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01. Memo	Jim Keith to Tony Snow, Re: New PM Keating. (1 pp.)	n.d.	(b)(1)	C

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Collection:

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AR Case #:	MR Case #:
AR Disposition:	MR Disposition:
AR Disposition Date:	MR Disposition Date:

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P-5 Release would disclose confidential advice between the President and his advisors, or between such advisors [(a)(5) of the PRA]

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NATIONAL SECURITY COUNCIL

19-Nov-1991 06:40 EDT

MEMORANDUM FOR:

KEITH@OEEOB@MRGATE

FROM:

VMSMail User RAGLE
(RAGLE@OEEOB@MRGATE)

SUBJECT:

GESCAN

<CLAS>~~CONFIDENTIAL~~<DTG> 190605Z NOV 91
<ORIG>FM AMEMBASSY CANBERRA
<SUBJ>AUSTRALIA - KEATING ON US RELATIONS, GULF WAR

<TEXT>

~~CONFIDENTIAL~~ SECTION 01 OF 03 CANBERRA 08881
DEPT ALSO FOR INR/EAP/SEA - JOHN KELLEY
CINCPAC ALSO FOR FPA

E.O. 12356: DECL: OADR

TAGS: PGOV, PREL EMIN, MARR, AS

SUBJECT: AUSTRALIA - KEATING ON US RELATIONS, GULF WAR

REF: (A) CANBERRA 8784 (150446Z NOV 91) (NOTAL)

- (B) CANBERRA 4033 (040214Z JUN 91)

1. ~~Q~~ - ENTIRE TEXT.

~BEGIN SUMMARY~

2. SUMMARY: PRIME MINISTERIAL ASPIRANT KEATING AIMS FOR AUSTRALIA TO CONTINUE AS A RELIABLE ALLY OF THE U.S., THOUGH HE WANTS TO CONCENTRATE ON AUSTRALIA'S OWN REGION. HE SAID HE WOULD LIKE THE U.S. TO REASSERT ITS WORLD LEADERSHIP BUT THAT WASHINGTON NEEDED TO GET ITS ECONOMIC HOUSE IN ORDER. DRAWING A DISTINCTION WITH THE WAY HE SAID PM HAWKE OPERATES, KEATING SAID HE AS PM WOULD BE RECEPTIVE TO WASHINGTON REQUESTS BUT WOULD CONSIDER AUSTRALIA'S INTERESTS BEFORE RESPONDING. HE ALSO GAVE HIS VERSION OF AUSTRALIA'S DECISION TO CONTRIBUTE TO THE GULF WAR, AND EXPRESSED SUPPORT FOR THE ANTI-MINING ANTARCTICA TREATY. END SUMMARY.

~END SUMMARY~

AUSTRALIA'S REGIONAL FOCUS

3. DURING A NOV. 12 COURTESY CALL BY DCM AND LABATT PER DOS WAIVER, November 6, 2015 ON PM-ASPIRANT AND FORMER TREASURER PAUL KEATING, WHICH DEALT MOSTLY WITH HIS CHALLENGE OF BOB HAWKE'S LEADERSHIP (REF A), WE SOUGHT KEATING'S VIEWS ON THE FUTURE OF AUSTRALIAN-U.S. RELATIONS. HE OBSERVED THAT AUSTRALIA WOULD NOT BE IMPORTANT TO THE U.S. UNLESS IT WERE IMPORTANT IN ITS OWN PART OF THE

DECLASSIFIED
By lt NARA, Date 06/07/23

~~CONFIDENTIAL~~

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WORLD. THEREFORE, AUSTRALIA SHOULD FOCUS ON THE ASIA/PACIFIC REGION, IN PARTICULAR ON NEW ZEALAND AND INDONESIA, WHERE, REFERRING TO THE LATTER, HE SAID AUSTRALIA NEEDED TO DO MORE. KEATING CHARACTERIZED PAPUA NEW GUINEA AS UNTABLE AND "A WORRY FOR US," RECALLING THAT HEAD-HUNTING WAS STILL BEING PRACTICED THERE IN THE 1970'S. AUSTRALIA ALSO HAD TO "FIND A ROLE" WITH JAPAN; IN HIS VIEW, AUSTRALIA IS NOW ONLY A SOURCE OF RAW MATERIALS FOR JAPAN, THOUGH TOKYO IS TAKING MORE NOTICE OF AUSTRALIA.

TIES TO THE U.S. WILL REMAIN SOLID

4. KEATING SAID BILATERAL RELATIONS WOULD REMAIN GOOD BECAUSE THE TWO COUNTRIES ENJOYED A "SPECIAL RELATIONSHIP" BASED ON SIMILAR CULTURES AND A COMMON LANGUAGE. AMERICAN TV PROGRAMS HAD A MAJOR IMPACT ON AUSTRALIA. HOWEVER, HE NOTED, THE SPECIAL RELATIONSHIP ONLY WENT SO FAR -- IT WOULD NOT HELP AUSTRALIA GET PREFERENCE IN AREAS LIKE GRAIN EXPORTS. HE DOWNPLAYED AUSTRALIA'S IMPORTANCE TO THE U.S., CALLING THE JOINT FACILITIES A "BIT OF A JOKE" SINCE THEY WERE HERE BECAUSE AUSTRALIA WAS IN THE RIGHT PLACE. DCM DEMURRED.

5. THE MAJOR PROBLEM, KEATING OPINED, WAS WEAK U.S. ECONOMIC POLICY SINCE 1982 AND, IN PARTICULAR, A SENSE OF DEFEATISM WITHIN AMERICAN INDUSTRY FACING INTERNATIONAL COMPETITION, E.G., GM AND FORD. KEATING SAID HE WAS NOSTALGIC FOR THE PERIOD OF "U.S. GREATNESS" AND WANTED THE U.S. TO TAKE CONTROL AGAIN IN WORLD AFFAIRS. HE ADDED THAT AUSTRALIA WANTED ITS ALLY "TO DO BETTER RATHER THAN SLIP DOWN THE POLE."

AUSTRALIA AND THE GULF WAR

~~CONFIDENTIAL~~ SECTION 02 OF 03 CANBERRA 08881
DEPT ALSO FOR INR/EAP/SEA - JOHN KELLEY
CINCPAC ALSO FOR FPA

E.O. 12356: DECL: OADR

TAGS: PGOV, PREL EMIN, MARR, AS

SUBJECT: AUSTRALIA - KEATING ON US RELATIONS, GULF WAR

6. KEATING ELABORATED ON THE PUBLIC COMMENT HE MADE IMMEDIATELY BEFORE HIS JUNE 3 EFFORT TO OUST PM HAWKE AS ALP LEADER (REF B), TO THE EFFECT THAT HE WOULD NOT "SPRING TO ATTENTION THE MOMENT AN AMERICAN PRESIDENT PICKS UP THE PHONE." (KEATING HAD BEEN CRITICIZING HAWKE FOR DOING VIRTUALLY THAT.) HE TOLD US THAT HAWKE'S "OBSEQUIOUS BEHAVIOR (TOWARD PRESIDENT BUSH) WAS APPALLING," ADDING LATER THAT HE RESENTED "OVERT OBSEQUIOUSNESS NOT BACKED BY COMMENSURATE STRENGTH."

7. KEATING COMMENTED THAT IT WAS FORMER DEFMIN KIM BEAZLEY AND HIMSELF WHO "HAD REALLY KEPT WATCH ON THE U.S. RELATIONSHIP." GETTING MORE SPECIFIC, HE ADDED

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THAT IN THE CONTEXT OF BUSH'S REQUEST FOR ASSISTANCE IN THE GULF WAR, IF HE HAD BEEN PM, HE WOULD FIRST HAVE ASKED THE PRESIDENT WHAT OTHERS LIKE CANADA (A NATO ALLY WITH A LONG BORDER WITH THE U.S.) WERE DOING. HE AVERRED THAT AUSTRALIA SHOULD NOT HAVE AGREED TO PARTICIPATE IF OTTAWA WERE, FOR INSTANCE, STILL SELLING WHEAT TO IRAQ.

8. KEATING DETAILED THE MEETING AT WHICH AUSTRALIA'S PRIMARY GULF WAR PARTICIPATION WAS DETERMINED. PRESENT WERE PM HAWKE; DEPUTY PM KEATING; FONMIN GARETH EVANS; DEFMIN ROBERT RAY; AND MINISTER FOR INDUSTRY, TECHNOLOGY AND COMMERCE AND GOVERNMENT LEADER IN THE SENATE JOHN BUTTON. KEATING CALLED IT A "TYPICAL 'BOB' MEETING," ONE IN WHICH THE PM SAYS NOTHING UNTIL HE SEES THE WAY OPINION IS GOING. KEATING SAID HE DELIBERATELY TRIED NOT TO COMMIT HIMSELF TO SEE WHAT HAWKE WOULD DO. EVANS ARGUED, WITHOUT ACTUALLY SAYING SO, FOR MOVING FOUR AUSTRALIAN WARSHIPS INTO THE PERSIAN GULF. RAY FAVORED SENDING F-18 AIRCRAFT, NOT WARSHIPS. BUTTON OPPOSED HELPING AT ALL BECAUSE OF RESENTMENT OVER U.S. EEP-SUBSIDIZED SALES.

9. THERE FOLLOWED A LONG PAUSE WHILE HAWKE WAITED FOR KEATING TO SAY SOMETHING AND KEATING TRIED TO AVOID COMMITTING HIMSELF BEFORE HAWKE SPOKE. KEATING SAID HAWKE KEPT HIS HEAD DOWN, LOOKING AT THE PEANUT DISH ON THE TABLE, REFUSING TO SAY ANYTHING, AND STUDIOUSLY EXAMINING EVERY PEANUT. FINALLY, KEATING SAID HE ASKED RHETORICALLY, "SHOULD THE REAL LEADER TELL US WHAT TO DO?" AND THEN STATED HIS VIEW THAT AUSTRALIA SHOULD SEND NO PLANES AND TWO SHIPS, BUT THE SHIPS SHOULD MOVE INTO THE PERSIAN GULF AND NOT STAY OUT IN THE ARABIAN SEA. HAWKE, PER KEATING, BREATHED A GREAT SIGH OF RELIEF, AS KEATING EXPLAINED THAT THERE WAS NOT ENOUGH DOMESTIC SUPPORT TO SEND MORE THAN 2 SHIPS, BUT THOSE SHIPS SHOULD ACTIVELY PARTICIPATE IN THE WAR EFFORT. (KEATING RECALLED FOR US THAT THE AUSTRALIAN SHIPS WERE U.S.-BUILT AND FULLY COMPATIBLE WITH THE USN IN THE GULF.) AT THIS POINT, BUTTON SHIFTED TO SUPPORT KEATING'S POSITION. (NOTE: KEATING'S SELF-SERVING ACCOUNT DOES CLARIFY HIS JUNE 3 COMMENT (REPORTED REF B) TO THEN-EMBASSY POLCOUNS THAT HE WAS "THE ONE WHO DECIDED TO SEND THE SHIPS INTO THE GULF." END NOTE)

ANTARCTICA

10. KEATING SAID HE SUPPORTED THE 50-YEAR BAN ON MINING IN ANTARCTICA BECAUSE OTHERWISE ANTARCTICA WOULD HAVE BEEN RUINED AND BECAUSE HE DID NOT WANT ANOTHER "RESOURCE CONTINENT" THAT WOULD COMPETE WITH AUSTRALIA.

COMMENT

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SUBJECT: AUSTRALIA - KEATING ON US RELATIONS, GULF WAR

11. KEATING'S SELF-AGGRANDIZING COMMENTS ABOVE
NOTWITHSTANDING, WE DO NOT BELIEVE HE HAS PLAYED A
CENTRAL ROLE IN THE FORMULATION OF AUSTRALIAN DEFENSE
AND FOREIGN POLICY DURING THE HAWKE YEARS. BY FAR,
THE THREE MOST INFLUENTIAL PLAYERS HAVE BEEN HAWKE,
EVANS AND FORMER DEFMIN BEAZLEY. WE TAKE KEATING'S
EXPRESSIONS OF FUNDAMENTAL SUPPORT FOR THE
AUSTRALIAN-U.S. TIE AT FACE VALUE, BUT WE ALSO NOTE
THAT HE HAS SEEN POLITICAL ADVANTAGE IN DISTANCING
HIMSELF FROM BOB HAWKE'S WARM EMBRACE OF THE AMERICAN
CONNECTION. KEATING'S TRACK RECORD SO FAR INDICATES
HE WOULD BE A RELIABLE FRIEND AND ALLY BUT WITH A
LITTLE MORE SPACE BETWEEN THE TWO OF US. END
COMMENT SEMBLER##

<SECT>SECTION: 01 OF 03
<SECT>SECTION: 02 OF 03
<SECT>SECTION: 03 OF 03

NATIONAL SECURITY COUNCIL

December 9, 1991

FOR TONY SNOW

FROM TORTEL PATERSON

I hope the attached materials can get you started with some of the trade themes. Paul Blustein's piece in the Post is the right angle and contrasts correctly with Songus' piece in the Times. We need to encourage U.S. business to be players in the region.

US ASEAN

**U.S.-ASEAN COUNCIL
for Business and
Technology, Inc.**

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ASEAN: A MAJOR U.S. MARKET

The Rich and Growing ASEAN Market

- ASEAN Population - 320 million
- ASEAN Nominal GDP - more than US\$300 billion in 1990
- ASEAN GDP Growth - average growth rates of 7% over the past 10 years
- ASEAN Imports - more than US\$155 billion in 1990

A Major U.S. Export Market

- ASEAN is the third largest overseas market for U.S. exports after Japan and the E.C. (fifth largest market if border trade with Canada and Mexico is included).
- U.S. exports grew 47% during 1989 and 1990, and 63% for the three years, including 1991.
- Our exports to ASEAN were close to US\$19 billion in 1990, and are projected to reach US\$21 billion in 1991.
- At the US\$21 billion level, our exports to ASEAN would account for 400,000 jobs in the U.S.
- Hi-tech items dominate U.S. exports. They include electronic components, aircraft and parts, office and automated data processing machines.

Growing Investment Opportunities

- The U.S. investment position in ASEAN reached US\$12.3 billion in 1990, up 21.6% from the 1989 level.
- U.S. investment in Singapore surged 71% in 1990
- U.S. investment by sector: petroleum (42.2%)
manufacturing (37.4%)
others (20.4%)

EH\BUSH\STATS.BUS
12/4/91

In his Asia trip, the President will visit countries representing three of our top four overseas export markets. Singapore is our largest trade partner in ASEAN which is our third largest overseas export market. Korea is our no. 4 market, and Japan is no. 2 after the EC. These are growing markets. U.S. exports to ASEAN are up about 60 percent in the past three years, Korea 40 percent, and Japan 30 percent.

American exports equals jobs for Americans. ASEAN, Korea and Japan together account for over 1.7 million U.S. jobs (US\$86 billion in U.S. exports x 20,000 jobs per billion of exports = 1.726 million jobs).

*Learn how to do things
even better ~~than~~.*

*• MARUS
• GOREMAN
• GARVIN
• ROBINSON ?
• STIMPLE*

THE NEW YORK TIMES THURSDAY, DECEMBER 5, 1991 PG D1 & D22

Power of the Yen Winning Asia

New 'Co-Prosperity' Is Displacing U.S.

By DAVID E. SANGER

Special to The New York Times

KUALA LUMPUR, Malaysia — The day that most Americans remember as a day of infamy resonates very differently in Asia. Here, Pearl Harbor is regarded as a sideshow to Japan's real ambitions in World War II — the creation of a "Greater East Asian Co-Prosperity Sphere," an economic and military empire that stretched from the coal mines of Manchuria to the oilfields of Indonesia.

Fifty years later, in radically different form and with very different

50 Years Later

Last of three articles:

Asian Quest

purposes, the co-prosperity sphere lives on. Over the last decade, while America's attention was elsewhere, Japan has poured billions of dollars and enormous energy into the region, building car factories and electronics plants here on the edge of the Malaysian jungle, employing thousands in the Thai countryside and erecting giant shopping centers and office towers in Hong Kong and Singapore.

As Japan has turned Asia into its manufacturing and merchandising backyard, it has ever so gradually begun to displace the United States as the most politically influential power in the region. This time, the Japanese insist, the outcome will be real co-prosperity, with the power of the yen, not the military, bringing Asia into its own.

With surprisingly little trepidation, Southeast Asians have welcomed Japan's return, concluding that the road

to industrialization, or at least to capital and technology, now starts in Tokyo. Certainly deep bitterness remains: Emperor Akihito and Japan's political leaders still cannot arrive anywhere in Asia without apologizing and promising that Japan will never

again seek new territory. Tellingly, even a debate now under way in the Japanese Parliament over an apology for the suffering caused during

World War II is aimed more at Asia than at the United States.

But whatever fears Asia has of a resurgent Japan are overwhelmed by a growing conviction that Japan's studiously non-ideological pragmatism should be the archetype for much of the rest of Asia.

"I think there is a sense in Southeast Asia that the Americans kicked themselves out," said Takakazu Kuriyama, who recently retired as Japan's deputy foreign minister and served in the mid-80's as ambassador to Malaysia. "In the 60's and 70's the United States understood its strategic interests in the area. But it is not clear now that it always understands its economic interests."

To travel through Southeast Asia today is to hear government officials and industrial leaders talk enthusiastically about their one-time invader as their teacher and financier. In contrast, the United States is often described as the region's absentee ally, a continuing military presence but an increasingly marginal player in the most dynamic, booming economies in the world today.

In their more candid moments, Japanese officials say that how they harness Asia's talent and energy in the next few years may ultimately determine whether, in the early part of the next century, Japan's economy overtakes that of the United States. For them, Asia is the critical cog in the machine, a cure for Japan's shortage of talented labor and inexpensive land, a way to free up Japan's resources for more profitable, research-oriented work at home.

For Japan, investing in Asia has been an enormously profitable strategy, not only by manufacturing there but by selling there. Japanese argue that their efforts have helped Asia too, fueling the double-digit growth that swept many of its hard-driving economies through much of the 80's. Only recently have those rates slowed to growth rates of 6 to 9 percent a year, at a time much of the rest of the world economy is stagnant.

The most remarkable change wrought by the Japanese is what they have built over the last six years — at a cost of more than \$25 billion, three times what the United States has spent in the same period. Piece by piece, corporate Japan has created a startling replica of itself, not only in look and feel but also in culture. As a result, a region that only 15 years ago was seen by the United States as on the brink of falling to Communism has instead embraced a decidedly capitalist model — but capitalism Japanese-style.

The shift is most vivid inside the giant factories of the Matsushita Electric Industrial Company here. The company's operations account for more than 3 percent of Malaysia's gross national product. Every morning, 17,000 Malaysian workers pour through the gates wearing uniforms nearly identical to those at Matsushita's headquarters in Osaka. They start the day by singing the Matsushita song — in Malay — and spend 45 minutes discussing Japanese-style manufacturing techniques with their managers before heading to their posts on sparkling, highly automated production lines.

The Japanese love it. "In some ways it is better than operating in the U.S.," says Tadashi Akita, the head of Matsushita's operations here and a veteran of the company's plants in North America. "Now, we can buy most of our parts here. The quality is high."

And because the cultural gap between teacher and student seems narrower than it does when Japan builds factories in the West, "the workers are easy to train," Mr. Akita said.

Seeking Future With Other Asians

Matsushita is here largely because the Prime Minister, Mahatir Mohamad, has explicitly urged his people for the last decade to "look East," and find Asia's future with other Asians, meaning the Japanese. Mr. Mahatir has spent most of the year pressing a plan for a new economic grouping that excludes non-Asians. Japan, torn between its Asian identity and its Western interests, would be the linchpin, and so far it has sided with the United States in trying to bury the

idea.

Like their counterparts in Singapore and Seoul, Malaysia's planners have closely copied Tokyo's strategy of "targeting" strategic industries, financing major projects in autos and electronics, exporting fiercely and protecting infant industries.

"What we most want to emulate is the Japanese work ethic, the sense of loyalty to the country and the company," said Mohammad Rusli, one of Malaysia's economic planners. "Japan's experience of rebuilding after the war, the way it got workers and management to cooperate and got the economy to grow in leaps and bounds, seems very Asian to us. It has much more relevance to our society than the experience of the West."

Without question, the new co-prosperity sphere is very different from the old. The Japanese who landed in Dutch-controlled Indonesia, the Philippines and the old British colony of Malaya 50 years ago had to fight their way off the beaches. Today they are feted the way Katsushige Mita, president of Hitachi Ltd., was a few weeks ago when he arrived here to open yet more factories. "We feel very welcome here," Mr. Mita said.

Japan's motives have also changed. Hideki Tojo, Japan's wartime prime minister, sought natural resources and military bases

to keep the imperial empire afloat, and promised liberation from "ruthless exploitation by the United States and Britain."

Today Mitsubishi, Toyota and Mitsui seek liberation from the expense of doing business in Japan and promise to bring VCR's and Japanese fashions to a rising generation of Asian consumers. And this time, the Japanese have kept explicit political ideology out of the equation, substituting the highly pragmatic, pro-business formulas that implicitly promise to make other Asian countries more like Japan.

That has given Japan a political influence in the region that is hard to define, yet universally felt. In Kuala Lumpur, for example, virtually everyone acknowledges that one of the most influential behind-the-scenes power brokers is the longtime head of the Mitsui trading company office, Kazumasa Suzuki. In Thailand, the military Government has made it clear that the No. 1 concern of Japanese investors, rapidly improving a network of roads and telephones that is collapsing under the strain of development, has also become the Government's top priority.

"They have a forceful, one-dimensional approach to developing Asia's economies," Paul Cleveland, the American Ambassador to Malaysia, said of Japan's approach. "Later on, as a great nation and people, I'm sure the Japanese harbor other designs. But right now, they may not know what they are."

Other factors have paved the way for Japanese-style capitalism. For example, almost all of the countries pursuing the Japanese model are run by authoritarian-leaning governments that openly admire the 35 years of single-party rule by Japan's ruling Liberal Democratic Party. Many consider that stability essential to staying focused on economic development.

Wartime antagonisms do still run high in some of these countries, especially in places like Singapore, where 130,000 Chinese were killed as Japanese forces swept down the Malay peninsula and captured the city in the winter of 1941-42. In Korea, a Japanese colony for 40 years and today Japan's biggest Asian manufacturing rival, enmity for the Japanese often bubbles to the surface in conversations, especially when the subject turns to how Japan has cut South Korea off from new, Japanese-developed technology.

Elsewhere, though, a desire to build new bridges to Japan is quickly softening wartime memories. Thai officials now frequently point out that Thailand was allied with Japan during the war, something that was impolitic to mention just a few years ago. Japanese in Malaysia contend that older residents have thanked them for the Japanese invasion. "They say it triggered the postwar independence movement" from Britain, Mr. Akita noted recently.

At the same time, there is a constant worry about Japan's ultimate intentions. The Singapore Defense Minister, commenting on a plan under consideration in Japan's Parliament to allow the Japanese military to join United Nations peacekeeping forces, warned that Japan has the technology and power to "transform overnight into a military power

of the highest order." Singapore has led the calls for the United States to remain a major military presence in the region.

"There is no country in Asia that would welcome us," a senior Japanese diplomat in Tokyo said the other day, "if the U.S.-Japan relationship was not maintained. With our past and our size, they would be too scared."

Is America's Mind Elsewhere?

But America's presence is not solely military. Singapore, for example, remains a leading outpost of American companies, from Apple to A.T.&T., and there are American success stories in every country. Exxon and other oil companies continue to invest heavily in drilling projects; Intel and Motorola have expanded their electronics operations; Asia is one of the few bright spots for I.B.M. these days. American companies are courted because of their willingness — in contrast to Japanese concerns — to transfer technology and promote local executives.

Nonetheless there is a widespread sense that America's mind is elsewhere. "American executives come through here, and intellectually they understand it when I tell them

that if they are not in Asia in the next century, they will probably be out of business," said Mr. Cleveland, who with other American ambassadors in the area plans to barnstorm around the United States early next year to drum up more investment.

"But it requires a lot more to invest in Asia," he added. "You have to change your character, your own practices. And in the end, many decide they don't want to do it."

Rightly or wrongly, Japanese cite America's absence as an example of the shortsightedness of American industry. "U.S. companies will change their mind in the near future," said Atsushi Oi, who oversees Japan's Asia strategies for the powerful Minister of International Trade and Industry. "And the market will still be growing. But no one can really understand why they are giving up the chance to grab leading positions."

Japan's move into Asia began in earnest in 1985, soon after the so-called Plaza currency accord with the United States strongly drove up the value of the yen and the price of Japanese exports. Desperate to cut costs, Japanese companies flocked to countries with easily trained, low-cost labor.

By all accounts, it was not a move orchestrated by the Japanese Government. Like most of Japan's industrial policy today, it did not need to be. The Keidanren, the organization that represents Japan's biggest businesses, organized "survey tours" and investing in Southeast Asia soon became a game of one-upmanship.

If the move was driven by economics, it was accelerated by Japanese-American trade politics. Goods built in Malaysia or Thailand are not included in Japan's trade accounts with the United States, even if they contain largely Japanese components. So Japan can still make television sets and VCR's and send them to American stores without further enlarging the American trade deficit with Japan because of what amounts to an accounting shell game that no one has yet been able to quantify accurately. If these goods were counted, the Japanese trade surplus would look far larger.

The development process was speeded by policy changes in some of the Asian countries. Malaysia, for example, had depended for years on its own people — chiefly the "bumiputra," or native Malays, to industrialize the country. But it was not working. The Chinese minority in Malaysia, often at odds with the bumiputra, dominated the business world.

Call Goes Out For Foreign Help

So Mr. Mahathir, a wily leader with a strong nationalistic streak, reversed course, creating huge tax incentives for foreign investment and calling in companies like Mitsubishi Motors to design and manufacture a national car. Today the streets are filled with a compact model called the Proton, complete with an illuminated Malaysian flag on the

hood. Now more than 800 Japanese manufacturers are here, and their presence has transformed the economy: 59 percent of Malaysia's exports in 1990 were manufactured goods.

Matsushita led the drive. It vastly expanded its plants. Today it has one of the world's largest air-conditioner plants here — Malaysia next year will be the world's largest producer of room air-conditioners — and it is building 14-inch television sets on a highly automated manufacturing line that uses some equipment so advanced that it has yet to be installed in Matsushita's older plants in Japan.

Matsushita brought with it a raft of Japanese suppliers, many of whom entered joint ventures with local companies. Now roughly 80 percent of the parts used in the television sets are locally sourced — though many of them by Japanese-based companies with long ties to the electronics giant.

Slowly Japan is moving more technology to places like the Matsushita plant, even designing television sets there. But as the investment flow slows — it is already beginning to happen — tensions seem bound to rise. Japan's experience in Korea and Taiwan suggests it still plans to leave the most advanced, highest-value work at home, farming out the less profitable tasks. Over time, the nations that welcome Japan today may feel increasingly exploited.

The lingering question of Japan's real motives will always push itself to the fore. For now, the Japanese seem happy to keep the new co-prosperity sphere solely economic in nature. But as Japan's interests in the region deepen, no one knows, in the words of a senior European diplomat with wide experience in the region, "how long the political presence will stay so benign."

For the United States, many believe, the time to challenge Japan in its home region is running short. "The story is like Pearl Harbor," said James Alfred, a Malaysian who has long worked for Matsushita. "I look around and I see America enjoying itself. The Japanese are busy getting ready for the next project, refueling themselves in the air. You never saw the planes coming across the Pacific, and you may not see this, either."

My views on foreign trade and investment are known. I am an advocate for free and open trade. I have called for fairness between parties. I will continue to be driven by these principles.

I acknowledge the substantial and continuing trade deficit between Japan and the United States. All parties are pleased that it has moderated from its peak of a few years ago. But the current high level and projections show little promise for early, continuing reduction following the course we are pursuing.

My countrymen and I are obliged to acknowledge that this cannot sustain and still retain a healthy business relationship between our two countries and the essential high order of cooperation and respect on all other international affairs.

Therefore I am obliged to take a new position in our mutual best interest. I have concluded that I must be a firmer influence to effect a reduction in the trade deficit between our two countries by at least 50 percent by the end of my second term as President of the United States.

Our present deficit exceeds \$40 billion. An objective of tempering this to at least something in the \$20 billion range over the next five years is not unreasonable. It is one that should be accomplishable in the mix of all of the private transactions that it could involve without significant dislocations.

From the U.S. side, I expect that this will be accomplished by the private sector. I intend to encourage the following actions as a minimum by the U.S. private business sector.

First, we recognize that the Japanese standards as customers are high. I am returning to the United States with the intention of calling together the representatives of our principal businesses to urge an enhanced rededication to improving the quality of service and product that they will further accomplish in the interest of earning a higher market share in Japan.

Fortunately, much of American business has demonstrated a higher quality culture over the last three years significantly as a result of the Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award program. This has stimulated heightened levels of quality and customer service with even greater promise. It is my intention to urge that my fellow

Americans embrace these objectives with vigor and thus deserve to earn a larger position in the Japanese market.

Second, I am going to call upon my American industrial associates to examine the sufficiency of their resources and readiness to serve the Japanese markets. Increased exports from the United States must be one part of the formula that reduces our differential. Americans must have the capacity and readiness in place, if insufficient at this time, to serve the Japanese market in a timely fashion.

Each industry and each company within that industry must decide for itself what it aspires to achieve. Our government will not direct. Yet, I am going to ask my associates in government to maintain a vigilant cognizance and so report to me the increasing level of American responsiveness to Japan's needs and Japan's response to these offerings.

Third, I am suggesting that key industries as they so wish to define themselves will initiate industry sector to industry sector discussions and possibly negotiations aimed at growing their total business and changing their balance of trade. This idea has been tested by one industry. It is my expectation that such sector discussions appropriately monitored to legal standards could be effective in the automotive and electronics industry at least. Other industries of the two countries whose sector leaders are willing will be similarly encouraged. The opportunity for more open marketness stimulated by direct industry discussions could contribute to a more balanced net trade between our two countries.

I will want reports from time to time as well as results.

Japan for its part must define reciprocal actions and responses.

I urge and expect the Japanese companies to enter sector to sector deliberations with positive intentions.

I urge the Japanese professional buyers to accent the positive proactive role of the customer in drawing the American supplier into the supply relationship in a partnering way. Those of us who have been through all phases of Japan/American trade remember the 50s and part of the 60s when American customers had to reach out helpfully in building a useable relationship with one Japanese company after another. Today, the Japanese professional buyer can do more in the

manner of their American counterparts of three decades ago. Whatever increment of difference that may pertain regarding specifications, delivery, quality, etc. can be overcome through a customer/supplier pro-active partnering spirit refreshingly nourished by a renewed offering of quality and resourcing from responsive American suppliers.

I want to make it clear that Americans are now of the mood that we must achieve this kind of a result. I want the result to be achieved as a function of the private sector of both nations working this out as customers and suppliers who know how to team and partner with each other as well as compete with each other in other parts of their business.

If in the course of this five year span of time I get the sense that we're not accomplishing results then the pressures will swell for last resort mechanisms. You have seen all manner of proposals along this line over recent years. I have resisted them. I do not want to see last resort mechanisms used. But I cannot imagine that America's patience both in itself and in its trading partner can sustain indefinitely.

My focus is not on such resorts. It is on a positive new dedication on the part of both parties--American suppliers and Japanese customers as well as Japanese suppliers and American customers.

This is a big world. Markets will expand. We must firmly pursue this modified course to upgrade, grow and further balance our affairs.

WP 12/8/91

RIGHT



BY GARY HOVLAND FOR THE WASHINGTON POST

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General Fireproofing's plants went on the auction block after the huge furniture manufacturer filed for bankruptcy.

THE VINDICATOR

hail had terminated retiree health benefits, leaving more than 90,000 retirees responsible for their own health coverage, either permanently or temporarily.

Health benefits are particularly vulnerable because, unlike the case with pensions, companies are not required to "pre-fund" the benefits and can choose to pay out for retiree hospital and doctor bills as the expenses are incurred. As a result, many manufacturers have generated literally billions of dollars in liabilities that will come due as their workers retire.

Because the federal government does not insure health benefits the way it does pensions, workers have no guarantees, other than the good faith of their companies, that they will be there after retirement.

In most cases, Medicare benefits are not available until age 65, and retirees who cannot continue their company health coverage often have trouble getting private insurance because of existing health problems. Medicaid benefits cover only the poorest of the poor.

"It is a real outrageous result," said David M. Fusco, a Cleveland lawyer for the United Steelworkers of America. "There are exceptions to these rules, and employers are taking advantage of them."

See HEALTH CARE, H6, Col. 3

Japan's 'Asian Bloc': More Illusion Than Reality

Behind the Rhetoric, Trade Statistics Show Nation's Ties Are Far Stronger to North America

By Paul Blustein
Washington Post Foreign Service

BANGKOK—An hour's drive on the highway leading east from Thailand's capital vividly documents Japan's growing economic power in this part of the world.

Nearly every car whizzing by is a Toyota, a Honda, an Isuzu or some other Japanese make. Every couple of miles, another Japanese-owned factory looms, making the likes of Daikin air conditioners, Mitsubishi electrical equipment, Hitachi wire, Nissan auto parts and Yamaha sports equipment.

Similar scenes can be found in Malaysia, Indonesia and other nations in East and Southeast Asia, the result of Japan's unprecedented, \$28 billion investment in the region over the past five years.

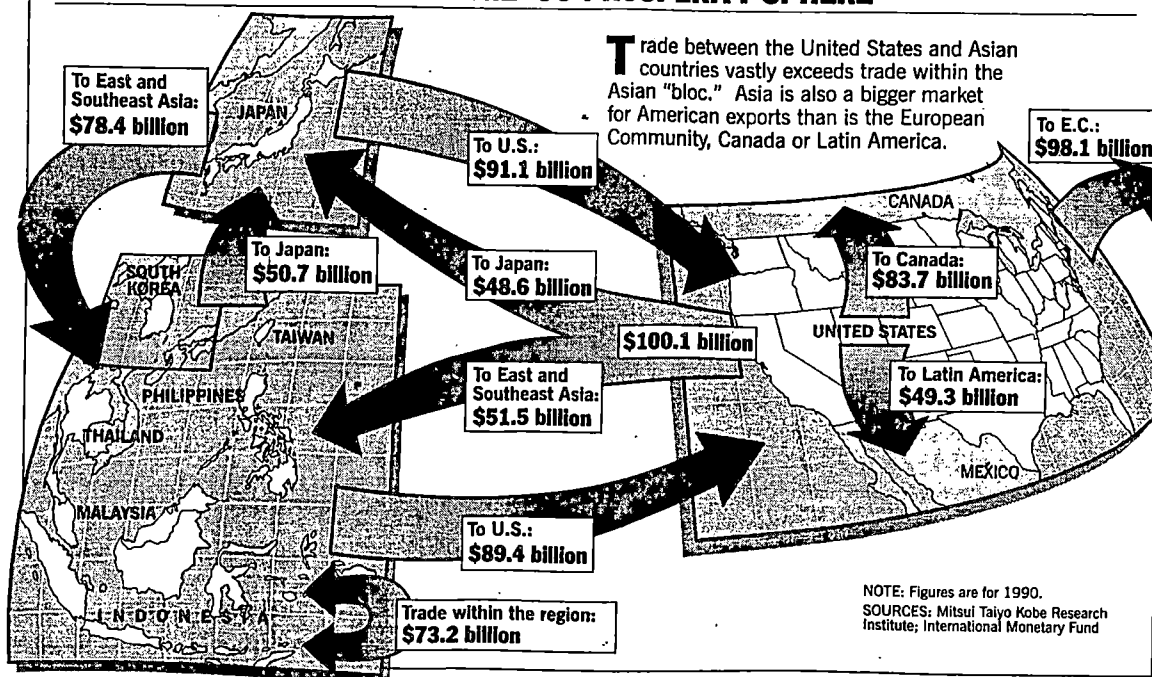
But although Japan's economic forays may recall anxious memories of its military reach for dominance over Asia 50 years ago, the reality does not quite measure up to that image, according to a range of experts and a solid array of trade statistics.

Moreover, if any sort of economic "bloc" of nations is in the making, economists say, it is one that stretches across the Pacific Ocean to include not just Asia, but North America as well.

"One can't get away from the fact that there is increased trade within Asia, but even more dramatic and even more impor-

See JAPAN, H5, Col. 1

A LOOK AT THE 'CO-PROSPERITY SPHERE'



BY RICHARD FURNO—THE WASHINGTON POST

HOBART ROWEN

U.S. Must Lead Soviet Rescue—Now

Time may be running out for the West to launch an effective plan to rescue what once was called the Soviet Union. The Bush administration, distracted now by a necessary focus on the domestic recession, doesn't seem to have a long-term game plan.

A senior administration official told me that in the first eight months of this year, Soviet economic output plunged about 15 percent, nearly twice the average annual decline during the American Great Depression in the 1930s.

He estimated that inflation is running at a 300 percent annual rate; that agricultural production was down 9 percent; that the grain harvest is off 27 percent; and that the Soviet government deficit may be as high as 25 percent of national production.

The most recent wake-up call for the United States comes from its new ambassador to the Soviet Union, Robert S. Strauss. One of Strauss's

See ROWEN, H4, Col. 3

Japan's Neighbors Wary of Nation's Power in Area

JAPAN, From H1

tant is the increase in cross-Pacific trade," said Peter Petri, a Brandeis University professor who has written extensively on the subject. "There have now been established such close links across the Pacific that I cannot imagine anytime in the near future a viable Asian bloc that doesn't include the countries on the eastern side of the Pacific."

Among those links, for example, is the \$109 billion that Japanese companies have poured into North America to erect factories and buy businesses over the past five years—a figure nearly four times the amount invested in Asia.

Such a conclusion may seem surprising, for both the Western and Asian press have been rife with speculation that an Asian bloc is in the works. Helping to fuel the talk was the proposal last year by Malaysian Prime Minister Mahathir Mohamad for the creation of an East Asian Economic Group (EAEG) that would include Japan and the other Asian nations of the Western Pacific, while excluding the United States, Canada, Australia and New Zealand.

Further heightening the perception of a bloc in formation is the fact that this year, Japan's trade with its Asian neighbors will exceed its trade with the United States for the first time in decades. Meanwhile, the closing of U.S. military bases in the Philippines and the planned withdrawal of one-tenth of the 135,000 U.S. troops stationed in Asia have reinforced the view that before long, Japan will be stepping into a role as the region's natural leader.

But almost unnoticed among these highly publicized developments are some powerful trends working in the opposite direction. A close look at these trends suggests that, despite Japan's dominance as a supplier, investor and aid-giver in Asia, the American role in the region will remain preeminent for the foreseeable future—unless, of course, the United States decides on its own to retreat into protectionist isolation.

"Japan can't replace the U.S. in terms of wielding influence in this region," said Sanjoy Chowdhury, chief regional economist for Merrill Lynch & Co. in Singapore. "I think more and more people are realizing that."

Here are some of the reasons:

- The explosion of commerce across the Pacific has given the United States a semi-permanent importance as the largest single customer for Asia's export machines, just as Asian countries are major customers for U.S. manufactured and agricultural products.

"To talk about Japan as the hub of Asia really isn't accurate," said Robert Broadfoot, managing director of Political and Economic Risk Consultancy Ltd., a Hong Kong-based firm. "Japan is a very large supplier to many of the countries of the region, [but] which is more important, your supplier or your market? You can debate that all day."

Not that the U.S. role is being limited to that of customer. "We now export more to Singapore than to Spain or Italy," Secretary of State James A. Baker III noted in a recent speech.

In 1980, two-way trade between the United States and the Asian Pacific countries (including Japan, China and Australia) totaled \$113 billion—almost exactly the same as two-way trade between the United States and Western Europe. Last year, U.S. trade crossing the Pacific exceeded \$300 billion. The figure is roughly one-third greater than either transatlantic trade or intra-Asian trade.

Dig beneath the surface, economists add, and it becomes clear that Japan's growing trade with Asia represents less of a disengagement from the American market than might be assumed. Much of what is happening, according to Petri, is "triangular trade," in which "components and equipment are exported to Asian nations by Japan, and final products go from the Asian countries to the European and U.S. markets."

- Japan's neighbors, ever mindful of Tokyo's past imperialism, are showing a firm resolve to keep a lid on Japanese power in the region.

Throughout capitalist Asia, a constant refrain can be heard: Even after the end of the Cold War, the United States must remain as the region's military superpower—in part because of fears about resurgent Japanese militarism.

"If the U.S. withdrew its forces," said Kook-Chin Kim, dean for research at Korea's Institute of Foreign Affairs and National Security, "Japan would surely increase its military," because of having lost the protection afforded by the U.S. presence. The result, Kim said, would be "a very dangerous situation" as other nations raced to counter the new potential threat from Japan. "Every country in this region appreciates the role that the U.S. plays," he said.

One country—Malaysia—seems to be putting itself unabashedly in Japan's orbit, in part because of Prime Minister Mahathir's zest for thumbing his nose at the West. The Malaysian government even asked the Japan External Trade Organization (JETRO) to perform a study identifying what products Malaysia should specialize in to attract Japanese investment. (The answer: computer

peripherals and fax machines, among others.)

But other Asian nations treat Japan with considerably less warmth, the most notable example being South Korea, which this year opened its stock market to foreign brokerage firms but pointedly excluded all Japanese securities houses.

Moreover, Asian leaders have shown little enthusiasm for Mahathir's proposal to create an exclusive group of Asian nations because to do so would begin the process of cutting themselves off from America and handing regional leadership over to Japan.

Even though Mahathir's proposal has been watered down to a mere "caucus" for discussing regional matters, "It's a crazy idea" to start down the road of Asian exclusivity, a Korean diplomat said. Only if Europe and the Americas split into protec-

tionist blocs would it make any sense, he added.

- American culture and values are spreading, not receding, in Asia.

Much attention has been paid to the growing popularity in places like Bangkok and Kuala Lumpur of Japanese pop culture crazes such as *karaoke* (sing-along bars) and *manga* (comic books). But for sheer impact on Asian public opinion, nothing can beat the fact that the region's elite youth are flocking to attend U.S. universities in record numbers—229,800 in the 1990-91 academic year, well more than double the number enrolled a decade before and six times the number enrolled in Japanese universities.

Beyond that are some more intangible factors. The Japanese working in Asia are widely denounced for failing to promote local people to top management positions, for refusing to share their companies' technolo-

gies, and for generally being clanish. U.S. businesses, by contrast, are regarded as much more open and integrated with their communities.

It is undeniable, however, that Japan's ability to shape events in this part of the world is far greater than 15 years ago, when a visit by then-prime minister Kakuei Tanaka sparked riots in Bangkok.

This increasing influence is a natural consequence of the magnetic pull that Japan's economic success has in creating a role model for some less successful economies. It is also a natural consequence of the benefits that Japanese investment has brought. Malaysia, for example, has gone in five years from being an exporter primarily of rubber, palm oil, crude oil and tin to an exporter pri-

See JAPAN, H6, Col. 1

U.S. Role In Asia Well Established

JAPAN, From H5

marily of manufactured products such as air conditioners.

What worries many Americans in the region is that U.S. companies have for the most part stood idly by while Japanese competitors have sunk their roots into some of the most dynamic economies of the world. A few American high-technology companies, such as Motorola Inc., Intel Corp., Advanced Micro Devices Inc. and Texas Instruments Inc., have established new Asian manufacturing operations in recent years, but they are the exception rather than the rule.

"We used to own the auto market out here," lamented Bob Martin, the head of Colgate-Palmolive Co.'s Thai operation. "Now you can't even see an American car. This is where per capita income is increasing; this is where the market is booming. How can the U.S. auto industry not be here?"

And there is evidence that Japanese companies are starting to embark on a new strategy to capitalize on Asia's rapidly growing markets. When they first began erecting factories in the region, they were motivated by a need to secure cheap labor, to compensate for a surge in the value of the yen starting in 1985 that was threatening to render their products uncompetitive. Now, the same companies are investing more with an eye to serving an increasingly prosperous local customer base.

For example, Daikin Industries Ltd., an air conditioner maker, announced

last week that it will expand its Bangkok plant so that it can manufacture 180,000 units a year, triple the current level. The company said it would ship about half of those air conditioners to Japan, but half will go for the local Southeast Asian and Australian market.

But a number of veteran observers shrug their shoulders over the Japanese surge. "Japan is the new boy on the block in terms of foreign investment," said Broadfoot of Political and Economic Risk Consultancy. "The average U.S. company has got about 21 percent of its production outside the United States, and the average German company has about 17 or 18 percent of its production outside Germany. The average Japanese company has only about 6 percent of its production outside Japan. They're rushing to catch up now, and everyone is saying, 'We're being taken over.'"

But the U.S. presence in Asia was well established before the Japanese surge began and there are some signs of a selective revival. Broadfoot and other analysts predict, for example, that the highly competitive U.S. service industry will become increasingly active in Asia over the coming decade; an example is National Medical Enterprises, which is already running medical operations in Singapore, Malaysia and other countries.

"The U.S. and Europeans invested in this region a long time ago," Broadfoot continued. "Take a look, for example, at Hong Kong. Look at the U.S. Chamber [of Commerce] versus the Japanese Chamber. The U.S. Chamber has about five times the membership." That partly reflects the fact that American companies have been in Hong Kong longer, he said, but it also reflects the large non-American membership of the group, "because the organization is localized. Look at the Japanese membership—it's just Japanese names, which shows what one of their problems is."

Bankruptcies E

HEALTH CARE, From H1

Apart from General Fireproofing, consider what's happened in the Youngstown area alone, a region that was battered badly in the 1980s by the declining fortunes of the steel industry and the resulting loss of some 50,000 manufacturing jobs. Republic Hose Manufacturing Corp. shut down last year, leaving more than 130 workers and retirees without health coverage. Another firm, Valley-Vulcan Mold Co., ceased paying all of its retiree benefits after filing for protection under Chapter 11 of the federal bankruptcy code.

To find ways of reducing burgeoning medical costs, even profitable companies have begun to reduce coverage of retirees. But in economically hard-hit manufacturing communities such as Youngstown, where hundreds of middle-aged people and their families have lost their coverage, anxiety has pushed the issue to the front burner. Youngstown is just west of the border with Pennsylvania, where Harris Wofford (D) capitalized on these concerns to win an upset victory over former U.S. attorney general Richard Thornburgh in last month's Senate race.

"This is absolutely the single thing most on the mind of people in my district," said Robert F. Hagen, Youngstown's representative in the Ohio legislature and sponsor of a universal health plan for the state along the lines of Canada's national health plan. "People can't pay for health care anymore, and they're feeling it. They're feeling the threat of losing their home."

Staughton and Alice Lynd, legal services attorneys representing GF workers here, said places like Youngstown are full of families who worked their entire lives in one plant to become entitled to fringe benefits such as medical insurance and pensions.

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Attachments

U.S.-Japan Trade Relationship

- o Japan is our second-largest export market after Canada, and it is our largest agricultural market.
- o Japan is a billion dollar market for many U.S. products ranging from aluminum and beef to semiconductors and medical equipment.
- o We have run a large trade deficit with Japan for many years, which peaked in 1987 at \$57 billion.
- o Since then, our deficit has fallen steadily to \$41 billion in 1990. Even so, our 1990 bilateral trade deficit was 41 percent of our global deficit.
- o Despite the persistence of the deficit, the U.S. trade relationship with Japan has improved substantially on the export side.
- o Since 1985, our exports to Japan have risen 119%, compared to a 79% increase in U.S. exports globally.
- o Some have worried that the U.S. has become an "economic colony" of Japan, importing final manufactured goods while exporting agricultural and primary products.
- o In fact, in recent years Japanese purchases of U.S. manufactured products have risen much faster than have their imports of U.S. agricultural and primary products.
 - Manufactured goods now account for about 64% of U.S. exports to Japan, up from 55% in 1985.
- o However, our deficit with Japan was on the rise during the first nine months of this year, up 4.7% from 1990, to \$30.9 billion from \$29.2 billion.
 - This is in part a function of Japan's global surplus, which is up sharply this year to \$56 billion from \$29 billion, January-September.
 - In upcoming months, a slowing Japanese economy can be expected to put pressure on Japanese firms to export.
- o Our insatiable appetite for imports, especially Japanese imports, makes that task easy for Japanese firms.
 - In 1990, U.S. imports of Japanese autos and auto parts exceeded our auto exports to Japan by \$30.3 billion.
- o Balancing the bilateral trade relationship will depend in part on the ability of U.S. businesses to compete with Japanese products here at home.

Investment

- o The U.S. is the largest net foreign investor in the world.
 - In the third quarter of 1990, the book value of U.S. direct foreign investment (DFI) stood at \$411 billion.
 - Japan's global stock of DFI is about one-third of ours.
- o Quarterly inflows of foreign investment into the U.S. have fallen steadily from the peak in the fourth quarter of 1989, from \$22.4 billion to \$3.3 billion in the second quarter of 1991.
- o In the first three quarters of 1990, our investment overseas grew by nearly \$40 billion; foreign investment in the U.S. grew by only \$20 billion.
- o Japan is the second-largest investor in the U.S. after the United Kingdom. Japanese investment stood at \$84 billion in 1990, compared to \$122 billion of British investments.
- o Direct investment flows from Japan nosedived from \$12.3 billion in the first half of 1990 to \$0.8 billion in the first half of 1991.

Drafted:EAP/J:HKenworthy
12/6/91 SEJEC 6690

Implications for American Education

Epilogue by Secretary William J. Bennett

What lessons might we draw for ourselves from a close look at Japanese education? It is scarcely a novel query. Japan, after all, has increasingly become a reference point or gauge by which Americans appraise our own education system.

At the same time, many American educators have tended to shun the "lessons" of Japanese education. "Their culture is so different," we are told, or "their society is so homogeneous," that nothing about their education enterprise could possibly be germane to the American experience. This stance seems somewhat peculiar for American educators, who generally want the lessons children learn in our schools to yield deep understanding and appreciation of other peoples and cultures. So it strikes me as odd that many educators have characterized Japanese education as interesting, perhaps in its own terms impressive, but fundamentally irrelevant to their lives and work.

Why should we Americans seek to distill lessons for ourselves from the experience of Japanese education? For two main reasons, the first practical, the second more idealistic.

Japanese education *works*. It is not perfect, but it has been demonstrably successful in providing modern Japan with a powerfully competitive economy, a broadly literate population, a stable democratic government, a civilization in which there is relatively little crime or violence, and a functional society wherein the basic technological infrastructure is sound and reliable. One may not attribute these accomplishments entirely to the education system, but it would be folly to deny that the education system has strongly reinforced them.

We Americans, being a pragmatic people, would therefore be well-advised to learn what we can from Japanese education if only because of its manifest success. But there is a more abstract reason, too: It is the American belief in the value of universal education that the Japanese have so successfully put into practice, and the American quandary over "equality" and "excellence" that the Japanese seem rather satisfactorily to have resolved. *Our* educational ideals are better realized on a large scale in Japan than observers have tended to realize.

This is not, to be sure, entirely coincidental. The structures, policies and practices of modern Japanese education have been influenced in no small part by that nation's remarkable knack for borrowing an idea and then adapting it, working it out in detail, and executing it with thoroughness and finesse in the Japanese context. And at least a few of the ideas and approaches used in education in Japan can be traced to American influence four decades ago.

What lessons, then, do I draw from Japanese education that American educators and policymakers may wish to consider? Not, let me be clear, that we should try to mimic specific practices or imitate particular arrangements. We would not, for example, want to emulate the basic organizational framework of Japanese education that relies heavily on direction and control from the central government.

Instead, we should look for principles, emphases and relationships in Japanese education that are compatible with American values, indeed that tend to *embody* American values (as well as many findings of education research), to see how we might borrow and adapt them for ourselves.

Let me offer a dozen such principles that I glean from the foregoing pages as well as from other accounts of Japanese education. I would note that none of these findings, conclusions, and impressions is uniquely the property of Japan. Rather, they are uncommonly well-displayed within modern Japanese education. Where appropriate, I have noted some agreements between Japanese practice and our own research findings.

1. Parental engagement with the education of their children, from infancy through high school, makes a big difference in how much and how well children learn. As we said in *What Works*, "parents are their children's first and most influential teachers." It seems to me that Japanese families have melded parenting and formal education in commendable fashion—and in many cases have accomplished this with only one parent "on the scene" much of the time. Yet it does not seem that Japanese families (or preschools and daycare centers) "hurry" young children into academic work. Instead, they do their best to equip the youngster with attitudes and habits that will stand him in good stead when formal schooling begins. And once it does, the parent stays in touch with the teachers, supervises the homework, arranges extra instructional help if needed, and buttresses the child's motivation to do well in school and beyond. Many American parents also do these things. More should.

2. Schools are clear about their purposes—and children and parents are, too. Though Japanese schools attend to character formation, physical health, and good behavior, and offer a wide variety of teams, clubs and other extracurricular activities, they nonetheless seem to remain well-focused on their central functions. They have not turned into societal multiservice centers, nor are they buffeted by pedagogical and curricular fads. They know their mission and role and, while these are not exclusively "cognitive," they are the objects of sustained and purposeful effort by everyone associated with the schools. To borrow once more from *What Works*, a great many Japanese schools seem to embody these characteristics that research has ascribed to "effective" schools: "places where principals, teachers, students, and parents agree on the goals, methods and content of schooling. They are united in recognizing the importance of a coherent curriculum, public recognition for students who succeed, promoting a sense of school pride, and protecting school time for learning."

3. Motivation matters. There is a continuing emphasis in Japanese society, at least through the primary and secondary years, on awakening in students the "desire to try," the sense that significant rewards accompany school success, the conviction

that progress can be made by practically anyone who tries hard enough, and the realization that adults genuinely care about one's performance.

4. Expectations and standards matter, too. Children learn more when more is expected of them. In *What Works* we cited research indicating that "Students tend to learn as little—or as much—as their teachers expect." The Japanese experience suggests that the expectations and standards of community and family powerfully influence the child, too. Leaving aside special schools and programs in the U.S., the Japanese generally seem to expect a level of performance that is closer to children's true intellectual capacities than Americans ordinarily do. More remarkably, they adhere to these standards for virtually all youngsters, never supposing that one or another category or sub-population cannot accomplish as much as everybody else. These beliefs do not, to be sure, work perfectly for every single child, and the Japanese, we understand, are interested in some of our ways of assisting youngsters who have special needs, problems or gifts. But the Japanese also tend not to underestimate children's potential or be overly swayed by external characteristics. They elicit more from students because they have high standards for ordinary youngsters.

5. It is possible to deliver to virtually all children a comprehensive basic education that starts with the "3-R's" but also incorporates history, science, art and music, physical education, practical studies, and the beginning of foreign language study. This can be done through a balanced and integrated curriculum that is substantially the same for all youngsters during the period of compulsory attendance—and then allows limited choices and some specialization in the senior high school.

6. The school can and should do its part to transmit the shared and inherited culture to the next generation. A nation whose young people do not understand its history is ill-equipped to relate knowledgeably to other nations or to learn from experience—either its own or that of others. Moreover, a society whose people fail to become "culturally literate" will have increasing difficulty with internal communications, domestic tranquility, informed civic participation, and external relations.

Though my own intellectual convictions would not lead me to organize a social studies curriculum quite as the Japanese have, I admire the systematic and purposeful stance they have brought to the transmission of historical knowledge and cultural understanding through the schools.

7. Sound character, sturdy values and ethical behavior may not originate in school, but the formal education system can reinforce and nurture these qualities both through the regular curriculum and through the "implicit curriculum," as I termed it in *First Lessons*. This phrase refers to the way the school organizes and presents itself, how the adults in it conduct themselves, the standards that are set for behavior and integrity, the symbols and attitudes, the incentives, rewards, sanctions and ceremonies. Japanese schools designate certain hours for "moral education"—but the amount of attention they pay to children's character far exceeds the class time specifically reserved for such studies. Nor do teachers and principals (or parents and other adults) refrain from committing themselves to clear distinctions, or from indicating preferred courses of action, or imbuing

youngsters with a deep sense of good and bad, right and wrong, moral and immoral. As Aristotle and William James both remind us, character is acquired through habit. And if children see teachers and principals as models of democratic sensibilities, they will tend to build the right kind of habits.

If Japanese schools do any one thing with greater care and persistence than other nations of whose education systems I have knowledge, it is to forge the kinds of habits that their society deems right.

8. The school and classroom environment should reflect the purposes to be achieved there. Japanese education here confirms both research and common sense; a well-ordered, and purposeful learning environment, including both formal discipline and a high level of individual self-discipline, is the kind of setting in which learning best occurs. Appropriate school behavior and effective study habits are instilled in Japanese youngsters from the first day of school—and prudently foreshadowed by much that occurs in home and preschool settings. Visitors to Japanese schools report being in the principal's office of a junior high school with the office door open and several hundred young adolescents not more than 50 yards away. Yet it is possible to converse in normal tones with no interruptions from the corridor. Remarkably, though, Japanese schools are not somber places, nor are their students fearful and inhibited. They laugh and play, are cheerful and enthusiastic, just like girls and boys around the world. But they seem to have learned what kinds of behavior are appropriate, where and when. So should our youngsters.

9. Ensuring that enough time is effectively devoted to learning, in school and out, is one of the most reliable means by which adults can help children acquire a good education. Here Japanese educators and parents seem to have worked out a three-part strategy. First, they assign so many days and hours to formal education that by the end of 12 grades a Japanese student has actually accumulated the equivalent of an entire American school year more instructional time than students the same age in the United States. Second, they minimize diversions and distractions in school so that little time is wasted during the day or in the class period. By ensuring good classroom discipline, and by assigning responsibility for routine procedures to the students themselves, the teacher is able to remain "on task" for nearly all of the allotted time. Third, youngsters do not stop learning when school ends. There is homework to be done, there are exams to be studied for and, for many boys and girls, parents provide for additional, unofficial instruction from various sources. Instead of tailoring standards to the student, Japanese education seems to vary the total learning time that a student puts in so as to enable him to achieve the goals that he and his parents and teachers have set.

10. Besides extracting the most learning from the time available, education needs to ensure that its other resources are deployed in accord with its priorities. The Japanese have put their money into a high quality teaching force and basic education materials, not into frills, large bureaucracies, lavish facilities, innumerable electives or platoons of specialists. Yet children learn—while in school—to play musical instruments, to read a second language, to read and write their own difficult

language, in most schools even to swim! Though teachers are relatively well-paid, their classes are large—and the teaching year lasts nearly 12 months.

Japanese families incur a number of out-of-pocket expenses for education at every level—and they pay tuition for senior high school, even in public institutions. I do not suggest that we emulate that practice, but I do note that in both their private and public outlays for education, the Japanese strive to ensure that they are getting value for money.

11. Competent, dedicated teachers make for good schools—and a society that offers its teachers reasonable remuneration, respected status in the community, an orderly school environment, a substantial measure of collegueship and responsibility, and opportunities to recharge their intellectual and professional batteries—such a society can attract a surfeit of eager, qualified people to the classroom, and can retain them in the teaching profession. It may be noted that, in most cases, the Japanese do not enter the teaching profession via colleges of education, nor is it necessary to do so in order to be knowledgeable about one's field and competent to transmit one's knowledge to young people. Remember: Japanese schools have more than five applicants for every classroom opening.

12. Youngsters who take responsibility—and are held accountable—for their educational achievement are apt to work hard, to persist, and in time to learn a lot. What we sometimes call the Protestant ethic is strong in Japanese education. There are clear rewards for success: short-term rewards in the respect of one's peers and praise from parents and teachers; mid-range rewards in gaining admission to the senior high school or col-

lege of one's choice; and more distant rewards in the worlds of work and adult society. Notwithstanding reports of "pressure" on Japanese young people, their on-time high school graduation rate is considerably greater than our own, and their average level of skill and knowledge acquisition is higher than in any other "universal" education system I know.

There *are* aspects of Japanese education, perhaps especially at the college level, that do not impress me, that would not be appropriate in the American context, or that contravene other principles we value. Educational opportunities in Japan may not be especially responsive to children with special needs, for example. It is important to note, however, that Japan has embarked on an education reform movement of its own and that many discontents and criticisms have been voiced within that nation. It seems likely that changes are in the offing.

But it is not my place either to praise or to criticize Japanese education. Nor have I attempted to construct a comprehensive catalog of specific lessons or promising imports for the United States. The dozen "principles" sketched above may, however, be encouraging to Americans who even without benefit of detailed knowledge of Japanese education had adduced these or similar points from research, from experience, from history, from reason, or from common sense. The essential lesson for us to glean from our examination of Japanese education, after all, besides the intrinsic rewards of enhanced knowledge and understanding, is that much of what seems to work well for Japan in the field of education closely resembles what works best in the United States—and most likely elsewhere. Good education is good education.

Persian Gulf

UNCLASSIFIED

December 13, 1991

In addition to participating in the Gulf War (Australia had three frigates participating in the naval effort), Australia continues to be a part of the Multinational Interdiction Force operating in the region. Specifically, the Royal Australian Navy frigate HMAS Sydney continues to take part in naval interdiction activities in the area.

Australia also has contributed a total of A\$ 5 million (US\$ 4 million) for emergency relief and refugee assistance arising from the Gulf Crisis. This has been distributed through the following organizations (figures in US\$):

UNDRO - \$1 million
IOM - \$1 million
UNICEF - \$200,000
ICRC/Red Crescent - \$1.2 million
Australian NGOs - \$200,000
UNWRA (for aid to Palestinians) - \$400,000

This does not include in-kind assistance to Egypt and IBRD commitments.

In Operation Provide Comfort (last May), Australia sent a team of 70 Australian Defence Force personnel to provide medical and water purification services for the relief of Kurds and other Iraqi refugees in Turkey.

Let us know if you need anything further.

Brian.

Withdrawal/Redaction Sheet

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Document No. and Type	Subject/Title of Document	Date	Restriction	Class.
02. Report	Speech background report, re: Asia. (3 pp.)	n.d.	~~P-5~~	

Collection:

Record Group: Bush Presidential Records
Office: Speechwriting, White House Office of
Series: Speech File, Backup
Subseries:
WHORM Cat.:
File Location: Asia Research - General Info on Singapore N.D. [5]

Open on Expiration of PRA
 (Document Follows)

By SN (NLGB) on 4/5/2005

Date Closed: 11/15/2004 FOIA/SYS Case #: Re-review Case #: 2004-2265-S P-2/P-5 Review Case #:	OA/ID Number: 07566
MR Case #: MR Disposition: Disposition Date:	Appeal Case #: Appeal Disposition: Disposition Date:

RESTRICTION CODES

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 (b)(9) Release would disclose geological or geophysical information

- The US has been engaged in the Asia-Pacific region ever since World War II. It had provided economic assistance and contributed towards creating a stable security environment enabling countries in the region to prosper economically. In the course of this, the US has also attained substantive economic interests in the region.
- The Asia-Pacific region is now in the midst of rapid economic growth. It is by far the fastest growing region in the world comprising not only Japan and the NIEs (Taiwan, Hong Kong, South Korea and Singapore), but also emerging NIEs (such as Thailand, Malaysia) and others with economic potential such as Indonesia, the PRC (coastal regions) and possibly Vietnam which collectively would, in the near future, provide opportunities for expanded markets and investments for the US. Data on economic growth figures of some of these Asia-Pacific countries are at Annex. The US will therefore have even greater stakes in the region in the medium and long-term.
- By virtue of its contributions, the US has a rightful stake in the region. There is also an ample reservoir of goodwill towards the US in the region. The US should not therefore miss out on this opportunity to "cash in" on the region's economic growth potential to increase its economic stake in the region.
- The reservoir of goodwill is transient. If the US regresses in its economic, political and security engagement in the region or is perceived to be doing so, others are already waiting in the wings and poised to take over, the prize being an expanding economic pie. Once this happens, the US will find it very difficult to return to the region, as the British have discovered.
- There is a very big difference between the US being an insider and part of the Asia-Pacific region and the US being an outsider or an on-looker. The US already has large economic stakes in the region. As this increases, so too will the US interest in ensuring that stability prevails in the region.

- In terms of security, while the US has no intention of abrogating its regional security role, it is seeking cooperation in maintaining its presence in the region. The US is already pursuing such options as cost sharing and seeking access agreements with countries in the region. Countries in the region should be encouraged to cooperate with the US in this venture.
- As the US fleshes out its Asia-Pacific policy however, it has to realise that the status quo in the Asia-Pacific region is changing. The US is no longer dealing with backwater Third World countries. As mentioned previously, the Asia-Pacific region comprises Japan, the NIEs, emerging NIEs and others with economic potential and huge markets. The offshoot of this economic prosperity has been that Asia-Pacific countries are now more self-confident and assertive. This is even more so now that the Cold War is over. The concern would be how this new mood would impact on the future US role in the Asia-Pacific region given the current perception (despite repeated US assurances to the contrary) that an economically depressed US is slowly withdrawing from the region.
- The US therefore needs to be seen to be wanting to be engaged in the region and to work collectively as an insider with Asia-Pacific countries to define the future economic, political and security agenda in the Asia-Pacific region, aspects which are intrinsically intertwined. If the US remains as a critic from the outside, it runs the risk of being left out in the process of shaping the Asia-Pacific economic, political and security agenda.
- With or without the US, the Asia-Pacific countries, with their new found mood of self-confidence and assertiveness, would inevitably work towards defining some sort of an agenda to enhance regional cooperation. To help shape the outcome, the US needs to be involved as an insider in the process. If not, others such as Japan and the PRC are likely to emerge as the leaders for obvious reasons and chart the future direction of the Asia-Pacific, particularly political and security cooperation.

- To counterbalance a Japan getting more powerful by the day, the US needs options in China and ASEAN. The US and China must remain engaged. The US should also develop new links with ASEAN.
- The changes that are taking place in the Asia-Pacific and the dynamics inherent in the region which is now developing its own identity compel the Asia-Pacific countries to think of new modalities to organise emerging political, security and economic relationships in the region. Already there is evidence of this search for new arrangements such as the separate Australian and Canadian proposals for an Asia-Pacific equivalent to the CSCE, and the Malaysian proposal to develop a security system built around the Southeast Asia Treaty of Amity and Cooperation. This does not mean that we should do away with existing tried and tested arrangements. These should continue.
- But at the same time, there is also a need to consider adding new layers of relationships to reinforce the existing basic economic, political and security relationships. An example of this could be a linkage between NAFTA and the emerging ASEAN Free Trade Area. A political and security analogue to the APEC process could be developed, such as former Japanese FM Taro Nakayama's proposal to enhance the security aspects of the ASEAN Post-Ministerial Conference.

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AnnexGROWTH FIGURES OF SOME ASIA-PACIFIC COUNTRIES

	<u>1988</u>	<u>1989</u>	<u>1990</u>	<u>1991</u>
Japan	4.8%	4.8%	5.6%	*4.5%
South Korea	12%	6.5%	9.0%	*8.6%
Taiwan	7.2%	7.2%	5.2%	*7.6%
Hong Kong	-	3.0%	2.5%	*7.3%
PRC	11%	4.0%	5.0%	*6.9%
Malaysia	7.4%	7.7%	10%	*8.0%
Singapore	10.9%	9.2%	8.3%	*7.5%
Thailand	11%	10.8%	10%	*8.0%
Indonesia	-	5.7%	6.0%	-

Overall, the Asia-Pacific region is expected to grow by 6% in 1991 compared to near zero growth for the rest of the world. For 1992, the Asia-Pacific region is estimated to grow 6.5% compared to 2.3% for the rest of the world. (Asian Development Bank estimate).

* Asian Development Bank estimates. (Note: The other figures were obtained from the CIA World Factbooks).

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lic transportation system that provides easy, low-cost access around the city of Singapore and the island.

Taxes There is no sales tax in Singapore. A 4% government tax is added to restaurant and hotel bills; sometimes a 10% service charge is added as well. There is a S\$12 airport departure tax (for travelers to Malaysia, the tax is S\$5). It is payable at the airport. To save time and avoid standing in line, you can buy a tax voucher at your hotel or any airline office.

Sample Prices Cup of coffee, 50¢; large bottle of beer, \$2; lunch at a hawker stand, \$5; dinner at an elegant restaurant, \$25; full breakfast at a luxury hotel, \$9. The cost of a standard double room: moderate, \$75–\$115; very expensive, over \$150.

Language

Singapore is a multiracial society with four official languages: Malay, Mandarin, Tamil, and English. The national language is Malay; the lingua franca is English. English, also the language of administration, is a required course for every schoolchild, and is used in the entrance examinations for universities. Hence, virtually all Singaporeans speak English with varying degrees of fluency. Mandarin is increasingly replacing the other Chinese dialects. However, many Chinese will use SinEnglish, a Singaporean version of English, to converse with other ethnic groups, including other Chinese.

Opening and Closing Times

Businesses are generally open weekdays 9 or 9:30 to 5 or 5:30; some, not many, are also open on Saturday mornings.

Banks Banking hours are weekdays 10–3, Saturday 9:30–11:30 AM. Branches of the Development Bank of Singapore stay open until 3 PM on Saturday. The bank at Changi airport is open whenever there are flights. Money-changers operate whenever there are customers in the shopping centers they serve.

Museums Many museums close on Monday; otherwise, they are generally open 9–5.

Shops Shop opening times vary. Department stores and many shops in big shopping centers are generally open seven days a week from about 10 to 8 (later some evenings). Smaller shops tend to close on Sundays, although there is no firm rule now that competition is so intense.

National Holidays

The following are national holidays: Jan. 1 (New Year's Day); Jan. 27, 28 (Chinese New Year); Good Friday (Apr. 13); Hari Raya Puasa (Apr. 26); Labor Day (May 1); Vesak Day (May 9); Hari Raya Haji (July 3); National Day (Aug. 9); Dee'pavali (Oct. 7); Dec. 24.

Festivals and Seasonal Events

Singapore is a city of festivals, from the truly exotic to the strictly-for-tourists. The exact dates vary from year to year according to the lunar or Islamic calendar.

Mid-Jan. During Ponggal, the four-day harvest festival, Tamil Indians from South India offer rice, curries, vegetables, sugarcane, and spices in thanksgiving to the Hindu gods. In the evening, the celebration takes place at the temples, where rice is cooked while prayers are chanted to the music of bells, drums, clarinets, and conch shells. The Perumal Temple of Serangoon Road is the best place to view these rites.

Mid-Jan.–Feb. **Thaipusam**, probably the most spectacular—and certainly the most gruesome—festival in Asia, celebrates the victory of the Hindu god Subramaniam over the demon Idumban. After night-long ritual purification and chanting, penitents enter a trance and pierce their flesh with knives, steel rods, and fish hooks, which they wear during the procession. The 8.1-km (5-mi) procession begins at the Perumal Temple on Serangoon Road, passes the Sri Mariamman Temple on South Bridge Road, and ends at the Chettiar Temple.

Chinese New Year is the only time the Chinese stop working. The lunar New Year celebration lasts for 15 days, and most shops and businesses close for about a week.

Feb. The end of the Chinese New Year is marked by the **Chingay Procession**. Chinese, Malays, and Indians all get into the act for this event. Clashing gongs and beating drums, lion dancers lead a procession of Chinese stilt-walkers, swordsmen, warriors, acrobats, and characters from Chinese myth and legend.

Feb. or Mar. The **Birthday of the Monkey God** celebrates this character greatly loved by the Chinese. His birth is marked with a festival twice a year in Chinese temples—once in the spring and again around September. Mediums, with skewers piercing their cheeks and tongues, go into trances. Chinese street operas and puppet shows are usually performed in temple courtyards, and processions are held at the temples along Eng Hoon and Cumming streets.

Apr.–May **Ramadan** is the month of daytime fasting among the city's Muslim population. Food stalls in Bussorah Street and around the Sultan Mosque sell a variety of dishes at the end of the day's fast.

May or June The **Birthday of the Third Prince** celebrates this child god. The Chinese worship him as a hero and a miracle-worker. A temple in his honor is located at the junction of Clarke Street and North Boat Quay, near Chinatown; on his birthday, it is crowded with noisy worshipers who come to watch the flashy Chinese operas, which begin around noon.

Vesak Day commemorates the Buddha's birth, Enlightenment, and death. It is the most sacred annual festival in the Buddhist calendar. Throughout the day, starting before dawn, saffron-robed monks chant holy sutras in all the major Buddhist temples. Captive birds are set free. Candlelight processions are held around some of the temples in the evening.

June The **Dragon Boat Festival** commemorates the martyrdom of Qu Yuan, a Chinese poet and minister of state during the Chou dynasty (4th century BC), who was exiled for speaking out against court corruption and finally threw himself into the river. On seeing Qu Yuan's final and desperate act, local fishermen thrashed the water with their oars and beat drums to prevent fish from devouring their drowning hero. The anniversary of his death is cele-

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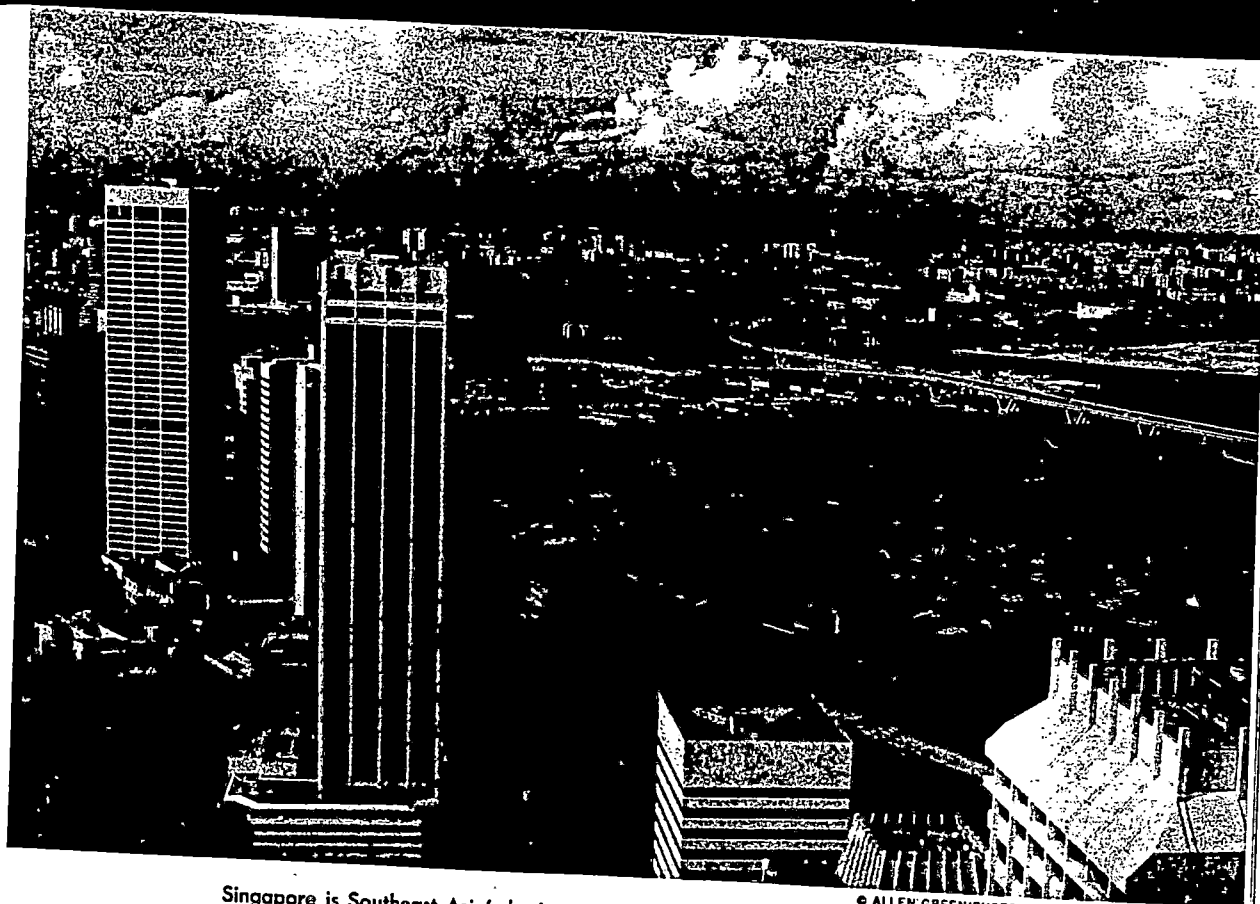
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Singapore is Southeast Asia's busiest commercial and industrial center.

© ALLEN GREEN/PHOTO RESEARCHERS

SINGAPORE, sing'-a-pôr, the smallest nation in Southeast Asia. Essentially an island city-state, it is situated off the southern tip of the Malay Peninsula athwart the northern, preferred passageway between the Indian and Pacific oceans. Thus it commands a strategic threshold of international commerce that for centuries has been coveted by regional and, especially, nonregional powers.

Founded in 1819 by a British trading company, Singapore came under direct British rule in 1867. Free trade and (until 1930) unrestricted immigration made it a prosperous colony with a largely Chinese population. Singapore was also Britain's most strongly fortified naval base in Asia, but it fell helplessly to a rearward attack by the Japanese army during World War II.

In the mid-1960's, Singapore became one of history's rare examples of involuntary nationhood. Internally self-governing since 1959, it had been a founding member of the federation of Malaysia, created in 1963 by former British dependencies in Southeast Asia. On Aug. 9, 1965, the prime minister of Singapore wept as he re-

luctantly proclaimed independence in the wake of his state's eviction from the federal union. Malaya, the other major partner, had from the outset felt uneasy in association with its southern neighbor because of the island's predominantly Chinese population and formally socialist government. Now rejected by the federation and soon all but abandoned by Britain in matters of defense, Singapore began a new era of lonely self-reliance.

1. The Land

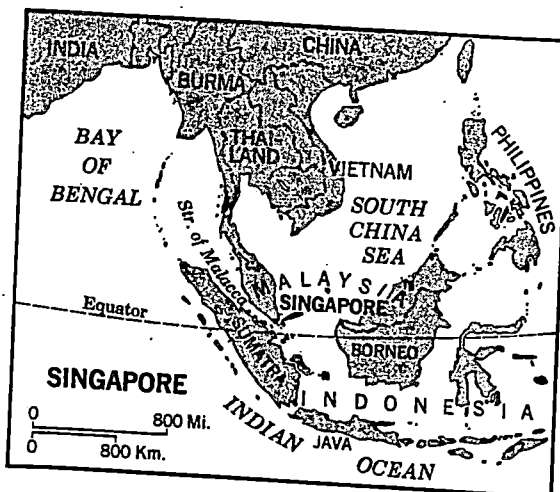
Singapore consists of the main island and 54 nearby islets. Its only natural resources are its people, its favorable location, and its sheltered deepwater harbor.

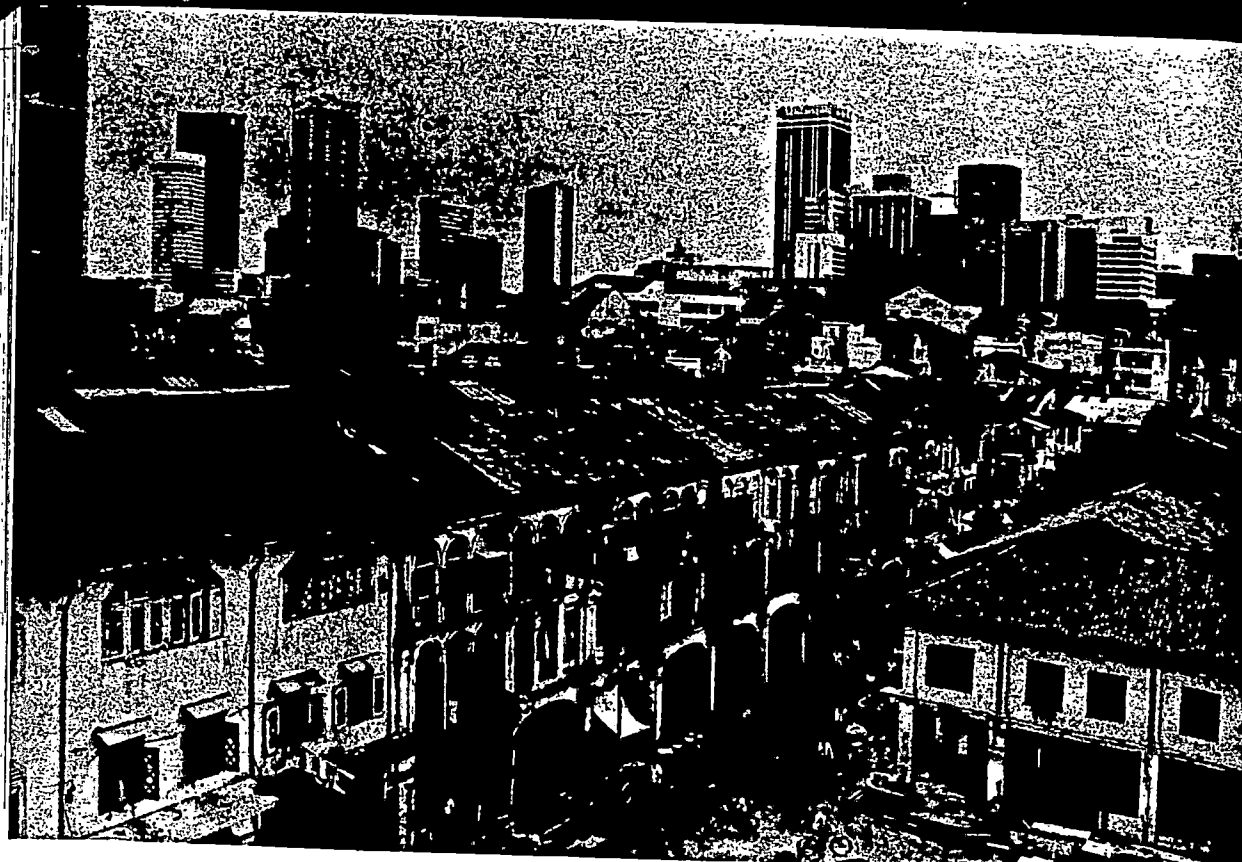
Physical Features and Climate. Singapore Island is situated at the mouth of the funnel-shaped Strait of Malacca (Melaka), the interocean water-

INFORMATION HIGHLIGHTS

Area: 239.5 square miles (620 sq km).
Elevations: *Highest point*—Bukit Timah (581 feet, or 177 meters); *lowest point*—sea level.
Population: (1980 census) 2,074,507.
Capital and Largest City: Singapore.
Name of Nationals: Singaporeans.
Major Languages: Malay, Mandarin Chinese, Tamil, English (all official).
Major Religious Groups: Buddhist, Taoist, Muslim, Christian, Hindu.
Monetary Unit: Singapore dollar.

For Singapore's flag, see under FLAG, both illustration and text.





An older shopping street preserves the atmosphere of Singapore's bygone colonial days.

© ADAM WOOLFITT/WOODFIN CAMP

way between the Indonesian island of Sumatra and Peninsular Malaysia. The strait provides the shortest connection between the Indian Ocean and the South China Sea of the Pacific Ocean. Separating the island from the Malay Peninsula is Johor Strait, which is narrow enough to be spanned by a road, rail, and water-pipeline causeway.

At its greatest extent, Singapore Island measures 27 miles (43 km) from east to west and 14 miles (22.5 km) from north to south. Its area of 221 square miles (572 sq km), about the size of Chicago, accounts for 92% of the national territory. Granitic central hills reach a maximum elevation of 581 feet (177 meters). The coastal lowlands are deeply indented and in many places swampy. Soils are generally low in fertility.

Because Singapore lies only 90 miles (145 km) north of the equator and has no great elevations, its climate is tropical. Temperature, relative humidity, and rainfall are high, and seasonal variation is slight. The jungle that once covered Singapore Island is now largely cleared, so that little wildlife remains.

2. The Economy

Trade, together with services such as shipping, storage, banking, insurance, and telecommunications have given Singaporeans the reputation of being the most highly skilled middlemen of Asia. Entrepôt activity, the traditional mainstay of the economy, brought prosperity and a standard of living unmatched by any nation in eastern Asia except Japan and Brunei.

When Singapore became self-governing in 1959, its leaders recognized that the commercial sector alone could not sustain the island's economic growth in the face of rapid population increase and accelerated competition from neighboring countries. Following recommenda-

tions made in 1961 by a United Nations survey team, a crash program of industrialization was begun. Dramatic progress resulted as model industrial estates were built, the large Jurong facility becoming a national showcase. Singapore's success in attracting foreign investment in export-oriented industries was attributed to sound and aggressive planning, central location, political stability, an excellent service infrastructure, and the availability of skilled manpower.

As the manufacturing sector developed, the government encouraged investors to establish industries that required more skill and knowledge, paid better wages, and turned out products with a higher value added by manufacturing. The result was a shift from labor-intensive industries such as clothing and wood products.

The main production categories are oil refining, shipbuilding and repair, electrical and electronic equipment, nonelectrical machinery, chemicals, foods and beverages, and printing and publishing. Singapore is a world leader in ship repair and in the refining of oil and petroleum products. Its electronics industry, a growth leader, has turned from the labor-intensive assembly of components to the manufacture of computers, calculators, telecommunications equipment, and medical instruments.

Singapore ranks among the world's busiest seaports. Besides exporting or reexporting manufactured goods, it enjoys a large entrepôt trade in primary commodities such as rubber, grain, coffee, and spices. Its chief imports for domestic use are petroleum, machinery, and transportation equipment. Although the country imports most of its food, that category accounts for less than 10% of total imports. Singapore's chief trading partners are the United States, Japan, Malaysia, the European Economic Community, and (for oil imports) the Middle East.

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3. The People

In 1970, when the population of Singapore reached 2 million, the rate of natural increase was so high that the population was expected to double by the year 2000. However, the government's vigorous family-planning program succeeded in reducing growth rates substantially, and the projected population for the last year of the 20th century was revised to 3 million. Immigration is severely restricted. The majority of the people live in the city of Singapore on the island's southern shore.

Chinese make up more than 75% of the population, but this communal category is far from homogeneous. Five major dialects are spoken: Hokkien, Cantonese, Teochew, Hainanese, and Hakka. The Chinese also worship in several ways. Buddhism, Taoism, and Christianity all have Chinese adherents.

Malays compose about 15% of the population. They are united in the use of the Malay language and are virtually unanimous in their allegiance to the Muslim faith. South Asians account for 6% of the population. Most of them are Hindus or Muslims, and most use Tamil as their home language. The remainder of the population is bewilderingly diverse, comprising people from all over the globe.

The government of Singapore determined to use the linguistic, religious, and other cultural differences of its people to the advantage of all, fostering mutual respect and toleration for others as the cornerstone of a new Singaporean identity. Linguistic policy designated Malay as the national language but accorded equal and official status to Mandarin Chinese, Tamil, and English. Children study English and one of the other three main languages in school.

Singapore is proud of its high literacy rate and devotes a large share of its budget to education. At the National University of Singapore, scholars sometimes grumble about the government's emphasis on vocational and technical training at the expense of academic studies, but official spokesmen insist that knowledge must have practical applications to the development of the nation.

Singapore has conducted one of the world's most comprehensive experiments in public housing. More than two thirds of the people live in public accommodations, mainly high-rise apartment complexes. The majority own their living quarters. Whole new satellite towns have been erected as communities that are self sufficient. All races are encouraged to mingle in the new housing settlements.

4. History and Government

Although Chinese chronicles and Malay legends recall a city named Temasek ("sea town") on the island during the 13th and 14th centuries, Singapore's modern history begins with an Englishman, Thomas Stamford Raffles. In 1819, Raffles acquired the island from the Malay Sultan of Johor on behalf of the British East India Company. With extraordinary foresight he laid the foundations for a great modern city, envisaging the transformation of a tiny fishing village into a free-trade emporium that would have global importance.

British Rule. After settling the Netherlands conflicting claim to the island by the Anglo-Dutch Treaty of 1824, Britain allowed the administration of Singapore to pass from the East India

Company to the British India office in 1858. The British colonial office began in 1867 to administer the island directly—along with Pirang (Panang) and Melaka (Malacca) on the western side of the Malay Peninsula—as the Crown Colony of the Straits Settlements. Even before 1869, when the opening of the Suez Canal markedly increased East-West commerce, Singapore was thriving as a major port. The island had already become an important link in Britain's eastern empire, supporting a population of approximately 100,000, mainly Chinese.

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When the British returned at the war's end, Singapore was made a separate crown colony. It was granted internal self-government in 1959. The socialist People's Action Party (PAP) won 43 of the 51 legislative seats in the first general elections in 1959, thereby capturing decisive control of the government. Lee Kuan Yew became Singapore's first prime minister.

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Amid these threatening undercurrents, the leaders of Singapore planned against possible future dangers. With the help of Israeli military advisers, the government created an efficient self-defense system for the island. National service was made compulsory for all men and women between the ages of 18 and 45.

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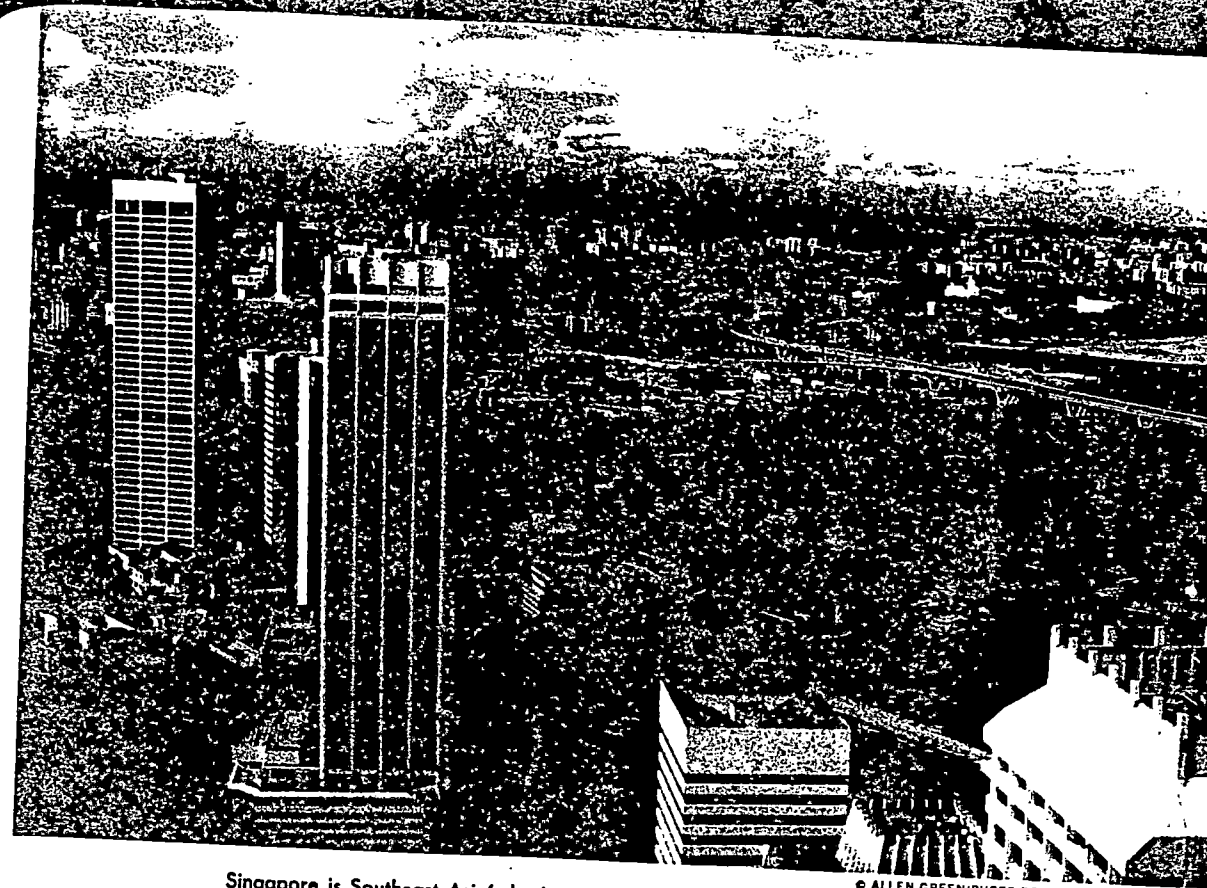
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Singapore is Southeast Asia's busiest commercial and industrial center. © ALLEN GREEN/PHOTO RESEARCHERS

SINGAPORE, sing'ə-pôr, the smallest nation in Southeast Asia. Essentially an island city-state, it is situated off the southern tip of the Malay Peninsula athwart the northern, preferred pas- sageway between the Indian and Pacific oceans. Thus it commands a strategic threshold of inter- national commerce that for centuries has been coveted by regional and, especially, nonregional powers.

Founded in 1819 by a British trading compa- ny, Singapore came under direct British rule in 1867. Free trade and (until 1930) unrestricted immigration made it a prosperous colony with a largely Chinese population. Singapore was also Britain's most strongly fortified naval base in Asia, but it fell helplessly to a rearward attack by the Japanese army during World War II.

In the mid-1960's, Singapore became one of history's rare examples of involuntary nation- hood. Internally self-governing since 1959, it had been a founding member of the federation of Malaysia, created in 1963 by former British de- pendencies in Southeast Asia. On Aug. 9, 1965, the prime minister of Singapore wept as he re-

luctantly proclaimed independence in the wake of his state's eviction from the federal union. Malaya, the other major partner, had from the outset felt uneasy in association with its southern neighbor because of the island's predominantly Chinese population and formally socialist gov- ernment. Now rejected by the federation and soon all but abandoned by Britain in matters of defense, Singapore began a new era of lonely self-reliance.

1. The Land

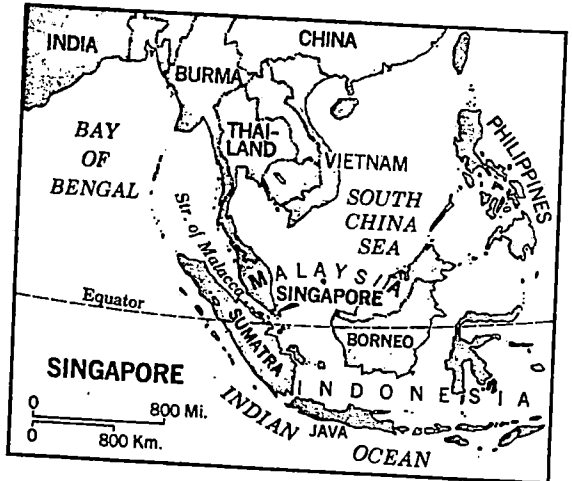
Singapore consists of the main island and 54 nearby islets. Its only natural resources are its people, its favorable location, and its sheltered deepwater harbor.

Physical Features and Climate. Singapore Island is situated at the mouth of the funnel-shaped Strait of Malacca (Melaka), the interocean water-

INFORMATION HIGHLIGHTS

Area: 239.5 square miles (620 sq km).
 Elevations: *Highest point*—Bukit Timah (581 feet, or 177 meters); *lowest point*—sea level.
 Population: (1980 census) 2,074,507.
 Capital and Largest City: Singapore.
 Name of Nationals: Singaporeans.
 Major Languages: Malay, Mandarin Chinese, Tamil, English (all official).
 Major Religious Groups: Buddhist, Taoist, Muslim, Christian, Hindu.
 Monetary Unit: Singapore dollar.

For Singapore's flag, see under FLAG, both illus- tration and text.





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An older shopping street preserves the atmosphere of Singapore's bygone colonial days.

way between the Indonesian island of Sumatra and Peninsular Malaysia. The strait provides the shortest connection between the Indian Ocean and the South China Sea of the Pacific Ocean. Separating the island from the Malay Peninsula is Johor Strait, which is narrow enough to be spanned by a road, rail, and water-pipeline causeway.

At its greatest extent, Singapore Island measures 27 miles (43 km) from east to west and 14 miles (22.5 km) from north to south. Its area of 221 square miles (572 sq km), about the size of Chicago, accounts for 92% of the national territory. Granitic central hills reach a maximum elevation of 581 feet (177 meters). The coastal lowlands are deeply indented and in many places swampy. Soils are generally low in fertility.

Because Singapore lies only 90 miles (145 km) north of the equator and has no great elevations, its climate is tropical. Temperature, relative humidity, and rainfall are high, and seasonal variation is slight. The jungle that once covered Singapore Island is now largely cleared, so that little wildlife remains.

2. The Economy

Trade, together with services such as shipping, storage, banking, insurance, and telecommunications have given Singaporeans the reputation of being the most highly skilled middlemen of Asia. Entrepôt activity, the traditional mainstay of the economy, brought prosperity and a standard of living unmatched by any nation in eastern Asia except Japan and Brunei.

When Singapore became self-governing in 1959, its leaders recognized that the commercial sector alone could not sustain the island's economic growth in the face of rapid population increase and accelerated competition from neighboring countries. Following recommenda-

tions made in 1961 by a United Nations survey team, a crash program of industrialization was begun. Dramatic progress resulted as model industrial estates were built, the large Jurong facility becoming a national showcase. Singapore's success in attracting foreign investment in export-oriented industries was attributed to sound and aggressive planning, central location, political stability, an excellent service infrastructure, and the availability of skilled manpower.

As the manufacturing sector developed, the government encouraged investors to establish industries that required more skill and knowledge, paid better wages, and turned out products with a higher value added by manufacturing. The result was a shift from labor-intensive industries such as clothing and wood products.

The main production categories are oil refining, shipbuilding and repair, electrical and electronic equipment, nonelectrical machinery, chemicals, foods and beverages, and printing and publishing. Singapore is a world leader in ship repair and in the refining of oil and petroleum products. Its electronics industry, a growth leader, has turned from the labor-intensive assembly of components to the manufacture of computers, calculators, telecommunications equipment, and medical instruments.

Singapore ranks among the world's busiest seaports. Besides exporting or reexporting manufactured goods, it enjoys a large entrepôt trade in primary commodities such as rubber, grain, coffee, and spices. Its chief imports for domestic use are petroleum, machinery, and transportation equipment. Although the country imports most of its food, that category accounts for less than 10% of total imports. Singapore's chief trading partners are the United States, Japan, Malaysia, the European Economic Community, and (for oil imports) the Middle East.

3. The People

In 1970, when the population reached 2 million, the growth was so high that the population is projected to double by the year 2000. The government's vigorous family planning program has succeeded in reducing growth, and the projected population for the 20th century was reduced. The population is severely restricted, and the people live in the island's southern shore.

Chinese make up most of the population, but this community is not homogeneous. Five main groups are Hokkien, Cantonese, Teochew, Hakka. The Chinese practice Buddhism, Taoism, and Chinese adherent religions.

Malays compose about 15% of the population. They are united in the Islamic faith and are virtually unanimous in the Muslim faith. South of the population. Most are Muslims, and most use the Malay language. The remainder is wildly diverse, coming from all over the globe.

The government of Singapore uses the linguistic differences of its people to foster mutual respect as the cornerstone of a national linguistic policy designating English as the official language but according to Mandarin Chinese, Tamil, and English as the main languages in schools.

Singapore is proud of its multiculturalism and devotes a large share of its budget to education. At the National Institute of Education, scholars sometimes grumble at the government's emphasis on training at the expense of research. Official spokesmen insist that the training has practical applications for the nation.

Singapore has conducted the most comprehensive experiments in housing. More than two-thirds of the public accommodations are government-owned complexes. The government has built new quarters. Whole new communities have been erected as communities. All races are encouraged to live in government housing settlements.

4. History and Government

Although Chinese records recall a city named Singapore on the island during the 13th century, the island's modern history begins with the arrival of the Englishman, Thomas Stamford Raffles, who acquired the island for the British East India Company. With extra funds, Raffles laid the foundations for a free-trade emporium, and the island's transformation into a free-trade emporium was complete.

British Rule. After a long and conflicting claim to the island, the Dutch Treaty of 1824, British administration of Singapore began.

3. The People

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Chinese make up more than 75% of the population, but this communal category is far from homogeneous. Five major dialects are spoken: Hokkien, Cantonese, Teochew, Hainanese, and Hakka. The Chinese also worship in several ways. Buddhism, Taoism, and Christianity all have Chinese adherents.

Malays compose about 15% of the population. They are united in the use of the Malay language and are virtually unanimous in their allegiance to the Muslim faith. South Asians account for 6% of the population. Most of them are Hindus or Muslims, and most use Tamil as their home language. The remainder of the population is bewilderingly diverse, comprising people from all over the globe.

The government of Singapore determined to use the linguistic, religious, and other cultural differences of its people to the advantage of all, fostering mutual respect and toleration for others as the cornerstone of a new Singaporean identity. Linguistic policy designated Malay as the national language but accorded equal and official status to Mandarin Chinese, Tamil, and English. Children study English and one of the other three main languages in school.

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Singapore has conducted one of the world's most comprehensive experiments in public housing. More than two thirds of the people live in public accommodations, mainly high-rise apartment complexes. The majority own their living quarters. Whole new satellite towns have been erected as communities that are self sufficient. All races are encouraged to mingle in the new housing settlements.

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SINGH, Govind. See GOVIND SINGH.

SINGING. See VOICE.

SINGLE TAX, a reform proposed by the economist Henry George in *Poverty* (1879). George's idea of a single tax on all land and natural resources would save the government the expense of all other taxation. This was developed not so much as a method for achieving a social goal, that of raising equal rights in land.

The term "single tax" was popularized by *Progress and Poverty* by Henry George, published years later. Actually, the term was first used by the French economist J.B. Say in the 18th century. They, too, had proposed a single tax on land only, but George's was the first to be widely known when he wrote *Progress and Poverty*.

Theory. The purpose of the single tax is to explain the paradox of progress, and to solve the problem of the alternating depressions and booms. George saw the answer in the monopolization of land, including natural resources.

The rent of land is the source of all progress, said George, and it is the cause of all benefit while the wages are depressed. Rising rent is the cause of depression, which accelerates the speculative rents that are paid to the owners of the ranks of labor and capital. These victims then stop working, and still employment occurs. Though George's causes of depression, such as the monopolization of land, he maintained that the basic and everlasting cause of depression was the basic and everlasting cause of depression.

As his remedy for poverty, George said, "We must not tax the land." He proposed to tax the land, but to take, through the economic rent, the excess of the economic rent that exceeds that from the least productive.

Criticisms. Early critics of the single tax proposal argued that it would increase the total burden of taxation, particularly on rural landowners who were poor farmers. The single tax applies to all land, not just to the land that is used for business—rents due to the land—the plan might be a good one for capital values.

Later opponents of the single tax pointed to changed conditions in the world since it was conceived in a period when land was being made from land. Subsequently, the U.S. measures acted as a check on the rent of land because of the national income, the land was of increasingly heavy value. Also GEORGE, HENRY.

SINGSPIEL, zing'shpēl, a comic, loosely defined as a play of spoken dialogue. The term is German, not English. Popular in Germany in the 18th century, the *Singspiel* was a comic play with English ballad music. Imitations of the *Singspiel* were, in fact, the beginning of the German *comique*. In the 1750's, J. C. Bach wrote German translations of the *Singspiel*.

SINGAPORE *International Year Book*

Teacher training at non-university level is provided at six teacher colleges which include five primary teacher-colleges and one secondary teacher-college-Milton Margai Teachers College. The primary teacher-training colleges offer a 3-year teacher certificate course for students with four years secondary education and those who pass the entrance examination. The Milton Margai Teachers Certificate (H.T.C.) Course is for students with 4 G.C.E. 'O' Level subjects.

Holders of the Higher Teachers Certificate are qualified to teach in the lower classes of secondary schools. The Department of Education at Fourah Bay College and Njala University College provide teacher education at graduate level.

A year's Post Graduate Teacher Programme leading to Diploma in Education is pursued at Fourah Bay College. The Degree Programme at Njala University College leads to Bachelor of Arts and Bachelor of Science in Education.

In 1975-76 Bunumbu Teachers College was granted permission to conduct the HTC (Primary Programme). This course has strong rural community bias. Moreover, in teacher education, the Bunumbu Project has a purpose of educating and training primary school

teachers for rural areas.

Fourah Bay College and Njala University College are the constituent Colleges of the University of Sierra Leone. Enrolment at Fourah Bay College and Njala University College in 1975-76 was 1,016 and 596 respectively. The Institute of Education exists as part of the University of Sierra Leone.

Early in 1970, a commission set up with the approval of Government completed its report on Higher Education in Sierra Leone and submitted it to the government. The report formed the basis of a National Education policy for Sierra Leone.

The University of Sierra Leone in collaboration with the Ministry of Education carried out the Sierra Leone Education Review which is in substance completed. The Ministry of Education coordinates Adult Education Programmes through the National Literacy Committee on which all the principal participating organisations in Adult Education are represented.

RELIGION

Sierra Leone is Muslim and Christian.

FINANCE

Government Revenue:

Economic Classification

Total
Transfer Receipts
Taxes on income
Taxes on production & expenditure
Other transfer receipts
Disposal of Goods & Services
Sales of goods & services from current operations
Reimbursements for services & sales of lands
Income from Property & Financial Claims
Interest & dividends received
Financial claims
Overpayments, refunds & others

Note: Government revenue
* Exclude land sales to HC
Source: Ministry of Finance

Government Current Expend

Functional Classification

Total
General Services
Defence, Justice & Police
Social & Community Services
Education
Health
Community, environment, social welfare & other social services
Economic Services
Agricultural, non-mineral resources, industrial & commercial development
Transport & communication
Other economic services
Public Debt
Unallocable
Transfer to Development Fund

Note: Government current
Source: Department of Statistics

BANKS

DEVELOPMENT BANK OF SINGAPORE
OVERSEA-CHINESE BANKING C
LIMITED OVERSEAS BANK LIMIT
OVERSEAS UNION BANK LIMIT
OVERSEAS (SOUTH EAST ASIA)
OVERSEAS (SOUTH EAST ASIA)
OVERSEAS (SOUTH EAST ASIA)
OVERSEAS (SOUTH EAST ASIA)

The various tables below

External Trade:

Regional Country of
Origin or Destination

Total
South East Asia
Malaysia
Thailand
Brunei
Philippines
South East Asia

SINGAPORE (MEMBER OF THE COMMONWEALTH)

President - Mr. Wee Kim Wee.

National Flag - Red over white, halved horizontally in ratio 2 : 3, at the top of the hoist a crescent moon sided by five stars in a circle, all in white.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT

Singapore was founded by Sir Stamford Raffles in 1819. In 1826, Singapore together with Malacca and Penang formed the Straits Settlements, with the Governor of Penang in overall responsibility of the administration. In 1832, Singapore became the administrative centre of the Straits Settlements which remained under the control of the British East India Company until 1867, when Singapore became a British colony. After the Japanese occupation from 1942-45, Singapore moved gradually to self-government, which it achieved in 1959. In 1963, it became a state within the Federation of Malaysia. On 9 August 1965, Singapore ceased to be a part of Malaysia and became an independent nation; and a member of the Commonwealth on 15 October, 1965.

Head of State is the President, elected by parliament for a term of five years. The Cabinet is responsible to a parliament of 79 members.

Mr Lee Kuan Yew has submitted, on 26 November 1990, his letter of resignation as Prime Minister to the President. He was succeeded by Mr Goh Chok Tong.

Government (November 1990):

Prime Minister and Minister of Defence: Goh Chok Tong.
Senior Minister (Prime Minister's Office): Lee Kuan Yew.
Deputy Prime Minister: Ong Teng Cheong.
Deputy Prime Minister and Minister for Trade & Industry: BG Lee Hsien Loong.
Minister for National Development: S Dhanabalan.
Minister for Education: Dr Tony Tan Keng Yam.
Minister for the Environment (also Minister-in-Charge of Muslim Affairs): Dr Ahmad Mattar.
Minister for Communications and Second Minister for Defence: Dr Yeo Ning Hong.
Minister for Law and Minister for Home Affairs: Prof S Jayakumar.
Minister for Finance: Dr Richard Hu Tsu Tau.
Minister for Labour: Lee Yock Suan.
Minister for Foreign Affairs and Minister for Community Development: Wong Kan Seng.
Minister for Health: Yeo Cheow Tong.

The other appointments are as follows:

Senior Ministers of State:

Ministry of Foreign Affairs: BG George Yeo
Ministry of Education: Dr Tay Eng Soon.

Ministry of Defence: Dr Lee Boon Yang.

Ministers of State:

Ministry of Community Development: Ch'ng Jit Koon.

Ministry of Communications and Ministry of Trade & Industry: Mah Bow Tan.

Ministry of National Development and Ministry of Home Affairs: Peter Sung.

Ministry of Community Development and Ministry of Education: Dr Seet Ai Mee.

Ministry of Health: Dr Aline K Wong.

AREA AND POPULATION

The main island of Singapore and the numerous outlying small islands together cover an area of 620.2 square kilometres. The highest hill (Bukit Timah) is 165 metres above sea level and the longest river (Sungei Seletar) is about 15.0 kilometres long. The population as at 30 June 1984 was 2,529,100 persons with a density of 4,078 persons per square kilometre. The population growth rate has decreased from an average of 2.8% per annum during 1957-1970 to 1.5% during 1970-1980 and further to 1.2 per cent per annum during 1980-84. The population growth rate is among the lowest in the region.

The population in 1984 comprised 1,935,800 Chinese, 374,400 Malays, 162,600 Indians and 57,800 persons of other ethnic groups. The Chinese constituted 76.5 per cent, the Malays 14.5 per cent, the Indians 6.4 per cent and persons of other ethnic groups the remaining 2.3 per cent of the total population.

There were 1,288,700 males and 1,240,400 females in 1983, giving a sex ratio of 1,039 males per thousand females. Of the male ethnic groups, the Chinese and the Malays had fairly even sex distribution of 1,015 and 1,067 males per thousand females respectively. The Indians, however, still have an uneven sex distribution of 1,274 males per thousand females.

About 24.7 per cent of the population were below 15 years of age and 7.7 per cent were aged 60 years and over. The dependency ratio, defined as the ratio of youths below 15 years and elderly persons aged 60 years and over to the adult population aged 15-59 years, was 48 per hundred adult population in 1984.

Singapore is one of the healthiest countries in the world. The crude death rate which was 20.8 per thousand population in 1963 declined to 13.3 per thousand in 1947 and to 5.2 per thousand in 1984. Infant mortality rate in 1984 was 8.8 per thousand live-births, a marked decline as compared with 87.3 per thousand in 1947. The expectation of life at birth in 1980 was 68.7 years for males and 74.0 years for females.

FINANCE

Government Revenue:

	Million Dollars						
Economic Classification	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986
Total	5,491.4	7,146.2	9,008.5	10,510.6	10,267.6	9,397.0	8,333.1
Transfer Receipts	4,125.1	5,263.7	6,237.9	7,148.7	7,671.0	6,932.3	5,276.7
Taxes on income	1,898.4	2,634.3	3,248.0	3,523.3	3,568.3	3,006.7	2,231.8
Taxes on production & expenditure	2,035.7	2,368.7	2,698.9	3,076.8	3,525.2	3,430.7	2,776.1
Other transfer receipts	191.0	260.7	291.0	548.6	577.5	494.9	268.8
Disposal of Goods & Services	833.0	1,403.2	2,037.3	1,953.4	1,306.7	922.0	1,178.6
Sales of goods & services from current operations	568.0	845.2	924.9	927.9	874.0	688.5	702.1
Reimbursements for services & sales of lands*	265.0	558.0	1,112.4	1,025.5	432.7	233.5	476.5
Income from Property & Financial Claims	533.3	479.3	733.3	1,408.5	1,289.9	1,542.7	1,877.8
Interest & dividends received	434.7	469.0	724.9	1,398.4	1,242.3	1,529.5	1,851.5
Financial claims repayments, refunds & others	98.6	10.3	8.4	10.1	47.6	13.2	26.3

Note: Government revenue refers to receipts credited to Consolidated Revenue Account.

* Exclude land sales to HDB amounting to \$6,503.1 million in 1986.

Source: Ministry of Finance.

Government Current Expenditure:

	Million Dollars						
Functional Classification	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986
Total	5,170.7	5,798.2	8,428.9	10,150.5	10,625.1	10,575.8	12,241.5
General Services	211.5	181.9	278.6	468.8	522.3	606.5	411.1
Defence, Justice & Police	1,321.7	1,350.2	1,618.0	1,724.0	1,972.2	2,574.7	2,364.9
Social & Community Services	1,029.8	1,147.7	1,442.3	1,804.9	2,111.5	2,160.8	2,059.1
Education	564.4	631.6	866.7	1,115.1	1,282.1	1,362.0	1,349.0
Health	223.0	257.3	313.3	342.0	376.2	419.0	400.6
Community, environment, social welfare & other social services	242.4	258.8	262.3	347.8	453.2	379.8	309.5
Economic Services	228.1	288.0	383.9	346.5	300.1	249.5	230.4
Agricultural, non-mineral resources, industrial & commercial development	65.8	77.0	133.6	85.5	71.6	83.3	61.0
Transport & communication	121.8	159.7	168.7	163.9	141.1	88.0	75.6
Other economic services	40.5	51.3	81.6	97.1	87.4	78.2	93.8
Public Debt	1,794.3	2,677.3	2,922.9	3,722.0	3,634.2	2,449.4	4,753.6
Unallocable	74.1	59.1	79.4	89.2	100.4	141.8	160.6
Transfer to Development Fund	511.3	94.0	1,703.8	1,995.1	1,984.4	2,393.1	2,261.8

Note: Government current expenditure refers to payments from Consolidated Revenue Account.

Source: Department of Statistics.

BANKS

DEVELOPMENT BANK OF SINGAPORE LIMITED (DBS)

(BANK) Singapore	15,141
OVERSEA-CHINESE BANKING CORPORATION LIMITED Singapore	9,888*
UNITED OVERSEAS BANK LIMITED Singapore	5,401
OVERSEAS UNION BANK LIMITED Singapore	5,328*
OVERSEAS (SOUTH EAST ASIA) LIMITED Singapore	2,236
COMMERZBANK (SOUTH EAST ASIA) LIMITED Singapore	1,645
CHUNG KHIANG BANK LIMITED Singapore	1,548

Assets
U.S.\$
000,000

TAT LEE BANK LIMITED Singapore	1,254
BANK OF MONTREAL ASIA LIMITED Singapore	754
UNION BANK OF FINLAND (SINGAPORE) LIMITED Singapore	852
SINGAPORE NOMURA MERCHANT BANKING LIMITED Singapore	668
NORDBAKEN SOUTH EAST ASIA LTD Singapore	433
INDUSTRIAL & COMMERCIAL BANK LIMITED Singapore	714
ASIA COMMERCIAL BANK LIMITED Singapore	454
LEE WAH BANK LIMITED Singapore	594

* FIGURES ARE CONSOLIDATED

PRODUCTION, INDUSTRY AND COMMERCE

The various tables below show some aspects of Singapore's Commercial Life

External Trade:

	Million Dollars					
Region/Country of Origin or Destination	1984	Imports 1985	1986	1984	Exports 1985	1986
Total	61,133.6	57,817.5	55,545.4	51,340.0	50,178.8	48,985.5
South East Asia	11,593.4	10,764.4	9,709.1	12,181.2	11,458.0	10,255.3
Malaysia	9,179.7	8,301.0	7,402.6	8,324.2	7,786.8	7,244.6
Thailand	1,350.9	1,196.3	1,606.8	2,458.1	2,092.5	1,787.7
Brunei	415.4	536.6	298.1	627.1	638.1	683.6
Philippines	395.0	437.4	401.6	441.0	478.6	539.3
North East Asia	18,175.9	18,794.7	19,029.9	10,199.4	10,192.8	10,499.8

SINGAPORE

continued

Region/Country of Origin or Destination	1984	Imports 1985	1986	1984	Exports 1985	1986
Japan	11,217.9	9,869.7	11,052.2	4,806.4	4,722.2	4,204.4
Hong Kong	1,281.3	1,082.5	1,310.1	3,176.2	3,197.4	3,182.9
China, People's Rep.	2,881.1	4,971.7	3,109.6	519.3	730.2	1,243.8
Taiwan	1,997.8	1,992.1	2,224.1	829.6	855.2	1,097.2
South Asia	612.3	704.4	497.7	2,993.5	2,911.4	2,382.4
India	470.4	488.8	348.5	1,413.3	1,069.0	1,027.8
Bangladesh	43.1	52.1	29.3	573.9	664.6	506.3
Pakistan	60.9	60.3	78.1	455.3	533.0	230.1
Sri Lanka	28.9	94.8	35.8	376.2	424.8	378.6
Others	9.0	8.4	6.0	174.8	220.0	239.6
West Asia	11,179.3	7,925.2	7,027.3	3,422.5	7,746.9	2,184.5
Saudi Arabia	5,687.5	2,034.2	1,369.0	1,363.5	588.5	483.5
Iran	733.0	2,474.5	2,062.6	724.8	873.7	763.8
Kuwait	1,882.7	983.7	2,098.1	309.8	268.4	84.9
EC 12	6,336.1	6,545.9	6,468.2	5,173.9	5,312.3	5,455.3
Germany, Fed. Rep.	1,667.2	1,574.4	1,829.0	1,227.0	1,126.0	1,538.8
United Kingdom	1,596.0	1,691.8	1,886.4	1,372.9	1,375.6	1,283.9
France	1,022.7	1,327.7	971.6	637.6	764.0	713.6
Netherlands	492.7	550.9	499.8	628.6	638.5	747.8
Italy	905.5	832.9	740.3	531.5	545.8	498.9
EFTA	1,139.7	1,178.2	1,443.0	424.6	459.6	453.4
Other Western Europe	191.1	206.0	25.7	272.4	301.2	95.3
Socialist Countries of Eastern Europe	297.3	158.8	189.6	875.1	655.7	477.7
USSR	86.4	28.9	78.4	760.2	531.7	283.7
North America	9,241.1	8,970.8	8,542.3	10,677.2	10,976.9	11,813.2
USA	8,922.9	8,775.4	8,314.4	10,291.7	10,619.9	11,436.3
Oceania	1,784.8	1,838.2	1,226.6	2,916.4	3,046.0	2,230.7
Australia	1,501.6	1,532.4	986.4	1,751.4	1,636.2	1,515.2
Africa	414.3	544.7	610.2	1,500.3	1,266.0	1,516.9
Central & South America	364.8	318.7	383.1	897.6	1,029.0	959.6

Note: 1984 & 1985 - USA incl Puerto Rico
1986 - Australia incl Christmas Island

Source: Department of Statistics up to 1985
Trade Development Board for 1986

Principal Statistics of Manufacturing, 1976-1986

Year	Establishments Number	Workers	Materials	Output	Census Value Added	Sales Total	Direct Exports	Employees' Remuneration	Capital Expenditure
					Million Dollars				
1976	2,505	207,234	10,629.4	15,317.4	3,961.8	15,556.5	9,575.9	1,309.8	618.7
1977	2,638	219,112	12,224.6	17,518.2	4,475.5	17,390.5	10,969.4	1,471.7	751.6
1978	2,946	243,724	13,562.0	19,666.7	5,162.9	19,555.5	12,632.7	1,724.2	821.8
1979	3,122	269,334	17,513.4	25,133.7	6,412.9	25,172.9	16,203.0	2,085.9	1,424.5
1980 ¹	3,355	285,250	21,415.2	31,657.9	8,521.9	30,946.7	19,172.9	2,526.9	1,861.9
1981	3,439	281,675	24,891.5	36,787.1	9,720.5	36,543.5	22,375.3	2,938.1	1,966.8
1982	3,586	275,450	24,854.4	36,467.4	9,355.9	36,437.0	21,858.7	3,270.6	2,222.7
1983	3,616	271,106	25,116.3	37,221.5	9,822.1	37,411.1	22,640.8	3,571.9	2,113.4
1984	3,648	274,391	27,474.4	41,077.9	11,106.3	40,910.7	25,057.8	4,045.0	2,168.1
1985	3,504	253,510	25,541.9	38,505.5	10,687.3	38,384.6	24,276.3	4,035.3	1,977.2
1986*	3,495	240,914	22,894.3	36,325.5	11,195.3	36,506.6	23,471.8	3,550.7	1,977.2

* Preliminary.

¹ Prior to 1980, data on output and sales of petroleum refining industry included the value of products processed for third party overseas.

Note: Rubber processing and granite quarrying are excluded.
Refers to establishments engaging 10 or more persons.

Source: Department of Statistics.

issed for third party

1,309.8	618.7
1,471.7	751.5
1,724.2	821.8
2,085.9	1,424.5
2,526.9	1,861.9
2,938.1	1,966.8
3,270.6	2,222.7
3,571.9	2,413.4
4,045.0	2,164.1
4,035.3	1,977.2
3,550.7	1,977.2

Emp/years'	Cap (ml)
Remuner-	Expendi-
at ion	ture

0	0	1,516.9	999.6
2	0	2,229.7	1,515.2
9	9	11,485.3	11,485.3
9	9	11,812.2	11,812.2
7	7	477.7	203.7
2	2	451.4	451.4
1.6	1.6	451.4	451.4
1.8	1.8	498.8	498.8
1.5	1.5	713.4	713.4
1.0	1.0	1,281.4	1,281.4
1.3	1.3	5,454.3	5,454.3
1.4	1.4	1,073.4	1,073.4
1.5	1.5	401.5	401.5
1.7	1.7	401.5	401.5
5.9	5.9	2,164.5	2,164.5
3.0	3.0	370.1	370.1
4.8	4.8	370.1	370.1
2.0	2.0	29.4	29.4
1.4	1.4	2,164.5	2,164.5
1.4	1.4	401.5	401.5
1.4	1.4	401.5	401.5
1.4	1.4	401.5	401.5

Imports by Commodity:

Million Dollars

Commodity	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986
Total	22,404.5	25,521.9	29,601.3	38,344.4	51,344.8	58,248.0	60,244.6	59,504.2	61,133.6	57,817.5	55,545.4
Food	1,853.3	2,211.0	2,183.0	2,552.6	2,915.5	3,270.5	3,601.9	3,503.9	4,157.6	3,535.4	3,865.7
Cereals & Cereal Preparations	374.5	436.8	438.3	573.2	694.3	754.0	823.4	636.7	980.5	428.1	384.5
Fruits & Vegetables	445.7	487.8	547.2	599.3	674.1	792.2	805.0	857.8	913.9	899.1	827.8
Coffee & Spices	312.1	439.6	384.5	439.8	388.7	464.8	592.4	660.2	808.7	882.6	1,047.7
Beverages & Tobacco	139.4	150.0	176.0	207.3	276.0	282.2	339.5	416.2	460.6	501.0	541.5
Crude Materials	2,023.5	2,278.7	2,470.0	3,108.2	3,416.9	2,775.5	2,306.1	2,624.8	2,510.2	1,988.0	1,905.0
Rubber	1,302.1	1,485.4	1,577.6	2,017.7	2,163.5	1,659.7	1,269.9	1,622.2	1,454.0	1,003.1	903.3
Wood	270.1	291.5	328.3	461.4	423.6	388.0	360.4	353.1	296.1	249.4	272.1
Mineral Fuels	6,140.9	6,524.2	7,081.5	9,672.7	14,889.2	19,831.1	20,479.6	18,611.7	16,961.3	17,031.0	10,994.5
Petroleum & Petroleum Products	6,136.6	6,519.5	7,074.5	9,668.0	14,879.5	19,819.2	20,471.4	18,601.4	16,949.4	17,019.9	10,986.1
Animal & Vegetable Oils	257.8	478.9	491.1	829.4	1,001.0	721.8	671.5	632.1	1,435.9	1,380.5	720.3
Unprocessed Vegetable Oils	186.6	272.7	190.0	414.0	239.6	226.9	114.2	202.0	440.9	293.9	166.9
Chemicals	1,116.2	1,319.3	1,597.6	2,178.5	2,756.1	2,790.7	2,981.6	3,096.2	2,890.4	3,245.6	772.0879.7
Chemical Compounds	305.1	311.0	355.1	571.4	715.7	753.0	723.5	821.2	859.1	859.1	859.1
Plastic Materials	247.6	307.6	400.1	591.3	648.2	643.3	687.0	808.1	829.3	721.3	846.0
Medicinal Products	119.2	160.9	161.4	173.2	206.8	203.6	210.7	207.0	222.2	239.0	284.6
Manufactured Goods by Materials	3,277.4	3,630.7	4,566.5	5,736.7	7,237.2	8,079.7	8,407.4	8,089.5	8,045.3	7,082.4	7,613.5
Textile Manufacturers	1,062.5	1,124.7	1,401.4	1,666.1	1,835.6	1,905.0	1,923.7	2,052.4	2,018.3	1,871.5	2,241.6
Non-metal Mineral Manufactures	356.6	406.1	532.7	633.8	904.2	955.7	1,025.7	1,198.4	1,280.6	1,013.7	894.0
Iron & Steel	767.7	870.1	1,138.8	1,461.0	1,854.6	2,360.6	2,596.0	1,890.0	1,730.7	1,425.1	1,463.5
Metal Manufactures	458.1	524.8	621.6	800.5	1,072.2	1,301.6	1,344.2	1,255.4	1,268.1	1,253.6	1,133.4
Paper & Paperboard & Related	221.4	242.0	310.7	377.1	502.9	532.8	501.7	566.4	642.7	575.4	684.9
Articles	5,794.7	6,738.5	8,607.8	11,343.9	15,303.8	16,474.9	17,219.3	18,046.1	19,419.6	18,317.2	20,780.7
Machinery & Transport Equipment	2,205.5	2,406.6	3,050.2	4,002.4	5,720.7	6,685.2	7,142.7	6,629.1	7,128.8	6,624.6	7,000.7
Non-electric Machinery	2,385.7	2,815.7	3,595.2	4,675.5	6,051.7	6,665.7	6,871.3	7,597.1	8,687.0	8,238.1	10,786.8
Electric Machinery	1,203.5	1,516.3	1,962.4	2,666.0	3,531.3	3,123.9	3,205.3	3,819.8	3,603.8	3,454.6	2,993.2
Transport Equipment	1,534.0	1,764.9	2,071.4	2,194.3	2,951.1	3,413.0	3,852.3	3,947.2	4,196.7	4,193.6	4,887.4
Miscellaneous Manufactured	289.0	335.5	439.0	596.0	797.1	938.0	1,034.4	998.2	1,070.6	1,129.4	1,255.9
Articles	291.7	321.4	385.9	377.7	567.3	541.9	550.4	537.6	475.6	424.7	475.7
Scientific & Optical Instruments	267.3	425.7	356.4	510.9	667.4	643.2	567.3	651.1	850.2	898.0	991.2
Matches & Clocks											
Miscellaneous Transactions nes											

Source: Department of Statistics up to 1985.
Trade Developmetn Board for 1986.

Exports by Commodity:

Million Dollars

Commodity	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986
Total	16,265.9	20,090.3	22,985.5	30,940.0	1,452.3	44,290.8	44,472.8	46,154.9	51,340.0	50,178.8	48,985.5
Food	947.8	1,389.4	1,488.0	1,674.0	2,008.2	2,124.8	2,388.0	2,025.1	2,895.4	2,193.1	2,625.5
Cereals & Cereal Preparations	77.9	150.5	169.4	224.0	357.5	449.5	609.7	274.7	839.1	186.5	142.7
Fruits & Vegetables	165.3	191.9	205.1	223.0	252.8	303.2	320.9	342.9	375.9	366.2	340.8
Coffee & Spices	380.2	570.3	594.0	597.0	627.4	659.2	745.5	720.3	960.7	988.2	1,350.1
Beverages & Tobacco	48.9	65.2	99.9	131.0	157.2	174.3	217.0	210.0	209.8	240.8	332.1
Crude Materials	2,664.7	3,160.0	3,483.1	4,412.0	4,700.0	3,665.3	2,781.1	3,388.5	3,410.4	2,699.7	2,458.8
Rubber	1,995.2	2,255.7	2,480.6	3,070.0	3,294.1	2,455.4	1,744.7	2,108.3	2,138.2	1,496.1	1,340.8
Wood	307.0	330.0	408.0	657.0	585.0	426.4	378.4	398.8	365.0	327.9	380.4
Mineral Fuels	3,783.8	4,874.1	5,329.0	7,414.0	14,175.6	14,175.6	14,616.6	12,965.5	13,185.0	13,594.2	10,147.1
Petroleum & Petroleum Products	3,743.7	4,834.6	5,279.1	7,337.0	1,828.0	13,980.6	14,437.3	12,761.9	12,992.3	13,456.1	10,038.9
Animal & Vegetable Oils	249.3	474.7	513.5	858.0	1,095.5	820.0	780.3	628.2	1,540.5	1,535.2	880.4
Unprocessed Vegetable Oils	217.3	386.5	347.8	684.0	840.6	581.7	560.9	451.5	1,115.7	1,128.1	336.2
Chemicals	609.8	716.1	870.5	1,124	1,124.0	1,556.3	1,722.4	1,956.3	2,463.7	2,716.9	2,839.9
Chemical Compounds	105.7	117.8	152.2	231.0	282.6	346.0	380.5	547.2	882.4	917.6	985.5
Medicinal Products	194.0	213.7	233.5	267.0	323.3	319.2	342.8	329.8	259.8	298.1	294.1
Plastic Materials	93.2	121.4	155.7	205.0	220.6	220.5	243.4	263.2	486.3	680.1	732.5
Manufactured Goods by Materials	1,328.8	1,602.2	2,259.7	2,841.0	3,441.7	3,669.8	3,838.7	3,683.1	3,624.6	3,597.8	3,632.7
Wood Manufactures	279.6	297.5	351.4	482.0	549.2	539.3	495.5	536.4	481.0	484.3	447.3
Textile Manufactures	443.5	467.3	606.3	787.0	793.2	737.0	745.6	810.2	781.1	776.9	929.4
Iron & Steel	187.1	263.3	400.4	362.0	454.3	586.3	707.5	411.2	461.5	457.8	433.1
Metal Manufactures	175.7	228.5	287.1	389.0	450.7	578.5	516.9	509.6	530.3	570.6	561.2
Machinery & Transport Equipment	4,106.7	4,917.0	5,715.1	8,216.0	1,089.4	11,779.4	11,546.2	14,677.9	16,865.0	16,567.4	18,900.5
Non-electric Machinery	983.5	1,163.8	1,299.5	1,958.0	2,662.8	3,119.8	3,597.1	4,536.4	5,764.4	6,011.5	7,420.3
Electric Machinery	2,186.4	2,868.0	3,557.4	4,045.0	6,656.6	6,724.7	6,479.4	7,816.8	9,252.1	8,855.0	10,157.7
Transport Equipment	936.8	885.2	858.3	1,212.0	1,770.0	1,934.9	1,469.6	2,324.8	1,848.5	1,701.0	1,322.5
Miscellaneous Manufactured											
Articles	1,232.5	1,402.3	1,725.0	2,121.0	2,572.4	2,919.1	2,831.5	3,083.7	3,408.0	3,378.2	4,042.3
Clothing	448.7	514.1	672.2	811.0	912.0	990.1	979.7	1,002.1	1,170.9	1,176.5	1,469.7
Scientific & Optical Instruments	167.0	192.7	200.0	344.0	410.0	481.7	414.6	510.0	594.1	660.4	754.6
Watches & Clocks	235.1	184.9	223.6	189.0	221.8	250.9	232.8	246.2	230.2	200.9	206.8
Miscellaneous Transactions nes	1,293.6	1,489.3	1,501.7	2,144.0	3,003.7	3,406.2	3,751.0	3,532.6	3,737.6	3,655.5	3,126.2

Source: Department of Statistics up to 1985.
Trade Development Board for 1986.

Industrial Production
cent in 1984 and main
of the GNP.
Compared with 1983,
range of industries
electrical, transport
printing and publishing
the main growth compo-
nent was opened dur-
ing the year.
The Republic remain
investments remain
higher than in 1983.
commitments were for

COMMUNICATIONS
roads, Singapore has
new roads and the
The Port of Singapore
the world in terms
shipping tonnage of
port was 527.5 million
Singapore's reputation
shipping centre is
location and the well
financial services.
about 30,000 vessels
lying the flags aim
port at any one time
and that it to me-
tised-the-clock every
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to keep F
transportation and ce
The port is admin-
by a statutory b
of port facilities
and aviation in the
The PSA operates 5
terminals, Pasir
the Tanjong Pagar
terminal has the cap-
ability to berth 32 v-
essels at the Port of Sing-
apore. The port is
the Port of Singa-
pore loses general
Panjang Whar-

* Preliminary.
Refers to establishments
Source: Department of

Food & Beverage
Textiles
Wearing Apparel
Wood Products
Furniture
Paper Products & Print
Chemical Products
Petroleum
Rubber & Plastic Pro-
ducts
Non-metallic Minerals
Basic Metals
Fabricated Metal Pro-
ducts
Machinery & Appliances
Transport Equipment
Precision Equipment
Other Products
Total ex-1 Rubber Proc
Rubber Processing
Total Inc-1 Rubber Proc

Industry

Principal Statistics of

Principal Statistics of Manufacturing by Major Industry Group (Preliminary Figures, 1986):

Industry	Establishments ¹	Workers	Employees' Remuneration	Census Value Added	Total	Sales	Direct Exports
	Number			Million Dollars			
Food & Beverage	304	12,609	203.1	678.2	2,716.9		1,497.7
Textiles	60	2,528	30.0	66.0	218.1	80.8	
Wearing Apparel	446	26,020	222.2	401.6	1,239.2	906.2	
Wood Products	108	3,057	34.6	70.2	273.1		127.3
Furniture	147	7,450	71.5	137.8	374.0		111.3
Paper Products & Printing	391	15,856	242.1	744.6	1,445.1		313.6
Chemical Products	144	7,535	179.6	900.5	2,691.6		1,743.5
Petroleum	13	3,411	137.4	515.2	6,018.0		3,842.3
Rubber & Plastic Products	250	8,600	102.4	232.3	703.3		147.6
Non-metallic Minerals	103	5,503	87.8	285.1	839.6		66.4
Basic Metals	32	1,944	42.8	134.1	470.2		168.0
Fabricated Metal Products	433	18,284	270.3	718.4	1,955.2		493.1
Machinery & Appliances	670	100,671	1,468.7	4,856.3	14,620.1	12,137.4	
Transport Equipment	214	17,216	335.6	1,094.1	2,013.3		1,208.8
Precision Equipment	40	5,077	62.9	200.5	381.3		358.7
Other Products	140	5,153	59.8	160.6	547.6		287.1
Total excl Rubber Processing	3,495	240,914	3,550.8	11,195.5	36,506.6		23,471.8
Rubber Processing	6	450	6.9	7.4	166.1		114.5
Total incl Rubber Processing	3,501	241,364	3,557.7	11,202.0	36,672.7		23,586.3

* Preliminary.

¹ Refers to establishments engaging 10 or more persons.

Source: Department of Statistics.

Industrial Production. The manufacturing sector grew by 9 per cent in 1984 and manufacturing output accounted for 25 per cent of the GNP.

Compared with 1983, growth was more broad-based, spread over a range of industries including the petroleum, electronics, electrical, transport equipment, metal fabrication, garment, and printing and publishing industries. The electronics industry was the main growth component. Output from the petrochemical complex, which was opened during the year, added 2 per cent to the overall increase in industrial output.

The Republic remained an attractive investment location. Total investment commitments in 1984 topped \$1.8 billion, a shade higher than in 1983. A significant portion of investment commitments were for projects in computer-related areas.

COMMUNICATIONS

Roads. Singapore has 2,614.9 km of public roads, 2,461.1 km are paved roads and the remaining 146.8 km are unpaved roads.

The Port of Singapore. Singapore is one of the busiest ports in the world in terms of shipping tonnage. In 1984, the total shipping tonnage of vessels arriving at and departing from the port was 527.5 million gross registered tons.

Singapore's reputation as an important port and a leading shipping centre is attributed to her strategic geographical location and the well developed infrastructure in the Republic. The efficient communications systems, excellent banking and financial services, a disciplined workforce and a politically stable climate have all contributed to this growth.

About 30,000 vessels call at Singapore yearly. Some 600 ships flying the flags of almost all the world's maritime nations are in port at any one time. About 500 shipping lines serve Singapore and link it to nearly all parts of the world. The port works round-the-clock every day of the year.

Endowed with a natural deep-water harbour, Singapore's port facilities have been developed continually, over the last 166 years to keep pace with the changing pattern in sea transportation and cargo handling methods.

The port is administered by the Port of Singapore Authority (PSA), a statutory board under the Ministry of Communications and Information. It is responsible for the provision and maintenance of port facilities and services and for the control of traffic and navigation in the port.

The PSA operates 5 gateways (Tanjong Pagar Container Terminal, Keppel Wharves, Pasir Panjang Wharves, Sembawang Wharves and Jurong Port), with over 15 km of wharves.

The Tanjong Pagar Container Terminal is the main gateway for handling containerised cargo, with about 5 km of wharves. The terminal has the capacity to accommodate 42,000 TEUs and to berth eight container vessels and one feeder vessel.

Keppel Wharves is the oldest and the main conventional gateway of the Port of Singapore. With about 4.6 km of wharves, it is able to berth 32 vessels at any one time. Keppel wharves handles mainly loose general cargo, and some bulk cargo.

Pasir Panjang Wharves is a conventional gateway as well as a

major centre for warehousing, offering more than 150,000 sq metres of open and covered space. It has about 2.6 km of wharves to accommodate three deep-water, 13 coastal and four lash (lighter aboard ship) vessels as well as 46 lighters.

Sembawang Wharves is also a conventional gateway. It handles mainly low-value, high-volume homogeneous cargo such as timber and rubber. It has five berths with a total length of 0.8 km.

Jurong Port is mainly a dry bulk cargo port which is equipped with high-speed cranes and a system of conveyor belts. With a total wharf length of 2.4 km, it can accommodate nine deep-water and three coastal vessels.

The Port of Singapore handled 111.9 m tonnes of cargo in 1984. This included 63.2 m tonnes of mineral oil-in-bulk. Containerised cargo which accounted for about 22 m tonnes or about 60 of total general cargo moved in some 1.5 m twenty-foot equivalent units (TEUs).

Besides cargo handling, the Port of Singapore offers a host of services such as ship repairing, ship building, ship chandlery and victualling and bunkering services. Supporting services include pilotage and tug, supply of fresh water, gas-free inspection and fumigation, garbage removal and slop reception for oil tankers. The port also provides round-the-clock security, environmental control services such as cleaning oil and debris from the sea, and fire-fighting services. Such services are continually upgraded and facilities developed to meet the needs of shippers and traders.

Pacific International Lines (PIL), Ltd., PIL Building, 140 Cecil St., Postbox 3206, Singapore 0106; 45 Vessels.

Neptune Orient Lines Ltd., Neptune Building, 456 Alexandra Rd., Singapore 0511; 39 Vessels.

Guan Guan Shipping (PTE.), Ltd. 2nd Floor, Kwangtung Provincial Bank Building, 60 Cecil St., Singapore 0104; 23 Vessels.

Straits Steamship Co., Ltd., 16th Floor, Ocean Building, Collyer Quay, Postbox 596, Singapore 0104; 11 Vessels.

AIR

Singapore Changi Airport is located at the eastern corner of Singapore, and about 20 km from the city centre.

Access to the Airport is via two high-speed expressways, East Coast Parkway and Pan Island Expressway.

The Airport is served by two runways. Runway I is 4,000 m long and Runway II 3,355 m long. There are 56 parking positions for passenger aircraft, and of which 22 are with passenger loading bridges. In addition, there are six parking positions for cargo planes, in the vicinity of the cargo complex. There are also three aircraft maintenance bays, near to the Singapore Airline's Hangar.

Two major projects have been approved for implementation and work to construct them will commence in early 1985. The projects are the \$700 million second passenger terminal, with two multi-storey carparks, and the \$27 million third cargo agents building.

The second passenger terminal, to be operational by July 1989,

Gross Domestic Product by Industry:

Industry	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	Million Dollars 1986*
At Current Market Prices											
Total	14,650.9	16,039.0	17,830.4	20,523.0	25,090.7	29,399.4	32,669.9	36,732.8	40,047.9	38,521.1	37,773.6
Agriculture & Fishing	256.8	283.1	273.7	295.2	322.0	356.2	349.1	349.7	358.5	309.1	258.4
Quarrying	56.2	49.1	38.4	42.9	82.7	106.2	128.9	143.0	132.9	111.8	83.6
Manufacturing	3,687.2	4,090.8	4,700.7	5,837.4	7,476.0	8,571.5	8,396.2	9,182.5	10,190.2	9,485.1	10,132.9
Utilities	273.7	291.9	351.5	424.7	557.8	484.9	601.4	703.2	773.5	798.6	845.4
Construction	1,205.1	1,200.3	1,122.2	1,242.6	1,624.4	2,178.8	3,164.8	4,224.8	4,966.0	3,123.8	
Commerce	3,815.2	4,232.1	4,631.0	5,135.9	5,717.9	6,289.4	6,921.6	7,286.2	7,500.4	7,113.3	6,901.7
Transport & Communications	1,795.5	2,123.6	2,616.8	2,920.3	3,595.6	4,139.9	4,570.9	5,058.2	5,410.7	5,429.1	5,813.8
Financial & Business Services	2,233.0	2,349.9	2,581.6	3,144.4	4,296.0	5,755.9	6,653.9	7,579.8	8,541.8	8,905.6	8,806.1
Other Services	1,679.4	1,746.8	1,911.9	2,149.1	2,402.4	2,808.3	3,511.5	4,001.2	4,487.2	4,848.6	4,744.4
Less: Imputed Bank Service Charge	611.6	632.7	737.6	1,039.2	1,410.9	1,778.6	2,109.1	2,306.8	2,827.4	3,196.5	3,329.1
Add: Import Duties	260.4	304.1	340.2	369.7	426.8	427.9	481.5	511.0	514.1	468.1	393.6
At 1968 Market Prices											
Total	9,447.4	10,193.2	11,074.0	12,114.1	13,366.5	14,695.2	15,627.5	16,869.8	18,261.5	17,924.9	18,256.8
Agriculture & Fishing	154.9	156.5	155.4	160.7	164.5	165.8	155.6	158.3	164.3	143.9	127.3
Quarrying	43.1	42.0	36.4	41.5	44.9	58.4	73.8	89.1	87.6	80.9	68.4
Manufacturing	2,084.6	2,261.4	2,507.1	2,873.3	3,183.4	3,486.4	3,322.4	3,416.8	3,750.3	3,498.8	3,745.8
Utilities	244.4	276.1	326.1	355.8	381.1	407.6	423.0	457.5	491.7	516.4	565.4
Construction	591.3	578.4	536.1	575.0	630.3	741.4	1,036.2	1,340.8	1,554.7	1,370.9	1,009.6
Commerce	2,450.8	2,642.9	2,827.5	3,035.6	3,263.1	3,452.4	3,661.9	3,836.3	4,054.1	3,970.2	3,930.3
Transport & Communications	1,399.3	1,629.9	1,885.3	2,149.3	2,440.7	2,781.6	3,070.0	3,308.6	3,626.1	3,739.3	4,163.1
Financial & Business Services	1,573.2	1,651.9	1,769.7	1,988.7	2,472.2	2,941.9	3,222.0	3,626.4	4,118.8	4,503.1	4,692.8
Other Services	1,171.7	1,208.2	1,305.6	1,384.2	1,441.7	1,533.2	1,693.4	1,849.8	1,941.9	2,006.0	2,094.3
Less: Imputed Bank Service Charge	429.5	435.7	471.3	660.9	893.6	1,102.2	1,283.2	1,460.7	1,777.2	2,130.4	2,320.0
Add: Import Duties	163.6	181.6	196.1	210.9	238.2	228.7	252.4	246.9	249.2	225.8	179.8

* Preliminary.

Source: Department of Statistics.

Capital - Honiara.
Governor-General -
National Flag -
Motto - Or in Dexte
CONSTITUTION A
Prime Minister: Rt.
British High Commis
The Solomon Islands
islands extending
from Santa Cruz Gro
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Japanese is offered
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Training Board (VITB)

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In 1984, 39 inter
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Sector Airport
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and 2,280.3 tonnes of

SOLOMON ISLANDS

will have a floor area of about 280,000 sq m. It will be able to handle about 10 million passengers per annum and 5,000 passengers during peak hour. It will be able to cater for our traffic upto the year 2,000.

The third cargo agents building, which will be completed by mid-1987, will have 10,500 sq m of warehouse space and 11,500 sq m of office space.

In 1984, 39 international airlines, including the national carrier, operated at Changi Airport to 47 countries and 75 cities. A total of 63,808 (commercial) aircraft movements were recorded. For the same period, under review some 9.4 million passengers passed through the Airport, and 295,000 tonnes of cargo were handled.

Seletar Airport in 1984, continued to serve as a general aviation and regional airport. 31,107 passengers used the Airport and 2,260.3 tonnes of freight were handled.

EDUCATION

Education in Singapore is not compulsory. All children are entitled to free primary education and a place is ensured for every child.

A number of schools work on a shift system, one functioning in the morning and another in the afternoon. In June 1985 there were 645 schools, comprising 60 kindergartens, 236 primary schools, 122 secondary schools, 16 full schools (ie schools with primary and secondary classes) and 11 junior colleges. The total enrolment was 471,051 of which 4,887 were in pre-primary classes, 277,875 in primary schools, 163,590 in secondary schools and 24,699 in pre-university centres and junior colleges.

The policy of bilingualism ensures that children are taught two languages: English and one of the other official languages; Chinese, Malay or Tamil. The option to study French, German or Japanese is offered to secondary school pupils with linguistic ability and who are academically bright, as a third language.

The first three years of primary education emphasize the learning of languages. Pupils are then streamed into the Normal bilingual course (a six-year course), Extended Bilingual course (an eight-year course) or the Monolingual course (an eight-year course). Pupils of the bilingual courses sit for the Primary School Leaving Examination (PSLE) and go on to the secondary level if they pass. The Monolingual course pupils sit for the Primary School Proficiency Examination (PSPE) and are awarded a certificate. They may then join the Vocational and Industrial Training Board (VITB) for pre-vocational training.

At the secondary level, based on the PSLE results, pupils will be streamed into the Special course (a 4-year course), Express course (a 4-year course) or Normal course (4/5-year course). Pupils of the Special and Express courses sit for the Singapore-Cambridge General Certificate of Education (GCE) 'Ordinary' Level Examination. Normal course pupils sit for the GCE 'Normal' Level Examination at the end of the 4th year. Those who do well can proceed to the 5th year and take the GCE 'O' Level Examination. Based on the GCE 'O' Level results the pupils can apply for two-year or three-year pre-university course leading to the GCE 'Advanced' Level Examination.

Higher Education

There are five tertiary institutions: the National University of Singapore, the Nanyang Technological Institute, the Ngee Ann Polytechnic, the Singapore Polytechnic and the Institute of Education. In June 1984, the total enrolment in the tertiary institutions was 35,783.

Vocational and Industrial Training Board

The Vocational and Industrial Training Board (VITB) promotes, provides and regulates vocational training in Singapore. It conducts institutional training for school-leavers, offers part-time continuing education and training programmes and registers apprentices. The VITB is also responsible for setting national skills standards, the conduct of public trade testing and certification of skills.

NEWSPAPERS

		Cir. Fig.
<i>Straits Times.</i>	Times House,	260,000
<i>Berita Harian.</i>	390, Kim Seng Road,	39,000
<i>Business Times.</i>	Singapore 0923	16,000
<i>Lian He Zao Bao.</i>	News Centre	189,000
<i>Lian He Wan Bao.</i>	82, Genting Lane,	76,000
	Maxwell P.O. Box 27	
<i>Shin Hin Daily News.</i>	577, MacPherson Road	94,000
	Singapore 1336	
<i>Tamil Murasu.</i>	139-41, Lavender Street	6,000
	Singapore 1233	

* Circulation figures based on average per issue for the quarter April-June 1985.

SOLOMON ISLANDS

Capital - Honiara.

Governor-General - H.E. Sir Baddeley Devesi, GCMG, GCVO.

National Flag - Per bend sinister Azure and Vert a bendlet sinister Or in Dexter chief five Mulletts in Saltire Argent.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT

Prime Minister: Rt. Hon. Sir Peter Kenilorea KBE.

British High Commissioner: Mr. G. N. Stansfield.

The Solomon Islands consist of a double row of mountainous islands extending from Bougainville Straits to Mitre Island in the Santa Cruz Group for a distance of 900 miles, and north and south from the Ontong Java group to Rennell Island for a distance of 430 miles. The total land area of the territory is about 11,500 square miles.

A British Protectorate was proclaimed over the Southern Solomon Islands (Guadalcanal, Savo, Malaita, San Cristobal, the New Georgia Group and its dependencies) in 1893. In 1898 and 1899 the islands of the Santa Cruz group, including Utupua, Tikopia, Vanikoro, the remote islands of Cherry and Mitre, Sikaiana, and the islands of Rennell and Bellona were added to the protectorate, and in 1900 the northern islands, namely Santa Isabel, Choiseul, the islands of the Shortlands Group, south and south-east of the main island of Bougainville, and the atoll group of Ontong Java, were transferred under convention from Germany to Great Britain.

A full census was taken in the Solomon Islands in February 1976, and the provisional figure for the population was 196,823 mainly Melanesians. At the beginning of 1981 it was estimated at 233,000

with an annual growth rate of approximately 3.4 per cent.

Until 1960 the High Commissioner, who administered the Protectorate, was assisted by an Advisory Council. In that year nominated Executive and Legislative Councils were established and elected members were introduced in 1964. A revised constitution was introduced in 1967 and from then until its dissolution in March 1970 the Legislative Council consisted of three ex-officio members, 14 elected members and not more than 12 public service members.

In 1970, the Executive and Legislative Councils were replaced by a single Governing Council, with an elected majority for the first time, which combined both executive and legislative functions and exercises executive control through a series of functional committees.

In 1974 a new Constitution was introduced, and a new office of Governor of the Protectorate, replacing the High Commissioner was introduced. The Governing Council was replaced in its legislative capacity by the new Legislative Assembly whose 24 elected members chose a Chief Minister. He selected the Ministers who, together with ex-officio members, formed the Council of Ministers, which replaced the Governing Council in its executive capacity. Originally the Council of Ministers was composed of six Ministers and three ex-officio members, but in June 1975 the number of Ministers was increased to eight, to include a Minister of Finance, and the number of ex-officio members dropped to two.

Internal self-government was conferred on 2 January 1976. Under the revised Constitution, the Governor had to act in accordance with the advice of the Council of Ministers except in his reserved subjects of defence, external affairs, and internal security. The Public Service was executivized. The Council of 10 Ministers presided over by the Chief Minister and collectively responsible to the Legislative Assembly has increased from 24 to

with a conspiracy in court; they requested an inquiry into the alleged torture of detainees, and urged Singapore to sign and observe the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights. By December most of the alleged conspirators had been released, but eight of them were rearrested in April 1988 after complaining that they had been tortured while in detention. Four prisoners were released by June 1988, and in September a further four detainees were released in accordance with a ruling by the Court of Appeal, based on a fault in their detention orders. They were immediately rearrested. The trial had, however, established a precedent for the judicial review of cases brought under the Internal Security Act, including the acceptability to the courts of evidence used in warrants for the arrest of suspects. In January 1989 Parliament approved legislation ensuring that the judiciary could examine such questions only on technical grounds, and abolishing the right of appeal to the Privy Council in cases brought under the Internal Security Act. In March 1989 three detainees were released. The two remaining prisoners (of the original 22) remained in detention until June 1990.

A general election was held in September 1988. The electoral system was altered so that 39 of the existing 79 constituencies were replaced by 13 'group representation constituencies', which had to be contested by teams of three representatives for each party, at least one of whom was to be a member of an ethnic minority (i.e. non-Chinese). The declared aim was to ensure the presence of racial minorities in Parliament; in practice, however, opposition parties with few resources were handicapped by the difficulty of presenting three candidates. The PAP won 80 of the elective seats (which now totalled 81); it was gained by the leader of the Singapore Democratic Party, Chiam See Tong. Two 'non-constituency' seats were offered to Francis Seow (Workers' Party) and Lee Siew Choh (Socialist Front). In December, however, while Seow (who had already been detained in May under the Internal Security Act for organizing a meeting between a US diplomat and lawyers official of the Government) was in the USA, undergoing medical treatment, he was convicted *in absentia* for tax evasion and fined S\$19,000, which meant that he was legally prevented from taking his seat in Parliament. In January 1989 Lee began his eighth term as Prime Minister, and announced that he would retire from the premiership before the expiry of the term. This announcement was followed by a statement from Goh Chok Tong (the First Deputy Prime Minister and Lee's chosen successor) that Lee was adopting a secondary and more advisory role in the government of the country. In August Parliament unanimously re-elected Wee Kim Wee for a further four-year term as President.

In November 1989 Lee was awarded damages in the High Court against a magazine which had published an article concerning the Government's attitude towards the Roman Catholic Church. This followed the detention of 10 Catholic workers in 1987 (see above). In December, however, a Maintenance of Religious Harmony Bill was introduced in Parliament. It proposed the prohibition of 'religious subversives' from addressing congregations or holding office in religious publications, on penalty of imprisonment. The Roman Catholic Church expressed the fear that the legislation, if enacted, might be used to stifle legitimate criticism of the Government. Nevertheless, the law was approved by Parliament in November 1990.

In early 1990 Parliament had approved legislation enabling the Government to nominate as many as six unelected MPs. This provoked limited opposition from PAP MPs. The politically neutral nominated MPs would be appointed for two years and would be able to vote on all legislative proposals except those concerning financial and constitutional affairs.

On 28 November 1990 Lee was duly replaced as Prime Minister by Goh Chok Tong. Lee remained in the Cabinet as Senior Minister to the Prime Minister's Office and retained the position of Secretary-General of the PAP. The other major changes to Lee's former Cabinet were the promotion of his son, Brig-Gen. Lee Hsien Loong, to be a Deputy Prime Minister and the creation of a new Ministry for Information and the Arts, under Brig-Gen. George Yeo, previously the Minister of State for Finance and Foreign Affairs.

In January 1991 the Constitution was amended to provide for a popularly-elected presidency with extensive powers of veto on proposed financial legislation, a role as final arbiter in cases of detention for reasons of national security, and influence in civil and military appointments. The changes to the functions

of the President, formerly elected by Parliament to a largely ceremonial position, were initially proposed by Lee in 1984, and were criticized by members of opposition parties as being intended to accommodate Lee, following his resignation as Prime Minister. However, Lee stated, during the 1988 election campaign, that he would not be a candidate in the first presidential election under the new system. Parliament approved the legislation to amend the Constitution by 75 votes to one (the single dissenting vote was cast by the only opposition MP with full voting rights, Chiam See Tong). Under the amendment, Wee Kim Wee was to continue in office until October 1993. Candidates for the presidency were limited to those who had held the post of a minister, chief justice or senior civil servant or were at the head of a large company. The candidates were to be scrutinized by a new presidential election committee, which was to comprise the head of the Society of Accountants, the Chairman of the Public Service Commission and a member of the Presidential Council of Human Rights. The latter two officials were appointed by the Government, prompting fears that the selected candidates would be those favoured by the PAP. The constitutional amendment also included a clause increasing the number of candidates required to contest a 'group representation constituency' in a general election to a minimum of three and a maximum of four, one of whom was to be a member of an ethnic minority.

In early 1991 the Government promoted the acceptance of five 'shared values', based on Confucian philosophy, as the basis of a national ideology, first discussed in January 1989. Critics alleged that the ideology would be used to reinforce support for the PAP and to obviate opposition challenges.

Relations with the USA were adversely affected in 1988 by allegations of official abuses of human rights in Singapore, by the US decision (in February) to withdraw preferential tariff treatment for imports from Singapore, and by the expulsion from Singapore (in May) of the First Secretary at the US Embassy for alleged involvement in domestic politics, through meeting lawyers critical of the Government. The USA denied these allegations and responded by expelling a Singaporean diplomat from Washington.

As a member of ASEAN (see p. 103), Singapore was active during the 1980s, in encouraging a peaceful settlement in Cambodia, favouring the establishment of a neutral government in that country. Relations with Indonesia improved in the late 1980s: the process of establishing joint military training facilities with Indonesia, which had begun in 1986, was accomplished in February and March 1989 by the signing of two agreements. Relations with other members of ASEAN deteriorated when Singapore offered to accommodate some of the US military facilities which had hitherto been stationed in the Philippines. The Governments of Malaysia and Indonesia, in particular, felt that such a development would undermine ASEAN proposals to establish a 'Zone of Peace, Freedom and Neutrality' in South-East Asia. In November 1990, however, representatives of the Governments of the USA and Singapore signed an agreement providing the US navy and air force with increased access to existing bases in Singapore.

Despite the establishment of important economic links during the 1980s, Singapore's relations with the People's Republic of China were adversely affected by the perceived threat of Chinese domination, owing to the preponderance of ethnic Chinese in Singapore (76% at mid-1989). Relations were also strained by Singapore's close military and economic ties with Taiwan. In October 1990, however, Singapore and the People's Republic of China established diplomatic relations at ambassadorial level. This development was prompted mainly by the resumption of diplomatic relations between the People's Republic of China and Indonesia, and followed a visit by the Chinese Premier, Li Peng, to Singapore in August. Singapore's relations with Taiwan were apparently unaffected by these events.

Government

Legislative power is vested in the unicameral Parliament, with 81 members who are elected by universal adult suffrage for five years (subject to dissolution) in single-member and multi-member constituencies. From 1993 the President (currently elected by Parliament to perform mainly ceremonial functions) is to be directly elected by universal adult suffrage for a four-year term as a constitutional Head of State, vested with certain powers of veto in financial matters, public appointments and

SINGAPORE

detentions for reasons of national security. Effective executive authority rests with the Cabinet, led by the Prime Minister, which is appointed by the President and responsible to Parliament.

Defence

In June 1990 the Singapore armed forces had an estimated 55,500 troops: 45,000 in the army, 4,500 in the navy and 6,000 in the air force. Military service is compulsory for 30 months (24 months for officers). Paramilitary forces comprised 11,600 police and a civil defence force numbering an estimated 100,000. Singapore is a participant in the Five-Power Defence Arrangements (with Australia, Malaysia, New Zealand and the United Kingdom). Government expenditure on defence for the financial year 1990/91 was projected at S \$3,486m. (24.5% of total expenditure).

Economic Affairs

In 1989, according to estimates by the World Bank, Singapore's gross national product (GNP), measured at average 1987-89 prices, was US \$28,058m., equivalent to US \$10,450 per head. During 1980-89, it was estimated, GNP increased, in real terms, at an average annual rate of 6.9%, while real GNP per head increased by 5.7% per year. Over the same period, the population increased by an annual average of 1.2%. Singapore's gross domestic product (GDP) increased, in real terms, by an annual average of 5.7% in 1980-88 and by 9.2% in 1989.

Agriculture (including hunting, forestry and fishing) contributed an estimated 0.3% of GDP, and employed 0.3% of the working population, in 1990. Fruit and vegetables are the principal crops. During 1980-87 agricultural production declined at an average annual rate of 5.1%.

Industry (including mining, manufacturing, construction and power) contributed about 33.4% of GDP, and employed 35.7% of the working population, in 1990. During 1980-88 industrial production increased by an annual average of 4.5%.

Mining (chiefly the quarrying of granite) accounted for only about 0.1% of GDP and 0.03% of employment in 1990.

Manufacturing contributed an estimated 26.4% of GDP, and employed 28.9% of the working population, in 1990. In 1988 the principal branches of manufacturing (measured in terms of the value of output) were electrical machinery (42%); petroleum-refining and related products; chemicals; machinery; transport equipment (especially shipbuilding); food products; and clothing. During 1980-88 manufacturing production increased by an annual average of 4.8%.

Singapore relies on imports of hydrocarbons to fuel its three thermal power stations. In 1989 imports of mineral fuels accounted for 14% of merchandise imports.

Finance and business services provided 29.7% of GDP in 1990. By 1988 Singapore had replaced Hong Kong as the second most active foreign exchange dealing centre in Asia and the Pacific (after Tokyo), with a daily turnover of US \$45,000m. Banking is also a significant sector, with a total of 137 commercial banks in operation in 1991. Tourism is an important source of foreign exchange. In 1989 tourist arrivals totalled 4.8m. (5.3m. in 1990) and receipts from tourism reached S \$5,669.1m.

In 1989 Singapore recorded a visible trade deficit of US \$2,474m., but there was a surplus of US \$2,338m. on the current account of the balance of payments. In 1989 the principal source of imports (21.4%) was Japan. The principal market for exports (23.3%) was the USA. Other major trading partners include Malaysia, Hong Kong, Thailand and Germany. Principal imports in 1989 included electronic components, electrical circuit apparatus, chemicals, paper products and rubber. Principal exports included petrochemical products, integrated circuits, data-processing machines, printed circuits, cassette recorders and radio and television receivers. Singapore is an important entrepôt, and re-exports accounted for 37.3% of total exports in 1988.

In the financial year ending 31 March 1991 there was an estimated budgetary surplus of S \$6,079m. The annual rate of inflation averaged 1.2% in 1980-88, rising to 2.4% in 1989 and to 3.4% in 1990. Only 1.7% of the labour force were unemployed in 1990. However, owing to the labour shortage (mainly in the industrial and construction sectors), there were about 200,000 foreign workers in Singapore in 1990.

Singapore is a member of the Asian Development Bank (see p. 100), of ASEAN (see p. 103), and of the Colombo Plan (see p. 112).

Introductory Survey

In 1985 Singapore experienced a short recession, caused mainly by high domestic labour costs and by an increase in direct trading by Malaysia and Indonesia, which reduced Singapore's traditional entrepôt trade. Several measures were subsequently implemented to reduce labour costs, including a successful policy of wage restraint. In the late 1980s and early 1990s many state-owned corporations were transferred to the private sector. Foreign and local companies were encouraged to invest overseas and particularly to transfer labour-intensive operations to neighbouring countries. In 1990 Singapore intensified activity in the 'triangle of growth', which encompassed Johore, in southern Malaysia, and the Riau Islands in Indonesia. The aim was to combine the inexpensive labour and unexploited space of these developing countries with Singapore's sophisticated infrastructure. Growth in productivity, which had been rapid in the late 1980s, was expected to decelerate in the early 1990s, owing to recessionary conditions in the economies of principal trading partners. Singapore aimed to attract higher value-added research and development industries, to compensate for its labour shortage and for the resultant upward pressure on wages and inflation.

Social Welfare

The Ministry of Community Development, aided by 159 voluntary bodies which are co-ordinated by the Singapore Council of Social Service, provides a wide range of welfare services to individuals and families in need. Singapore has no state pensions or sickness benefit, but there is a Central Provident Fund into which contributions must be paid by employers and employees. In 1986 Singapore had 10 government hospitals, with a total of 8,085 beds. There were also 12 private hospitals, with a total of 2,082 beds. In 1987 a total of 2,939 physicians were registered to practise in Singapore. Of total expenditure by the central Government in the financial year 1987/88 S \$548m. (3.6%) was for health services, and a further S \$196m. (1.3%) for social security and welfare.

Education

Primary and secondary education is available in the four official languages of Malay, Chinese, Tamil and English. In 1978, as part of a policy of bilingualism, examinations in English and Mandarin Chinese became compulsory for pupils seeking to enter secondary education. In 1987 English became the medium of instruction in all schools. The New Education System (primary and secondary levels) allows less able pupils to complete their education over a longer period of time, if they choose. After three years' primary education, pupils are streamed into a bilingual course (six years), an extended bilingual course (eight years) or a monolingual course (eight years). Secondary school streaming depends on the result of the Primary School Leaving Examinations. In June 1989 there were 401 primary and secondary schools, with a total enrolment of 456,909 pupils. Outside the school system there are several higher education centres and vocational institutes, providing craft and industrial training, and technical institutes providing advanced craft training. Total enrolment in the six universities and colleges was 50,756 in 1989. Adult education courses are conducted by a statutory board. Education is not compulsory but in 1989 the number of children attending primary and secondary schools was equivalent to 87% of both boys and girls in the relevant age-group. The rate of literacy, among persons aged 10 years and above, was 87.2% in 1988. Expenditure on education by the central Government in the financial year 1987/88 was S \$2,204m. (14.4% of total spending).

Public Holidays

1991: 1 January (New Year's Day), 15-16 February (Chinese New Year), 29 March (Good Friday), 16 April (Hari Raya Puasa, end of Ramadan), 1 May (Labour Day), 28 May (Vesak Day), 23 June (Hari Raya Haji, feast of the Sacrifice), 9 August (National Day), 5 November (Deepavali), 25 December (Christmas Day).

1992: 1 January (New Year's Day), 4-5 February (Chinese New Year), 4 April (Hari Raya Puasa, end of Ramadan), 11 April (Good Friday), 1 May (Labour Day), May/June (Vesak Day), 11 June (Hari Raya Haji, feast of the Sacrifice), 9 August

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Directory

The Constitution

A new constitution came into force on 3 June 1959, with the establishment of the self-governing State of Singapore. This was subsequently amended as a consequence of Singapore's affiliation to Malaysia (September 1963 to August 1965) and as a result of its adoption of republican status on 22 December 1965. The Constitution was also amended in January 1991 to provide for the election of a President by universal adult suffrage, and to extend the responsibilities of the presidency, which had previously been a largely ceremonial office. The main provisions of the Constitution are summarized below:

HEAD OF STATE

The Head of State is the President, elected by universal adult suffrage for a four-year term. He normally acts on the advice of the Cabinet, but is vested with certain functions and powers for the purpose of safeguarding the financial reserves of Singapore and the integrity of the Public Services.

THE CABINET

The Cabinet, headed by the Prime Minister, is appointed by the President and is responsible to Parliament.

THE LEGISLATURE

The Legislature consists of a Parliament of 81 members, presided over by a Speaker who may be elected from the members of Parliament themselves or appointed by Parliament although he may not be a member of Parliament. Members of Parliament are elected by universal adult suffrage for five years (subject to dissolution) in single-member and multi-member constituencies.*

A 21-member Presidential Council, chaired by the Chief Justice, examines material of racial or religious significance, including legislation, to see whether it differentiates between racial or religious communities or contains provisions inconsistent with the fundamental liberties of Singapore citizens.

CITIZENSHIP

Under the Constitution, Singapore citizenship may be acquired either by birth, descent or registration. Persons born when Singapore was a constituent State of Malaysia could also acquire Singapore citizenship by enrolment or naturalization under the Constitution of Malaysia.

* A constitutional amendment was introduced in May 1988, whereby 39 constituencies were merged to form 13 'group representation constituencies' which would return 'teams' of three Members of Parliament. At least one member of each team was to be of minority (non-Chinese) racial origin. In January 1991 the Constitution was further amended, stipulating that the number of candidates contesting 'group representation constituencies' should be a minimum of three and a maximum of four.

The Government

HEAD OF STATE

President: WEE KIM WEE (elected 30 August 1985; re-elected 31 August 1989).

THE CABINET

(May 1991)

Prime Minister and Minister of Defence: GOH CHOK TONG.

Deputy Prime Minister: ONG TENG CHEONG.

Deputy Prime Minister, Minister of Trade and Industry and Second Minister of Defence (Services): Brig.-Gen. (retd) LEE ESEN LOONG.

Senior Minister to the Prime Minister's Office: LEE KUAN YEW.

Minister of National Development: SUPPIAH DHANABALAN.

Minister of Education: Dr TONY TAN KENG YAM.

Minister of the Environment: Dr AHMAD MATTAR.

Minister of Home Affairs and Minister of Law: S. JAYAKUMAR.

Minister of Finance: Dr RICHARD HU TSU TAU.

Minister of Foreign Affairs and of Community Development: WONG KAN SENG.

Minister of Labour: LEE YOCK SUAN.

Minister of Health and Senior Minister of State (Foreign Affairs): YEO CHEOW TONG.

Minister of Communications and Second Minister of Defence (Policy): Dr YEO NING HONG.

Minister of Information and the Arts: Brig.-Gen. GEORGE YEO (acting).

MINISTRIES

Office of the Prime Minister: Istana Annexe, Istana, Singapore 0923; tel. 7375133; fax 7345244.

Ministry of Communications: 460 Alexandra Rd, PSA Bldg 39-00, Singapore 0511; tel. 2707988; telex 25500; fax 2799734.

Ministry of Community Development: 512 Thomson Rd, MCD Bldg, Singapore 1129; tel. 2589595; telex 34361.

Ministry of Defence: Tanglin Rd, Singapore 1024; tel. 4741155; telex 21373.

Ministry of Education: Kay Siang Rd, Singapore 1024; tel. 4739111; telex 34366.

Ministry of the Environment: 40 Scotts Rd, Environment Bldg, Singapore 0922; tel. 7327733.

Ministry of Finance: 8 Shenton Way, 43rd, 45th, 46th and 50th Storey, Treasury Bldg, Singapore 0106; tel. 2259911; telex 34371.

Ministry of Foreign Affairs: 250 North Bridge Rd, 07-00 Raffles City Tower, Singapore 0617; tel. 3361177; telex 21242.

Ministry of Health: 16 College Rd, College of Medicine Bldg, Singapore 0316; tel. 2237777; telex 34360; fax 2241677.

Ministry of Home Affairs: Phoenix Park, Tanglin Rd, Singapore 1024; tel. 2359111; telex 34360.

Ministry of Information and the Arts: Singapore.

Ministry of Labour: 18 Havelock Rd, Singapore 0105; tel. 5341511; telex 34364.

Ministry of Law: 250 North Bridge Rd, Raffles City Tower 21-00, Singapore 0617; tel. 3378191; telex 34374.

Ministry of National Development: Telok Ayer St, 5th Storey, MND Bldg Annexe B, Singapore 0106; tel. 2221211; telex 34369.

Ministry of Trade and Industry: 8 Shenton Way, Treasury Bldg 48-01, Singapore 0106; tel. 2259911; telex 24702.

Legislature

PARLIAMENT

Speaker: TAN SOO KHOON.

General Election, 3 September 1988

	Votes	%	Seats
People's Action Party	848,029	61.8	80*
Workers' Party	224,473	18.4	—
Singapore Democratic Party	158,341	11.5	1
National Solidarity Party	50,452	3.7	—
United People's Front	17,282	1.3	—
Singapore Justice Party	14,660	1.1	—
PKMS	13,526	1.0	—
Angkatan Islam	280	0.0	—
Independents	15,412	1.1	—
Total	1,342,455	100.0	81

* 11 seats were unopposed.

Political Organizations

Angkatan Islam (Singapore Muslim Movement): Singapore; f. 1958; Pres. MOHAMED BIN OMAR; Sec.-Gen. IBRAHIM BIN ABDUL GHANI.

Barisan Bersatu Singapura (Singapore United Front): 67A Lorong 8 Geylang, Singapore 1439; f. 1973; Chair. TAN CHEE KIAN; Sec.-Gen. SEOW KHEE LENG.

National Solidarity Party: Singapore; f. 1986; Pres. KUM TENG HOCK; Sec.-Gen. RASIAH THIAGARAJAH.

People's Action Party (PAP): SLF Bldg, 07-02, 510 Thomson Rd, Singapore 1129; tel. 2589898; fax 2599222; f. 1954; governing party

since 1959; 12-member Cen. Exec. Cttee; Chair. ONG TENG CHEONG; Sec.-Gen. LEE KUAN YEW.

Pertubuhan Kebangsaan Melayu Singapura (PKMS) (Singapore Malay National Organization): 218F, Changi Rd, PKM Bldg, 4th Floor, Singapore 1440; tel. 3455275; fax 3458924; f. in 1950 as the United Malay National Organization (UMNO) of Malaysia; renamed as UMNO Singapore in 1954 and as PKMS in 1967; seeks to advance the implementation of the special rights of Malays in Singapore, as stated in the Constitution, to safeguard and promote the advancement of Islam, to encourage racial harmony and goodwill in Singapore and to promote the welfare and advancement of Singaporean citizens; Pres. SAHID SAHOOMAN; Sec.-Gen. MOHAMMED AZIZ IBRAHIM.

Singapore Democratic Party: 1 North Bridge Rd, 17-08 High Street Centre, Singapore 0617; f. 1980; Chair. LING HOW DOONG; Sec.-Gen. CHIAM SEE TONG.

Singapore Justice Party: Singapore; f. 1972; Pres. A. R. SUIB; Sec.-Gen. MUTHUSAMY RAMASAMY.

United People's Front (UPF): 715 Colombo Court, 7th Floor, Singapore 0617; f. 1975; a coalition of several small parties; Chair. ANG BEE LIAN; Gen. Sec. HARBANS SINGH.

Workers' Party: Block 145, Jalan Bukit Merah, 01-1112, Singapore 0316; tel. 2738109; f. 1957, merged with Barisan Sosialis party in 1988; seeks to establish a democratic socialist govt with a constitution guaranteeing fundamental citizens' rights; Chair. WONG HONG TOY; Sec.-Gen. J. B. JEYARETNAM.

Other parties are the Alliance Party Singapura, the Barisan Sosialis (Socialist Front), the National Party of Singapore, Partai Rakyat, the People's Front, Parti Kesatuan Ra'ayat (United Democratic Party), People's Republican Party, Persatuan Melayu Singapura, Singapore Chinese Party, Singapore Indian Congress, United National Front and United People's Party.

Diplomatic Representation

EMBASSIES AND HIGH COMMISSIONS IN SINGAPORE

Argentina: 302 Orchard Rd, 10-04 Tong Bldg, Singapore 0923; tel. 2354231; telex 23714; Ambassador: CARLOS LUCAS BLANCO.

Australia: 25 Napier Rd, Singapore 1025; tel. 7379311; telex 21238; fax 7377134; High Commissioner: ROSALEEN MCGOVERN.

Bangladesh: 101 Thomson Rd, 06-07, United Sq., Singapore 1130; tel. 2550075; telex 23312; High Commissioner: Maj.-Gen. MOIN UL HUSSAIN CHOUDHURY.

Belgium: 10 Anson Rd, 09-24 International Plaza, Singapore 0207; tel. 2207677; telex 23301; fax 2226976; Ambassador: CLAIRE KIRSCHEN.

Brazil: 302 Orchard Rd, 1503/4 Tong Bldg, Singapore 0923; tel. 7346777; telex 36204; Ambassador: A. B. PORTO DE OLIVEIRA.

Brunei: 7A Tanglin Hill, Singapore 1024; tel. 4743393; telex 24097; High Commissioner: Dato PADUKA AWANG Haji MOHAMMED YUNOS BIN Haji MOHAMMED HUSSEIN.

Bulgaria: 15 Scotts Rd, 09-09 Thong Teck Bldg, Singapore 0922; tel. 7371111; telex 21204; Ambassador: (vacant).

Canada: 80 Anson Rd, 14-00 and 15-01 IBM Towers, Singapore 0207; tel. 225-6363; telex 21277; fax 2252450; High Commissioner: SEAN BRADY.

Chile: 105 Cecil St, The Octagon 14-01/02, Singapore 0106; tel. 2238577; telex 34187; fax 2250677; Ambassador: CARLOS NEGRÍ CHIORRINI.

China, People's Republic: 70-76 Dalvey Rd, Singapore 1025; tel. 7343360; telex 36878; fax 7338590; Ambassador: ZHANG QING.

Denmark: 101 Thomson Rd, 13-01/02 United Sq., Singapore 1130; tel. 2503383; telex 24576; Chargé d'affaires: HANS JAKUP KASS.

Egypt: 75 Grange Rd, Singapore 1024; tel. 7371811; telex 23293; Ambassador: ABBAS ZAKI.

Finland: 101 Thomson Rd, 21-02/03 United Sq., Singapore 1130; tel. 2544042; telex 21489; fax 2534101; Ambassador: ERIK HEINRICH.

France: 5 Gallop Rd, Singapore 1025; tel. 4664866; telex 21351; Ambassador: BERNARD FAUBOURNET DE MONTFERRAND.

Germany: 545 Orchard Rd, 14-01 Far East Shopping Centre, Singapore 0923; tel. 7371355; telex 21312; fax 7372653; Ambassador: Dr JOACHIM KAMPMANN.

Holy See: 55 Waterloo St 6, Singapore 0718 (Apostolic Nunciature); tel. 3372466; Apostolic Pro-Nuncio: Most Rev. ALBERTO TRICARIO, Titular Archbishop of Sistrioniana (resident in Bangkok, Thailand).

India: 31 Grange Rd, India House, Singapore 0923; tel. 7376777; telex 25526; fax 7326909; High Commissioner: Y. M. TIWARI.

Indonesia: 7 Chatsworth Rd, Singapore 1024; tel. 7377422; telex 21464; Ambassador: TUK SETYOHADI.

Israel: 230 Orchard Rd, 11-230 Faber House, Singapore 0922; tel. 2350966; telex 21975; fax 7337008; Ambassador: Dr ISRAEL ELIASHIV.

Italy: 101 Thomson Rd, 27-02 United Sq., Singapore 1130; tel. 2506022; telex 21177; fax 2533301; Ambassador: Dr ROMUALDO BETTINI.

Japan: 16 Nassim Rd, Singapore 1025; tel. 2358855; telex 21353; Ambassador: WASUKE MIYAKE.

Korea, Democratic People's Republic: 19 Fort Rd, Singapore 1543; tel. 3453044; telex 23455; Ambassador: YUN CHONG-KYU.

Korea, Republic: 101 Thomson Rd, United Sq., 10-02/04, Goldhill Sq, Singapore 1130; tel. 2561188; Ambassador: LEE CHANG-CHONG.

Malaysia: 301 Jervois Rd, Singapore 1024; tel. 2350111; telex 21406; High Commissioner: Dato K. THARMARATNAM.

Myanmar: 15 St Martin's Drive, Singapore 1025; tel. 7342657; telex 21467; fax 2355963; Ambassador: U NYUNT SWE.

Netherlands: 541 Orchard Rd, 13-01/04 Liat Towers, Singapore 0923; tel. 7371155; telex 33815; fax 7371940; Ambassador: D. H. M. VAN WOERDEN.

New Zealand: 13 Nassim Rd, Singapore 1025; tel. 2359966; telex 21244; fax 7339924; High Commissioner: COLIN BELL.

Norway: 44-01 Hong Leong Bldg, 16 Raffles Quay, Singapore 0104; tel. 2207122; telex 21225; Ambassador: JENS OTTERBECH.

Pakistan: 20A Nassim Rd, Singapore 1025; tel. 7376621; telex 36777; High Commissioner: SALIM NAWAZ GANDABUR (acting).

Panama: 16 Raffles Quay, 41-06 Hong Leong Bldg, Singapore 0104; tel. 2218677; Ambassador: JORGE LUIS ALEMÁN.

Philippines: 20 Nassim Rd, Singapore 1025; tel. 7373977; telex 34445; fax 7339544; Ambassador: FRANCISCO L. BENEDICTO.

Poland: 100 Beach Rd, 33-10PT/12 Shaw Towers, Singapore 0718; tel. 2942513/4; telex 26355; fax 2950016; Ambassador: PAWEŁ CEISLAR.

Romania: 48 Jalan Harom Setangkai, Singapore 1025; tel. 4683425; telex 22184; fax 4683425; Chargé d'affaires a.i.: IOAN BAN.

Saudi Arabia: 541 Orchard Rd, 13-03/04 Liat Towers, Singapore 0923; tel. 7345878; telex 25318; fax 7374657; Chargé d'affaires: MOHAMMAD A. AL-HAMDAN.

Sri Lanka: Newton Rd, 1307-1312 Goldhill Plaza, Singapore 1130; tel. 2544595; telex 26869; fax 2507201; High Commissioner: W. M. JANAKA B. NAKKAWITA.

Sweden: Devonshire Wing, 111 Somerset Rd, 05-08 PUB Bldg, Singapore 0923; tel. 7342771; telex 23450; fax 7322958; Ambassador: FINN BERGSTRAND.

Switzerland: 1 Swiss Club Link, Singapore 1128; tel. 4685233; telex 21501; fax 4668245; Ambassador: KURT O. WYSS.

Thailand: 370 Orchard Rd, Singapore 0923; tel. 7373372; telex 35891; fax 7320778; Ambassador: ASDA JAYANAMA.

Turkey: 20B Nassim Rd, Singapore 1025; tel. 7329211; telex 34882; Ambassador: Dr RIZA TÜRMEN.

USSR: 51 Nassim Rd, Singapore 1025; tel. 2351834; telex 23737; fax 7334780; Ambassador: ANATOLY MATFEYEVICH DRYUKOV.

United Kingdom: Tanglin Rd, Singapore 1024; tel. 4739333; telex 21218; fax 4752320; High Commissioner: GORDON DUGGAN.

USA: 30 Hill St, Singapore 0617; tel. 3380251; telex 42284; fax 3388472; Ambassador: D. ORR.

Judicial System

The judicial power of Singapore is vested in the Supreme Court and in the Subordinate Courts. The Supreme Court consists of the High Court, the Court of Appeal and the Court of Criminal Appeal. The Chief Justice is appointed by the President, acting on the advice of the Prime Minister. The other judges of the Supreme Court are appointed in the same way, in consultation with the Chief Justice. There are 10 judges, including the Chief Justice, the Supreme Court. Under a 1979 constitutional amendment, the position of judicial commissioner of the Supreme Court was created to facilitate the disposal of business in the Supreme Court. A judicial commissioner has the powers and functions of a judge and is appointed for such period as the President thinks fit. There were two judicial commissioners in 1991.

The Subordinate Courts consist of District Courts, Magistrates' Courts, Juvenile Courts, Coroners' Courts and the Small Claims Tribunal. District Judges, Magistrates and Coroners are appointed on the recommendation of the Chief Justice. There are 30 District Judges, 10 Magistrates, 10 Coroners, one Juvenile Court and one Coroner's Court. A Referee, appointed by the President on the recommendation of the Chief Justice, is appointed to the Referee's Court.

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District Courts and Magistrates' Courts have original criminal and civil jurisdiction. District Courts try offences for which the maximum penalty does not exceed 10 years of imprisonment and in civil cases where the amount claimed does not exceed S\$50,000. Magistrates' Courts try offences for which the maximum term of imprisonment does not exceed three years. The jurisdiction of Magistrates' Courts in civil cases is limited to claims of under S\$10,000. The Coroners' Court conducts inquests. The Small Claims Tribunal has jurisdiction over claims relating to a dispute arising from any contract for the sale of goods or the provision of services involving an amount less than S\$2,000. The Juvenile Court deals with offences committed by young persons aged under 16 years.

The High Court has unlimited original jurisdiction in criminal and civil cases. In its appellate jurisdiction it hears criminal and civil appeals from the District Courts and Magistrates' Courts. The Court of Appeal hears appeals from any judgment or order of the High Court in any civil matter, either in original or appellate jurisdiction. The Court of Criminal Appeal hears appeals against decisions made by the High Court in the exercise of its original criminal jurisdiction.

Appeals from the Court of Appeal lie to the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council, the final appellate court of Singapore, only when parties to the proceedings had consented in writing, prior to the hearing before the appellate court, to be bound by an Appeal to the Privy Council. Appeals from the Court of Criminal Appeal lie to the Privy Council only in cases involving crimes punishable by the death penalty or life imprisonment, and then only in the event that the decision of the appellate court was not unanimous. Appeals to the Privy Council are conducted in the United Kingdom.

Attorney-General: TAN BOON TEIK.

Chief Justice: YONG PUNG HOW.

Senior Judge: T. S. SINNATHURAY.

Justice Judges: LAI KEW CHAI, L. P. THEAN, CHAN SEK KEONG, GOO JOON SENG, CHAO HICK TIN, F. A. CHUA, P. COOMARASWAMY, M. KARTHIGESU.

Judicial Commissioners: TAN TEOW YEOW, S. RAJENDRAN, LAI ER CHIU.

Religion

In 1988 Buddhists constituted 28.3% of the total population, Christians 18.7% and Daoists (including followers of Confucius, Mencius and Lao Zi) 13.4%. Most of the Chinese community adhere to these religions. The Muslims, predominantly Malays, comprised an estimated 16% of the population, and the Hindus, mainly Indians, nearly 5%. There are also small communities of Zoroastrians, Jains and Jews. Freedom of worship is guaranteed by the Constitution.

BAHÁ'Í FAITH

National Spiritual Assembly: 68 Lorong 16, Geylang, Assen Bldg, 24-25 Singapore 1439; tel. 7476192; fax 7475521.

BUDDHISM

The Buddhist Union: 28 Jalan Senyum, Singapore 1441; tel. 463559; Chief Abbot YEN PEI.

The Singapore Buddhist Federation: 50 Lorong 34 Geylang, Singapore 1439; tel. 7444635.

The Singapore Buddhist Sangha Organization: 50 Lorong 34 Geylang, Singapore 1439.

World Buddhist Society: Singapore 0409; tel. 2725306.

CHRISTIANITY

National Council of Churches: 1 Sophia Rd, 04-34 Peace Centre, Singapore 0922; tel. 3372150; f. 1975; seven mem. churches, four mem. mems; Pres. G. ABISHEGANADEN; Gen. Sec. P. S. GEORGE.

The Anglican Communion

The Anglican diocese of Singapore (also including Indonesia, Laos, Thailand and Cambodia) is extra-provincial and is directly subordinate to the Archbishop of Canterbury, the Primate of All England.

Bishop of Singapore: The Rt Rev. Dr MOSES LENG KONG TAY, Brompton, 4 Bishopsgate, Singapore 1024; tel. 4741661.

Orthodox Churches

The Orthodox Syrian Church and the Mar Thoma Syrian Church are both active in Singapore.

The Roman Catholic Church

Singapore comprises a single archdiocese, directly responsible to the Holy See. At 31 December 1989 there were an estimated

108,601 adherents in the country, representing about 4% of the total population.

Catholic Bishops' Conference of Malaysia, Singapore and Brunei: Archbishop's House, 31 Victoria St, Singapore 0718; tel. 3378818; f. 1980; Pres. Most Rev. GREGORY YONG SOOI NGEAN, Archbishop of Singapore.

Archbishop of Singapore: Most Rev. GREGORY YONG SOOI NGEAN, Archbishop's House, 31 Victoria St, Singapore 0718; tel. 3378818.

Other Christian Churches

Brethren Assemblies: Bethesda Hall, 601 Ang Mo Kio Ave 4, Singapore 2056; tel. 4587474; f. 1864; Hon. Sec. LIM TIAN LEONG; Bethesda (Katong) Church, 19 Pennefather Rd, Singapore 1542; Hon. Sec. T. C. KOH.

Methodist Church in Singapore: 10 Mount Sophia, Singapore 0922; tel. 3375155; fax 3389575; f. 1885; 22,499 mems (July 1990); Bishop Ho CHEE SIN, 50 Barker Rd, Singapore 1130.

Presbyterian Church: Moderator Rev. DEREK J. KINGSTON; 3 Orchard Rd, cnr Penang Rd, Singapore 0923; tel. 3376681; f. 1856; services in English, Chinese (Mandarin), Dutch, Indonesian and German; 1,500 mems.

Singapore Baptist Convention: c/o Baptist Book Store, 25 Goldhill Plaza, Singapore 1130; tel. 2506404; fax 2545488; Chair. Rev. M. S. SONG; Sec. NG HENG FATT.

Other denominations active in Singapore include the Lutheran Church and the Evangelical Lutheran Church.

HINDUISM

Hindu Advisory Board: c/o Ministry of Community Development, Pearl's Hill Terrace, Singapore 0316; tel. 914111; f. 1917; Chair. P. SELVADURAI.

ISLAM

Majlis Ugama Islam Singapura (MUIS) (Islamic Religious Council): c/o Ministry of Community Development, Islamic Centre of Singapore, 273 Braddell Road, Singapore 2057; tel. 2568188; fax 2537572; f. 1968; Pres. SHAFAWI AHMAD.

Muslim Missionary Society Singapore (Jamiyah): 31 Lorong 12 Geylang, Singapore 1439; tel. 7431211; telex 34725; fax 7450160; Pres. Haji ABU BAKAR MAIDIN; Sec.-Gen. JAAFAR MAJORI.

SIKHISM

Sikh Advisory Board: c/o Ministry of Community Development, Pearl's Hill Terrace, Singapore 0316; Chair. HARBANS SINGH.

The Press

Compulsory government scrutiny of newspaper management has been in operation since 1974. All newspaper enterprises must be public companies. In August 1986 there were more than 3,700 foreign publications circulating in Singapore. The Newspaper and Printing Presses (Amendment) Act 1986 empowers the Government to restrict the circulation of foreign periodicals that are deemed to exert influence over readers on domestic political issues. An amendment to the Newspaper and Printing Presses Act was promulgated in October 1990. Under this amendment, all publications of which the 'contents and editorial policy were determined outside Singapore' and which dealt with politics and current events in South-East Asia would be required to obtain a ministerial licence, renewable annually. The permit would limit the number of copies sold and require a deposit in case of legal proceedings involving the publication. Permits could be refused or revoked without any reason being given. In November, however, a statement was issued exempting 14 of the 17 foreign publications affected by the amendment, which came into effect in December.

DAILIES

English Language

Business Times: Times House, 390 Kim Seng Rd, Singapore 0923; tel. 7370011; telex 21239; fax 7335271; f. 1976; Editor MANO SABNANI; circ. 23,000 (Singapore only).

The New Paper: News Centre, 82 Genting Lane, Singapore 1334; tel. 7438800; telex 55148; fax 7449949; f. 1988; Editor P. N. BALJI; circ. 64,000 (Singapore only).

The Straits Times: News Centre, 82 Genting Lane, Singapore 1334; tel. 7438800; telex 55148; fax 7449949; f. 1845; Editor LESLIE FONG; circ. 314,500 (Singapore only).

Chinese Language

Lianhe Wanbao: News Centre, 82 Genting Lane, Singapore 1334; tel. 7438800; telex 55653; fax 7466878; f. 1983; evening; Editor LOY TECK JUAN; circ. 85,500.

SINGAPORE

Publishers: 865 Mountbatten Rd, 05-28/29 Katong Shopping Centre, Singapore 1543; tel. 3441495; fax 3440180; f. 1963; children's and general; Man. Dir N. T. S. CHOPRA.

Publishers Pte Ltd: Block 162, 04-3545 Bukit Merah Central, Singapore 0315; tel. 2780881; telex 56289; fax 2782456; fmrly Edu Publications Bureau Pte Ltd; textbooks, general, reference and magazines; English and Chinese; Gen. Man. AU PUI CHUAN.

Publications (S) Pte Ltd: 1 New Industrial Rd, Singapore 1543; tel. 2848844; telex 25713; fax 2889254; f. 1957; educational, children's and general reference books; Gen. Man. Y. H. MEW.

International Pte Ltd: 348 Jalan Boon Lay, Jurong, Singapore 2011; tel. 2650311; telex 25601; fax 2655103; f. 1960; textbooks, children's and dictionaries; Gen. Man. RICHARD TOH.

Brash (Pte) Ltd: 36-C Prinsep St, Singapore 0718; tel. 23718; fax 3384583; f. 1956; general, academic, professional; English, Chinese and Malay; Man. Dir Mrs K. C. LEE.

Row Publishers, Asia Pte Ltd: 37 Jalan Pemimpin, 02-01 Industrial Bldg, Block A, Singapore 2057; tel. 2583577; fax 2594286; f. 1983; educational, children's, professional, reference, medical and general; Sales Man. BERNARD TANG.

Communications (Pte) Ltd: 38 Joo Koon Rd, Singapore 1543; tel. 8612755; telex 36201; fax 8616438; f. 1971; travel guides, maps and photography; Publr HANS HOEFER.

of Southeast Asian Studies: Heng Mui Keng Terrace, 100 Panjiang Rd, Singapore 0511; tel. 7780955; telex 37068; fax 37068; f. 1968; scholarly works on contemporary South-East Asia and the Pacific; Dir Prof. KERNIAL S. SANDHU.

Industrial Publishing Co: 113 Eunos Ave 3, 04-08 Gordon Industrial Bldg, Singapore 1440; tel. 7466025; telex 55708; fax 7466025; f. 1971; Propr POH BE LECK.

Singapore Publishers (Pte) Ltd: 25 First Lok Yang Rd, Jurong Town, Singapore 2262; tel. 2682666; telex 24268; fax 2682666; textbooks, medicine, science, technology; Man. Dir WEE KONG.

Hill Book Co: 21 Neythal Rd, Jurong, Singapore 2262; tel. 254633; telex 36791; fax 2652972; f. 1969; general educational; Man. Dir STEVEN GOH.

Southeast Asia Pte Ltd: 41 Jalan Pemimpin, 03-04, Singapore 2057; tel. 2581337; telex 23196; fax 2588270; educational and general; Marketing Dir JACOB KANG.

Law Journal Pte Ltd: 3 Shenton Way, 14-03 Shenton House, Singapore 0106; tel. 2203684; telex 42890; fax 2255026; f. 1982; law texts and journals; Man. Dir STEPHEN STOUT.

Publishing Asia Pte Ltd: 37 Jalan Pemimpin, 07-04, Block B, Union Industrial Bldg, Singapore 2057; tel. 2583255; telex 2583255; fax 2588279; educational and general; Man. Dir CHARLES CHIA.

University Press Pte Ltd: Unit 221, Ubi Ave 4, Singapore 1543; tel. 7431066; telex 37960; fax 7425915; f. 1955; educational, academic and general; Man. GOH TEOW HUAT.

PG Publishing Pte Ltd: 304 Orchard Rd, 04-20/22 Lucky Plaza, Singapore 0923; tel. 2357700; telex 39967; fax 2357934; medical; Marketing Man. LEW KOK LIAT.

Ptd Ltd: 621 Aljunied Rd, 06-01 Lipo Bldg, Singapore 1438; tel. 474725; f. 1975; law texts, magazines; Dir NIRMAL SINGH.

and Schuster Asia Pte Ltd: 24 Pasir Panjang Rd, 04-31 PSA Bldg Storey Complex, Singapore 0511; tel. 2789611; telex 37270; fax 2734400; f. 1975; educational; Man. Dir STEPHEN M. SMITH.

Book Emporium: 120 Hillview Ave, 05-06/07 Kewallram Hillview, Singapore 2366; tel. 7601388; telex 39255; f. 1961; textbooks, children's, reference, dictionaries, cookery, general; Man. Dir PEH CHIN HUA.

University Press Pte Ltd: National University of Singapore, Yusof Ishak House, Kent Ridge, Singapore 0511; tel. 741148; telex 51112; f. 1971; scholarly; Editor and Man. PATRICIA TAN.

College Publishers: 218 Queen St, Singapore 0718; tel. 230588; telex 25596; fax 3395825; f. 1970; general, educational and journals; Man. L. P. NICHOL.

Editions Pte Ltd: Times Centre, 1 New Industrial Rd, Singapore 1953; tel. 2848844; telex 37908; fax 2854871; f. 1978; political, social and cultural books, general works on Asia; Asst Gen. Man. SHIRLEY HEW.

World Scientific Publishing Co Pte Ltd: Farrer Road, POB 128, Singapore 9128; tel. 3825663; telex 23561; fax 3825919; f. 1980; academic texts and science journals; Man. Dir DOREEN LIU.

MALAY LANGUAGE

Malaysia Press Sdn Bhd (Pustaka Melayu): 745-747 North Bridge Rd, Singapore 0719; tel. 2933454; f. 1962; textbooks and educational; Man. Dir ABU TALIB BIN ALLY.

Pustaka Nasional Pte Ltd: 100 Beach Rd, 13-11 Shaw Towers, Singapore 0718; tel. 2941917; telex 26746; Malay and Islamic religious books; Man. Dir SYED AHMAD BIN MUHAMAD.

CHINESE LANGUAGE

Shanghai Book Co (Pte) Ltd: 81 Victoria St, Singapore 0718; tel. 3360144; telex 29297; fax 2243270; f. 1925; educational and general; Man. Dir Mrs CHEN MONG HOCK.

Shing Lee Publishers Pte Ltd: 120 Hillview Ave, 05-06/07 Kewallram Hillview, Singapore 2366; tel. 7601388; telex 39255; fax 7625684; f. 1935; educational and general; Man. PEH CHIN HUA.

Union Book Co (Pte) Ltd: 231 Bain St 03-01, Bras Basah Complex, Singapore 0718; tel. 3380696; fax 3386306; general and reference; Gen. Man. CHOW LI-LIANG.

TAMIL LANGUAGE

EVS Enterprises: 629 Upper Serangoon Rd, Singapore 1953; tel. 2830002; f. 1967; children's books, religion and general; Man. E. V. SINGHAN.

Government Publishing House

Singapore National Printers (Pte) Ltd: 303 Upper Serangoon Rd, Singapore 1334; tel. 22308340; fax 2887246.

PUBLISHERS' ASSOCIATION

Singapore Book Publishers' Association: c/o Chopmen Publr, 865 Mountbatten Rd, 05-28 Katong Shopping Centre, Singapore 1543; tel. 3441495; fax 3440180; Hon. Sec. N. T. S. CHOPRA.

Radio and Television

In 1990 there were 649,848 radio and 560,153 television licences.

Singapore Broadcasting Corp (SBC): Caldecott Hill, Andrew Rd, Singapore 1129; tel. 2560401; telex 39265; f. 1980, taking over the functions of Radio-Television Singapore and the collection of radio and television licence fees; nine radio services and three TV channels; Chair. Dr CHEONG CHOONG KONG; Gen. Man. MOSES LEE.

RADIO

Far East Broadcasting (FEBA Ltd): POB 751, Robinson Rd, Singapore 9015; tel. 2225418; telex 25281; fax 2221805; f. 1960; Chair. GOH EWE KHEUNG; Exec. Dir DAVID L. CHEN.

Rediffusion (Singapore) Pte Ltd: 1 Jalan Selanting, Singapore 2159; tel. 4671144; telex 24114; fax 4663888; f. 1949; commercial wired broadcasting service; broadcasts two programmes in Mandarin (18 hours daily) and English (24 hours daily) to over 102,000 listeners (1990); Man. Dir WONG BAN KUAN.

SBC-Radio Singapore: Farrer Rd, POB 60, Singapore 9128; tel. 2560401; telex 39265; f. 1936; operates nine services, in English (four), Chinese (Mandarin) (two), Malay (two) and Tamil, including a 24-hour popular music service in English; broadcasts 1,213 hours per week; Gen. Man. MOSES LEE; Dir Mrs CHUA FOO YONG.

TELEVISION

SBC-Television Singapore: Farrer Rd, POB 60, Singapore 9128; tel. 2560401; telex 39265; f. 1963; three channels; colour transmissions since 1974; total weekly average of 178 hours; education service of 6 hours weekly; programmes in Malay, Chinese (Mandarin), Tamil and English; teletext service on two channels; Gen. Man. MOSES LEE.

Finance

(cap. = capital; p.u. = paid up; dep. = deposits; m. = million; brs = branches; amounts in Singapore dollars)

BANKING

The Singapore monetary system is regulated by the Monetary Authority of Singapore (MAS) and the Ministry of Finance. The MAS performs all the functions of a central bank, except the issuing of currency, a function which is carried out by the Board of Commissioners of Currency. The Government of Singapore Investment Corporation was founded in 1981 under the chairmanship of the Prime Minister. In February 1991 there were 137 commercial banks (13 local, 124 foreign) and 49 representative offices in Singapore. Of the banks, 35 were fully licensed, 14 had restricted licences and 88 foreign banks had 'offshore' banking licences.

SINGAPORE

Directory

Barwil Agencies Pte Ltd: 200 Cantonment Rd, 07-02 Southport, Singapore 0208; tel. 2252577; telex 23057; fax 2252538; services to the USA, Canada and the Persian Gulf; Man. Dir HANS DYRLIE.

Everett Steamship Corp SA: 24 Raffles Place, 17-03 Clifford Centre, Singapore 0104; tel. 5325481; telex 21306; fax 5325486; cargo services; shipping agents; Gen. Man. P. M. PANDOLFO.

Guan Guan Shipping Pte Ltd: 23 Telok Ayer St, Singapore 0104; tel. 2219790; telex 21395; fax 5343504; f. 1955; shipowners and agents; cargo services to East and West Malaysia, Indonesia, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, Bengal Bay ports, Persian Gulf ports, Hong Kong and China; 5 vessels; Man. Dir T. E. GO.

Hin Leong Marine International (Pte) Ltd: 1 Playfair Rd, Singapore 1336; tel. 2835694; telex 38835; 45 vessels; Marine Supt V. LIM.

Nedlloyd EAC Agencies Pte Ltd: 138 Robinson Rd, 01-00 Hong Leong Centre, Singapore 0106; tel. 2218989; telex 21261; fax 2249106; f. 1963; agency for Nedlloyd Lines and Scandutch I/S partnership; Gen. Man. VAN RAPPAARD.

Neptune Orient Lines Ltd: 456 Alexandra Rd, PDS 06-00 NOL Bldg, Singapore 0511; tel. 2789000; telex 51168; fax 2784900; f. 1968; liner containerized services on the Far East/Europe, Far East/North America, Straits/Australia, South Asia/Europe and South-East Asia, Far East/Mediterranean routes; tankers, bulk carriers and dry cargo vessels on charter; 44 vessels; Chair. H. R. HOCHSTADT; Man. Dir LUA CHENG ENG.

New Straits Shipping Co Pte Ltd: 51 Anson Rd, 09-53 Anson Centre, Singapore 0207; tel. 2201007; telex 23150; fax 2240785; 3 vessels.

Pacific International Lines Pte Ltd: 140 Cecil St, 03-00 PIL Bldg, Singapore 0106; tel. 2218133; telex 24190; fax 2258741; shipowners, agents and managers; liner services to the Far East, India, the Red Sea, the Persian Gulf, West and East Africa; container services to South-East Asia; world-wide chartering, freight forwarding; 51 vessels; Chair. and Man. Dir Y. C. CHANG.

Pacific Navigation Co Pte Ltd: 3 Shenton Way, 21-08 Shenton House, Singapore 0106; tel. 2225688; telex 26003; fax 2259897; six vessels; Man. Dir B. FORSELL.

Syabas Tankers Pte Ltd: 10 Anson Rd, 34-10 International Plaza, Singapore 0207; tel. 2259522; telex 26049; 3 vessels.

CIVIL AVIATION

Singapore's international airport at Changi was opened in 1961. In late 1990 a second passenger terminal came into operation which more than doubled the airport's capacity, to 24m. passengers per year.

Singapore Airlines Ltd (SIA): Airline House, 25 Airline Rd, Singapore 1781; tel. 5423333; telex 21241; fax 5424155; f. 1972; passenger services to 59 cities in 34 countries, including Australia, Austria, Bangladesh, Belgium, Brunei, Canada, the People's Republic of China, Denmark, France, Germany, Greece, Hong Kong, India, Indonesia, Italy, Japan, the Republic of Korea, Malaysia, Maldives, Mauritius, Nepal, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Pakistan, Papua New Guinea, the Philippines, Saudi Arabia, Sri Lanka, Switzerland, Taiwan, Thailand, Turkey, the United Kingdom, and the USA; Chair. J. Y. PILLAY; Man. Dir CHEONG CHOON KONG; fleet of 8 B747-400, 11 B747-300, 3 B747-300 Combi, 5 B747-200, 8 A310-300, 6 A310-200, 1 747-200F.

Tourism

Singapore's tourist attractions include a blend of cultures and excellent shopping facilities. The Centre for Tourism-Related Studies was established in 1987 to train about 1,000 members of the tourism industry per year in tour operations, ticketing, sales and marketing. Tourist arrivals reached 4,829,950 in 1989, increasing by 10%, to an estimated 5,313,223, in 1990.

Singapore Convention Bureau: Raffles City Tower 37-00, 29 North Bridge Road, Singapore 0617; tel. 3396622; telex 33373; f. 1974; a division of the Singapore Tourist Promotion Board; Dir. Dir KEVIN LEONG.

Singapore Tourist Promotion Board: Raffles City Tower 36-04, 250 North Bridge Rd, Singapore 0617; tel. 3396622; telex 33373; fax 3399423; f. 1964; Chair. LEONG CHEE WHYE.

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Diplomatic representation: Ambassador George CAREW; Chancery at 1701 19th Street NW, Washington DC 20009; telephone (202) 939-9261; **US**—Ambassador Johnny YOUNG; Embassy at the corner of Walpole and Siaka Stevens Street, Freetown; telephone 26481

Flag: three equal horizontal bands of light green (top), white, and light blue

Economy

Overview: The economic and social infrastructure is not well developed. Subsistence agriculture dominates the economy, generating about one-third of GDP and employing about two-thirds of the working population. Manufacturing accounts for less than 10% of GDP, consisting mainly of the processing of raw materials and of light manufacturing for the domestic market. Diamond mining provides an important source of hard currency. The economy suffers from high unemployment, rising inflation, large trade deficits, and a growing dependency on foreign assistance. **GDP:** \$965 million, per capita \$250; real growth rate 1.8% (FY87)

Inflation rate (consumer prices): 42% (September 1988)

Unemployment rate: NA%

Budget: revenues \$86 million; expenditures \$128 million, including capital expenditures of \$NA (FY90 est.)

Exports: \$106 million (f.o.b., 1988); **commodities**—rutile 50%, bauxite 17%, cocoa 11%, diamonds 3%, coffee 3%; **partners**—US, UK, Belgium, FRG, other Western Europe

Imports: \$167 million (c.i.f., 1988); **commodities**—capital goods 40%, food 32%, petroleum 12%, consumer goods 7%, light industrial goods; **partners**—US, EC, Japan, China, Nigeria

External debt: \$805 million (1989 est.)

Industrial production: growth rate -19% (FY88 est.)

Electricity: 83,000 kW capacity; 180 million kWh produced, 45 kWh per capita (1989)

Industries: mining (diamonds, bauxite, rutilite), small-scale manufacturing (beverages, textiles, cigarettes, footwear), petroleum refinery

Agriculture: accounts for over 30% of GDP and two-thirds of the labor force; largely subsistence farming; cash crops—coffee, cocoa, palm kernels; harvests of food staple rice meets 80% of domestic needs; annual fish catch averages 53,000 metric tons

Aid: US commitments, including Ex-Im (FY70-88), \$149 million; Western (non-

US) countries, ODA and OOF bilateral commitments (1970-87), \$698 million; OPEC bilateral aid (1979-89), \$18 million; Communist countries (1970-88), \$101 million

Currency: leone (plural—leones); 1 leone (Le) = 100 cents

Exchange rates: leones per US\$1—87.7193 (January 1990), 58.1395 (1989), 31.2500 (1988), 30.7692 (1987), 8.3963 (1986), 4.7304 (1985)

Fiscal year: 1 July-30 June

Communications

Railroads: 84 km 1.067-meter narrow-gauge mineral line is used on a limited basis because the mine at Marampa is closed

Highways: 7,400 km total; 1,150 km bituminous, 490 km laterite (some gravel), remainder improved earth

Inland waterways: 800 km; 600 km navigable year round

Ports: Freetown, Pepel

Civil air: no major transport aircraft

Airports: 12 total, 8 usable; 5 with permanent-surface runways; none with runways over 3,659 m; 1 with runways 2,440-3,659 m; 3 with runways 1,220-2,439 m

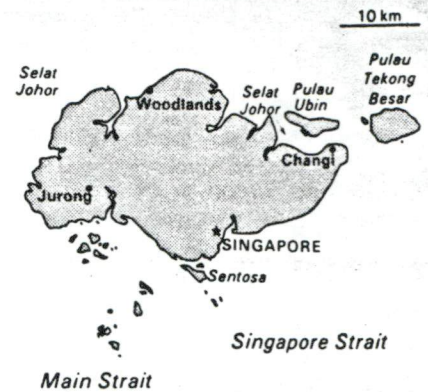
Telecommunications: marginal telephone and telegraph service; national microwave radio relay system unserviceable at present; 23,650 telephones; stations—1 AM, 1 FM, 1 TV; 1 Atlantic Ocean INTELSAT earth station

Defense Forces

Branches: Army, Navy

Military manpower: males 15-49, 918,078; 433,350 fit for military service; no conscription

Defense expenditures: 1% of GDP (1986)



See regional map IX

Geography

Total area: 632.6 km²; land area: 622.6 km²

Comparative area: slightly less than 3.5 times the size of Washington, DC

Land boundaries: none

Coastline: 193 km

Maritime claims:

Exclusive fishing zone: not specific

Territorial sea: 3 nm

Climate: tropical; hot, humid, rainy; no pronounced rainy or dry seasons; thunderstorms occur on 40% of all days (67% of days in April)

Terrain: lowland; gently undulating central plateau contains water catchment area and nature preserve

Natural resources: fish, deepwater ports

Land use: 4% arable land; 7% permanent crops; 0% meadows and pastures; 5% forest and woodland; 84% other

Environment: mostly urban and industrialized

Note: focal point for Southeast Asian sea routes

People

Population: 2,720,915 (July 1990), growth rate 1.3% (1990)

Birth rate: 18 births/1,000 population (1990)

Death rate: 5 deaths/1,000 population (1990)

Net migration rate: 0 migrants/1,000 population (1990)

Infant mortality rate: 8 deaths/1,000 live births (1990)

Life expectancy at birth: 72 years male, 77 years female (1990)

Total fertility rate: 2.0 children born/woman (1990)

Nationality: noun—Singaporean(s), adjective—Singapore

Ethnic divisions: 76.4% Chinese, 14.9% Malay, 6.4% Indian, 2.3% other

Singapore (continued)

Religion: majority of Chinese are Buddhists or atheists; Malays nearly all Muslim (minorities include Christians, Hindus, Sikhs, Taoists, Confucianists)
Language: Chinese, Malay, Tamil, and English (official); Malay (national)
Literacy: 86.8% (1987)
Labor force: 1,280,000; 34.4% industry, 1.2% agriculture, 61.7% services (1988)
Organized labor: 211,200; 16.5% of labor force (1988)

Government

Long-form name: Republic of Singapore
Type: republic within Commonwealth
Capital: Singapore
Administrative divisions: none
Independence: 9 August 1965 (from Malaysia)
Constitution: 3 June 1959, amended 1965; based on preindependence State of Singapore Constitution
Legal system: based on English common law; has not accepted compulsory ICJ jurisdiction
National holiday: National Day, 9 August (1965)
Executive branch: president, prime minister, two deputy prime ministers, Cabinet
Legislative branch: unicameral Parliament
Judicial branch: Supreme Court
Leaders: *Chief of State*—President WEE Kim Wee (since 3 September 1985); *Head of Government*—Prime Minister LEE Kuan Yew (since 5 June 1959); First Deputy Prime Minister GOH Chok Tong (since 2 January 1985); Second Deputy Prime Minister ONG Teng Cheong (since 2 January 1985)
Political parties and leaders: government—People's Action Party (PAP), Lee Kuan Yew; opposition—Workers' Party (WP), J. B. Jeyaretnam; Singapore Democratic Party (SDP), Chiam See Tong; National Solidarity Party (NSP), Soon Kia Seng; United People's Front (UPF), Harbans Singh; Barisan Sosialis (BS); Communist party illegal
Suffrage: universal and compulsory at age 20
Elections: *President*—last held 31 August 1989 (next to be held NA August 1993); results—President Wee Kim Wee was reelected by Parliament without opposition;
Parliament—last held 3 September 1988 (next to be held NA September 1993); results—PAP 61.8%, WP 18.4%, SDP 11.5%, NSP 3.7%, UPF 1.3%, others 3.3%; seats—(81 total) PAP 80, SDP 1; note—BS has 1 nonvoting seat
Communists: 200-500; Barisan Sosialis infiltrated by Communists
Member of: ADB, ANRPC, ASEAN, CCC, Colombo Plan, Commonwealth,

ESCAP, G-77, GATT, IAEA, IBRD, ICAO, IFC, IHO, ILO, IMF, IMO, INTELSTAT, INTERPOL, IPU, ISO, ITU, NAM, UN, UNESCO, UPU, WHO, WMO, WTO
Diplomatic representation: Ambassador Tommy KOH Tong Bee; Chancery at 1824 R Street NW, Washington DC 20009; telephone (202) 667-7555; *US*—Ambassador Robert D. ORR; Embassy at 30 Hill Street, Singapore 0617 (mailing address is FPO San Francisco 96699); telephone [65] 338-0251
Flag: two equal horizontal bands of red (top) and white; near the hoist side of the red band, there is a vertical, white crescent (closed portion is toward the hoist side) partially enclosing five white five-pointed stars arranged in a circle

Economy

Overview: Singapore has an open entrepreneurial economy with strong service and manufacturing sectors and excellent international trading links derived from its entrepôt history. During the 1970s and early 1980s, the economy expanded rapidly, achieving an average annual growth rate of 9%. Per capita GDP is among the highest in Asia. In 1985 the economy registered its first drop in 20 years and achieved less than a 2% increase in 1986. Recovery was strong. Estimates for 1989 suggest a 9.2% growth rate based on rising demand for Singapore's products in OECD countries, a strong Japanese yen, and improved competitiveness of domestic manufactures.
GDP: \$27.5 billion, per capita \$10,300; real growth rate 9.2% (1989 est.)
Inflation rate (consumer prices): 3.5% (1989 est.)
Unemployment rate: 2% (1989 est.)
Budget: revenues \$6.6 billion; expenditures \$5.9 billion, including capital expenditures of \$2.2 billion (FY88)
Exports: \$46 billion (f.o.b., 1989 est.); *commodities*—includes transshipments to Malaysia—petroleum products, rubber, electronics, manufactured goods; *partners*—US 24%, Malaysia 14%, Japan 9%, Thailand 6%, Hong Kong 5%, Australia 3%, FRG 3%
Imports: \$53 billion (c.i.f., 1989 est.); *commodities*—includes transshipments from Malaysia—capital equipment, petroleum, chemicals, manufactured goods, foodstuffs; *partners*—Japan 22%, US 16%, Malaysia 15%, EC 12%, Kuwait 1%
External debt: \$5.2 billion (December 1988)
Industrial production: growth rate 9% (1989 est.)

Electricity: 4,000,000 kW capacity; 12,000 million kWh produced, 4,490 kWh per capita (1989)
Industries: petroleum refining, electronics, oil drilling equipment, rubber processing and rubber products, processed food and beverages, ship repair, entrepôt trade, financial services, biotechnology
Agriculture: occupies a position of minor importance in the economy; self-sufficient in poultry and eggs; must import much of other food; major crops—rubber, copra, fruit, vegetables
Aid: US commitments, including Ex-Im (FY70-83), \$590 million; Western (non-US) countries, ODA and OOF bilateral commitments (1970-87), \$882 million
Currency: Singapore dollar (plural—dollars); 1 Singapore dollar (S\$) = 100 cents
Exchange rates: Singapore dollars per US\$1—1.8895 (January 1990), 1.9503 (1989), 2.0124 (1988), 2.1060 (1987), 2.1774 (1986), 2.2002 (1985)
Fiscal year: 1 April-31 March

Communications

Railroads: 38 km of 1,000-meter gauge
Highways: 2,597 km total (1984)
Ports: Singapore
Merchant marine: 407 ships (1,000 GRT or over) totaling 7,286,824 GRT/11,921,610 DWT; includes 126 cargo, 52 container, 5 roll-on/roll-off cargo, 11 refrigerated cargo, 13 vehicle carrier, 1 livestock carrier, 103 petroleum, oils, and lubricants (POL) tanker, 5 chemical tanker, 4 combination ore/oil, 1 specialized tanker, 15 liquefied gas, 68 bulk, 3 combination bulk; note—many Singapore flag ships are foreign owned
Civil air: 38 major transport aircraft (est.)
Airports: 6 total, 6 usable; 6 with permanent-surface runways; 2 with runways over 3,659 m; 2 with runways 2,440-3,659 m; 1 with runways 1,220-2,439 m
Telecommunications: good domestic facilities; good international service; good radio and television broadcast coverage; 1,110,000 telephones; stations—13 AM, 4 FM, 2 TV; submarine cables extend to Malaysia (Sabah and peninsular Malaysia), Indonesia, and the Philippines; satellite earth stations—1 Indian Ocean INTELSTAT and 1 Pacific Ocean INTELSTAT

Defense Forces

Branches: Army, Navy, Air Force, Army Reserve
Military manpower: males 15-49, 834,720; 621,497 fit for military service
Defense expenditures: 5% of GDP, or \$1.4 billion (1989 est.)

background notes

Singapore



United States Department of State
Bureau of Public Affairs

May 1990



Official Name:
Republic of Singapore

PROFILE

Geography

Area: 620 sq. km. (239 sq. mi.). **Cities:** Capital—Singapore (country is a city-state). **Terrain:** Lowland. **Climate:** Tropical.

People

Nationality: *Noun and adjective*—Singaporean(s). **Population** (1988): 2.6 million. **Annual growth rate:** 1.3%. **Ethnic groups:** Chinese 76%, Malays 15%,

Indians 7%, others 2%. **Religions:** Buddhist, Taoist, Muslim, Hindu, Christian. **Languages:** English, Mandarin and other Chinese dialects, Malay, Tamil. **Education:** *Years compulsory*—none. *Attendance*—94%. *Literacy*—87.1%. **Health:** *Infant mortality rate*—7.4/1,000. *Life expectancy*—71 yrs. male, 76 yrs. female. **Work force** (1.3 million): *Agriculture*—1.1%. *Industry and commerce*—58.1%. *Services*—33%. *Government*—8.1%.

Government

Type: Parliamentary democracy. **Constitution:** 1965. **Independence:** August 9, 1965.

Branches: *Executive*—president (chief of state, 4-yr. term); prime minister (head of government). *Legislative*—unicameral 81-member parliament (maximum 5-yr. term). *Judicial*—High Court, Court of Appeal, Court of Criminal Appeal.

Political parties: People's Action Party (PAP), various opposition parties.

Suffrage: Universal and compulsory. **Central government budget** (1986): \$10 billion.

Defense (1988): 5% of gross domestic product.

National holiday: August 9.

Flag: Two equal horizontal sections, red over white, with a white crescent and five stars in the upper left corner.

Economy

GDP (1988): \$23.9 billion. **Annual growth rate** (1988-in real terms): 11%. **Per capita income:** \$8,782. **Avg. inflation rate** (1988): 1.5%.

Natural resources: None.

Agriculture (0.4% of real GDP):

Products—poultry, orchids, vegetables, fruits.

Industry (17% of real GNP): *Types*—petroleum products, electrical and electronic products, shipbuilding and ship repair, food and beverages, textiles and garments, chemical products.

Trade (1988, excluding Indonesian trade, which is not reported by Singaporean authorities): *Exports*—\$39 billion: petroleum products, electronics equipment, electrical and nonelectrical machinery, telecommunications apparatus, garments. *Major markets*—US, Malaysia, Japan, European Community (EC). *Imports*—\$44 billion: crude oil, machinery, manufactured goods, foodstuffs. *Major suppliers*—US, EC, Malaysia, Japan.

Official exchange rate (avg. 1988): Singapore \$2.01=US\$1.

Fiscal year: April 1-March 31.

Membership in International Organizations

UN and some of its specialized and related agencies, Commonwealth, Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN), Five Power Defense Arrangement, Asian Development Bank (ADB), Colombo Plan, INTELSAT, Nonaligned Movement, Group of 77.

Singapore and the United States. Many Singaporeans visit and study in the United States.

The US Government sponsors visitors from Singapore each year under the International Visitor Program. The US Government provides Fulbright awards to enable selected American professors to teach or conduct research at the National University of Singapore and the Institute of Southeast Asian Studies. It awards scholarships to outstanding Singaporean students for graduate studies at American universities and to American students to study in Singapore. The US Government also sponsors occasional cultural presentations in Singapore.

The East-West Center and private American organizations, such as the Asia and Ford Foundations, also sponsor exchanges involving Singaporeans.

Prime Minister Lee Kuan Yew has visited the United States several times. He last official visit was in April 1988.

Principal U.S. Officials

Ambassador—Robert Orr

Deputy Chief of Mission—Arthur Kobler

Economic/Political Counselor—Thomas H. Martin

Political Officer—Edward Dong

Economic Officer—J. Anthony Holmes

Public Affairs Counselor—Richard Gong

Commercial Counselor—George Ruffner

Administrative Counselor—Robert B. Courtney
Defense Attache—Capt. Patrick Cooper, USN

The US Embassy in Singapore is located at 30 Hill Street, Singapore 0617 (tel. 338-0251). ■

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SINGAPORE

LAND

Area: 239 square miles

Cultivated: 9.5%

Resources: none

Forest: 4.6%

Pasture: 0%

POPULATION

1989 Estimate: 2,674,000

Annual Growth: 1.1%

Life Expectancy: 74

Literacy: 87%

Infant Mortality: 9

Fertility: 1.6

Ethnic Divisions: Chinese: 76.4%, Malay: 14.9%, Indian: 6.4%

Workforce: 1,280,000

Unemployment: 2.0%

Commerce and Services: 60.0%

Manufacturing: 28.5%

Agriculture and Fishing: 0.4%

Construction: 5.0%

Government and Public Authorities: 5.5%

Students: Primary and Secondary: 464,250

University: 46,900

POLITICAL

Official Name: REPUBLIC OF SINGAPORE

Capital: Singapore

Type of Government: One-Party Dominant Republic

Chief of State: President WEE Kim Wee

Head of Government: Prime Minister LEE Kwan Yew

Foreign Minister: WONG Kan Seng

1990 Freedom House Index (1 is highest, 7 is lowest)

Political Freedom: 4

Civil Liberties: 4

1989 Voting with U.S. at U.N.: 14.61%

FY 1989 U.S. Foreign Assistance (Actual Obligations)

Economic: none

Military: US\$ 50,000

ECONOMY

Currency: Singapore Dollar, 1 US\$ = 1.904 S\$

Major Industries: petroleum refining, rubber processing, electronics, food processing, ship repair, garments

Major Agricultural Products: hogs, poultry, orchids, vegetables

Major Imports: capital equipment, manufactured goods, crude oil, transport equipment, consumer goods

Major Exports: machinery, manufactured goods, transport equipment, refined petroleum, rubber, electronics

Per Capita GNP: US\$ 9,000 (1989)

(Billions of US\$)

	1983	1989
GDP	17.30	19.30
Growth	8.2%	8.3%
CPI Rise	1.2%	2.6%
Exports to U.S.	21.832	24.00
Imports from U.S.	2.969	4.10
Imports from U.S.	28.158	28.60
Imports from U.S.	3.759	3.60
Current Account	-0.610	-0.30

Singapore is the

MILITARY

1989/90 Military Budget: US\$ 1,500

Increase over 1988/89: 13.6%

Outlay as a share of GNP: 4.8%

As a share of Government Spending: 1.2%

Total Regular Forces: 55,500

Army: 45,000

Navy: 4,500

Combat Aircraft: 188

Naval Vessels: 1 Corvette, 6 Fast

Minesweepers

Security Alliance with U.S.: none

exercise together

U.S. Military Installations: U.S. agreement

U.S. Military Personnel: none

Foreign Military Personnel: Australian advisers; New Zealand: 20

Armed Opposition Groups: none

INVESTMENT

1989 U.S. Direct Investment: US\$ 1,500

1989 Singaporean Direct Investment: US\$ 1,500

Economic Statistics
(Billions of US\$, percentages where appropriate)

	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989
GDP	17.30	19.13	18.33	19.26	20.72	22.31	24.0
Growth	8.2%	8.3%	-1.6%	1.7%	8.8%	11.0%	9.2%
CPI Rise	1.2%	2.6%	0.5%	-1.4%	0.5%	1.5%	3.0%
Exports	21.832	24.070	22.812	22.501	28.696	39.318	44.769
to U.S.	2.969	4.121	4.412	4.884	6.395	8.223	9.178
Imports	28.158	28.667	26.237	25.513	32.626	43.869	49.694
from U.S.	3.759	3.675	3.476	3.380	4.053	5.739	7.353
CurAccount	-0.610	-0.385	-0.004	0.542	0.539	1.660	2.1

Singapore is the 11th largest U.S. trading partner

MILITARY

1989/90 Military Budget: US\$ 1,500,000,000

Increase over 1988/89: 13.6%

Outlay as a share of GNP: 4.8%

As a share of Government Spending: 27%

Total Regular Forces: 55,500

Army: 45,000

Reserves: 212,000

Navy: 4,500

Airforce: 6,000

Combat Aircraft: 188

Naval Vessels: 1 Corvette, 6 Fast-Attack Craft (missile), 20 Inshore Patrol Craft, 2 Minesweepers

Security Alliance with U.S.: none, although U.S. and Singaporean forces periodically exercise together

U.S. Military Installations: U.S. will station aircraft in Singapore under a recently signed agreement

U.S. Military Personnel: none

Foreign Military Personnel: Australian: 50 Army, some RAAF, small number of advisers; New Zealand: 20

Armed Opposition Groups: none

INVESTMENT

1989 U.S. Direct Investment: US\$ 2,213,000,000

1989 Singaporean Direct Investment in the U.S.: US\$ 1,216,000,000

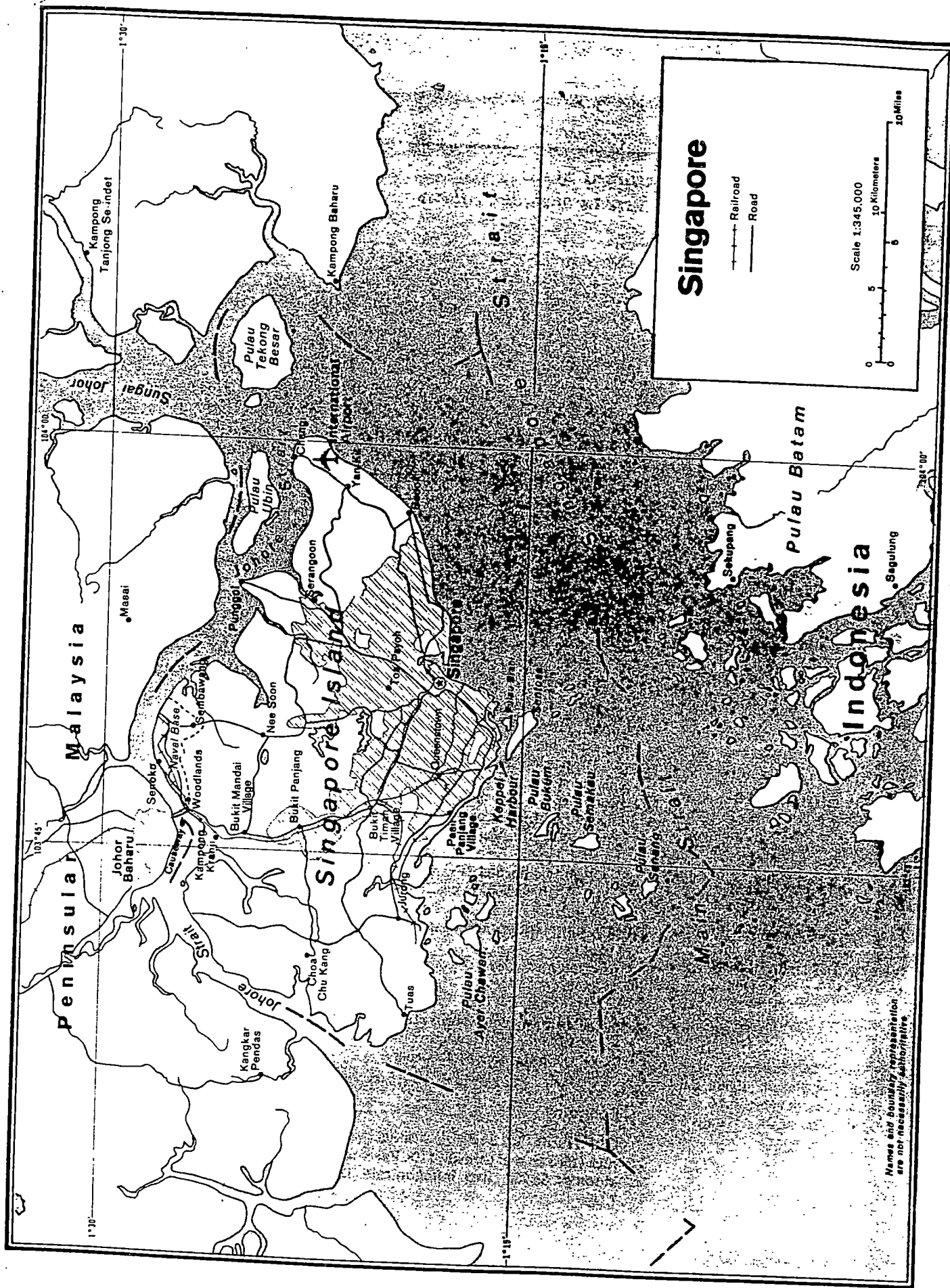
EXCHANGE TABLE

Exchange Rate: US \$1.00 = S\$ 1.678

SINGAPORE DOLLARS

US DOLLARS

1.00	.60
5.00	2.98
10.00	5.96
25.00	14.90
50.00	29.80
100.00	59.59



Singapore

—+—+—+— Railroad
— Road

Scale 1:345,000



Names and boundary representation
are not necessarily authoritative.

GEOGRAPHY

Singapore is located in Southeast Asia at the southern tip of the Malay Peninsula and is separated from Malaysia by the Strait of Johore, which is traversed by a 1.2-kilometer (3/4-mi.) causeway carrying a road and a railway. The Singapore Strait separates the country from Indonesia. Singapore is a focal point for Southeast Asian sea routes. Its total land area includes one large island and about 55 nearby islets. The diamond-shaped main island is 41 kilometers (26 mi.) at its broadest from east to west, and 22 kilometers (14 mi.) from north to south.

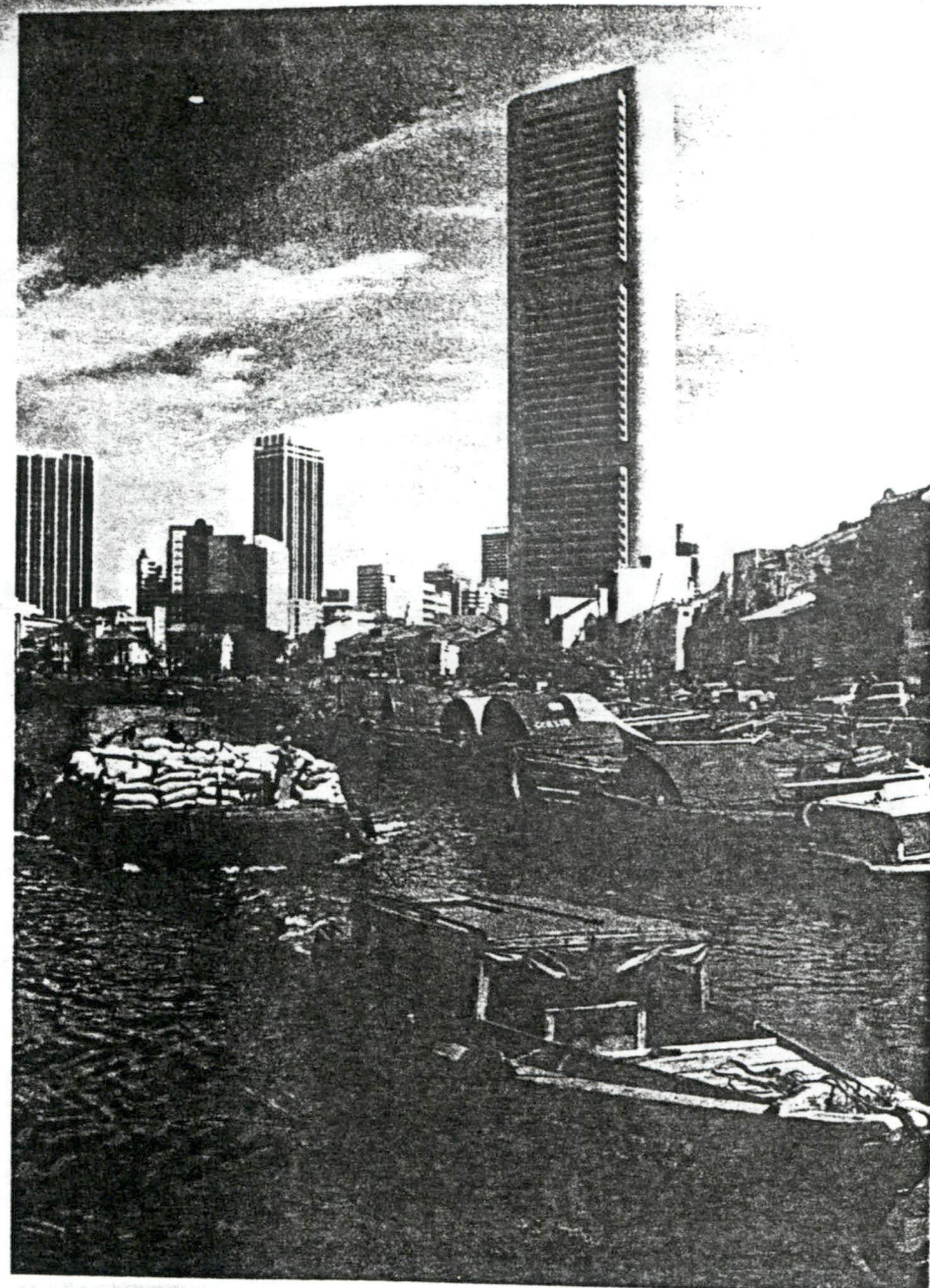
Much of Singapore is lowland and originally consisted of swamp and jungle. Now mainly urban and industrialized, its geographical features are small in scale—the highest point on the main island, Bukit Timah (Hill of Tin), is only 177 meters (581 ft.) above sea level; the longest river is 14 kilometers (9 mi.) long. A central plateau of about 31 square kilometers (12 sq. mi.) contains a water catchment area and nature preserve. The main urban area lies on the southern part of the island, primarily on land reclaimed from swamp and sea.

Singapore's climate is characterized by warm temperatures, high humidity, and copious rainfall. Virtually no seasonal temperature variation exists. The average maximum temperature is 31 °C (88 °F); the average rainfall is 158 centimeters (62 in.). Singapore has no pronounced wet or dry seasons.

PEOPLE

With a population density of 4,231 persons per square kilometer (10,961 per sq. mi.), Singapore is one of the most densely populated countries in the world. The annual growth rate has fallen, however, from 2.5% in 1965 to 1.3% in 1988. Health standards are high for the region, with about 1 physician for every 837 people (US has about 1 to 700).

Singapore has a varied linguistic, cultural, and religious heritage. Malay is the national language, but Chinese,



Singapore's modern skyline.

English, and Tamil also are official languages. English is widely used in professions, businesses, and schools.

The government mandated that English would be the primary language used at all levels of the school systems by 1987, and aims to provide at least 10 years of education for every child. Primary and secondary school students total almost 470,000, or nearly 18% of the entire population. Enrollment at the National University of Singapore is 14,972 and 13,753 at Singapore Poly-

technic. The practical engineering-oriented Nanyang Technological Institute, founded in 1981, now has 3,940 students. The overall literacy rate is 87% and is more than 90% for Singaporeans under 35.

Singapore has religious freedom. Almost all Malays are Muslim; other Singaporeans are Hindus, Sikhs, Taoists, Buddhists, Confucianists, and Christians.



A blacksmith for 45 years.

HISTORY

Although Singapore's history dates from the 11th century, little was known about the island until the 19th century, when in 1819, Sir Thomas Stamford Raffles arrived as an agent of the British East India Company. In 1824, the British purchased Singapore Island, and by 1825, the city of Singapore had become a major port, with trade exceeding that of Malaya's Malacca and Penang combined. In 1830, Singapore, Penang, and Malacca were combined as the Straits Settlements to form an outlying residency of the British East India Company; in 1867, the Straits Settlements were made a British Crown Colony, an arrangement that continued until 1946.

The opening of the Suez Canal in 1869 and the advent of steamships launched an era of prosperity for Singapore as transit trade expanded throughout Southeast Asia. In the 20th century, the automobile industry's demand for rubber from Southeast Asia and the packaging industry's need for tin helped make Singapore one of the world's major ports. It is now

second largest in the world in terms of annual tonnage.

In 1921, the British constructed a naval base, which was soon supplemented by an air base. The Japanese captured the island in February 1942, however, and it remained under their control until September 1945, when it was recaptured by the British.

In 1946, Penang and Malacca were united in a single British Crown Colony called the Federation of Malaya; Singapore remained a separate colony. In 1959, Singapore became self-governing, and, in 1963, it joined the now-independent Federation of Malaya, Sabah, and Sarawak (the latter two former British Borneo territories) to form Malaysia.

Indonesia adopted a policy of "confrontation" against the new federation, charging that it was a "British colonial creation," and severed trade with Malaysia. The move particularly affected Singapore, since Indonesia had been the island's second largest trading partner. The political dispute was resolved in 1966, and Indonesia resumed trade with Singapore.

After a period of friction between Singapore and the central government in Kuala Lumpur, Singapore separated from Malaysia on August 9, 1965, and became an independent republic.

GOVERNMENT

According to the constitution, as amended in 1965, Singapore is a republic with a parliamentary system of government. The president, the ceremonial chief of state, is elected every 4 years by parliament. Political authority rests with the prime minister and the cabinet. The prime minister is the leader of the political party or coalition of parties having the majority of seats in parliament.

The unicameral parliament consists of 81 members (80 of whom are from the governing People's Action Party-PAP) elected on the basis of universal adult suffrage. Up to 3 opposition candidates are invited to become nonconstituent members of

parliament after any general election in which less than three opposition candidates are elected. Nonconstituent members may debate but may not vote on constitutional amendments or on bills requiring the expenditure of funds. After the last general election (September 1988), two members were named, one of whom subsequently was disqualified. The maximum term of any one parliament is 5 years. Voting has been compulsory since 1959.

Judicial power is vested in the High Court and Court of Appeal. The High Court exercises original criminal and civil jurisdiction in serious cases as well as appellate jurisdiction from subordinate courts. Its chief justice, senior judge, and six judges are appointed by the president. Appeals from the High Court are heard by the Court of Appeal. Further appeal can be made in certain cases to the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council at London.

Principal Government Officials

President—WEE Kim Wee
Prime Minister—LEE Kuan Yew
First Deputy Prime Minister—GOH Chok Tong
Second Deputy Prime Minister—ONG Teng Cheong

Ministers

Communications and Information—YEO Ning Hong
Community Development—WONG Kan Seng
Defense—GOH Chok Tong
Education—Tony TAN
Environment—Ahmad MATTAR
Finance—Richard HU Tsu Tau
Foreign Affairs—WONG Kan Seng
Health (Acting)—YEO Cheow Tong
Home Affairs—S. JAYAKUMAR
Labor—LEE Yock San
Law—S. JAYAKUMAR
National Development—S. DHANABALAN
Trade and Industry—LEE Hsien Loong
Ambassador to the United Nations—CHAN Heng Chee
Ambassador to the United States—Tommy KOH Thong Bee

Singapore maintains an embassy in the United States at 1824 R Street NW, Washington, D.C. 20009 (tel. 202-667-7555).

POLITICAL CONDITIONS

The ruling political party in Singapore (in power since 1959) is the People's Action Party (PAP), headed by Prime Minister Lee Kuan Yew. In the 1963 general elections, the PAP won 37 of the 51 seats in parliament. In October 1966, the opposition Barisan Sosialis Party (Socialist Front), a left-wing group that split off from the PAP in 1961, resigned from parliament, leaving the PAP as the sole representative party. In the April 1968 general elections, the PAP won all 58 seats—51 without opposition.

In the general elections of 1972, 1976, and 1980, the PAP won all of the seats in an expanding parliament. In an October 1981 by-election, the PAP lost a seat to the Workers' Party Secretary General J.B. Jeyaretnam, the first time an opposition party had won a seat since 1963.

In the 1984 elections, the PAP polled 62.9% of the popular vote, a 12% drop from 1980 returns, and lost a second seat. In 1988, the PAP polled 61.9% of the popular vote to win 80 of 81 seats.

Following the 1988 elections, Prime Minister Lee Kuan Yew indicated that in 1990 he would retire as head of government but not from politics. First Deputy Prime Minister Goh Chok Tong has been designated to assume the office of prime minister as part of a transition process to a new generation of political leaders.

ECONOMY

Singapore's strategic location and industrious population have given the country an economic importance in Southeast Asia out of proportion to its small size. Following independence, its economy expanded rapidly. Average annual growth in gross domestic product (GDP) during the 1970s was close to 10%, and for 1980-84 it was 8.5%. Following a recession in 1985-86,

the economy steadily recovered and registered an impressive 11% GDP growth rate in 1988. The 1988 per capita income, \$8,782, is the third highest in Asia after Japan and Brunei. At the end of 1988, official foreign exchange reserves stood at \$16.6 billion.

Singapore began as an entrepot (warehousing and transshipment) center for the region but began to industrialize and modernize its infrastructure after independence. The marine and oil services and processing industries were among the leaders in the important manufacturing sector. The late 1970s and early 1980s brought an increasing emphasis on high technology high-value-added goods and services, which made Singapore an electronics and regional banking center. Government policy, aimed at providing modern housing for most of the population by 1990, spurred public and private building, creating a construction and property boom in the early 1980s.

However, by 1984, the government's accelerated construction program was nearly concluded, and there was a massive oversupply of new buildings. Property values tumbled. At the same time, there was a near-collapse of marine and petroleum-

related industries worldwide, a shakeout in the US electronics market, and worsening economic conditions in Malaysia and Indonesia. The net result was Singapore's first recession after 21 years of sustained growth. Real GDP growth plummeted to -1.6% in 1985, began to show the first signs of recovery in mid-1986, and has been remarkably buoyant since.

Singapore continues to upgrade worker skills and to search for new products and markets to drive its export-led economy. One major effort is to become a complete business center, offering multinationals a manufacturing base, a developed financial infrastructure, and excellent communications to service regional and world markets.

Trade

In the past, about two-thirds of Singapore's imports and exports consisted of entrepot trade. With rapid industrialization, however, the relative importance of this sector has declined. The trade pattern reflects a shift toward importing capital goods and raw materials for industry and exporting locally manufactured products.

In 1988, the United States was Singapore's largest trading partner.



Major exports to the United States consisted of crude rubber, electronic equipment, electrical machinery, and textile products; major imports from the United States were machinery and other manufactured products.

US Investment and Assistance

The United States is the largest source of foreign investment in Singapore, with more than one-third of all private foreign investment and a quarter of total investment. US private investment played a leading role in Singapore's rapid economic expansion, particularly in general manufacturing, electronics, and in modernizing regional distribution facilities. US activities also include oil refining, shipping, banking, hotels, insurance, and importing and exporting. The resident US business community, including dependents, was estimated at about 5,000 in late 1988. Total US investment in Singapore at the end of 1988 stood at \$3 billion, with investment flows continuing at a brisk pace.

The United States has a small military training assistance program

with Singapore but provides no other bilateral aid.

Industry

The government's development policy from independence has emphasized industrialization. Separation from Malaysia removed any semblance of a large domestic market, leading naturally to emphasis on manufacturing for export. To support this policy, the government introduced new and remarkably successful financial incentives for export-oriented industry and provided efficient infrastructure for manufacturing. Singapore opened its economy and has pursued a vigorous free-trade policy ever since. Labor legislation enacted in 1968 reduced labor unrest and gave employers more flexibility in hiring and firing. By the early 1980s, Singapore had become a relatively high wage locale by Asian standards, but the government moved in 1985 to restrain wage increases and reduce other costs with a view to making Singapore more competitive.

Several institutions played a key role in carrying out the industrializa-

tion policy. The Development Bank of Singapore was responsible for industrial financing. The Jurong Town Corporation was charged with developing industrial estates. Its major achievement, the Jurong Industrial Estate, is a government-planned satellite community devoted to manufacturing, which had more than 1,400 factories in production in the early 1980s and many others in various stages of completion. The government's Economic Development Board has organized a massive program to promote foreign investment in Singapore and has set up a network of offices in Europe, Japan, and the United States (in New York, Los Angeles, Boston, Chicago, and Houston).

These efforts resulted in a dramatic increase in the level of foreign and local investment. From 1962 to 1974, the manufacturing sector grew an average of 20% per year and registered an annual average increase of more than 10% through 1981. After a pause in 1982, growth resumed in 1983. Manufacturing increased as a percentage of total economic activity from 17% in 1960 to 29% in 1988. Extensive petroleum refining operations make that industry—in terms of total value of production—the largest in Singapore. It is closely followed by electronics, transportation equipment and marine services—including ship repair—textiles, electrical machinery, and food industries. The manufacturing sector contracted because of the recession, but the prospects for high-tech manufacturing are still bright.

Construction was the cutting edge of the economy in the early 1980s, providing as much as 30% of total growth. Although the frenzied pace of construction in that period left a massive surplus of offices, hotels, and warehouses, the program also resulted in modern housing for most Singaporeans and an up-to-date system of ports, airports, and roads. Construction of a 66.8-kilometer (41.5-mi.) rapid transit system is underway. The first stage was completed in December 1987.



Agriculture

Singapore's limited agrarian land is devoted primarily to intensive cultivation of vegetables, some poultry and pork, and other food crops. Although rice is a dietary staple, it is not grown domestically. All the island's other food requirements are imported. Singapore is a major exporter of orchids and tropical fish.

Labor

Singapore has a work force of about 1.3 million. The National Trades Union Congress, the sole trade union federation, has 209,000 members or about 38% of total organized labor. Extensive legislation covers general labor and trade union matters. The Industrial Arbitration Court handles labor-management disputes. In recent years, few incidents have occurred to ruffle the generally harmonious state of labor-management relations.

Singapore enjoyed virtually full employment in the early 1980s with an unemployment rate of only 3%. The 1985 recession drove the jobless figure to more than 6% in mid-1986, but with the recovery, it dropped back to 3.3% in mid-1988. Spot labor shortages persist, however, in some growth areas, such as electronics and industries, such as construction, where foreign workers predominate.

Transportation and Communications

Situated at the crossroads of international shipping and air routes, Singapore is a center for transportation and communication in Southeast Asia. The world's second most active port (after Rotterdam), Singapore handled 10 million tons of cargo in 1988. Singapore is a regional aviation hub served by 50 international airlines. Changi International Airport, opened in 1980, is being expanded. The country also is linked by road and rail to Malaysia and Thailand.

Telecommunications and telephone facilities are modern and comprehensive, providing high-quality communications with the rest of the world. Radio and television stations are

Further Information

These titles are provided as a general indication of material published on this country. The Department of State does not endorse unofficial publications.

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government-owned and operated. Privately owned daily newspapers are published in English, Chinese, and Malay.

FOREIGN RELATIONS

Singapore is nonaligned and seeks cordial relations with all nations. As a small country heavily dependent on world trade, it has a special interest in maintaining wide international contacts. It is a member of the Commonwealth and also the United Nations and several of its specialized and related agencies. Singapore supports the concept of Southeast Asian regionalism and plays an active role in the Association of South East Asian Nations, founded in 1967.

DEFENSE

Singapore relies primarily on its own defense forces, which are continuously being modernized. The Singapore armed forces comprises 50,000 army,

3,500 navy, and 6,000 air force personnel. Reserve forces total about 200,000. Singapore is a member of the Five Power Defense Arrangement—United Kingdom, Australia, New Zealand, and Malaysia. Designed to replace the former defense role of the British in the Singapore-Malaysia area, the arrangement obligates members to consult in the event of external threat and provides for stationing Commonwealth forces in Singapore.

US-SINGAPORE RELATIONS

The United States has maintained formal diplomatic relations with Singapore since that country became independent in 1965. Singapore's efforts to maintain economic growth and political stability and its support for regional cooperation harmonize with US policy in the region and form a solid basis for amicable relations between the two countries. The growth of US investment in Singapore and the large number of Americans living there enhance opportunities for contact between Singapore and the