dunums in 1968-69 to 354,000 in 1969-70) (Hilal, 1975:246). In many instances the Israeli government established customs regulations to prevent the entry of perishable food items (dates and fish from Gaza, grapes from Hebron, for example) to the Israeli market (Tzidkoni, 1975:41), without establishing similar tariffs to protect West Bank and Gaza farmers from the considerably more powerful competition of Israeli crops.

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Along the same lines, stagnation in the industrial sector has been measured by the declining rate of employment in indigenous manufacturing (from 10,800 employees in 1969 to 9,350 in 1973) (Hilal, 1976b:23), without any noticeable increase in productivity or investments in capital goods (Bregman, 1976:63). However, there is a dispute as to whether this stagnation is also true of the agricultural sector; Israeli official statistics provide data for crop production in money terms, very rarely in terms of actual output (Weigert, 1976). When Hilal talks of stagnation in agricul-

ture, he refers to the decline of total agricultural employment and its stationary share in the GNP (Hilal, 1976b:26). However, unlike the manufacturing sector, these indices are not very meaningful for a sector that is plagued by seasonal fluctuations. Altogether it seems that the major weakness of these discussions on Palestinian agriculture has been the failure to analyse adequately the internal dynamics and processes of the agrarian system and to investigate the differential impact of Israeli technology and marketing procedure on the various strata of Palestinian farmers.

The proletarianisation of Palestinian peasants and refugees, although

measurable in terms of the extent of wage labour proliferation, has been one

of the least understood aspects of social change under Israeli occupation.

Rosenfeld, one of the very few Israelis who has done a systematic study of

this process, found that one of the essential features of pre-1948 proleta-

rianisation among Palestinian peasants was that it was accomplished without