as to wages and their trend exist, but some individual trials are quoted in Table XV.

It will be seen that money wages increased by 10 to 20 per cent between 1912 and 1929. Wages expressed in terms of maize, the staple food of the peasants, increased by some 30 per cent. In terms of the urban cost of living index they fell by about 35 per cent. The effect of the slump in 1934

TABLE XV

MOVEMENT OF WAGES, 1912-1934[a]

Year	Wage in m/m (In Cents)		Price of Maize	Cost of Living
1912	35-50	14-20	100	100
1929	40-70	16-28	87	151
1934	20-32	8-13	97	127

[a]Source: Abdel Wahab Pasha's Memorandum, and "Rapport de la Sous Commission sur les Moyens de Reduire les Frais de Production" (Cairo: Government Press, 1936).

was disastrous, money wages fell by some 50 per cent while the price of maize rose by 11 per cent, owing to the tariff. The rise was mitigated by the fall of 24 per cent in the cost of living index.

In a survey made on this subject Lambert concludes:

> By the end of 1942 rural labor as a whole may be said to have earned wages twice as high as those of 1939. During rush periods, and especially where workers dwelling outside the locality had to be employed, 2½-3 times the 1939 wage was paid.
>
> If it be remembered that the price of maize has nearly trebled and that this article constitutes the staple foodstuff of the rural laborer, a mean increase of 100 per cent in wages would seem to be relatively small.
>
> In spite of appearances, the agricultural wage-earner has had his means of living curtailed by the impact of the war, and to a large degree has had to take his share of the general impoverishment caused by the world conflict.[13]

The Fellah Department, collecting data from various parts of the country, estimates the average wage as follows. (See Table XVII). Though it appears from this table that the rise in wages is not lower than the rise of the cost of living according to the official estimates of cost of living, actually wages were definitely below the real cost of commodities.

On the whole it may be stated that the income of agricultural workers is little, owing to the low wages and the

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[13] M. A. Lambert, "Les Salaries dans L'enterprise Agricole Egyptienne," L'Egypte Contemporaire, March, 1943.

TABLE XVI

WAGE MOVEMENTS, 1914-1939[a]

	Unskilled Laborers				Skilled Laborers	
	Delta		Middle and Upper Egypt			
	P.T.	Cents	P.T.	Cents	P.T.	Cents
1914	2.5 to 3	10-12	2.5	10		
1920	7 to 8	28-32	6	24		
1928	4.5	18	4	16	5	20
1933	2.5	10	2	8		
1939	2.5 to 3	10-12	2 to 2½	8-10	4	16

[a]Source: M. A. Lambert, "Les Salaries dans L'enterprise Agricole Egyptienne," L'Egypte Contemporaire, March, 1943.

TABLE XVII

TRENDS IN WAGES AND COST OF LIVING, 1939-1945[a]

	1939		1943		1945	
	m/m	Cents	m/m	Cents	m/m	Cents
Men	30	12	65	26	95	38
Women	--	--	35	14	55	22
Children	--	--	30	12	45	18
Percentage of rise (men)	100		217		316	
Cost of living index	100		242		293	

[a]Source: Fellah Department. Report on questions relating to agriculture, 1946, p. 4.

few working days (usually 15-20 days per month), so that the total earnings of an agricultural laborer per month were only about 60 P.T. ($2.40) before the war. The total earnings per day of a family consisting of five, a working man and wife, a child, and two dependent children amounted to 6 P.T. (24 cents). The whole earnings of the family per month amounted to 120 P.T. ($4.80). It is clear that this amount can never provide a decent living.

Even with the boom resulting from war, when the agricultural worker's monthly earnings became 190 P.T. ($7.60), the total earnings of the family per day became 19.5 P.T. (78 cents). The whole earnings of the family per month became 390 P.T. ($15.60). The laborer's conditions were not ameliorated; on the contrary, cost of living rose faster and the price of maize trebled, so that real wages fell because the purchasing power of this already little income was naturally reduced. In comparison a southern study in 1934 found that the average annual income per share cropper family was $312.00, or $71.00 per person.[14]

The only remedy seems to lie in the provision of other outlets of work and new sources of wealth, as industry, commerce, construction of roads and public buildings, mining, etc., for the absorption of the excess of farm labor.

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[14]Joseph Ackerman and Marshall Harris, Family Farm Policy (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1947), p. 30.

As for legislation, all labor laws so far promulgated exclude agricultural workers from their scope. It is interesting to notice that the members of the parliament (representatives and senators) had always persisted in excluding farm labor and domestic service from the labor laws in order to guarantee their own freedom to exploit their farm and home serfs.

Thus the authorities do not supervise labor conditions in any way, and the agricultural worker enjoys no protective legislation of any kind. Even the skilled laborers, employees, managers, and industrial laborers working on farms as mechanics have no right to any kind of security, old age pension, or accident compensation. The only legislation affecting them was the proclamation fixing P.T. 10 (40 cents) as a minimum wage for agricultural workers in the provinces of Kena and Aswan, consequent upon the spread of malaria in these two districts in 1944, and the other proclamation requiring owners of 200 feddans and more to provide one meal at a reduced price to their workers. However, the administrative machinery to control the execution of these proclamations was not provided; later they were abolished with the success of malaria control.

In 1944 the Fellah Department had prepared a draft law fixing minimum wages for agricultural workers in the different districts by means of local committees representing landowners, the Ministry of Agriculture and Fellah Department acting on

behalf of the workers who have as yet no representative associations. But such a law could not yet find its way.

The disadvantages of the present conditions of agricultural laborers are:

1. Low standard of living, poverty, ignorance, ill-health, and social diseases in a large number of the citizens,
2. Low productivity per capita because of sickness and malnutrition,
3. Low value of human farm labor, making the use of machinery and advanced technology economically irrational,
4. More unplanned migration to the urban centers which depresses the standard of wages and living of the urban laborers,
5. Child labor exploitation and its evils to the health and education of the future generations,
6. Low purchasing power of the consumers resulting in the discouragement of industry.

Land Taxation

The land tax is probably the oldest form of taxation; perhaps it was first known in Egypt.

A tax cadaster (a record of all the facts necessary for tax assessment such as area, type of soil, kind of crop, degree of fertility, etc.) is known to have existed in early

Egypt.[15] It was said that taxes in ancient Egypt were paid in grain, livestock, wine, honey, and linen in the shape of gifts to the Pharoahs, so that their treasures consisted of storehouses and granaries. The Arabs were the first to introduce an organized system of taxation based on the yield of the land, amounting to from 10 to 20 per cent, according to whether land was irrigated or unirrigated.

In 861 A.D. the Arabs established the Rodah Nilometer to measure the level of the river during the flood and to fix the amount of taxes in consequence.

At the present time taxes on land in Egypt constitute the major source of governmental revenue. It is levied on estimated rental fees fixed as cadaster values every ten years, and amounting to 16 per cent of this estimated rent. The weaknesses of this method are:

1. Inaccuracy because in the cadaster land is divided into basins and the rent is estimated on the whole basin without regard to some major differences between farms.
2. Inelasticity of the basis which remains stable whether rents go up or down. Renne says, "The land tax, in the form of a tax or revenue, leaves land yielding no current returns untaxed, or tax returns incompletely in periods

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[15]Karl Brauer, "Land Taxation," Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences, Vol. IX, p. 70. Quoted from Roland R. Renne, Land Economics (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1947), p. 564.

of rapid appreciation of real estate values. Because of this weakness some nations have adopted increment tax."[16]

3. The high percentage assessed (16 per cent).
4. Courtesy toward large landlords represented in low fixed rental fees.
5. Injustice to small proprietors; their low incomes are burdened with the tax since they are paying the same percentage as the large owners, though there is a wide gap between incomes since it is not based on the ability.

Although the government in 1938 proposed a rate of 16 per cent on small properties and 18 per cent on large properties, the House of Representatives rejected this proposal on the grounds of discrimination and inequality between citizens, fixing the rate of 16 per cent for all to secure social justice. However, in 1940 the government succeeded in introducing some important measures of relief for small landowners who pay up to L.E. 10 ($40.00). They were granted certain measures of remission amounting to a 50 per cent reduction.

In 1942 persons assessed up to L. E. 1 ($4.00) were exempted from land tax, while substantial remission (15 to 60 per cent) was extended to those assessed up to L.E. 10 ($40.00). In the budget report of 1942 it was estimated that about 2,426,000 out of a total of 2,497,000 landowners would

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[16]Roland R. Renne, Land Economics (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1947), p. 565.

benefit from this reform, of whom 1,280,000 would enjoy total exemption. The weaknesses of this relief measure are:

1. Red tape and personal interest of the tax collectors deprived many poor farmers from making full use of this exemption.
2. It was not used as a method to encourage farmers' ownership, being enjoyed by both farmers and non farmers alike.
3. It was confined only to small proprietors who represent a small portion of the rural population in comparatively better conditions, while other landless classes of tenants and agricultural laborers are not able to get any relief though they badly need it.

In order to secure equality and public welfare, the system of land taxation in Egypt should be adjusted to work as an effective means of social control as follows:

1. Introducing income tax and progressive land taxes and raising inheritance duties in order to limit the extension of large estates, breaking up the present estates, and discouraging absentee landlordism. In countries like Australia, where agriculture is extensive in character, differential rates have been useful in discouraging the growth of large estates, tenant farming, and absentee landlordism.[17]

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[17] Ibid., p. 567.

2. Differentiation between farmers and non-farmers as a basis of taxation in order to encourage farmers' ownership. In more recent years land taxes have been modified so that they assume more of the characteristics of a personal tax. Some of the methods used to personalize land taxes include differentiation according to the type of crop, location, kind of farming, and size of unit.[18] In Australia and New Zealand, differentiation is based on the size of the estate, character of tenure, and residence of owner.[19]
3. Taxing the profits of the unearned increments, such as irrigation and drainage and roads, at the point of sale.
4. Taxing the profits made by speculation in order to reduce urban capital investment in land.

Living Conditions of the Peasants

The peasant class is the most numerous class in point of population. The most striking feature about the fellaheen is their poverty. It is a poverty which has no parallel in the United States. It can hardly be imagined, nor can the whole story of their difficulties and hardships be told.

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[18] Ibid., p. 566.

[19] Ibid., p. 566.

About standard of living Miss Warriner says, "There is no standard of living in the European sense; mere existence is accepted as the standard."[20]

The Fellah Income

No accurate study has been done to estimate the fellah's income and expenditure; all that we have are some guesses or personal estimation. Sidky Pasha had estimated the average income of an average family of five persons to be L.E. 33 ($132.00) a year, i.e., less than half the income per capita in the United Kingdom. The gross cash income per family was even less, probably not more than L.E. 25 ($100.00) a year. About L.E. 7 ($28.00) of this had to be spent in cash for the land tax, payment of interest on loans and repayment of capital, purchases of seeds and fertilizer, etc., leaving the family with only about L.E. 18 ($72.00) a year as net cash income.

Food

Low earnings mean low food consumption and so a low energy and activity. From Table XVIII we can deduce that the daily food expenses of the said family is 20 cents. No wonder that peasants eat meat, at most, once a week, some only once a year. The diet consists mainly of beans and maize with very little milk or meat. The agricultural worker's meal usually

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[20]Warriner, op. cit., p. 1.

TABLE XVIII

ANNUAL COST OF A FAMILY OF FIVE IN LOWER EGYPT[a]

	L.E.	$
Food	17.90	71.60
Soap, petroleum, utensils	1.96	7.84
Tobacco	3.60	14.40
Clothing	2.87	11.48
Total	26.33	105.32

[a]Source: W. Cleland, The Population Problem in Egypt (Lancaster, Pennsylvania, 1936), p. 74.

consists of corn bread, onions, butterless cheese, and salt. This explains the high incidence of pellagra and effects of other diseases because of malnutrition. "For every recorded case of a specific disease, there are hundreds of cases of absence of full health due, in part at least, to malnutrition."[21] All the victims of the malaria epidemic were peasants who died because of starvation.

Clothing

Although Egypt's hot weather helps to reduce the requirements of clothing, peasants can not even satisfy this slight need. They can hardly afford a single garment just to keep them unbare. It is clear from Table XVIII that $11.00 can not provide clothing for five persons. Being ashamed of their ragged garments, many school boys stop going to school because their fathers are unable to purchase a new garment.

Housing

Peasants often live in compact villages raised a few feet above the general level of the fields to avoid flooding during the Nile overflows in olden days. The streets are narrow with irregular passageways. They are usually either dusty or muddy because peasants get rid of their waste by

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[21] Ali Hassan, The Importance of Improvement of Standards of Nutrition in the Middle East, in Proceedings of the Conference on Middle East Agricultural Development (Cairo, 1944), pp. 191-5.

pouring it into the streets, which are already occupied with manure heaps. The fellah's dwelling is generally built of mud. Roofs are of thatch, mostly of cotton or corn stalks. The dwelling consists usually of one room with no windows or with one hole almost touching the roof, as an alternative, with the ground for the only floor and the top of the furnace as the only bed and seat. This is where the family sleeps, accompanied by chickens, rabbits and goats, and where corn and wheat are stored. Around the inner room there is a small enclosed yard with an outside door; this is where the family keeps a buffalo and a donkey, where lies a manure heap and some dung cakes scattered to be dried. On the roof of the hut there is a load of cotton stalks exposed to the sun to be dried in order to be used as the fellah's only fuel. Unfortunately this custom helps the spread of fires in the villages.

There are some other better types of houses built of mud or burnt bricks; these houses are larger, having windows with wooden shutters, water pumps, and a back yard for the stock. But the bottom man can not afford them. The majority still live in houses of the first category.

Some landlords, all too few, provide their peasants with relatively decent houses and clean drinking water. The government is preparing an act to compel landlords to build decent houses for their peasants and provide them with clean water and sanitary conditions. One of the important drawbacks to improving present villages and extending peasants' homes is

the high price of land. Land is too precious to be wasted for village reconstruction or house improvements.

Health

Due to the peculiar conditions of Egypt as to climate, soil and irrigation, and lack of clean water, the fellah is a victim of some parasitic diseases, namely: Belharzia and Ankylostoma, caused by infections resulting from water. These deadliest rural diseases have spread with the development of perennial irrigation, because they are spread by minute snails which live in the water of the canals and drains in which the fellaheen work and wash and even drink. In the areas under perennial irrigation, they affect 45 to 75 per cent of the people, while in areas of basin irrigation in Upper Egypt they affect only up to 5 per cent. Not only the fellah but also his cattle are affected by some of these parasitic irrigation diseases. Thus the tragedy of the disease is that it goes parallel to the intensification of cultivation, which we need badly to solve the problems of population pressure upon land and so to increase production and food. These parasitic infections are largely responsible for poor health, low productivity, and early deaths.

Moreover, these endemic diseases have some serious depressing and debilitating psychological effects, producing

the passive and docile mentality which explains the fellah's acceptance of the bad conditions in which he lives.

Although the government is carrying out some large schemes for supplying villages with drinking water, health centers, and hospitals, they are neither comprehensive nor sufficient. Health services and administrative hygiene in the rural sections are still far behind the times.

Added to these items are: (1) illiteracy and ignorance of the adults and poor education for the children; (2) the low social status of the peasants, expressed every day in the continuous use of the word "fellah" as an abusing or humiliating expression for any rough and rude person or any impertinent or impudent behavior, even anything wrong or short in beauty and taste; (3) the feeling that the fellaheen are a lower order, a species apart whose function is to work for and obey their betters; (4) the feeling that they are happy with their limited means; they are not asking for any betterment and they do not deserve it.

No more can be added to describe the wretchedness of the peasants except a comparison between the annual incomes of four classes of Egyptians, an agricultural laborer L.E. 10 ($40.00) and an industrial worker L.E. 30 ($120.00) on one side, and a secretary of department L.E. 2,500 ($10,000) and a bank chairman L.E. 3,000 ($12,000) on the other side. This clarifies the most eloquent inequality of earned incomes, an

extremely enormous inequality, of which there is no similarity in the United States. This depresses more and more the economic and social standard of the fellaheen.

Effects of the Land Tenure System

The land tenure system has unfortunate effects upon the prosperity of the country as a whole, upon agriculture, upon the different classes of the farm population, and upon the general social structure.

Effects Upon the Prosperity of the Country As a Whole

1. Undesirable land tenure system is a handicap to any progressive industry because of two factors:
   (1) the temptation of the land discourages people from investing their capital in industry;
   (2) tenure maintains the low purchasing power of the vast majority of the consumers.
2. High land prices are a drawback to urbanization and village reconstruction.
3. Diseases due to poverty and dirtiness are not confined to the farmers and the poor. Being infectious, they threaten the whole country, particularly the landlords.
4. The continuous drift of the peasants to the urban centers endangers the economic and health conditions of both the townspeople and the refugees.

5. It affects tourism, which could be a source of wealth to Egypt, in three ways:
   (1) poverty and diseases discourage tourists;
   (2) Egypt is a very pretty country which could be a nice place for tourists, but the poor and wretched peasants in the dirty and unhealthy villages are an obstacle;
   (3) ignorance and poverty prevent the people from developing the idea.
6. As long as this system of land tenure exists we will never have sound political institutions, a real democratic government by the people, of the people and for the people. Thus we will never be able to attain liberty, freedom, and equality for the massess of our countrymen.
7. As long as the peasant is chained by the land tenure bars he will never be able to become a good citizen. There will be no real prosperity or civilization, and so the country will continue to be a backward country.
8. The country is the nursery of the nation; a poor nursery like ours can neither raise good citizens nor healthy soldiers.

Effects Upon Agriculture

1. The land tenure system is the most important cause of cooperation failure in Egypt, particularly because of severe classism, local factions, and landlords' greedy selfishness and ignorance. Moreover, there are millions

of landless tenants and laborers who are deprived the right to make advantage of cooperation.

2. Progressive methods of agriculture and improved agricultural implements and machines are slow of introduction.
3. Because it enforces the dependence of several classes on the same limited amount of land, the tenancy system will in the long run impair the soil resources and exhaust the land.
4. The absence of the family farms reduces the amount of livestock and poultry.
5. Poverty, ignorance, and dirtiness are responsible for the failure of home and vocational industries.
6. Because of tenancy peasants are chained to cotton although they need food crops.
7. The peasants' consumption per capita of food and vegetable crops is low in a way that affects the extension of its cultivation and the agricultural production as a whole.
8. Tenancy delays or hinders many substantial farm improvements.

Effects on the Peasants

1. Rents are so high and wages so low that the standard of living of the peasants is necessarily at a very low level.
2. With such a low income, they are unable to obtain the necessities of life. Thus their food is poor, clothing

is short, and homes are commonly crowded, uncomfortable and unsanitary.

3. Insecurity and unhappiness are a common fate of all peasants.
4. Too busy and toilsome searching for their bread and salt, they have no incentive to go to school or to improve their conditions.
5. Child labor is detrimental to the children's health, in addition to depriving them of education.
6. Peasants have no incentive either to improve their farms and methods of cultivation or to accept any vocational guidance.
7. Living in their own world, they do not care to know what is going on in the nation. They are a class apart, isolated from the world outside their village.
8. Poverty, ignorance, and sickness result in a case of unconsciousness and dullness which is misunderstood as content and happiness.
9. The fellah's simplicity and ignorance make him the victim of the different types of salesmen, middlemen, swindlers, and charlatans.
10. Productivity of agricultural labor is low.

Effects on General Social Conditions

1. Dividing the country into two classes, fellaheen and non-fellaheen, intensifies disunity among people and stands against integrity and the development of a wholesome society.
2. The poverty of the masses, together with the indifference of the larger landowners, worked against the development of good social institutions.
3. There is an absence of the middle class, which is the axis of the social structure of the country.
4. Most of the rural crimes and the rural factions have their origin in the land tenure system.
5. Maladjustments of land tenure spread spirit of unrest and trouble not only among peasants, but also among laborers and different classes of the urban proletariat.

CHAPTER IV

REMEDIES

There are two sets of problems which contributed to the formation of the present situation of land tenure in Egypt. The first are problems within the land tenure system, having their origin in the overpopulation of the country, the land-man ratio, and the limited opportunities of work in other fields of the economy. Although this study is devoted to the problems within the system we must give a short summary of the remedies suggested to the outside problems because of their major importance and influence upon the reform.

The major outside problem is an increasing population with static economic resources, and inadequate cultivated land for the rural population. The remedy includes two solutions:

1. Increasing the supply of land by means of the following methods.
   (1) Birth control, which could be accompanied by education, propaganda, and easy and cheap medical guidance. It is the most important remedy we need, because if this increase continues it will be impossible to adjust our limited resources to such a great population.
   (2) Increasing the cultivated land by extending the irrigation projects to provide the necessary volume

of water to carry out:

(a) reclamation of two million acres of lakes and marshes in the Delta;

(b) conversion of one million acres of basin irrigated lands in Upper Egypt to perennial irrigation;

(c) reclamation of what may be reclaimed of the desert lands.

(3) Increasing the agricultural production by using new methods of cultivation and advanced technology to improve food production.

(4) Diversification of agriculture in order to find new products for new foreign markets.

(5) Migration: solving the problems of migration politically and economically, in addition to supplying the required facilities of transportation, housing, and public services, will undoubtedly encourage peasants to move to new areas to gain new life and a new home:

(a) internal migration to obtain population readjustment within the country;

(b) external migration to the Sudan.

2. Creating new sources of wealth to absorb the excess of labor which presses hard on land and decreases the standard of living.

(1) Industrialization is the paramount solution to our problems. There are some promising factors for a future flourishing industry in Egypt. These lie in the postwar sufficiency of capital, the new electrical power of Aswan Dam, and the change in the landmindedness of the investors. The limiting factor, however, is the internal market. The low purchasing power of the people, particularly the peasants, has its origin in the land tenure system. Thus an improved land tenure system is required as a basis to a progressive industry.

(2) Trade. More attention should be paid to this field in order to extend the domestic and foreign markets. Exchange with the Sudan, the Arab countries, African countries, and Central Europe should be encouraged.

(3) Mineral resources. This field is neglected although it can be a rich source of wealth. If the country provides for complete exploitation of mineral resources, they can give a revenue as large as does agriculture. For example, Egypt has rich resources of phosphates but does not have a phosphate fertilizer industry because it is not needed for the land. However, phosphates are badly needed in Europe and were shipped from the United States with no regard to the distance.

(4) Tourism. Egypt has historical aspects which attract tourists from all over the world. Being neglected by the government, they became monopolized by some foreign companies who catered to a few rich tourists. Everything must be done to turn tourism into a national concern for the national interest. Decoration and beautification of the areas of the old monuments, construction of roads, the building of hotels and guest houses will attract millions of ordinary people in the different countries of the world. Special attention must be paid to making our country attractive to tourists and to create a new source of income to farmers.

(5) Reconstruction and rehabilitation programs should provide work for surplus labor in order to relieve agriculture and to improve the bad conditions of the country. Roads, new villages, new homes for the farmers, canals, and drains, etc., must be built.

In addition to these improvements, the land tenure system should be developed.

A Proposed Land Tenure Program For Egypt

In Egypt, where farming is the occupation of the vast majority of the people, the relation between the people and

the land they occupy and exploit is a matter of the greatest interest and moment because to them land is the means of life in a complete sense. It represents their past, present, and future, their own future and the future of the generations to come.

Thus the end of any improvement must be the well being of the fellah himself and must give him equality and decent income to live as a human being and to enable him to improve his conditions and conserve the land.

The objectives of the proposed program should be:

1. An equitable distribution of farm income among all tenure groups in order to avoid human and physical exploitation of resources;
2. Wide distribution of government control over land resources to secure conservation and development of agricultural land and efficient production;
3. Responsible freedom of personal action without allowing individuals to hurt their fellow men or their society;
4. Equality and dignity for all individuals in all tenure groups. There must be no persecution or oppression to the fellaheen. They must be equal before the law, and have equal economic, social and political opportunities;
5. Reasonable security for the individual in his possession of rights in land whether laborer, share cropper, tenant, owner, or landlord;
6. Villages and housing reconstruction, sanitary and health services, improvement of the rural social institutions,

including education, religion, services, recreation, and local government, to attain a wholesome and stable community.

The following three basic methods were used for land tenure reform.

1. The planned or regulated tenancy method, basically depending upon the regulation of landlord and tenant relations which, by means of legislation, had been applied successfully in England. It provided for the freedom and security of tenure, compensation for disturbance and improvement and fair rental rates, resulting in the betterment of the tenant's position and the increase of the proportion of the land operated by the owner.
2. Changing tenants into owners. This method was applied successfully in Ireland, Denmark, and many other countries and represents the American way of life.
3. A combination of the two methods which were followed in Germany, France, Italy, Netherlands and many other countries.

When we suggest a program for Egypt we must bear in mind all the different economical, political, historical, social, and psychological considerations if we are to introduce a sound practical suggestion to be successfully applied. The better method which can be eligible to our country is regulated tenancy, for several reasons.

1. Historically, the peasants had never owned the land, they had been always tenants, and most of the peasants are at the present time tenants;
2. It does not require large funds at the start, while the second method requires large funds to purchase land;
3. It will not face as much resistance from the landlords as the second;
4. The public opinion is not well adapted to accept the idea of peasant proprietorship;
5. The peasants themselves are not well equipped for ownership;
6. It avoids the problems of peasant ownership, as parcellation, subdivision, mortgage, and at last moving back to the landlord's hands;
7. A larger number will benefit with tangible results in a short time;
8. The government control of the economic phases of agriculture such as production, prices, irrigation, drainage, and seed distribution makes it easy to control tenancy;
9. It achieves the same results as the second plan may after a period of time;
10. This method will not change the methods or techniques of farming and production;
11. It will decrease the land values.

This regulated tenancy, in our opinion, is more suitable than the break-up of large estates into small family farms which

Miss Warriner suggested.

> Land reform, on the East European model, dividing all estates above certain minimum sizes, between the landless laborers and small proprietors, would be the quickest and easiest way of alleviating poverty. There is nothing intrinsically unpracticable in such a change and no reason to believe that it would be attended by a decline in production. Egypt is already one huge "managerial" estate, the irrigation service controls water supply and with it the crop areas. The government has a much greater degree of control of agriculture, on a planned basis, than the most socialist government in the world. It would be easily possible to redistribute the ownership of land--in effect the income from the land--leaving methods of production unaffected....From the standpoint of management, the reform of landownership would be easier to carry out in Egypt than in any other country.[1]

As for the obstacles, Miss Warriner states:

> But nowhere are the political obstacles greater. The Egyptian "pashas" (a title of honor, as lord, in England) are cotton lords, big businessmen, controlling large fortunes, who hold the entire country in their grip and are utterly opposed to any measure which would raise the level of the cultivators. Although the government is in complete control of production, it will never use its powers to modify the powers of the landlords. The government represents this small section of the population, and it is in their interest that cropping plans are laid down.[2]

Miss Warriner concludes:

> With the present distribution of wealth and power, there is likely to be no measure of land reform, even of a limited kind. Land reform must therefore wait upon political change, and may one day become the main motive for revolution.[3]

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[1]Doreen Warriner, Land and Poverty in the Middle East (London & New York: Royal Institute of International Affairs, 1948), p. 48.

[2]Ibid., p. 48.

[3]Ibid., p. 48.

Because of the political, economical, and psychological obstacles, we preferred the path of planned tenancy. Besides, in our history we have seen failing experiments of allotting land to peasants. In 1840 Mohamed Ali allotted plots of three to five acres to peasants. All these small properties shifted back to the large landlords and again we are in the present confused situation.

Being more optimistic, I hope that our progressive government will carry out the proposed program for the welfare of the peasants in order to safeguard our nation through a sound social evolution.

The line of action suggested for regulating tenancy includes:

1. Legislation for regulating the landlord-tenant and fixing the maximum rent;
2. Tenant operated family farm schemes;
3. General provisions.

Regulating the Landlord-Tenant Relations

A law should be enacted in order to accomplish these goals:

1. Security of tenure;
2. Compensation for unreasonable disturbance;
3. Compensation for unexhausted improvements;
4. Fair rents;
5. Freedom of cropping;
6. Abolishing the old debts of tenancy.

Principle Provisions of the Legislation

1. Written contracts are required, based on a definite contract prepared by the government, of three copies, in order to establish fair relations between landlords and tenants. A copy should be kept by the tenant and one by the landlord. The third copy should be approved by the tax collector and kept in his files.
2. Duration of the leases must be made for five years at least, with automatic continuation requiring a written notice of termination at least six months before the end of the lease.
3. The landlord's right to terminate the lease without reasonable causes is to be restricted, and the tenant should be given compensation for unreasonable disturbance, except in cases of mismanagement, arrears in rent, and violations of the contract.
4. The tenant must be assured of compensation for unexhausted improvements which were made under agreement with and notice to the landlord.
5. The tenant should be given freedom of choosing crops, crop rotations, and managing the farm.
6. Considering the rent which was estimated by the cadaster of 1947 for the land tax assessments as the basis of fixing rents, the government fixes a yearly percentage to be added or subtracted from this rent according to the general conditions of prices and production to give the

maximum rent which the tenant has to pay (assuming that the fixed rent is ten dollars and the percentage is 10 per cent, the maximum rent should be ten plus one which equals eleven dollars). This yearly percentage should be estimated by the Ministry of Agriculture, and the public informed in May every year (rents are paid at the end of the cropping year in September and October).

7. In all cases the tenant should not pay more than the fixed rate whatever may be the kind of payment, either in share or in kind.
8. Landlords are authorized to charge only the actual prices for seeds, fertilizers, etc., which they purchase for their tenants and which constitute the actual expenses of the services which they offer.
9. The interest rate which landlords charge for tenants' loans must not exceed 5 per cent.
10. In cases of crop failure caused by natural hazards without the tenant's negligence, the local boards estimate the rent with regard to the extent of loss and the actual crop.
11. The landlord's right of distress for arrears of rent is restricted to arrears of last year.
12. Old debts accumulated because of rent arrears are void.
13. Public auction and subletting are prohibited.
14. For peasants, tenancy is not only an occupation; it is

also a living. Thus they should be protected by the government's prohibiting non-farmers from renting farms either to manage them for their own or to sublet them.

15. The lease does not automatically expire with the death of lessor or lessee. The heirs of the tenant have the right to continue if they are able to carry out the obligations. The final decision is left to the local boards.

16. The tenants should be given legal freedom to form unions and similar organizations in order to work together in a cooperative way to organize their efforts toward collective bargaining.

17. All the complaints of the fixed rates either by landlords or tenants and the problems of which may arise because of this law should be examined and settled by local boards, which are public boards appointed by the government, consisting of tenants, landlords, and experts, each covering a certain region.

18. Considering tenancy problems and leases from the legal point of view is given to special regional courts consisting of the county judge as chief and two experts as members.

19. The government appoints a central board to be the ultimate authority for control of tenancy matters, consisting of the best authorities on the subject of land tenure and

representatives of the landlords and tenants. It would confine itself to the study of the problems and the formulation and direction of general policy. It would make rules, supervise the local boards, provide experts, and technical guidance. The policy should not be static; it is to be always revised with regard to the effect and changes of economic and social conditions.

Rents being fixed below the level which the forces of the market tend to bring about, landlords will be unwilling to enter into new leases because the rent is not high enough to cover their opportunity cost. They can either manage the farm themselves, or they can employ managers. The result will be an increase in owner operated and manager operated farms. In such a case the tenants become farm laborers; therefore it becomes necessary to enact provisions for compulsory leases forcing landlords to rent certain portions of their lands to the small tenants.

Tenant Operated Family Farm Schemes

The object is the maintenance of a class of family farmers free from burdensome restrictions, oppression, and exploitation and the creation of a class of independent progressive tenants with family size farms to provide a reasonable return for the peasant and his family under the supervision of the state and the guidance of agricultural experts. Production will lead to a better balanced agriculture

with more attention to nourishing food crops for the farmer's own use and less to purely commercial products. More attention is to be paid to the peasants' standard of living, housing, health, education, sanitation, cooperation, and different human needs.

The system of tenure which should be used is a permanent lease or a usufructuary occupation without actual ownership of the land which is owned by the state. This system will give the tenant security of tenure, freedom of utilization of land, and the opportunity of reaping the whole fruits of his labor and investment, without providing him with the means of speculation in land values or gambling on future farm profits. It also safeguards against mortgaging, subdivision, and other weaknesses of peasant proprietorship. Furthermore, it promises a stable and contented peasant class and provides for the conservation of land for welfare of the tenant heirs.

There are three factors in favor of this system.

1. The government lands are usually sold to the landlords who in their turn rent it to the peasants. In the suggested system the government will avoid the middlemen and assume the powers and functions of a human landlord.
2. It is easier for peasants to start as tenants than owners because of the small capital required.
3. We have already some similar old methods of controlling land, namely, the "Hikr," which is the usufructuary

occupation, and the "Wakf," which is the immobile ownership.

Sources of sufficient land for the scheme:

	Cultivated Lands (Feddans)
The government cultivated land which amounts to	158,000
The lands owned by foreigners which amount to . . . . . (who are to be paid the necessary compensation by the government)	405,000
The Wakf lands whether supervised by the Ministry of Wakf or other institutions .	664,000
The cultivated lands owned by the land companies about . . . . . (which should be taken by the government with compensation of non-cultivated lands for reclamation)	200,000
Total	1,427,000
There are also lands for reclamation, about can be reclaimed during about twenty years if the necessary irrigation projects are constructed and the land reclamation is carried out actively.	1,800,000
Total	3,227,000

The application should include the following items:

1. The land is to be allotted into family size farms of five acres and assigned to a family;
2. Each 1,000 acres form a unit under the supervision of an agricultural expert;
3. Every area is provided with adequate dwellings for the new settlers, free from the defects of the present ones;
4. The government provides the dwellings, the expert guidance, and the necessary loans for purchasing seeds, fertilizer,

stock, and implements;

5. The tenants are members of a cooperative society which purchases what they need;
6. The tenants elect a board which draws the general plan of cultivation and rotation and the different agricultural and marketing operations;
7. The settlement should be large enough to provide adequate foundations for community life grouped around a community center in which forms of cooperative enterprise, social and public services, and educational activities should be encouraged;
8. The farms should be leased to the farmers for a reasonable rent which varies from year to year according to the farm products and prices, giving the farmer a reasonable income after paying adequate wages to any employed labor, whether of his family or other persons;
9. If the farmer produced more by better methods or by harder work, the whole of the additional net income would go to him, thus providing an incentive to effort;
10. Farmers are chosen from the landless people according to certain measures of ability, experience, character, personality, and size of family;
11. Nobody is allowed to hold more than one parcel of land;
12. A farmer may transfer a lease to a member of his family with the consent of the government;

13. The parcels of land are strictly indivisible;
14. The holder may be ejected for certain reasons, including mismanagement, non-cultivation of the holding, non-residence, rebellion, theft, etc., but should be paid compensation for improvements;
15. In case of the holder's death, one of the heirs should be appointed to be responsible for the parcel's management.

The advantages of this scheme may be summarized as follows:

1. The conversion of about 6,000 families, or about 3,000,000 peasants into settled, secured tenants--a process which will contribute to raise their standard of living;
2. The creation of new villages with public utilities and sanitation;
3. As a result of the transfer of this number out of the labor market, rents will decrease, wages increase, and the whole rural population will profit;
4. The combating of unemployment by developing opportunities for new work;
5. The organization of a system for populating the newly developed prairie areas;
6. The creation of a settled and secured class of peasants to maintain the stability and equilibrium in the rural community.

General Provisions for Tenants

1. Landlords are responsible for maintaining adequate housing, sanitary and public services for their tenants;
2. The government should provide tenants and their families with technical guidance and vocational training to be good farmers;
3. The tenants form cooperative societies to provide them with short term loans for purchasing livestock, seed, implements, etc., and to help them in marketing their products;
4. Public education and adult education should be extended;
5. The outlook of prices and production will be disseminated to enlighten tenants;
6. The tenants should be encouraged by the Cooperative Department to form cooperatives for the purpose of leasing and operating estates such as those supervised by the Farmers' Home Administration in the United States, and also to obtain their working capital from the Agricultural Credit Bank.

Agricultural Labor

It has been pointed out that the major problem of Egypt is the excessive supply of labor engaged in and dependent upon farming. Thus the primary adjustment is to relieve agriculture by transferring this excess to other fields of endeavor.

Because of this excessive supply, the labor conditions in Egypt are characterized by poverty, wretchedness, under-employment, low wages, long hours, hazardous working conditions, exploitation of child labor, mobility, poor education, poor health and low social status.

Thus the primary adjustment is to relieve agriculture by transferring this excess to other fields of endeavor where they can find better job opportunities. The second is to facilitate their progress up the agricultural ladder, which has been discussed formerly in the section devoted to the tenant operated farms scheme. The third is to improve their conditions and the labor system, which to a great extent should depend on legislation until the laborers become able to help themselves by uniting in organizations for improving their conditions, following the industrial laborers' path.

In such conditions as ours it is rather foolish to dream of social security, unemployment compensation, old age and survivors' benefits, and health and disability insurance for our farm laborers, but we should ask for fair wages and reasonable hours. Exploitation of women and children, made possible because of their poverty, should be prevented, offering laborers the rights of forming effective organizations, decency for migratory workers, and better living conditions.

There is a crying need for such improvements, and it is also a completion of the plan of regulating tenancy, because

fixing rents may result in an increase of the owner and manager farms. The ejected tenants are obliged to work as farm laborers and lose the merits of the regulation. Thus it is evident that rents and wages are twins. When regulating tenancy we need to control labor, and fix wages at the same time in a reversed proportion.

Suggested Adjustments.

1. To help them get out of agriculture by
   (1) development of rural industries;
   (2) encouraging location of industrial plants in the congested areas;
   (3) reconstruction and public projects;
   (4) increasing programs for job guidance and training for rural people for non-agricultural employment.
2. To help them climb the agricultural ladder by
   (1) the establishment of a comprehensive program for training and educating farm laborers;
   (2) supervised governmental tenant operated farms;
   (3) reclamation of new lands.
3. To improve the labor conditions by
   (1) fixing a minimum wage for the farm laborer which provides him with the necessities of life. Local committees of members representing landowners and official experts representing the laborers who have

as yet no representative associations should fix the rates in the different districts.

(2) encouraging landowners to use machines and implements which make the agricultural labor more easy and humane;

(3) prohibition of the employment of children as wage laborers in order to protect their health and to regulate their school attendance with the extension of the government's contribution to their feeding and clothing;

(4) replacing the migratory labor contractors by governmental agencies in order to protect the laborers and assure adequate housing or camps, sanitation and health services, and decent wages;

(5) legalizing agricultural labor unions and collective bargaining to secure full protection of civil liberties;

(6) old age pensions and workmen's compensation laws for permanent laborers, and farm employees;

(7) improving housing and the extension of public health services;

(8) educating the peasants in order to make good citizens of them.

Land Distribution Adjustment

It has been pointed out that land ownership in Egypt is characterized by (1) uneven distribution, resulting in a

concentration in the hands of the fortunate few landlords and the deprivation of the rest of the population; (2) excessive parcellation; (3) non-farmer ownership; (4) absentee ownership; (5) high prices.

It seems that the remedy of land ownership problems lies in the modification of our taxation system, using revenues for purchasing some of the large estates to be added to the land devoted to the tenant family operated farms, until the whole land becomes family operated farms. Acreage limitation provisions have been suggested, but it is believed that taxation is more practical and more effective

Suggested Improvements.

1. Introduction of the income tax which is considered as the most just tax and the most effective social control which narrows the gap between the rich and the poor.
2. Increasing the inheritance tax rates on large estates because inheritance is an unearned wealth.
3. Use of graduated land taxation in a progressive degree in order to make owning large estates non profitable.
4. Exemption of land taxation for small owners, confined to family farms which do not exceed five acres, being farmed by the peasant and his family without hired labor (like the homestead exemption in the United States), in order to encourage peasant ownership.

5. Imposing a progressive tax on the land value increments at the point of sale to decrease speculation.
6. Education through school, press, radio and other channels to attract the attention of the public to the serious effects of the present conditions and the use and results of the suggested improvements.
7. Protecting farm people from the excessive land values resulting from speculation and unearned increment.
8. Protecting farm people from the competition of foreigners and corporations by preventing their entrance into farming and discouraging their continuance in it.

These restrictions will in the short run result in discouraging the city investors from investing their capital in land; there will follow a decline of land prices and rents.

In the long run these restrictions will discourage landlords from keeping large estates and will make them willing to sell the land. The government will then be able to purchase it and put it to the tenant scheme.

This will also be a blessing to the country in a way. It will encourage capitalists, investors and landlords to invest their money in industry, commerce and other endeavors. Thus new sources of wealth and so new job opportunities for labor surplus will be created.

General Improvements

1. Disseminating information to enlighten the public about the problems of land tenure, their detrimental effects on the whole of society, how these can be improved, and the useful results of their improvements. Land tenure problems have a hidden nature in Egypt; most of the people accept the situation, even the highly educated. Only a few have the social understanding to comprehend the problem as a whole, and fewer are interested in social problems or social reforms. It is also regrettable that many of the educated professionals are joining the landlords' march, blinded by the personal incentive.
2. Extending different methods of education and communication to break up the physical and mental isolation of the peasants.
3. Governmental aid to attain better diets by grain, food, and milk grants to peasants. In addition the estates owners should be forced by law to provide meals for their laborers at reduced prices. School lunch programs should be made comprehensive.
4. Governmental aid to supply the peasants with cheap clothes and boots.
5. Improving villages; grants to improve housing.
6. Reducing taxes and dues on necessities while increasing them on luxuries to attain social justice between classes

according to ability and need. Peasants are burdened by high tariffs on foodstuffs and commonly used textiles, while luxury tariffs are low.

7. The extension of the social, agricultural and health services to cover the whole country and to provide free guidance and free medical treatment for peasants.
8. Education of urban people to enable them to understand the interdependence of rural and urban people, of the farm and the city, and of the farm and the factory.
9. More attention should be paid to bring the activities of the Ministry of Agriculture to the small peasants.
10. Establishing village councils to give the peasants a democratic self-government. Enabling them to elect their mayor is the first step toward practical democracy and learning how to choose the right representative.

Conclusion

The object of this study has been to explain the faults of our land tenure system and how they affect the farm population and the whole nation. When we suggest a program for its improvement, our goal is social justice. The maintenance of a healthy peasantry which will help to make a real progressive agriculture and industry, a wholesome, well integrated community, democratic government, and a healthy and progressive nation.

The question is not land tenure from the purely agricultural and economic viewpoint per se. It is a question of life to millions of our countrymen and of generations to come.

There should be no consideration of the personal interests or sacrifices of the landlords. Social values and the welfare of the whole nation must be put above all other considerations.

It is well in conclusion to quote Theodore Roosevelt's fine words: "The great rural interests are human interests, and good crops are of little value to the farmer unless they open the door to a kind of life on the farm."

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