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THE IMPACT OF GLOBAL STAGFLATION ON THE HUNGARIAN ECONOMY

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Conference on the Impact of International Economic Disturbances on the Soviet Union and Eastern Europe

> Sponsored by Kennan Institute for Advanced Russian Studies State University of New York at Stony Brook University of Windsor

> > September 24-26, 1978 Washington, D.C.

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#### I. INTRODUCTION

The Hungarian economy, like other "small" countries linked to world markets, was afflicted during the 1970's by ailments of exogenous origin. The relatively smooth development during the 1960's in Hungary's major western trading partners has given way first to unforeseeable inflation then to severe recession. One could expect serious repercussions in resource-poor Hungary, since inflation was most pronounced in raw materials. In addition, it was particularly ominous that stagnation struck with great force Hungary's western export markets.

This direct generation of economic disturbances was followed by indirect effects on Hungarian foreign economic relations with other CMEA countries. Global inflation and drastic changes in relative world market prices could hardly be ignored in CMEA trade. Western price inflation led to a re-examination and a lagged adjustment of foreign trade prices also within the CMEA. The earlier stable prices negotiated in transferable rubles increased in 1975. reflecting to some extent the previous rise in world market prices, and raw material prices were considerably raised relative to those of finished industrial products. Frices within CMEA, in the post-1975 period were no longer to be kept stable for several years, but they were to be readjusted annually according to a five-year moving average of the preceding world market prices. In addition, the growth rate of the raw material and primary energy deliveries of the

CMEA countries slowed down and the practice became established that only a buyer granting credit in for form of investment contributions for the development of raw material extracting capacities may, within limits, increase its purchase.

The effects coming from two directions affect the Hungarian economy in combination and it is difficult to analyse them independently of one another. Nevertheless, to keep this study within manageable proportions, attention will be mainly concentrated on the direct effects on Hungary of world market stagflation, emanating from market-type economics (MTES).

The effects of world market changes are discussed in the study in three parts.

First the direct effects of inflation and economic recession are reviewed, passing then to the exploration of their consequences in the national economy. Finally the reaction of the economic control agencies to the external changes, that is, the established practice of Hungarian economic policy for protection against the world market changes are surveyed.

# II. THE IMMEDIATE EFFECTS OF WESTERN STAGFLATION ON THE HUNGARIAN ECONOMY: CHANNELS OF IMPACT

Global stagflation has caused perhaps greater concern in Hungary than in most other countries. Before starting to discuss the steps taken by Hungarian control and management agencies, in order to ward off the effects of inflation on external markets, a few words need be said about the basic properties of the "New Economic Mechanism" (NEM) introduced in 1968. Given the limitation of this paper, there is no way to discuss in detail the formal and informal policy developments.

In 1968. as well known. Hungary abandoned the economic control mechanisms used in traditional centrally planned economies (CPEs), and abolished the regulation of enterprises through directive plan-instructions. Simultaneously, the separation of the domestic producer price system from external prices was also abandoned. The newly established system (also called indirect controls) intended to attain a double aim from the viewpoint of adaptation to inflation abroad: on the one hand, the stimulation of profit-motivated enterprises conforming to the plan through the general regulation by the center and, on the other hand, continuous adaptation to the changes in external markets. The emerging practice of control, which assured that the free, the officially regulated, and the fixed producer prices should fluctuate but slightly around the price center established on the basis of average production costs, and in which the commercial rate

of exchange had to correspond to the average cost of exports. This system was based on a quiet world market situation and on a prognosis of minor changes in relative world market prices. In this case, namely, with relatively stable financial regulators (commercial rates of exchange, state refunds, and official price regulation), the enterprise profits could guide the firms so that they should operate basically in harmony with the objectives of the central plan.

Thus, the formal organization of the Hungarian NEM gave particularly strong emphasis to a more efficient participation in international trade. Along with other CMEA countries, Hungary also accepted the need to turn from an extensive to an intensive strategy of economic development. To implement these objectives, the new economic system decided to use market instruments and to link domestic with foreign markets. As a result, the decisionmaking structure became much more decentralized; the information structure was improved by a comprehensive reform of the domestic prices and foreign exchange rates; and the motivational structure was reorganized, tying incentives for earned income to profitability rather than to gross output. To maintain an equitable distribution of income, the structure of earned income was modified more by explicit social dividends than by implicit grants. Theoretically, this would have meant a complete restructuring of the consumer prices, based on factor cost and demand considerations, apart from divergences between private and social costs (and benefits). This was envisioned as a very

gradual process. In practice, not much progress was made in the adjustment of consumer prices according to scarcity relations even before the impact of external disturbances in the 1970s.

In terms of the impact model, full implementation of the NEM would have meant a removal of the "first insulation layer," restoring the nexus between world market prices and domestic producer prices of tradable goods. In fact, the theoretical model of NEM would have also implied the removal of the "second insulation layer," setting consumer retail prices according to producer prices (unless the market signals would be misleading because of, say, externalities). Thus, the pure theoretical model of the NEM would have shifted the full burden of containment to the "third insulation layer," using monetary and fiscal tools to avoid a spillover of the consumer price changes into the labor (and other input) markets, as well as the feedback effect, which would generate a cumulative price-wage spiral.

In reality, no pure model of NEM could be introduced in the short run. It was accepted that in the beginning the economy would have to rely heavily on different kinds and custom-made subsidies and taxes, as well as other controls (ceilings, floors, quotas, permits, licenses, etc.). It was, however, anticipated that over time reliance on special subsidies, taxes, and quantitative or administrative controls could be gradually reduced. This did not occur for a variety

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of reasons. Even before the explosions of worldwide inflation in 1973, there were numerous complaints about the rising burden on the state budget of increasing net subsidies (much of it connected with foreign trade). Another major source of complaint was the lack of coordination between foreign trade and efficient allocation of domestic investment.

Two types of constructive criticisms appeared. Some complaints were relatively minor, and the critics of the system usually proposed specific improvements, not necessarily a major overhaul. Other critics raised questions of involving more fundamental changes. It was, however, generally acknowledged, as stated by one of the authors of this study that "in spite of certain inconsistent points... the changes of the system of economic control in 1968 have led to positive results in economic management. The ability of enterprises to adapt themselves to the market conditions has perceptably improved." (M. Tardos, "Impacts of World Economic Changes on the Hungarian Economy, <u>Acta Oeconomica</u>, Vol. 15 (3-4), pp. 277-291 (dated 1975, but actually appeared in 1977).)

As for the drastic shocks in world markets after 1972, no economic system could be prepared. Actually, given Hungary's resource endowment and extremely heavy dependence of foreign trade, specialists in comparative systems and foreign trade might argue that the Hungarian economy appeared to perform relatively well under the modified NEM, given the

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serious nature of external disturbances in world markets. The external impact on Hungary could have been catastrophic; yet, according to domestic indicators, the economy's performance was no worse than in other countries with better domestic resource endowment and less adverse effects on their foreign trade.

To be sure, the performance of the Hungarian economy during the turbulent years of the 1970s has been mixed. On the positive side, the country was able to keep full employment and some insulation against erratic world market price fluctuations. It has also been able to retain the framework of the NEM, and the country remained a modified CPE. In the decisionmaking, information, and motivation structures there is no sign that the economy might once again embrace the rigid features of the traditional CPE. The option is kept open for gradual systemic flexibility in the future. On the negative side of the ledger, however, we should note that there have been questionable trade-offs between some of these achievements (e.g., relative domestic price stability) and the costs of these results, particularly in the future. The overall assessment must be a mixed one. The containment measures were not even second-best solutions but often contradictory, inefficient compromises that developed in a gradual, evolutionary way and not according to a deliberately considered unified plan of action. The incentives at the present favor ad hoc bargaining which may promote compromises among special interests but leaving all participants more or

less dissatisfied. The question for the future is how to design better containment policies.

Changes in MTEs since 1970 caused grave concern for the Hungarian economy in several ways:

- (1) General increase of prices and changes in relative prices which adversely affected the Hungarian terms of trade and trade balance;
- (2) Relative price changes within Hungarian imports and exports, affecting the level, composition, and direction of trade;
- (3) Stagnation in the MJEs and downward shift of demand for Hungarian exports, particularly, growing agricultural protectionism in the EEC (trade in food products);
- (4) Erosion of the competitive position of the Hungarian export sector.

To some extent, these adverse developments were counteracted by certain mitigating circumstances, exogenous to the Hungarian economy, especially:

- Availability of western credits (since some of the larger foreign trade earnings were rapidly channelled back into world trade);
- Lagged responses due to existing Hungarian trade agreements, and more gradual price increases in Hungary's CMEA trade.

### 1. Inflation, Terms of Trade, and External Trade Balance

As a result of inflation in world trade, Hungarian nonruble import prices increased at an annual rate of 11.5 percent during the 1970s, and the price level was 138 percent higher in 1977 than in 1970. The most dramatic rise of western import prices occurred during 1973-74, when the price

rises were over 34 percent and 43 percent, respectively. During the same period, there was also an increase of Hungarian nonruble export prices, but the export price index rose less, about 90 percent until 1977. Consequently. the term of trade declined, particularly from 1972 to 1975. During these three years, the deterioration of the terms of trade was nearly 23 percent. The extent of deterioration was greatest in 1975, but after a transitory improvement in 1976, the nonruble terms of trade again approximated the bottom in 1977. The deterioration of the terms of trade led to substantial deficits in the Hungarian external trade balance during the 1970s. These losses due to the worsening of the terms of trade ranged from over 20 billion forints in 1974, to nearly twice as much in 1977. More than half of these losses in 1976, and over 90 percent in 1974, were directly attributable to nonruble trade. During the same period, the trade balance (commodities and services) showed a correspondingly dramatic rise; it rose from over 20 billion forints in 1974 to over 36 billion in 1975, and it was still over 26 billion in 1977. These trade deficits had to be covered by external credit.

### 2. Relative Price Changes and the Structure of Trade

The deterioration in the Hungarian terms of trade and the external trade deficit were not caused simply by the drastic jump of fuel and other raw material prices relative

to manufactured products. In fact, in the early 1970s, Hungary was not even net importer of oil and other energy sources in the nonruble trade. In addition to the rise in the world market prices of primary energy and raw materials, the unfavorable changes were caused by the fact that Hungary was compelled to import a growing part of her raw material supplies for dollars and other convertible currencies.

Hungarian fuel and energy trade on nonruble markets had a slight surplus in 1972, but imports exceeded exports by 3.6 billion forints by 1977. (This represented over 14 percent of the 1977 Hungarian external trade deficit in commodities and services.)

While the volume of Hungarian imports increased somewhat more from the ruble than from the nonruble area (61.8 percent vs. 52.7 percent), there are considerable differences within the aggregates. The small share of fuels and energy imports from the nonruble area increased 4.9 times, while from the ruble area it rose by 50 percent.

#### 3. Downward Shift of Export Demand: Trade in Food Products

An attempt to analyse econometrically that various categories of the Hungarian export demand to the West experienced a downward shift would be beyond the scope of this paper. This could be a study in itself, but probably a thankless exercise. It would be much more appealing to criticize the results of such an undertaking (e.g., on grounds of the

identification problem) than to design the experiment, gather the necessary data, and perform the calculations.

There is no need, however, to contemplate a questionable econometric analysis if we confine our remarks to the exports of "raw materials for food industry, live animals, and food products," a category that has traditionally been a chief source of Hungarian convertible currency receipts. The share of these exports to non-socialist countries was 37.4 percent of total Hungarian exports in this direction, of which live animals represented 18.2 percent (and slaughter cattle and calves 11.8 percent). After 1973, Hungarian foreign trade was confronted with the effects of a European excess supply on the market of slaughter animals and meat, as well as with a sudden rise in the price of animal foodstuffs.

Up to 1973, the share of foodstuffs in Hungary's exports to the nonruble area fluctuated between 25 - 40 percent. The export of slaughter cattle to Italy and West Germany played a leading role, which amounted to 11 - 12 percent of total exports. It was, therefore, a serious shock for Hungarian foreign trade that, as a result of the 1974 draught, there was a sudden rise of slaughtering in the EEC countries which led to an overproduction crisis of meat. Thus, contrary to the general inflationary trend, the price of slaughter cattle sharply declined. In order to protect themselves, EEC countries imposed an import prohibition on slaughter cattle from outside markets.

Consequently, Hungary was confronted not only with declining prices for one of the economy's most significant export commodities but also with vanishing markets. On short notice, Hungarian exporters had to seek new demand in a buyer's market within an already disrupted world economy. Finally, some of this displaced export was marketed mostly in Arab countries and in the U.S.S.R. for dollars.

As a result of these developments, the share of food exports declined in 1976 to 30.4 percent of nonruble exports (it was still only 31.2 percent in 1977), and that of slaughtered cattle to only 3 percent. Even more dramatic was the change in trade with non-socialist countries, where between 1972 and 1976, the export share of foodstuffs fell from 37.4 to 25.1 percent; of live animals, from 18.2 to 6.2 percent, and of slaughter cattle from 11.8 to 1.6 percent.

The profitability of live animal and meat export production was affected not only by the deterioration in the terms of marketing but also by the fast rise in the prices of import of both animal and vegetable foodstuff. Generally, foreign trade price movements in the category of foodstuffs were particularly disadvantageous for Hungary. In nonruble trade (calculated in dollar terms), export prices approximately doubled between 1970 and 1977, while the import price index rose over three-fold. Therefore, the terms of trade for foodstuffs declined to 66.0, which was a substantially greater deterioration than for foreign trade overall.

(As discussed above, the terms of trade in the nonruble accounts declined to 79.9 between 1970 and 1977.)

We may conclude that the impact of world inflation was magnified for the Hungarian economy by an adverse shift in the foreign demand for an important export category. Although this dual impact originated in 1973-74, the result was a lasting repercussion, which might have affected Hungary's long-term comparative advantage.

### 4. Erosion of the Hungarian Foreign Trade Competitive Positions

Another set of unfavorable changes is constituted by the movements in the prices of industrial finished articles processed to different degrees. According to our observations, in the majority of cases the rise in import prices has exceeded that of export prices.

The unfavorable deviation is, allegedly, explained by the fact that while inflation in the leading industrial countries gave a freer reign to the rise in prices of better quality products characteristic in Hungarian imports, the situation was not favorable for raising the prices of Hungarian export products. Further, according to this assumption, the rise in the prices of clothing, belonging to an inferior group of industrial production, necessarily had to lag behind other branches of manufacturing, above all engineering.

This assumption appears questionable if we observe, for instance, trends in the import prices of the German Federal

Republic. Within West German imports, the prices of industrial intermediate products have been rising faster than those of finished products, and within finished products those of consumer goods faster than those of investment goods. As for textiles and clothing, the rise in prices was indeed slower than the average of imports, but the difference was insignificant.

These empirical observations, based on the West German foreign trade price statistics, which is contrary to the Hungarian foreign trade experience, may also be supported by economic logic. The 1973-74 price explosion was mainly concentrated on energy resources and other key primary products. Therefore, one would expect that those finished industrial products which contain a relatively larger share of raw materials and energy costs would experience a more significant rise in prices than less resource-intensive manufactured products. Thus, after the special price explosion experienced, we have no reason to expect that the cost-raising effect of highly qualified labor input should be more important that the rise in raw material prices.

These considerations suggest that in the deterioration of the Hungarian terms of trade in nonruble accounts the erosion of Hungary's competitive positions might also have played an important role. The weakening of Hungarian competitive position progressed during the years of worldwide stagflation as a result of three factors.

First, in the competition evolving on the market of

less complicated industrial products, the export-oriented developing countries, purusing a policy of rapid industrialization, demanded a growing role for themselves. Frequently, their products could successfully compete with those of Hungary, since their wage level is lower not only than in the industrialized countries but also than in Hungary, while they produce many products with an up-to-date technology and, finally, they enjoy more advantages, first of all tariff reductions, in the advanced industrial countries than does Hungary.

Second. Hungarian international competitive position has been also impaired by new suppliers of mass produced items who have been increasingly stimulated by the slack demand in 1975 and its slow revival in 1976. In this sharp competitive situation the producers of those goods and service in Hungary who could not readily adapt themselves to demand requirements found themselves in a particularly unfavorable situation. More than during the years before, the world markets by the mid-1970s, especially in marketing certain industrial manufactures, became a Darwinian survival-of-themost-flexible environment. Suppliers who could not satisfy world market requirements in terms of range of assortment, quality requirements, and observance of terms of delivery were left behind. Those who were novices in this keen competition of buyers' markets were particularly handicapped. In addition, home producers in developed MTEs have found it

expedient to cry wolf (i.e., dumping, cutthroat, or unfair competition, etc.) every time when their markets were depressed and exporters wanted appeased.

Finally, there was also another factor which appreciably contributed to the observed widening of price differences and reduced nonruble earnings by Hungarian exporters. (This point will only be mentioned here but will be discussed in more detail below.) Namely, the Hungarian enterprises were not under the type of vital pressures at home as their competitors either in the acquisition of markets or in price bargaining. The incentives were better than in the traditional CPEs, but still very feeble under the NEM, to increase per unit export receipts and save import costs.

# III. EFFECTS OF THE DETERIORATION IN THE TERMS OF TRADE ON THE HUNGARIAN ECONOMIC PERFORMANCE

(A) TRANSFORMATION

The shock appearing as a result of the deterioration in the terms of trade and in the absorptive capacity of external markets slow down the growth of the resources available to the country, if the productive capacities of the country are not suited for transforming the pattern and direction of export sales significantly, if the economic regulation does not mediate the changes in external market conditions adequately or both. The tensions thus emerging may be increased also if export sales cannot keep pace even with the moderated import demands. The lagging of exports behind import needs does not cause immediate troubles in the economy only if there is a way for bridging the difference by raising credits. Credits may also prevent domestic utilization from falling in consequence of the external shock.

After these general statements let us have a closer look at what really happened in the Hungarian economy under the effect of external shocks after 1973. For judging the situation, let us start with the assumption that <u>if</u> the external shocks had not occurred domestic absorption would have grown as smoothly as it did from <u>1973 to 1977</u>, judging by the trend observed in the preceding five years, and the

elasticity of production with respect to import demand and to export supply. More specifically, foreign trade would have been determined by the exports of other CMEA economies, that is, by Hungary's purchasing possibilities, and in western trade by the Hungarian export capacity. In this case, in order to maintain an unchanged growth rate of domestic uses, national income should have been increased at a rate faster than in the preceding five years by a minimum of 15 to 16 percent.\* (The methodology used to derive this estimate and some others below is discussed in a forthcoming book by M. Tardos (tentative title: <u>External Disturbances in the</u> Hungarian Economy.))

A precondition for accelerating the rate of economic growth would have been to remove two bottlenecks of development related to foreign trade. On the one hand, import from CMEA countries of goods conforming to Hungarian demand, mainly of raw materials, should have been doubled between 1972 and 1977. On the other hand, the volume of exports to western markets should have been raised two-and-a-halffold in five years in order to cover the import needs on a continuous basis. In fact, however, both of these preconditions were quite unrealistic.

The economy was not able to improve its performance capacity sufficiently to overcome the effects of the drastic external shocks. Hungary has not succeeded in accelerating the growth rate of the national income; nor did the country

reduce domestic absorption; the gap between national income and absorption was covered by increasing foreign indebtedness. On the positive side, however, in spite of external shocks, the country has succeeded in securing full employment, relative stability of producer and consumer prices, as well as continuous economic growth without any important, measurable deterioration in efficiency. This is demonstrated by way of the following calculations, which show that the contribution of total factor productivity to the growth of national income did not significantly change between the two five-1967-72 and 1972-77. These calculations, year periods: which provide, in fact, a divizia-type index, are according to a methodology endorsed by the Hungarian State Planning Office. (For details, see table below, p. 21.)

			-	
2011 - 101 - 101 - 101 - 101 - 101 - 101 - 101 - 101 - 101 - 101 - 101 - 101 - 101 - 101 - 101 - 101 - 101 - 10		1967-1972	1972-1977	
National income		33.7	33.5	
Industrial outpu	t	31.0	35.5	
Agricultural out	put	13.7	18.7	
Increase of nation computed by the those employed productive brain	onal income e worktime of in the nches	35.3	37.0	ي ,
National economi	c efficiency <sup>*</sup>	23.3	22.3	
Contribution of efficiency to national incom	improvement in the growth of e	n 69.1	66.9	
to the methodo The formula is National e where	Nl and N = m	iency = $(M_1/M_0)$ ational income : ase years	Lanning Office. $\binom{N_1/N_0}{s+(A_1/A_0) r+(K_1/K)}$ in the plan and the second seco	o) p .e
		aterial product:	ion	
	$A_1 \text{ and } A_0 = f_p$	ixed assets enga roduction	aged in material	
	$K_1$ and $K_2 = i$	nventories enga	ged in material pr	oduction
	s, r and p w	eights, their s	um being unity	
	S = W	ages and person	al incomes /0,75/	·
	r = d a	epreciation and ssets, excl. ex	charges on fixed emptions /0,21/	
	p = c	harges on worki xemptions /0.04	ng capital excl.	

(growth in percentages)

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# (B) <u>PROPAGATION</u>

Deficiencies in adjustment were evident in respect to two factors. First, adaptation of the economy to the external market conditions was slow and could thus only slightly mitigate the deterioration in the terms of trade; second, responsiveness to satisfy demand did not continue to improve, and the number and role of shortage articles started to grow again. Were the increasing shortages a sign of repressed inflation or of greater inefficiencies in the supply system? They were probably caused by a combination of both, but it would be difficult to identify to what extent the system transformed external disturbances into these two related domestic effects.

In any case, serious foreign trade bottlenecks developed; these maladjustments were transofrmed through the domestic economy; although, in the propagation and containment stages, the economy managed to avoid escalating crises. This was not easy since the volume of imports to be bought for rubles increased by only 43 percent, which was less than half of the rise that would have been necessary for smooth development. At the same time, exports in nonruble trade could be increased by only 31.5 percent, one-third of the amount needed for undisturbed development. Thus, foreign trade bottlenecks were so tight that they could have led to a catastrophe if the economy had not been able to rely on favorable propagation and containment mechanisms. We may distinguish four types of responses, three of which were used to adapt the Hungarian economy to the external disturbances:

- (1) Reduction of import elasticity;
- Agreement to settle part of the trade with CMEA countries in dollars (or other convertible currencies);
- (3) Increasing reliance on external credit;
  (4) Potential reduction of domestic absorption
- (4) Potential reduction of domestic absorption (not used).

### 1. Import Elasticity

As shown in the calculations below, the income elasticity of Hungarian imports declined considerable, from 1.85 (during 1967-72) to 1.23 (during 1973-77). Thus, in the period before the impact of external disturbances, each one percent rise of Hungarian national income was associated with 1.85 percent rise of imports; subsequently, however, imports increased by 1.23 percent for each one percent rise in national income. The change has been even more pronounced in Hungary's non-socialist trade, where import elasticity declined from 2.05 to 1.23.

Moderation of the import elasticity in relation to non-socialist countries was not even. In 1974, in spite of the rising prices on account of the price explosion, the import elasticity was 3, as a consequence of state subsidies. Then, in 1975, the volume of imports fell, followed in 1976-77 by a sharp increase again.

	1972	1973 at co	1974 nstant	1975 price	1976 s	1977
Total consumption	77.5	78.8	74.3	73.6	74.2	73.0
of which: Private consumption	67.8	69.1	65.0	64.1	64.4	63.4
Net fixed capital formation	20.4	21.1	17.7	23,2	20.1	18.2
Changes in unfinished investment projects	1.9	1.4	4.6	0,6	2.3	6.0
Changes in inventories	0.2	-0.9	2.9	2.6	3.4	2.8

Categories of Absorption as Proportion of Total Absorption

Source: <u>Main Economic Indicators in 1977</u> (KSH, Budapest, 1978), pp....

### 2. Partial Dollar Payments in CMEA Trade

The second type of response was designed to provide some relief for Hungary's acute convertible currency deficit. It was introduced as a sign of recognition that needed expansion of nonruble imports in Hungary required more convertible currency that it could be acquired by way of exports to western markets. This was a reasonable solution, particularly since some formerly significant hard-currency exports of Hungary (such as live animals and meat) were shifted to CMEA markets. Also, as a result of this agreement, Hungary was able to obtain products from western markets which were not readily available in CMEA trade, or it provided the opportunity for Hungary to purchase needed imports at more favorable term of trade. The trade transacted with Hungary's socialist trading partners (including Yugoslavia and Cuba), and settled in convertible currencies, by 1977 reached 18.7 percent of exports and 12.2 percent of imports. Even in the narrower inter-CMEA trade (excluding Yugoslavia and Cuba), Hungary was able to earn a convertible currency surplus that covered 13 percent of the balance of trade deficit with the West in 1977.

### 3. Foreign Credit Expansion

The third response mechanism was the acquisition of needed imports through foreign loans. Hungary's external borrowing became a crucial trade instrument since the trade balance (adjusted for transport costs), which had been positive in 1972-73, became consistently negative after 1973. The overall deficit of the trade (and transport cost) balance reached a peak in 1975, when it was 9 percent of national income, but it remained more than 5 percent also in 1976-77.

Credit was used to cover losses from deterioration of the terms of trade. There was sufficient foreign borrowing to cover all losses until 1975. However, during the last two years the losses were only partially covered by credits. The calculations are shown in the following table.

# National Income and Absorption (in billion forints)

	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977
National Income	325.3	360.3	376.4	394.0	432.3	475.0
Absorption	321.1	343.1	397.8	429.6	454.8	501.1
Balance of trade and services	+4.2	+17.2	-21.4	-35.6	-22.5	-26.1
Losses due to deterio ration in the terms o trade	- f	2.1	-20.6	-33.6	-27.0	-39.0
of which non ruble trade		-3.9	-18.6	-20.9	-14.0	
Difference between losses and the balance of trade deficit			-0.8	-2.0	4.5	12.9
м		-				

Source: Main Economic Indications in 1977, op. cit., pp. ....

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### 4. Potential Reduction of Domestic Absorption

An obvious, although unpleasant, response to the large negative trade balance would have been a reduction of domestic absorption, but this did not occur in the 1970s. In fact, the volume of absorption increased by 31.2 percent, that is by a 5.5 percent annual average, which, if to a moderate extent, still exceeded the average of the preceding period. At the same time, the available own resources increased by only 22.5 percent. (See Appendix Tables.)

It happened only in two years, 1973 and 1976, that domestic absorption increased more slowly than the available resources. In all other years, the expansion of domestic absorption exceeded the expansion of resources. The difference was greatest in 1974, when the resources available fell, while absorption exceeded the average growth rate of earlier years more than two-times, attaining 12.7 percent. In 1975, when losses owing to deterioration in the terms of trade culminated, disposable national income hardly increased, but domestic absorption, if not to the extent of the preceding year, increased faster than the long-term average (by 6.4 percent).

If we take a closer look at the components of domestic absorption, a surprising pattern of response emerges. The main component is, of course, consumption. Given the commitment of the NEM, it is understandable that consumption continued to rise in spite of the economy's exogenous

shocks. One would expect, however, at least a moderation in the rate of growth. But remarkably, there was not a slowdown but an acceleration in the rate of growth in 1974, when western inflation, as well as its effect on the Hungarian terms of trade, was most critical. Hungarian nonruble terms of trade plunged nearly 15 percent in 1974: yet, the growth rate of consumption (private, as well as total) became much higher than either before or after the crest of the price explosion during the 1970s. The growth rate of consumption was 3-4 percent in 1972-73, but it rose to 6-7 percent in 1974. Even in 1975, the growth rate of consumption was 4-5 percent, above the rate registered until 1973. Only in 1976, the sole year after 1972 when the nonruble terms of trade improved, was there a sharp deceleration in the growth rate of consumption. Finally, in 1977, there was again an inverse relationship between the terms of trade (which declined) and the growth rate of consumption (which accelerated). Whether this perverse cycle was a propagation phenomenon or a containment failure is difficult to tell. Let us then turn to investment.

The year-to-year acceleration and decleration of the growth of total domestic investment paralled the perverse cycle of consumption growth. In fact, the cycle was greatly magnified in the case of domestic investment.

The item where a future social gain might be expected from the use of foreign resources (including foreign

borrowing) is net fixed capital formation. Perhaps it was this consideration that encouraged the growth of fixed capital formation to increase twice as fast as consumption from 1960 to the mid-1970s. This trend broke in 1974.

Thus, in 1974, total domestic investment skyrocketed, <u>increasing</u> at 34.2 percent, while net fixed capital formation <u>declined</u> by 11.2 percent. As these divergent movements imply, the accumulation of inventories attained a peak in 1974. After the world market price explosion, Hungarian enterprises started to accumulate stocks with government support and have been increasing their raw material stocks ever since then, at a rate faster than production, Also, the increase in the stock of unfinished investment projects considerably exceeded the resources available. The value of this item was particularly high in 1974 and in 1976, owing to the slack in investment activity.

The growth of inventories and unfinished investment projects was so large between 1973 and 1977 that their combined sum approached 60 percent of the aggregate foreign trade deficit. (As to be discussed below, the main reason for this was the declining efficiency the central control system and management.) -

### IV. Changes in Economic Regulation: Containment Efforts

The task of economic regulation cannot be simple in any country where the shocks originating in external markets have released such profound economic effects as in Hungary. The task was complicated by the fact that adaptation to the external shocks frequently conflicted with other, equally important objectives of economic policy. The boosting of exports, a rational saving on imports as objectives demanded by the price explosion, might everywhere disturb the policy aimed at price stability and full employment as well as the transformation of the economic structure of the country.

For an evaluation of the regulation developed in the Hungarian economy after the price explosion, a few specific features of the management and control of the economy should be clarified.

First of all, prior to the price explosion, though the economy of the country had been developing under improving equilibrium conditions, it was still struggling with certain internal tensions. The main source of the tension was that in respect to the development of economic structure (and, especially, concerning technologically advanced industries) there existed two, to some extent contradictory, objectives. According to the first one, the development of technologically progressive industries (with concentrated investments relying on central decisions) should be implemented

in harmony with the target-oriented programs within the CMEA. According to the second one, what was important was a gradual evolution of the economy, relying on the decisions of enterprises, and aiming at the continual improvement of efficiency and profitability. A harmonization of the two objectives was not successful. The government committed itself in these two directions to highly ambitious tasks and the tensions created by conflicting objectives were increased by programs to raise living standards and develop the infrastructure. Thus, instead of smooth and balanced growth we were witnesses to sporadic increases in investment, followed by periods of sudden restraints. The price explosion occurred just after a period when investments were restrained and a new upswing was in preparation.

Secondly, the external shock afflicted the country when the new system of control and management, introduced in 1968, was not yet strong enough and not sufficiently consolidated, in spite of five years of rather successful operation. Recentralizing efforts were emerging, which caused uncertainty as to the expectable development of the economic control methods.

Thirdly, the government was dedicated to the proposition that the external shocks should only with a lag, if at all, influence economic development and, particularly the real incomes of the population. Further, they wanted to avoid spontaneous initiatives in investment and employment policies.

Finally, regarding the containment of external shocks it was important that in the Hungarian system of indirect economic control the central regulation of the profitmotivated enterprises occurs, in principle, on the basis of average costs. This aspect of the regulations implies that a continuous operation of the enterprises is possible only with a steady growth of enterprise profits. If there is an appreciable fall in profits, or if an enterprise incurs losses, these gaps can be only covered by means of interference, i.e., subsidies or tax remissions. This feature led to government control of wages, allowed nominal wages to rise only in those enterprises where profits were increasing; therefore, in case of inflation wage increases were unadvisable.

These four, closely interrelated features, which are difficult to change, did not allow that the main instrument of protection against external shocks could be the exchange rate policy.

In a "small" market economy the movement of exchange rates might maintain equilibrium in the balance of payments, even under deteriorating market conditions. But the changes involved do not correspond to the spirit of the Hungarian economic control system, or any socialist planned economy, since they would require considerable shifts in relative incomes even if the process of adaptation were otherwise smooth and undisturbed. If, in addition, the adaptation

process is slow and inconsistent, as is shown by a few examples of market economies in the leading industrial countries, then it is highly likely that adaptation to the external shocks would entail accelerating inflation, chronic unemployment, or both. The difficulties were enhanced since the alternative of restoring the economic control methods through plan-instructions was discarded, but no decision was taken either as to the development of the or control system in the direction of enterprise autonomy.

It thus becomes understandable that the Hungarian economic leadership intended to react to the external shocks in a way that not only shifts in income relations, acceleration of inflation, unemployment, and a spontaneous labour dislocation should be prevented, but also the incomes of the enterprises should be kept in a framework corresponding to the regulatory system.

In order to attain these objectives, a wide range of economic levers was applied. Also, the hierarchical framework of the socialist economy was employed to communicate emphatically the expectations of the system's directors. The central authorities remained ready systematically to alter the behaviour of the enterprises, regardless of the declared guiding principle of the profit motive.

Let us first see what happened to the financial levers of the economy. The commercial exchange rates (until January 1976, the so-called "price coefficients")

were regularly changed. The forint has been repeatedly revalued against the leading western currencies.

Another important channel of adaptation to the world market situation was the revision from time to time of the officially fixed or regulated prices. Producer prices were adapted to world market conditions in three steps, on January 1st 1975, 1976, and 1977. The first revision of prices resulted in a 12.2 percent rise in the price level; the second in a 7.2 percent rise; and the third in a 0.3 percent rise for the socialist industry. (<u>Industrial</u> <u>producer Prices on 1st January, 1977</u>, Central Statistical Office, Budapest, 1977.)

The implementation of the commerical rates of exchange and of the official price changes was characterized by two main features. The first was that the activities of the authorities in determining the rates of exchange and prices were not shaped by uniform standards but by ad hoc considerations. The second was that efforts were made to level out, almost completely, the consequences of changes in prices and exchange rates on enterprise management with the aid of taxes and subsidies.

It is characteristic of the internal inconsistencies of the measures that in the course of setting the commercial rates of exchange, up to 1974 the nominal revaluation of the forint was lagging behind the increase in the costs of earning a unit of foreign exchange destined for convertible-

currency markets. Owing to the moderation of the rise in world market prices and to the faster-than-earlier rise of domestic forint prices, already in course for two years, a renewed revaluation of the forint has raised considerably above the commercial rate of exchange. It seems that the drastic revaluation of the forint in 1976 was not successful in improving the balance of trade.

In setting the officially regulated producer prices, the growth of world market prices and the shifts in relative prices were not followed according to uniform points of view. The rise in the domestic prices of particular products was generally smaller than the rise on the world market, but the decisive role in how much smaller the rise should be was played by particular viewpoints to be discussed later and not by the actual demand and supply conditions.

Perhaps the most important result of the frequently adjusted commercial rate of exchange and of official price changes has been that the state budget reduced the dispension among enterprise incomes. The purpose of this policy was to keep enterprise profits within acceptable limits, and that per unit profits of exports to the West should exceed profits derived from domestic sales, trying to stimulate the enterprises to increase western exports.

According to the rules of the 1968 reform, enterprise profit differentials were to be reduced. To accomplish this, state refunds were applied on a wide scale ; also, to

a smaller extent, production taxes were levied on exports. We may trace the results on the state budget of this policy to limit profit differences, and also note that the modification in the commercial rates of exchange up to 1974 - 75 reduced the extent and ratio of state refunds; after 1976, however refunds began to increase sharply.

To sum up, in 1974 the subsidies intended to relieve the pressure of rising import prices increased to about tenfold of the level prior to the price explosion and attained about 30 percent of the total value of the trade transacted in currencies other than the ruble. Since then, under the effect of changes in producer prices, this kind of subsidy fell to one third of its level in 1974, but it remains quite substantial.

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The practice of regulation reviewed above successfully implements the policy of full employment and relative price stability. In this connection, the central regulation of the outflow of wages and the containment of inflationary pressure seems particularly successful.

At the same time, the method of regulations applied in Hungary does not seem flexible enough in regard to adaptation

when there are substantial disturbances. The signs of favorable performances (which are difficult to judge objectively): the rather fast growth of manufacturing exports (and, within it, of engineering products) to the non-socialist markets, and the moderation of import elasticity, are probably not mainly the results of the containment mechanisms. Saving on imports was practically not promoted (except during a short period in 1975) either by rigid administrative restrictions or by adequate increases of import costs. The falling import elasticity (during the year of 1970) may thus be explained mainly by the fact that the economic units accepted moral suasion by central authorities anxious to restrict imports. Similarly, the results attained in increasing exports are mainly the consequences of the same methods, which have been complemented

only by the export premia for executives.

It is not unreasonable to assume that, if the profitlevelling effect of the budget had prevailed in enterprise management to a lesser extent, if the enterprises had been better exposed to the pressure of market effects, efforts both at boosting exports and at import substitution would have become more efficient. In addition, also the requirement of saving on investment and on intermediate inputs might have been successful. Hungary would have avoided the big and unjustified increase in incomplete investment projects and inventories. It should be understood, however, that with the

significant changes in the external market conditions the economic leadership could have exposed the enterprises to a strong market pressure only if it had improved the essential elements of the economic-financial regulatory system. The enterprises might have become capable of a better adaptation to the changes in the conditions of management only if they had been able to tolerate fluctuation in profits and even transitorily deficits, without interference on part of the central regulatory system. For this, however, some essential elements of the control system, the regulation of wages and development funds should have been considerably modified and the autonomy of the enterprises substantially expanded.

# Main Macro-Economic Indicators

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annual % changes in constant prices

	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1977 Billion Forin
National Income*	5.9	6.2	7.0	5.9	6.1	3.0	7.8	. 475.0
Absorption	11.3	-3.7	2.0	12.7	6.4	1.2	6.0	501.1
Total Consumption	5.4	3.1	3.7	6.9	4.7	2.1	4.2	353.3
of this private	5.0	3.4	3.9	6.1	4.9	1.6	4.3	306.8
Total Net Investment of this:	30.4	-21.4	-3.8	34.2	11.5	-1.4	11.0	147.8
Net Fixed Capital Formation	1.6	8.9	5.7	-5.6	39.7	-12.7	-3.7	99.0
Changes in unfinished investment								
Changes in inventories								
Gross Investment*	10.5	-0.8	4.0	8.9	13.2	-0.1	12.6	. 201.2
Real income per capita	4.2	3.3	4.7	6.2	4.4	0.8	4.5	
Nominal wages per workers	4.6	5.1	6.3	7.4	7.7	5.1	7.5	40280**
Real wages per workers	2.3	2.2	2.8	5.6	3.8	0.1	3.5	
Prices				A				
Producer Prices Consumer Prices	2.2	2.8	2.0 3.4	1.2 1.7	10.7 3.8	6.6 5.0	1.4 3.9	
Note: * According to the Hungari **Annual average wage in F	an defin 'orint.	nitions.						
Source: 3. pp. 55, 56, 64, 151,	152; 4.	р.				•		

# Hungarian Foreign Trade

# (in million dollars)

	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977
			3	lotal Mad	e		
Export	2532.2	3596.4	4458.9	5041.2	5730.2	6401.4	7533.6
Import Balance of Trade	2933.6 -401.4	3329.3 267.1	3845.2 613.7	5336.6 -295.4	6577.9 -847.7	7118.2 -716.8	8283.0 -749.4
			1	Ruble Amo	unt		
Export	1620.0	2439.1	2684.8	2814.2	3431.0	3910.4	4639.4
Import Balance of Trade	1824.8 -204.8	2169.9 269.2	2247 <b>.</b> 1 437 <b>.</b> 7	2635.9 178.3	3863.8 -432.8	4202.3 -291.9	4769.3 -129.9
			Not	n Ruble T	rade		
Export	912.2	1157.3	1774.1	2227.0	2299.2	2491.0	2894.2
Import Balance of Trade	1108.8 -196.6	1159.4 -2.1	1598.1 176.0	2700.7 -473.7	2714 <b>.</b> 1 -414.9	2915.9 -424.9	3513.7 -619.5
Note: The data were see below.	calculate	d by link	ing two e	xchange n	otes; for	details	
Valuta forint or forint/dollars	11.74	10.81	9.391	9,15	8.59	41.57	40.92
Valuta forint or forint/Ruble	13.044	13.044	13.044	13.04	4 13.044	35.0	35.0
Ruble/dollar	0.9	0.829	0.74	0.74	0.74	0.74	0.74
Source: 1.) p. 10;	2.) p. 25	57; 3.) p	. 83.				

# Changes in Hungarian Foreign Trade

# prices and in the terms of trade in dollar terms (Non Ruble account)

190.4
238.4
79.9
105.2
109.4
96.2

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Source: 1. pp. 408.

	·		Volum	ne index				1977		
		1970	) = 100	(annual	% changes	3)		- in billion	° of	
	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	forints	total	
Total	117.3	111.3	114.5	134.5	142.1	147.6	160.2	267.3	100.0	
	(117.3)	(94.8)	(102.9)	(117.5)	(105.6)	(103.8)	(108.6)			
Fuels, Electric Energy	114.6	120.6	128.9	138.0	164.1	168.0	169.4	29.9	11.2	
	(114.6)	(105.3)	(106.8)	(107.0)	(118.8)	(102.4)	(100.9)			
Raw Materials, Semi	112.2	109.4	117.1	131.0	131.6	138.6	151.3	129.8	48.6	
Finished Products, Spare Parts	(112.2)	(97.7)	(107.0)	(111.9)	(100.4)	(105.3)	(109.1)			
Machinery, Transport	139.1	125.0	116.0	153.5	184.5	181.9	204.5	56.4	21.1	
Equipment, Other Capital Goods	(139.1)	(89.9)	(92.7)	(132.4)	(120.1)	(98.6)	(112.4)			
Industrial Consumer	106.6	99.9	122.9	140.3	159.2	163.0	186.7	21.4	8.0	
Goods	(106.6)	(93.7)	(122.9)	(114.1)	(113.4)	(102,4)	(114.6)			
Raw Materials for the	109.8	96.7	84.6	106.9	92.2	103.3	104.3	29.8	11.1	
Food Industry, Live	(109.8)	(88.1)	(87.5)	(126.4)	(86.2)	(112.0)	(101.0)			

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Foreign Trade: Import

Source: 1, pp. 28, 31.

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			Volume	index				1977		
		1970 =		- in billion	% of					
	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	forints	total	
Total	107.6 (107.6)	128.4 (119.3)	144.5 (112.3)	149.6 (103.6)	156.8 (104.8)	169.6 (108.1)	191.0 (112.7)	238.6	100.0	
Fuels, Electric Energy	74.6 (74.6)	130.7 (175.2)	96.7 (74.0)	62.2 (64.3)	119.2 (191.5)	147.4 (123.6)	153.9 (104.4)	5.8	2.4	
Raw Materials, Semi Finished Products, Spare Parts	98.9 (98.9)	121.1 (122.4)	140.2 (115.6)	131.1 (93.4)	131.3 (100.1)	160.6 (122.3)	185.0 (115.2)	71.6	30.0	
Machinery, Transport Equipment, Other Capital Goods	108.2 (108.2)	136.8 (126.4)	161.4 (117.8)	180.9 (112.0)	203.8 (112.6)	211.7 (103.8)	234.0 (110.6)	63.7	26.7	
Industrial Consumer Goods	119.9 (119.9)	142.8 (119.1)	150.9 (105.7)	152.8 (101.2)	155.9 (102.0)	167.9 (107.6)	188.9 (112.4)	42.5	17.9	
Raw Materials for the Food Industry, Live Animals, Food Products	108.6 (108.6)	117.6 (107.7)	129.6 (110.7)	140.9 (108.7)	140.0 (99.3)	136.4 (97.4)	153.2 (112.4)	54.9	23.0	

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Source: 1, pp. 34, 37.

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# Foreign Trade: Import

# Accounting Ruble

								1077		
		•	Volun	ne index	~ .		1977			
		19	$\frac{100}{100} = 100$	(annua)	Z change	28)		-in billion	% of	
	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	forints	total	
Total	117.8	112.7	116.2	135.3	157.5	151.6	161.8	123.5	100.0	
	(117.8)	(95.6)	(103.1)	(116.4)	(116.4)	(96.2)	(106.7)			
Fuels, Electric Energy	110.4	116.4	118.4	122.7	129.6	140.5	150.0	21.1	17.1	
	(110.4)	(105.5)	(101.5)	(103.7)	(105.5)	(108.3)	(106.8)			
Raw Materials, Semi	112.9	114.7	117.0	126.1	143.4	135.4	141.5	49.4	0.0	
Finished Products, Spare Parts	(112.9)	(101.5)	(102.1)	(107.6)	(113.7)	(94.4)	(104.5)			
Machinery, Transport	135.3	115.8	111.9	152.4	189.1	177.4	193.8	36.0	29.1	
Equipment, Other Capital Goods	(135,3)	(85.5)	(96.7)	(136.1)	(124.1)	(93.8)	(109.2)			
Industrial Consumer	105.3	102.3	128.8	150.4	179.6	168.7	184.7	13.8	11.2	
Goods	(105.3)	(97.1)	(125.9)	(116.7)	(119.4)	(93.9)	(109.6)			
Raw Materials for the	107.7	86.2	89.8	107.3	117.8	119.3	121.0	3.2	2.4	
Food Industry, Live Animals, Food Products	(107.7)	(80.0)	(104.2)	(119.6)	(109.7)	(101.3)	(101.4)			

Source: 1, pp. 29, 32.

# Foreign Trade: Export

# Accounting Ruble

			Volum	ne index				1977	
		<u> </u>							% of
	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	forints	total
Total	112.6 (112.6)	138.6 (123.1)	151.8 (109.6)	157.2 (103.4)	167.0 (106.3)	173.5 (103.8)	195.4 (114.9)	120.2	100.0
Fuels, Electric Energy	135.8 (135.8)	139.3 (102.6)	95.6 (68.6)	99.3 (103.9)	72.3 (72.8)	66.6 (92.1)	78.3 (117.6)	0.6	0.5
Raw Materials, Semi Finished Products, Spare Parts	106.6 (106.6)	135.9 (127.4)	152.0 (111.9)	146.1 (96.1)	162.8 (111.3)	174.0 (106.8)	215.1 (123.5)	28.8	24.0
Machinery, Transport Equipment, Other Capital Goods	108.5 (108.5)	136.5 (125.8)	163.7 (119.5)	178.6 (109.1)	193.6 (108.4)	202.5 (104.3)	228.6 (112.9)	50.6	42.0
Industrial Consumer Goods	125.2 (125.2)	151.8 (121.4)	155.5 (102.2)	153.4 (98.6)	160.1 (104.4)	161.5 (100.9)	184.0 (113.9)	22.2	18.5
Raw Materials for the Food Industry, Live Animals, Food Products	111.3 (111.3)	128.8 (115.8)	124.0 (96.3)	132.8 (107.1)	128.1 (96.4)	131.1 (102.4)	(109.2)	18.0	15.0

Source: 1, pp. 32, 35.

F	oreign	Trade:	Non	Ruble	Import
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			Volu	ne index				1977	
		1970 = 100 (annual % changes)							7 of
	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	forints	total
Total	115.8 (115.8)	109.1 (94.1)	111.8 (102.5)	131.4 (117.6)	123.9 (94.2)	138.6 (111.8)	152.7 (110.1)	143.8	100.0
Fuels, Electric Energy	195.2 (195.2)	206.3 (105.7)	301.3 (146.0)	331.6 (110.1)	575.5 (173.7)	531.9 (92.4)	490.1 (92.1)	8.8	6.1
Raw Materials, Semi Finished Products, Spare Parts	112.0 (112.0)	104.5 (93.4)	118.6 (113.5)	135.7 (114.5)	122.3 (90.1)	139.0 (113.6)	156.0 (112.2)	80.4	55.9
Machinery, Transport Equipment, Other Capital Goods	145.7 (145.7)	152.5 (104.7)	124.8 (81.8)	151.8 (121.7)	, 163.7 (107.8)	178.7 (109.2)	212.2 (118.7)	20.4	14.2
Industrial Consumer Goods	108.9 (108.9)	91.2 (83.8)	105.2 (115.3)	111.0 (105.6)	104.6 (94.2)	130.8 (124.9)	163.6 (125.2)	7.6	5.3
Raw Materials for the Food Industry, Live Animals, Food Products	109.4 (109.4)	100.4 (91.8)	83.6 (83.3)	106.8 (127.6)	87.6 (81.9)	99,6 (113.8)	/100.4 (100.7)	26.6	18.5

Source: 1, pp. 27, 30.

		<u>, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , </u>	Volu	ae index			,	1977	,
	4 <b>000-1</b>	19	070 = 100	(annua)	L % change	es)		in billion	% of
	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	forints	total
Total	99.4 (99.4)	111.9 (112.5)	131.8 (117.9)	136.0 (103.1)	140.4 (103.3)	158.3 (112.8)	174.8 (110.4)	118.4	100.0
Fuels, Electric Energy	44.4 (44.4)	125.4 (281.9)	91.3 (72.8)	48.1 (52.6)	130.0 (270.4)	165.3 (127.1)	173.2 (104.7)	5.2	4.4
Raw Materials, Semi Finished Products, Spare Parts	94.2 (94.2)	111.8 (118.7)	132.3 (118.3)	118.1 (89.2)	109.1 (92.4)	145.8 (133.6)	161.0 (110.4)	42.8	36.2
Machinery, Transport Equipment, Other Capital Goods	103.2 (103.2)	129.9 (126.0)	135.5 (104.3)	189.9 (140.1)	271.1 (142.7)	275.5 (101.6)	281.3 (102.1)	13.2	11.1
Industrial Consumer Goods	107.5 (107.5)	122.0 (113.4)	138.7 (113.8)	148.2 (106.9)	144.1 (97.2)	168.3 (116.8)	186.7 (111.0)	20.3	17.1
Raw Materials for the Food Industry, Live Animals, Food Products	105.7 (105.7)	106.6 (100.9)	132.7 (124.5)	145.5 (109.6)	147.6 (101.4)	140.5 (95.2)	160.3 (114.1)	36.9	31.2

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Source: 1, p. 33, 36.

### Foreign Trade Price Indices: Import - (In forint terms)

1970=100 (annual % changes)

	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977
Total	101.7 (101.7)	104.1 (102.4)	110.7 (106.3)	128.9 (116.7)	147.2 (114.2)	137.3 (93.3)	147.0 (107.0)
Fuels, electric energy	103.6 (103.6)	105.9 (102.3)	109.7 (103.6)	128.3 (117.0)	206.9 (161.3)	197.0 (95.2)	227.0 (115.6)
Raw materials, semi- finished products, spare parts	100.9 (100.9)	104.8 (103.8)	109.8 (104.8)	136.6 (124.4)	155.3 (113.7)	139.8 (90.0)	145.5 (104.1)
Machinery, transport equipment, other capital goods	101.0 (101.0)	102.2 (101.2)	104.6 (102.4)	108.4 (103.6)	114.8 (106.0)	117.8 (102.6)	123.3 (104.7)
Industrial consumer goods	100.6 (100.6)	101.7 (101.1)	104.1 (102.4)	108.8 (104.6)	114.8 (105.5)	112.3 (97.8)	114.8 (102.2)
Raw materials for the food industry, live animals, food products	106.7 (106.7)	106.4 (99.7)	140.8 (132.3)	166.7 (118.4)	177.8 (106.7)	152.9 (86.0)	188.8 (123.5)

Source: 1. pp. 28, 31

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roreign trade frice indices Expo	ST	Ε.
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(In forint terms)

	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977
Total	100.3 (100.3)	101.9 (101.6)	107.0 (105.0)	115.3 (107.7)	122.3 (106.1)	116.6 (95.4)	120.6 (103.4)
Fuels, electric energy	111.6 (111.6)	103.9 (93.1)	127.6 (122.8)	215.6 (169.0)	271.7 (126.0)	257.3 (94.7)	283.6 (110.1)
Raw materials, semi- finished products, spare parts	99.4 (99.4)	97.0 (97.6)	102.0 (105.4)	122.8 (120.2)	125.4 (102.2)	117.0 (93.3)	120.4 (102.9)
Machinery, transport equipment, other capital goods	99.4 (99.4)	100.7 (101.3)	101.6 (101.0)	102.8 (101.2)	112.9 (109.8)	112.2 (99.4)	115.8 (103.2)
Industrial consumer goods	98.9 (98.9)	98.0 (99.1)	99.4 (101.4)	105.6 (106.3)	114.6 (108.3)	103.8 (90.6)	108.3 (104.4)
Raw materials for the food industry, live animals, food products	103.3 (103.3)	112.7 (109.1)	126.8 (112.5)	130.8 (103.2)	135.9 (103.9)	131.6 (96.9)	136.0 (103.3)

Source: 1. pp. 34, 37

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### Foreign Price Indices, Export in Accounting Ruble

(In forint terms)

1970=100 (annual % changes)

	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977
Total	101.8 (101.8)	104.0 (102.2)	104.2 (100.2)	105.2 (100.9)	132.2 (125.7)	129.8 (98.2)	138.1 (106.4)
Fuels, electric energy	102.0 (102.0)	104.5 (102.5)	103.5 (99.1)	103.3 (99.8)	201.1 (194.7)	190.5 (94.8)	225.2 (118.2)
Raw materials, semi- finished products, spare parts	102.2 (102.2)	106.4 (104.1)	106.2 (99.8)	107.2 (101.0)	142.1 (132.5)	135.3 (95.2)	141.8 (104.8)
Machinery, transport equipment, other capital goods	101.3 (101.3)	101.5 (100.2)	102.5 (101.0)	103.5 (101.0)	109.6 (105.9)	114.0 (104.0)	119.2 (104.6)
Industrial consumer goods	101.0 (101.0)	101.4 (100.4)	102.4 (101.0)	103.9 (101.5)	109.6 (105.5)	110.8 (101.1)	113.3 (102.2)
Raw materials for the food industry, live animals, food products	102.4 (102.4)	104.7 (102.3)	104.6 (99.9)	106.7 (102.0)	127.2 (119.2)	117.7 (92.5)	118.7 (100.9)

Source: 1. pp. 26, 29.

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# Foreign Trade Price Indices: Non Ruble Import

(In forint terms)

1970=100 (annual % changes)

	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977
Total	102.2 (102.2)	104.4 (102.2)	121.6 (116.5)	169,6 (139,5)	170.2 (100.4)	150.9 (88.7)	162.5 (107.7)
Fuels, electric energy	120.8 (120.8)	118.2 (97.8)	166.6 (141.0)	342.4 (205.5)	320.3 (93.5)	308.4 (96.3)	330.0 (107.0)
Raw materials, semi- finished products, spare parts	98.7 (98.7)	101.5 (102.8)	112.7 (111.0)	170.4 (151.2)	167.7 (98.4)	145.0 (86.5)	150.2 (103.6)
Machinery, transport equipment, other capital goods	105.4 (105.4)	110.6 (104.9)	117.9 (106.6)	132.2 (112.1)	140.1 (106.0)	139.9 (99.8)	146.7 (104.9)
Industrial consumer goods	100.7 (100.7)	104.6 (103.8)	110.6 (105.7)	128.2 (115.9)	135.2 (105.5)	122.2 (90.4)	124.8 (102.1)
Raw materials for the food industry, live animals, food products	109.0 (109.0)	106.2 (97.4)	151.1 (142.3)	184.1 (121.9)	192.0 (104.3)	163.2 (85.0)	207.5 (127.2)

Source: 1. pp. 37, 30.

	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977
Total	99.6 (99.6)	100.2 (100.6)	100.7 (100.5)	102.0 (101.3)	117.0 (114.7)	112.4 (96.1)	116.0 (103.2)
Fuels, electric energy	98.8 (98.8)	98.1 (99.2)	98.4 (100.3)	98.1 (99.7)	205.7 (209.7)	191.9 (93.3)	234.7 (122.3)
Raw materials, semi- finished products, spare parts	101.1 (101.1)	101.0 (99.0)	101.3 (100.3)	102.5 (101.2)	120.2 (117.3)	112.8 (93.9)	117.8 (104.5)
Machinery, transport equipment, other capital goods	99.5 (99.5)	101.3 (101.8)	102.0 (100.7)	102.6 (100.6)	113.8 (110.9)	113.4 (99.7)	116.6 (102.8)
Industrial consumer goods	97.0 (97.0)	94.7 (97.6)	94.8 (100.2)	96.8 (102.2)	109.8 (113.4)	96.2 (87.6)	97.7 (101.6)
Raw materials for the food industry live animals, food products	102.1 (102.1)	105.3 (103.1)	106.0 (100.7)	107.9 (101.8)	133.1 (123.4)	135.3 (101.6)	141.1 (104.3)

### Foreign Trade Price Indices, Import in Accounting Ruble. (In forint terms)

1970=100 (annual % changes)

Source: 1, pp. 32, 35.

# Foreign Trade Price Indices: Non Ruble Export

# (In forint terms)

1970=100 (annual % changes)

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	<u>1971</u>	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977
Total	101.4 (101.4)	105.0 (103.6)	119.3 (113.6)	141.8 (118.9)	132.5 (93.4)	125.3 (94.5)	129.8 (103.6)
Fuels, electric energy	121.7 (121.7)	107.8 (88.6)	153.6 (142.5)	322.6 (210.1)	325.8 (101.0)	309.8 (95.1)	332.6 (107.4)
Raw materials, semi- finished products, spare parts	95 <b>.</b> 9 (95 <b>.</b> 9)	90.1 (94.0)	101.4 (112.6)	144.4 (142.4)	126.8 (87.8)	117.7 (92.9)	119.8 (101.8)
Machinery, transport equipment, other capital goods	101.4 (101.4)	102.9 (101.5)	103.8 (100.9)	109.2 (105.2)	112.7 (103.2)	111.0 (98.5)	116.1 (104.6)
Industrial consumer goods	103.8 (103.8)	106.6 (102.6)	112.8 (105.8)	130.4 (115.6)	129.0 (98.9)	121.9 (94.5)	131.2 (107.6)
Raw materials for the food industry, live animals, food products	105.1 (105.1)	120.7 (114.8)	145.6 (120.6)	151.5 (104.1)	140.6 (92.8)	133.2 (94.7)	137.0 (102.8)

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Source: 1. pp. 33, 36.

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# Foreign Trade Price Indices: Non Ruble Export

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(In dollar terms)

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1970=100 (annual % changes)

	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977
Total	101.4 (101.4)	114.0 (112.5)	149.1 (130.8)	181.9 (122.0)	181.0 (99.5)	180.4 (99.9)	190.4 (105.2)
Fuels, electric energy	121.7 (121.7)	117.1 (96.2)	192.0 (164.0)	413.9 (215.6)	445.0 (106.0)	445.1 (100.5)	488.0 (109.1)
Raw materials, semi- finished products, spare parts	95.9 (95.9)	97.8 (102.1)	125.8 (129.6)	185.3 (146.1)	173.2 (93.5)	169.5 (98.2)	175.8 (103.4)
Machinery, transport equipment, other capital goods	101.4 (101.4)	111.7 (110.2)	129.8 (116.1)	140.1 (108.0	153.9 (109.9)	159.8 (104.1)	170.3 (106.3)
Industrial consumer goods	103.8 (103.8)	115.8 (111.4)	141.0 (121.8)	167.3 (118.6)	176.2 (105.3)	175.5 (99.9)	192.5 (109.3)
Raw materials for the food industry, live animals, food products	105.1 (105.1)	131.1 (124.7)	182.0 (138.8)	104.3 (106.8)	192.1 (98.9)	191.8 (100.1)	201.0 (104.4)

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Source:

# Foreign Trade Price Indices, Non Ruble Import

(In dollar terms)

1970=100 (annual % changes)

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	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977
Total	102.2 (102.2)	113.4 (111.0)	152.0 (134.1)	217.6 (143.2)	232.5 (106.9)	217.3 (93.7)	238.4 (109.4)
Fuels, electric energy	120.8 (120.8)	128.4 (106.2)	208.2 (162.3)	439.3 (210.9)	437.5 (99.6)	444.1 (101.8)	484.2 (108.7)
Raw materials, semi- finished products, spare parts	98.7 (98.7)	110.2 (111.6)	140.9 (127.8)	218.6 (155.2)	229.1 (104.8)	208.8 (91.4)	220.4 (105.2)
Machinery, transport equipment, other capital goods	105.4 (105.4)	120.1 (113.9)	147.4 (122.7)	169.6 (115.0)	191.4 (112.9)	201.5 (105.5)	215.2 (106.6)
Industrial consumer goods	100.7 (100.7)	113.6 (112.7)	139.3 (121.7)	164.5 (118.0)	184.7 (112.4)	176.0 (95.5)	183.1 (103.7)
Raw materials for the food industry, live animals, food products	109.0 (109.0)	115.3 (105.8)	188.9 (163.8)	236.2 (107.0)	262.3 (111.1)	235.0 (89.8)	304.4 (129.2)

Source:

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### Sources

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- 2. Statistical Yearbook 1975. KSM. Budapest. 1976.
- 3. Hungarian Statistical Pocketbook 1978. KSM. Budapest.1978.
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