

ISRAEL

Population

THE POPULATION of the State of Israel at the end of June 1954 was 1,687,886. Of these, 188,936 (about 11 per cent) were non-Jews. The table below shows the growth of the population of Israel since May 1948.

TABLE 1
JEWISH POPULATION OF ISRAEL, MAY 1948-JULY 1954

<i>Year</i>	<i>Jews</i>	<i>Non-Jews</i>	<i>Total</i>
1948	758,000		
1949	1,013,000	160,000	1,173,000
1950	1,203,000	167,000	1,370,000
1951	1,404,000	173,000	1,577,000
1952	1,450,000	179,000	1,629,000
1953	1,483,505	185,892	1,669,397
1954 (July)	1,498,950	188,936	1,687,886

The total yearly population increase fell from 17 per cent in 1950 to 15 per cent in 1951, 3.3 per cent in 1952, and 2.3 per cent in 1953, due to a decrease in the number of immigrants. Since the first half of 1952 the natural increase had exceeded the net migration. During the first half of 1953 the number of emigrants exceeded the number of immigrants, but during the latter half of the year, immigration was again somewhat greater than emigration. During 1953 there were 11,800 immigrants and 8,650 emigrants in all. During the first six months of 1954, 4,128 new immigrants came to Israel.

TABLE 2
GROWTH OF JEWISH POPULATION IN ISRAEL
(in thousands)

<i>Year</i>	1949	1950	1951	1952	1953	1954 (Jan.-March)
Net migration	235	160	167	10	2	4
Natural increase	20	29	35	35	35	9.5
TOTAL INCREASE	255	189	202	45	37	10.5

VITAL STATISTICS

The net birth rate (the number of live births per 1,000 residents) was 30.8 during the first months of 1954, as compared with 32 in 1953 and 33 in 1952. The Jewish birth rate was 28.4 early in 1954, as against 30 in 1953, 31.5 in 1952, and 29.9 in 1949.

The Jewish death rate was 7.0 per thousand during the first three months of 1954, as against 6.3 in 1953 and 6.8 in 1952.

The Jewish infant mortality rate fell to 35 during the first three months of 1954, from 35.8 in 1953, 38.7 in 1952, and 46.2 in 1950.

The registered Jewish marriage rate fell to 9 per thousand during the first three months of 1954, as against 9.4 in 1953, 11.3 in 1952, and 14.5 in 1950. The registered non-Jewish marriage rate was 8 per thousand in 1954, 7.6 in 1953, and 8.8 in 1952. The registered Jewish divorce rate was 1.56 in 1953, 1.6 in 1952, and 1.8 in 1951. The birth rate of the non-Jewish population was 48.41 in 1953 (as compared with 32.11 among the Jews), and 45.5 in 1952—among the highest in the world.

Fifty-six per cent of the Jewish population was between nineteen and sixty-four years of age on December 31, 1953, 39 per cent was below nineteen, and less than 5 per cent was older than 64.

There were 759,000 Jewish males and 733,000 Jewish females in May 1954.

GEOGRAPHIC DISTRIBUTION

In 1948 only 16 per cent of Israel's Jewish population lived in rural areas, while 84 per cent lived in the cities. By 1952 the respective percentages were 23 and 77, and by the end of 1953 the percentage of Jews living in rural settlements had reached 31 (26.5, excluding *maabarot*, transition camps).

A comparison with past years showed that the three big cities (Tel Aviv, Haifa, Jerusalem) accounted for 60 per cent of the population in 1948 but only 43 per cent in 1953, while the smaller cities and urban villages rose from 24 per cent in 1948 to 33 per cent in 1953. Collectives (*kibbutzim* and *kvut-zot*) decreased from 8 per cent in 1948 to 4.8 per cent in 1952, and rose again to 5 per cent in 1953, while *moshave ovdim* (smallholders settlements) constituted the largest single group among the rural settlements, with 79,000 inhabitants (5.3 per cent).

IMMIGRATION AND ABSORPTION

Jewish immigration to Israel from July 1, 1953 to June 30, 1954, totalled 9,192 as compared with 14,822 during the previous year. (January 1954 was the month with the fewest immigrants, 328, since the founding of the state.) From May 15, 1948, to May 15, 1954, 720,000 Jews entered Israel.

The reasons for the decline of immigration have been given in the AMERICAN JEWISH YEAR BOOK, 1953 [Vol. 54], p. 427, and 1954 [Vol. 55], p. 357. The general economic situation made planned immigration a necessity, and though a more liberal immigration policy was adopted in the winter of 1953-54, im-

migration (mainly from North Africa) was not likely greatly to exceed the present rate.

The Government—Jewish Agency Coordination Committee decided in February 1954 that emigrants from Israel who were not citizens would be brought back to Israel by the Jewish Agency if they notified the government of their desire to return within three months. It was expected that this move would affect 2,000 to 3,000 of the 40,000 emigrants who had left Israel since 1948, including 700 emigrants to North Africa and those who had returned to India. Demonstrations by emigrants seeking to return to Israel were staged in São Paulo, Brazil, in January 1954. Three proposals by Jewish Agency representatives to relax existing immigration rules were also accepted. Self-supporting immigrants were to be defined as those up to fifty years of age who had a vocation which they could follow in Israel, or who were able to obtain agricultural work. The previous maximum age of immigrants of this class had been forty-five. Immigrants over forty-five or artisans over fifty would be considered elderly persons. Their entry would be arranged if they had relatives in Israel who could guarantee their support. Immigrants over forty-five or artisans over fifty would be admitted if they had the sum of \$7,000 (previously \$10,000) to ensure their absorption.

IMMIGRATION BY COUNTRIES OF ORIGIN

During the year 1953 a total of 10,347 immigrants entered Israel under the auspices of the Jewish Agency Immigration Department. Of this number, 3,990 came from North Africa, 2,793 from Asia, and 1,521 from Western countries, including 774 from North and South America and 747 from Western Europe. A breakdown of the immigration during 1953 according to the countries of origin from which the largest numbers of the immigrants came is on p. 469 below.

EMIGRATION

Emigration had reached its peak in 1952 with 11,128 departures. There were 1,900 departures during the first four months of 1954, compared with 2,400 during the same period in 1953. North Africa, the United States, and Canada headed the list of countries taking emigrants, and there was also some organized emigration to Rumania (affecting 228 persons during the period December 1953–May 1954). A questionnaire drawn up and presented to the 527 applicants for exit visas in January 1954 disclosed that family or other personal reasons prompted the emigration of 56 per cent, while economic causes were mentioned by 29 per cent. Housing difficulties rated low as a reason for leaving Israel. Nearly half of the applicants knew no Hebrew at all, and the rest had only an elementary knowledge.

ABSORPTION AND SETTLEMENT

The number of residents in immigrant camps and *maabarot*, transitional camps, at the end of 1953 was 180,000. During the year 41,600 immigrants

TABLE 3

IMMIGRATION TO ISRAEL,
BY COUNTRIES OF ORIGIN, 1953

<i>Area and Country</i>	<i>Number</i>
NORTH AFRICA	
Morocco.....	2,945
Tunisia.....	606
Libya.....	224
ASIA	
Iran.....	1,109
India.....	655
Iraq.....	375
Turkey.....	207
WESTERN EUROPE	
United Kingdom.....	140
France.....	117
Germany.....	100
EASTERN EUROPE	
Bulgaria.....	359
Hungary.....	224
Poland.....	225
Rumania.....	61
Soviet Union.....	32
NORTH AND SOUTH AMERICA	
United States.....	129
Argentina.....	420
Brazil.....	73

were absorbed: 35,000 in towns and villages and 5,300 in agricultural settlements. Some 8,500 permanent housing units were allocated to immigrants during 1953, and 919 during the first three months of 1954.

The Jewish Agency hoped to settle 3,000 maabara dwellers on the land during 1954. More than 1,800 houses were empty in agricultural settlements established after 1948, in which families could be housed immediately. There was, however, considerable reluctance, especially among new immigrants from Oriental countries, to settle on the land, and absorption in rural settlements continued only at a rate of 100 families a month.

Within the framework of the "town to country" movement sponsored by the Histadrut, 3,000 families of city workers and employees had been transferred during the period from January 1953 through June 1954.

By June 1955 it was planned to replace all canvas and aluminum huts with wooden or concrete houses. The last tents in the immigrant camps and settlements were replaced in October 1953. Several hundred families continued to live in tents because they refused to move into houses which had been built for them at sites they did not like.

Domestic Political Developments

On December 7, 1953, President Itzhak Ben Zvi accepted David Ben Gurion's resignation as prime minister and minister of defense, on the

ground that he was suffering from "more than ordinary tiredness" and had no alternative but to leave his post for two years or longer, as he was unable to bear the strain of the work in the government. Ben Gurion and his wife settled in Sde Boker in the Southern Negev.

On December 12, 1953, Moshe Dayan succeeded Mordechai Makleff as chief of staff of the Israel defense forces. On January 25, 1954, the new prime minister, Moshe Sharett, presented a fifteen-member cabinet to the Knesset after coalition talks which had lasted for more than two months. The new government received a 75-23 vote of confidence with five abstentions (Progressives and Poale Agudat Israel). The negative votes came from Mapam, the Communists, Herut, and Agudat Israel.

Legislation

Among the many laws passed by the Knesset during 1953-54 in a fruitful legislative session, a number deserve special mention. The civil service pension bill provided for pensions reaching a maximum of full salary after twenty-five years' service. The Yad veShem memorial bill established a memorial authority, to be known as Yad veShem, to carry out a memorial program for six million Jews killed by the Nazis. A law separating the judiciary from the executive was enacted on August 20, 1953. The legal code now stated that "there shall be no authority over a judge in judiciary matters other than the authority of the law." The Knesset status bill (the codification of the rules of procedure currently in force) was discussed in November 1953, while the social security bill was put to a final vote in the same month. It provided for a social insurance institute under the auspices of the ministry of labor to deal with old age pensions, workmen's compensation, and maternity payments. The capital punishment for murder was abolished by the Knesset on February 16, 1954, by a 61-33 vote which cut across party lines. The death penalty was kept for those convicted of Nazi crimes and treason. A war invalids compensation bill was adopted in April 1954, and the tenants protection law passed its final reading about the same time. This law, which affected most inhabitants of Israel, formulated new definitions and new rates of rentals. A new labor law, providing an elaborate system for control of safety and hygiene in places of work, presented to the Knesset by the minister of labor, was passed. A major piece of legislation, which had occupied the Knesset for two years but had not yet been passed, was the new internal security law, the "Crimes against the State" section of the new general criminal code. It had been opposed by the Communists, Mapam, Herut, and individual members of the coalition parties.

PARTIES

Few important changes occurred within the political parties and in the relations between them. The main bones of contention between the Orthodox extremists (Agudat Israel) who remained outside the coalition and the

other parties were the questions of women's national service and of unified state education, both of which Agudat Israel opposed. The Revisionist Herut had ceased to be an important factor in the country's political life. Within the General Zionists there was a group which, after Ben Gurion's resignation and on several other occasions, favored breaking up the coalition, but this group remained in a minority. There were minor quarrels within the coalition between the General Zionists and Mapai (on such issues as income tax and general economic problems) but though a "pre-election atmosphere" had already been felt since spring 1954, collaboration continued and in view of the deterioration of the foreign political situation, became a virtual necessity. Talks, on the basis of proposals made by Nahum Goldmann for common action and possibly an ultimate merger, took place between the General Zionists and the Progressives in June 1954.

The proposals for electoral reform, replacing the system of absolute proportional representation by some other means assuring a larger measure of stability (but leaving splinter parties without any parliamentary representation at all), were welcomed by most Mapai and General Zionist leaders, but violently opposed by the smaller parties. The disintegration of the pro-Soviet Mapam workers' party continued. A group led by Hannah Lamdan and David Lifshitz joined Mapai, while Moshe Sneh and his small faction, after an abortive attempt to lead a large part of the Mapam rank and file into the Communist camp, had joined the Communists in all but name. Internal strife continued, however. Each of these factions had two representatives in the Knesset, but only a few hundred members. The faction of Hashomer Hatzair led by Jacob Riftin and Eliezer Perry, which shared most but not all the ideological positions of Sneh, recanted only after considerable pressure was exerted by the party leadership. More serious were the separatist tendency of the Kibbutz Meuhad faction (led by Yitzhak Tabenkin and Yigal Alon), which began to publish its own weekly newspaper in opposition to the official party mouthpiece *Al Hamishmar* in May 1954. There were no palpable changes in Communist activities, nor any noticeable increase or decrease in Communist influence in the Jewish sector. As before, Communist propaganda inside Israel was directed almost exclusively against Mapam and Mapai. Yad Hanna, one of the younger *kibbutzim* with a Communist majority, had joined the Sneh group, thus becoming the first Communist settlement, after having rejected most of the typical features of kibbutz life as "excessive and sectarian leftism." Ein Harod, the one kibbutz where division between Mapai and Mapam could not be carried out, also continued to be the scene of much friction.

Arabs

There were no major changes in the life of the Arab community. On February 7, 1954, the minister of defense announced the easing of a number of restrictions on movement in Galilee. Many newspapers urged even more far-reaching reforms, such as the total abolition of military government and the formulation of a clear government policy on Arab affairs.

In the Nazareth municipal elections held on April 12, 1954, the Communists obtained six of the council's fifteen seats, while the rest went to various United Western, East Church, and Moslem lists. The results of these elections caused much concern to Israel official circles and stirred public opinion. Though the proportion of Communist votes had dropped from 50 per cent in 1950 to 43 per cent in 1952 and 38 per cent in 1954, the Communists remained the largest single party in Nazareth. Since elections were mainly along religious and ethnic lines, no effective alternative force to the Communists could develop. The Communists had competed with the other parties in anti-Israel and anti-government propaganda during their election campaigns. As no clear majority had emerged, a stalemate ensued, and armed clashes took place in Nazareth between the Communists and their adversaries during the second half of June 1954.

The Maronite Bishop of the Lebanon, Yussef Khouri, came to Israel in April 1954 to discuss with the development authorities at Gush Halav the resettlement of the Maronite inhabitants of the destroyed village of Kfar Biram on the Lebanese border.

Foreign Policy

The resumption of diplomatic relations between Israel and the Soviet Union after a break of five months was announced on July 20, 1953, when an exchange of notes between the foreign ministries of Israel and the Soviet Union was released. On August 2, 1953, Shmuel Elyashiv, who had been minister to Moscow when Soviet Russia broke off relations, was reappointed. Alexander N. Abramov was named Soviet minister to Israel. In June 1954 the Israel mission in Moscow and the Soviet mission in Israel were raised to the status of embassies. In contradistinction to his predecessor, the new Soviet minister who arrived December 2, 1953, was very active and paid frequent visits to Israeli leaders, institutions of learning, settlements, and cities. The new line in Soviet foreign policy was expressed in closer trade relations, including a barter agreement by which the Soviet Union sent Israel crude oil in exchange for citrus and bananas. Very little progress was, however, achieved in cultural relations, which was frequently stressed by Soviet representatives as desirable.

However, Soviet representatives continued to take an anti-Israel line on several occasions in the United Nations (UN) Security Council, where the Soviet Union supported Arab interests against Israel. Thus, the Soviet Union backed Syria's stand on the Jordan project (December 21, 1953) and vetoed the Western resolution on this question (January 21, 1954). The same attitude towards Israel emerged even more clearly when the Soviet Union cast its fifty-ninth veto in the Security Council on March 29, 1954, to block passage of a resolution calling on Egypt to lift restrictions on Israel-bound shipping through the Suez Canal. Most of the Israel press interpreted the Soviet move as intended to deprive the UN and the West of influence in the Middle East and promote general conditions of instability and anarchy, favorable to Soviet interests in this vital area.

The expectations of a real and lasting improvement in relations with the Soviet Union, which had been given credence by large segments of official and public opinion (mainly after the Malenkov speech of August 1953), had largely though not entirely vanished by midsummer of 1954.

On November 2, 1953, it was officially announced that Shimon Orenstein and Mordecai Oren, the Mapam leader, had been sentenced in Prague three months earlier to life and fifteen years imprisonment respectively. No Israeli diplomatic representative had been allowed to take part in this trial, which came as a shock to Israel public opinion. It had been assumed that Orenstein and Oren would be released under an amnesty. General feeling was epitomized in a leading article in *Al Hamishmar*, the mouthpiece of the pro-Soviet Mapam party, of which Oren had been a leading member: "The shocking news . . . will have repercussions among Jews everywhere. Oren should be acquitted."

In October 1953 the first news of mass trials of Jewish leaders in Rumania was received. A memorandum of protest was sent to Bucharest by the Rumanian Immigrants Association in Tel Aviv on October 10. Subsequently, during the winter and spring of 1953-54, more arrests became known and the protest movement grew. A country-wide five-day hunger strike was declared on May 23, 1954, by immigrants from Rumania, and on the next day the Knesset passed a formal vote of protest against the sentences imposed on Rumanian Zionist leaders. The Israel press was very sharply critical of an official Rumanian protest against the "hostile propaganda carried out by certain sections of the press and organizations in Israel against Rumania" delivered in June 1954 to the Israel legation in Bucharest.

RELATIONS WITH THE WEST

Israel relations with the West, and above all with the United States, underwent considerable strain during 1953-54 and, on the whole, deteriorated. American official announcements that "much more money would be spent for arming Arabs than Israel" (July 19, 1953) and on many occasions thereafter, caused much concern in Israel, where it was assumed that arms supplied to countries avowedly hostile to the Jewish state would be used to attack Israel on an early occasion. In May 1954 the contents of an Israel note, delivered to Secretary Dulles several weeks earlier by Abba Eban, the Israel ambassador in Washington, were made known. The note stated that the provision of arms to Iraq was not consistent with the Tripartite Declaration of May 1950, and that Israel did not believe any "assurances" would prevent the use of such arms against Israel. A foreign ministry spokesman in Jerusalem called the grant of arms to Iraq "prejudicial to peace" (April 24, 1954), while Eban two days later reiterated his government's "unconditional opposition" in a meeting with Assistant Secretary of State Henry Byroade.

Previously, at the time of the major border incidents (October 19, 1953), the charges against Israel voiced by American and other Western representatives in the UN Security Council, unaccompanied by a similar censure

against Jordan, were widely resented in Israel and considered typical of a new line of "appeasing the Arab League governments by antagonizing Israel." Eban warned in a speech on June 10, 1954, that "Israel's security was being imperiled by the policies of the Eisenhower Administration in the Middle East," thus reflecting the concern of both official and public opinion in Israel. At the same time (April 1954) it was announced in Washington that although American authorities were inclined to allot to Israel a substantial part of the Middle East grant-in-aid program, this would be considerably less than the previous year (1954).

Assistant Secretary of State Henry Byroade, in a speech on May 1, 1954, called on Israel to limit immigration as a means of contributing to a solution of the Middle East problem. He had already declared on April 9, 1954, that Israel citizens should look upon themselves as inhabitants of a Middle Eastern state rather than as the headquarters or nucleus of a world-wide grouping of peoples of a particular faith who must have special rights and obligations within the State of Israel. These speeches aroused a wave of indignation in Israel and provoked numerous official and semi-official protests, declarations, and editorials. The more violent sections of the press argued that the United States State Department had decided to "sell out" Israel in a futile attempt to gain the sympathy and active help of the Arab League governments in the cold war. More sober speakers and writers maintained that the new American policy was based on mistaken notions as to the willingness and abilities of the Arab states to collaborate with the West, but that patient explanations as well as the inevitable negative experiences with these governments would in due time cause the American government to change its erroneous course.

Among the attempts to lessen the tension between Israel and the Arab states, the visits of Eric Johnston, as personal representative of President Dwight D. Eisenhower in connection with Middle Eastern water development, should be mentioned. The first visit (October-November 1953) failed because of Arab opposition, while the second visit (June 1954) appeared to have been crowned with a modicum of success.¹

Israel-Arab Relations

Relations between Israel and the neighboring Arab states deteriorated considerably during June 1953 and the summer of 1954 as the result of major attacks launched by Arab military and paramilitary forces and Israel retaliatory action on a much larger scale than before. These reached a climax during October 1953; but there had been major incidents before that date, such as the murder of three Israeli soldiers in a Jordan ambush near Bet Govrin (August 8, 1953) and the murder of five Israeli civilians in the Negev (August 27, 1953). The steep increase in border violence during the first half of October culminated in the murder of a settler at Kibbutz Neve Ilan (October 10, 1953) and of a mother and two infants in Moshav Yahud (October 13, 1953). All these attacks had been characterized

¹ For a full discussion of these trips, see p. 288.

by military planning and the absence of such motives as theft and robbery which had been typical of the sporadic infiltration of earlier years. On October 14 a paramilitary Israel force crossed into Jordan territory, and in the words of a resolution of the UN armistice commission "using automatic weapons and explosives blew up forty-one dwellings, resulting in the cold-blooded murder of forty-two persons, including men, women, and children, and the wounding of fifteen more." The Big Three foreign ministers on October 18 noted the incidents with grave concern. In a protest note the day before Great Britain told Israel of its "horror," and that it took a most serious view of the incident; in a similar note the United States expressed its deepest sympathy for the families of the Arabs who had lost their lives, and demanded that those who were responsible for the loss of life and property should be brought to account. A resolution in a similar spirit was adopted by the UN Security Council on November 24, 1953. While much of the population of Israel disassociated itself from the Kibya action and the resulting loss of life of innocent Arab citizens, general press comment was that the sharp reaction by the Western powers (and the Security Council) was "one-sided" and "hypocritical," in view of the fact that no such denunciations had been made public when Arab acts of violence had occurred previously. (According to an official Israel statement on October 17, 1953, 421 Israeli citizens had been killed or wounded, and there had been 866 armed attacks and 3,263 cases of theft since May 1950, when the three Western powers had guaranteed the present armistice lines.)

After Kibya there was a decline in border violence, which lasted for several months. But on March 17, 1954, a civilian bus was attacked at the Scorpion Ascent in the Negev 80 kilometers south of Beersheba, and eleven persons were killed. The Israel resolution condemning Jordan was voted down in the Israel-Jordan Mixed Armistice Commission, its president, Commander Elmo H. Hutchison, abstaining on the grounds that the evidence was inconclusive. The Israel delegation then boycotted the commission for the remainder of the period under review. In an Israel retaliatory action at Nahalin on March 28, 1954, Israeli spokesmen reported that nine persons were killed, including two Arab Legionnaires, one officer, and six National Guardsmen. In view of the fact that the victims of this action were not civilians, there was little criticism of this action.

Further serious incidents occurred during the second half of June 1954, when three members of Kibbutz Mevoot Betar were killed by Jordanians and (on June 30) three Jews and five Arabs were killed and many wounded on both sides in a shooting affray in Jerusalem. The shooting in Jerusalem lasted for three days and brought about the intervention of the UN Secretary General Dag Hammarskjold, as well as of the Western powers.

Incidents and armed clashes on a lesser scale took place on the Israel-Egyptian border in November 1953 and April 1954, and on Lake Tiberias, where Syrian forces disputed the exclusive right of movement given to fishermen and policemen by the armistice agreement. In these recurring attacks a number of policemen and soldiers were killed on both sides. The

last major attack occurred on June 29, 1954, when two Israeli policemen on a vessel were killed.

On the diplomatic front the main developments were: Israel demands for free passage through Suez and for direct peace talks with Jordan under article 12 of the Rhodes armistice agreement; the quarrel with Syria over hydroelectric development schemes in the north of Israel; and numerous complaints and counter-complaints by Israel and the Arab countries to the United Nations Security Council. Following a Syrian complaint against Israel and a prolonged debate in the UN Security Council, Israel on October 28, 1953, decided to suspend temporarily the work in the demilitarized zone in the north which had been started on September 2. On the same date President Dwight D. Eisenhower announced that the United States had decided to resume economic aid to Israel. (Nine days earlier Secretary of State Dulles had declared that the United States had suspended the program of mutual security aid for Israel because the Israel government was defying a United Nation's ruling.) The UN Security Council debate on the Israel-Syrian dispute continued during the winter of 1953-54, and a Western draft resolution in January 1954 was received with mixed feelings in Israel. A Soviet veto, however, put an end to the attempts to reach an agreed solution within the UN, and the whole problem was again the subject of high-level discussions during Eric Johnston's second visit to the Middle East in May and June 1954 (*see p. 288*).

On November 23, 1953, Israel invoked article 12 of the Israel-Jordan armistice agreement to force Jordan into direct talks on border problems. In a letter to Hammerskjold, the Israel chief delegate to the UN used Israel's privilege under this agreement to call for an immediate Israel-Jordan conference. According to the wording of the agreements, "participation in such a conference should be obligatory." This move was described as a "political maneuver" by Jordan and the other Arab states, and the Amman government refused three invitations sent out by Hammerskjold to participate in such a conference in Jerusalem under his chairmanship. The whole scheme was shelved late in March 1954, after also meeting opposition from the local armistice supervision staff headed by General Vagn Bennike.

On February 2, 1954, the UN Security Council took up an Israel complaint against the Egyptian blockade of the Suez Canal and the Gulf of Elath, after the blockade had been intensified by the Egyptian authorities in January 1954. An Egyptian counter-complaint alleged Israel violation of the Auja demilitarized zone by establishment of a new military settlement within the zone. The UN Security Council debate lasted for almost two months and was deadlocked in the end by a Soviet veto on March 29, 1954.

Fruitless discussions on procedure continued in the UN Security Council during April 1954, in connection with Israel-Jordan border tension. On May 4 a Brazilian-Colombian motion for discussion of the situation as a whole was adopted, and a Lebanese-Soviet motion for separate discussion of Jordan's charge that Israel was responsible for the attack on Nahalin was rejected. This debate also was deadlocked, however, after Israel had demanded that Jordan should undertake to accept the obligations of a pacific settle-

ment provided in the UN charter. On May 25, 1954, the Jordan government decided to withdraw its representative from the UN and to refrain from participating in any UN Security Council discussions on the Israel-Arab dispute, rather than commit Jordan to a peaceful settlement as required under Article 35 of the charter.

In Israel the demand for a "strong" policy gained with the increase of attacks from over the border. This was believed in Israel to be the natural result of the new Western, particularly the American, policy of "appeasing the Arab governments" and supplying arms to them, while not giving arms to Israel under the same conditions. American policy was believed by influential circles in Israel to make a new attack by the Arab League countries inevitable. Another school of thinking continued to advocate a rapprochement with the Arab states, notwithstanding Arab official hostility and the frequent changes in the Arab governments.

JEWISH AGENCY

The activities of the Jewish Agency were reviewed at a meeting of the Zionist General Council which opened in Jerusalem on December 24, 1953. A budget of I£116,000,000 was approved for the year 1953-54. Over 60 per cent of this sum was scheduled for agricultural settlement, mainly the consolidation of existing villages. Concern was expressed at the decline of immigration in recent years and an appeal was made to the government to give priority to a proposal in the Knesset for the encouragement of capital investment, including the establishment of an immigrant investment center. A resolution was adopted for the establishment of a territorial Zionist organization in every country where such a framework did not exist. The council also called for the affiliation to the territorial Zionist organization of local groups that accepted the Zionist program. The twenty-fourth Zionist Congress was set for the summer of 1954, and the question of the system of the congress elections, including the double shekel (hitherto every voter living in Israel had two votes), was referred to the next session of the Zionist General Council. The combined Jewish Agency executive meeting elected three new members to the executive after the council adjourned. In the American section Louis Segal replaced the late Hayim Greenberg. In Israel Meir Grossmann succeeded Emanuel Neuman, and Shlomo Zalman Shragai filled the vacancy left by the resignation of Izhaq (Werfel) Raphael. The discussion about the tasks and the future of the Zionist movement continued. Ben Gurion's views, stated in a series of articles, that a Zionist who did not come to Israel could not be regarded as such, was disputed by other leaders, notably Nahum Goldmann.

Economic Development

Price stability was the major aim of government economic policy during the period under review (July 1, 1953, through June 30, 1954). The Bernstein plan, first outlined in August 1953, was intended to avoid any further

price increases, and to prevent a further rise in the cost of living index. This endeavor was crowned with partial success. There was a considerable change for the better in the supply position, and progress was also made in reducing the very large adverse balance of trade. But little if any headway was made with regard to the one major prerequisite for normalizing Israel's economic position: a reduction of the standard of living based on foreign aid and presents from abroad. More was produced for export and more goods that had hitherto been imported were produced locally. But net agricultural output rose only by 10 per cent in 1953, and industrial capacity was far from being fully utilized. Another aim of government policy, where some but not enough progress was made, was the reduction of costs of production. The debate on whether foreign currency transactions should be decontrolled continued. The gradual introduction of a single exchange rate and the 800 pruta premium on the dollar put the Israel pound on a realistic basis, and, according to some observers, even deliberately undervalued it in order to attract investments. But investment fell by 20 per cent in 1953 in comparison with 1952, and the restrictions on credit and money in circulation, announced in the spring of 1954 as part of the government economic policy, created a difficult situation for both industry and agriculture. Nevertheless unemployment, which had threatened during the winter months of 1953-54 to reach dangerous proportions, was brought under control. By the end of May 1954 there were only 13,000 unemployed, of whom 10,000 were unskilled laborers and 2,000 were women. A labor shortage was reported from most agricultural areas. Also on the credit side was the export situation. Export proceeds were expected to reach \$70,000,000 in 1954 (in comparison with \$47,000,000 in 1952).

The total contribution of exports to Israel's balance of payments was expected to be about \$30,000,000-\$40,000,000, or about 20 per cent of the foreign currency needed for Israel's current consumption at the current standard of living. The value of Israel's imports for the period of January-April 1954 was \$44,000,000, an increase of \$14,000,000 over the corresponding period in 1953.

Details of a seven-year development program were revealed at the Second Economic Conference in Jerusalem in October 1953. The plan called for the establishment of 200 new villages by 1960, cutting the net deficit for food from \$70,000,000 to \$20,000,000. The investment required for the realization of this plan would be \$201,000,000 (I£ 422,000,000). To develop industry in such a way as to exert a substantial influence on the balance of trade, \$150,000,000 (I£ 270,000,000) were needed, and the total needed for the development scheme (including power, quarries to exploit natural resources, improvement of communications, etc. was \$765,000,000. It was expected that reparations would contribute \$420,000,000 toward the total sum, private investments \$23,000,000, the next two or three grants-in-aid \$185,000,000. A deficit of \$775,000,000 would be left for the next five years.

In May 1954 it was stated that foreign loans amounted to \$280,000,000 at the end of 1953, as compared with \$257,000,000 at the end of 1952. This increase was due to Independence Bond receipts, which rose from I£ 105·

000,000 to I£131,000,000 in 1952; during 1953 Israel received \$38,400,000 from the bond drive in the United States. The debt to the Export-Import Bank decreased from \$125,000,000 to \$123,200,000. Short-term American loans remained unchanged at \$24,600,000. During the 1954-55 fiscal year Israel had to pay I£42,000,000 as principal and I£19,500,000 as interest to the Export-Import Bank and Independence Loan accounts. Internal loans of the government reached I£134,000,000 at the end of 1953.

POWER

Israel's annual electricity requirements were expected to reach 1,650 million kilowatt hours (kws) by 1957. An additional generator at Reading station gave 50,000 more kws in the spring of 1954, and a power station under construction south of Tel Aviv would supply 90,000 kws during its first stage and 140,000 ultimately. The high tension cable from the coast to Jerusalem, capable of carrying unlimited current to the capital, was completed in the winter of 1953-54. These developments effected a saving of about 15 per cent in fuel and caused a slight cut in the price of electricity in the summer of 1954. The government acquired controlling interest in the Palestine Electric Company in the spring of 1954.

MINERAL DEVELOPMENT

It was planned to invest I£35,000,000 in the development of the Negev during the period 1954-57. The Dead Sea works were expected to produce about 130,000 tons of potash in 1954, and 300,000 after 1957. The production of bromine was resumed in 1954. Plans included the mining of 6,000 tons of copper and 60,000 tons of iron in the Negev during 1954-55, and the establishment of a plant to enrich the phosphorous content of artificial fertilizers to 34 per cent. Construction of homes for Dead Sea works employees at and near Demona (Kurnub) was begun in the winter of 1953-54. Oil prospectors commenced drilling in the Negev in August 1953. Iron ore was found in Lower Galilee.

INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT

Milestones in industrial development included the opening in December 1953 of a paper mill in Hadera capable of producing Israel's essential consumption of 15,000 tons a year; the opening of a sulphuric acid plant in Haifa bay (in operation since October 1953) due to produce 80,000 tons of acid a year; the new Taro Pharmaceutical plant in Haifa bay; the Alliance tire company working at full capacity by September 1953; and a new brewery (with a capacity of 40,000,000 liters) in Natanya.

Turkey accepted a tender for NATO installations by Solel Boneh, the construction firm owned by Histadruth. Solel Boneh also worked on the construction of a steel mill at Haifa bay.

Israel's industrial exports in 1953 were 91 per cent higher than in 1952: 36 per cent went to Turkey, 20 per cent to Finland, 14 per cent to Britain,

and 6 per cent to the United States. Industrial exports comprised 38 per cent of total exports in 1953, compared with 31 per cent during the previous year. Kaiser-Frazer's assembly plant took first place among the exporting industrial enterprises, while the export of tires and pharmaceutical products was also substantial, and diamond exports to the United States reached \$9,000,000 a year.

COMMUNICATIONS

A five-year plan to modernize Israel's railroads was initiated in 1953. This plan was to utilize equipment bought largely through reparations payments and would cost about \$16,000,000.

ZIM ships carried 60 per cent of the 50,000 passengers who passed through Haifa in 1953, as well as a total of 706,000 tons of cargo, as compared with 298,000 carried during 1952.

A new 422-meter pier was opened in Haifa harbor in February 1954. After many months of negotiation, agreement was reached in February 1954 between the ministry of communications and the bus cooperatives on an average price rise of 16 per cent.

A new road to Elath, started in 1952, was completed in May 1954. It opened up the central Negev to tourists and facilitated the exploration of the mineral resources of Wadi Ramon.

GERMAN REPARATIONS

German reparations continued to be the single most important outside factor in the development of the Israel economy during the period under review. An analysis of the DM 250,000,000 (\$59,000,000) worth of reparations goods to be purchased during 1954-55 showed that DM 43,000,000 (\$10,200,000) were to be used for iron and steel, nonferrous metals, and steel strip for irrigation pipes; DM 40,000,000 (\$9,500,000) for heavy industrial equipment; DM 47,000,000 (\$11,200,000) for chemical and other industrial goods, including pharmaceutical products, mining goods, and precision instruments; DM 30,000,000 (\$7,100,000) for agricultural products, including cattle for breeding, seeds, and raw materials for agricultural industries; DM 15,000,000 (\$3,600,000) for administration and service, including transport, insurance, etc. DM 75,000,000 (\$17,900,000) were set aside for oil purchases from Great Britain. The first reparation goods arrived in Israel in August 1953.

UNITED STATES GRANT-IN-AID

An exchange of letters preliminary to the release of a \$26,000,000 grant-in-aid for the first six months of the fiscal year was published in December 1953. The first grant of \$70,000,000 had provided 35 per cent of Israel's total foreign income in 1951; the second grant of \$53,000,000 had been 25 per cent of the foreign income in 1952. The purchase of food and fodder used up about 67 per cent of the first, and 40 per cent of the second

grant. In the third grant, however, the main items were fuel (25 per cent), raw materials for export, industries (20 per cent), and agricultural and irrigation investment (17 per cent).

AGRICULTURE

For the first time since 1948 the markets of Israel were saturated with vegetables, and there was even a seasonal glut of tomatoes and milk during 1953-54. Eggs, carrots, and bananas were exported to Europe. In 1954 there were 650,000 dunams of barley and 200,000 of wheat sown in Jewish settlements, and 200,000 of barley and 250,000 of wheat in Arab settlements. Maize and sorghum were sown on 250,000 dunams of unirrigated land, and 3,100 dunams of cotton were reported developing satisfactorily. Sugar beet on 3,500 dunams of irrigated land was picked in May 1954, and the first attempt was made to manufacture syrup for industry from the sugar beet crop. Twenty-six thousand dunams of new orchards were to be planted in 1954-55, as compared with 20,000 in 1953-54 and 12,700 in 1952-53.

The total cultivated area in Israel increased by 3 per cent during the period under review, but there was a 30 per cent increase in the irrigated area, from 600,000 to 800,000 dunams. Since the establishment of the state in May 1945, agricultural production had risen by 84 per cent (based on the 1948-49 price level). Progress had been made especially in the cultivation of potatoes and vegetables (145 per cent), field crops and fodder (126 per cent), fishing (117 per cent), milk (68 per cent).

The citrus season was the most successful for many years. The total crop was 10,800,000 crates, as compared with 8,000,000 crates in 1952-53, and 7,500,000 crates were exported, as against 5,000,000 in 1952-53. The prices obtained were 10 per cent higher than in 1952-53, and citrus exports brought Israel about \$33,000,000 gross (\$25,000,000-\$26,000,000 net) as compared with \$20,000,000 gross in 1952-53. However, the success of Israel's citrus industry during this season, especially the higher prices achieved, was at least partly explained by the frost and resulting crop damage in Spain.

The trebling of the irrigated area and the doubling of the agricultural population of Israel during 1954-61 were the over-all targets of a new development plan made public in November 1953. Another highlight was the publication of the report of the chief of the UN's Food and Agriculture Organization's mission in Israel, Albert Gain Black, in December 1953. This became the basis of a discussion of the future of Israel agriculture. Dr. Black and other observers had criticized the establishment of excessively small agricultural units (such as those established by the Jewish Agency, of 25 dunams to a family), and had suggested a far higher minimum size for the average unit. Other observers had criticized the structure of Israel agriculture, pointing to the prevalence of a "rich man's agriculture," like poultry breeding and the production of green fodder for cattle, and recommended the growing of more wheat and maize and concentrating on cheaper meat production (sheep).

Education

By 39 votes to 16, the Knesset on August 12, 1953, passed the state education bill combining the four officially recognized school trends and independent schools into a state-controlled network with a separate division for religious schools. During the school year 1953-54 there were 200,000 children attending primary schools, of whom about 150,000 were in general state schools, about 36,000 in religious state schools, and about 14,000 in the separate Agudat Israel schools outside of state education. The number of schools totalled 820, including 270 religious schools, and the number of classes 6,622. There was overcrowding, and 22 per cent of all classes had over forty pupils. Some 1,600 inadequately trained teachers were dismissed, but 800 of them were reinstated later. Of the 34,000 five-year-olds, 29,000 were attending kindergartens, although these were no longer free. About half of the primary schools taught agriculture, but there was a serious shortage of workshops to teach handicrafts.

A total of 111 schools for the Arab population had been built in 111 of the 117 Arab settlements. They were attended by about 24,500 children. The Arab schools were modeled on the Jewish ones, and there were seven complete secondary schools for Arab children—three in the "small triangle," two in Galilee, one in Nazareth, and one in Kfar Yasif in Western Galilee.

The situation in secondary education continued to be highly unsatisfactory. About 75 per cent of the youth between fourteen and eighteen received no education whatsoever. The state spent only I£500,000 on secondary education, or 0.11 per cent of the budget. High tuition fees were the main reason for the small (and dwindling) numbers of pupils in the secondary schools.

HIGHER EDUCATION

Similar financial difficulties were faced by the Hebrew University in Jerusalem and the Haifa Technion, resulting in the temporary closing of the Technion and student strikes against the increase of tuition fees. The government was prepared to contribute only I£1,100,000 of the I£2,700,000 requested to help cover the I£5,500,000 budget of the university, and to make a contribution of I£750,000 towards the Technion's budget of I£2,400,000.

A total of 482 students received degrees—a record for the Hebrew University—at the twenty-fourth graduation ceremony in April 1954. During the scholastic year 1953-54 a new faculty was added to the university, the Eliezer Kaplan School of Social Science, bringing the number of faculties to six. Semitic and Indo-European philology was added as a major subject, and the faculties of science and agriculture were enlarged. Agricultural engineering was introduced as a new subject. The new dental school was inaugurated on November 6, 1953. The new campus of the Hebrew University between Rehavia and Bet Hakerem was dedicated on June 2, 1954.

The campus was planned to accommodate 10,000 students, the current number of students exceeding 3,000, and was expected to take five or six years to complete. Since the War of Independence and the internationalization of the old site of the university on Mount Scopus, the various faculties and departments of the university had been dispersed over many buildings throughout Jerusalem.

The foundation stone for the Bar Ilan University, conceived and developed by the Mizrahi Organization of America to combine the higher forms of religious and secular studies, was laid at Ramat Gan on July 26, 1953.

Another institution of higher learning in Tel Aviv was due to open in the academic year (1954–55), with 100 students, and would be housed in the Natural Science Institute at Abu Kebir. The budget for the Institute of Humanities amounted to I₴250,000, and lecturers would include tutors from the Hebrew University. The Natural Science Institute, part of the same institution, was opened on December 1, 1953. A new department of experimental biology was dedicated on November 3, 1953, at the Weizmann Institute of Science, Rehovot. On the same occasion the cornerstone was laid for the Institute of Physics building.

The Haifa Technion gave 182 diplomas to members of the 1953 graduating class, while 372 new students were accepted for 1954. The degree of bachelor of science was awarded for the first time. The student body totaled nearly 1,400.

The Rabbi Kook Foundation building was dedicated in Jerusalem in November 1953. The foundation had published 500 books on religious subjects during the sixteen years of its existence. The new building comprised a spacious hall, a synagogue, rooms for permanent exhibitions of ancient books and handwritten texts, a 15,000-volume religious scientific library, and archives of religious Zionism.

The first astronomical observatory in Israel was opened in Jerusalem on September 7, 1953, under the auspices of the Jerusalem Amateur Astronomers Association. It was equipped with a 4½ inch Zeiss telescope, and included reading and working rooms. Seismological observatories were established in Jerusalem and Safad.

Cultural Developments

The second annual award of Israel prizes was made in Jerusalem on May 6, 1954, Israel's Independence Day. The prize for belles lettres was shared by the poet David Shimoni and the author Shmuel Yosef Agnon. The award for music was given to Oedoen Partos for his Symphonic Fantasy *Ein Gev*. Professor Hugo Bergmann received the humanities award for his work, *Introduction to the Study of Logic*. In the field of Jewish studies the award went to Professor Moshe Zvi Segal for *The Complete Ben Sira*. The technology and agriculture award went to Professor Shimon (Friedrich) Bodenheimer for his *Israel Fauna*. Prof. Michael Zohary received the natural sciences award for a series of research papers on the flora and vegetation of Israel and the neighboring countries. Dr. Abraham (Bergman) Biran

received the prize for educational research, while the exact science award went to Dr. P. Ollendorf for his work *Calculation of the Magnetic Fields*. Gad Tedeschi received the social sciences and law award for his volume, *Studies in the Law of Israel*.

ARCHAEOLOGICAL FINDINGS

In the Negev Nelson Glueck discovered evidence of a flourishing sedentary population dating back 5,000 years and especially to the Nabataean period 2,000 years ago. The expedition headed by him unearthed fifty settlements of the Nabataean period as well as a Roman highway.

The Israel Exploration Society opened a *tel* near Bet Mazmil (Jerusalem) which gave all the signs of having been a "high place" for sacrificial rites in the time of the Judean kings.

A number of inscriptions in Hebrew, Aramaic, and Greek were brought to light at Beth Shearim in the Valley of Jezreel. Three catacombs and the tomb of "Aidessios, head of the council of Elders at Antioch" were revealed.

The government department of antiquities completed the excavations at Bet Yerah and investigation of the fortifications, and a water and sewage scheme of the early and middle bronze period were uncovered. The excavations of the *thermae* of ancient Tiberias were resumed. Tombs of the Hellenistic period were discovered near Acre and burial grounds of the early bronze age near Ein Hanatziv.

INTERNATIONAL MEETINGS

The Seventh International Congress of the History of Science opened in Jerusalem in the presence of more than eighty delegates and guests on August 4, 1953. Prof. Shimon (Friedrich) Bodenheimer of the Hebrew University acted as the congress president.

The international Conquest of the Desert exhibition in September-October 1953 was visited by more than 550,000 visitors during the three weeks it was open to the public. The government decided to convert the Israel pavilion at the exhibition into a permanent display.

The twenty-eighth world festival of contemporary music opened in Haifa on May 20, 1954. On this occasion the world premiere of Darius Milhaud's opera *David* (in oratoric form) took place in Jerusalem. The composer's prize of the festival went to André Jolivet for his *Symphonie*, the Italian prize to the Japanese composer Matsudeira, and the South African prize to the Israeli composer Joseph Tal.

The fourth Maccabia was opened in Ramat Gan Stadium with 573 participants from 23 foreign countries, and 279 representing Israel, on September 20, 1953.

SCHOLARSHIP AND LITERATURE

One of the major publishing events during the period under review was the appearance of the fourteenth volume of Ben Yehuda's *Thesaurus of the Ancient and Modern Hebrew Language*, edited by Professor Naphtali Hertz

(Torczyner) Tur-Sinai, president of the Va'ad Halashon. Volume II of the Biblical Encyclopedia, Volume V of the Talmudic Encyclopedia, and a new Hebrew-English Bible were also published.

Twelve hundred Hebrew books were published during 1952-53. As a result of the agreement between Israel and the United States under the Mutual Security program, American books and magazines to the value of \$3,000,000 were imported (of these, technical and scientific works formed 44 per cent, periodicals 27 per cent, and paper bound books 16 per cent. Israel headed the list of all countries in per capita purchase of American books and magazines, and was fourth in total imports.

THEATER AND MOTION PICTURE

The first full-length Israel feature film, *A Stone for Every Mile*, was completed in May 1954.

Among the more successful plays staged in 1953-54 were the Joseph Milo (of the Chamber Theatre) production of Shaw's *Saint Joan*, and the adaptation of Henry James's *The Heiress*. The outstanding new production of the Habima Theater was *Cry, the Beloved Country*. The Ohel Theater, apart from its perennial success *The Good Soldier Schweik*, brought to the stage Jules Romains' *Dr. Knock* and Sartre's *Respectful Prostitute*. Some 1,200,000 people saw the productions of the four major theaters of the country during 1953. Local Israel plays performed included *Nights of Storm* by Josef Shamir (Habimah) and Ephraim Kishon's *His Name Goes Before Him* and *This City*. Habimah was invited to perform in July 1954 at the Sarah Bernhardt theater in Paris.

MUSIC

One of the main events in the musical life of the country was the world premiere of Darius Milhaud's *Sacred Service* conducted by Heinz Freudenthal with the Kol Yisrael Orchestra and the vocal group of Kol Zion Lagola. Other first performances of music by contemporary composers by the Israel Philharmonic Orchestra included works by Igor Stravinsky, Bela Bartok, Frank Martin, Serge Prokofieff, Robert Starer, and Bohuslav Martinu. The only major new work of an Israel composer to be performed by this orchestra during the 1953-54 season was Paul Ben Haim's suite *Israel Scenes*. Kurt Weill's music to *Cry, the Beloved Country* (Habimah) was also among the highlights of 1953-54; there were, as in former years, many visitors, soloists, and conductors of world renown, although many of the leading Israel musicians had to go abroad "in order to secure recognition in their homeland" (*Jerusalem Post*, September 1953). Perhaps the most important news, however, was the report that the Israel Philharmonic Orchestra, in the nineteenth year of its existence, was at last receiving a concert hall of its own.

RADIO

Kol Yisrael was broadcasting thirteen hours a day on the average over a 50-kw transmitting station, and with 7.5 kws on the short-wave band,

which could be picked up throughout Europe. Kol Zion Lagola, the radio station of the Jewish Agency, broadcast for several hours in the evening, as did the army broadcasting station. The Kol Israel First Program included a regular Hebrew program, an Arabic program (including news), and a Turkish program. The Second Program included English, French, Ladino, and Yiddish news, as well as programs for the immigrants.

ART

Israel painters and sculptors were represented with seventy-five art works at the biennial exhibition in Venice, and several won prizes. At the annual exhibition of Israel art in Tel Aviv (April 1954) 210 artists were represented, each by two works.

Personalia

Rabbi Benzion Meir Hai Uziel, Sephardic chief rabbi of Israel, died in Jerusalem on September 4, 1953; Moshe Smilanski, veteran farmer and author, founder of the farmers' federation and a pioneer of Rishon le Zion, Hadera, and Rehovot, died on October 6, 1953; Prof. Simha Assaf, outstanding rabbinical authority and Israel Supreme Court judge, died in Jerusalem on October 18, 1953; David Werner Senator, executive vice president of the Hebrew University and a Zionist leader, died in Atlanta, Ga., in the United States on November 2, 1953; Georg Landauer, the Zionist leader and former member of the Jewish Agency executive, died in New York on February 6, 1954; Michael Amir, Israel Minister to Holland, died at The Hague on June 16, 1954.

Other important individuals who died during the period under review were:

Rabbi Abraham Karelitz, widely known as Hazon Ish, noted Talmudical authority (October 25, 1953); Rabbi Iser Zalman Meltzer, Talmudist and chairman of the Council of Religious Scholars (November 11, 1953); Michel Polah, "the pioneer of heavy industry in Israel" (March 25, 1954); Professor Eliezer Rieger, director general of the ministry of education and culture (May 1954); and Menahem Mendel Rosenbaum, veteran social revolutionary and writer (April 11, 1954).

W. Z. LAQUEUR

Middle East

THE period under review (July 1, 1953, through June 30, 1954) was one of continuing internal upheavals and crisis in the Arab world.

Internal dissension in Egypt, which had previously led to the dissolution of the Moslem Brotherhood (January 1954) and a widespread purge of the old set of politicians, brought about an open tug of war among the members of the Cairo junta during February-March 1954, and the deposition of General Mohammed Naguib as prime minister. Naguib remained President of the state, but real power seemed to have passed to Colonel Gamal Abdul Nasser and his followers. The Moslem Brotherhood was again permitted in July 1954, but all the other parties remained dissolved, and many of their leaders were brought to court. There were no signs of the early elections and the return to parliamentary regime promised by the new rulers. In Syria the regime of Colonel Adib Shishekli was overthrown following a military *coup d'état* in February 1954. Shishekli was replaced by a party government headed by Sabri al Assali, which in its turn made way in June 1954 for a caretaker government to supervise general elections. The post-Shishekli regime in Syria was supported by some of the large political parties, but not by the left-wing, strongly nationalist, and neutralist Republican Socialist party.

Elections in Iraq in May 1954 left Nuri es-Said's Constitutional Union party in power, though with a reduced majority; there were no major outward developments in Lebanese politics. In another election held in September 1954 Nuri es-Said obtained a comfortable majority. Most of the seats went uncontested after the political parties had been dissolved. Nevertheless, the political situation in these two countries was considered unstable. Iraq was troubled by agrarian unrest and the antagonism of both the workers and the urban intelligentsia to the ultra-conservative ruling class. There was much dissension on both national and social lines in Lebanon, which suffered from general weakness and foreign dependence. Only in Jordan was the year under review comparatively uneventful, except for a cabinet crisis in June-July 1954. New elections were due to take place the second part of October 1954.

The Arab countries collaborated in their foreign policy only on a common stand in the United Nations (UN). Both in their relations with each other and their attitude to the West-East conflict the existing rift was again palpably felt. In Arab League politics this meant above all Iraqi opposition to Egyptian domination, and Jordan and Saudi Arabian opposition to all plans for a Hashemite Union and/or the merger of Syria and Iraq (which again became an issue after Shishekli's downfall). Complaining about the lack of assistance given by the other Arab countries in its struggle for Suez, Egypt favored neutralism in the cold war (a policy which had the support of public

opinion in all Arab countries). Iraq, the country most exposed to the Soviet threat, signed an agreement in April 1953 with the United States for arms supplies. Counterbalancing this, Egypt and Saudi Arabia signed a military mutual assistance pact in May 1954.

On one issue a large measure of unanimity was preserved—namely, the Arab League attitude toward Israel. The Arab governments took a common stand on this issue at the UN in the winter of 1953–54, when the border tension reached a climax and the Security Council dealt with various complaints. Though Shishekli, who had been the most extreme public anti-Israeli Arab leader, had been overthrown, there was no growing readiness to make peace with Israel. On the contrary, numerous bellicose statements were made, the most publicized being that of King Saud, of Saudi Arabia, who declared on January 9, 1954: "Israel, to the Arab world, is like a cancer to the human body, and the only way of remedy is to uproot it just like a cancer. . . . We Arabs total about 50,000,000. Why don't we sacrifice 10,000,000 of our number to live in pride and self-respect?"

Jews in the Middle East

Some of the Arab countries, notably Egypt, did not introduce any official anti-Jewish legislation. This is to be explained both in terms of the more liberal tradition in these countries and the fear of creating an unfavorable impression abroad. However, the Arab League as such, and various Arab governments individually, did not hesitate to tie the Israel issue to the problem of Jewish minorities in the Arab countries. A declaration characteristic of this school of thinking was made by the Moslem Brotherhood leader Said Ramadan on a visit to Arab Jerusalem: "A Jew remains a Jew wherever he is, in Egypt, Iraq, and so on, and he works for Zionism" (*A Difa'a*, Arab Jerusalem, April 13, 1953). The Egyptian government dissociated itself from such doctrines, and from the proposal to introduce capital punishment for all "collaborators with Zionism." (This demand, which was to be raised at the pan-Moslem conference to be held in Jerusalem at the end of 1954, was meant to be an exclusive "Jewish" law, because laws providing for the heaviest penalties for collaboration with Israel already existed in all Arab states.) In May 1954 Mahmoud Fawzi, the Egyptian foreign minister, told the Pakistani Foreign Minister Zafrullah Khan that his country would not oppose a pan-Moslem conference to deal with the Palestine border incidents; but Egypt did not want this conference to become a Moslem religious crusade against the Jewish religion. In the view of the Egyptian government, the Arab movement was a national and not a religious one, and the propagation of religious hatred would cause much damage to the Arab cause and antagonize the rest of the world (Radio Ramallah, May 16, 1954).

The Jordanian spokesman took an opposed line, the Jordanian foreign minister, Hussein Khalidi, calling the very existence of Jews in the Arab countries a very extraordinary revelation of Arab magnanimity (in a press conference in Arab Jerusalem, May 1954). The Arab League tried to introduce new restrictions affecting the life of the Jews in the Arab countries in

addition to those already in force. Thus, the judicial commission of the Arab League proposed at the Cairo session of the League (held in June 1954) that special passports for Arabs only should be introduced ([London] *Jewish Chronicle*, June 25, 1954).

Before the Israel War of Independence Jews had actively participated in the political life of the Arab countries: they had been members of most Egyptian parties (including the Wafd), of Michel Aflaq's left-wing Socialist Revival Party in Syria and of Kamel Chaderchi's reformist National Democratic Party in Iraq. The Socialist Revivalists emerged as the second strongest in the Syrian elections of September 1954. The National Democrats were dissolved by the Iraqi authorities in September 1954. Some of the Arab governments, notably the Iraqi one, occasionally accused the Communists of "pro-Israeli" or "pro-Zionist" activities (e.g., Arab News Agency, October 11, 1953). This was ironic, in view of the efforts made by the Communists in all the Arab countries to stress their anti-Israel stand. (In the summer of 1954 the Israeli Communists carried out a "plebiscite" in favor of peace with the Arab countries; but the Arab Communist parties had never done so, preferring to speak in ominous tones of the impending "liquidation" of the Palestine problem [cf. resolutions of the Communist-sponsored Congress for the Defence of the Peoples of the Middle East in Beirut, reported in *Pravda*, Moscow, December 23, 1953]). The heads of Communist-sponsored "anti-imperialist fronts" were frequently politicians who had had outspoken pro-Fascist sympathies up to the end of World War II, some of them being Nazi agents and rabid anti-Semites—like Ma-aruf Dualibi in Syria, the leaders of the Istiqlal party in Iraq, the leaders of the Egyptian Socialist party, and the more extreme wing of the Nationalists in the same country. The common denominator of right-wing extremism, religious fanaticism, and Communism in the Middle East was anti-Westernism and xenophobia. The Jews in the Arab countries, individually and collectively, were among the main victims of this trend, which was given fresh impetus, but not caused by, Jewish-Arab strife over Israel. Jews in the more highly developed Arab countries (like Egypt and Lebanon) were undoubtedly better treated than in Iraq and Syria. But their situation was precarious in all the Arab countries, and there could hardly be any doubt that Middle Eastern Jews would continue to suffer from the political instability which was prevalent throughout the Middle East.

EGYPT

The changes in the Egyptian government early in 1954 did not affect the life of the 35,000-40,000 remaining Jews in that country, though the demonstrations of good will towards Egyptian Jews in which General Naguib had excelled were discontinued. The Egyptian leaders were preoccupied with the domestic tension, and in June and July 1954 violent anti-Jewish attacks were again resumed in part of the Egyptian press, notably those journals supported by the nationalist extremists and the Moslem Brotherhood (e.g. *Al Ikhwan al Muslimun*).

Jewish Population

At the annual meeting of the Cairo Jewish community in March 1954, President Salvatore Cicurel reviewed the situation of the Egyptian Jews and called the decrease in their number following emigration and economic crisis the two most prominent features in community life.

The main cause of the continuing Jewish emigration was that in recent years many Jews had lost their source of livelihood as a consequence of the cotton slump and the closing of the Alexandria bourse. Others were compelled to leave as the result of anti-foreign legislation. Five hundred stateless Jews remained in Cairo; negotiations to make them Egyptian citizens went on during the summer of 1953, but by August 1953 the failure of these talks was imminent. Of the 75,000 Jews who had lived in Egypt in 1948, 40,000 had been stateless; most of these had left for Israel on a special *laissez passer sans retour*. According to unofficial figures, 250 Jewish families left Egypt during 1953. Eighteen hundred Jewish children remained in Cairo in 1953-54, as compared with the 4,500 who had been there in 1948.

ARRESTS

In April 1954 it was reported that seven young Jews had been sentenced to prison by a military court in Alexandria. Originally charged with "contact with leftist elements in Israel," the accusation against the defendants was later changed to "Communist activities" ([London] *Jewish Chronicle*, April 2, 1954). Albert Azulay, Robert Grunspan, and Albert Gabai were each given terms of seven years, André Cohen, Jack Hason, and Albert Sulam received three years, while Miss Rosi Dayan was acquitted. In June 1954 the arrest of the last Jew in a leading position in the Egyptian press was reported. This was Salvator Adjiman, a member of the Cairo Jewish community council, and the head of the publicity department of *Al Ahram*. Along with his brother-in-law, Leon Grunspan, Adjiman was arrested on the charge of smuggling capital abroad. Adjiman was provisionally released on bail given by the president of the Israelite Association of Heliopolis ([London] *Jewish Chronicle*, July 2, 1954). At the same time another trial of alleged members of an unnamed Jewish youth movement began (Cairo Radio, July 1, 1954), and the Egyptian press accused Maccabi of Zionist activities. (Up to 1948 Maccabi had been a boy scouts and sports organization, but since 1949 boy scout activities had been prohibited.) The Egyptian police raided 120 Jewish homes in Cairo during the first half of July 1954, arresting a number of young men who were accused of having broken a pledge to the ministry of interior that they would abstain from learning Hebrew and from preparing at a *hachshara* training farm to emigrate to Israel. The young men were released with a warning. These raids, in conjunction with the detention of eleven young Jews in Alexandria for several months without trial (on charges of Zionism and Communism), were said to have evoked great uneasiness in the Egyptian Jewish community ([London] *Jewish Chronicle*, July 16, 1954). For there was a strong suspicion that individual Jews were being singled out in an at-

tempt to link the entire Egyptian community with Communism and Zionism. Though the government had also arrested many Egyptians and Greeks on charges of Communist activity, most of the Jews arrested were neither Communists nor Zionists, but simply Jews, while the Egyptians and Greeks arrested were all Communists.

Social Services

The Jewish hospital in Cairo had a deficit of £11,000 (\$19,800) in 1953, and the education commission of the community a deficit of £12,000 (\$21,600) (*Jewish Chronicle*, April 2, 1954). The Jewish schools in Egypt had been partly destroyed and burned during the riots in January 1952, but were later rebuilt. There were 700 pupils in Cairo's four Jewish schools, 700 in Alexandria's four schools, 100 in Port Said's two schools, and 150 in Tantas's two schools ([London] *Jewish Chronicle*, April 10, 1953).

Religious and Cultural Activities

There were practically no Jewish religious activities in Egypt. There were not enough rabbis in Egypt, but Egyptian law forbade the employment of foreign rabbis. When Naguib came to power, prominent Egyptian Jews expressed confidence that the law would be modified. However, notwithstanding vague promises by the government, nothing had been done to ameliorate the situation. Cultural relations with Jews abroad had ceased altogether. At the fourth Sephardic world congress in Jerusalem in May 1954, Egyptian Jewry was not represented, though the chief rabbi had sent the conference a cable via London. A number of Egyptian Jews took part in the 1954 Passover services arranged by the British army rabbis at Lake Timsah near Suez ([London] *Jewish Chronicle*, April 30, 1954).

The publication of most of the Egyptian Jewish periodicals had ceased at the time of the war with Israel in 1948; *Menorah*, the last of them, ceased publication in May 1953.

SYRIA

During 1953-54 the Syrian Jews lived under a regime of terror mitigated only by inefficiency and corruption. Following the overthrow of the Shishekli government in February 1954, there was a slight improvement in their status as far as the official attitude was concerned. Under Shishekli the Syrian Jews had not dared to complain to the government about the wrongs done to them. But in May 1954, after Shishekli's downfall, a delegation consisting of the head of the Haleb (Aleppo) Jewish community and several other Jewish leaders was received by Sabri al Assali, the new prime minister. The delegation asked Assali to give them a status equal to Syrian citizens of the Moslem faith, because "the Syrian Jews have denounced the existence of a Jewish home in Palestine and a Jewish state in Israel." The members of the delega-

tion requested the abolition of the anti-Jewish legislation which had been introduced under Shishekli. The Syrian prime minister promised that their complaints would be studied and remedied individually (Radio Beirut May 20, 1954; Arab News Agency, May 23, 1954).

Civic Status

Among the anti-Jewish laws in force the following deserve mention: the ban on selling property (1948); the freezing of all Jewish bank accounts; the restriction of Syrian citizenship to Arabs (1953); the distribution of Jewish property, including synagogues, among Arab refugees and Syrian citizens; and the restriction of movement of Syrian Jews. Shishekli had even attempted to extend the anti-Jewish legislation to citizens of European countries and the United States.

Other victims of the anti-Jewish persecutions were the Jews of the border province Al Gesira (in the northeast of the country, most of them Iraqi citizens); and Jewish peasants whose land, crops, and tools were seized by the Shishekli government.

The Arabization policy of the Shishekli regime, directed against all national minorities, affected the Jews even more than the others. Under a law promulgated in April 1953, non-Arab names were forbidden and the use of any language other than Arabic in public meetings banned. At least half of the members of the executive of every public association had to be Moslem Arabs. Schoolteachers had to be Syrian Arabs, appointed by the state.

On the other hand, part of the Day of Atonement service in the Damascus synagogue was broadcast by the Syrian radio station in a Hebrew-language hour for Israel consumption, as a token of the full religious freedom enjoyed by Jews in Syria.

There was no official government institution dealing with Jewish questions, and the two main authorities were the police officer in charge of the Jewish quarter and the administrator of Jewish property. Legally, Jews were not forbidden to leave Damascus, but in practice they could not move freely in Syria, and were usually arrested when found outside their place of domicile. Zabri Laniado, the head of the Jewish community of Damascus, asked the Syrian authorities in 1953 not to permit any more emigration for the time being. Laniado argued that he could agree to an emigration of the whole community, but if the remainder of the young generation were to leave, leaving only the old and welfare cases behind, he could not take responsibility for the management of community affairs.

Anti-Jewish Agitation

In addition to legal discrimination, there were instances of "unofficial" persecution, beginning with the attempted bombing of the Damascus synagogue in May 1949 in which eleven Jews were killed. Under the Shishekli regime, attacks against Jews had become more frequent in streets, markets, and public

places, and there had been many cases of stoning of synagogues. Many Jews had been periodically arrested, charged with espionage, Zionist activities, etc., released, and after some time rearrested. Some Syrian Jews succeeded in escaping from the country to Lebanon and the Lebanese government had been, during the period of Shishekli's rule, under considerable pressure to extradite them.

Jewish Population and Community Organization

The number of Syrian Jews did not exceed 2,500 to 3,000 in 1954, the old and very young being predominant. In view of the fact that most of the leaders of the Syrian community and the younger generation had left the country, and broadly speaking only the rich and very poor had remained, but no middle class, the leadership in the communities frequently fell into the hands of men without public record.

The Alliance school in Damascus was attended by 500 pupils during 1953-54 and the Talmud Torah by 170 students.

IRAQ

Of the 130,000 Jews in Iraq in 1948, not more than about 6,000 out of a general population of 4,800,000 remained after the mass exodus of 1950-52.

The Jewish community lost not only its parliamentary representation but most of its property, as well. There were, at the time of writing (July 1954), only one Jewish school and one hospital in Baghdad. Many of the Jews who remained did so apparently because they could not sell their property (frequently real estate). The Beirut paper *Zeman* reported on July 4, 1954, that 5,221 Arab refugees had been housed in abandoned Jewish homes in Iraq. Ahmed es Shalgi was appointed secretary general of the administration of Jewish "frozen property" in November 1953. A few days later Jewish real estate was sold at public auction (*As Sha'ab*, Baghdad, December 15, 1953).

Civic Status

On July 8, 1953, ten Iraqi Jews who had been under arrest since 1948 for "Zionist and Communist activities" were deported. In August 1953 the arrest of several "re-emigrants" from Israel was reported. During the same month a list of Jews who had lost Iraqi citizenship was published in the Baghdad press. In September 1953 there were riots in the prison, and the government alleged that two Jewish Communists were heading the inmates of the Kut camp who had been trying to prevent the authorities from removing the Jewish prisoners to another place of detention.

The prolonged detention of three Israeli passengers of a BOAC plane which made a forced landing at Baghdad on its way from Iran attracted considerable attention. They were arrested on January 3, 1954; a fortnight later the Israel representative in the UN asked the intervention of the UN. Sec-

retary General in view of this flagrant violation of international practice. The Israelis had been arrested on the basis of a law which had been in effect since 1950 by which every Jew (regardless of nationality) was obliged to ask for a special visa in order to land at Baghdad airport—even during transit flights. Britain had protested against this law in 1950 and again in 1954 without receiving a reply; the matter was also raised again in the British House of Commons on June 3, 1954, by Barnett Janner. The Iraqi government argued that the passengers had been arrested as "hostages" for several Iraqi officers who had been captured by Israel in 1948 but had not been returned. Israel suggested that an international commission of enquiry investigate this allegation, but Iraq ignored this proposal. The three hostages were released after spending 117 days in prison.

Communal Organization

Rabbi Sassoon Khadouri was appointed acting head of the Baghdad Jewish community on November 1, 1953, by decree of the Iraqi minister of the interior. Rabbi Khadouri had three deputies: one was a representative of the ministry of the interior (a non-Jew), and the two others were from among the elders of the local community. The official reasons given for this anomalous situation were that Khadouri's predecessor, Yeheskel Shemtov, had held office illegally since the liquidation of the community, and that there had been prolonged quarrels among the members of the community (*As Sha'ab*, Baghdad, November 1, 1953).

Cultural Life

Jewish cultural life had come to a standstill during 1950-52. Jewish periodicals were banned by the Baghdad authorities (Arab News Agency, Baghdad, June 2, 1954). Iraq also demanded that the Iranian government ban the weekly *The Jewish World* published by the Jewish Agency in Teheran. According to Radio Ramallah (Jordan, June 3, 1954), the Iranian government acceded to this demand, for which action the Iraqi authorities expressed their gratitude.

LEBANON

The only official announcement during the period under review on the attitude of the Lebanese government towards the Jews in that country was made in Argentina—at the time of the state visit to South America by the Lebanese President, Camille Chamoun. Addressing a Jewish delegation of emigrants from Syria and Lebanon headed by Esra Tuval, President Chamoun declared that he regarded Lebanese Jews as good citizens in the democratic tradition (Jewish Telegraphic Agency [JTA], June 2, 1954).

About 6,000 Jews lived in Lebanon at the time of writing (July 1954), most of them in Beirut. Several hundred Syrian Jews fled to Beirut during the

period under review and at a certain period (June 1953) the Lebanese authorities showed willingness unofficially to grant them political asylum. In several cases the Lebanese police prevented attempts of Syrian emissaries to kidnap emigré Syrian Jews, following the intervention of the heads of the Beirut Jewish community with the prime minister. Most of the Syrian Jews intended to emigrate to the Americas.

Civic Status

There were, however, a number of new restrictions, mainly, though not perhaps exclusively, as the result of Syrian pressure. In September 1953 the emigration of Jews from Lebanon without a permit from the ministry of foreign affairs was banned. The reason was the possibility that "such emigrants would come in contact abroad with Israeli citizens and would reveal economic or military secrets detrimental to the Lebanon and other Arab countries." The leading Lebanese newspaper *Al Hayat* (September 16, 1953) supported this step, and wrote that Lebanese Jews leaving the country were taking their capital with them and were thus aggravating the current economic crisis. An even more far-reaching anti-Jewish proposal was advanced in the Lebanese parliament by the "Socialist" deputy Emil Bustani (a millionaire and owner of the largest bus company in the country), who demanded that all the property of the Lebanese Jews should be seized and handed over to the state for administration (Near East Arab Broadcasting Station, December 3, 1953).

Internal Jewish activities were extremely restricted. Jews were not represented in the parliament; however, it was alleged at the time of the last elections that one of the Maronite leaders, the Phalange head, Jusef Shader, had been elected with the assistance of Jewish votes in Beirut (*Al Hiatt*, Beirut, July 13, 1953). The Beirut Jewish community again received legal status in 1952, but it had jurisdiction only in inheritance cases.

Joseph Atieh was the head of the community council and his deputy was Joseph Sa'adia. There were one communal school and several schools sponsored by the Alliance Israélite Universelle.

According to a government announcement on October 9, 1953, both Macabi, the sports organization, and a Jewish scouts club were dissolved (*Al Garida*, Beirut, October 10, 1953).

LIBYA

The Jewish population of Libya was estimated at 3,000-3,500, out of a general population of 1,100,000. Thirty-two thousand Libyan Jews had left the country from 1950 to 1952 to settle in Israel. The attitude of the Libyan government towards the local Jews since Libya became independent in 1952-53 had been affected by Arab League and Egyptian pressure. A law published in May 1952 prohibited both Jews and non-Jews of Libyan nationality from visiting Israel, but permitted the emigration of Jews to Israel in accordance with instructions given to the Libyan migration services (*Tara-*

blous el Rarb, Tripoli, January 6, 1952). In January 1953 the local (Tripoli) office of the Jewish Agency was closed at the government's demand and its officials compelled to leave. In January 1953 postal service to Israel was discontinued, and Libya joined the Arab League countries in the boycott of Israel products (Arab News Agency, January 15, 1953). There were occasional anti-Jewish items in the Libyan press during 1953-54, and in December 1953 the Tripoli branch of Maccabi was closed by the government. This followed attacks on the government in the Libyan parliament and press for its failure to "take drastic action" after the "illegal visit" of a member of the Israel parliament to the Maccabi branch on November 22, 1953. On that day, Shalom Zisman, a member of the Knesset and a passenger on a Norwegian vessel which passed Tripoli harbor in transit, visited the Maccabi branch; he was arrested by the local police two hours later. The district commissioner ordered an investigation as to why Zisman had been released by the police before having been "punished for illegal entry" (*Times*, London, December 4, 1953). In an official statement Maccabi was charged with "Zionist" activity in violation of the law. "Libya, as a member of the Arab League, could not deviate from the common stand taken towards Israel" (*Corriere di Tripoli*, December 10, 1953).

Libyan Jews were reported to be practicing their religion freely, and the two main synagogues in Tripoli were well attended on the Sabbath and other special occasions. There were, however, no Jewish leaders available to interest themselves in the affairs of the community, whose president, Musci Nahum, was unable to continue in office because of ill health (reported in the [London] *Jewish Chronicle*, April 30, 1954).

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