OUTSIDE ASSISTANCE

The role of external assistance in the implementation of the Five-Year Plan has been stated as follows:—“the role of external assistance in relation to the Plan will be to supplement the real resources of the country with commodities for which additional demands will be generated in the process of development but the domestic supplies of which are limited. External assistance would help to avoid dislocations and to maintain a certain measure of stability in the economy.”

External assistance has been received by India since 1951. The guiding principle in the acceptance of this assistance has been that it is only intended to supplement the resources of the country in the implementation of the Five-Year Plans and is to be primarily marginal in character. India has received substantial technical and financial assistance from these different sources.

Apart from the wheat loan from the U.S.A., wheat grants from Canada and Australia and the aid from the U.S.A. for procurement of commodities, the pace of utilisation of external assistance during the first four years of the Plan has rather been slow than it was thought of. Most of the economic aid has taken the form of special equipment and supplies not available locally. But for this help, the development programmes would have been hampered or slowed down. Finally the services of technical experts have been placed at the disposal of our development projects as well as training facilities for our students abroad.

The foreign assistance to India comes from the following sources:—

(1) Aids from United Nations and subsidiary bodies;
(2) Loans from World Bank;
(3) Aids from United States of America;
(4) Colombo Plan aids from—(a) Australia, (b) Canada, (c) New Zealand.
(5) Aids from Norway through United Nations;
(6) Aids from Foundations;
(7) Aids from Private parties.
(8) Russian aids and loans.
(9) Rumanian aid
(10) Japanese Aid.
(11) Aid from West Germany.

1. INTERNATIONAL BANK OF RECONSTRUCTION AND DEVELOPMENT AND WORLD BANK

1. Aids from International Bank of Reconstruction—Upto November 1957, India had received loans from the Bank totalling Rs. 176.05 crore. The schemes for which the loans were
given are as follows—(1) purchase of locomotives for the Indian railways (2) purchase of agricultural machinery such as tractors and bull-dozers required for reclamation of weed-infested and jungle lands (3) Bokro-Konar Project of D. V. C. (4) Second phase of D. V. C. Project (5) purchase of equipment and materials for railways (7) expansion and modernisation of Indian Iron and Steel Co. Ltd. (8) installation of thermal plants at Trombay (9) assistance to Industrial Credit and Investment Corporation of India (10) expansion programme of the Tata Iron and Steel Co.

2. The World Bank loans to India during the fiscal year which ended June 30, 1957 totalled 34,400,000 dollars and constituted one of the largest sums made available to any country during the period. The first loan announced in Dec. 1956 totalled 20 million dollars and went to Indian Iron and Steel Company. During March, the Bank loaned to Air India International 5.6 million dollars to help finance the dollar costs of three loan-ranged jet passenger airplanes. Air India also borrowed an additional 11.2 million dollars from five U.S. Commercial Banks to help finance the aircraft purchase. It was the first direct borrowing in the United States market.

Another loan announced in May, 1957 totalled 9.8 million dollars for extension of the Trombay Thermal Electric Power Plant near Bombay. The borrowers were Tata Hydro-Electric Power Supply Co. Ltd., Andhra Valley Power Supply Co. Ltd., and Tata Power Co. Ltd.

In 1958 the World Bank has approved of a loan equivalent to 35 million dollars to India to help meet the foreign exchange costs of a programme to improve and expand Indian Railways.

2. COLOMBO PLAN

The Colombo Plan was organised at Colombo in 1950 as a British Commonwealth venture “for a cooperative economic development of South and Southeast Asia”. The region with 660,000,000 people is economically backward, some politically unstable and therefore potentially vulnerable to various ailments. The Plan is consultative in character—each nation does what it can to further regional development but acts independently. The contributors to the Plan, called “donors” are Britain, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, United States and Japan. The recipients are India, Malaya, Thailand, Philippines, Pakistan, Burma, Ceylon, Laos, Nepal, South Vietnam, Indonesia and the three British dependencies of Singapore, Sarawak and North Borneo. Since its inception, donors have contributed about $5 billion in grants, loans and credits for irrigation, hydro-electric power and other projects, 4 billion coming from U. S.

The Colombo Report of 1957—This report which was issued at the end of December 1958, shows that the 15 Colombo Plan countries of South and South East Asia had incurred an estimated expenditure of nearly £1,700 million (about Rs. 2,210 crores) on the development in the public sector. The budgeted expenditure for 1958 is over £1,800 million (about Rs. 2,340 crores). India’s share was £963.5 (about Rs. 1,251.9 crores) for 1957-58. This represents more than
half of the total expenditure for the whole to the 15 recipient countries of the area.

Regarding India's aid to other countries, the Report says India has continued to give technical and economic assistance to Nepal and incurred an expenditure to about Rs. 7.5 million on development schemes and provision of services of technical personnel. India incurred an expenditure of about Rs. 2 million on the construction of Tribhuvan Rajpath in Nepal. The construction of the Kathmandu -Trisuli Bazar Road was almost complete and work on the improvement of air strips at Pokhara, Bhairawa and Biratnagar had been taken up.

India had, since the start of the Colombo Plan provided training facilities under Technical Co-operation Scheme for 886 nominees in various subjects. They came from Australia, Burma, Ceylon, Indonesia, Japan, Malaya, Nepal, New Zealand, North Borneo, Pakistan, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand and Vietnam.

Australian Aid—(1) Supply of wheat and flour valued at Rs. 3.7 crores in 1951-52, the period of India’s acute food shortage.
(2) Counterpart funds obtained by the Central Government from the sale of this produce (wheat and flour) were applied to the progress of the Tungabhadra Project in Mysore and Andhra Pradesh.
(3) Supply of earthmoving equipment and electrical installations for Tungabhadra and Ramagundam Projects.
(4) Supply of 2,000 rail wagons for India’s metre gauge lines and 24 diesel rail cars worth altogether Rs. 5 crores.
(5) 11 transmitters and studio and other equipments for All-India Radio valued at approximately Rs. 1 crore.
(6) Experimental and research equipment for research institutions dealing with rice, plant protection, wool testing, and dairying.
(7) Six mobile vans to the Ministry of Education and 40 sets of reference books.
(8) A fully equipped hospital vessel and floating dispensary for scattered population of Andaman and Nicobar Islands.
(9) Technical co-operation by visit of experts to India and sending Indian students to Australia.

Canadian Assistance—Record of capital allocations by years.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Amount</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1951-52</td>
<td>Wheat</td>
<td>10,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bombay State ($4,500,000)</td>
<td>4,352,775</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Locust control (from Bombay State)</td>
<td>135,685</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mayurakshi</td>
<td>500,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1952-53</td>
<td>Wheat</td>
<td>5,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Locomotive boilers</td>
<td>1,815,522</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mayurakshi</td>
<td>2,021,075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1953-54</td>
<td>Locomotives</td>
<td>11,000,970</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Commodities</td>
<td>5,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Umtru</td>
<td>1,201,956</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## OUTSIDE ASSISTANCE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Amount</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1954-55</td>
<td>Locomotives</td>
<td>10,479,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Generating sets</td>
<td>3,003,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Biological station</td>
<td>38,355</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>13,511,355</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1955-56</td>
<td>Kundah</td>
<td>13,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pest control (aircraft)</td>
<td>160,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Magnetometer survey</td>
<td>257,060</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>13,417,060</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1956-57</td>
<td>Reactor</td>
<td>5,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kundah</td>
<td>7,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Films and film strip</td>
<td>275</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>12,000,275</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1957-58</td>
<td>Reactor</td>
<td>2,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kundah</td>
<td>5,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Railway sleepers</td>
<td>3,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non-ferrous metals</td>
<td>10,815,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cobalt therapy units</td>
<td>120,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Audio-visual</td>
<td>65,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>21,000,000</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>100,956,673</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1957-58</td>
<td>Wheat—1st grant</td>
<td>$7,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2nd grant</td>
<td>8,000,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

New Zealand Aid—The actual net expenditure of technical assistance given by New Zealand to India up to December 31, 1957, totalled £81,000.

New Zealand contributions of capital assistance to India up to December 31, 1957, were as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Allocated</th>
<th>Transferred</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All India Medical Institute</td>
<td>1,000,000</td>
<td>1,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delhi Milk Scheme</td>
<td>800,000</td>
<td>400,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bombay milk supply</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>74,843</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kaira Co-operative Dairy</td>
<td>150,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aarey Milk Colony Hostel</td>
<td>85,000</td>
<td>85,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dairy Research Institute, Karnal</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>30,680</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factory, Anand</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>23,622</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Haringhata Farm, Calcutta</td>
<td>4,200</td>
<td>4,200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Artificial insemination equipment</td>
<td>14,000</td>
<td>14,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seed dressing equipment</td>
<td>6,000</td>
<td>3,361</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Major capital commitment of New Zealand to India now is the Delhi Milk Scheme, the final total cost of which may be £3,500,000. New Zealand has already transferred £800,000 and has pledged further contributions from its Colombo Plan budget.

### 3. UNITED STATES AID

Since August 15, 1947

(A) United States Government Aid:

1. Technical Assistance and Economic Aid Programs through June 30, 1958: 408.4
2. Agricultural Commodities Agreement, August 1956: 288.0
| (3) | Wheat Loan of 1951 | 190.0 |
| (4) | Ex-IM Bank Loan to India Signed May 1958 | 150.0 |
| (5) | Agricultural Commodities Distributed through Voluntary Agencies as of June 30, 1958 | 80.1 |
| (6) | DLF Loan to India Signed June 23, 1958 | 75.0 |
| (7) | Agricultural Commodities Agreement, June 23, 1958 | 49.3 |
| (8) | United States Contribution for Development of the Orissa Iron Ore Project, June 1958 | 20.0 |
| (9) | Milo (grain) Assistance in 1950-51 | 12.2 |
| (10) | Flood Relief Aid | 6.4 |
| (11) | India Wheat Loan Educational Exchange Program | 5.0 |
| (12) | Fulbright and Smith-Mundt Grants | 4.0 |
| (13) | Ocean Freight Assistance to Voluntary Agencies | 0.6 |
| (14) | PL 480, September 1958 | 238.0 |
| (15) | Development Loan Fund September 1958 | 100.0 |

Sub-total 1627.0

(Of which loans are $ 848.3 million and grants $ 440.7 million)

(B) Assistance from Private United States Organizations:

| (16) | Ford Foundation Grants | 26.9 |
| (17) | Rockefeller Grants | 6.0 |

4. RUMANIAN AID

Rumanian Government has agreed to provide a long term credit of Rs. 52,380,900 (£ 3,929,500) representing the total estimated value to the goods to be delivered and technical and other services to be rendered by Rumania for erection and construction of the publicly-owned refinery at Gauhati. The credit would bear interest at 2½ per cent per annum and a 15 p.c. of the total would be repaid in six instalments—first one 30 days after the signing of the agreement and the last one 30 days after the refinery had gone into full operation. The balance of 85 per cent of the total credit would be repayable in 10 instalments, of which the first two would be due on December 31, 1961 and the 10th on December 31, 1965. The Rumanian Government would buy Indian goods as far as possible against the credit. The agreement in question was signed on October 20, 1958.

5. THE FORD FOUNDATION’S AID TO INDIA

The Ford Foundation’s work in India began in the early autumn of 1951.

In the following nearly seven years, the Ford Foundation has concentrated largely on assisting the Government with financial aid in a broad range of programmes, nearly all of which are part of, or closely related to, India’s First and Second Five Year Plans for development. In general, these Government programmes fall into five main groups; rural development, with special emphasis on training men and women for village work; development of business and industry; advancement of education; strengthening of public administration, and cultural interchange.
All Government programmes receiving Foundation assistance are planned, directed and administered by the Government of India, through the Planning Commission and other appropriate Ministries. The Foundation’s role is to discuss and formulate with the appropriate Government agencies, individual programmes which are consistent with Foundation policies and objectives and suitable for Foundation support.

In general, the Foundation makes funds available over a period of 3 years, paying all costs the first year, half the second year, and one third the third year. The Indian Central and State Governments make up the balance, and bear the whole costs of the project after Foundation assistance ends.

A few special projects involving selected private groups or agencies, not the Indian Government, have been granted assistance. These projects fall into the five main fields outlined above—rural development, education, etc. As with the Government projects, all these private projects are directed and administered by the grantee, not the Foundation.

Summary of Indian Programmes receiving Ford Foundation Support

Rural Development

2. 43 Training Centres for Village Extension Workers, 1952—Amount of Grant $1,873,485.
8. Training of Project Executives and Officers, 1953—Amount of Grant $241,895.
11. Production of Four Films on Village Development, 1953, 1954, 1955—Amount of Grant (Two films only; others paid out of other extension training grants) $122,000.
13. Allahabad Agricultural Institute, 1951—Amount of Grant $940,000.
17. Tenth International Conference of Agricultural Economists, 1958—Amount of Grant—$40,000.
20. Strengthening the Role of Village Teachers in Rural Development Areas, 1956—Amount of Grant—$800,000.
21. Strengthening of Agricultural Extension and Information Services, 1957—Amount of Grant—$783,000.
22. Research and Writing on Village Life 1957—Amount of Grant—$14,000.
23. Experimental Programme in Rural Health Services 1957—Amount of Grant—$205,500.
(Total for Rural Development—$10,543,341).

Industrial and Business Development

1. International Planning and Study Team on Small Industries Development, 1953—Amount of Grant—$76,178.
6. Training and Research for Establishment of a Manpower Directorate, 1956—Amount of Grant—$34,000.
9. Training of Indian Engineers in U.S. Steel Industry, 1957—Amount of Grant—$1,755,000.
11. Industrial Design Exhibition, 1957—Amount of Grant—$66,000.
14. Advisory Team on Handicrafts, 1957—Amount of Grant—$70,000.
   (Total for Industrial and Business Development—$6,770,600).

   EDUCATION

3. Study Tour of Indian Rural Educators, 1954—Amount of Grant—$26,000.
5. Four Workshops in Writing for New Literates—Amount of Grant, 1953-54—$12,630.
8. Education for Rural Areas 1955—Amount of Grant—$1,745,00.
12. Economic and Social Science Research, 1955—Amount of Grant—

   Bombay University
   Delhi University
   Gokhale Institute
   Punjab University
   Madras University
   Utkal University

   $73,000
   $122,464
   $84,300
   $52,300
   $52,200
   $106,300

   $490,564

15. Experimental Syllabi for Interdisciplinary Courses in Indian Universities, 1955—Amount of Grant—$39,000.
18. English Language Teaching Institute, 1957—Amount of Grant—$685,000.
20. Literacy Education, 1957—Amount of Grant—$69,000.
   —Amount of Grant—Gokhale Institute...
   Delhi School of Economics...
   Massachusetts Institute of Technology...
   Lodhipur Institute, Shahjahanpur, U.P., 1958—Amount of
   Grant—$80,000.
22. Preceptonal and Tutorial Studies, 1958—Amount of Grant—
   $26,000.
   (Total for Education—$8,367,804).

Public Administration

To strengthen its administrative services, the Government of
India established in 1954 an Institute of Public Administration. Ford
Foundation has made available to the Government Funds towards
financing the Institute’s programme. Amount of Grant—$350,000.
   (Total for Public Administration—$350,000).

Other Projects

1. Community Development for Urban Areas, 1956—Amount of
   Grant—$25,000.
2. Urban Planning Team for Delhi Area, 1957—Amount of
   Grant—$235,200.
3. Gandhi Memorial Centre, Harijan Colony, Delhi, 1952-55—
   Amount of Grant—$98,100.
4. Delhi Orientation and Training Centre for Foreign Techni-
   cians, 1954-60—Amount of Grant—$184,177.
5. Chair in International Law, 1597-58—Amount of Grant—
   $189,500.
6. Research and Training on Indian Legal Problems—Amount
   of Grant—Indian Law Institute...
   Institute of International Education...
7. Summer Workshop on Indian Legal Problems at
   Stanford University, 1957—Amount of Grant...
8. Cultural Interchange: several projects, 1953-55—Amount
   of Grant—$226,108.
   (Total for other projects—$1,218,085).

GRANT SUMMARY

(1952-1958)

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rural Development</td>
<td>$10,593,341</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrial and Bustees Development</td>
<td>$6,770,600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>$8,367,804</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Administration</td>
<td>$350,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Projects</td>
<td>$1,218,085</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Grand Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>$27,299,830</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6. THE ROCKEFELLER FOUNDATION 1920-1957

The work of the Rockefeller Foundation in India began in Madras Presidency in 1920 with hookworm studies and control. Since that date, its personnel has continuously developed health and medical programme in co-operation with Central and State Governments. Early emphasis was given to public health services, field services and training of personnel. Specific projects have been assisted from time to time for the study and control of hookworm and malaria, the development of rural health centres, rural sanitation and nursing education, nutrition and public health laboratory services; and in recent years, support has been given to research in virus diseases, medical education and research and population studies.

To promote public health training, the Rockefeller Foundation contributed towards the building and equipment of All India Institute of Public Health and Hygiene in Calcutta, which serves both as a training and research centre on a nation-wide basis. In all its co-operation projects, the preparation of trained personnel received special attention. Foreign fellowship grants assisted many key medical and public health officers in India.

At present, the Rockefeller Foundation is co-operating with the Indian Council of Medical Research which has established a Virus Research Centre in Poona, the Foundation contributing equipment, supervisory staff and some funds. The Centre is conducting its field investigations, collections and virological study of human disease. Besides, it is continuing its work on the enteric viruses as a possible cause of Jamshedpur Fever and on the encephalitis in children which occurred in epidemic form in 1956.

In an effort to improve and expand medical education greater emphasis is placed on the training of more and better teachers in medicine through local fellowships, foreign fellowships, travel grants and grants-in-aid. The Indian Council of Medical Research/Rockefeller Foundation local fellowship programme shows good progress.

The subject of population growth and control continued. A new study under the auspices of the All India Institute of Hygiene and Public Health, Calcutta was developed and finances provided by the Population Council of New York. The field testing of simple methods of family limitation, education of the public, implementation by a minimum of technical or professional personnel at village level will be conducted. The office of the Foundation in India is—The Rockefeller Foundation of New York, Indian Red Cross Building, New Delhi 2, India.

7. NORWEGIAN AID

A tripartite project was started in 1953 on the basis of an agreement between United Nations, the Government of India and the Government of Norway, in October 1952, Neendakara village in Kerala, 10 miles from Quilon, was selected for the location for Fisheries-cum-Community Development Project. The scope of the project originally envisaged by the Norwegian Foundation in 1952 has sur-
passed expectations. The project is expected to be continued for two
or three years more. In the form of equipment and experts,
Norwegian assistance has amounted to about Rs. 177 lakhs since the
inception of the project, while the internal rupee expenditure is being
shared equally by the Governments of India and Kerala. Norwegian
Government has now decided to appoint one of its senior officials a
Director of the Project.

Introduction of mechanised fishing off the Kerala coast, training
of local fishermen to man these boats and setting up of an ice and
cold storage plant—these are some of the major achievements of the
project. Fishing boats fitted with motors are now employed by the
fisherman for the first time. The Indo-Norwegian experts have
trained 140 fishermen in improved methods of fishing. Health ser-
VICES including a hospital and dispensary have been established. From
a nearby lake fresh water is supplied to an area comprising about
100,000 inhabitants.

8. JAPANESE LOAN

Japan has given a loan of 18 billion yen (about $50 million in
February 1958, and has offered a credit of 10 million in 1958.

9. RUSSIAN LOAN

1. In February 1955 an agreement on construction by the Soviet
Union in India of an iron and steel works with an annual production
capacity of 1,300,000 tons of steel was signed between the two
countries. For the construction of the works, the U.S.S.R. has granted
India a credit to 630 million rupees at 2.5 per cent interest to be paid
off in Indian rupees within 12 years. The Soviet Union will have no
share in the capital invested in the works and will not participate in
its management.

2. An agreement was reached between U.S.S.R. and India on
granting the latter another Soviet credit of 600,000,000 rupees which
India earmarked for use for the development of the coal, power and
heavy engineering industries.

3. The Soviet Union has allocated 10,000,000 rubles as part of
its contribution to the UNESCO Technical Assistance Fund for
starting Bombay Technological Institute.

4. In 1957 an agreement was signed between the Soviet Union
and India under which the Soviet side undertook to help build a
number of major industrial projects, including works to manufacture
heavy machines, mining equipment, optical glass and powerful thermal
stations in Nevelo and coal producing and processing industries
in the Kobra area.

9. ASSISTANCE FROM U. K.

Colombo Plan—Upto June 1958, the United Kingdom Government
had supplied or offered to India equipment costing about £233,000
(Rs. 30 lakhs). In addition, it had provided 106 experts for services
in India and training in the U.K. for 615 Indians.
Outside Assistance

Pensions Repayment—In March 1958, the United Kingdom Government paid to the Government of India £12 million (Rs. 16 crores) in anticipation of sums due to India in later years under Sterling Pension arrangement.

Financial Assistance—Following a meeting at Washington in August, 1958, called by the World Bank to discuss aid for India, the U.K. Government has agreed to give India a credit of £38.5 million (Rs. 52 crores). This is made up of £10 million in the form of a further advance payment of sums due to India under sterling Pension arrangement and £28.5 million in the form of credit available for meeting payments due to U.K. suppliers.

Technical Education—In December 1958, the United Kingdom Government announced that in conjunction with U.K. industry, it would make available to the Government of India grant of £500,000 (Rs. 65 lakhs) towards the establishment of a new engineering college in Delhi.

Steel Plant—For one million ton steel plant which British firms are building at Durgapur in West Bengal, the United Kingdom made available £26.5 million (Rs. 35.33 crores) in credit. Over the next three years 300 Indian technicians who will operate Durgapur will be trained in steel plants in Britain under the Colombo Plan at the expense of the British Government.

Industrial Collaboration—British Industry is collaborating in the industrial development of India, both in the public and private sectors, through large scale investment, manufacture in India by nearly 150 Indian firms under licensing and other arrangements of British products and industrial training in the United Kingdom of Indian technicians at the expense of British Industry.

India’s Assistance to Other Countries

Loan to Burma—India had advanced to Burma a loan of Rs. 15 crores, repayable in 24 equal half-yearly instalments starting from April 1, 1960.

Loan to Indonesia—India had given loan of Rs. 5 lakhs to Indonesia, the terms of payment of which not yet settled.

Loan to Nepal—The Government of India had loaned 3,100 tons of rice to Nepal to be repaid in kind. She has also given Nepal Rs. 10 crores for a period of five years ending March 1961 in the shape of cash grants as well as contribution towards the cost of development schemes.

Aid to Sikkim—India was giving aid of Rs. 307 lakhs to cover the entire expenditure of Sikkim’s Seven Year’s Development Plan which commenced in 1956. A loan of Rs. 22 lakhs for the construction of an aerial ropeway, payable in 15 equal instalments had been given to the State. Interest would be charged at 4 p.c. per annum.
SCHEDULED CASTES & TRIBES IN INDIA

Scheduled Castes, Tribes and Backward Classes—There are certain classes of people among the population of India who are known as Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Backward Classes. These classes include 779 Scheduled Castes, 245 Scheduled Tribes and 193 nomadic tribes, besides a number of unspecified groups. The tribals of India or aboriginals number about 22 millions forming 6.25 per cent of the total population. The Scheduled Tribes live in remote forest regions, chiefly in Bombay, Madhya Pradesh, Bihar, Orissa, West Bengal and Assam. These tribes are found in different levels of development—cultural or otherwise.

Special Safeguards—The Government of India have provided special safeguards for these Castes, Tribes and Backward Classes. These safeguards are listed below—

(1) Indian Constitution—Under Articles 15, 16 and 17 of the Indian Constitution, the State will not discriminate between any citizens on ground of religion, race, caste, sex, place of birth. Under Article 19, the right to freedom is circumscribed by authorising the State to place reasonable restrictions for the protection of the interests of Scheduled Tribes. Under Article 46, the State should promote the educational, economic, and political interests of the weaker section of the people and in particular the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes and protect them from social injustice and all forms of exploitation. Article 25 empowers the State to throw open Hindu religious institutions of a public character. Under Article 17, untouchability is abolished and its practice in any form forbidden. Article 29 provides that no citizen can be denied admission into any educational institution maintained by the State or aided by it on grounds of religion, race, caste or language. Under Article 164 the States of Bihar, Madhya Pradesh and Orissa should have a Minister in charge of Tribal Welfare, who may, in addition, be in charge of the welfare of Scheduled Castes and Tribes or any other work of allied nature. The VIth and VIIth Schedules of the Constitution also provide for the administration and control of Scheduled areas and Scheduled Tribes and of Tribal areas of Assam by providing Tribal Advisory Council for Tribal areas.

Under Article 275 grants-in-aid are to be paid out of the Consolidated Fund of India for the promotion of the welfare of Scheduled Tribes and Scheduled areas.

Under Articles 330, 332 and 334, special representations in the Parliament and State Legislatures have been accorded to the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes for 10 years.

(2) Special Laws—The Untouchability (Offences) Act of 1955 has been passed which provides penalties for preventing a person on the ground of untouchability, from entering a place of public worship,
offering prayers therein, or taking waters from a sacred tank, well or spring. Denying access to any shop, public restaurant, public hospital or educational institution, hotel or any place of public entertainment, use of any road, river, well, tank, water tap, bathing-ghat, cremation ground, Dharamsala etc have been penalised. The Act also lays down penalties for refusing to sell goods or render services to a Harijan. There are also many legislative measures passed by the several States for removing social disabilities among the Hindus, such as Bihar Harijan (Removal of Civil Disabilities) Act 1949; Bombay Harijan (Removal of Civil Disabilities Act) 1947 etc. etc.

(3) Administration of Scheduled and Tribal Areas—Tribal Advisory Councils have been set up in Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Madras, Punjab, Rajasthan, Bombay, Andhra Pradesh, West Bengal and Orissa. These Councils advise the Governor on such matters, concerning the welfare of the Scheduled Tribes and the development of the Scheduled Areas as may be referred to them.

Part X of the Constitution read with the 5th and 6th Schedules provides for the administration and control of the Scheduled Areas and Scheduled Tribes in States other than Assam and for the administration of Tribal areas of Assam, one Regional Council and 5 District Councils have been set up in the districts of the United Khasi-Jainta Hills, Garo Hills, Mizo Hills, North Cachar Hills and Mikir Hills. The Councils possess wide legislative and rule-making powers and also certain financial and taxation powers.

(4) Welfare and other Agencies—In addition to above, under proviso to Article 164 (1) of the Constitution, Welfare Departments have been set up in Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Andhra Pradesh Assam, Bombay, Kerala, Madras, Mysore, Punjab, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal, Himachal Pradesh, Manipur and Tripura. A Special Officer has been appointed by the President under Article 338 of the Indian Constitution to investigate all matters relating to the safeguards for the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes and to submit report to the President on the working of these safeguards.

Facilities in the Government Services—The Government of India decided on January 26, 1950 that 12½ per cent of the vacancies for which recruitment is made by the open competition on all-India basis and 16½ per cent of the vacancies to which recruitment is made otherwise, should be reserved for the Scheduled Castes. As for Scheduled Tribes, vacancies are to be reserved at a uniform rate of 5 per cent in both open competition and otherwise. Where the recruitment is made on regional basis, the reservation should be in proportion to the population of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in the region, subject to the minimum reservation of 5 per cent for Scheduled Tribes. Minimum age limit has been raised by five years for Scheduled Tribe or Scheduled Caste candidates and examination fees have been reduced by three-fourths. The principle of reservation will also apply in cases where promotion is subject to the passing of a qualifying departmental examination.

Advisory Boards—The Central Advisory Boards have been formed by the Government of India to associate members of the Parliament and public workers with matters pertaining to the deve-
HINDUSTAN YEAR-BOOK

Development of tribal areas and welfare of the Scheduled Tribes and Scheduled Castes. One is the Tribal Welfare Board and other Harijan Welfare Board.

Educational Concessions and Scholarships—Special educational concessions are given by the Government to the students of the Scheduled Castes and Tribes, such as, free tuition, stipends, scholarships, provision of books etc. The Government of India have instituted special scholarships for these classes of students including overseas scholarships.

Tribal Research Institutes—Tribal research institutes have been started in Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan and West Bengal. The Departments of Anthropology is also carrying out extensive research on the social and cultural life of the Tribes.

Five-Year Plans—During the First Plan period (1951-56), India spent about Rs. 200 millions on welfare schemes for the Scheduled Tribes and the development of Scheduled and Tribal Areas. The provision is nearly three times as much in the Second Plan.

Agriculture and Craft—Agriculture and forests are the principal mainstay of the tribal people. Almost entire population who live in the interior hill districts of various States, practise shifting cultivation. The need for weaning away the tribals from primitive forms of agriculture and setting them permanently on land are engaging the urgent attention of the Central and State Governments. The scheme for controlling the practice of shifting cultivation has been started in Assam, Andhra, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Manipur and Tripura. The other works undertaken are—(1) establishment of demonstration farms (2) colonisation schemes (3) resettlement of tribal families (4) reclamation of land (5) distribution of seeds, fertilizers and bulls (6) producing wells and tanks (7) construction of bridle-paths and approach roads in inaccessible areas and hilly regions.

REPRESENTATIONS IN THE PARLIAMENT AND THE STATE ASSEMBLIES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parliament</th>
<th>Scheduled castes</th>
<th>Scheduled tribes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Andhra Pradesh</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assam</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bihar</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bombay</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kerala</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M. P.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madras</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mysore</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orissa</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punjab</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Rajasthan | 3 | 2 |
| Uttar Pradesh | 18 | |
| West Bengal | 6 | 2 |
| Jammu & Kashmir | 1 | |
| Delhi | 1 | |
| Himachal Pradesh | 1 | |
| Manipur | 1 | |
| Tripura | 1 | |
| Tripura | 1 | |

| Total | 76 | 31 |
### PROGRESS OF SCIENCE IN 1958

#### Legislative Scheduled Assembly castes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Castes</th>
<th>Tribes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Andhra Pradesh</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assam</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bihar</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bombay</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kerala</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M. P.</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madras</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mysore</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
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</table>

#### Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, 1951

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Scheduled Castes</th>
<th>Scheduled Tribes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>5,51,70,886</td>
<td>2,25,11,854</td>
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<tr>
<td>Andhra Pradesh</td>
<td>44,15,995</td>
<td>11,49,919</td>
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<td>Assam</td>
<td>4,24,044</td>
<td>17,61,434</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bihar</td>
<td>49,13,990</td>
<td>38,80,097</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bombay</td>
<td>52,02,077</td>
<td>37,43,408</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kerala</td>
<td>12,07,294</td>
<td>1,34,757</td>
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<tr>
<td>M. P.</td>
<td>39,12,205</td>
<td>48,44,128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madras</td>
<td>53,81,836</td>
<td>1,36,376</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mysore</td>
<td>25,83,142</td>
<td>80,402</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orissa</td>
<td>26,29,250</td>
<td>30,09,580</td>
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<td>Punjab</td>
<td>34,90,983</td>
<td>2,661</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rajasthan</td>
<td>25,02,202</td>
<td>17,74,278</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uttar Pradesh</td>
<td>1,31,00,398</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Bengal</td>
<td>47,43,713</td>
<td>15,66,868</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Andaman &amp; Nicobar IIs.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Delhi</td>
<td>2,68,530</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Himachal Pradesh</td>
<td>3,19,972</td>
<td>27,928</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laccadive, Minicoy &amp; Amindivi IIs</td>
<td></td>
<td>13,486</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manipur</td>
<td>28,647</td>
<td>1,94,239</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tripura</td>
<td>46,608</td>
<td>1,92,298</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
PROGRESS OF SCIENCE IN 1958

Conquest of South Pole

Sir Edmund Hillary, the co-conqueror of Mount Everest reached South Pole on January 3, 1958. Sir Edmund Hillary and his four colleagues from New Zealand are the third group of explorers in history to reach the Pole over land and the first in 47 years. Captain R. Amundson of Norway and Captain Robert F. Scott of England were the earlier explorers of the Antarctic. They had reached there in 1911-12. Another British party led by Dr. Vivian Fuchs reached South Pole on the 20th January, 1958.

Atom-Powered Submarine

A remarkable voyage was undertaken by the U. S. atom-powered submarine Nautilus which completed a submerged passage beneath the North Pole and under the Polar ice, pioneering a new sea lane between the Eatsern and Western hemispheres. The distance from London to Tokyo is now about 11,200 miles but by the route pioneered by Nautilus it would be only about 6,300 miles. Nautilus travelled 1,830 miles under the ice in 96 hours from Point Barrow to the Atlantic Ocean between Greenland and Spitsbergen.


The long-awaited report of the U. N. Scientific Committee on the effects of Atomic Radiation was made public in 1958, after two and half years of study by a group of scientists from different countries.

The report revealed general unanimity among the scientists on the known scientific facts. The committee agreed unanimously that fall-out from nuclear weapons tests is a hazard to mankind. The committee unequivocally deplored the dangers of radioactive fall-out from nuclear weapons tests to present and future generations. “Even the smallest amounts of radiations” it states “are liable to cause deleterious genetic and, perhaps also, somatic effects.” Somatic effects are injurious to the body as a whole, which may lead in the course of time to leukemia, cancer and shortening of life. Such damage is not transmitted by the individual to his offspring.

On the other hand, genetic damage is damage inflicted by exposure to radiation of the reproductive organs or gonads—the ovaries in the female and testes in the male. Exposure of the gonads to radiation, even in minute doses, is known to produce mutations or changes in genes. The vast majority of such mutations are deleterious.

An increased mutation rate, would probably lower the average intelligence quotient and reduce the life span of members of the human race. Once the genes have been altered there is no changing them back.

Although attempts have been made and are still being made, to develop ‘clean’ bomb, producing a minimum of fall-out, it is generally agreed that all above-ground nuclear explosions produce some amount
of radio-active debris. This is because all hydrogen bombs must incorporate a fission bomb of either uranium 235 or plutonium as a trigger to set off the fusion. Of these fission products, the most dangerous are strontium 90 which is deposited in bones and may lead to bone cancer, and cesium which gives off dangerous gamma radiations that may produce both somatic and genetic effects.

International Conference on the Principal Uses of Atomic Energy.

The second U. N. International Conference was held in Geneva, Switzerland in September 1958. The first meeting was held in Geneva in 1955. The Conference made clear that world prosperity from atomic power is not just around the corner. The efforts to get usable power from the atom centre on the two basic nuclear reactions—fission and fusion. This is the situation on each:

Fission, the process that takes place in the A-bomb, is the splitting of heavy atoms—uranium or plutonium. The fission reaction produces heat, and when kept under control in a reactor it can heat water into steam, which in turn drives an electric generator.

The world now has twelve reactors—three in Britain, eight in the United States, one in Russia. But they produces only 200,000 kilowatts (enough for a city of 200,000) and one of them can compete economically with conventional sources of power. The western scientists predict competitive power from fission in five years in areas where the cost of conventional power is high, such as in Western Europe, which imports fuel, and in ten years in low-cost areas such as the U. S.

Fusion, the process that takes place in the H-bomb, is the combining of light atoms, such as deuterium, a variant of hydrogen. The problem is that so far fusion cannot produced except in an uncontrolled explosion. It requires temperatures of around 100 million degrees Centigrade, and the reaction would be stopped if the particles touched the colder walls of a container. British and U. S. scientists have tried to use the “pinch effect”—an electrical current creating a magnetic field that briefly pinches deuterium gas away from the walls.

In September 1958, the U. S. and Britain, followed by Russia, announced declassification of all fusion research. It turned out that all three are working on the pinch and that none has yet succeeded. Dr. Edward Teller of the U. S. said economic use of fusion “may not be possible before the end of the Twentieth Century.” The British, backing away from earlier optimism, said it would be ten years before it is known whether fusion can be used at all.

Toward the Moon & the Sun

This is the chronology for race into space since October 4, 1957 to up-to-date—

Oct. 4, 1951. Russians launch Sputnik I; 184 pounds; maximum altitude 560 miles. Disintegrated after three months.

Nov. 3, 1957. Russians launch Sputnik II; 1,120 pounds, with a dog aboard; maximum altitude 1,056 miles. Disintegrated after four and one-half months.
Jan. 31, 1958. U.S. launches Explorer I; 30.3 pounds; maximum altitude 1,587 miles. Expected to orbit for three to five years.

March 17, 1958. U.S. launches Vanguard II; 3.25 pounds; maximum altitude 2,466 miles. Expected to orbit at least 200 years.

March 26, 1958. U.S. launches Explorer III; 31 pounds; maximum altitude 1,741 miles. Disintegrated after three months.

May 15, 1958. Russians launch Sputnik III; 2,925.53 pounds (including 2,129 pounds of instruments and a carrier of unspecified weight); maximum altitude 1,168 miles. Expected to disintegrate within Feb., 1959.

July 26, 1958. U.S. launches Explorer IV; 38.43 pounds (including 18.26 pounds of instruments); maximum altitude 1,380 miles. Expected to orbit for a few years.

Oct. 11, 1958. U.S. launches Pioneer I in an effort to hit or orbit the moon. Soared 71,300 miles, then fell back and disintegrated.

Nov. 8, 1958. U.S. launches Pioneer II in a second attempt to reach the moon. Crashed back after flight of 7,500 miles.


Jan. 2, 1959. U.S.S.R. launches a cosmic rocket named 'Lunik' which passed the moon on Jan. 3, and is now circling the sun as the 10th planet. The last stage of the rocket weighs 3,245.2 pounds and contains 796.5 pounds of instruments.

Achievements of the International Geophysical Year

The International geophysical year or IGY began July 1, 1957 and ended officially on 30th December 1958. It marked the successful conclusion of man's most ambitious effort to gain better knowledge of the earth and its environment. The accumulation of IGY data in three World Data centres will continue for many months after the formal closing of IGY. But the following are some of the high lights of the tentative findings of IGY—

(1) The successful launching of artificial satellites has ushered in the Space Age and has brought closer to realization the era of interplanetary travel. The placing of instrumented satellites in orbit, will inevitably lead to greatly increased knowledge of the earth, the moon and the solar system.

(2) An intense band of radiation, increasing in intensity with altitude to a height as yet undetermined, was discovered to begin at a height of 250 miles. The mysterious radiation zone indicates that a vast region of space around the earth is populated with charged particles, probably replenished by solar plasmas (ionized gases).

(3) A vast, mineral-rich region has been discovered in the Pacific. Millions of square miles of the Southwest Pacific bear a bottom sludge laden with nodules of manganese and iron with up to 1 per cent of cobalt mixed with copper. The value of these minerals is
estimated at about $500,000 per square mile, and the economics of
dredging up to the sludge "appear to be promising."

(4) New light has been shed upon weather and climate of the
past. For example, it has been found that during the past fifty years
or so the amount of precipitation in the Arctic has averaged twice that
of the Antarctic. These data provide clues to the future of weather
and climate.

(5) Recording of temperatures to a low of at least 124 degrees
below zero Fahrenheit in the Antarctic suggests the possible role of
this vast continent of cold in the formation of world weather.

(6) Three major counter-currents in the oceans have been found
and measured. One in the Atlantic flows beneath and opposite to the
Gulf Stream, traveling at the rate of eight miles per day some 9,000
feet beneath the surface. The second, at depths between 200 and 1,000
feet, flows against the surface equatorial current of the Pacific, trans-
porting a billion cubic feet of water per second. The third lies beneath
the surface 200 miles north of the Pacific equator, transporting
1.5 billion cubic feet per second. These findings hold great signi-
ficance for the dynamics of weather and climate and even for the loca-
tion and quantity of food stocks in the seas.

(7) Scientists were able to collect unprecedented data on the
interrelationships of phenomena in the upper atmosphere and terres-
trial events when the earth passed through a remarkably intense cloud
of solar gases on Feb. 10-11, 1958, which produced the most spectacular
and the best observed aurora in history. Other intense terrestrial
disturbances accompanied the auroral storm. Great electric currents
flowed through the crust of the earth. There was a steady decline
in the horizontal component of the earth's magnetic field, together
with a sharp dip in the volume of the radio noise that reached the
eye.

(8) During several voyages to Antarctica, supplemented by
balloon studies and an aircraft flight around the equator, deviations
were found in cosmic ray trajectories from those to be expected from
the classical description of the earth's magnetic field in space, which
should uniformly affect paths of charged particles. The equator for
cosmic rays turns out to be skewed west-ward by as much as 45
degrees. This points to disturbance of the earth's magnetic field by
other magnetic fields in space, probably associated with recurring
clouds of solar particles.

(9) So much more ice has been found in Antarctica, to depths of
14,000 feet, that the amount of ice and snow in the world must be
revised upward by about 40 per cent—from 3,240,000 cubic miles to
some 4,500,000 cubic miles. The revised figure is critical for the study
of the delicate balance of the heat and water regimen of the earth.

(10) The 6,000,000 square mile continent of Antarctica, instead
of being a single land-mass, now appears to be a complex of islands
and mountains hidden under the vast ice-mantle.
INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS

1. CONFERENCE ON THE LAW OF THE SEA

The international conference on the law of the sea, convened by the United Nations drawn up by the International Law Commission, ended in Geneva on 28th April, 1958, after two months' work. The Final Act, was signed at a ceremony on 29th April. Seventeen countries signed the three conventions on the territorial seas and continuous zone, the high seas (including the position of land-locked countries) and the continental shelf, and 16 countries signed that on fishing and conservation of the resources of the high seas. An optional protocol providing for the compulsory jurisdiction of the International Court of Justice in disputes arising out of the conventions was signed by 13 countries. Among countries signing only the Final Act were the United Kingdom, the United States and the USSR. The documents remained open for signature until October 1958. To bring the conventions into force 22 ratifications or accessions are needed.

The High Seas: On the regime of the high seas, the conference adopted all 28 articles, and a number of draft resolutions, submitted by its second committee, and directed that the articles were to be combined in a convention, the preamble to which should include a clause to the effect that they were largely declaratory of existing international law, and another stating that they did not override specific conventions in force. Among the subjects covered by the articles are the freedom of the high seas; the nationality of ships; the immunity of warships and other government ships; the safety of navigation; the right of hot pursuit, the slave trade, piracy, and submarine cables and pipelines. A resolution expressing apprehension over nuclear tests on the high seas and referring the question to the United Nations General Assembly was also adopted.

Continental Shelf: The conference also adopted six articles concerning the continental shelf, and decided to embody them in a separate convention. The coastal state will, in accordance with these articles, exercise sovereign rights over the continental shelf for the purpose of exploring it and exploiting its natural resources. The first of these articles defines the continental shelf as follows:

"For the purpose of these articles the term continental shelf is used as referring (a) to the sea bed and subsoil of the submarine areas adjacent to the coast but outside the area of the territorial sea, to a depth of 200 metres or, beyond that limit, to where the depth of superjacent waters admits of the exploitation of the natural resources of the said area; (b) to the sea bed and subsoil of similar submarine areas adjacent to the coasts of islands.

Fishing and the Conservation of the Living Resources of the Sea: The conference adopted all but one of the articles together with an additional article proposed by the drafting committee and several resolutions. The articles, combined into a Convention on Fishing and the Conservation of the Living Resources
of the Sea, dealt with such matters as the right to fish on the high seas; the conservation of their living resources; and fisheries conducted by means of equipment embedded in the floor of the sea. They include a compulsory arbitration clause. A resolution concerning the special right of States of whose economy depended on fishing and calling for collaboration between States to secure just treatment of such cases, was also adopted.

The United Kingdom policy in the matter was stated as follows in the House of Commons on 28th April 1958: "No proposal before the Geneva Conference relating to the breadth of territorial waters and to exclusive fishing zones outside the territorial water has secured the necessary two-thirds majority. The position is therefore that the only generally recognised rule in international law is that the breadth of territorial waters is three miles and that all waters outside that limit are high seas. Claims to exclusive fishing outside the limits of territorial waters are not recognised by international law. In the absence of any international agreement on the subject to which they are a party, the British Government reserve all their rights to the freedom of the high seas."

Compromise Proposal: The United Kingdom delegation submitted in the conference on 2nd April, 1958, in view of the overwhelming opposition to its views, the following proposal: "The limit of the breadth of the territorial sea shall not extend beyond six miles. Extension to this limit shall not however affect existing rights of passage for aircraft and vessels, including warships, outside three miles." This proposal would have given the coastal state control over fishing up to six miles from its shores, and no further, while retaining freedom of passage for vessels and aircraft of other states outside a three mile limit.

On 15th April the United States similarly departed from its traditional adherence to the three-mile rule, and proposed a six-mile territorial sea plus a six-mile fishing zone, in which, however, the rights of other countries already fishing there would be reserved. The next day Canada proposed in conjunction with India and Mexico, a territorial sea of six miles, or up to twelve miles for states which had claimed more than six miles prior to 24th February, and that in all cases exclusive fishing rights would be enjoyed by the coastal states up to twelve miles from the base line. On 18th April the delegation reverted to its original plan, but now with a six-mile in place of a three-mile territorial sea, plus a six mile fishing zone. India and Mexico reverted to their previous proposal that each state should fix its own territorial sea up to a limit of twelve miles. The United States put forward a new compromise proposal to fix the maximum breadth of territorial sea at six miles plus a further zone of exclusive rights up to a maximum of twelve miles, with the proviso that foreign fishing vessels might continue to fish in the outer six-mile zone if they had fished there regularly for the last five years.

In the final voting where no proposal received the necessary two-thirds majority, the United States compromise resolution received the greatest number of votes (45 to 33, 7 abstentions). Among other articles approved in plenary session relating to the regime of
the territorial sea, which, together with an article on a contiguous zone, are to be combined in a separate convention, were those giving the coastal state sovereignty over its territorial sea and over the air space above it and sea bed and subsoil below it; passage through international straits; that fixing low-water mark as the base line from which the territorial sea is normally measured, and another concerning the base-line to be drawn in case of deeply indented coasts: this recognised the principle of straight lines drawn from point to point of the coast or its island fringe, but with strict reservations as to the definition of such coasts and islands and the method to be employed in drawing the base-lines. The maximum limit for the closing line for bays was fixed at 24 miles.

The article on the contiguous zone gives the coastal state the right to take measures necessarily to prevent and punish infringements of its customs, fiscal, immigration or sanitation arrangements in a zone extending not more than twelve miles from the base line from which the breadth of the territorial sea is measured.

II. NORTH ATLANTIC TREATY ORGANIZATION

The North Atlantic Council of Ministers held its annual spring meeting in Copenhagen from 5th to 7th May, 1958. There was an important development in the alliance in that it now had an increasing regard for the economic side having already progressed from the purely military to the political. The following communique was issued at the end of the meeting:

The foreign ministers of the 15 NATO countries have deepened and strengthened their mutual understanding and their unity of purpose. NATO, a defensive organisation, is now much more than merely a military alliance. It is becoming a true community of free nations. Within this community, to a degree unprecedented in history, countries are carrying out a policy of close co-operation in peace time without abandoning their independence. This development is one of the most important events in recent years.

Ministers recognised that political unity and the efficient organization of defence were not enough. Economic co-operation is also essential between the members of the alliance. Every effort should be made to ensure economic prosperity, notably by the expansion of international trade and by aid to under-developed countries. Consultations on methods and machinery for such co-operation will take place within the alliance.

During their consideration of the international situation, the ministers had a discussion on the question of a possible summit conference. The Council of Ministers believe that summit meetings are desirable if they offer prospects of reaching settlements on important questions. The Council considers that conferences at the summit are not the only way, or necessarily the best way of conducting negotiations or reducing international tensions. In any event, such conferences must be properly prepared and take place in a favourable atmosphere.
III. SUEZ COMPENSATION

A further step in the settlement of the compensation of the Suez stockholders was announced by the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development on June 11, 1958. The Bank stated that agreement had been reached on the text of a final agreement, expected to be signed in mid-July. The International Bank has been providing good office in discussions on the settlement.

Subsequent to the signature of the heads of agreement in Rome on April 29, 1958, by representatives of the Government of the United Arab Republic and of the Suez shareholders, further discussion between the parties, with International Bank participation, had been held in Cairo and subsequently in Paris during the past several months. As a result of these discussions, agreement was reached on the text of a final agreement, providing for the implementation of the Rome heads of agreement. "Heads of agreement" is a term denoting a type of preliminary agreement on main aspects of a problem, with details remaining for further implementation.

A last step in the settlement of the compensation of the Suez shareholders was taken on July 13, 1958 when the final agreement was signed in Geneva at the United Nations European office. The Bank helped to negotiate the settlement, and acting as fiscal agent would collect the payments from the United Arab Republic. The heads of agreement—a preliminary agreement on main points, with details to be discussed later—were signed in Rome on April 29.

IV. INTERNATIONAL LABOUR CONFERENCE

A major achievement of the forty-second session of the International Labour Conference, held in July 1958, in Geneva, was the adoption of a convention calling upon member states to take steps to eliminate discrimination in employment and occupation. The convention, adopted by a vote of 189 in favour, 24 against and 13 abstentions, is binding upon its parties. The recommendation is an advisory measure, dealing with the formulation and application of anti-discrimination policy. Countries ratifying the convention will undertake to pursue policies "designed to promote, by methods appropriate to national conditions and practices, equality of opportunity and treatment in respect to employment and occupation with a view to eliminating any discrimination. They also undertake to apply the convention to non-metropolitan territories in accordance with the constitution of the International Labour Organization.

The convention defines discrimination as "any distinction, exclusion or preference made on the basis of race, colour, sex, religion, political opinion, national extraction or social origin which has the effect of nullifying or impairing equality of opportunity or treatment in employment or occupation." It specifies, however, that preference based on the special requirements of a particular job does not constitute discrimination. In the course of the meetings, both the United States and the Soviet Union pledged their co-operation with a projected survey of the right to freedom of association in all ILO'S seventy-nine member countries.
Disorders in Lebanon: The assassination, on 8th May, 1958, of a newspaper editor who was an avowed opponent of the then Lebanese Govt., was made the occasion for inflammatory statements and called for strike action by opposition leaders in the Lebanon. Serious rioting broke out in Tripoli the following day, and later spread to other areas, including Beirut. United States Information Service libraries were sacked and burned in both Beirut and Tripoli. Later, the disturbances began to take on the character of an insurrection, with armed clashes between opponents of the Government and the police and to some extent the army. The Iraq Petroleum Company's pipeline from Iraq to Tripoli was sabotaged near the Syrian border, though damage was small and was swiftly repaired.

On 14th May, one of the opposition leaders, Saeb Sallam declared that the present strike would continue until the President, whom he accused, together with the Foreign Minister relinquished the Presidency and his regime vanished. On 21st May, President Chamoun, who had been reported to be seeking a second term of office, told a press conference that he had no intention of resigning as the Opposition demanded. On 27th May, the Lebanese Prime Minister, Sami Solh, declared that his Government did not intend to submit a Bill to Parliament amending the constitution to enable the President to seek re-election.

Lebanese Government Reactions: On 13th May, the Lebanese Foreign Minister, Dr. Charles Malik in a statement to the Press said that the events in the Lebanon could only be understood and appraised against the background of vast outside interference in the internal affairs of Lebanon and that was going on for months and indeed for years. He mentioned the United Arab Republic (UAR) whose press had unleashed the strongest possible attacks and vilifications upon the Lebanon and its Government. The object of these, he asserted, was to "destroy the Lebanon as a free, independent and sovereign State and to bring about a radical modification in its fundamental political orientation." At his press conference on 21st May, President Chamoun reiterated the charge of large-scale interference by the UAR.

Subsequently, the Lebanon appealed to the Arab League and on 22nd May to the United Nations Security Council against the interference of the UAR. The Security Council met to consider the complaint on 27th May, 1958.

United States Military Assistance: On 17th May, the United States Department issued a statement on U.S. military assistance to the Lebanon. It said: "Some time ago the United States concluded an agreement with the Government of the Lebanon to furnish that Government with certain arms and equipment for use in defending its territorial integrity and the independence of the Lebanon. Recently, the Government of Lebanon asked the United States Government to expedite the implementation of agreed programmes and in some instances to augment these programmes. In making this request, to which the United States agreed, the Government of Lebanon indicated that the integrity of Lebanon was threatened by persons acting under
alien influence.” The US statement concluded by saying that this additional assistance had as its sole purpose “to augment the capacity of the Lebanese security forces to control and prevent these subversive efforts and to facilitate the restoration of peace and quiet.”

The Political Situation: The former Lebanese administration headed by President Chamoun, with Sami Solh as Prime Minister had good relations with the West, and accepted the Eisenhower doctrine in the spring of 1957. It was supported by the Army, which was predominantly Christian, but was opposed by those extreme Moslem elements who favour Egyptian and Syrian policies. These were headed by Abdullah Yaffi and Saeb Sallam, leaders of the previous Government, which resigned in November 1956, on the issue of breaking diplomatic relations with the United Kingdom and France following their intervention in the Israeli-Egyptian hostilities. During general elections in June 1957, which were also marked by serious disorders, Abdullah Yaffi and Saeb Sallam were defeated and the present Government won a majority in the Chamber sufficient to enable the President to achieve a second term.

Security Council Action on Lebanon: The Security Council on June 11, 1958 decided to have an Observation Group to go to Lebanon immediately to ensure that there would be no illegal infiltration of the personnel or arms or other materials across the Lebanese borders, and authorised Secretary-General Dag Hammarskjold to take all necessary steps to implement the decision. Mr. Hammarskjold announced three days later that he had appointed Major-General Odd Bull of Norway as executive member of the Observation Group in charge of military observers. Also appointed in the Group were Mr. Gato Plaza of Equador and Mr. Rajevar Dayal of India. The Secretary-General asked the Chief of Staff of United Nations Truce Supervision Organisation to make available on a temporary basis a number of officers for service under the immediate authority of the Observation Group.

The Secretary-General arrived in Beirut on June 19 to be present at the first meeting of the Observation Group, and to meet briefly with Lebanese President Camille Chamoun, and the Prime Minister Sami es-Solh. Three days later he arrived in Cairo for talks with President Gamal Abdel Nasser of the United Arab Republic and returned to Beirut on June 24. The decision of the Security Council to establish an Observation Group followed a complaint filed by the Government of Lebanon on May 22, 1958 which called on the Council to consider “a situation arising from the intervention of the United Arab Republic in the internal affairs of Lebanon.” The letter declared that the intervention consisted, among other things, of infiltration of armed bands from Syria, the destruction of Lebanese life and property by such bands, the participation of United Arab Republic nationals in acts of terrorism and rebellion in Lebanon, the supplying of arms from Syria to persons and groups in Lebanon rebelling against established authorities, and the waging of a violent radio and press campaign in the United Arab Republic calling for strikes, demonstrations and the overthrow of the established authorities in Lebanon. The Security Council now began its discussions. The reso-
nation calling for establishment of the Observation Group, put forward by Sweden, was adopted by a vote of 10 in favour to none against, with the Soviet Union abstaining. The latest report on the situation was that the UNO Observation Group had now decided to withdraw from that country in view of the easing of the tension.

Middle East Crisis: The Security Council, which had been called into emergency session on July 15, 1958 to consider further development in connection with Lebanon's complaint of intervention by the United Arab Republic in its internal affairs, adjourned on July 22 without setting a date for its next meeting. At the Council meeting of July 15 Ambassador Henry Cabot Lodge of the United States, informed it of United States Marine landings in Lebanon. The United States forces, the US representative declared, were not there to engage in hostilities of any kind, much less fight a war. He said that the troops were sent for the sole purpose of helping the Government of Lebanon at its request, in its efforts to stabilize the situation, until such time as the United Nations could take the steps necessary to protect the independence and political integrity of Lebanon. The United States forces, he added, would afford security to the several thousand Americans living in Lebanon. "That is the total scope and objective of the United States assistance," he declared.

Referring to the United Nations Observation Group in Lebanon, Mr. Lodge said that the Group had "thus far been able to achieve limited success." While supporting the US move in the Lebanon, the United Kingdom representative introduced a draft resolution requesting the Secretary-General to consult with Lebanon and other interested States in order to make necessary arrangements to protect the territorial integrity of Lebanon and to ensure against infiltration of arms or personnel across the border.

Introducing a Soviet draft resolution calling on the United States to recall its troops from Lebanon forthwith, A. Sobolev of the USSR, charged that United States actions were a gross violation of the Charter, and a threat to international peace and security. Gunnar V. Jarring, of Sweden, in the course of the debate, declared that, in his Government's view, the arrival of United States troops in Lebanon had substantially altered the situation and that the Observation Group had become superfluous from a practical viewpoint and unsuitable from a political viewpoint. He presented a resolution calling for the withdrawal of the Group until further notice and pointing out that the United Nations was not authorised to intervene in the domestic affairs of a State.

On Friday July 18, the Council voted on the three resolutions presented by the United States, the Soviet Union and Sweden respectively. All three proposals were rejected. The civil war in Lebanon virtually came to an end with the landing of the U.S. marines in Beirut. A new president, Major-General Fuad Chehab was elected President in place of Mr. Chamoun on July 31, 1958 and this constituted a great blow to the American prestige in the Middle East.

Mr. Chamoun quitted his post on September 23 when the new President took over. A token withdrawal of the U.S. marines from Lebanon had already taken place.
Prominent People of the World in 1958

Premier El-Kassim (Iraq)

Dictator Sarit (Thailand)

Archbishop Makaroi (Cyprus)

Premier Nkrumah (Ghana)
PROMINENT PEOPLE OF THE WORLD IN 1958

Premier De Gaulle (France)

Rebel Chief Castro (Cuba)  Boris Pasternak (U.S.S.R.)
Revolution in Iraq: A major revolution took place in Iraq, a member of the Baghdad Pact. On July 14, 1958, a group of young officers of the Iraqi forces overthrew the regime of General Nuri-es-Said, a staunch supporter of the West. General Nuri, 70 years old, Iraq's strong man since he first became Premier in 1930, was killed by the rebels. King Faisal and his family were shot dead by the rebel forces. A new Government has been formed under General Abdul Karim Kaseem, as the Prime Minister and Iraq has been proclaimed as a republic. The new regime has not denounced the Baghdad Pact, nor has gone against the Western Powers.

Iraq is an independent State in Arabia. It was before the first world war, a Turkish province and became a state in 1919. The World War I brought the British on the scene. With the aid of the Arab nationalities, the British dislodged from power the Ottoman Turks who had misruled Iraq from 1534 to 1918. In spite of the fact that the British placed King Faisal I (son of Sherif Husain, ex-King of Arabia) on the throne of Iraq on August 23, 1921, they continued to wield the real power till 1932, when after a number of violent demonstrations and revolts, they pulled out of the country. Except during Premier Rashid Ali's brief pro-German regime in 1941, all the Governments of Iraq, which were often headed by the assassinated premier Nuri-es-Said, remained up to the last coup the strong supporters of the Western cause in West Asia. With the assassination of the 23 year old King Faisal II (grandson of King Faisal I), the pro-western monarchy of Iraq passes out of history and yields place to a republic.

The Middle East and the UNO: The two-week emergency special session of the General Assembly came to a quick end on August 21, 1958, with the unanimous adoption of a resolution calling on Secretary-General Dag Hammarskjold to make practical arrangements to uphold the purpose and principles of the United Nations Charter in Lebanon and Jordan and thereby facilitate the early withdrawal of the foreign troops from those two countries. Eighty of the eighty-one members voted for the resolution, with the Dominican Republic absent. The resolution, which was sponsored jointly by the ten Arab members—Iraq, Jordan, Lebanon, Libya, Morocco, Saudi Arabia, the Sudan, Tunisia, the United Arab Republic and Yemen—also welcome renewed assurances by the Arab countries that they would observe their Arab League obligations to respect each other's systems of government, and to abstain from any action calculated to change them, and called upon all United Nations members to act strictly in accordance with the principles of mutual respect for each other's territorial integrity and sovereignty, of non-aggression and of strict non-interference in each other's internal affairs.

Tunisian Accord: France and Tunisia informed the Security Council on June 18, 1958 that they had signed an agreement providing for the complete evacuation of French troops from Tunisian soil within four months, with the exception of the Bizerte naval base. Representatives of both countries stated the hope that the agreement would establish normal relations between their governments and open the door to an era of mutual co-operation. Under the terms of the
accord, the evacuation of the French troops is to be followed by negotiations to establish the status of the naval base at Bizerte.

The French representative said that the signing of the agreement, based as it was on the proposal of March 15 made by the good offices mission, made possible a satisfactory settlement of all other outstanding differences between the two countries. The meeting of the Council was one of several held by the Council in June following complaints by both countries. On May 29 Tunisia charged that French troops stationed at Remada made a sortie from their barracks and tried to force a barrier at Bir Kanbout, five days earlier. On the following day, the Tunisian letter said, French bombers and fighter planes based in Algeria attacked the Remada area. A letter to the Council from France on May 29 declared that Tunisia had disrupted the modus vivendi which had been established in February in regard to stationing of French troops in various localities in the country, and that in its troops movements and arming of civilians, the Tunisian Government had created conditions likely to lead to incidents.

Cyprus: Britain has announced a new plan for Cyprus. It proposes a programme of partnership for a period of seven years in which Greece, Turkey and Britain will participate in the administration of the Mediterranean Island. There will be two Houses of Representatives, one for Greek Cypriots and the other for Turkish Cypriots: they will, while looking after the interests of the two communities, seek to co-ordinate inter-community affairs. Prime Minister Macmillan announcing the Plan said it indicated British willingness to share Cypriot's sovereignty with the Greek and the Turkish Governments. The Greeks found the proposal totally unacceptable to them.

The U. K. Government has proposed a joint Greeko-Turkish-British sovereignty over Cyprus. The proposal aims at terminating the scramble for supremacy that has existed in the Mediterranean through ages past. For a short period in the 4th century B. C., Cyprus belonged to one of the Greek States. The island was conquered by the Turks in 1571. It was assigned by Turkey in 1878 to Britain to be occupied and administered by England, in order to enable England to make necessary provision for the executing her engagement to assist Turkey in defence against Russia, and was formally annexed by the British in 1914, its status being recognised by Turkey in the Treaty of Lausanne (1923), to which Greece, Turkey and the United Kingdom were all parties.

A constitution based on the elective principle was instituted as early as 1882, but the Legislative Council had to be suspended following disturbances in 1931 arising principally out of agitation for the union (Enosis) of Cyprus with Greece. After World War II, the United Kingdom Government made proposals for a new constitution, but the Consultative Assembly which met in 1947-48 was boycotted by the supporters of Enosis, who took the line that acquiescence in constitutional development would be a betrayal of Enosis.

Renewed efforts were made by the United Kingdom Government in 1954 to introduce a representative constitution, but only the Turkish community and some individual Greek-Cypriots were prepared to cooperate. A conference of the Foreign Ministers of Greece, Turkey
and the United Kingdom met in London in August-September 1955 to consider political and defence question which affect the eastern Mediterranean including Cyprus. New British proposals were put forward, but they were not accepted by the Greeks and the Turks. After the London Conference, discussions continued, but the situation in the island showed no improvement, and on November 26, following an increase in terrorist activities, a state of emergency was proclaimed by the Governor.

In August 1956, the British Government appointed Lord Radcliffe as constitutional commissioner for Cyprus with the task of drafting a new liberal constitution. His proposals were published in December. They included safeguards for the Turkish community. The Radcliffe proposals were accepted as a basis for discussion by the Turkish Government, but were rejected out of hand by the Greek Government and the supporters of Enosis in Cyprus.

The Cyprus question was discussed at the eleventh session of the U. N. General Assembly, which in a resolution adopted in February 26, 1957, expressed "the earnest desire that a peaceful, democratic, and just solution will be found, in accord with the principles and purposes of the Charter of the United Nations, and the hope that negotiations will be resumed and continued to this end." The next move was an offer in March by Lord Ismay, the then Secretary-General of NATO, of his good offices; but this offer, although acceptable by Britain and Turkey, was rejected by Greece. In the same month Archbishop Makarios who had been taken into custody in March 1956, for alleged complicity in terrorist activity was released from his detention in Seychelles.

In May 1957, a letter from Archbishop Makarios to the United Kingdom Government indicated that the only talks he was prepared to contemplate were between himself and the Government, to the exclusion of other and wider interests which, in the British view, had a right to be consulted. On December 14, 1957, a resolution on the Cyprus situation failed to receive the necessary two-thirds majority in the U. N. General Assembly. The British Government later suggested that Cyprus should be partitioned, but this was also not accepted by the parties. The Cyprus situation still remains unsolved.

VI. UNITED ARAB REPUBLIC

On January 27, Egypt and Syria united into one State known as the United Arab Republic. The new state has one Chief of State and one foreign minister. The armed forces and educational systems of the two countries have already been unified. The Parliaments of both these two countries ratified the union. The President of the United Arab Republic will be chosen by referendum. A provisional regime has been established until the constitutions of Syria and Egypt can be modified to permit a federal status and a single President regime for the two countries. At the same time, the public services of the two countries will be unified. A single Parliament made up of the present members of the Egyptian and Syrian National Assemblies is also planned and the new State has one cabinet.

Legislative power will be exercised by a national assembly, whose
size will be decided upon by a decree of the President of the Republic. At least half the members of the Assembly must be chosen from among members from the Egyptian and Syrian Parliament. The Assembly will sit in Cairo, but may be convened elsewhere at the request of the President. The Constitution of the new state is a democratic independent and sovereign republic. Private property is protected by law and infringements upon it can only be made in the public interest and in return for just compensation. The constitution is secular in character.

VII. THE SITUATION IN ALGERIA

Algeria was in ferment and there was outbreak of violence all over the country demanding independence. It is reported that sixty-two thousand Algerian nationalists had been killed by the French since November 1954, when the Algerian movement for national liberation began. This was disclosed by the French Minister of Defence, M. Chaban-Delmas. In contrast only six thousand Frenchmen lost their lives. For 45 months the French had been engaged in a bloody struggle against an Arab independence movement led by the National Liberation Front in Algeria which is juridically a part of Metropolitan France and which is represented by thirty seats in her Assembly Nationale.

The Algerian struggle had tied down a French army of 45,000, about half of her total armed forces, cost the lives of 5,000 Frenchmen and 50,000 Algerians and drained French treasury the rate of Rs. 25 million day. It has exacerbated France's relations with her allies and supplied fuel to the new pan-Arab movement of Nasser. More than all these, it has inflamed feelings within France itself where many homes have been rendered desolate, many families deprived of their wage-earners, many mothers have lost their sons and many wives, their husbands.

So soon after assumption of office, De Gaulle hurried to Algeria, with two objectives in view, first to restore the authority of the Government over the rebel army command and second to set in motion a settlement of the Algerian war. With regard to the first, he succeeded in bringing the rebel army under his control. After a show of some opposition, Massu, Soustelle, Delbecque and other French Generals in Algeria, who called De Gaulle to power but only wanted to use him as a Neguib for a French Nasser quietly surrendered to him and like good soldiers, promised to obey orders.

With regard to the second objective, he promised all Algerians French citizenship. He said, “For these 10 million Frenchmen (meaning the people of Algeria) their vote will count the same as those of all others. He declared that the Algerians would elect a representative assembly of their own and French Government would consult with it on Algeria’s future status.

The difficulty with vested interests is that they cannot keep pace with the march of time. Had France made this offer a decade ago, it would have been taken as a generous one by the Algerians. But today it may have been too late. It has been given a cold reception
by the National Liberation Front. In its opinion, de Gaulle's move is a build-up for an offer of integration. A Liberation Front spokesman said "We want Algerian citizenship, not French." And in the wake of the de Gaulle declaration there were fresh outbreaks of violence. The Algerian situation remains undecided.

VIII. COMMUNIST CHINA AND THE OFFSHORE ISLANDS

Communist China claimed Quemoy, a island at a distance of 12 miles from the mainland China. Communist China began to shell heavily this island, and the USA helped the Chiang Ki-shek regime to defend itself against the attack of mainland China. The Communist seizure and consolidation of power on the mainland of China a decade ago initiated an era of grave and almost continuous crisis in the Far East. Fundamentally, the crisis was caused by the expansionist pressure of the Peking regime in co-operation with Russia and the world communist movement.

The conflict between the Chinese regime and the nationalist Government on Taiwan was at first largely symbolic. Chiang Kai Shek fled to Taiwan and several of the smaller offshore islands with an army of about of 600,000 after his government collapsed on the mainland in 1949. But his cause was clearly hopeless; his threats to reconquer the mainland was hollow. Up to the summer of 1950, official United States policy was to deal cautiously with Chiang, discouraging his actions of reconquest, and to accept the fact that Peiping would ultimately establish control over Taiwan and the smaller offshore islands.

Communist aggression in Korea in 1950 changed that policy. The USA revaluated the strategic importance of Taiwan—a link in the great island chain formed by Japan to the north and the Philippines to the South—in the light of the clear evidence that the Communists were ready to pursue their Far East aims by force. President Truman ordered the Seventh-Fleet to patrol the waters in the 100-mile wide stretch between Taiwan and the mainland and in 1953 President Eisenhower announced a policy generally described as unleashing Ching K'ai shek. Practically Ching has no power to take any action unless he is so helped by the USA.

But the new policy of the USA committed her to the fortunes of the Ching Government and the territory it held, including a number of island rights on the Communist China's doorstep. Chief among them were the Quemoy, which lies just off Amoy harbour, three to five miles from the coast, and the Matsus, 150 miles to the north and about ten miles from the mainland.

The Quemoy and Matsu islands have since become the danger points in the conflict between Communist China and the USA in the Far East. The first major crisis over them occurred in 1955 when Peiping launched a series of raids and artillery attacks as an apparent prelude to invasion. The U.S. response was the Formosa resolution of 1955, overwhelmingly passed by both houses of Congress, which states: "That the President of the United States be and hereby is authorised to employ the armed forces of the United States as he
It is deemed necessary for the specific purpose of securing Formosa (Taiwan) and the Pescadores (a group of islets off the coast of Taiwan).

In terms of Quemoy and Matsu, the meaning of the resolution was to leave to the President's discretion whether an attack on the islands might be a threat to the security of Taiwan. The Chinese Government, however, interpreted the resolution as encouragement to reinforce its garrison on Quemoy and Matsu. A steady military build-up began. The United States' allies were deeply disturbed by the Formosa Resolution and the potential commitment to Quemoy and Matsu. But Communist pressure against the island ceased after the Formosa resolution and the issue receded.

Then in August 1958 signs began to accumulate that new trouble was brewing. On July 31, Soviet Premier Krushchev journeyed to Peiping for a four day conference with Chinese Communist leader Mao Tse-Tung. In the weeks immediately following the Peiping conference, the evidence pointed to a Mao-Krushchev decision on new military moves in Taiwan Strait. Stepped up communist bombardment of Quemoy resulted in August 23 in the heaviest shelling in the island's history. The attacks produced warnings from Secretary of State, John Foster Dulles and President Eisenhower, but the warnings had no marked effect on Communist military activity in the Strait. Once again the question came up as to whether the United States, under the terms of the Formosa resolution, intended to defend the offshore islands. The last week of August began with concentrated efforts by the Communists to blockade the 100,000 man Quemoy garrison with fleets of torpedo boats. The blockade is creating a serious problem for the Nationalists. Now the position is slightly improved.

IX. ANTARCTIC TREATY

The continent of Antarctica has been under exploration for more than a century. Seven nations—Argentina, Australia, Chile, France, Britain, New Zealand have laid claim to parts of it. Some of the claims overlap. During the current International Geophysical year, Russia entered the Antarctic for the first time in more than a century. This has raised the question of an international agreement on Antarctica.

In May 1958, President Eisenhower invited the seven claimants, plus Belgium, Japan, South Africa and the Soviet Union which have done I. G. Y. work in the Antarctic to join the U.S. in a treaty assuring freedom of scientific investigation in the Antarctic by all nations and use of Antarctica for peaceful purposes only. President Eisenhower has urged an international treaty that would minimise territorial claims in the Antarctic—or at least "freeze" them at their present status—and permit further peaceful research in the area to the advantage of all. Eleven nations have now responded favourably to support the negotiations of such a treaty.

X. THE FIFTH REPUBLIC IN FRANCE

With the fall of the Fourth Republic in France in the middle of
the year 1958, the fifth republic has been ushered in with General de Gaulle as the head of the Government. The fall of the fourth republic was accelerated on account of revolt by several French generals in Algérie. The inside story of the fall reveals a state of political bankruptcy and lack of courage on the part of those Frenchmen on whom lay the responsibility to defend their republic. It is the story of a nation in decay. It is said that National Assembly's acceptance of General de Gaulle was the product of an intricate series of manoeuvres, but it also sprang from the deep unwillingness of the French to defend their Parliament. The deputies who had never had the courage to denounce the reactionary Algerian policy have now been swallowed up by it.

If on the first day of the revolt—May 13—the French had acted vigorously against the Algiers' revolting generals, the latter might have submitted and the crisis might have passed. The French constitutional referendum on September 28, resulted in a resounding vicoty for General de Gaulle. The official result of the referendum for the whole of the Metropolitan France, including Corsica, was "yes" 17,666,828; and "no" 4,624,475. Between 85 to 90 per cent of the electorate voted and officials said that a record number of the 26,772,255 on the register went to the polls. The General was elected as the President.

The new constitution may be described as a Presidential type of Government. It has curtailed much of the existing power of the French Parliament and transferred those through the Government to the President. It also provides for a shorter Parliamentary session (to be not more than five and a half months) and also curtailed the legislative competence of the Parliament. It would henceforth not be easy to vote down a Government, or even Government proposals. For both, an absolute negative majority would be necessary. On the other hand the President would be able to dissolve the Parliament much more easily and even to appeal to the people over the head of Parliament through a referendum. The great loser in the new constitution is certainly the French Parliament, but the Premier and his Cabinet gain only partially. The real winner is the President of the Republic. And this powerful President is neither directly elected by the people, nor responsible to the directly elected National Assembly.

XI. HUNGARY

The five-nation Special Committee of the UNO on Hungary, after a series of meetings which began in June 1958 after the announcement of the execution of Imre Nagy, Pal Maleter and two other Hungarians, on July 14, issued a report. Imre Nagy was Prime Minister of the Hungarian Government during 1956 uprising which was overthrown in 1956 after a Soviet Union military intervention. Nagy and his two companions who had taken refuge in the Yugoslav embassy were kidnapped by the Russians and General Maleter was arrested at a meeting.

The Hungarian Government, the report points out, had pledged
Immunity to the leaders of the uprising and that the action of the Hungarian Government in bringing Imre Nagy to trial was contrary to solemn assurances which Mr. Kadar, the Hungarian Premier on behalf of the Hungarian Government, had previously given. The execution of Imre Nagy and his companions, the report declares, has special significance, because Mr. Nagy as Prime Minister of Hungary, had appealed directly to the United Nations. But his fate should not be allowed to distract attention from the many other sentences officially announced concerning persons accused of connections with the 1956 uprisings. It cannot be taken for granted that all sentences have been published.

The Committee appended to the report a list of thirty death sentences said to have been imposed. In addition, it names well over a hundred men and women sentenced to prison terms for slight offences. The sentences were all the more disturbing because they came after a number of public assurances by Hungarian leaders that a period of stabilization had begun and that proceedings against persons accused of participating in the uprising were virtually over. The Committee observed that while the arrest of General Maleter and the abduction of Mr. Nagy and his companions were undertaken by Soviet personnel, nevertheless the Hungarian Government, in announcing the subsequent trials and executions, had accepted full responsibility. These secret trials and executions showed continued disregard for the resolution of the General Assembly and for human rights as defined in the Universal declaration of Human Rights and the Charter of the United Nations.

Despite Hungarian Government declarations, the Committee found, no real change has been made either in the summary procedure of the Hungarian courts against alleged rebels nor in the practices of the political police. The report questions official statements by the Hungarian Government regarding the gradual withdrawal of Soviet troops. On May 24, it declared. Mr. Kedar announced the withdrawal of 17,000 Soviet troops from Hungary, but gave no information as to the nature of the troops withdrawal or the troops that remained. Neither this announcement nor any other available evidence had enabled the Committee to conclude that there was a complete withdrawal of Soviet armed forces, as urged by the General Assembly.

XII. FALL OF DEMOCRACY

In recent years the disorder in democracy has outweighed its usefulness in a number of Asian and African nations that have attempted parliamentary government. In one nation after another, a military dictatorship or some other form of authoritarianism has taken over, posing a new question of the viability of the whole democratic system for certain kinds of countries and societies. The latest country to abrogate democracy is the Sudan. A military dictatorship under the General Ibrahim Abboud. Commander-in-Chief of the armed forces ousted the elected government of Premier Abdulla Khalil. In Pakistan, Gen. Mohammed Ayub Khan has suppressed civil regime and taken control. In Burma Gen. Ne Win, head of the
military forces assumed the leadership of the government in October 1958, as a result of an agreement with the quarreling political party. In October in Thailand, the Government was turned into complete military rule when the Field Marshal Sarit Thanarat, head of military forces dismissed the government tore up the constitution and began to run the country as an unbridled dictator. In July 1958, a coup in Iraq brought a change from the authoritarianism with parliamentary trappings of Nun-es-Said to the military dictatorship of General Karim-el-Kassem. From October 1958, a mild form of dictatorial role is being played by Gen. Abdul Nasutian, army chief of staff and the armed forces in Indonesia by the renewal of emergency regulations which has reduced Parliament and presidentially appointed Cabinet to an ill-defined legislative and administrative status.

The reasons for the failure of democracies though vary from country to country but certain factors are common to all.—(1) All have a background of colonial or semi-colonial domination that inhibited the development of political maturity and a sense of responsibility among their leaders. Under colonialism the politicians and bureaucrats were kept in subordinated roles and did not get adequate experience in Government. (2) All countries are economically backward. (3) The political traditions in all these countries were despotic rather than democratic. (4) Lack of substantial financial resources to operate democratic system. Personal following and political party machines had to be financed and the trapping of social status of high officials maintained. This led almost everywhere to corruption. (5) Inexperienced new officials floundered with acute economic problems. (6) Internal and external threats which caused apprehension and insecurity, such as in Burma where communists and rebels were constant problem. In Indonesia where non-communists were also a big problem.

India and Philippines are notable examples among the independent countries of Asia that are continuing to operate a democracy successfully.

XIII. THE BERLIN CRISIS

A new political crisis cropped at the end of 1958 between Western powers and U.S.S.R. regarding the status of Berlin. Before we state the cause of Berlin crisis, let us state the position of two Germanys. Germany has existed since the end of World War II in two parts—West Germany, occupied after the war by the U. S., Britain and France. Since 1949, it is known as West German Federal Republic with sovereign authority, strongly pro-western and a NATO member. East Germany was originally the Soviet occupation zone. Since 1949 it is known as the German Democratic Republic with independent status.

Berlin, the former capital of Germany has a special status in divided Germany. Although it is wholly surrounded by the Soviet occupation zone, each of the Big Four Powers, England, U.S.S.R., France, U.S.A., controls a sector. The Western Powers have access to their sectors by road, rail, canals and air. These basic divisions
were made by Big Four military commanders after Germany fell in 1945. It was ratified by the Prime Ministers of Big Powers at Potsdam in 1945. But Big Four never reached agreement on final peace treaty. In 1948 the Russians tried to block the west-occupied sector of Berlin. The West supplied the city by plane and after a year the Russians abandoned the blockade. The Western access to the city is over a designated net work of highways railways, a canal and three air corridors from Frankfurt, Honover and Hamburgh of Western Germany. The control points for Allied traffic are manned by the Soviet Union.

In the last week of November, 1958, Soviet Premier Mr. Khrushchev sent the following note to Western Powers occupying three zones of Berlin—The Soviet Government has resolved to abolish the occupation regime in Berlin. At the same time, the Soviet Government is ready to open negotiations with the West on granting West Germany the status of a demilitarized free city. Russia wanted to make this change in half a year. The Russian note further said that it is patently absurd for Russia to support the present Government when the West is using its position in Berlin for anti-Soviet espionage. If the West then used force to hold its position in West Berlin, Russia would fight.

**XIV. DEMOCRACY IN AFRICA**

Africa is divided into half a hundred territories—some independent, some under United Nations trusteeship, some European colonies. At the end of World War II, only four African States were independent, Ethiopia, Liberia, Egypt and the Union of South Africa. Since then six more nations have become free,—Tunisia, Morocco, Libya, Sudan, Ghana and Guinea. In November 1958, Ghana and Guinea announced a plan to federate. Ghana is the former British Crown colony of the Gold Coast and Togoland which won its independence as a Commonwealth member in 1957. Guinea is a former French colony which proclaimed its freedom in October 1958 after voting overwhelmingly to reject the new French Constitution and continued association with French. Premier K. Nkrumah of Ghana and Premier Sekow Toure of Guinea jointly announced in November 1958—On behalf of our respective governments and subject to the ratification of our respective national assemblies, we have agreed to constitute our two States as the nucleus of a Union of West African States. We would welcome adherence to the Union of other African States. British Government was completely surprised at this declaration. The British raised the question of how Ghana could federate with Guinea—and thus bring it into association with the Commonwealth without the consent of other Commonwealth members.
WORLD POLITICS IN A NUTSHELL

United Nations

Major Block in the General Assembly of the United Nations:—
Western consisting of 23 nations.
Soviet consisting of 10 nations.
Afro-Asians consisting of 28 nations.
Latin Americans consisting of 20 nations.
Latest member to join U.N. in December 1958 is Guinea which gained independence from France.

TREATIES & PACTS

Rio Treaty—A treaty signed in August 1947, under which the signatory nations pledge themselves in the event of aggression against any one of them, to provide assistance to that nation on request.

Members

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>United States</th>
<th>Haiti</th>
<th>Peru</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cuba</td>
<td>Dominican Rep.</td>
<td>Bolivia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honduras</td>
<td>Costa Rica</td>
<td>Paraguay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>Panama</td>
<td>Brazil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guatemala</td>
<td>Venezuela</td>
<td>Chile</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>El Salvador</td>
<td>Ecuador</td>
<td>Argentina</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nicaragua</td>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>Uruguay</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

North Atlantic Treaty—A treaty signed in 1949 under which the members agree to regard an attack on one as an attack on all, and to aid the one attacked.

Members

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>United States</th>
<th>Netherlands</th>
<th>Italy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>Portugal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iceland</td>
<td>West Germany</td>
<td>France</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>Greece</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>Luxemburg</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Anzus Treaty—A treaty signed in September 1951, under which members acknowledge that an attack in the Pacific against any will involve all, and agree to “act to meet the common danger.”

Members

| United States | New Zealand | Australia |

Manila Treaty—was signed at Manila in September 1954, that set-up the South-east Asia Treaty Organisation (SEATO) covering
the "general area of South-east Asia" and the Western Pacific. In case of aggression, its members are to "consult immediately in order to agree to measures which should be taken for common defence."

**Members**

United States  Australia  Pakistan  
United Kingdom  Thailand  Philippines  
New Zealand

Bagdad Pact—A treaty in which five nations joined in November 1955 to set-up the Middle East Treaty Organisation.

**Members**

United Kingdom  Pakistan  Iran  
Turkey  Iraq  

Warsaw Pact—counterpart of NATO. The main provision of the pact is, an attack on one shall be regarded as an attack on all. There is a unified military control.

**Members**

Albania  East Germany  Rumania  
Bulgaria  Hungary  U.S.S.R.  
Czechoslovakia  Poland

**COMMUNIST WORLD**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area (sq. m.)</th>
<th>Population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Soviet Union</td>
<td>8,700,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outer Mongolia</td>
<td>615,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Albania</td>
<td>10,600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bulgaria</td>
<td>42,800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rumania</td>
<td>91,600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hungary</td>
<td>35,900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>120,350</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Czechoslovakia</td>
<td>49,400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Korea</td>
<td>48,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East Germany</td>
<td>42,100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>3,700,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Vietnam</td>
<td>63,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>13,519,250</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**UNITED STATES’ 49th STATE**

United States of America had 48 States. The American flag had 48 Stars representing 48 States. In 1958 Alaska has been added to the United States making it 49th State of the United States.
U. S. FOREIGN ECONOMIC AID SINCE WORLD WAR II

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Western Europe</th>
<th>Near East &amp; Africa</th>
<th>Philippines</th>
<th>Asia &amp; Pacific</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Billion</td>
<td>Billion</td>
<td>Other</td>
<td>Billion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U. K.</td>
<td>$ 7.1</td>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>$ 1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>$ 5.5</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>$ 0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W. Germany</td>
<td>$ 3.9</td>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>$ 0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>$ 2.9</td>
<td>India</td>
<td>$ 0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>$ 5.5</td>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>$ 0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Other</td>
<td>$ 0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>$ 24.9</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>American Republics</th>
<th>Asia &amp; Pacific</th>
<th>Billion</th>
<th>Near East &amp; Africa</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>$ 0.4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>$ 0.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peru</td>
<td>$ 0.1</td>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>$ 2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bolivia</td>
<td>$ 0.1</td>
<td>S. Korea</td>
<td>$ 2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>$ 0.6</td>
<td>Taiwan</td>
<td>$ 1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>$ 1.4</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

MAJOR GROUPINGS AT THE UNITED NATIONS

Special Note—The various groups do not vote as units. Latin Americans most often join together. Yugoslavia some times splits with the other communists. The Western Nations often divide on specific issues. The Asian-Africans split on many issues as to whether they are Western allies or Neutralists.

Western Nations—23
1. Australia
2. Austria
3. Belgium
4. Canada
5. Denmark
6. Finland
7. France
8. Greece
9. Iceland
10. Ireland
11. Israel
12. Italy
13. Luxemburg
14. Netherlands
15. New Zealand
16. Norway
17. Portugal
18. Spain
19. Sweden
20. Turkey
21. Union of S. Africa

United Arab
Ethiopia
Kingdom
22. United
Ghana
India
United Nations—23
States
Indonesia
Iran
Communist—10
Albania
Bulgaria
Byelorussia
S.S.R.
Czechoslovakia
Libya
North
Poland
Rumania
Ukrainian S.S.R.
U.S.S.R.
Yugoslavia
10. Ireland
11. Israel
12. Italy
13. Luxemburg
14. Netherlands
15. New Zealand
16. Norway
17. Portugal
18. Spain
19. Sweden
20. Turkey
21. Union of S. Africa

Latin America-20
Argentina
Bolivia
Brazil
Chile
Colombia
Costa Rica
Dominican Rep.
El Salvador
Guatemala
Haiti
Honduras
Mexico
Nicaragua
Panama
Peru
Paraguay
Uruguay
Venezuela
SOME SIGNIFICANT VOTINGS IN THE UNITED NATIONS

For—61
Western .. 22
Latin American 20
Asian African 14

Against—10
Communist .. 10

Abstiention—10
Western .. 1
Asian-African 9

2. Vote on whether to postpone debate on seating China in U.N.
Sept. 23, 1958.

For—44
Western .. 13
Latin American 20
Asian African 11

Against—28
Communist .. 10
Asian-African .. 13

Abstaintions—9
Western .. 5

3. Vote to continue arms talks on the basis of Western Plan,
Nov. 14, 1957.

For—56
Western .. 21
Latin American 20
Asian-African 15

Against—9
Communist .. 9
Asian-African .. 13

Abstaintion—15
Western .. 1


For—57
Western .. 16
Latin American 20
Asian-African 20

Against—0
Communist 1

Abstaintion—19
Western 7
Asian-African 3
Communist 9

INDO-PAKISTANI RELATIONS

The Indo-Pakistani relations revolve around three fundamental questions, namely, the Kashmir problem, the problem of canal waters and the border issues. Unfortunately, these three issues practically remain unresolved. Their present position is indicated below.

KASHMIR ISSUE—In accordance with the Security Council’s resolution of Dec. 2, 1957, Dr. Frank P. Graham, the U. N. Representative for India and Pakistan visited the sub-continent from Jan. 12 to Feb. 15 for discussions with the two Governments on the Kashmir question. In this report published on April 3, 1958 Dr. Graham gave details of a five point plan for settlement of the Kashmir dispute which he had submitted to the two Governments. This envisaged declarations by India and Pakistan appealing to their peoples to maintain an atmosphere favourable to negotiations and reaffirming the inviolability of the cease-fire line; the evacuation of the Pakistani forces from Kashmir and the stationing of an U.N. force on the Pakistani side of the Kashmir border; the discussions between the U.N. Representative and the two Governments on the possibility of a plebiscite; and a meeting between the two prime ministers at the earliest possible date. These recommendations were accepted by the Pakis-
tani Government in principle, but were rejected by India on the
grounds—(a) that they by-passed the question of Pakistan's failure
to implement the resolution on August 13, 1948 of the U.N. Commis-
son for India and Pakistan and (b) that they would place "the
aggressor and the aggressed in the same footing."

INDO-PAKISTAN WATER DISPUTE—The Indo-Pakistan dispute
over the sharing of the Indus waters remained unsolved, although the
World Bank had been trying through its good offices to bring about a
settlement. Several meetings were held between India and Pakistan,
but no solution has been reached. Pakistan is opposing to India's
building up of the Nangal Dam, contending that it would adversely
affect the water supply of the river Sutlej and with the completion of
the Bhakra Dam Scheme, it would considerably reduce the water
supplies of the Indus river.

The origin of the dispute may be traced to the partition of India
in 1947. The area under cultivation in the plains watered by the
Indus river system is nearly 26 million acres in India and 39 million
acres in Pakistan and this comes in the ratio of 40 : 60. Of this area
in India, nearly 18 per cent is irrigated, and of Pakistan 39 million
acres, about 51 per cent are irrigated by the Indus water. India uses
only 5 per cent of the total inflow of these rivers as against 39 per cent
by Pakistan. In undivided India, the number of population was 4.20
crores. Of this, Pakistan has got 2 crores of population and India 2.20
crores. That is, India has got 20 lakh more people than Pakistan.
India therefore has to devise some measures for irrigating her land.

The Standstill agreement concluded between India and Pakistan
in December 1948 lays down that India would give a continuous supply
of water to Pakistan on the basis that existed on the date of partition
for the period till March 31, 1948. After March 31 1948, India would
have the right to reduce the supply of water gradually in order to give
Pakistan time to devise alternative sources of supply of water for her
irrigation purposes. The Standstill agreement has virtally expired
and the Government of Pakistan took no effective steps to renew the
same. As the agreement lapsed, the Government of India disconti-
nued supply of water to Pakistan from 1st of April 1948 and for this
Pakistan was solely responsible. However, pending the discussions
between the Governments of the two countries, India resumed the
supply of water from 30th April 1948. Finally, an agreement was
reached between India and Pakistan on the 4th May 1948 and under
the terms of this agreement, India agreed not to withhold suddenly
the supply of water to Pakistan. It was also agreed that India would
diminish the supply gradually so that Pakistan may get reasonable
time to tap alternative sources. But soon after Pakistan tried to avoid
this agreement on one pretext or the other.

Pakistan meanwhile wanted to refer the dispute to the Interna-
tional Court of Justice. But India did not agree to that. In 1951,
Mr. Lilienthal, the former head of the Tennesse Valley Authority
stated in an article that "India too must have more water (of the
Indus) or starve." In his view, the canal water dispute is not a reli-
gious or political one, but a feasible engineering and business problem
which should be settled on an engineering basis with the help of the World Bank.

Then in 1952 the World Bank took up the dispute and lent its good offices in settling it. After prolonged negotiations, the World Bank in February 1954 made the following proposals:

1. The entire flow of Western rivers (the Indus, the Jhelum and the Chenab) is to be available for the exclusive use of Pakistan except for a small volume of flow for Kashmir.

2. The entire flow of the rivers (the Ravi, the Beas and the Sutlej) is to be available for exclusive use in India, except that for a specified transitional period when India will have to supply Pakistan its periodical withdrawals from these rivers. This transitional period, which is expected to end in another five years, is to be worked out on the basis of the time required to complete the link canals needed by Pakistan to replace these supplies.

3. Each country is to construct the works located within its territory, the cost of such works being borne by the country benefiting thereby.

4. Although no works are planned for the joint construction by the two countries, some link-canals in Pakistan will be needed to replace supplies from India, and India must bear the cost of such works to the extent of the benefit derived by it therefrom.

Under these proposals, seventy per cent of the water resources of the Indus basin has been allotted to Pakistan. Pakistan’s rivers are larger than those of India. The Sutlej does not carry much water in the off-season. Further, India has to bear the cost which Pakistan will incur in constructing the necessary links to make good the loss of supply from India. The cost of such links is estimated to be Rs. 60 crores. Yet India expressed its readiness to accept the Bank’s award in the interest of peace between the two countries. But Pakistan did not accept the proposals.

India declares that she has the right to reduce the water supply to Pakistan. But India does not want to stand on legal rights in this matter. Pakistan has been given enough time to make alternative arrangements for her water supply. But she did not do anything in the matter. In December 1958, negotiations were again opened between the two countries under the auspices of the World Bank. But no result has been reached so far. India has made it clear that beyond 1962 she will not supply the Indus water from her share to Pakistan. India has meanwhile diverted a part of the flow of the Sutlej in the newly constructed Nangal Hydel channel.

Pakistan has already built link canals to replace approximately half (five out of ten million acre feet) of water given to her from Indian sources. India is willing to pay for these replacement works which are estimated to cost Rs. 24 crores. Negotiations now hinge on the replacement of the other five million acre feet of water. Pakistan wanted India to pay her more than Rs. 350 crores for dams and canals, according to their plan. It was found that these dams and canals were not strictly necessary for replacement and sought to develop irrigational uses for Pakistan’s benefit.

India has now worked out a plan which would cost her almost five
or six times less and yet would be able to fully replace the waters. The idea is to divert some waters of the river Chenab, a river allotted to Pakistan under the World Bank proposals, under the Rhotang Pass in India and let her waters flow down to Pakistan through the Indian river and canal system. India would guarantee to supply to Pakistan at the order exactly the same amount of water as she diverted from the Chenab. India is also willing to pay for a few other miscellaneous works to fully replace the waters.

The main Pakistani objections to the Indian plan appear to be that she does not wish to remain dependent upon any water passing through India.

INDO-PAKISTAN BORDER DISPUTES—Indo-Pakistan relations deteriorated in the latter half of 1958. Due to great political changes in Pakistan, the Pakistan Constitution was abrogated by President Mirza, then he in turn was ousted by General Ayub Khan who assumed supreme control of Pakistan administration. General Iskandar Mirza had to resign from the Presidency of Pakistan and left the country for the United Kingdom. With the assumption of power by Ayub Khan, there have been heavy concentrations of Pakistan army along the entire eastern borders of India. Pakistan has been continuing large-scale and heavy firings at Indian border areas thereby killing men and animals.

In order to settle the border disputes, an agreement was reached between Prime Minister of India and the Prime Minister of Pakistan (Mr. Firoz Khan Noon). The agreement on border disputes between the two countries was reached on September 11, 1958. The two Prime Ministers arrived at agreed settlements in regard to most of the border disputes in the eastern region. They also agreed to an exchange of enclaves of the former Cooch Behar State in Pakistan and Pakistan enclaves in India.

They further agreed that, pending settlement of unresolved disputes and demarcation and exchange of territory by mutual agreement, there should be no disturbance of the status quo by force and peaceful conditions must be maintained in the border regions. A joint communiqué was issued embodying the decisions of the Prime Ministers. Some of the border disputes, namely, two regarding the Radcliffe and Bagge awards in the eastern region, and five in the western region, require further consideration. For the permanent settlement of border disputes, the Prime Minister of India declared that he would accept arbitration on the matter, but the Pakistan declined to accept arbitration.

Nine out of the eleven disputes on the eastern border has been settled. A dispute relating to the Feni river had been left over for further consideration. The other unresolved dispute relates to the Kushaira river which was finally settled by the Bagge tribunal, but the award has not been implemented so far. The Pakistan Prime Minister explained that as a result of the agreement to exchange enclaves of the former Cooch Behar State in Pakistan and Pakistan enclaves in India, a total gain of about eleven square miles would be made by Pakistan.
In the Western region, the five unresolved disputes relate to the canal headworks at Husainiwala and Suleimanke, certain villages near Lahore and Kasur and the Chad belt in the Rann of Cutch, which was the scene of armed conflict some years ago.

The agreement between the Prime Ministers dealt with the following problems and the lines of settlement to be adopted in each case:

(1) Defimarcation of boundaries held up because of differences between India and Pakistan over the interpretation of boundaries as fixed by the Radcliffe and Bagge awards, or because of differences over the basis of demarcation.

(2) Exchange of territories consequent on demarcation carried out in accordance with the Radcliffe and Bagge awards along certain sectors of the boundary between East Pakistan and West Bengal.

(3) Difficulties created by the existence of Indian enclaves (old Cooch Behar State enclaves) in Pakistan and Pakistan enclaves in India.

Agreement was reached on the settlement of the problems of the first type which were holding up demarcation in the following regions:

(i) Hilli;
(ii) Berubari Union No. 12.
(iii) Two chit lands of old Cooch Behar State adjacent to the Radcliffe line.
(iv) Twenty-Parganas district of West Bengal and Khulna and Jessore districts of East Pakistan.
(v) Bholaganj in Assam; and
(vi) Bhagalpur village in Tripura State.

January 15, 1959, was fixed as the date for exchange of territories in certain sectors of East Pakistan-West Bengal boundary, where demarcation had been completed in accordance with the Radcliffe and Bagge awards. The Government of West Bengal was advised to take necessary steps for the exchange of the areas in question by the due date.

No agreement has been reached on differences in interpretation of the Radcliffe and Bagge awards in the case of two areas along the Assam-East Pakistan boundary and on differences in interpretation of the Radcliffe award in case of four areas along the Punjab-West Pakistan boundary. In addition, there was a difference of view regarding the basis of demarcation along the Indian-West Pakistan border in the Cutch Sind region. There are 123 Indian enclaves which are completely surrounded by Indian territory, and 74 Pakistani enclaves similarly completely surrounded by Indian territory. It is not possible for local Governments concerned to have direct access to these territories. As this led to serious difficulties in administering these areas, this problem was settled by an agreement to exchange these enclaves.

There has been a recrudescence of border incidents and case of ill-treatment and harassment of Indian nationals at the border check posts. Incidents of cattle lifting or petty thefts by Pakistani nationals are now common feature of border relations between the two countries.