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DOCUMENT NO. AND TYPE	SUBJECT/TITLE	DATE	RESTRICTION
001. report	RE: United States Report (1 page)	08/08/1994	P1/b(1)
002. report	RE: United States Report (1 page)	08/08/1994	P1/b(1)
003. report	RE: United States Report (1 page)	01/04/1995	P1/b(1)
004. report	RE: United States Report (1 page)	01/04/1995	P1/b(1)
005. report	RE: United States Report (1 page)	03/22/1994	P1/b(1)
006. report	RE: United States Report (1 page)	04/22/1994	P1/b(1)
007. report	RE: United States Report (1 page)	08/29/1994	P1/b(1)
008. report	RE: United States Report (1 page)	04/25/1994	P1/b(1)
009. report	RE: United States Report (1 page)	05/09/1994	P1/b(1)
010. report	RE: United States Report (1 page)	01/31/1995	P1/b(1)

COLLECTION:
Clinton Presidential Records
First Lady's Office
Karen Finney (Press Office)
OA/Box Number: 11104

FOLDER TITLE:
[Advance of First Lady Hillary Rodham Clinton to Pakistan, India, Nepal, Bangladesh, and Sri Lanka, March 1995] [loose]

2015-0734-S
db3874

RESTRICTION CODES

Presidential Records Act - [44 U.S.C. 2204(a)]

P1 National Security Classified Information [(a)(1) of the PRA]
P2 Relating to the appointment to Federal office [(a)(2) of the PRA]
P3 Release would violate a Federal statute [(a)(3) of the PRA]
P4 Release would disclose trade secrets or confidential commercial or financial information [(a)(4) of the PRA]
P5 Release would disclose confidential advice between the President and his advisors, or between such advisors [a)(5) of the PRA]
P6 Release would constitute a clearly unwarranted invasion of personal privacy [(a)(6) of the PRA]

C. Closed in accordance with restrictions contained in donor's deed of gift.
PRM. Personal record misfile defined in accordance with 44 U.S.C. 2201(3).
RR. Document will be reviewed upon request.

Freedom of Information Act - [5 U.S.C. 552(b)]

b(1) National security classified information [(b)(1) of the FOIA]
b(2) Release would disclose internal personnel rules and practices of an agency [(b)(2) of the FOIA]
b(3) Release would violate a Federal statute [(b)(3) of the FOIA]
b(4) Release would disclose trade secrets or confidential or financial information [(b)(4) of the FOIA]
b(6) Release would constitute a clearly unwarranted invasion of personal privacy [(b)(6) of the FOIA]
b(7) Release would disclose information compiled for law enforcement purposes [(b)(7) of the FOIA]
b(8) Release would disclose information concerning the regulation of financial institutions [(b)(8) of the FOIA]
b(9) Release would disclose geological or geophysical information concerning wells [(b)(9) of the FOIA]

The Advance of First Lady Hillary Rodham Clinton to Pakistan, India, Nepal, Bangladesh, and Sri Lanka

March 1995

The Advance of First Lady Hillary Rodham Clinton to Pakistan, India, Nepal, Bangladesh, and Sri Lanka

March 1995

GENERAL INFORMATION

Time Conversion Table

Washington, D.C. (EST)	Pakistan	India Sri Lanka	Nepal	Bangladesh
0	+10	+10.5	+10.75	+11
0600	1600	1630	1645	1700
0700	1700	1730	1745	1800
0800	1800	1830	1845	1900
0900	1900	1930	1945	2000
1000	2000	2030	2045	2100
1100	2100	2130	2145	2200
1200	2200	2230	2245	2300
1300	2300	2330	2345	2400
1400	2400	0030	0015	*0100*
1500	*0100*	*0130*	*0145*	*0200*
1600	*0200*	*0230*	*0245*	*0300*
1700	*0300*	*0330*	*0345*	*0400*
1800	*0400*	*0430*	*0445*	*0500*
1900	*0500*	*0530*	*0545*	*0600*
2000	*0600*	*0630*	*0645*	*0700*
2100	*0700*	*0730*	*0745*	*0800*
2200	*0800*	*0830*	*0845*	*0900*
2300	*0900*	*0930*	*0945*	*1000*
2400	*1000*	*1030*	*1045*	*1100*
0100	*1100*	*1130*	*1145*	*1200*
0200	*1200*	*1230*	*1245*	*1300*
0300	*1300*	*1330*	*1345*	*1400*
0400	*1400*	*1430*	*1445*	*1500*
0500	*1500*	*1530*	*1545*	*1600*
0600	*1600*	*1630*	*1645*	*1700*

+1 day

Notes on Gifts and Customs

Gifts

As set forth in 22 CFR Part 3, the Foreign Gifts Act specifies that employees and members of their families may accept and retain a gift tendered as a souvenir or mark of courtesy from foreign governments or their representatives if it is of "minimal value," which is currently defined as a retail value in the United States, at the time of acceptance, of $225 or less. However, an employee may accept a gift valued at over $225 only if to refuse it "would likely cause offense or embarrassment or otherwise adversely affect the foreign relations of the United States," and even then such a gift is deemed to have been accepted on behalf of the United States and, upon acceptance, becomes the property of the United States. Any such gift must, within 60 days after acceptance, either be deposited for disposal with the recipient's employing agency, or, subject to the approval of the employing agency, deposited with that agency for official use. For the President and First Lady of the United States, the depository for gifts is the White House Gift Unit, 457 Old Executive Office Building.

The Attorney General may bring a civil action in the U.S. District Court against any employee who knowingly has solicited or accepted a gift from a foreign government not consented to by the revised statute, or who has failed to deposit or report such a gift as the law requires. A penalty may be assessed in such a case in any amount not to exceed the retail value of the gift improperly solicited or received plus $5,000.

Customs

Everyone will be expected to fill out a customs declaration form to be returned to the steward just prior to returning to a U.S. point of entry. You will need to note on the declaration when:

- The total fair retail value of articles acquired abroad exceeds $400, or if acquired in American Samoa, Guam, or the U.S. Virgin Islands, $800.
- More than 1 liter (33.8 fl. oz.) of alcoholic beverages, 200 cigarettes, or more than 100 cigars are included. Or if returning from American Samoa, Guam, or the U.S. Virgin Islands: more than 4 liters (135.2 fl. oz.) of alcoholic beverages, 100 cigars, and 1,000 cigarettes.
- Some of the items are not intended for your personal or household use, such as commercial samples, items for sale or use in your business, or articles you are bringing home for another person.
- Articles acquired in the U.S. Virgin Islands, American Samoa, or Guam are being sent to the United States.
- A customs duty or internal revenue tax is collectible on any article in your possession.

Note: "Courtesy of Port" does not mean you do not have to fill out a declaration or that you will not have to pay customs duty. Your declarations will

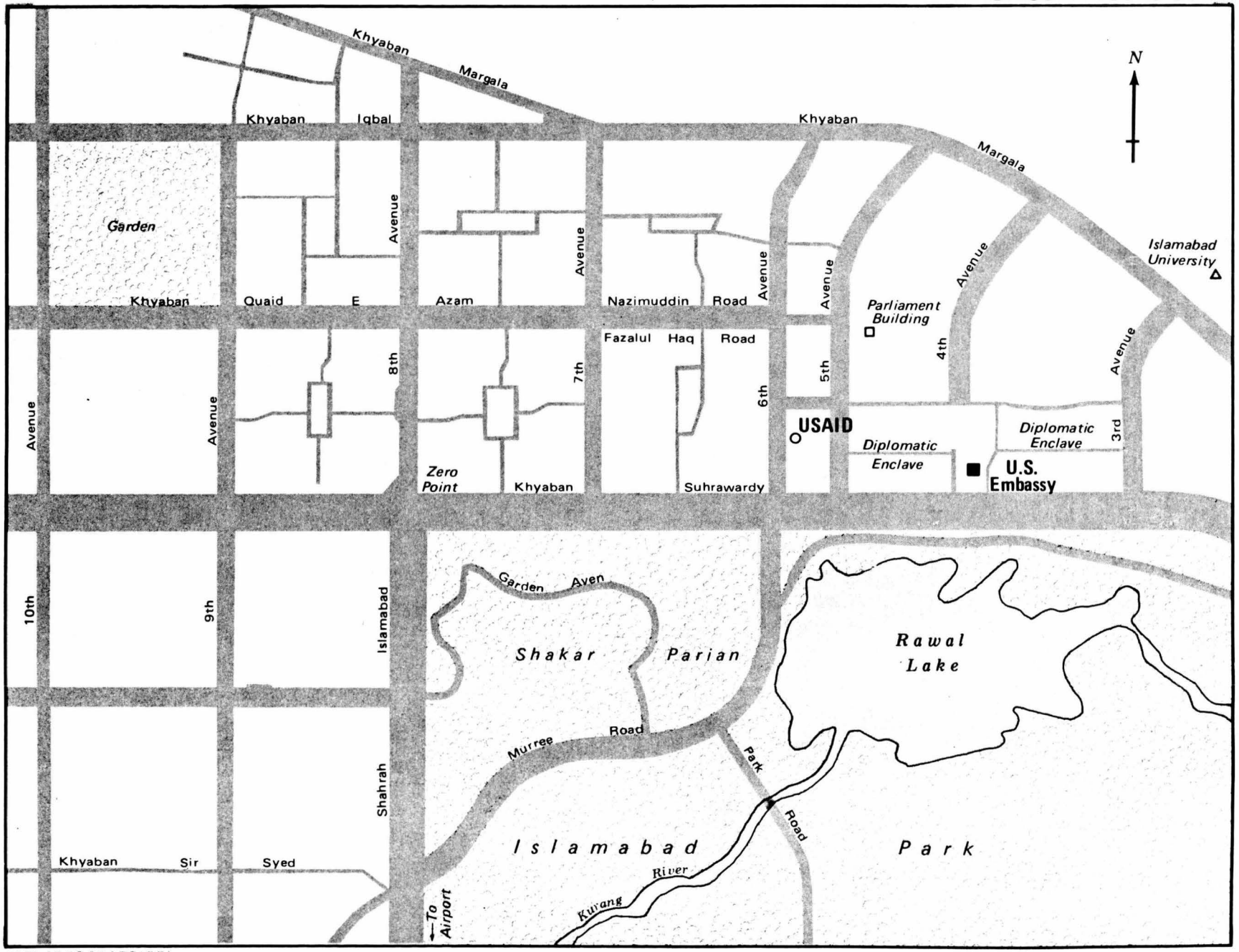
be reviewed by customs officials at the U.S. point of entry and you will be billed for any dutiable items purchased.

Prohibited and Restricted Articles

Some items must meet certain requirements, require a license or permit, or may be prohibited entry. Among these are:

- Absinthe
- Biological material
- Books protected by American copyright if unauthorized foreign reprints
- Candy, liquor-filled
- Copies of gold coins if not properly marked
- Electronic products subject to radiation emission standards
- Firearms and ammunition
- Food, drugs, and certain other items not approved by FDA
- Fruits, plants, vegetables and their products
- Hazardous articles (e.g., fireworks, dangerous toys, toxic or poisonous substances)
- Lottery tickets
- Meats, poultry, and products (e.g., sausage, pate, canned items)
- Motor vehicles not conforming to safety and emission standards
- Narcotics and dangerous drugs including medicine containing same
- Objects of Central and South American pre-Colombian Indian cultures
- Obscene articles and publications
- Pets (e.g., dogs, birds, turtles, monkeys)
- Seditious or treasonable matter
- Trademarked items (e.g., certain cameras, watches, perfumes)
- Switchblade knives
- Wildlife (birds, fish, animals) and endangered and protected species (e.g., pheasants; furskin; feathers, eggs, or skins of wild birds; articles from reptile skins, ivory, and whalebone).

Islamabad



5278 10-83 STATE (GE)

Pakistani Rupee Conversion Table at Rs 30.74 = U.S. $

Rupee to U.S. Dollars		U.S. Dollars to Rupee	
Rupee	**U.S. $**	**U.S. $**	**Rupee**
1.00	0.03	0.10	3.07
5.00	0.16	0.25	7.69
10.00	0.33	0.50	15.37
20.00	0.65	0.75	23.06
30.74	1.00	1.00	30.74
100.00	3.25	3.00	92.22
200.00	6.51	5.00	153.70
300.00	9.76	10.00	307.40
500.00	16.27	20.00	614.80
1,000.00	32.53	50.00	1,537.00
2,000.00	65.06	100.00	3,074.00
3,000.00	97.59	300.00	9,222.00
5,000.00	162.65	500.00	15,370.00

NOTE: All U.S. dollar values are rounded to the nearest U.S. cent. The value of the Pakistani Rupee fluctuates daily according to currency market conditions.

March 1995

U. S. Department of State
Bureau of Consular Affairs
Washington, DC 20520
For recorded travel information, call 202-647-5225.
To access the Consular Affairs Bulletin Board, call 202-647-9225.
For information by fax, call 202-647-3000 from your fax machine.

Consular Information Sheet

Pakistan

December 8, 1994

Country Description: Pakistan is a developing country with a parliamentary democracy. Tourist facilities are available in the principal population centers of the country.

Entry Requirements: A passport and visa are required. The visa must be obtained from a Pakistani embassy or consulate before arrival at the point of entry. Information on entry requirements can be obtained from the Embassy of Pakistan, 2315 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C., 20008, telephone (202) 939-6200. Travelers may also contact one of the Consulates General of Pakistan, located at 12 East 65th St., New York, NY 10021, telephone (212) 879-5800, and 18050 Wilshire Blvd., Suite 1100, Los Angeles, CA 90010, tel. (310) 441-5114. Due to problems with inadmissible passengers, airlines may require departing travelers to present multiple photographs and complete copies of travel documents.

Areas of Instability: Rallies, demonstrations and processions occur from time to time throughout Pakistan on very short notice, and have occasionally taken on an anti-American or anti-Western character. The potential exists for U.S. citizens to be injured during such events. During the Islamic religious observances of Ramadan and Moharram, sectarian rivalry and violence often increase. (Ramadan - February 1995; Moharram - June 8-9, 1995.)

Note: The Islamic calendar recesses 9-10 days against the Western calendar, making these dates earlier in succeeding years.

Travel in the Northwest Frontier Province: Because of dangerous security conditions, caution is essential when traveling overland through the tribal areas to the Khyber Pass. Substantial areas within the Northwest Frontier are designated tribal areas and are outside the normal jurisdiction of government law enforcement authorities. Travel within these areas is particularly hazardous. Tribal feuds or conflicts between smuggling factions may involve foreigners. Even in the settled areas, ethnic, political, or sectarian violence may target foreigners. Car hijackings and the abduction of foreigners are occasionally reported from the tribal areas. If visitors must enter the tribal areas, a permit from the Home Department is required. The permit may stipulate that an armed escort must accompany the visitor.

Travel in the Sindh Province: In the areas of Karachi and Hyderabad, there have been recurring outbreaks of ethnic and sectarian violence which have been characterized by random bombings, shootings and mass demonstrations. Recent incidents have resulted in several deaths and the imposition of curfews. There have also been numerous incidents of kidnappings for ransom. In rural Sindh Province, the security situation is hazardous, especially in regard to overland travel. Foreigners have occasionally been kidnapped and, in one incident, the foreign kidnap victim was killed in a subsequent gunfight between police and bandits. The Pakistan government has recommended that travelers limit their movements in Sindh Province to the city of Karachi. If visitors must go into the interior of Sindh Province, the Pakistan government requests that travelers inform police authorities well in advance of the trip so that necessary police security arrangements can be made.

Travel in Baluchistan Province: The province of Baluchistan, which borders both Iran and Afghanistan, is notorious for cross-border smuggling. Armed battles between clans are frequent. Due to a limited provincial police presence, travelers wishing to visit the interior of Baluchistan should consult with the province's Home Secretary. Advance permission from

provincial authorities is required for travel into some areas. Travelers without permission have been detained by local authorities. While quieter than the interior, Quetta, the provincial capital, has experienced serious ethnic violence which has led to gun battles in the streets and the imposition of curfews.

Information on Crime: Karachi suffers from a very high level of crime and an ineffective police force. Political violence, including assassinations of political leaders, and violent criminal activity, such as carjacking, kidnapping, armed robbery, arson and other violence against civilians occurs frequently in many parts of the city. The police force itself has become a target for heavily armed gangs. Car thieves prefer to steal four-wheel drive vehicles, and drivers resisting the theft may be shot. The U.S. Mission encourages travelers to use hotel shuttles from the airport rather than taxis or hotel-provided vehicles. Similar carjacking incidents have been reported in Lahore, Peshawar and Quetta. Petty crime, especially theft of personal property, is common throughout Pakistan.

The loss or theft of a U.S. passport abroad should be reported immediately to local police and the nearest U.S. embassy or consulate. Useful information on safeguarding valuables, protecting personal security and other matters while traveling abroad is provided in the Department of State pamphlets, "A Safe Trip Abroad" and "Tips for Travelers to South Asia." They are available from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402.

Medical Facilities: Adequate medical care is available in major cities in Pakistan, but may be limited in rural areas. U.S. medical insurance is not always valid outside the United States. Doctors and hospitals often expect immediate payment in cash for treatment. Supplemental health insurance which specifically covers overseas treatment has proven useful. Additional information on health problems can be obtained from the Centers for Disease Control's International travelers hotline at (404) 332-4559.

Drug Penalties: Penalties for possession, use or trafficking in illegal drugs are strictly enforced. Long jail sentences are frequently imposed and large fines are assessed in some cases. Legislation passed in 1994 makes trafficking offenses punishable by death.

Registration: U.S. citizens who register at the U.S. Embassy in Islamabad or the Consulates General in Karachi, Lahore or Peshawar may obtain updated information on travel and security in Pakistan.

Embassy Location:

The U.S. Embassy is located in Islamabad, Diplomatic Enclave, Ramna 5, telephone 92-51-826-161. The consular section is located separately in the USAID building, 18 Sixth Avenue, Ramna 5, telephone 92-51-824-071.

- In Karachi, the Consulate General is located at 8 Abdullah Haroon Road, telephone 92-21-568-5170 (after hours 568-1606).

- In Lahore, the U.S. Consulate General is located on Sharah-E-Abdul Hamid Bin Badees (50 Empress Road), New Simla Hills, telephone 92-42-636-5530.

- In Peshawar, the U.S. Consulate is located at 11 Hospital Road, Peshawar Cantonment, telephone 92-521-279-801 or 802 or 803.

The normal workweek in Pakistan is Sunday through Thursday.

No. 94-281

This replaces the Consular Information Sheet dated August 3, 1994, to update information on violent crime in Karachi, provide additional information on drug penalties, update restrictions on provincial travel, and alert travelers to potential exit document requirements.

background notes

Pakistan

June 1992

Official Name:
Islamic Republic of Pakistan

PROFILE

Geography

Area: 803,943 sq. km. (310,527 sq mi.); about twice the size of California. **Cities:** *Capital*—Islamabad (pop. 400,000), combined with adjacent Rawalpindi, makes up a national capital area with a population in excess of 1.2 million; Karachi 7 million; Lahore 3.5 million; Faisalabad 2 million.

People

Nationality: *Noun and adjective*—Pakistan(i). **Population:** 117 million. **Annual growth rate** (mid-1988): 3%. **Density:** 134 per sq. km. (346 per sq. mi.). **Ethnic groups:** Punjabi, Sindhi, Pathan, Baluch, Muhajirs (i.e., Urdu-speaking immigrants from India). **Religions:** Muslim 97%; small minorities of Christians, Hindus, and others. **Languages:** Urdu (official), English, Punjabi, Sindhi, Pushtu, Baluchi. **Education:** *Literacy*—26%. **Health:** *Infant mortality rate* (1991)—109/1,000. *Life expectancy* (1991)—men 56 yrs., women 57 yrs. **Work force:** *Agriculture*—54%. *Services*—33%. *Industry*—13%.

Government

Type: Parliamentary democracy in a federal setting. **Independence:** August 14, 1947.

Branches: *Executive*—president with constitutional authority, prime minister, cabinet. *Legislative*—National Assembly and Senate. *Judicial*—provincial high courts, Supreme Court, Federal Islamic Court.

Political parties: The Islamic Democratic Alliance (IJI in Urdu), which includes the Pakistan Muslim League, and the Pakistan People's Party (PPP), are the most important on the national level. Other significant parties include the Muhajir Quami Movement (MQM), the Awami National Party (ANP), and the Jamiat-ul-Ulema-i-Islam (JUI). **Suffrage:** Universal adult over 21. Religious minorities and women vote for special reserved seats.

Political subdivisions: *Four provinces*—Punjab, Sindh, Northwest Frontier, Baluchistan—each with a parliamentary system; Northern Areas; Tribal Areas; Federal Capital.

Flag: White vertical band on staff side; green field with white crescent and star in center.

Economy

GNP (Pakistan fiscal year (FY) 1990): $43 billion. **Annual growth rate** 1990: 5%. **Per capita GNP** (FY1990): $380. **Per capita growth rate** (FY 1990): 2%.

Natural resources: Arable land, natural gas, limited petroleum, substantial hydropower potential, coal, iron ore.

Agriculture (26% of GNP): *Products*—wheat, cotton, rice, sugarcane.

Industry (18% of GDP): *Types*—textiles, fertilizer, steel products, food processing, oil and gas products.

Trade (Pakistan FY 1990): *Exports*—$4.9 billion: raw cotton, rice, cotton yarn, textiles, fruits, vegetables. *Major partners*—Japan, US, UK, Saudi Arabia, Germany. *Imports*—$6.3 billion: crude oil, cooking oil, fertilizers, machinery. *Major partners*—Japan, US, Saudi Arabia, Malaysia, UK, Sri Lanka.

Fiscal year: July 1-June 30.

Official exchange rate (1991): about 22 rupees=US$1.

Economic aid received: *Total*—about $36 billion (1947-85). *US only* (1981-87)—$3 billion; (1988-1993 est.)—$350 million annually. *Major donors*—(aid to Pakistan consortium—US, Canada, Japan, some West European countries), World Bank, Asian Development Bank, Saudi Arabia. ■

United States Department of State
Bureau of Public Affairs
Office of Public Communication

PEOPLE

Most Pakistanis live in Karachi, in the Indus River valley, and along an arc formed by the cities of Faisalabad, Lahore, Rawalpindi/Islamabad, and Peshawar. Punjabis are in the majority, with minorities of other Indo-European language-speaking peoples.

The official language is Urdu; spoken as a first language by only 9% of Pakistanis; 65% speak Punjabi, 11% Sindhi, and 24% other languages (Saraiki, Baluchi, Brahui). Urdu, Punjabi, Pushtu, and Baluchi are of the Indo-European language group; Brahui is believed to have a Dravidian (pre-Indo-European) origin. English is widely used within the government, the military, and in many institutions of higher learning. The government plans gradually to replace English with Urdu in schools and to introduce Arabic for Islamic studies.

HISTORY

Archeology has revealed impressive ruins of a 4,500-year old urban civilization in Pakistan's Indus River valley. The r on for the total collapse of this highly developed culture is unknown. A major theory is that it was crushed by successive invasions of Aryans, Indo-European-speaking warrior tribes from the Caucasus region in what is now the Soviet Union. The Aryans, who quickly dominated the subcontinent, were followed in 500 BC by Persians and, in 326 BC, by Alexander the Great, conqueror of the Persian Empire.

Pakistan's Islamic history began with the arrival of Muslim traders in the 8th century AD. During the 16th and 17th centuries, the Mughuls (Persian for "Mongol") united most of South Asia in an empire marked both by its administrative effectiveness and cultural refinement.

British traders arrived in the region in 1601, but the British Empire did not consolidate its control there until the latter half of the 18th century. After 1850, the British, or those influenced by them, governed virtually the entire subcontinent, including most of what is now Pakistan.

In the early 20th century, Muslim and Hindu leaders began to press for a greater degree of independence. At the movement's forefront was the largely Hindu Indian National Congress. Growing concern about Hindu domination of the movement led Muslim leaders to form the All-India Muslim League in 1906. In 1913, the League formally adopted the same goal as the Indian National Congress: self-government for India within the British Empire. The Congress and the League were unable, however to agree on a formula to ensure the protection of Muslim religious, economic and political rights. Over the next two decades, mounting tension between Hindus and Muslims led to a series of bitter communal conflicts.

Pakistan and Partition

The idea of a separate Muslim state emerged in the 1930s. It gained popularity among Indian Muslims after 1936, when the Muslim League suffered a decisive electoral defeat in the first elections under the 1935 constitution. On March 23, 1940, Muhammad Ali Jinnah, leader of the Muslim League, publicly endorsed the "Pakistan Resolution," that called for the creation of an independent state in regions where Muslims were a majority.

At the end of World War II, the United Kingdom, under considerable international pressure to reduce the size of its overseas empire, moved with increasing urgency to grant India independence. The Congress Party and the Muslim League could not, however, agree on the terms for drafting a constitution or establishing an interim government. In June 1947, the British Government declared that it would grant full dominion status to two successor states—India and Pakistan. Pakistan would consist of the contiguous Muslim-majority districts of western British India, plus parts of Bengal. The various princely states could freely join either India or Pakistan. These arrangements resulted in a bifurcated Muslim nation separated by more than 1,600 kilometers (1,000 mi.) of Indian territory when Pakistan became a self-governing dominion within the Commonwealth on August 14, 1947. West Pakistan comprised four provinces and the capital, Lahore. East Pakistan was formed of a single province. Each province had a legislature.

After Independence

Pakistan's history for the next 26 years was marked by political instability and economic difficulties. Dominion status was rejected in 1956 in favor of an "Islamic Republic within the Commonwealth." Attempts at civilian political rule failed, and the government imposed martial law between 1958 and 1962 and 1969 and 1972. Frictions between West and East Pakistan culminated in a 1971 army crackdown against the East Pakistan dissident movement led by Sheikh Mujibur Rahman, whose Awami League Party had won 167 seats out of 313 National Assembly seats on a platform of greater autonomy for the eastern province.

Mujibur Rahman was arrested and his party banned. Many of his aides and more than 1 million Bengali refugees fled to India, where they established a provisional government. Tensions escalated and hostilities broke out between India and Pakistan in late November 1971. The combined Indian-Bengali forces soon overwhelmed Pakistan's small army contingent in the East. By the time Pakistan's forces surrendered on December 16, 1971, India had taken numerous prisoners and gained control of a large area of East Pakistan.

The Years of Zulfiqar Ali Bhutto

Pakistan's defeat in East Pakistan resulted in the fall of military strongman Yahya Khan on December 20, 1971. Zulfiqar Ali Bhutto, whose Pakistan People's Party (PPP) had won a majority of the seats in West Pakistan in the 1970 elections, replaced Yahya. East Pakistan gained independence as Bangladesh.

Bhutto moved decisively to restore national confidence after the East Pakistan disaster. He pursued an active foreign policy, taking a leading role in Islamic and Third World forums. Although Pakistan did not join the Non-aligned Movement until the Central Treaty Organization (CENTO) was dissolved in 1979 (after Bhutto's fall), its position on most issues coincided with the goals of the Non-Aligned Movement throughout Bhutto's tenure.

Domestically, Bhutto cultivated the allegiance of both urban and rural poor. He nationalized major industries and the banking system and dramatically increased wages and benefits for lower income industrial workers. The government also instituted a land reform program and attempted to restructure

the feudal social system still intact in many rural areas, but the results never met expectations. In 1973, Bhutto promulgated a new constitution approved by all political elements and stepped down as president to become prime minister.

Although Bhutto never departed from his populist and reformist rhetoric, he increasingly relied for support on Pakistan's urban industrialists and rural landlords. His rule also grew more authoritarian and capricious. Over time the economy stagnated, largely as a result of the dislocation and uncertainty created by Bhutto's frequently changing economic policies.

When Bhutto called for elections in March 1977, nine leading opposition parties—from the secularist, pro-autonomy National Democratic Party (which enjoyed significant support in the Northwest Frontier and Baluchistan) to the conservative, religious Jamaat-i-Islami—joined to form the Pakistan National Alliance (PNA). The PNA focused its campaign on the alleged inefficiency, corruption, and immorality of the Bhutto regime. Its attack seemed to strike a responsive chord, and the outcome of the elections appeared uncertain. After Bhutto claimed a victory with two-thirds of the National Assembly seats in the Pakistan People's Party (PPP) hands, the opposition PNA denounced the election as a fraud and demanded new elections. Bhutto resisted and, after a wave of violence swept the country, arrested the PNA leadership.

1977 Martial Law

The army grew restive in its role as enforcer of civil order in the face of increasing anti-government unrest. On July 5, 1977, the military removed Bhutto from power, declared martial law, and suspended portions of the 1973 constitution. Chief of Army Staff Gen. Muhammad Zia Ul-Haq became Chief Martial Law Administrator and promised to hold new elections within 90 days.

Initially, Zia claimed that he had not directed his action against Bhutto and that Bhutto could contest the election scheduled for October 1977. However, after it had become clear that Bhutto's popularity had survived his government, Zia reversed his decision. Acting in his role as Martial Law Administrator, Zia postponed the October 1977 elections and began criminal investigations of the [illegible]or PPP leadership. Bhutto, released from house arrest earlier along with other political leaders, was re-arrested, tried, and convicted for conspiracy to murder a political opponent, whose father was killed in the murder attempt. The Supreme Court upheld the verdict and death sentence, and, despite international appeals on his behalf, Bhutto was hanged on April 6, 1979.

After backing away from his initial commitment to hold elections within 90 days, Zia began to institutionalize his regime. He created an Advisory Council formed mostly of technocrats and government servants. In August 1978, representatives of several political parties were added to the council, redesigned as a cabinet. Following the resignation of President Choudhury in September, Zia assumed the presidency and called elections for November.

As the elections neared, it became clear that the PNA had fallen into disarray and the PPP was once more the strongest party nationwide. Fearful of a PPP victory, Zia banned political activity in October 1979 and postponed the national elections. Only the elections for local bodies were held, and these took place on a non-party basis.

In 1980, most center and left parties, led by the PPP, formed the Movement for the Restoration of Democracy (MRD). The MRD demanded Zia's resignation, an end to martial law, new elections, and restoration of the 1973 constitution as it existed before Zia's takeover. In early December 1984, President Zia proclaimed a national referendum for December 19, asking voters to approve his program for Islamization. He also declared that if voters passed the referendum, they would approve his continuation in office for 5 years from the first sitting of the next National Assembly. Zia's opponents, led by the MRD, called for a boycott. Subsequently, the government claimed a 63% turnout, with more than 90% approving the referendum. Many outside the government questioned these figures.

Capitalizing on his referendum victory, President Zia announced national and provincial assembly elections for February 1985. Candidates were required to run on a non-party basis but were not disqualified because of past party affiliation. Perhaps misjudging the effectiveness of its referendum boycott and the appeal of new elections, the MRD again urged the voters to stay home. However, several conservative and religious parties, including the Pakistan Muslim League faction headed by the Pir of Pagaro and the Jam-aat-i-Islami, endorsed the balloting. The MRD suffered numerous defections, as politicians abandoned their parties to stand for office. The boycott failed, and most independent observers vouch for the claimed 53% turnout for the National Assembly balloting (with a slightly higher percentage of voter turnout in the provincial elections). The elections generally were free of fraud (as evidenced by the defeat of 5 serving members of Zia's Cabinet). The boycott failure accentuated divisions within the MRD and left Zia's opposition in further disarray.

On March 3, 1985, President Zia proclaimed constitutional changes designed to increase the power of the president vis-a-vis the prime minister. (Under the 1973 constitution the president's role was largely that of a figurehead.) Subsequently, Zia named Muhammad Khan Junejo, a Muslim League member, as his choice for prime minister. The new National Assembly met for the first time on March 23, 1985, and unanimously endorsed Junejo as prime minister.

The ensuing National Assembly session was dominated by the debate over President Zia's proposed eighth amendment to the constitution that would legitimate the actions of the martial law government and exempt them (including decisions of the military courts) from judicial review. The amendment passed in October 1985, after a compromise was reached on a series of modifications restoring some powers to the prime minister.

The Return of Democracy

On December 30, 1985, President Zia lifted martial law and restored all the constitutional rights safeguarded under the 1973 constitution. He also lifted the Bhutto government's declaration of emergency powers. The first months of 1986 witnessed a rebirth of political activity throughout Pakistan. All parties—including those continuing to deny the legitimacy of the Zia/Junejo government—were permitted to organize and hold rallies. In April 1986, PPP leader Benazir Bhutto, daughter of the deposed prime minister, returned to Pakistan from exile in Europe.

Following the lifting of martial law, Prime Minister Junejo launched a

concerted effort to strengthen his Pakistan Muslim League (PML), which was registered as an official party in February 1986, as a political force capable of contending with the PPP and its MRD allies on a national level. Prime Minister Junejo's increasing independence eventually led to a rift with President Zia. There were also differences between them on Pakistan's Afghan policy. Zia was an unabashed and outspoken supporter of the Afghan Resistance, which had been fighting occupying Soviet forces since those forces invaded Afghanistan in 1980. Junejo repeatedly expressed his concern over the effect the conflict, and particularly the presence of 3 million Afghan refugees in Pakistan, might have on Pakistan's internal security.

On May 29, 1988, President Zia, citing corruption and the prime minister's reluctance to support his Islamization policies, dismissed the Junejo government and called elections for November. In June, Zia proclaimed that Sharia (Islamic law) would be supreme in Pakistan and all civil law must agree with traditional Muslim edicts.

On August 17, a military aircraft carrying Zia, American Ambassador Arnold Raphel, chief of the US military aid mission to Pakistan Brig. Gen. Herbert Wassom, and 28 Pakistani military officers, crashed while returning from a military equipment trial near Bahawalpur. All on board were killed. President of the Senate Ghulam Ishaq Khan assumed the presidency in accordance with the constitution.

President Khan announced almost immediately that the elections, scheduled for November, would go forward as planned. The Supreme Court, which had played a very limited role under Zia, made a series of decisions during the summer of 1988 that helped ensure the democratic character of the November balloting.

Observers judged the National Assembly elections on November 16 to have been the fairest and most orderly in Pakistan's history. The PPP won 93 of the 205 seats contested. The Islamic Democratic Alliance, a coalition including the Pakistan Muslim League, ran a distant second, winning 55 seats. The PPP in conjunction with several smaller par built a viable coalition; on December 1, President Ghulam Ishaq Khan formally requested PPP leader Benazir Bhutto to form a government.

Differing interpretations of constitutional authority and responsibility hindered Pakistan's efforts to develop democratic institutions throughout the 20 months of Ms. Bhutto's tenure. A constitutional debate over the powers of the president and prime minister was caused in part by changes made in the constitution by the late President Zia. There was also a debate over the powers of the central government versus those of the provinces. Political differences between the Bhutto administration and opposition governments in Punjab and Baluchistan seriously impeded social and economic reform programs. Ethnic divisions, primarily in Sindh, exacerbated the problems caused by strong political, constitutional, and regional differences. The result of these differences, plus the weakness of central and provincial law enforcement agencies and the superabundance of weapons, was a serious deterioration in law and order.

On August 6, 1990, President Khan, pursuant to his powers under the constitution, dismissed the Bhutto government and dissolved the National Assembly. The provincial assemblies were also dissolved. The president called for elections to be held on October 24 for the National Assembly and October 27 for provincial assemblies. Caretaker governments were formed at the center and in the four provinces. A state of emergency was declared to enable the president to administer in the absence of the assemblies. Special tribunals, as provided for under the law, were established to try politicians accused of corruption or misconduct while in office during the period since December 1988. Civilian administrators and the courts continued to function, and the basic rights guaranteed under the constitution were untouched.

The elections were held as scheduled and were observed by a number of international teams. Although marred by some irregularities, they were considered to have been generally free and fair. On November 6, Muhammad Nawaz Sharif, leader of the Islamic Jamhoori Ittehad (IJI) was overwhelmingly elected prime minister by the members of the assembly. His first official act as prime minister was to lift the state of emergency.

GOVERNMENT AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

The constitution of August 14, 1973, as amended in 1985, provides for a president (chief of state) elected by an electoral college (consisting of the Senate, National Assembly, and the members of the provincial assemblies), and a prime minister—(head of government) nominated by the president and elected by the National Assembly in special session. Following the election, the prime minister is invited by the president to form the government.

The National Assembly—217 members elected by universal adult suffrage (207 Muslims and 10 non-Muslims)—has a 5-year term subject to dissolution. In 1990, a constitutional provision which established 20 reserved seats for women lapsed, and has not been renewed. The Senate, not subject to dissolution, consists of 84 members elected indirectly for 6 years by the provincial assemblies and tribal councils; plus three members elected from the federal area of Islamabad, as determined by the president. Half of the members stand for reelection every 3 years.

The constitution permits a vote of "no confidence" against the prime minister by a majority of the total assembly membership, provided that the assembly is not in the annual budget session.

Two lists—federal and concurrent—specify jurisdiction on legislative subjects; all residual powers belong to the provinces. According to the 1973 constitution, the president, after consultation with the prime minister, appoints provincial governors, who act on the advice of the cabinet or chief minister of the province. Each province has a high court, with the justices appointed by the president after consultation with the chief justice of the Supreme Court, the provincial governor, and the provincial chief justice. Pakistan's highest court is the Supreme Court. The president appoints the chief justice and, in consultation with him, the remaining justices.

During the martial law period, the powers and independence of the civilian judiciary were curtailed. Various martial law decrees extended the jurisdiction of military tribunals and prohibited the civilian judiciary from reviewing the procedures and decisions of military courts.

Principal Government Officials

President—Ghulam Ishaq Khan
Prime Minister—Mian Muhammad Nawaz Sharif
Minister of State for Foreign Affairs—Muhhamad Siddique Khan Kanju
Ambassador to the US—Syeda Abida Hussain
Ambassador to the UN—Jamsheed Marker

Pakistan maintains an embassy in the United States at 2315 Massachusetts Avenue, NW., Washington, DC 20008 (tel. 202-939-6200).

ECONOMY

Pakistan is a relatively poor country but has the resources and entrepreneurial skill to support rapid economic growth. In fact, real growth of gross domestic product (GDP) averages 8% per year over the decade of the 1980s (fiscal years 1981-90), with generally moderate inflation. Growing fiscal imbalances, however, pushed the budget and current account deficits to unsustainable levels by decade's end. Economic growth has slowed in recent years; real GDP expanded 5% in FY 1990 and about 6% in FY 1991. Measures adopted under a 4-year, IMF-sponsored structural adjustment program (FY 1989-92) have improved fiscal and monetary conditions, and eased the foreign exchange gap on the balance of payments. But deficit financing has substantially increased the government's domestic and external debt burdens. Domestic debt service payments, for example, consumed 32% of current expenditures in the FY 1991 budget (defense spending took another 43%).

In FY 1991, the Government of Prime Minister Nawaz Sharif launched an ambitious program of privatization, deregulation, and economic reform. Despite a slow start and resistance from the bureaucracy and labor unions, the government is pushing ahead with the denationalization of banks, industrial firms, and utilities. In addition, the government has eased controls on foreign exchange, removed barriers to foreign investment, and liberalized foreign access to Pakistan's growing capital market. The Prime Minister's reform program has accelerated the trend toward private enterprise and a market economy already underway for a decade. For example, investment in manufacturing in FY 1981 was fairly equally divided between the public and private sectors. But in 1991, private investment was more than 12 times higher than in the public sector. The government envisions the virtual elimination of public sector involvement in manufacturing by the end of FY 1992.

Nonetheless, Pakistan still has a long way to go in terms of economic development. With per capita GNP of about $380, the World Bank ranks Pakistan as a low-income country roughly on a par with China and India. Only about 26% of adults are literate, and life expectancy at birth is about 56 years. The population, currently about 117 million, is estimated to be growing at about 3% per year, and is expected to double within 20 years. Relatively few resources have been devoted to socioeconomic development (especially education, health, and population programs) or infrastructure projects. Development accounted for 28% of total expenditures in the FY 1991 budget.

Agriculture and Natural Resources

The country's principal natural resource is its arable land (25% of the total land area is under cultivation). Agriculture accounts for about 26% of GDP and employs more than 50% of the labor force. Pakistan boasts the largest contiguous irrigation system in the world, making cultivation possible in semi-arid regions of the country. The most important crops include wheat, cotton, and rice, which together account for almost 70% of total crop output by value. Intensive farming practices have enabled Pakistan to become a net food exporter. Pakistan exports rice, fish, fruits, and vegetables, and imports wheat, vegetable oil, and sugar.

Pakistan has extensive energy resources, including fairly sizable natural gas reserves, some proven oil reserves, and large hydropower potential. Exploitation of energy resources has been slow, however, and domestic demand for power continues to outstrip supply. The government is developing new thermal and hydro-power generation capability and is encouraging private investment in power development, with some support by foreign donor agencies. Petroleum production, in which foreign oil companies participate, totals about 65,000 barrels per day out of a total requirement of 125,000 barrels per day. Coal is also mined in Pakistan, with production reaching about 267,000 tons in FY 1991.

Industry

Cotton textile and apparel manufacturing is Pakistan's largest industry, accounting for nearly 20% of total manufacturing output and almost 40% of total exports. Other major industries include cement, fertilizer, edible oil, sugar, steel, machinery, and food processing. Large-scale manufacturing units account for about 70% of total output value. The public sector, which includes many enterprises nationalized in the 1970s, produced about 30% of FY 1991 manufacturing output. The public sector share, however, is expected to decline sharply as state industrial units are sold to private investors.

Foreign Trade

Strong export performance and moderate import growth during FY 1991 significantly improved Pakistan's balance of payments. Pakistan's exports are dominated by cotton textiles and apparel, rice, leather products, surgical and sports equipment, and carpets. Major imports include petroleum and petroleum products, edible oil, chemicals, fertilizer, capital goods, industrial raw materials, and consumer products. Despite the impact of temporarily higher oil prices and the loss of some 100,000 Pakistani jobs in Kuwait and Iraq as a result of the Gulf crisis, the FY 1991 current account deficit declined to $1.5 billion, down from nearly $2 billion in FY 1989. Amortization of Pakistan's large but manageable external debt burden (about $25 million) consumed about 26% of export earnings in FY 1991. Pakistan receives about $2 billion per year in loan/grant assistance from international financial institutions (IMF, World Bank, Asian Development Bank) and bilateral donors, including the US Agency for International Development (US aid is currently suspended because of concerns about Pakistan's nuclear program).

DEFENSE

Pakistan's 500,000-member armed forces, the world's 11th largest, are well trained and disciplined. Pakistan operates

military equipment from several foreign sources—the United States, China, France, the United Kingdom, and others. Much of this equipment is outdated. Pakistan's extensive efforts to modernize its defense capability are frustrated by its limited industrial base and fiscal resources.

Until 1990, a portion of US aid to Pakistan was used to help modernize Pakistan's conventional defensive capability. The United States allocated about 40% of its current (1988-93) assistance package to nonreimbursable credits for military purchases. The remainder of the program is devoted to economic assistance. The ratio of military assistance to economic assistance has decreased slightly in recent years, at the request of the Government of Pakistan. Military aid and other assistance was suspended in October 1990 due to the Administration's inability to certify under the Pressler amendment to the Foreign Assistance Act (Section 620E(e)) that "Pakistan does not possess a nuclear explosive device and that the proposed United States assistance package will reduce significantly the risk that Pakistan will possess a nuclear explosive device."

FOREIGN RELATIONS

Pakistan is a non-aligned country, a prominent member of the Organization of the Islamic Conference (OIC), and an active UN member. In 1989, Pakistan rejoined the Commonwealth. Its foreign policy encompasses historically difficult relations with India, a desire for a stable Afghanistan, long-standing close relations with China, extensive security and economic interests in the Persian Gulf (including cordial relations with Iran), and wide-ranging bilateral relations with the United States.

India

Relations between Pakistan and India reflect centuries-old Muslim-Hindu rivalries and suspicions. Although many issues divide the two countries, the most sensitive one since independence has been the status of Kashmir.

At the time of partition, Kashmir, although ruled by a Hindu maharajah, had an overwhelmingly Muslim population. When the maharajah hesitated in acceding to either Pakistan or India in 1947, some of his Muslim subjects, aided by tribesmen from Pakistan, revolted in favor of joining Pakistan. The Kashmiri ruler offered his state to India in return for military aid in crushing the revolt. Indian troops occupied the eastern portion of Kashmir, including its capital, Srinigar, while the western half came under Pakistani control.

India took this dispute to the United Nations on January 1, 1948. One year later, the United Nations arranged a cease-fire along a line dividing Kashmir roughly in half but leaving the northern end of the line undemarcated and the Vale of Kashmir (with the majority of the population) under Indian control. India and Pakistan agreed to hold a UN-supervised plebiscite to determine the state's future, but India did not fulfill this commitment.

Full-scale hostilities erupted in September 1965, when India alleged that terrorists trained and supplied by Pakistan were operating in India-controlled Kashmir. Hostilities ceased 3 weeks later, following mediation efforts by the United Nations and friendly nations. In January 1966, Indian and Pakistani representatives met in Tashkent, USSR, and agreed to work for a peaceful settlement of the Kashmir dispute and other differences

Following the 1971 crisis in East Pakistan, which led to the war that ended with the emergence of independent Bangladesh, President Bhutto and Indian Prime Minister Indira Gandhi met in the mountain town of Simla, India, in July 1972. They agreed on the withdrawal of forces from occupied territories, the determination of a line control in Kashmir, and settlement of bilateral disputes through peaceful means. In 1974, Pakistan and India agreed to re-establish postal and telecommunications links and measures to facilitate travel. After a hiatus of 5 years, trade and diplomatic relations were restored in 1976.

Strains in bilateral relations continue over defense and internal security matters, communal concerns, and economic issues. India's self-proclaimed "peaceful nuclear explosion" in 1974 led to great uncertainty in Pakistan, and is generally acknowledged to have been the impetus for Pakistan's alleged clandestine nuclear research. In 1983, the two nations exchanged charges that each was aiding the other's separatists, i.e., Sikhs in India's (east) Punjab State and Sindhis in Pakistan's Sindh Province. In addition, conflict arose between Indian and Pakistani troops in the remote Siachin Glacier region of northern Kashmir, while New Delhi sharpened its criticism of what it alleged was Pakistan's clandestine nuclear weapons program.

Tensions diminished after Rajiv Gandhi replaced his assassinated mother as Indian Prime Minister in November 1984 and a group of Sikh hijackers was brought to trial by Pakistan in March 1985. In December 1985, President Zia and Prime Minister Gandhi pledged that neither would launch a first strike against the other's nuclear facilities. A formal "no first strike" agreement was signed in January 1991. High-level talks began in early 1986 to resolve the Siachin Glacier border dispute and to improve trade. Bilateral tensions rose again in early 1990 as Kashmiri militants challenged the authority of the Indian Government. Subsequent frequent bilateral meetings on high levels have helped lay the groundwork for improvement in the relationship. These issues, and particularly unrest in Indian-controlled Kashmir and in India's (east) Punjab State, are likely to continue to dominate Indo-Pakistani relations.

Afghanistan

Pakistan played a vital role in supporting Afghan Resistance fighters following the 1980 Soviet invasion. In the wake of the Soviet withdrawal from Afghanistan in February 1989, Pakistan remained an important source of support for the Afghan Resistance. More than 3 million Afghan refugees are in Pakistan, but are returning in increasing numbers. Pakistan, in cooperation with the world community, undertook a massive relief effort to care for the refugees. The United States has provided nearly $500 million in humanitarian assistance for Afghan refugees in Pakistan, mainly through multilateral organizations.

The Former Soviet Union

Under military leaders Ayub Khan, Pakistan sought to improve relations with Moscow; trade and cultural exchanges between the two countries increased between 1966 and 1971. With the beginning of the East Pakistan crisis in March 1971, however, Soviet criticism of

Pakistan's position cooled relations; and many Pakistanis believed that the August 1971 Indo-Soviet Treaty of Friendship, Peace and Cooperation encouraged Indian belligerency. Subsequent Soviet arms sales amounting to billions of dollars on concessional terms to India—in addition to all the Soviet arms sales throughout the 1960s—reinforced this view.

During the 1980s, tensions increased between the Soviet Union and Pakistan, because of the latter's key role in organizing political and material support for the Afghan rebel forces. As the Soviet withdrawal neared, the Soviet Government increased its attempts to intimidate Pakistan. Changes in the former Soviet Union will probably lead to improved bilateral relations.

People's Republic of China

Pakistan recognized the People's Republic of China (PRC) in 1950 and was among the first countries to do so. Following the Sino-Indian hostilities of 1962, Pakistan's relations with China grew much closer, and the two countries have concluded a variety of agreements and regularly exchange high-level visits. China has provided economic, military, and technical assistance to Pakistan.

Good relations with China have been essential to Pakistan's foreign policy. Pakistan views the PRC as a regional counterweight to India and the former Soviet Union, and the PRC strongly supported Pakistan's opposition to Soviet involvement in Afghanistan.

Iran and the Persian Gulf

Pakistan has long-standing geopolitical, historical, and cultural-religious ties with Iran. The two countries enjoy cordial relations.

Despite popular support for Iraq, the Pakistani Government supported the coalition against Iraq's invasion of Kuwait and sent 11,600 troops to defend Saudi Arabia. Pakistan's relations with Iran are tempered by its extensive ties to Saudi Arabia and other Arab Persian Gulf states. Pakistan provides military personnel to strengthen Gulf state defenses and to reinforce its own security interests in the area. Nevertheless, Pakistan pursues an active diplomatic relationship with Iran.

US-PAKISTAN RELATIONS

The United States and Pakistan established diplomatic relations in 1947. With the US agreement to provide economic and military aid in 1954 and Pakistan's participation in the Baghdad Pact/-CENTO and SEATO, relations between the two nations grew close. During the 1965 Indo-Pakistani war, however, the United States suspended military assistance to both sides. The suspension of aid affected Pakistan much more severely than it did India and generated a widespread feeling that the United States was not a reliable ally. As time passed, relations gradually improved, and arms sales were renewed in 1975.

In November 1979, false reports that the United States had participated in the seizure of the grand mosque in Mecca led to a mob attack on the US Embassy in Islamabad. Despite calls for help, the slow reaction of police authorities allowed time for the embassy to be burned. Six persons died, four of them US nationals. The American cultural centers in Rawalpindi and Lahore also were destroyed. Despite an apology from the Pakistan Government, and its agreement to pay for reconstruction of the Embassy, relations between the countries reached an all-time low. At the time of the incident, US assistance to Pakistan also had been suspended because of concerns about Pakistan's nuclear program.

The Soviet invasion of Afghanistan in December 1979 highlighted the common interest of Pakistan and the United States in peace and stability in South Asia. In 1981, the bilateral relationship entered a new phase. The United States and Pakistan agreed on a multi-year, $3.2-billion military and economic aid program aimed at helping Pakistan deal with the heightened threat to security in the region and its economic development problems.

Citing overriding national security concerns and accepting Pakistan's assurances that it was not seeking to construct a nuclear weapon, Congress waived restrictions (Symington amendment) on aid to Pakistan. In March 1986, the two countries agreed on a second multi-year (FY 1988-93) $4 billion economic development and security assistance program. Implementation of this program is contingent upon year-by-year congressional approval, a renewal of the current Symington amendment waiver, and annual certification by the President that Pakistan does not possess a nuclear explosive device (the Pressler amendment). As of October 1, 1990, the US suspended all forms of economic and military assistance to Pakistan because of concerns about the development of Pakistan's nuclear program. Talks continue between the two sides.

Principal US Officials

Ambassador—Nicholas Platt
Deputy Chief of Mission—
A. Elizabeth Jones
Defense Representative—
Brig. Gen. John Howard
Director, USAID Mission—James Norris
Counselor for Political Affairs—
Edward F. Fugit
Counselor for Economic Affairs—
Lawrence Benedict
Public Affairs Officer—
William R. Lenderking
Consul—Karen M. Stanton
Consul General, Karachi—Richard Faulk
Consul General, Lahore—
Laurie Johnston
Consul, Peshawar—Richard Smyth

The US Embassy is located at the Diplomatic Enclave, Ramna 5, Islamabad (tel. [92]-(51)-826161 through 79; telex 82-5-864). ■

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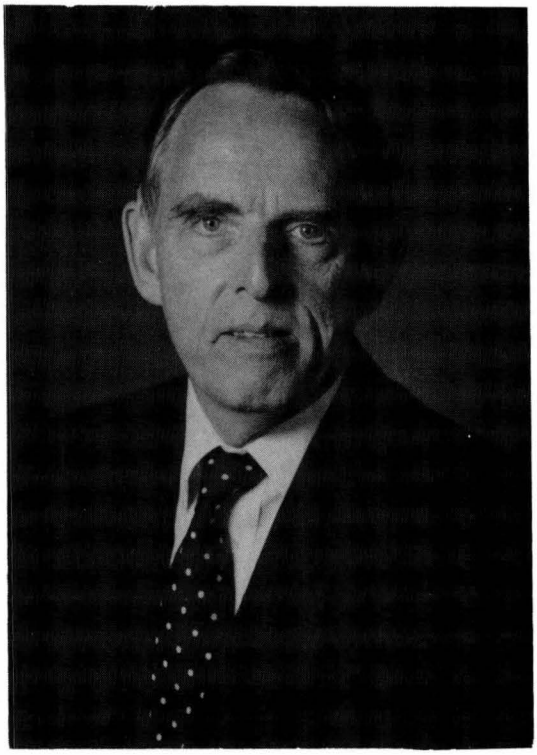

John C. Monjo
U.S. Ambassador to Pakistan

John Cameron Monjo was appointed Ambassador to Pakistan in October 1992. Previously, he served as Ambassador to Indonesia from 1989–92 and as Ambassador to Malaysia from 1987–89.

Mr. Monjo was Deputy Assistant Secretary for East Asian and Pacific Affairs from 1983–85 and was Senior Deputy Assistant Secretary for the Bureau from 1985–87. He served as Deputy Chief of Mission and Chargé d'affaires in Jakarta from 1982–83, and was Deputy Chief of Mission in Seoul from 1979–82.

Ambassador Monjo joined the Foreign Service in 1957. He was assigned as political officer to Phnom Penh in 1958. From 1961–62, he served as commercial officer and as economic officer in Tokyo. After Japanese language training, he was assigned as in Tokyo. He was detailed as political officer to the Department of the Army in Naha, Okinawa from 1965–67.

In 1967, Mr. Monjo was international relations officer in the Office of Japanese Affairs. He was named Special Assistant in the Office of the Under Secretary for Political Affairs in 1969, where he served until January 1971. After a tour as Principal Officer in Casablanca, he became Country Director for Philippine Affairs in 1978.

Ambassador Monjo has twice won the Department of State's Superior Honor Award. His Foreign languages are Malay, French, and Japanese.

He received a B.S. from the University of Pennsylvania in1953 and served in the U.S. Navy from 1953–56.

Mr. Monjo was born in July 1931 in Stamford, Connecticut. He is married to the former Sirkka Orvokki Kortelainen, and they have a son, Rolf, and a daughter, Christina.

Key U.S. Officials in Islamabad

Deputy Chief of Mission
John C. Holzman

Political Officer
Eric A. Kunsman

Economic Officer
Rafael L. Marin

Consular Officer
June H. Kunsman

Administrative Officer
Jeremy Nice

Public Affairs Officer
Ray Peppers

Regional Security Officer
Authur A. Maurel

Withdrawal/Redaction Marker
Clinton Library

DOCUMENT NO. AND TYPE	SUBJECT/TITLE	DATE	RESTRICTION
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COLLECTION:
Clinton Presidential Records
First Lady's Office
Karen Finney (Press Office)
OA/Box Number: 11104

FOLDER TITLE:
[Advance of First Lady Hillary Rodham Clinton to Pakistan, India, Nepal, Bangladesh, and Sri Lanka, March 1995] [loose]

2015-0734-S
db3874

RESTRICTION CODES

Presidential Records Act - [44 U.S.C. 2204(a)]

P1 National Security Classified Information [(a)(1) of the PRA]
P2 Relating to the appointment to Federal office [(a)(2) of the PRA]
P3 Release would violate a Federal statute [(a)(3) of the PRA]
P4 Release would disclose trade secrets or confidential commercial or financial information [(a)(4) of the PRA]
P5 Release would disclose confidential advice between the President and his advisors, or between such advisors [a)(5) of the PRA]
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Freedom of Information Act - [5 U.S.C. 552(b)]

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b(7) Release would disclose information compiled for law enforcement purposes [(b)(7) of the FOIA]
b(8) Release would disclose information concerning the regulation of financial institutions [(b)(8) of the FOIA]
b(9) Release would disclose geological or geophysical information concerning wells [(b)(9) of the FOIA]

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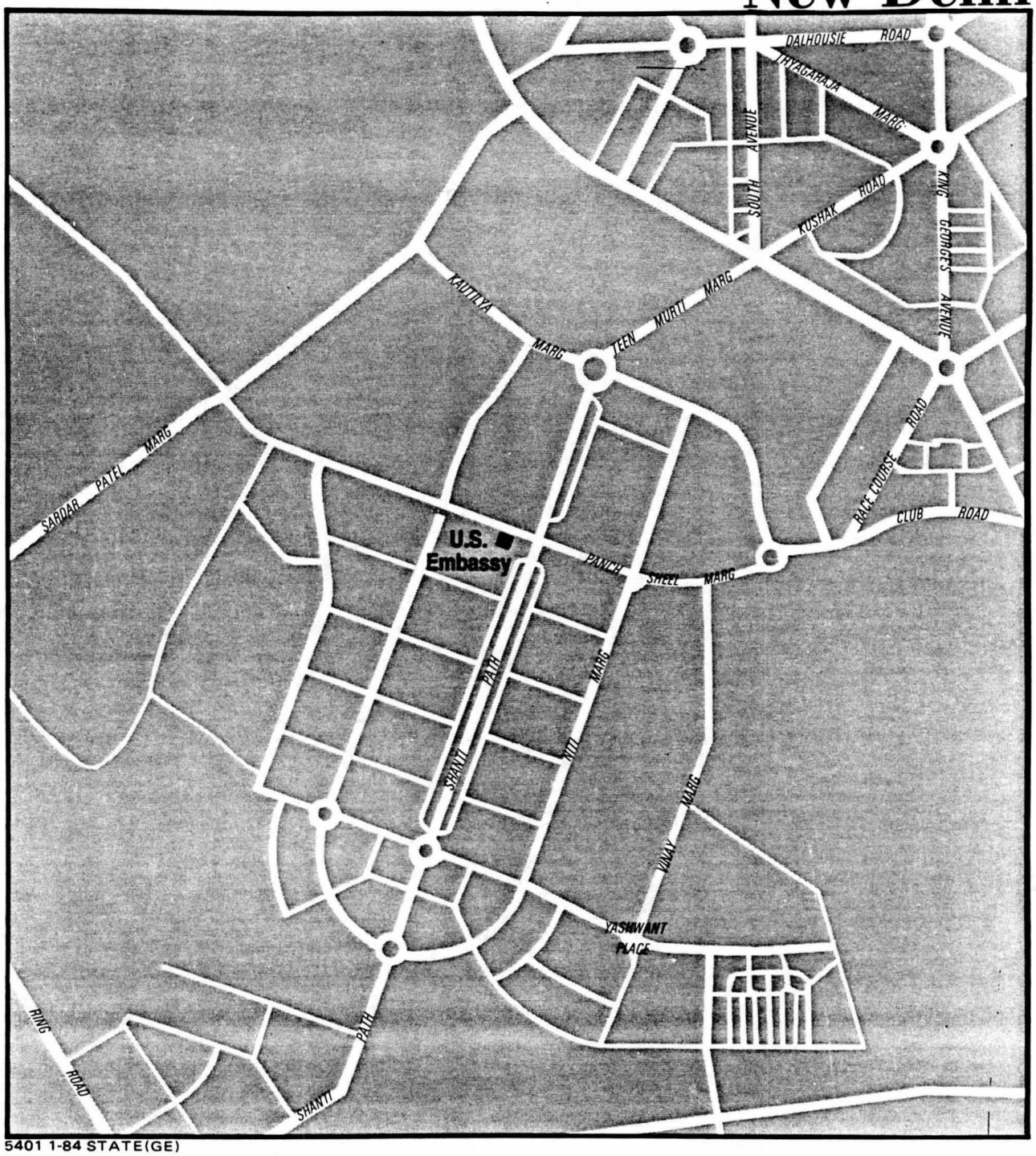
New Delhi



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Indian Rupee Conversion Table at Rs 30.50 = U.S. $

Rupee to U.S. Dollars		U.S. Dollars to Rupee	
Rupee	**U.S. $**	**U.S. $**	**Rupee**
1.00	0.03	0.10	3.05
5.00	0.16	0.25	7.63
10.00	0.33	0.50	15.25
20.00	0.66	0.75	22.88
30.50	1.00	1.00	30.50
100.00	3.28	3.00	91.50
200.00	6.56	5.00	152.50
300.00	9.84	10.00	305.00
500.00	16.39	20.00	610.00
1,000.00	32.79	50.00	1,525.00
2,000.00	65.57	100.00	3,050.00
3,000.00	98.36	300.00	9,150.00
5,000.00	163.93	500.00	15,250.00

NOTE: All U.S. dollar values are rounded to the nearest U.S. cent. The value of the Indian Rupee fluctuates daily according to currency market conditions.

March 1995

U. S. Department of State
Bureau of Consular Affairs
Washington, DC 20520
For recorded travel information, call 202-647-5225.
To access the Consular Affairs Bulletin Board, call 202-647-9225.
For information by fax, call 202-647-3000 from your fax machine.

Consular Information Sheet

India

November 25, 1994

Country Description: India is a developing democratic republic. Tourist facilities varying in degree of comfort and amenities are widely available in the major population centers and main tourist areas.

Entry Requirements: A passport and visa (which must be obtained in advance) are required for entry into India for tourism or business. Evidence of yellow fever immunization is needed if the traveler is arriving from an infected area. For further entry information, the traveler can contact the Embassy of India at 2536 Massachusetts Avenue N.W., Washington, D.C. 20008, telephone (202) 939-9839 or 939-9850 or the Indian Consulates in Chicago, New York, San Francisco, Honolulu, and New Orleans.

Terrorism: During September/October 1994, in what appears to have been an isolated incident, one American and three British tourists in New Delhi were lured by friendly-seeming members of a hitherto-unknown Kashmiri terrorist group and taken hostage. After weeks in captivity, the four were released, unharmed, following a police action.

A series of bombings in Bombay in March 1993 killed several hundred people. Foreigners were not targeted in those attacks and none were reported injured. The threat of terrorist activity remains, but there have been no bombings in more than a year.

Areas of Instability:

Countrywide - The potential exists for outbreaks of communal and inter-caste violence in most major cities. Major civil disturbances can pose risks to a traveler's personal safety and can disrupt transportation systems and city services. In response to communal violence, Indian authorities may occasionally impose curfews. In addition, political rallies and demonstrations in India have the potential for violence. Foreigners have not been the targets of either communal or political violence in India, and are principally at risk only of becoming inadvertent victims. U.S. citizens may contact the American Embassy or the nearest American Consulate General for further information about the current situation in areas where they wish to travel.

Kashmir - In July 1994 an American tourist was fatally shot in Srinagar, and in June 1994 militants held two British hikers hostage for eighteen days before releasing them. These recent events demonstrate that the Kashmir Valley in the State of Jammu and Kashmir remains a dangerous place where terrorist activities and violent civil disturbances continue.

Uttar Pradesh - In September and October 1994 there were numerous incidents of violent encounters between police and activists for a separate state for the hill districts of Uttar Pradesh. Dozens were killed and many more injured in the incidents of mob action which resulted in imposition of curfew and disruption of public transportation in many towns including Dehradun, Rishikesh, Nainital and other popular tourist destinations.

Northeast States - Civil unrest pervades the Northeast States. Terrorist groups in Assam have bombed trains, buses and bridges. The government of India has declared Assam to be a "disturbed area." Numerous political killings have occurred in Nagaland and Manipur.

India/Pakistan Border - Tensions run high between India and Pakistan, particularly over Kashmir. The only official India-Pakistan border-crossing point is between Atari, India and Wagah, Pakistan. A Pakistani visa is required for entry to Pakistan.

Restricted Areas: Permission from the Indian government (from Indian diplomatic missions abroad or, in some cases, from the Ministry of Home Affairs) is required to visit the states of Mizoram, Manipur, Nagaland, Meghalaya, Assam, Tripura, Arunachal Pradesh, Sikkim, parts of Kulu District and Spiti District of Himachal Pradesh, border areas of Jammu and Kashmir, areas of Uttar Pradesh, the area west of National Highway No. 15 running from Ganganagar to Sanchar in Rajasthan, the Andaman and Nicobar Islands and the Union Territory of the Laccadive Islands.

Medical Facilities: Adequate medical care is available in the major population centers, but is usually limited in the rural areas of the country. Medical authorities suggest that travelers to India take preventive measures against malaria, hepatitis, meningitis and Japanese encephilitis (if arriving during the monsoon season). Travelers arriving from countries where outbreaks of yellow fever have occurred will be required to furnish a certificate of yellow fever vaccination. Cholera and gastroenteritis occur during the summer monsoon months, mostly in the poorer areas of India. The best protection includes eating only at better quality restaurants or hotels, drinking only boiled or bottled mineral water and avoiding ice. Eating untreated fruits and vegetables and cooked foods sold by street vendors can be risky.

U.S. medical insurance is not always valid outside the United States. Doctors and hospitals often expect immediate payment in cash for health services. Supplemental health insurance which specifically covers overseas treatment and medical evacuation has proven useful. The interiors of international flights arriving in India may be sprayed with insecticides while passengers are still aboard, a practice discontinued in the U.S. because of human health concerns. Additional information on health matters can be obtained from the Centers for Disease Control's international travelers hotline at (404) 332-4559.

Information on Crime: Petty crime, especially theft of personal property, is common. The loss or theft of a U.S. passport abroad should be reported immediately to local police and the nearest U.S. Embassy or Consulate. Useful information on safeguarding valuables, protecting personal security, and other matters while traveling abroad is provided in the Department of State pamphlets, "A Safe Trip Abroad" and "Tips for Travelers to South Asia." They are available from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402.

Drug Penalties: Travelers are subject to the laws and legal practices of the country in which they travel. Penalties for possession, use, or trafficking in illegal drugs are strictly enforced. Convicted offenders in India can expect a minimum jail sentence of ten years and fines.

Customs Considerations: Indian customs authorities strictly enforce the laws and regulations governing the declaration, importation or possession of gold and gold objects. Travelers have sometimes been detained for possession of undeclared gold objects.

Mountain Climbing: Both India and Pakistan claim an area of the Karakoram mountain range which includes the Siachen Glacier. The two countries have established military outposts in the region, and armed clashes have occurred. Because of this situation, U.S. citizens traveling to or climbing peaks anywhere in the disputed area face significant risk of injury and death. The disputed area includes the following peaks: Rimo Peak, Apsarasas I, II, and III, Tegam Kangri I, II, and III, Suingri Kangri, Ghaint I and II, Indira Col, and Sia Kangri.

Piloting Civil Aircraft: In past years, there have been a number of incidents in which civil aircraft have been detained for deviating from approved flight plans. U.S. citizens piloting civil aircraft in India must file any changes to previous flight plans and may not overfly restricted airspace.

Registration: U.S. citizens who register at the U.S. Embassy in New Delhi or at one of the U.S. Consulates in India can obtain updated information on travel and security in India and Bhutan and can obtain a copy of a booklet, "Guidelines for American Travelers in India".

Embassy Location: The U.S. Embassy is located in the capital city of New Delhi on Shanti Path, Chanakyapuri 110021; telephone (91-11) 600651. There are U.S. Consulates General in Bombay at Lincoln House, 78 Bhulabhai Desai Road, Bombay 400026, telephone (91-22) 363-3611; in Calcutta at 5/1 Ho Chi Minh Sarani, Calcutta 700071, telephone (91-033) 22-3611 through 22-3615 and 22-2335 through 22-2337; and in Madras on Mount Road, Madras 600006, telephone (91-44) 827-3040. The workweek is Monday through Friday.

No. 94-268

This replaces the Consular Information Sheet dated August 16, 1994, to update information on terrorism.

background notes

India

July 1994

Official Name: Republic of India

PROFILE

Geography

Area: 3.3 million sq. km. (1.3 million sq. mi.); about the size of the U.S. east of the Missouri and Mississippi Rivers.
Cities: *Capital*—New Delhi (pop. 8.5 million). *Other major cities*—Bombay (12.6 million), Calcutta (11.7 million), Madras (5.7 million), Bangalore (4.6 million), Hyderabad (3.5 million), Ahmedabad (3.6 million).
Terrain: Varies from Himalayas to flat river valleys.
Climate: Temperate to subtropical monsoon.

People

Nationality: *Noun and adjective*—Indian(s).
Population (1993 est.): 891 million; urban 27%.
Annual growth rate: 2.1%.
Density: 271/sq. km.
Ethnic groups: Indo-Aryan 72%, Dravidian 25%, Mongoloid 2%, others.
Religions: Hindu 82.6%, Muslim 11.4%, Christian 2.4%, Sikh 2%, Jain 0.5%, Buddhist 0.7%, Parsi 0.2%.
Languages: Hindi, English, and 14 other official languages.
Education: *Years compulsory*—9 (to age 14). *Literacy*—48%.
Health: *Infant mortality rate*—81/1,000. *Life expectancy*—61 yrs.
Work force (est.): 306 million. *Agriculture*—67%. *Industry and commerce*—19%. *Services and government*—8%. *Transport and communications*—3%.

Government

Type: Federal republic.
Independence: August 15, 1947.
Constitution: January 26, 1950.
Suffrage: Universal over 21.
Branches: *Executive*—president (chief of state), prime minister (head of government), Council of Ministers (cabinet). *Legislative*—bicameral parliament (*Rajya Sabha* or Council of States and *Lok Sabha* or House of the People). *Judicial*—Supreme Court.
Political parties: Congress (I), Bharatiya Janata Party, Janata Dal, Communist Party of India, Communist Party of India—Marxist, and numerous regional and small national parties.
Political subdivisions: 25 states[1], 7 union territories.
Flag: Saffron, white, and green horizontal bands with a blue spoked wheel centered.

Economy

GDP: $252 billion.
Real growth rate: 3.8%.
Per capita GDP: $284.
Natural resources: Coal, iron ore, manganese, mica, bauxite, chromite, thorium, limestone, barite, titanium ore, diamonds, crude oil.
Agriculture (32% of GDP): *Products*—wheat, rice, coarse grains, oilseeds, sugar, cotton, jute, tea.
Industry (27% of GDP): *Products*—textiles, jute, processed food, steel, machinery, transport equipment, cement, aluminum, fertilizers, mining, petroleum, chemicals, computer software.
Trade: *Exports*—$23 billion: crude oil, engineering goods, precious stones, cotton apparel and fabrics, handicrafts, tea. *Imports*—$24 billion: petroleum, machinery and transport equipment, edible oils, fertilizer, jewelry, iron and steel. *Major partners*—U.S., Russia, Japan, Iraq, Iran, EU, Central and Eastern Europe.
Official exchange rate: 31.25 rupees= U.S. $1. ■

[1] This number includes the Indian state of Jammu and Kashmir. The United States considers all of the former princely state of Kashmir to be disputed territory. Pakistan and China also control parts of Kashmir.

United States Department of State
Bureau of Public Affairs
Office of Public Communication

Vol. V, No. 11

PEOPLE

Although India occupies only 2.4% of the world's land area, it supports nearly 15% of the world's population. Only China has a larger population. Forty percent of Indians are younger than 15 years old. About 80% of the people live in more than 550,000 villages, and the remainder in more than 200 towns and cities.

Over thousands of years of its history, India has been invaded from the Iranian plateau, Central Asia, Arabia, Afghanistan, and the West; Indian people and culture have absorbed and changed these influences to produce a remarkable racial and cultural synthesis.

Religion, caste, and language are major determinants of social and political organization in India today. The government has recognized 16 languages as official; Hindi is the most widely spoken.

Although 83% of the people are Hindu, India also is the home of more than 120 million Muslims—one of the world's largest Muslim populations. The population also includes Christians, Jews, Sikhs, Jains, Buddhists, and Parsis.

The caste system reflects Indian historical and religiously defined hierarchies. Traditionally, there are four castes identified, plus a category of outcastes or untouchables. In reality, however, there are thousands of subcastes, and it is with these subcastes that the majority of Hindus identify. Despite economic modernization and laws countering discrimination against the lower end of the structure, the caste system remains an important factor in Indian society.

HISTORY

The people of India have had a continuous civilization since 2500 B.C., when the inhabitants of the Indus River Valley developed an urban culture based on commerce and sustained by agricultural trade. This civilization declined around 1500 B.C., probably due to ecological changes.

During the second millennium B.C., pastoral, Aryan-speaking tribes migrated from the northwest into the subcontinent. As they settled in the middle Ganges Valley, they adapted to antecedent cultures.

The political map of ancient and medieval India was made up of myriad kingdoms with fluctuating boundaries. In the fourth and fifth centuries A.D., northern India was unified under the Gupta Dynasty. During this period, known as India's Golden Age, Hindu culture and political administration reached new heights.

Islam spread across the subcontinent over a period of 500 years. In the 10th and 11th centuries, Turks and Afghans invaded India and established sultanates in Delhi. In the early 16th century, descendants of Genghis Khan swept across the Khyber Pass and established the Mughal (Mogul) Dynasty, which lasted for 200 years. From the 11th to the 15th centuries, southern India was dominated by the Hindu Chola and Vijayanagar Dynasties. During this time, the two systems—the prevailing Hindu and the Muslim—mingled, leaving lasting cultural influences on each other.

The first British outpost in South Asia was established in 1619, at Surat on the northwestern coast. Later in the century, the East India Company opened permanent trading stations at Madras, Bombay, and Calcutta, each under the protection of native rulers.

The British expanded their influence from these footholds until, by the 1850s, they controlled most of present-day India, Pakistan, and Bangladesh. In 1857, a rebellion in north India led by mutinous Indian soldiers caused the British parliament to transfer all political power from the East India Company to the Crown. Great Britain began administering most of India directly while controlling the rest through treaties with local rulers.

In the late 1800s, the first steps were taken toward self-government in British India with the appointment of Indian councilors to advise the British viceroy and the establishment of provincial councils with Indian members; the British subsequently widened participation in legislative councils. Beginning in 1920, Indian leader Mahatma Gandhi transformed the Indian National Congress political party into a mass movement to campaign against British colonial rule. The party used both parliamentary and non-violent resistance and non-cooperation to achieve independence.

On August 15, 1947, India became a dominion within the Commonwealth, with Jawaharlal Nehru as Prime Minister. Enmity between Hindus and Muslims led the British to partition British India, creating East and West Pakistan, where there were Muslim majorities. India became a republic within the Commonwealth after promulgating its constitution on January 26, 1950.

After independence, the Congress Party, the party of Mahatma Gandhi and Jawaharlal Nehru, ruled India under the influence first of Nehru and then his daughter and grandson, with the exception of two brief periods in the 1970s and 1980s.

Prime Minister Nehru governed the nation until his death in 1964. He was succeeded by Lal Bahadur Shastri, who also died in office. In 1966, power passed to Nehru's daughter, Indira Gandhi, Prime Minister from 1966 to 1977. In 1975, beset with deepening political and economic problems, Mrs. Gandhi declared a state of emergency and suspended many civil liberties. Seeking a mandate at the polls for her policies, she called for elections in 1977, only to be defeated by Moraji Desai, who headed the Janata Party, an amalgam of five opposition parties.

In 1979, Desai's government crumbled. Charan Singh formed an interim government, which was followed by Mrs. Gandhi's return to power in January 1980. On October 31, 1984, Mrs. Gandhi was assassinated, and her son Rajiv was chosen by the Congress (I)—for "Indira"—Party to take her place. His government was brought down in 1989 by allegations of corruption and was followed by V.P. Singh and then Chandra Shekhar.

In 1989, the Janata Dal, a union of opposition parties, dislodged Rajiv Gandhi's Congress (I) Party with the help of the Hindu-nationalist Bharatiya Janata Party (BJP) on the right and the communists on the left. This loose coalition collapsed in November 1990, and the government was controlled for a short period by a breakaway Janata Dal group supported by Congress (I), with Chandra Shekhar as Prime Minister. That alliance also collapsed, resulting in national elections in June 1991.

On May 27, 1991, while campaigning in Tamil Nadu on behalf of Congress (I), Rajiv Gandhi was assassinated, apparently by Tamil extremists from Sri Lanka. In the elections, Congress (I) won 213 parliamentary seats and put together a coalition, returning to power under the leadership of P.V. Narasimha Rao. He was the first Congress Party Prime Minister in 30 years who did not come from the Gandhi/Nehru family.

GOVERNMENT

According to its constitution, India is a "sovereign, socialist, secular, democratic republic." Like the United States, India has a federal form of government. However, the central government in India has

greater power in relation to its states, and its central government is patterned after the British parliamentary system.

The government exercises its broad administrative powers in the name of the president, whose duties are largely ceremonial. The president and vice president are elected indirectly for five-year terms by a special electoral college. Their terms are staggered, and the vice president does not automatically become president following the death or removal from office of the president.

Real national executive power is centered in the Council of Ministers (cabinet), led by the prime minister. The president appoints the prime minister, who is designated by legislators of the political party or coalition commanding a parliamentary majority. The president then appoints subordinate ministers on the advice of the prime minister.

India's bicameral parliament consists of the *Rajya Sabha* (Council of States) and the *Lok Sabha* (House of the People). The Council of Ministers is responsible to the Lok Sabha.

The legislatures of the states and union territories elect 233 members to the Rajya Sabha, and the president appoints another 12. The elected members of the Rajya Sabha serve six-year terms, with one-third up for election every two years. The Lok Sabha consists of 545 members; 543 are directly elected to five-year terms. The other two are appointed.

India's independent judicial system began under the British, and its concepts and procedures resemble those of Anglo-Saxon countries. The Supreme Court consists of a chief justice and 25 other justices, all appointed by the president on the advice of the prime minister.

India has 25 states[2] and 7 union territories. At the state level, some of the legislatures are bicameral, patterned after the two houses of the national parliament. The states' chief ministers are responsible to the legislatures in the same way the prime minister is responsible to parliament.

Each state also has a presidentially appointed governor who may assume certain broad powers during state government crises. The central government exerts greater control over the union territories than over the states, although some territories have gained more power to administer their own affairs.

Local governments in India have less autonomy than their counterparts in the United States. Some states are trying to revitalize the traditional village councils, or *panchayats*, and introduce "grass-roots democracy" at the village level, where 80% of the people live.

Principal Government Officials

President—Shankar Dayal Sharma
Vice President—
Kicheril Raman Narayanan
Prime Minister—P.V. Narasimha Rao
Minister of External Affairs—
Dinesh Singh
Ambassador to the U.S.—
Siddhartha Shankar Ray
Ambassador to the UN—
Mohammad Hamid Ansari

India maintains an embassy in the United States at 2107 Massachusetts Avenue NW, Washington, DC 20008 (tel. 202-939-7000) and consulates general in New York, Chicago, and San Francisco.

POLITICAL CONDITIONS

Prime Minister Rao began 1992 using consensus politics to bring along his political rivals both within and outside Congress (I). He instituted a series of economic reform measures, but the pace of these reforms slowed late in the year, as public and institutional resistance increased and a securities-trading scandal was uncovered in Bombay. Rao started to abandon his consensus approach, accusing the Hindu-nationalist BJP of fomenting Hindu-Muslim tensions, a charge the BJP denied.

The growth of Hindu nationalism became a major issue in India during 1992 and 1993, especially following the demolition of the mosque at Ayodhya on December 6, 1992. The mosque's destruction and ensuing riots resulted in the deaths of over 1,000 persons, mostly Muslims, in various parts of the country. These events not only threatened Rao's government but raised questions about India's secular foundations.

Many BJP members supported the destruction of the Ayodhya mosque, reflecting the belief of many Indians that Hindus have been victimized by centuries of Muslim and British rule and that even after independence the world fails to recognize the importance of India. Although the BJP's support had been largely confined to the Hindi-speaking belt of northern states, the party has been trying to expand its base in other parts of India. It has been making inroads in the western states of Gujarat and Maharashtra and in the southern state of Karnataka. BJP policies include support for the deployment of nuclear weapons, a tougher line with Pakistan, restricted foreign investment in the economy, and a more "Hindu" educational system. The BJP, which had only two of the 543 elected seats in parliament in 1984, became the leading opposition party in mid-1993, with 119 seats.

Prime Minister Rao responded to the turmoil following the mosque's destruction by dismissing the four BJP state governments (Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan, and Himachal Pradesh) and banning certain radical Hindu and Muslim groups. Opposition leaders challenged these moves with some success in court. In parliament, Congress (I) and its allies now retain a slim majority, and non-BJP parties, which oppose new elections, have supported Congress (I) in blocking BJP efforts to unseat Rao with no-confidence motions.

The Ayodhya crisis forced Rao to concentrate on domestic politics; this complicated attempts to initiate new and more far-reaching economic reforms, although there already had been some successes. By late 1992, aspects of Rao's economic reform—such as alleviating the foreign exchange crisis and liberalizing some investment and trade regulations—had been carried out. Despite the focus of much of the country on the fallout from Ayodhya, senior government officials recognized the need to redouble their efforts if they were to continue to reform the trade, industrial, labor, and financial sectors. Current prospects for economic growth are encouraging, with an increase projected for GDP and expectations of higher industrial production and export growth.

Rao also has faced challenges from unrest in Punjab and Kashmir, although the government was able to hold local elections in Punjab in 1993. The insurgency in Kashmir, however, continued in 1993, and efforts to reach a political solution made little progress.

[2] This number includes the Indian state of Jammu and Kashmir. The United States considers all of the former princely state of Kashmir to be disputed territory. India, Pakistan and China each control parts of Kashmir.

Political Parties

Congress (I), led by Narasimha Rao, governs nationally and in mid-1993 controlled almost one-half of the state assemblies; the party and its allies had a slight parliamentary majority.

The Janata Party is one of the three remnants of the Janata government that broke up in July 1979. Larger parts went with V.P. Singh, a former Congress (I) Prime Minister, to form the Janata Dal (50 seats).

The Bharatiya Janata Party has become the most influential spinoff from the former Janata coalition and is led by Lal Krishna Advani. Descending from the earlier, urban Hindu-oriented Jana Sangh Party and representing the nationalist right in the political spectrum, the BJP has tried to broaden its base to attract non-Hindus and rural groups.

India has two important communist parties: the traditionally pro-Soviet Communist Party of India (CPI) and the Communist Party of India—Marxist (CPM), which broke with CPI in 1964 and is essentially independent. Both parties join in the parliamentary process, and the CPM currently holds power in western Bengal. There also are small, leftist splinter groups, some of which advocate the violent overthrow of the government.

Regional parties based on ethnic or linguistic elements govern in Tamil Nadu: AIADMK and DMK. Other regional parties include the Telegu Desam Party, led by N.T. Rama Rao, in Andhra Pradesh and the Samajwadi Party in Uttar Pradesh, led by Mulayan Singh Yadav. Yadav is trying to form a coalition with the Bahiyan Samaj Party (BSP) and other opposition parties to challenge the BJP's hold on India's most populous state. Some northeastern states are governed by tribal-based parties.

ECONOMY

The Indian population continues to grow at over 2% per year and was estimated at 891 million in 1993. About 70% of the population depends directly on agriculture; nearly one-third of the country is irrigated. Almost 30% of the population lives below the poverty line. Nevertheless, a large and growing middle class of some 150 million to 200 million has disposable income for consumer goods. India has an increasingly modern industrial base with sophisticated industries in electronics, avionics, and aluminum. However, infrastructure remains inadequate, particularly in communications and power generation.

India entered into a standby arrangement with the International Monetary Fund in October 1991 and introduced structural reforms aimed at reducing the fiscal deficit and containing inflation. Trade policy was liberalized in 1992, and customs duties were reduced dramatically—particularly for capital goods.

India's GDP growth rate is projected at almost 4%. The government floated a trade-related rupee in March 1993. In early 1993, India had comfortable foreign exchange reserves of about $7 billion. Excise taxes on consumer durables were reduced to encourage sales. The government signed the Multilateral Investment Guarantee Agency Convention but has yet to ratify it.

The total value of India's foreign trade in 1993-94 was over $40 billion, with a trade deficit of $1 billion. India's principal exports are textiles (including garments), diamonds, chemicals, and engineering products. Major imports are petroleum products (more than 25% of total), machinery, iron and steel, and fertilizers.

India now officially welcomes foreign investment, offering quick approvals to ventures of up to 51% foreign equity in 34 industries. Higher levels of foreign equity are permitted, subject to approval by the foreign investment board. Foreign investment is now welcome in the energy sector, particularly power generation and oil exploration, including refineries.

The U.S. is India's largest trade and investment partner. Principal imports from the U.S. include sophisticated machinery and high-tech products, aviation parts and avionics, fertilizers, steel scrap, and chemicals. The government's more open economic policies offer new opportunities for U.S. businesses, particularly in basic infrastructure industries.

Total foreign assistance to India since 1979 amounts to more than $69 billion. From 1957 through 1993, the United States provided about $13.5 billion to India in various types of direct assistance aid. India's external debt now exceeds $70 billion, with a debt service ratio greater than 25%.

FOREIGN RELATIONS

India's size, population, and strategic location give it a prominent voice in international affairs, and its growing industrial base, military strength, and scientific and technical capacity give it added weight. It collaborates closely with developing countries on issues from trade to environmental protection.

The collapse of the former Soviet Union dramatically affected Indian foreign policy. While India remains a leader among developing nations and the Non-aligned Movement, it has sought to strengthen commercial and political ties with a range of other countries and organizations, including the United States, Japan, the European Union, and the Association of Southeast Asian Nations. Prime Minister Rao's economic reform program has given additional impetus to this effort.

India has always been an active member of the United Nations and recently proposed expanding the Security Council beyond the five permanent members. It has a long tradition of participating in UN peace-keeping operations and most recently contributed personnel to UN operations in Somalia, Cambodia, Mozambique, Kuwait, and El Salvador.

Bilateral and Regional Relations

Pakistan. India's relations with Pakistan are influenced by the centuries-old rivalry between Hindus and Muslims which led to partition of British India in 1947. The principal source of contention has been Kashmir, since the Hindu Maharaja chose in 1947 to join India although a majority of his subjects were Muslim. India maintains that his decision and the subsequent elections in Kashmir have made it an integral part of India. Pakistan asserts Kashmir's right to self-determination through a plebiscite in accordance with an earlier Indian pledge and a UN resolution. This dispute triggered wars between the two countries in 1947 and 1965.

In December 1971, following a political crisis in what was then East Pakistan and the flight of millions of Bengali refugees to India, Pakistan and India again went to war. The brief conflict left the situation largely unchanged in the west, where the two armies reached an impasse, but a decisive Indian victory in the east resulted in the creation of Bangladesh.

Since the 1971 war, Pakistan and India have made only slow progress toward normalization of relations. In July 1972, Indian Prime Minister Indira Gandhi and

Pakistani President Zulfikar Ali Bhutto met in the Indian hill station of Simla. They signed an agreement which called for resolving peacefully, through bilateral negotiations, the problems resulting from the war. Diplomatic and trade relations were re-established in 1976.

After the 1979 Soviet invasion of Afghanistan, new strains appeared in India-Pakistan relations; Pakistan supported the Afghan resistance, while India implicitly supported Soviet occupation. In the following eight years, India voiced increasing concern over Pakistani arms purchases, U.S. military aid to Pakistan, and Pakistan's nuclear weapons program. In an effort to curtail tensions, the two countries formed a joint commission. In December 1988, Prime Minister Rajiv Gandhi and Pakistani Prime Minister Benazir Bhutto concluded a pact not to attack each other's nuclear facilities. Agreements on cultural exchanges and civil aviation also were initiated.

Bilateral tensions still exist, primarily over Kashmir and nuclear weapons programs in both countries. It is believed that both India and Pakistan could assemble a number of nuclear weapons in a relatively short time frame.

SAARC. Certain aspects of India's relations within the subcontinent are conducted through the South Asia Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC). Its members are Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan, and Sri Lanka. Established in 1985, SAARC encourages cooperation in agriculture, rural development, science and technology, culture, health and population control, narcotics, and terrorism. In 1993, India and its SAARC partners signed an agreement to lower tariffs within the region over time.

China. After independence, India initially enjoyed cordial relations with the communist government in Beijing. However, tension over their disputed border led to conflict in 1962. After a month of fighting, in which Chinese forces penetrated deep into Indian-claimed territory, China proclaimed a cease-fire and generally withdrew to positions held before the outbreak of hostilities, except in the Ladakh area of Kashmir.

Sino-Indian relations have gradually recovered. Although the border dispute that provoked the war remains unsettled, both countries have sought to reduce tensions along the frontier, expand trade, and normalize relations. Border trade, for example, was resumed in 1992. High-level visits have helped the normalization process. In December 1991, Chinese Premier Li Peng traveled to New Delhi, where he was cordially received by Indian leaders. Indian Prime Minister Rao visited China in 1993 and received a similarly warm reception. The two countries are currently engaged in regular negotiations designed to resolve bilateral disagreements.

India has allowed the Dalai Lama, a Buddhist spiritual leader from Tibet, to live in India since 1959, when he fled into exile. India officially limits his political activities. Since 1959, about 100,000 of his followers have joined him and reside in India.

New Independent States of the Former Soviet Union. The collapse of the Soviet Union and the emergence of the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) had major repercussions for Indian foreign policy. Substantial trade with the former Soviet Union plummeted after the Soviet collapse and has yet to recover. Long-standing military relationships were similarly disrupted.

Russia and India have decided not to renew the 1971 Indo-Soviet Peace and Friendship Treaty and have sought to follow what both describe as a more pragmatic, less ideological relationship. Russian President Yeltsin's visit to India in January 1993 helped cement this new relationship.

India has also established links with the other CIS republics, all of which were recognized shortly after independence. India has paid particular attention to Uzbekistan and Kazakhstan, both of which Prime Minister Rao visited in May 1993.

DEFENSE

Supreme command of India's armed forces—the third-largest in the world—rests with the president, but actual responsibility for national defense lies with the cabinet committee for political affairs under the chairmanship of the prime minister. The minister of defense is responsible to parliament for all defense matters. India's military command structure has no joint defense staff or unified command apparatus. The ministry of defense provides administrative and operational control over the three services through their respective chiefs of staff. The armed forces have always been loyal to constitutional authority and maintain a tradition of non-involvement in political affairs.

Travel Notes

Climate and clothing: Summer clothing is suitable year round in the south. In the north, lightweight woolens are necessary from mid-December to mid-February.

Customs and currency: U.S. citizens must have a valid visa sufficient for the number of entries and the length of stay desired. Foreign currency (including travelers checks) must be declared to customs on arrival if more than $10,000. Import and export of Indian currency are prohibited.

Health: Tapwater is unsafe throughout India. In hotels and restaurants, drink only bottled or carbonated water and avoid ice cubes. Typhoid, tetanus, hepatitis, and diphtheria shots are recommended. Health requirements change; check with your local public health service.

Telecommunications: Telephone service within India and to international points can be irregular and slow. Telegraph service tends to be unreliable. India is 10½ hours ahead of eastern standard time.

Transportation: Many international air carriers provide service to New Delhi, Bombay, Calcutta, and Madras. Indian Airlines has flights to many Indian cities. The railway system provides service throughout the country. The 1,450-km. (900-mi.) trip from Delhi to Calcutta or Bombay takes from 16 to 24 hours. The 2,470-km. (1,535-mi.) trip from Delhi to Madras takes about 40 hours. It is possible to travel nearly everywhere by road during the dry season; however, outside urban areas, the roads are narrow and sometimes impassable during monsoons. Local transportation includes buses, taxis, three-wheeled scooters, cycle rickshaws, and horsedrawn *tongas*. Buses are overcrowded and service is irregular. Taxis are plentiful in the larger cities. ❑

U.S.-INDIA RELATIONS

U.S.-India ties began improving in the 1980s, with expanding economic ties and a dialogue on a range of issues. The end of the Cold War offers unprecedented opportunities to further improve bilateral relations and cooperate on numerous common interests. Collaboration in science and technology, which began in the 1960s in agriculture, has expanded to a broad range of areas. The U.S. and India also have begun to collaborate on multilateral issues. India's term on the UN Security Council (1990-92) led to close and productive consultation.

Peace and stability remain the top priority for American foreign policy in South Asia. The U.S. is committed to promoting improved relations between India and Pakistan, urging both to resolve their bilateral disputes through peaceful negotiations. Proliferation of nuclear weapons and missile technology poses a challenge to U.S.-India relations. The two nations have shared interests in promoting democracy, in combating terrorism and narcotics trafficking, and in addressing environmental problems. The bilateral dialogue on human rights has also intensified.

Trade and investment have grown, largely as a result of India's sweeping economic reforms, which the United States strongly supports. The U.S. is India's largest trading partner, with about $6 billion in bilateral trade annually. The U.S. exported about $2.8 billion to India in 1993. The United States is also the leading foreign investor in India. India's newly emerging middle class is both an immense market and a productive force.

India and the U.S. are slowly developing bilateral military relationships, carefully expanding personnel contacts and exchanges. In 1992, the two countries inaugurated steering councils overseeing army and navy relationships. Meanwhile, the Indian navy held exercises with the U.S. and separately with other Western and regional navies.

Principal U.S. Embassy Officials

Ambassador—Frank Wisner
Deputy Chief of Mission—
Kenneth C. Brill
Public Affairs—Stephen F. Dachi
Political Affairs—Nancy Powell
Economic Affairs—M. Gordon Jones
Commercial Affairs—Jonathan M. Bensky
Agricultural Affairs—Daniel B. Conable
Scientific Affairs— Paul Maxwell
Administrative Affairs—
Cristobal R. Orozco
Consular Affairs—
Richard P. Livingston
Director, USAID Mission—
Walter G. Bollinger

Consuls General

Bombay—Charles A. Mast
Calcutta—Robert Boggs
Madras—Timothy P. Hauser

The U.S. embassy in India is located on Shanti Path, Chanakyapuri, New Delhi 110021 (tel. 600651). Embassy and consulate working hours are Monday to Friday, 8:30 A.M. to 5 P.M. Visa application hours are 8:30 A.M. to 11:30 A.M., Monday to Friday. ■

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July 1994 • Managing Editor: Peter A. Knecht

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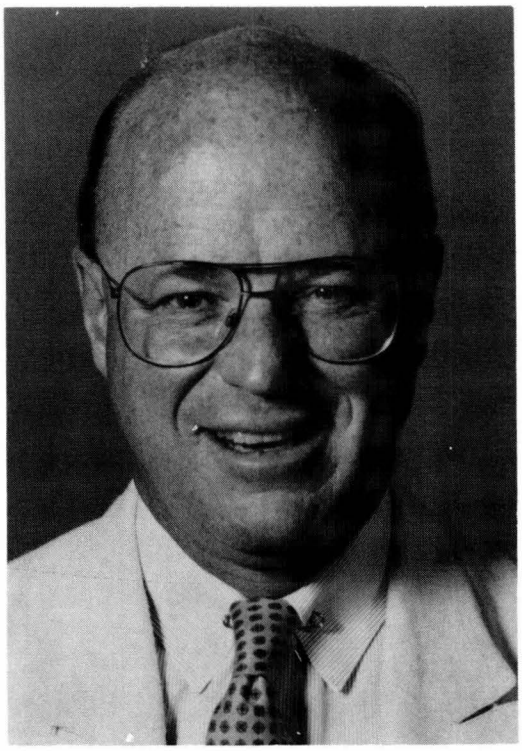

Frank G. Wisner II
U.S. Ambassador to India

Frank G. Wisner II was sworn in as U.S. Ambassador to India on July 5, 1994. He succeeds Thomas R. Pickering.

Mr. Wisner served as Under Secretary of Defense for Policy from January 1993 to June 1994. From July 1992 to January 1993, he was Under Secretary of State for International Security Affairs.

A career diplomat, Mr. Wisner served as Ambassador to the Philippines, August 1991 to June 1992; as Ambassador to Egypt, August 1986 to June 1991; as Senior Deputy Assistant Secretary for African Affairs, April 1982 to April 1986; and as Ambassador to Zambia, August 1979 to April 1982.

Ambassador Wisner joined the Department in December 1961 and was first assigned to Algiers. In 1964 he was detailed to the Agency for International Development in Vietnam until 1968, serving in succession as Staff Aide to the Deputy Chief of Mission, Special Assistant to the Director of the Office of Civil Operation, and as Senior Advisor to the Vietnamese province of Tuyen Duc. At the Department, Mr. Wisner was Officer in Charge of Tunisian Affairs from 1968 to 1971, when he was named chief of the Economic-Commercial Section at American Embassy Tunis. He subsequently served a brief tour as Chief of the Political Section in Dhaka from July 1973 to March 1974.

Mr. Wisner was director of Plans and Management in the Bureau of Public Affairs from 1974 to 1975. He then joined the President's Interagency Task Force on Indochina Force and later served as Deputy Director.

Ambassador Wisner was born in New York in 1938. He received a B.A. degree from Princeton Univeristy in 1961. He is married to the former Christine de Ganay. They have four children.

Key U.S. Officials in New Delhi

Deputy Chief of Mission
Matthew P. Daley

Political Officer
Nancy J. Powell

Economic Officer
Douglas A. Hartwick

Commercial Officer
Jonathan M. Bensky

Consular Officer
Edwin P. Cubbison

Administrative Officer
William C. Kelly, Jr.

Public Affairs Officer
Thomas A. Homan

Regional Security Officer
Robert R. Brand, Jr.

Withdrawal/Redaction Marker
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DOCUMENT NO. AND TYPE	SUBJECT/TITLE	DATE	RESTRICTION
003. report	RE: United States Report (1 page)	01/04/1995	P1/b(1)

COLLECTION:
Clinton Presidential Records
First Lady's Office
Karen Finney (Press Office)
OA/Box Number: 11104

FOLDER TITLE:
[Advance of First Lady Hillary Rodham Clinton to Pakistan, India, Nepal, Bangladesh, and Sri Lanka, March 1995] [loose]

2015-0734-S
db3874

RESTRICTION CODES

Presidential Records Act - [44 U.S.C. 2204(a)]

P1 National Security Classified Information [(a)(1) of the PRA]
P2 Relating to the appointment to Federal office [(a)(2) of the PRA]
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P4 Release would disclose trade secrets or confidential commercial or financial information [(a)(4) of the PRA]
P5 Release would disclose confidential advice between the President and his advisors, or between such advisors [a)(5) of the PRA]
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005. report	RE: United States Report (1 page)	03/22/1994	P1/b(1)

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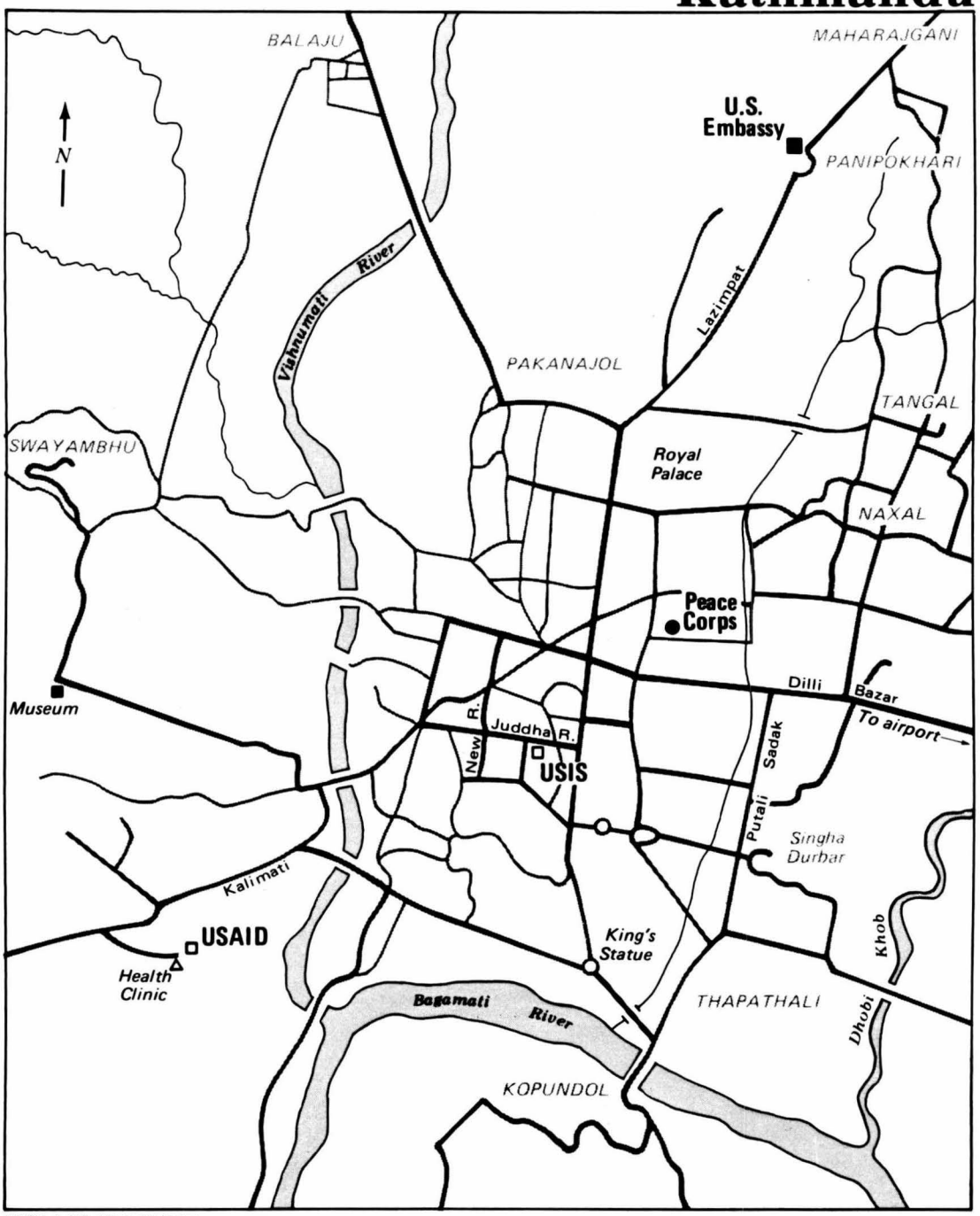
NEPAL

Kathmandu



5905 1-85 STATE(GE)

Nepalese Rupee Conversion Table at Rs 49 = U.S. $

Rupee to U.S. Dollars		U.S. Dollars to Rupee	
Rupee	**U.S. $**	**U.S. $**	**Rupee**
5.00	0.10	0.10	4.90
10.00	0.20	0.25	12.25
20.00	0.41	0.50	24.50
30.00	0.61	0.75	36.75
49.00	1.00	1.00	49.00
100.00	2.04	3.00	147.00
200.00	4.08	5.00	245.00
300.00	6.12	10.00	490.00
500.00	10.20	20.00	980.00
1,000.00	20.41	50.00	2,450.00
2,000.00	40.82	100.00	4,900.00
3,000.00	61.22	300.00	14,700.00
5,000.00	102.04	500.00	24,500.00

NOTE: All U.S. dollar values are rounded to the nearest U.S. cent. The value of the Nepalese Rupee fluctuates daily according to currency market conditions.

March 1995

U. S. Department of State
Bureau of Consular Affairs
Washington, DC 20520
For recorded travel information, call 202-647-5225.
To access the Consular Affairs Bulletin Board, call 202-647-9225.
For information by fax, call 202-647-3000 from your fax machine.

Consular Information Sheet

Nepal

September 8, 1994

Country Description: Nepal is a developing country with extensive facilities for tourists; facilities vary in quality according to price and location.

Entry Requirements: A passport and visa are required. A tourist visa for a stay of up to 60 days is issued at ports of entry upon arrival. The fee for the tourist visa varies with the number of entries and duration of stay requested. Visas can be routinely extended in Kathmandu and Pokhari for stays of up to four months; a fifth month requires special approval. Penalties for overstaying a visa may include fines and imprisonment. Travelers can obtain additional information by contacting the Royal Nepalese Embassy at 2131 Leroy Place, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20008, telephone (202) 657-4550 or the Consulate General in New York at telephone (212) 370-4188.

Areas of Instability: Public demonstrations and strikes are popular forms of political expression in Nepal and may occur from time to time on short notice. These demonstrations are usually nonviolent and not directed towards foreigners. During general strikes, many businesses are closed, and transportation and city services are sometimes disrupted.

Medical Facilities: Medical care is extremely limited. Any serious illness may require evacuation to the nearest adequate medical facility (usually Bangkok). Doctors and hospitals expect immediate cash payment for health services. In general, U.S. medical insurance is not valid in Nepal. Supplemental health insurance which specifically covers overseas treatment and evacuation to the nearest adequate medical facility is useful. Additional information on health problems can be obtained from the Centers for Disease Control's international travelers hotline at [404] 332-4559.

Information on Crime: Petty crime, especially theft of personal property, is common. While acts of violent crime in Nepal are rare, several attacks against lone foreign trekkers have been reported. The loss or theft of a U.S. passport abroad should be reported immediately to local police and the nearest U.S. embassy or consulate. Useful information on safeguarding valuables, protecting personal security and other matters while traveling abroad is provided in the Department of State pamphlets, "A Safe Trip Abroad" and "Tips for Travelers to South Asia." They are available from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402.

Drug Penalties: U.S. citizens are subject to the laws and legal practices of the countries in which they are traveling. Penalties for possession, use or trafficking in illegal drugs are strictly enforced. Convicted offenders can expect jail sentences and fines.

Border Areas: There have been sporadic reports of difficulties in crossing the border from Nepal to Tibet by land. U.S. citizens planning to travel into Tibet overland from Nepal may contact the U.S. Embassy in Kathmandu for current information on the status of the border crossing points.

Registration: U.S. citizens who register at the U.S. Embassy in Kathmandu can obtain updated information on travel and security in Nepal.

Embassy Location: The U.S. Embassy in Nepal is located at Pani Pokhari in Kathmandu, telephone (977) (1) 411179, 412718, 411613 or 413890.

No. 94-216

This replaces the Consular Information Sheet dated July 26, 1994, to add information on Areas of Instability.

background notes

Nepal

January 1995

Official Name: Kingdom of Nepal

PROFILE

Geography

Area: 147,181 sq. km. (56,136 sq. mi.); about the size and shape of Tennessee, bordering China and India. *Cities:* Capital—Kathmandu (pop. 600,000). *Other cities*—Biratnagar, Patan, Pokhara, Birganj, Dharan, Nepalganj
Terrain: Flat and fertile in the southern Terai region; terraced cultivation and swiftly flowing mountain rivers in the central hills; and the high Himalayas in the north. Eight of the world's ten highest peaks are in Nepal. Kathmandu, the capital, is in a broad valley at 1,310 meters (4,300 ft.) elevation.
Climate/Time Zone: Subtropical in the south to cool summers and severe winters in the northern mountains. The monsoon season is from June through September and brings 75 to 150 centimeters (30-60 in.) of rain. Showers occur almost every day. Nepal is 10 hours and 45 minutes ahead of Eastern Standard Time and does not observe daylight saving time.

People

Nationality: *Noun*—Nepalese (sing. and pl.). *Adjective*—Nepalese or Nepali.
Population (1993 est.): 19 million.
Annual growth rate: 2.5%.
Ethnic groups (caste and ethnicity are often used interchangeably): Brahman, Chetri, Newar, Gurung, Magar, Tamang, Rai, Limbu, Sherpa, Tharu, and others.
Religions: Hinduism (86.2%), Buddhism (7.8%), Islam (3.8%) and others (2.2%).
Languages: Nepali and more than 12 others.
Education: *Years compulsory*—0. *Attendance*—primary 81%, secondary 30%. *Literacy*—38% (52% male, 18% female).
Health: *Infant mortality rate*—102/1,000. *Life expectancy*—54 yrs. (male), 52 yrs. (female).
Work Force: *Agriculture*—81%. *Industry*—3%. *Services*—11%. *Other*—5%.

Government

Type: Parliamentary Democracy and Constitutional Monarchy.
Constitution: November 9, 1990.
Branches: *Executive*—prime minister (head of government), king (head of state). *Legislative*—Parliament consisting of House of Representatives (Lower House: 205 members) and National Assembly (Upper House: 60 members). *Judicial*—Supreme Court, 11 appellate courts, 75 district courts.
Subdivisions: 5 development regions, 14 zones and 75 districts.
Political parties (Lower House representation): United Marxist-Leninist (Communist Party of Nepal), Nepali Congress Party, National Democratic Party, others.
Elections: At least every five years.
Suffrage: Universal over 18.
Central government budget (1994): $854 million.
Defense/Police (1994): $114 million
National Day: Democracy Day, Falgun 7 (mid-February).
Flag: Two blue-edged red triangles pointing away from staff, with symbols of the sun and moon in white.

Economy

GDP (1994-est.): $4.1 billion.
Annual growth rate: 6%.
Per capita income: $200.
Avg. inflation rate (1993-94): 9.6%.
Natural resources: Water, hydropower, scenic beauty, limited but fertile agricultural land, timber.
Agriculture (42% of GDP): *Products*—rice, wheat, maize, sugarcane, oilseed, jute, millet, potatoes. *Land*—25% cultivated.
Industry (20% of GDP): *Types*—carpets, garments, cement, cigarettes, bricks, sugar, soap, matches, jute, hydroelectric power.
Trade (1994-est.): *Exports*—$460 million: carpets, garments. *Major markets*—Germany, U.S. *Imports*—$1.3 million: manufactured goods. *Major supplier*—India.
Official exchange rate (December 1994): 49 Nepalese rupees=US$1.00.
Fiscal Year: July 16-July 15. ■

United States Department of State
Bureau of Public Affairs
Office of Public Communication

PEOPLE

Perched on the southern slopes of the Himalayan Mountains, the Kingdom of Nepal is as ethnically diverse as its terrain of fertile plains, broad valleys, and the highest mountain peaks in the world. The Nepalese are descendants of three major migrations from India, Tibet, and Central Asia. Among the earliest inhabitants were the Newars of the Kathmandu Valley and aboriginal Tharus in the southern Terai region. The ancestors of the Brahman and Chetri caste groups came from India, while other ethnic groups trace their origins to central Asia and Tibet, including the Gurungs and Magars in the west, Rais and Limbus in the east, and Sherpas and Bhotias in the north.

In the Terai, a part of the Ganges Basin with 20% of the land, much of the population is physically and culturally similar to the Indo-Aryan people of northern India. People of Indo-Aryan and Mongoloid stock live in the hill region. The mountainous highlands are sparsely populated. Kathmandu Valley, in the middle hill region, constitutes a small fraction of the nation's area but is the most densely populated, with almost 5% of the population.

Religion is important in Nepal—Kathmandu Valley has more than 2,700 religious shrines alone. Nepal is 90% Hindu, the official state religion. Hinduism, however, has synthesized with Buddhism in Nepal. As a result, Buddhist and Hindu shrines and festivals are respected and celebrated by all. Nepal also has small Muslim and Christian minorities. Certain animistic practices of old indigenous religions survive.

Nepali is the official language, although a dozen different languages and about 30 major dialects are spoken throughout the country. Derived from Sanskrit, Nepali is related to the Indian language, Hindi, and is spoken by about 90% of the population. Many Nepalese in government and business also speak English.

HISTORY

Modern Nepal was created in the latter half of the 18th century when Prithvi Narayan Shah, the ruler of the small principality of Gorkha, formed a unified country from a number of independent hill states. The country was frequently called the Gorkha Kingdom, the source of the term "Gurkha" used for Nepalese soldiers.

After 1800, the heirs of Prithvi Narayan Shah proved unable to maintain firm political control over Nepal. A period of internal turmoil followed, heightened by Nepal's defeat in a war with the British from 1814 to 1816. Stability was restored after 1846 when the Rana family gained power, entrenched itself through hereditary prime ministers, and reduced the monarch to a figurehead. The Rana regime, a tightly centralized autocracy, pursued a policy of isolating Nepal from external influences. This policy helped Nepal maintain its national independence during the colonial era, but it also impeded the country's economic development.

In 1950, King Tribhuvan, a direct descendant of Prithvi Narayan Shah, fled his "palace prison" to newly independent India, touching off an armed revolt against the Rana administration. This allowed the return of the Shah family to power and, eventually, the appointment of a non-Rana as prime minister. A period of quasi-constitutional rule followed, during which the monarch, assisted by the leaders of fledgling political parties, governed the country. During the 1950s, efforts were made to frame a constitution for Nepal that would establish a representative form of government, based on a British model.

Democracy Develops

In early 1959, King Mahendra issued a new constitution and the first democratic elections for a national assembly were held. The Nepali Congress Party, a moderate socialist group, gained a substantial victory in the election. Its leader, B.P. Koirala, formed a government and served as prime minister.

Declaring parliamentary democracy a failure 18 months later, King Mahendra dismissed the Koirala government and promulgated a new constitution on December 16, 1962. The new constitution established a "partyless" system of *panchayats* (councils) which King Mahendra considered to be a democratic form of government closer to Nepalese traditions. As a pyramidal structure progressing from village assemblies to a *Rastriya Panchayat* (National Parliament), the *panchayat* system enshrined the absolute power of the monarchy and kept the King as head of state with sole authority over all governmental institutions, including the Cabinet (Council of Ministers) and the parliament.

King Mahendra was succeeded by his 27 year-old son, King Birendra, in 1972. Amid student demonstrations and anti-regime activities in 1979, King Birendra called for a national referendum to decide on the nature of Nepal's government—either the continuation of the *panchayat* system with democratic reforms or the establishment of a multiparty system. The referendum was held in May 1980, and the *panchayat* system won a narrow victory. The king carried out the promised reforms, including selection of the prime minister by the *Rastriya Panchayat*.

Movement To Restore Democracy

In 1990, the political parties again pressed the king and the government for change. Leftist parties united under a common banner of the United Left Front and joined forces with the Nepali Congress Party to launch strikes and demonstrations in the major cities of Nepal. This "Movement to Restore Democracy" was initially dealt with severely, with more than 50 persons killed by police gunfire and hundreds arrested. In April, the king capitulated. Consequently, he dissolved the *panchayat* system, lifted the ban on political parties, and released all political prisoners.

An interim government was sworn in on April 19, 1990, headed by Krishna Prasad Bhattarai as prime minister presiding over a cabinet made up of members of the Nepali Congress Party, the communist parties of Nepal, royal appointees and independents.

The new government drafted and promulgated a new constitution in November 1990, which enshrined fundamental human rights and established Nepal as a parliamentary democracy under a constitutional monarch. International observers characterized the May 1991 elections as free and fair in which the Nepali Congress won 110 seats out of 205 to form the government. The largest opposition, the United Marxist and Leninist Party (UML), won 69 seats. Girija Prasad Koirala became prime minister and formed the government.

In May/June of 1992 the structure of Nepal's new democratic government was completed following local elections in which the Nepali Congress Party scored a convincing victory.

GOVERNMENT AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

Nepal is a constitutional monarchy with a democratic, parliamentary form of government that is multiethnic, multilingual, Hindu, and retains the king in the role of head of state. The former "partyless" *panchayat* system of government was abolished in April 1990 (see "Movement to Restore Democracy.").

The 1994 election defeat of the Nepali Congress Party by the UML has made Nepal the world's first Communist monarchy. The politically-moderate UML also was a champion of multiparty democracy during the years of struggle, and has supported the country's free-market reforms. Man Mohan Adhikary, 72, the president of the Communist Party who spent 17 years in prison for fighting to restore democracy, is the new prime minister.

The Communist Party formed a minority government in December 1994. The new Government's major policy statements call for continued, if somewhat slower, economic liberalization and privatization of state enterprises, land reform, and the establishment of a Human Rights Commission.

Political parties agreed in 1991 that the monarchy would remain to enhance political stability and provide an important symbol of national identity for the culturally diverse Nepali people.

Nepal's judiciary is legally separate from the executive and legislative branches and has increasingly shown the will to be independent of political influence. The judiciary has the right of judicial review under the constitution. The king appoints the chief justice and all other judges to the supreme, appellate, and district courts upon the recommendation of the judicial council. All lower court decisions, including acquittals, are subject to appeal. The Supreme Court is the court of last appeal. The king may grant pardons and may suspend, commute, or remit any sentence by any court.

There are hundreds of small privately-owned newspapers in addition to the two state-owned newspapers. Views expressed since the 1990 move to democracy are extremely varied and vigorous. Radio and television media remain state owned and normally follow the views of the government. The law strictly forbids the media to criticize or satirize the king or any member of the royal family.

Principal Government Officials

King—Birendra Bir Bikram Shah Devi
Queen—Aishwarya Rajya Laxmi Devi Shah

Cabinet Ministers—
Prime Minister, Royal Palace Affairs—Man Mohan Adhikary
Deputy Prime Minister, Foreign Affairs and Defense—Madhav Kumar Nepal
Home Affairs—Khadga Prasad Sharma Oli
Finance—Bharat Mohan Adhikary
Local Development and Supply—Chandra Prakash Mainali
Agriculture, Land Reforms and Management—Radha Krishna Mainali
Education, Culture and Social Welfare—Modnath Prashit
Information and Communications—Pradip Kumar Nepal
Labour and Health—Padma Ratna Tuladhar

Ambassador to the United States—Pradeep Khatiwada, Charge d'Affairs
Ambassador to the United Nations—Vacant

Nepal maintains an embassy in the United States at 2131 Leroy Place, NW, Washington, DC 20008 (tel. 202-667-4550; fax: 202-667-5534). The Nepalese Mission to the United Nations is at 300 E. 46th Street, New York, NY 10017.

ECONOMY

Nepal ranks among the world's poorest countries with a per capita income of under $200. An isolated, agrarian society until the mid-20th century, Nepal entered the modern era in 1951 without schools, hospitals, roads, telecommunications, electric power, industry, or civil service. The country has, however, made progress toward sustainable economic growth since the 1950s and is committed to a program of economic liberalization: Nepal has completed seven economic development plans and began its eighth in 1991; its currency was recently made convertible, and a number of state enterprises have been earmarked for privatization. Government priorities over the years have been the development of transportation and communication facilities, agriculture, and industry. Since 1975, improved government administration and rural development efforts have been emphasized.

Agriculture remains Nepal's principal economic activity, employing 81% of the population and providing almost half of the country's income. Only about 20% of the total area is cultivable; another 33% is forested; most of the rest is mountainous. Rice and wheat are the main food crops. The lowland Terai region produces an agricultural surplus, part of which supplies the food-deficient hill areas.

Economic development in social services and infrastructure have made progress. A countrywide primary education system is under development and Tribhuvan University has several campuses. Although eradication efforts continue, malaria had been controlled in the fertile but previously uninhabitable Terai region in the south. Kathmandu is linked to India and nearby hill regions by road and an expanding highway network. Major towns are connected to the capital by telephone and domestic air services. A system of internal finance and public administration has been established. The export-oriented carpet and garment industries have grown rapidly in recent years and together now account for some 80% of merchandise exports.

Nepal's merchandise trade balance has improved somewhat in recent years with the growth of the carpet and garment industries. The trade deficit steadily rose in the early 1990s, fueled by the results of trade disputes with India and erratic monsoons. Despite a rapid increase in manufactured exports during the past five years, particularly carpets and garments, imports have increased even faster and trade deficit has accordingly climbed from $432 million in 1992 to $687 million in 1993 and may reach $840 million in 1994.

The annual monsoon rain or lack of it strongly influences economic growth. Real GDP growth fell from 6% in 1990 to 3% in 1992 and 1993 before recovering to 8% in 1994.

Strong export performance, including earnings from tourism, and external aid have helped improve the overall balance of payments situation and increase international reserves. Nepal receives substantial amounts of external assistance from India, the People's Republic of China, the United Kingdom, the United States, Japan, and Germany. Several multilateral organizations, such as the World Bank, the Asian Development Bank, and the UN Development Program also provide assistance. By 1994, Nepal had foreign exchange reserves equal to eight months of imports.

Progress has been made in exploiting Nepal's major economic resources—tourism and hydroelectricity. With eight of the world's ten highest mountain peaks—including Mt. Everest at 8,800 m (29,000 ft)—hiking, mountain climbing, and other tourism is growing. Swift rivers flowing south through the Himalayas have massive hydroelectricity potential to service domestic needs and the growing demand from India. The two countries have joint irrigation-hydroelectric projects on the Kosi, Trisuli, and Gandaki rivers. Several other hydroelectric projects, at Kulekhani and Marsyangdi, have been completed; still others are planned. The environmental impact of Nepal's hydroelectric projects (HEP) has been limited by the fact that most are "run-of-river" with no water storage. The largest under active consideration is the controversial Arun III 201 megawatt project. A national electricity grid is in place and consumption is increasing at 15% to 20% a year.

Population pressure on natural resources is increasing. At current rates of growth, Nepal's population will reach 20-22 million by the turn of the century. Over-population is already straining the "carrying capacity" of the middle hill areas, particularly the Kathmandu Valley, resulting in the depletion of forest cover for crops, fuel, and fodder and contributing to erosion and flooding. Although steep mountain terrain makes exploitation difficult, mineral surveys have found small deposits of limestone, magnesite, zinc, copper, iron, mica, lead, and cobalt.

DEFENSE

Nepal's military consists of an army of about 35,000 troops organized into a royal guards brigade, seven infantry brigades, a special forces unit, an air wing, four support brigades (logistics, engineer, signal, and artillery), and 44 independent infantry companies. Training assistance is provided by India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, and the United Kingdom. U.S. training assistance is provided via an annual $100,000 International Military Education and Training Program (IMET) grant.

The Royal Nepalese Army has served with distinction in numerous UN peacekeeping missions and currently has contingents deployed with the UN Interim Force in Lebanon (UNIFIL), the UN Protective Force (UNPROFOR), and in Somalia with UNOSOM II. Nepalese troops have fought in the British army since 1814 and for the Indian army since 1947, which inherited some of the British army's regiments at independence. Agreements allowing the British and Indians to recruit in Nepal still exist.

HUMAN RIGHTS

Progress has been achieved in the transition to a more open society and greater respect for human rights since political reform began in 1990; however, substantial problems remain. Poorly trained police forces often use indiscriminate force in quelling leftist-inspired protests. In addition, there have been reports of torture under detention and widespread reports of custodial abuse. The Government's unwillingness to investigate or enforce accountability for recent and past abuses remains a concern. Some restrictions continue on freedom of expression. Trafficking in women and child labor remain serious problems. Discrimination against women and lower castes is prevalent.

FOREIGN RELATIONS

As a small, landlocked country wedged between two larger and far stronger powers, Nepal seeks good relations with both India and China. Nepal formally established relations with China in 1956 and since then their bilateral relations have generally been very good. Because of strong cultural, religious, linguistic, and economic ties, Nepal's association with India traditionally has been closer than with China. India and Nepal restored trade relations in 1990, after a break caused by India's security concerns over Nepal's relations with China. The two countries have since undertaken renegotiations regarding trade and transit terms.

Nepal has played an active role in the formation of the economic development-oriented South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC) and is the site of its secretariat. On international issues, Nepal follows a non-aligned policy and often votes with the Non-aligned Movement in the United Nations. The country also participates in a number of UN specialized agencies and is a member of the World Bank, International Monetary Fund, Colombo Plan, and the Asian Development Bank.

U.S.-NEPALESE RELATIONS

The United States established official relations with Nepal in 1947 and opened its Kathmandu embassy in 1959. Relations between the two countries have always been friendly. U.S. policy objectives toward Nepal include supporting democratic institutions and economic liberalization, promoting peace and stability in South Asia, supporting Nepalese independence and territorial integrity, and the alleviation of poverty.

The United States has provided more than $500 million in bilateral economic assistance to Nepal since 1951. In recent years, annual bilateral U.S. economic assistance through the Agency for International Development (AID) has averaged $15 million. AID supports agriculture, health, family planning, environmental, democratization, and economic liberalization efforts in Nepal. The United States also contributes to international institutions and private voluntary organizations working in Nepal. Multilateral contributions to date approach an additional $500 million, including humanitarian assistance. The Peace Corps operation in Nepal—established in 1962 and one of the largest in the world—has projects in agriculture, education, health, and other rural programs. About 140 Peace Corps volunteers work in Nepal.

Principal U.S. Officials

Ambassador—
Sandy Vogelgesang
Deputy Chief of Mission—
Peter Bodde
Counselor for Administrative Affairs—William Campbell
AID Director—Frederick Machmer
Peace Corps Director—
Donovan Russell
Political and Economic Officer—
Peter S. Gadzinski
Economic and Commercial Officer—
Craig Arness
Consular Officer—Rehka Arness
Public Affairs Officer—
David A. Queen

The U.S. embassy in Nepal is located in Pani Pokhari, Kathmandu (tel: [977] (1) 411179. Fax: [977] (1) 419963). The U.S. Agency for International Development is located at the embassy (tel: [977] (1) 411179. Fax: [977] (1) 272357.

Travel Notes

Travel Information: The U.S. Department of State's Consular Information Program provides a variety of timely information of interest to travelers, including Travel Warnings and Consular Information Sheets on all the countries of the world plus helpful advice on enjoying your trip abroad. The can be obtained at no cost by telephone at (202) 647-5225 or by fax at (202) 647-3000. Travel information is also on-line: access the Consular Affairs Bulletin Board at (202) 647-9225, by modem with standard settings.

Travel Warnings are issued when the Department recommends that Americans avoid travel to a certain country. Information Sheets exist for all countries and cover immigration practices, currency regulations, health conditions, areas of instability, crime and security information, political disturbances, and the addresses of the U.S. embassies and consulates in the country.

Health Information: Travelers can check the latest information on health requirements and conditions in a country with the U.S. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention in Atlanta, Georgia. Call the Hotline at (404) 332-4559 for telephonic or fax information on the most recent health advisories, immunization recommendations or requirements, and other advice concerning your destination. No immunizations are required for entry to Nepal. Gamma globulin is recommended for all areas. Malaria suppressants are recommended for areas below 4,000 ft. in altitude. Protection against polio, typhus, and meningitis is suggested.

Tourism: Contact your travel agent or the Embassy of Nepal at 2131 Leroy Place, NW, Washington, DC 20008 (tel. 202-667-4550) for further information. ❑

FURTHER INFORMATION

Most of the following information resources are available free at public and Federal depository libraries in the United States or for a fee from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, P.O. Box 37194, Pittsburgh, PA 15250-7954. To order, call (202) 512-1800 or fax: (202) 512-2250.

U.S. Department of State. *U.S. Department of State Dispatch.* Weekly magazine.

U.S. Department of State. *Department of State Foreign Affairs Network (DOSFAN).* A new service on the Internet providing timely, global access to official U.S. foreign policy information. Updated daily. Accessible three ways:

Gopher: dosfan.lib.uic.edu
URL: gopher://dosfan.lib.uic.edu/
WWW: http://dosfan.lib.uic.edu/dosfan.html.

U.S. Department of State. *U.S. Foreign Affairs on CD-ROM, 1990-1994.* New quarterly foreign policy library with more than 4,000 official documents and publications.

U.S. Department of State. *Consular Affairs Bulletin Board*—a free electronic bulletin board service, available by modem: (202) 647-9225.

American University. *Area Handbook for Nepal, Bhutan, and Sikkim.*

U.S. Embassy of Nepal. *Doing Business in Nepal,* December 1994. Available directly from the Bureau of South Asian Affairs (SA/INS), U.S. Department of State (tel. (202) 647-2351) and from the U.S. Embassy in Kathmandu at Pani Pokhari, Kathmandu (tel: [977] (1) 411179. Fax: [977] (1) 419963).

International Trade Administration. "Nepal." *Country Commercial Guides.* Annual. Also available from the U.S. Department of Commerce.

U.S. Department of State. *Key Officers of Foreign Service Posts: Guide for Business Representatives.* Biannual.

U.S. Department of Commerce: *National Trade Data Bank* on the Internet (gopher.stat-usa.gov) and on CD-ROM. Call the NTDB Help-Line at (202) 482-1986 for more information. ■

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For sale by the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, P.O. Box 37194, Pittsburgh, PA 15250-7954. To order, call (202) 512-1800 or fax: (202) 512-2250.

Sandra L. Vogelgesang
U.S. Ambassador to Nepal

Dr. Vogelgesang was sworn in as Ambassador to Nepal in February 1994. She is a veteran diplomat and has focused throughout her career on a wide range of global, economic, and multilateral issues.

She served as Senior Policy Advisor to the Administrator of the Agency for International Development and as a senior member of the Secretary of State's:, special task force on post-Cold War priorities for U.S. foreign policy. She has also been Principal Deputy Assistant Administrator for International Activities at the Environmental Protection Agency and Deputy Assistant of State for the Bureau of International Organization Affairs.

Ambassador Vogelgesang was a member of the Policy Planning Staff for Secretaries of State Kissinger and Vance and was Deputy for Policy Planning for the former Soviet Union and East and West Europe. She has also served as Economic Minister at the U.S. Embassy in Canada and as Director of the Department's Office for Regional Political-Economic Affairs in the Bureau of European Affairs. She has held positions in the Bureau of Economic and Business Affairs and at the U.S. Embassy in Helsinki.

Dr. Vogelgesang's awards include three Presidential Meritorious and five Senior Foreign Service Performance Awards. She has written extensively on foreign policy. Two of her books include: *American Dream/Global Nightmare: the Dilemma of U.S. Human Rights Policy* and *The Long Dark Night of the Soul: the American Intellectual Left and the Vietnam War.*

She was born in Ohio in July 1942. She earned a B.A. from Cornell University and a Ph.D. from the Fletcher School of Law and Diplomacy. She is married to Geoffrey E. Wolfe. They have two children, Christopher and Carolyn.

Key U.S. Officials in Kathmandu

Deputy Chief of Mission
Peter W. Bodde

Political/Economic Officer
Peter S. Gadzinski

Commercial Officer
Craig Arness

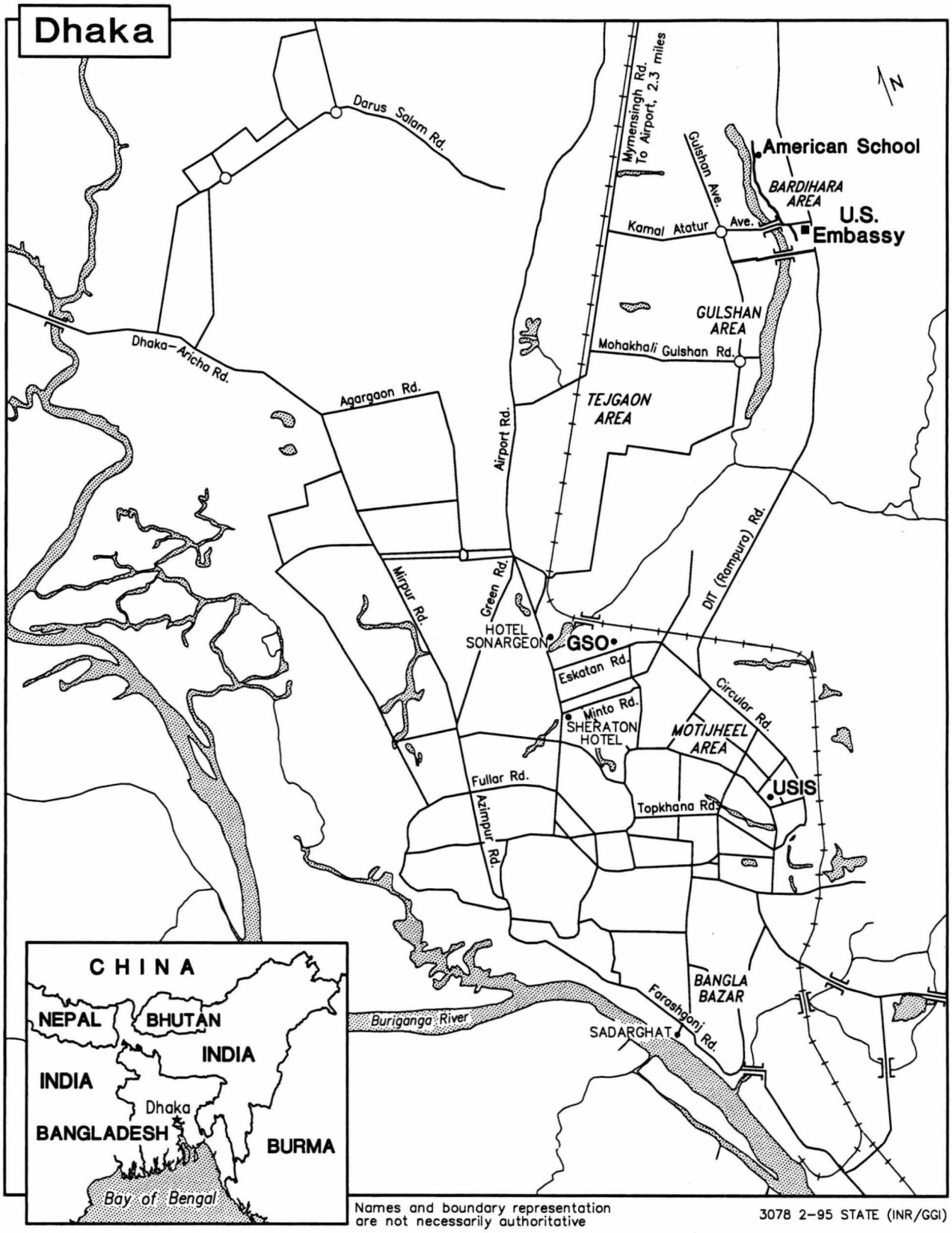
Consular Officer
Rekha Arness

Administrative Officer
Dirk Richards (Acting)

Public Affairs Officer
David. A. Queen

Regional Security Officer
Eric Levine

BANGLADESH



Names and boundary representation are not necessarily authoritative

3078 2–95 STATE (INR/GGI)

Bangladesh Taka Conversion Table at Tk 40 = U.S. $

Taka to U.S. Dollars		U.S. Dollars to Taka	
Taka	**U.S. $**	**U.S. $**	**Taka**
10.00	0.25	0.10	4.00
15.00	0.38	0.25	10.00
20.00	0.50	0.50	20.00
30.00	0.75	0.75	30.00
40.00	1.00	1.00	40.00
200.00	5.00	3.00	120.00
500.00	12.50	5.00	200.00
1,000.00	25.00	10.00	400.00
3,000.00	75.00	20.00	800.00
5,000.00	125.00	50.00	2,000.00
10,000.00	250.00	100.00	4,000.00
20,000.00	500.00	300.00	12,000.00

NOTE: All U.S. dollar values are rounded to the nearest U.S. cent. The value of the Bangladesh Taka fluctuates daily according to currency market conditions.

March 1995

U. S. Department of State
Bureau of Consular Affairs
Washington, DC 20520
For recorded travel information, call 202-647-5225.
To access the Consular Affairs Bulletin Board, call 202-647-9225.
For information by fax, call 202-647-3000 from your fax machine.

Consular Information Sheet

Bangladesh

September 2, 1994

Country Description: Bangladesh has a developing economy. Tourist facilities outside major cities and tourist areas are minimal.

Entry Requirements: A passport and onward/return ticket are required. A visa is not required for a tourist stay of up to 14 days, and visitors can obtain a no-fee landing permit upon arrival for that period. However, visitors who overstay their landing permit or visa validity period may be charged a fine for each day of overstay. Further information on entry requirements can be obtained from the Embassy of the People's Republic of Bangladesh, 2201 Wisconsin Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20007, telephone (202) 342-8373, or the Bangladesh consulate in New York, located at 211 E. 43rd Street, Suite 502, New York, N.Y., 10017.

Areas of Instability: Public demonstrations, marches and labor strikes are widely-used means of political expression in Bangladesh, and violence is common during these events. Clashes between rival political groups have resulted in deaths and injuries to Bangladeshis. Particularly violent incidents have occurred on university campuses.

Medical Facilities: Medical facilities in Bangladesh are not adequate even in tourist areas. Doctors and hospitals often expect immediate cash payment for health services. U.S. medical insurance is not always valid outside the United States. Supplemental health insurance which specifically covers overseas treatment has proved to be useful. It is also useful to have medical evacuation insurance that covers the high cost of emergency air evacuation to another country with better medical facilities. Additional information on health problems can be obtained from the Centers for Disease Control's international travelers hotline at (404) 332-4559.

Information on Crime: The crime situation in Dhaka is worsening and there are increasing reports of crimes involving weapons. Foreigners have not been especially targeted, but are increasingly victims of crime. The loss or theft of a U.S. passport abroad should be reported immediately to local police and the nearest U.S. embassy or consulate. Useful information on safeguarding valuables, protecting personal security, and other matters while traveling is provided in the Department of State pamphlets, "A Safe Trip Abroad" and "Tips for Travelers to South Asia." They are available from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402.

Drug Penalties: Travelers are subject to the laws and legal practices of the countries in which they travel. Penalties for possession, use or trafficking in illegal drugs are very strict in Bangladesh. The death penalty or life imprisonment can be imposed for some drug-related crimes. At a minimum, convicted offenders can expect jail sentences and fines.

Civil Aviation Oversight: In February 1993, the U.S. Federal Aviation Administration assessed Bangladesh's civil aviation authority as in compliance with international aviation safety oversight standards for Bangladeshi carriers operating to and from the U.S. The same level of safety oversight would typically be applied to operations to other destinations. For further information, travelers may contact the Department of Transportation at 1-800-322-7873.

Registration: U.S. citizens who register at the U.S. Embassy in Dhaka can obtain updated information on travel and security within Bangladesh.

Embassy Location: The U.S. Embassy is located at the Diplomatic Enclave, Madani Avenue, Baridhara, Dhaka, telephone (880-2) 884700-22.

No. 94-180

This replaces the Consular Information Sheet dated June 28, 1994 to add information on aviation oversight.

background notes

Bangladesh

December 1992

Official Name: People's Republic of Bangladesh

PROFILE

Geography

Area: 143,998 sq. km. (55,813 sq. mi., about the size of Wisconsin). **Cities:** *Capital*—Dhaka (pop. 7 million). *Other cities*—Chittagong (2.8 million), Khulna (1.8 million), Rajshahi (1 million). **Terrain:** Mainly flat alluvial plain, with hills in the southeast. **Climate:** Semi-tropical, monsoon.

People

Nationality: *Noun and adjective*—Bangladeshi(s). **Population** (1991): 116 million. **Annual growth rate:** 2.4%. **Ethnic groups:** Bengali 98%, tribals, non-Bengali Muslims. **Religions:** Muslim 83%; Hindu 16%; Christian, Buddhist, others 1%. **Languages:** Bangla (official, also known as Bengali), English. **Education:** *Attendance*—73% (primary school), 26% (secondary school). *Literacy*—47% for males; 22% for females. **Health** (1991): *Life expectancy*—54 yrs. male, 52 yrs. female. **Work force** (35 million): *Agriculture*—74%. *Services*—15%. *Industry*—11%.

Government

Type: Parliamentary democracy. **Independence** (in present form): 1971. **Constitution:** 1972 (as amended).

Branches: *Executive*—prime minister, president. *Legislative*—unicameral parliament (330 members). *Judicial*—civil court system on British model.

Administrative subdivisions: divisions, districts, subdistricts, unions, villages.

Political parties: 30-40 active political parties. Only 4 parties have more than 10 members in the current parliament: the Bangladesh Nationalist Party (BNP), the Awami League (AL), the Jamaat-E-Islami (JI), and the Jatiyo Party (JP). **Suffrage:** Universal at 18.

Flag: Red circle on dark green field.

Economy

GDP (1991): $23 billion. **Real annual growth rate** (1991): 3.6%. **Per capita GDP:** $198.

Natural resources: Natural gas, water.

Agriculture (37% of GDP): *Products*—rice, jute, tea, sugar, wheat.

Industry (17% of GDP): *Types*—jute goods, garments, frozen shrimp, textiles, fertilizer, sugar, tea, leather, metal re-processing, pharmaceuticals, newsprint.

Trade (1991): *Exports*—$1.7 billion: ready-made garments, jute goods, leather, frozen fish, shrimp, raw jute, tea. *Exports to US* (1991 est.)—$515 million. *Imports*—$3.5 billion: capital goods, foodgrains, petroleum, consumer goods, fertilizer, chemicals, vegetable oils, textiles. *Imports from US* (1991 est.)—$140 million.

Official exchange rate (1992): Taka 39=US$1. ■

United States Department of State
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Office of Public Communication

Vol. IV, No. 3

PEOPLE

Bangladesh, or "Bengal Nation," is the most densely populated agricultural country in the world. With a per capita gross domestic product of $198 (1991), it is also one of the poorest. Bangladesh's 116 million people are concentrated in an area about the size of Wisconsin. Its population growth rate is currently estimated at 2.4% annually; a conservative estimate projects a population of 140 million by the year 2000. At present, 44% of the population is under 15 years of age. Urbanization is proceeding rapidly, and it is estimated that only 30% of the population entering the labor force in the future will be absorbed into agriculture, although many will likely find other kinds of work in rural areas. The areas around the capital city, Dhaka, and around Comilla are the most densely settled. The Sundarbans, an area of thick tropical jungle inland from the coastline on the Bay of Bengal, and the Chittagong Hill Tracts on the southeastern border with Burma and India, are the least densely populated areas.

About 98% of Bangladeshis are ethnic Bengali and speak Bangla. Urdu-speaking, non-Bengali Muslims of Indian origin and various tribal groups, mostly in the Chittagong Hill Tracts, comprise the remainder. Most Bangladeshis (about 83%) are Muslims, but Hindus constitute a sizable (16%) minority. There are also a small number of Buddhists, Christians, and animists. English is spoken in urban areas and among the educated.

HISTORY

The area which is now Bangladesh has a rich historical and cultural past, the product of the repeated influx of varied peoples, bringing with them the Dravidian, Indo-Aryan, Mongol-Mughul, Arab, Persian, Turkic, and European cultures. About 1200 A.D., Muslim invaders under Sufi influence, supplanted Hindu and Buddhist dynasties, and converted most of the population of the eastern areas of Bengal to Islam. Since then, Islam has played a crucial role in the region's history and politics. In the 16th century, Bengal was absorbed into the Mughul Empire.

Portuguese traders and missionaries reached Bengal in the latter part of the 15th century. They were followed by representatives of the Dutch, the French, and the British East India Companies. During the 18th and 19th centuries, especially after the defeat of the French in 1757, the British gradually extended their commercial contacts and administrative control beyond Calcutta into the remainder of Bengal and northwesterly up the Ganges River valley. In 1859, the British Crown replaced the East India Company, extending British dominion from Bengal in the east to the Indus River in the west.

In the late 19th and early 20th centuries, Muslim and Hindu leaders began to press for a greater degree of independence. At the movement's forefront was the largely Hindu Indian National Congress. Growing concern about Hindu domination of the movement led Muslim leaders to form the All-India Muslim League in 1906. In 1913, the League formally adopted the same goal as the Indian National Congress: self-government for India within the British Empire. The Congress and the League were unable, however, to agree on a formula to ensure the protection of Muslim religious, economic, and political rights. Over the next 2 decades, mounting tension between Hindus and Muslims led to a series of bitter inter-communal conflicts.

Pakistan and Partition

The idea of a separate Muslim state emerged in the 1930s. It gained popularity among Indian Muslims after 1936, when the Muslim League suffered a decisive electoral defeat in the first elections under the 1935 constitution. On March 23, 1940, Muhammad Ali Jinnah, leader of the Muslim League, publicly endorsed the "Pakistan Resolution" that called for the creation of an independent state in regions where Muslims were a majority.

At the end of World War II, the United Kingdom, under considerable international pressure to reduce the size of its overseas empire, moved with increasing urgency to grant India independence. The Congress Party and the Muslim League could not, however, agree on the terms for drafting a constitution or establishing an interim government. In June 1947, the UK declared it would grant full dominion status to two successor states—India and Pakistan. Pakistan would consist of the contiguous Muslim-majority districts of western British India, plus parts of Bengal. The various princely states could freely join either India or Pakistan. These arrangements resulted in a bifurcated Muslim nation separated by more than 1,600 kilometers (1,000 mi.) of Indian territory. West Pakistan comprised four provinces and the capital, Lahore. East Pakistan was formed of a single province. Each province had a legislature.

East and West Pakistan

Pakistan's history for the next 26 years was marked by political instability and economic difficulties. Dominion status was rejected in 1956 in favor of an "Islamic Republic within the Commonwealth." Attempts at civilian political rule failed, and the government imposed martial law between 1958 and 1962 and 1969 and 1972. Frictions between West and East Pakistan culminated in a 1971 army crackdown against the East Pakistan dissident movement led by Sheikh Mujibur Rahman, whose Awami League (AL) Party had won 167 seats out of 313 National Assembly seats on a platform of greater autonomy for the eastern province.

Mujibur Rahman was arrested and his party banned. Many of his aides and more than 1 million Bengali refugees fled to India, where they established a provisional government. India and Pakistan went to war in late November 1971. The combined Indian-Bengali forces soon overwhelmed Pakistan's small army contingent in the East. By the time Pakistan's forces surrendered on December 16, 1971, India had taken numerous prisoners and gained control of a large area of East Pakistan, which is now Bangladesh.

Bangladesh

Sheikh Mujibur Rahman. Mujib came to office with immense personal popularity but had difficulty quickly transforming this support into political

legitimacy. The 1972 constitution created a strong prime ministership, an independent judiciary, and a unicameral legislature on a modified British model. More importantly, it enunciated as state policy the Awami League's four basic principles—nationalism, secularism, socialism, and democracy.

The Awami League won a massive majority in the first parliamentary elections in March 1973. It continued as a mass movement, espousing the cause that brought Bangladesh into being and representing disparate and often incoherent elements under the banner of Bangla nationalism. No other political party in Bangladesh's early years was able to duplicate or challenge its broad-based appeal, membership, or organizational strength.

The new government focused on relief, rehabilitation, and reconstruction of the country's war-ravaged economy and society. Economic conditions remained tenuous, however, and food and health difficulties continued to be endemic. In 1974, Mujib proclaimed a state of emergency and amended the constitution to limit the powers of the legislative and judicial branches, establish an executive presidency, and institute a one-party system. Calling these changes the "Second Revolution," Mujib assumed the presidency. All political parties were dissolved except for a single new party, the Bangladesh Krishak Sramik Awami League (BAKSAL), which all members of parliament were obliged to join.

Implementation of promised political reforms was slow, and Mujib increasingly was criticized. In August 1975, he was assassinated by mid-level army officers, and a new government, headed by a former associate, Khandakar Moshtaque, was formed. Successive military coups occurred on November 3 and 7, resulting in the emergence of Army Chief of Staff Gen. Ziaur Rahman (Zia), as strongman. He pledged the army's support to the civilian government headed by the president, Chief Justice Sayem. Acting at Zia's behest, Sayem then promulgated martial law, naming himself Chief Martial Law Administrator (CMLA).

Ziaur Rahman. Ziaur Rahman was elected for a 5-year term as president in 1978. His government removed the remaining restrictions on political parties and encouraged opposition parties to participate in the pending parliamentary elections. More than 30 parties vied in the parliamentary elections of February 1979, but Zia's Bangladesh Nationalist Party (BNP) won 207 of the 300 elected seats.

In 1981, Zia was assassinated by dissident elements of the military. Vice President Justice Abdus Sattar was constitutionally sworn in as acting president. He declared a new national emergency and called for elections within 6 months. Sattar was elected president and won. Sattar was ineffective, however, and Army Chief of Staff, Lt. Gen. H.M. Ershad assumed power in a bloodless coup in March 1982.

Hussain Mohammed Ershad. Like his predecessors, Ershad dissolved parliament, declared martial law, assumed the position of CMLA, suspended the constitution, and banned political activity. Ershad reaffirmed Bangladesh's moderate, non-aligned foreign policy.

In December 1983, he assumed the presidency. Over the ensuing months, Ershad sought a formula for elections while dealing with potential threats to public order.

On January 1, 1986, full political rights, including the right to hold large public rallies, were restored. At the same time, the Jatiyo (People's) Party (JP), designed as Ershad's political vehicle for the transition from martial law, was established. Ershad resigned as chief of army staff, retired from military service, and was elected president in October 1986. (Both the BNP and the AL refused to put up an opposing candidate.)

In July 1987, the opposition parties united for the first time in opposition to government policies. Ershad declared a state of emergency in November, dissolved parliament in December, and scheduled new parliamentary elections for March 1988.

All major opposition parties refused to participate. Ershad's party won 251 of the 300 seats; three other political parties which did participate, as well as a number of independent candidates, shared the remaining seats. This parliament passed a large number of legislative bills, including a controversial amendment making Islam the state religion.

By mid-1990, opposition to Ershad's rule had escalated. November and December 1990 were marked by general strikes, increased campus protests, public rallies, and a general disintegration of law and order. Ershad resigned in December 1990.

GOVERNMENT

On February 27, 1991, an interim government oversaw what may be the most free and fair elections in the nation's history. The center-right Bangladesh Nationalist Party won a plurality of seats and formed a coalition government with the Islamic fundamentalist party Jamaat-e-Islami (JI).

The new Prime Minister, Begum Khaleda Zia, was the widow of the assassinated former president Ziaur Rahman. Before the death of her husband in 1981, her participation in politics was minimal. She joined the BNP in 1982 and became chairman of the party in 1984. Besides presently serving as Prime Minister, she holds the Defense and Establishment ministries.

In September 1991, the electorate approved changes to the constitution, formally creating a parliamentary system and returning governing power to the office of the prime minister, as in Bangladesh's original constitution. In October 1991, members of parliament elected a new head of state, President Abdur Rahman Biswas.

Principal Government Officials

Prime Minister—Begum Khaleda Zia
President (head of state)—Abdur Rahman Biswas
Foreign Minister—Mustafizur Rahman
Ambassador to the United States—Abul Ahsan
Ambassador to the United Nations—Humayun Kabir

Bangladesh maintains an embassy in the United States at 2201 Wisconsin Avenue, NW, Washington, DC 20007 (tel. 202-342-8372; fax. 202-333-4971) and a consulate general at the Bangladesh Mission to the United Nations, 821 UN Plaza, New York, NY 10017 (tel. 212-867-3434; 212-972-4038).

ECONOMY

As one of the world's poorest and most densely populated countries, Bangladesh struggles constantly to produce or import enough food for its rapidly increasing population. An estimated 10-15% of the population is at serious nutritional risk; the majority faces food insecurity. Bangladesh's predominantly agricultural economy depends heavily on an erratic monsoonal cycle, which leads to periodic flooding and drought. Although improving, Bangladesh's transportation, communications, and power systems are poorly developed. Bangladesh has virtually no mineral resources except for an estimated 17 trillion cubic feet of proven natural gas reserves (which meets two-thirds of Bangladesh's commercial energy needs); coal reserves estimated at 250 million metric tons in the northwest; and estimated oil reserves of 7.5 million barrels. It has a weak industrial base and a largely unskilled labor force.

At its founding in 1971, Bangladesh, with the help of massive infusions of donor relief and development aid, slowly began to turn its attention again to developing new industrial capacity and rehabilitating its economy. The statist economic model adopted by its early (Pakistani and Bangladeshi) leadership, however, including the nationalization of the key jute industry, had resulted in inefficiency and economic stagnation. Beginning in 1975, the government gradually increased private sector participation in the economy, including privatization of more than 30 state enterprises. However, rapid population growth, inefficiency in the public sector, and restricted natural resources and capital hindered development.

In the mid-1980s encouraging, if halting, signs of progress appeared. Economic policies to encourage private enterprise and investment, denationalize public industries (including jute, textiles, and banking), reinstate budgetary discipline, and liberalize the import regime were accelerated. In 1985, the government also began an economic structural adjustment program with the International Monetary Fund.

Economic reform efforts have continued under the Zia Government. Inflation fell in 1992 to an estimated 5%—down from 8% in 1991. Foreign exchange reserves ($1.5 billion in May 1992) are higher than had been expected, because of improving export performance and continued high levels of remittances from overseas workers. The exchange rate has remained generally stable, although the *taka* was devalued by about 8% in 1991 to compensate for the effect of inflation. The new government has improved revenue collection by means of a value-added tax.

On the other hand, privatization of public-sector industries continues at a slow pace, due in part to worker unrest in affected industries. The government also has proven unable to resist demands for wage hikes in government-owned industries. Growth has been slowed by an antiquated banking system which has impeded access to capital, a serious problem in rural areas, where many farmers have difficulty getting access to credit at reasonable rates.

Agriculture

Most Bangladeshis earn their livings directly or indirectly from agriculture. Rice and jute are the primary crops; wheat is assuming greater importance; and tea is grown in hilly regions of the northeast. Bangladesh's fertile soil and normally ample water supply yield three rice crops in many areas. Through better flood control and irrigation measures, more intensive use of fertilizers and high-yielding seed varieties, increased price incentives, and improved distribution and rural credit networks, Bangladesh's labor-intensive agricultural sector has achieved steady increases in foodgrain production. Foodgrain production in 1992 was about 20 million metric tons, a 5% increase over the previous year. Rice is Bangladesh's principal crop, although yields per hectare are among the lowest in Asia. While rice output rose 3.2% in 1992, much recent growth in foodgrain output can be attributed to the irrigated spring crop, which has increased steadily due to the greater availability of fertilizer and irrigation equipment. Wheat production also is expected to rise from 900,000 to about 1 million metric tons in 1992. Jute, which historically has accounted for the bulk of Bangladesh's export receipts, faces an uncertain future due to competition from synthetic fiber substitutes. Fishing, especially for shrimp, has become an increasingly important source of export earnings.

Overpopulation and underemployment remain serious problems, and finding alternative sources of employment for landless peasants is a continuing challenge.

Industry

Although small, the industrial sector contributes significantly to export receipts; it also provides employment and a market for cash crops. Jute products—mainly burlap sacking and carpet backing for export—and cotton textiles for domestic consumption predominate. Since the early 1980s production of ready-made garments for the US market has grown rapidly. Bangladesh is the fifth largest supplier of cotton apparel to the United States, and it has begun exporting to West European markets. Breaking up ships for scrap, using methods that are highly labor intensive, now meets most of Bangladesh's domestic steel needs. Other industries include sugar, tea, leather goods, newsprint, pharmaceuticals, and fertilizer production. The industrial (and foreign exchange) impact of the discovery of modest reserves of oil in 1986 remains to be assessed.

The government continues to court foreign investment. To this end, the United States and Bangladesh signed a bilateral investment treaty which took effect in 1989. Bangladesh also has established an export processing zone (EPZ) in Chittagong and plans to create additional zones. The government has offered special incentives and simplified procedures for potential investors.

Aid and Trade

Since independence in 1971, Bangladesh has received more than $22 billion in grant aid and loan commitments from foreign donors, about $15 billion of which has been disbursed. Major

donors include the World Bank, the Asian Development Bank, the UN Development Program, the United States, Japan, Saudi Arabia, and a number of West European countries. As of 1991, the United States had provided more than $3.3 billion in food and development assistance. Food aid provides food, promotes production, and helps stabilize prices. Other US programs target family planning and health, agricultural development, and rural unemployment. In 1991, the US forgave Bangladesh $293 million of development assistance debt.

Bangladesh historically has run a large trade deficit, about $1.5 billion annually during the late 1980s. This was financed largely through foreign assistance. The balance of payments swung into surplus in 1990-91 because of increased exports of garments and depressed domestic demand for imports. In recent years, remittances from workers in the Middle East have been Bangladesh's most important source of foreign exchange earnings. The US trade balance with Bangladesh has been negative since 1986, due largely to imports of ready-made garments. Jute carpet backing is the other major US import. US exports to Bangladesh include wheat, fertilizer, cotton, communications equipment, and aircraft and medical supplies, some of which is financed by the US Agency for International Development (USAID).

DEFENSE

The 100,000-member, 6-division army is organized along British lines. It is supported by artillery, armor, and combat units. In addition to traditional defense roles, the army has been called on to provide support to civil authorities for internal security.

Recognition of economic and fiscal constraints has led to the establishment of paramilitary and auxiliary forces. In addition to in-country military training, some advanced and technical training is done abroad, including grant aid training in the United States. China and Pakistan are major defense suppliers to Bangladesh.

FOREIGN RELATIONS

Bangladesh pursues a moderate foreign policy, emphasizing multinational diplomacy, especially at the United Nations. Bangladesh was admitted to the United Nations in 1974 and served on the Security Council in 1978. Dhaka actively participates in international conferences, especially those dealing with population, food, and development issues. In 1982-83, Bangladesh chaired the "Group of 77," an informal association encompassing most of the world's developing nations.

Since 1975, Bangladesh has sought close relations with other Islamic states and friendly relations with the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN). In 1983, it hosted the foreign ministers meeting of the Organization of the Islamic Conference (OIC). It contributed 2,300 troops to the Gulf war coalition in 1991 and has taken a leading role in the Group of 42 Least Developed Countries.

Other Nations

India. India is Bangladesh's most important neighbor; geographic, cultural, historic, and commercial ties are strong. During and immediately after the Bangladesh independence struggle in 1971, India supported the East Bengali nationalists, assisted refugees from East Pakistan, intervened militarily to help bring about the independence of Bangladesh, and furnished relief and reconstruction aid.

Indo-Bangladesh relations have not been without strains. Long-standing transborder water resource issues are contentious issues, particularly control of river flooding and the equitable division of dry-season water on which both countries' economies depend. A bilateral water-sharing agreement for the Ganges River lapsed in 1988 and has not been renewed. Both nations have, however, begun to cooperate on the issue of flood warning and preparedness. Discussions on the return to Bangladesh of tribal refugees, who fled into India beginning in 1986 to escape violence caused by an insurgency in their homeland in the Chittagong Hill Tracts, continue as well.

Pakistan. Bangladesh enjoys warm relations with Pakistan, despite the inauspicious early days of their relationship. Landmarks in their reconciliation are:

- An August 1973 agreement between India and Pakistan on repatriation, including 90,000 Pakistani prisoners of war stranded in 1971;
- A February 1974 accord by Dhaka and Islamabad on mutual recognition (followed more than 2 years later by establishment of formal diplomatic relations);
- The organization by the UN High Commissioner for Refugees of an airlift that moved almost 250,000 Bengalis from Pakistan to Bangladesh and non-Bengalis from Bangladesh to Pakistan; and
- Exchanges of high-level visits, including a visit by the former Prime Minister of Pakistan, Benazir Bhutto, to Bangladesh in 1989 and a visit by Prime Minister Zia to Pakistan in 1992.

Still to be resolved are the division of assets from the pre-1971 period and the status of more than 250,000 non-Bengali Muslims (known as "Biharis" or "stranded Pakistanis") remaining in Bangladesh but seeking resettlement in Pakistan.

Travel Notes

Customs and immigration: US tourists do not need visas for stays of up to 14 days if they have an onward ticket. Visas are required for longer visits and for business travelers.

Climate and clothing: Wear lightweight clothing for most of the hot, wet period; medium weight clothing for the short winter (Dec.-Feb.).

Health: Health and visa requirements change; check latest information before traveling. Basic medical facilities are available in Dhaka. Pharmacies can fill simple prescriptions. Tetanus, typhoid, and polio immunizations are recommended; malaria suppressants for travel outside of Dhaka are also recommended.

Telecommunications: Internal and external telephone, telegraph, telex, and mail services are available. Direct-dialing is possible to Western Europe and the United States. Bangladesh is 11 hours ahead of Eastern Standard Time.

Transportation: International and domestic airline service is adequate, and railroad service is limited. Road transport is crowded but adequate to most major cities; river transport is extensive. ❑

Other South Asian Countries. Bangladesh maintains friendly relations with Bhutan, Maldives, Nepal, and Sri Lanka. It strongly opposed the Soviet invasion of Afghanistan. Dhaka played an instrumental role in the establishment of SAARC, and at the Bangalore summit in November 1986, Abul Ahsan, now Ambassador to the US, was chosen the organization's first Secretary General. Bilateral ties with Burma are also good, despite border strains near the Chittagong Hill tracts and a recent influx of over 270,000 Muslim refugees from predominantly Buddhist Burma.

Russia. The former Soviet Union supported India's actions during the 1971 Indo-Pakistan war and was among the first to recognize Bangladesh. Moscow initially contributed considerable relief and rehabilitation aid to the new nation. After Sheikh Mujib was assassinated and replaced by military regimes, however, Soviet-Bangladesh relations cooled. In 1989, the USSR ranked 14th among total aid donors to Bangladesh. The Soviet-financed Ghorasal thermal power station is Bangladesh's largest electric power station. Several barter trade agreements have been allowed to lapse since the dissolution of the Soviet Union in 1991. Bangladesh cautiously began to open diplomatic relations with the Central Asian states in the spring of 1992.

China. China traditionally has been more important to Bangladesh than the former USSR. Since China recognized Bangladesh in 1975, relations have centered on trade, cultural activities, military and civilian aid, and exchanges of high-level visits, beginning in January 1977 with President Zia's trip to Beijing. The largest and most visible symbol of bilateral amity is the Bangladesh-China "Friendship Bridge" completed in 1989, near Dhaka.

US-BANGLADESH RELATIONS

Although the US relationship with Bangladesh was initially constrained due to strong US ties with Pakistan, US-Bangladesh friendship and support developed quickly. Currently, US-Bangladesh relations are excellent, as demonstrated by the visits to Washington in August 1980 by President Zia, in 1983, 1988, and 1990 by President Ershad, and in May 1992 by Prime Minister Khaleda Zia. US policies have focused primarily on efforts to promote Bangladesh's economic development and the strength of its democratic institutions.

This US economic aid program totaled about $133 million in 1992 (1972-91 the US provided more than $3.3 billion). In addition to symbolizing long-standing American humanitarian concern for the people of Bangladesh, US economic and food aid programs, which began as emergency relief following the 1971 war, now concentrate on long-term development. Objectives of US assistance include increasing agricultural production, providing new employment opportunities, and helping reduce population growth.

Relations between Bangladesh and the United States were further strengthened by the participation of Bangladeshi troops in the Gulf war coalition, and the assistance of a US naval task force is credited with having saved as many as 200,000 lives after a disastrous cyclone in March 1991.

Principal US Officials

Ambassador—William B. Milam
Deputy Chief of Mission—
Lee O. Coldren
Political Counselor—
Jeffrey J. Lunstead
Economic/Commercial Counselor—
Philip Carter
Administrative Counselor—
Allan V. Ellsbury
Consular Officer—Edward J. Wehrli
AID Director—Mary Kilgour
Public Affairs Officer—Michael Korff
Defense Attache—
LTC Steven R. Robinson
Agricultural Attache—Daniel Conable
(Resident in New Delhi)

The embassy and the USAID mission, are located in the Diplomatic Enclave, Madani Avenue, Baridhara, GPO Box 323, Dhaka (tel. 011-880-2-884700, telex 642319 AEDKA BJ, telefax 011-880-2-883744; the USAID telefax number is 011-880-2-883648). The official workweek is Sunday through Thursday. ■

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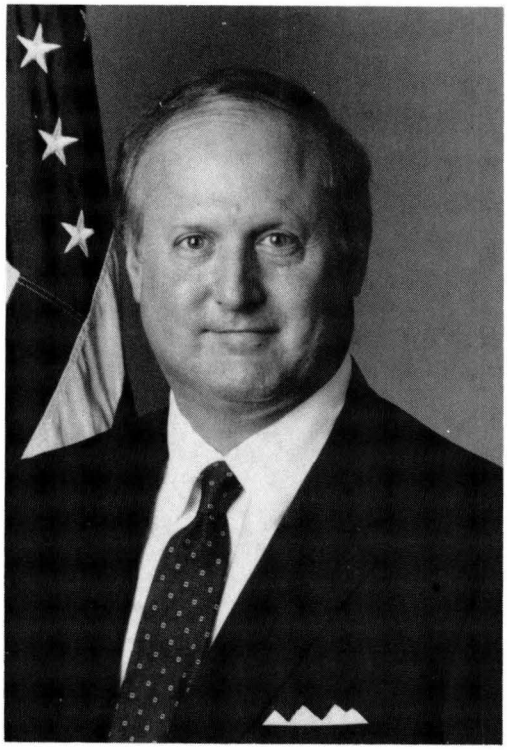

David N. Merrill
U.S. Ambassador to Bangladesh

David N. Merrill was appointed Ambassador to the People's Republic of Bangladesh in February 1994.

He joined the U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID) in 1966 and has served with USAID in a variety of overseas and domestic positions, including assignments in Thailand, the Philippines, Burma, and Indonesia, where he was USAID Mission Director. Before his nomination as Ambassador, Mr. Merrill was Acting Assistant Administrator of USAID's Bureau for Europe. In that capacity, he managed the new USAID assistance program for the former Eastern bloc countries of Central and Eastern Europe.

Mr. Merrill received USAID's Distinguished Honor Award and the President's Meritorious Service Award.

Ambassador Merrill graduated from Brandeis University and received an M.A. from the Fletcher School of Law and Diplomacy at Tufts University and holds an M.A. in public administration from Harvard University's Kennedy School of Government. He speaks Thai, French, and Indonesian.

Mr. Merrill was born and raised in Baltimore. He is married to the former Darlene Jeannie Luke. They have four children.

Key U.S. Officials in Dhaka

Deputy Chief of Mission
James P. Nach

Political Officer
William H. Hill II

Economic/Commercial Officer
Cornelia M. Weierback

Consular Officer
David R. Dreher

Administrative Officer
Paul E. Rowe

Public Affairs Officer
Donald M. Bishop

Regional Security Officer
William H. Lamb

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DOCUMENT NO. AND TYPE	SUBJECT/TITLE	DATE	RESTRICTION
007. report	RE: United States Report (1 page)	08/29/1994	P1/b(1)

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Clinton Presidential Records
First Lady's Office
Karen Finney (Press Office)
OA/Box Number: 11104

FOLDER TITLE:
[Advance of First Lady Hillary Rodham Clinton to Pakistan, India, Nepal, Bangladesh, and Sri Lanka, March 1995] [loose]

2015-0734-S
db3874

RESTRICTION CODES

Presidential Records Act - [44 U.S.C. 2204(a)]

P1 National Security Classified Information [(a)(1) of the PRA]
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P4 Release would disclose trade secrets or confidential commercial or financial information [(a)(4) of the PRA]
P5 Release would disclose confidential advice between the President and his advisors, or between such advisors [a)(5) of the PRA]
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b(9) Release would disclose geological or geophysical information concerning wells [(b)(9) of the FOIA]

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Clinton Presidential Records
First Lady's Office
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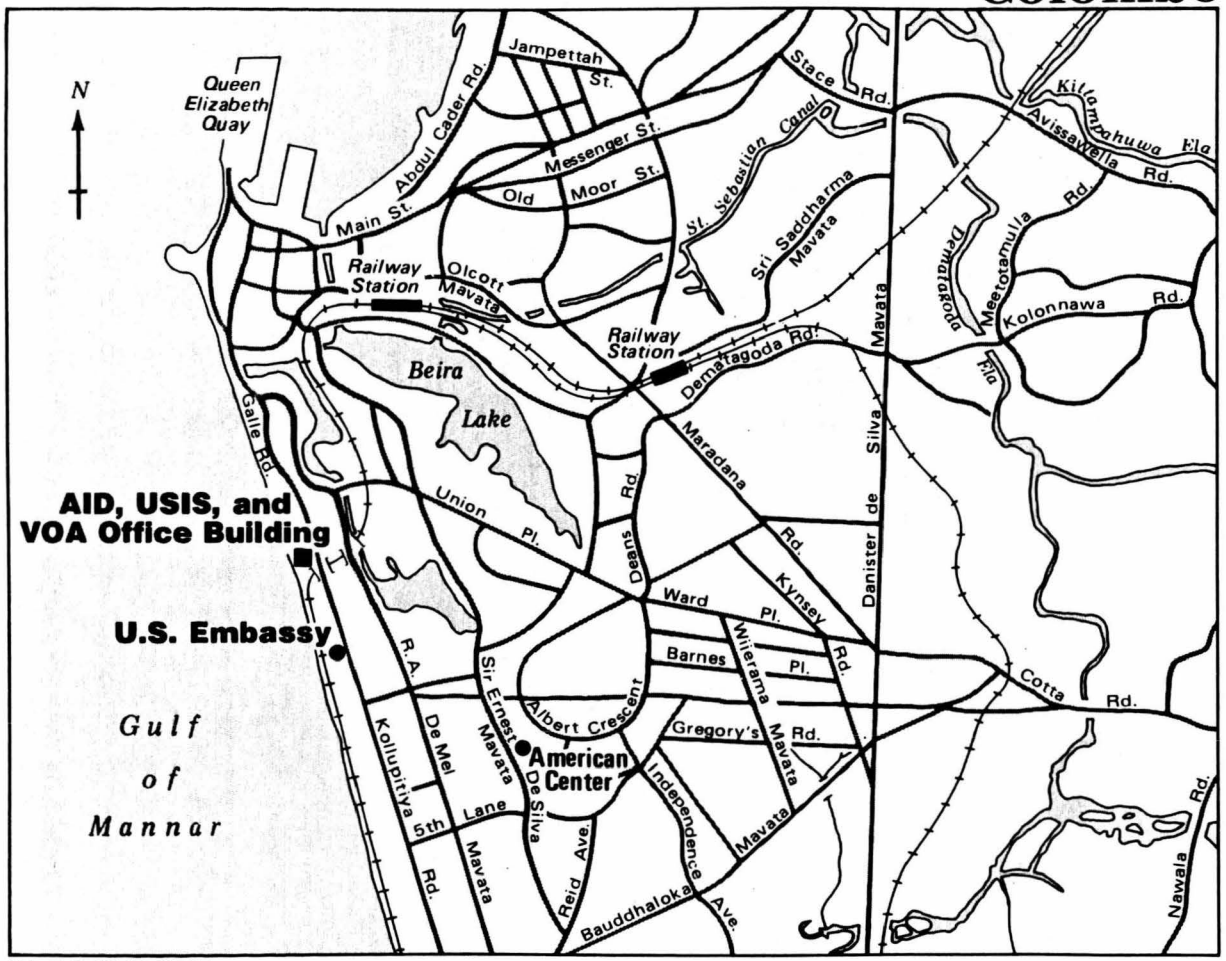
SRI LANKA

Colombo



6271 12-85 STATE (INR/GE)

Sri Lanka Rupee Conversion Table at Rs 49 = U.S. $

Rupee to U.S. Dollars		U.S. Dollars to Rupee	
Rupee	**U.S. $**	**U.S. $**	**Rupee**
5.00	0.10	0.10	4.90
10.00	0.20	0.25	12.25
20.00	0.41	0.50	24.50
30.00	0.61	0.75	36.75
49.00	1.00	1.00	49.00
100.00	2.04	3.00	147.00
200.00	4.08	5.00	245.00
300.00	6.12	10.00	490.00
500.00	10.20	20.00	980.00
1,000.00	20.41	50.00	2,450.00
2,000.00	40.82	100.00	4,900.00
3,000.00	61.22	300.00	14,700.00
5,000.00	102.04	500.00	24,500.00

NOTE: All U.S. dollar values are rounded to the nearest U.S. cent. The value of the Sri Lanka Rupee fluctuates daily according to currency market conditions.

March 1995

U. S. Department of State
Bureau of Consular Affairs
Washington, DC 20520
For recorded travel information, call 202-647-5225.
To access the Consular Affairs Bulletin Board, call 202-647-9225.
For information by fax, call 202-647-3000 from your fax machine.

Consular Information Sheet

Sri Lanka — Consular Information Sheet

April 22, 1994

Country Description: Sri Lanka has a developing economy. Tourist facilities outside the capital and major tourist areas may be basic.

Entry Requirements: A passport and onward/return ticket and proof of sufficient funds (15 U.S. dollars per day) are required. A tourist visa can be granted at the time of entry into Sri Lanka, and may be valid for a maximum period of 90 days. Business travelers may be granted a landing endorsement at the port of entry for a one month period under certain circumstances. Yellow fever and cholera immunizations are needed if arriving from an infected area. Further information can be obtained by contacting the Embassy of the Democratic Socialist Republic of Sri Lanka, 2148 Wyoming Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20008, telephone (202) 483-4025 through 8, or the Sri Lankan consulate in New York. There are also honorary Sri Lankan consulates in Los Angeles, Honolulu, New Orleans and Newark.

Areas of Instability: There is a long-standing armed conflict between the Sri Lankan government and a Tamil extremist group, the Liberation Tigers of Tamil Eelam (LTTE). Fighting between government security forces and the LTTE continues in northern and eastern areas of the island. Sri Lankan defense regulations restrict travel to much of the island's northern area. Areas such as Wilpattu and Galoya National Parks are considered especially unsafe.

Terrorist bombings have occurred, including in or near the capital city of Colombo. Prominent national leaders and senior military personnel have been targets and/or victims of terrorist violence. In April 1994, four bombs exploded at Colombo hotels. While U.S. citizens have not been singled out as targets, a group calling itself "Ellalan Force" threatened after the April bombings to target foreigners. There is a general risk of being inadvertently caught up in random acts of violence. Travelers who encounter roadblocks staffed by security personnel are expected to follow closely any instructions given.

Medical Facilities: Medical facilities are limited. Doctors and hospitals often expect immediate cash payment for health services. U.S. medical insurance is not always valid outside the United States. Supplemental medical insurance with specific overseas coverage has proved useful. Malaria is prevalent in many areas outside of Colombo. For further information, the traveler can contact the Centers for Disease Control's international travelers hotline at (404) 332-4559.

Crime Information: Petty street crime such as purse snatching and pickpocketing is common especially on crowded local transportation. The loss or theft of a U.S. passport abroad should be reported immediately to local police and the nearest U.S. embassy or consulate. Useful information on safeguarding valuables, protecting personal security and other matters while traveling abroad is provided in the Department of State pamphlets, "A Safe Trip Abroad" and "Tips for Travelers to South Asia." They are available from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402.

Drug Penalties: U.S. citizens are subject to the laws of the country in which they are traveling. Penalties for possession, use and trafficking in illegal drugs are strictly enforced in Sri Lanka. Convicted offenders can expect jail sentences and fines.

Embassy Location and Registration: Updated information on travel and security within Sri Lanka is available at the U.S. Embassy, located at 210 Galle Rd., in the capital city of Colombo.

The mailing address is P.O. Box 106. The telephone number is (94-1) 448007. U.S. citizens are encouraged to register at the U.S. Embassy upon arrival in Sri Lanka.

No. 94-051

This replaces the Consular Information Sheet for Sri Lanka dated August 27, 1993, to update information on areas of instability.

background notes

Sri Lanka

January 1995

Official Name: Democratic Socialist Republic of Sri Lanka

PROFILE

Geography

Area: 65,610 sq. km. (25,332 sq. mi.); about the size of West Virginia.
Cities: *Capital*—Colombo (pop. est. 1.3 million). *Other cities*— Kandy (150,000), Jaffna (100,000), Galle (80,000).
Terrain: Coastal plains in the northern third of country; hills and mountains in south-central Sri Lanka rise to 2,133 m. (7,000 ft.).
Climate: Tropical. *Rainy seasons*—light in northeast, fall and winter, with average rainfall of 50 in.; heavy in southwest, summer and fall, with average rainfall of 200 in.

People

Nationality: *Noun and adjective*—Sri Lankan(s).
Population (1994): 18.1 million.
Annual growth rate: 1.3%.
Ethnic groups: Sinhalese (74%), Tamils (18%), Muslims (7%), others (1%).
Religions: Buddhism, Hinduism, Islam, Christianity.
Languages: Sinhala and Tamil (official), English.
Education: *Years compulsory*—to age 12. *Primary school attendance*—98%. *Literacy*—88%.
Health: *Infant mortality rate*—19/1,000. *Life expectancy*—73 yrs.
Work Force: 6.8 million.

Government

Type: Republic.
Independence: February 4, 1948.
Constitution: August 31, 1978.
Suffrage: Universal over 18.
Branches: *Executive*—president (chief of state and head of government), elected for a 6-year term. *Legislative*—unicameral 225-member parliament. *Judicial*—Supreme Court, Court of Appeals, High Court, subordinate courts.
Administrative subdivisions: Eight provinces and 25 administrative districts.
Political parties: United National Party, Sri Lanka Freedom Party, others represented in either parliament or provincial councils, and several ethnic Tamil and Muslim parties.

Economy (1994 estimates)

GDP: $11 billion.
Annual growth rate: 5.5%.
Per capita GDP: $600.
Natural resources: Limestone, graphite, mineral sands, gems, phosphate.
Agriculture (20% of GDP): *Major products*—rice, tea, rubber, coconuts, spices.
Industry (20% of GDP): *Major products*—garments, chemicals, refined petroleum, wood products, basic metal products, and paper products.
Trade: *Exports*—$3.1 billion; garments, tea, rubber, gems, refined petroleum, coconuts. *Major markets*—U.S. ($1.2 billion), Germany, U.K., Belgium, Japan, Netherlands. *Imports*—$4.4 billion. *Major suppliers*—Japan, India, Hong Kong, South Korea, Taiwan, U.K., Singapore, U.S. ($200 million).
Official exchange rate (Dec. 1994): Rupees (Rs.) 49=$1. ■

United States Department of State
Bureau of Public Affairs
Office of Public Communication

PEOPLE

The Democratic Socialist Republic of Sri Lanka (formerly known as Ceylon) is an island in the Indian Ocean approximately 28 kilometers (18 mi.) off the southeastern coast of India with a population of about 17.4 million. Density is highest in the southwest where Colombo, the country's capital, main port, and industrial center, is located. The net population growth is about 1.3%.

Sri Lanka is ethnically, linguistically, and religiously diverse. Sinhalese make up 74% of the population and are concentrated in the densely populated southwest. Ceylon Tamils, citizens whose South Indian ancestors have lived on the island for centuries, total about 12% and live predominantly in the north and east.

Indian Tamils, a distinct ethnic group, represent about 6% of the population. The British brought Indian Tamils to Sri Lanka in the 19th century as tea and rubber plantation workers and they remain concentrated in the "tea country" of south-central Sri Lanka. In accordance with a 1964 agreement with India, Sri Lanka granted citizenship to 230,000 "stateless" Indian Tamils in 1988. Under the pact, India granted citizenship to the remainder, some 200,000 of whom now live in India. Another 92,000 Indian Tamils who themselves or whose parents once applied for Indian citizenship now wish to remain in Sri Lanka. Although technically not citizens of Sri Lanka, the Government has stated that this group will not be forced to return to India.

Other minorities include Muslims (both Moors and Malays), at about 7% of the population; Burghers, who are descendants of European colonists, principally from the Netherlands and the U.K.; and aboriginal Veddahs.

Most Sinhalese are Buddhist; most Tamils are Hindu. The majority of Sri Lanka's Muslims practice Sunni Islam. Sizable minorities of both Sinhalese and Tamils are Christians, most of whom are Roman Catholic. The 1978 constitution, while assuring freedom of religion, grants primacy to Buddhism.

Sinhala, an Indo-European language, is the native tongue of the Sinhalese. Tamils and most Muslims speak Tamil, part of the South Indian Dravidian linguistic group. Use of English has declined since independence, but it continues to be spoken by many in the middle and upper middle classes, particularly in Colombo. Both Sinhala and Tamil are official languages.

HISTORY

The actual origins of the Sinhalese are shrouded in myth. Most believe that they came to Sri Lanka from northern India during the 6th century BC. Buddhism arrived from the subcontinent 300 years later and spread rapidly. Buddhism and a sophisticated system of irrigation became the pillars of classical Sinhalese civilization (200 BC-1200 AD) that flourished in the north-central part of the island. Invasions from southern India, combined with internecine strife, pushed Sinhalese kingdoms southward.

The island's contact with the outside world began early. Roman sailors called the island Taprobane. Arab traders knew it as "Serendip," the root of the word "serendipity." Beginning in 1505, Portuguese traders, in search of cinnamon and other spices, seized the island's coastal areas and spread Catholicism. The Dutch supplanted the Portuguese in 1658. Although the Dutch were ejected by the British in 1796, Dutch law remains an important part of Sri Lankan jurisprudence. In 1815, the British defeated the king of Kandy, last of the native rulers, and created the Crown Colony of Ceylon. They established a plantation economy based on tea, rubber, and coconuts. In 1931, the British granted Ceylon limited self-rule and universal franchise. Ceylon became independent on February 4, 1948.

Post-Independence Politics. Sri Lankan politics since independence have been strongly democratic. Two major parties, the United National Party (UNP) and the Sri Lanka Freedom Party (SLFP) have generally alternated rule.

The UNP ruled first from 1948-56 under three prime ministers—D.S. Senanayake, his son Dudley, and Sir John Kotelawala. The SLFP ruled from 1956-65, with a short hiatus in 1960, first under S.W.R.D. Bandaranaike and then, after his assassination in 1959, under his widow, Sirima. Dudley Senanayake and the UNP returned to power in 1965.

In 1970, Mrs. Bandaranaike assumed the premiership. A year later, an insurrection by followers of the Maoist "Janatha Vimukthi Peramuna" (JVP, or "People's Liberation Front") broke out. The SLFP government suppressed the revolt and declared a state of emergency that would last six years. In 1972, Mrs. Bandaranaike's Government introduced a new constitution, which changed the country's name from Ceylon to Sri Lanka, declared it a republic, made protection of Buddhism a constitutional principle, and created a weak president appointed by the prime minister. Its economic policies during this period were highly socialist and included the nationalization of large tea and rubber plantations.

The UNP, under J.R. Jayewardene, returned to power in 1977. The Jayewardene Government opened the economy and, in 1978, introduced a new constitution based on the French model, a key element of which was the creation of a strong presidency.

President Jayewardene was elected president by parliament in 1978 and by nationwide elections in 1982. By a 1982 referendum, the life of parliament was extended by another six years.

The UNP's Ranasinghe Premadasa, Prime Minister in the Jayewardene Government, narrowly defeated Mrs. Bandaranaike (SLFP) in the 1988 presidential elections. The UNP also won an absolute majority in the 1989 parliamentary elections. Mr. Premadasa was assassinated on May 1, 1993, and was replaced by then-Prime Minister Dingiri Banda Wijetunga, who appointed Ranil Wickremesinghe to be Prime Minister.

The SLFP, the main party in the People's Alliance (PA) coalition, returned to power in 1994 for the first time in 17 years. The People's Alliance won a plurality in the August 1994 parliamentary elections and formed a coalition government with Chandrika Bandaranaike Kumaratunga as Prime Minister. Prime Minister Kumaratunga later won the November 1994 presidential elections and appointed her mother (former Prime Minister Sirima Bandaranaike) to replace her as Prime Minister.

Communal Crisis. Historical divisions continue to have an impact on Sri Lankan society and politics. From independence, the Tamil minority has been uneasy with the country's unitary form of government and wary that the Sinhalese majority would abuse Tamil rights. Those fears were reinforced when S.W.R.D. Bandaranaike triumphed

in the 1956 elections after appealing to Sinhalese nationalism. Declaring Sinhala the country's official language—felt by Tamils to be a denigration of their own tongue—was the first in a series of steps over the following decades that appeared discriminatory to Tamils.

The decades following 1956 saw intermittent outbreaks of communal violence and growing radicalization among Tamil groups. By the mid-1970s Tamil politicians were moving from support for federalism to a demand for a separate Tamil state—"Tamil Eelam"—in northern and eastern Sri Lanka. In the 1977 elections, the separatist TULF won all seats in Tamil areas. Other groups—particularly the "Liberation Tigers of Tamil Eelam" (LTTE)—sought an independent state by force.

In 1983, the death of 13 Sinhalese soldiers at the hands of Tamil militants unleashed the largest outburst of communal violence in the country's history. Hundreds of Tamils were killed in Colombo and elsewhere, tens of thousands were left homeless, and more than 100,000 fled to South India. Members of the TULF lost their seats in parliament when they refused to swear a loyalty oath. The north and east became the scene of bloodshed as security forces attempted to suppress the LTTE and other militant groups. Terrorist incidents occurred in Colombo and other cities. Each side in the conflict accused the other of violating human rights. The conflict assumed an international dimension when the Sri Lankan Government accused India of supporting Tamil insurgents.

Indian Peace-keeping. By mid-1987, the situation had reached an apparent impasse. In an attempt to break the deadlock, Sri Lanka brought India directly into its communal dispute. Under a July 29, 1987, accord signed by Indian Prime Minister Rajiv Gandhi and President Jayewardene, the Sri Lankan Government made a number of concessions to Tamil demands, which included devolution of power to the provinces, merger (subject to later referendum) of the northern and eastern provinces, and official status for the Tamil language. India agreed to establish order in the north and east with an Indian Peace-keeping Force (IPKF) and to cease assisting Tamil insurgents. Militant groups, although initially reluctant, agreed to surrender their arms to the IPKF.

Within weeks, however, the LTTE declared its intent to continue its armed struggle for an independent Tamil Eelam and refused to surrender arms. The 50,000-strong IPKF found itself engaged in a bloody police action against the LTTE.

Meanwhile, the Government of Sri Lanka moved ahead with the promised devolution of power. By late 1988, all eight provincial council elections had been held. Further complicating the return to peace was a burgeoning Sinhalese insurgency in the south. The JVP, relatively quiescent since the 1971 insurrection, began to reassert itself in 1987. Capitalizing on opposition to the Indo-Lankan accord in the Sinhalese community, the JVP launched an intimidation campaign against supporters of the accord. Numerous UNP and other government supporters were assassinated. The government, relieved of its security burden by the IPKF in the north and east, intensified its efforts in the south. The JVP was crushed but at a high cost in human lives.

From April 1989 through June 1990, the government engaged in direct communications with the LTTE leadership. In the meantime, fighting between the LTTE and the IPKF had escalated in the north. Finally, India withdrew all of its forces from Sri Lanka by May 1990, and fighting between the LTTE and the government recommenced. Both the LTTE and government forces have been accused of serious human rights violations. In January 1995, the Sri Lankan Government and the LTTE agreed to a cessation of hostilities as a preliminary step in a government-initiated plan for peace negotiations.

Separatist violence is largely confined to the Northeastern province, which is 6 to 8 hours by road from the capital. However, terrorist bombings directed against politicians and others have occurred in Colombo and elsewhere in the country.

POLITICAL CONDITIONS

Sri Lanka's two major political parties—the UNP and the SLFP—embrace democratic values, international non-alignment, and encouragement of Sinhalese culture. Past differences between the two on foreign and economic policy have narrowed. The SLFP, however, still has a stronger social-welfare orientation than the UNP and still envisions a broader role for the state in governance in general.

In the last general election, held August 15, 1994, Tamil parties, including the Tamil United Liberation Front (TULF), and the Eelam People's Democratic Front (EPDF), and a Muslim party, the Sri Lankan Muslim Congress (SLMC), won key swing votes in the parliament.

Political assassinations have become commonplace and have included the bomb killing of President Premadasa on May 1, 1993. Other prominent national leaders and senior military personnel have been targets and/or victims of terrorist violence. In April 1994, four bombs exploded at Colombo hotels and a group calling itself the "Ellalan Force" has threatened to target foreigners. In October 1994, UNP presidential candidate Gamini Dissanayake and 53 UNP supporters were killed during an October campaign rally by a terrorist bombing.

The People's Alliance government, which was elected in 1994, entered into preliminary peace negotiations with LTTE in mid-October, but a second round of talks was canceled after the assassination of opposition leader Gamini Dissanayake. In her November 1994 inaugural address, President Kumaratunga announced her intention to resume peace talks with the LTTE. President Kumaratunga also said her government would propose constitutional changes which would shift powers from the presidency to the office of the prime minister.

GOVERNMENT

The president of the republic, directly elected for a 6-year term, is chief of state, head of government, and commander in chief of the armed forces. Responsible to parliament for the exercise of duties under the constitution and laws, the president may be removed from office by a two-thirds vote of parliament with the concurrence of the Supreme Court.

The president appoints and heads a cabinet of ministers responsible to parliament. The president's deputy is the prime minister, who leads the ruling party in parliament. A parliamentary no confidence vote requires dissolution of the cabinet and the appointment of a new one by the president.

Parliament is a unicameral 225-member legislature elected by universal suffrage and proportional representation to a 6-year term. The president may summon, suspend, or end a legislative session and dissolve parliament. Parliament reserves the power to make all laws.

Sri Lanka's judiciary consists of a supreme court, a court of appeals, a high court, and a number of subordinate courts. Sri Lanka's legal system reflects diverse cultural influences. Criminal law is fundamentally British. Basic civil law is Roman-Dutch. Laws pertaining to marriage, divorce, inheritance are communal.

Under the Indo-Sri Lankan accord of July 1987, the Government of Sri Lanka agreed to devolve significant authority to the provinces. Provincial councils are directly elected for 5-year terms. The leader of the council majority serves as the province's chief minister; a provincial governor is appointed by the president. Councils possess powers in education, health, rural development, social services, agriculture, security, and local taxation. Many of these powers are shared, or subject to central government oversight. Predating the accord are municipal, urban, and rural councils with limited powers.

Principal Government Officials

President—Chandrika Bandaranaike Kumaratunga
Prime Minister—Sirima Bandaranaike
Foreign Minister—Lakshman Kadirgamar
Ambassador-Designate to the United States—Jayantha Dhanapala
Ambassador to the United Nations—Dr. Stanley Kalpage

Sri Lanka maintains an embassy in the United States at 2148 Wyoming Avenue NW., Washington, DC 20008. (Tel. 202-483-4025).

ECONOMY

With an economy of about $11 billion a year, and per capita GDP of $600, Sri Lanka has been coping with a decade long civil insurgency. In 1989, GDP growth fell to a low of 2%, but recovered and hit a high of 7% in 1993. With several rounds of local and national elections in 1994, growth fell to about 5.2%. The forecast for 1995 is clouded, as the private sector awaits proof that the new government will deliver on its promises of creating an environment conducive to vigorous, private-sector growth.

The service sector is the largest component of GDP (50%), partly reflecting an extensive government apparatus and welfare state, but also including a rapidly growing tourism sector. The booming industrial sector now accounts for 20% of GDP. Garment manufacturing dominates industry.

Agriculture, the traditional leading sector, contributes 20% of GDP and provides employment to about half the population. Rice, the staple cereal, is cultivated extensively. The plantation sector—tea, rubber, and coconut—also is a major employer and, until the recent growth of the textile industry, provided the bulk of export earnings.

Since 1990, a successful new stock exchange has been founded; all exchange controls on current account transactions have been eliminated; and more than 40 state firms have been privatized. Generous tax policies and other incentives have made Sri Lanka attractive to outside investors. Direct foreign investment inflows were about $200 million in 1994. The expectation is that investment inflows will continue to rise and that GDP growth should average 5% to 6% for the remainder of the decade.

Trade and Foreign Assistance. Exports to the United States—Sri Lanka's single most important export market—were valued at over $1 billion in 1994. The U.S. was Sri Lanka's largest market for textiles in 1994, followed by Germany, UK, and Japan. Japan was Sri Lanka's largest source of imports in 1994, followed by East and South Asian nations such as India and Hong Kong. Imports from the U.S. amounted to about $200 million in 1994.

Sri Lanka is highly dependent on foreign assistance and has received about $500 million a year since 1990. With the end of the JVP insurrection and a systematic decline in human rights abuses by the security forces, Western donor countries have increased support of Sri Lanka's economic liberalization programs. Foreign assistance has been critical in the successful development of the large Mahaweli River Basin Project, privatization of state-run industry, development of the stock exchange, and the building of infrastructure.

Labor. Perhaps one-quarter of Sri Lanka's 6.8 million labor force is unionized, with more than 1,300 registered unions and 10 federations. The largest labor group is the National Trade Union Conference. Many unions are affiliated with political parties. One of the largest unions is the Ceylon Workers Congress (CWC), which represents Indian Tamil workers on tea and rubber plantations. It claims a membership of 360,000. Its president, S. Thondaman, is Minister of Livestock Development and Rural Industries. The CWC's agenda includes political issues, such as citizenship status for stateless Indian Tamils.

FOREIGN RELATIONS

Sri Lanka follows a nonaligned foreign policy. It participates in multilateral diplomacy, particularly at the United Nations, where it seeks to promote sovereignty, independence, and development in the developing world. Sri Lanka was a founding member of the Non-Aligned Movement and hosted its 1976 summit. It also is a member of the Commonwealth, the South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC), the World Bank, International Monetary Fund, Asian Development Bank, and the Colombo Plan. Sri Lanka continues its active participation in the Non-Aligned Movement, while also stressing the importance it places on regionalism by playing a strong role in SAARC.

U.S.-SRI LANKAN RELATIONS

The United States enjoys cordial relations with Sri Lanka that are based, in large part, on shared democratic traditions. U.S. policy toward Sri Lanka is characterized by respect for its independence, sovereignty, and moderate, non-aligned foreign policy; support for the country's unity, territorial integrity, and democratic institutions; and encouragement of its social and economic development.

U.S. assistance has totaled more than $1.3 billion since Sri Lanka's independence in 1948. Through the U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID), it has contributed to Sri Lanka's economic growth with projects designed to reduce unemployment, improve housing, and develop the Colombo stock exchange. In 1994, the U.S. delivered about $55 million in aid,

including about $25 million in free wheat, $18 million in low interest 40-year loans for additional wheat, and about $12 million in a variety of other direct assistance activities.

In addition, U.S. Peace Corps volunteers are active in much of Sri Lanka; the Voice of America operates a radio transmitter; and U.S. Naval vessels call regularly at Colombo.

Principal U.S. Embassy Officials

Ambassador—Teresita C. Schaffer
Deputy Chief of Mission—
John Boardman
Political Counselor—Scott DeLisi
Economic Counselor—
Nicholas Riegg
Administrative Officer—
Judy Chammas
Consular Officer—Brian Oberle
Defense Attache—
Lt. Col. Carl Cockrum
Director, AID Mission—David Cohen
Counselor for Public Affairs (USIS)—
Duncan MacInnes

The U.S. Embassy in Sri Lanka is located at 210 Galle Road, Colombo 3 (tel: 94-1-448-007, fax: 94-1-437-345). U.S. Agency for International Development offices are located at 356 Galle Road, Colombo 3 (tel: 94-1- 574-333; fax: 94-1-574-264). U.S. Information Service offices are located at 44 Galle Road, Colombo 3. (tel: 94-1-421-271, fax: 94-1-449-070). Peace Corps offices are located at 50/5 Siripa Road, Colombo 5 (tel: 94-1-687617). Voice of America offices are located at 228/1 Galle Road, Colombo 4 (tel: 94-1-589-245, fax: 94-1-502-675).

FURTHER INFORMATION

The following are available from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, P.O. Box 37194, Pittsburgh, PA 15250-7954. To order, call (202) 512-1800 or fax: (202) 512-2250.

American University. *Area Handbook for Sri Lanka.*

U.S. Department of Commerce. "Sri Lanka." *Foreign Economic Trends and Their Implications for the United States.* Annual.

U.S. Department of State. *U.S. Department of State Dispatch.* Weekly magazine.

Travel Notes

Travel advisory: Continued fighting in the North and East and infrequent terrorist attacks elsewhere in Sri Lanka make it advisable for U.S. visitors to contact the Department of State before departure and the U.S. Embassy on arrival. Petty street crime is common especially on crowded local transportation. Travel advisories and other current travel information to Sri Lanka and other countries is available at no cost from the U.S. Department of State's Consular Information Program by telephone (202-647-5225) or by fax (202-647-3000). Travel information is also on-line: access the Consular Affairs Bulletin Board at (202) 647-9225 by modem with standard settings.

Visas and customs: A passport and onward/return ticket and proof funds ($15 per day) are required. A tourist visa is granted at entry and may be valid for up to 90 days. Business travelers may be granted a landing endorsement at the port of entry for a one month period under certain circumstances. Yellow fever and cholera immunizations are needed if arriving from an infected area. Foreign currency, including travelers' checks, must be declared upon entry. Visitors should keep currency exchange receipts. On departure, they will be asked to show evidence of authorized exchange.

Health: The U.S. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention in Atlanta, Georgia, has the latest information on health requirements and conditions in foreign countries. Call the Hotline at (404) 332-4559 for telephonic or fax information. Public health facilities in Sri Lanka are poor. The U.S. embassy maintains a list of private physicians who may be consulted in emergency cases. Medical supplies are scarce; bring any special drugs required. Malaria is endemic outside Colombo. Outside the capital, malaria suppressants are required. Avoid drinking unboiled water. Avoid unpeeled, raw fruits and vegetables or under-cooked meats.

Telecommunications: Domestic telephone service is fair. Long distance service is good and may be booked through an operator in advance. International direct-dialing is available from most major hotels. Telegraph, cable, and fax services are good and available 24 hours a day in Colombo and other larger towns. International airmail service to the United States takes about 2 weeks. Sri Lanka is 10-1/2 hours ahead of Eastern Standard Time.

Tourism: Tourists enjoy Sri Lanka's wonderful beaches and interesting archeological sites. Contact the Embassy of Sri Lanka (see page 5) or your travel agent for more details. ❑

U.S. Department of State. *Key Officers of Foreign Service Posts: Guide for Business Representatives.* Biannual.

CD-ROM and Internet

U.S. Foreign Affairs on CD-ROM (USFAC). USFAC contains a wealth of foreign policy information released by the U.S. Department of State, 1990-1994. Updated quarterly, USFAC is available from the Superintendent of Documents (see address under "Further Information" above).

Department of State Foreign Affairs Network (DOSFAN). Major reports, speeches, transcripts, and a variety of official U.S. Department of State publications are now available on a daily basis on the Internet. To access current foreign policy information, point your gopher client to: dosfan.lib.uic.edu.

The Universal Resource Locator (URL) for DOSFAN on the Internet is: gopher://dosfan.lib.uic.edu/. On the World Wide Web, connect to the URL at: http://dosfan.lib.uic.edu/dosfan.html. ■

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Teresita C. Schaffer
U.S. Ambassador to Sri Lanka

Teresita Currie Schaffer presented her credentials to President Ranasinghe Premadasa in October 1992.

Ambassador Schaffer has a strong background in South Asian and international economic affairs. She played a key role in guiding U.S. relations with Sri Lanka and other South Asian nations during her tenure as Deputy Assistant Secretary of State for Near Eastern and South Asian Affairs, 1989 to 1992.

Mrs. Schaffer joined the Foreign Service in 1966. Her previous assignments include Director of the Office of Egyptian Affairs; Director of the Office of International Trade; and Chief of the General Commercial Policy Division of the Office of International Trade. She has served abroad as Science Attaché in New Delhi; as Economic Officer in Islamabad; and as Third Secretary in Tel Aviv.

Mrs. Schaffer is concurrently accredited as U.S. Ambassador to the Republic of Maldives.

Mrs. Schaffer holds a B.A. from Bryn Mawr College in Pennsylvania and studied economics at the Graduate School of Georgetown University.

She is married to Howard B. Schaffer, a retired U S. Ambassador. Mrs. Schaffer and her husband are both from New York. They have two sons.

Key U.S. Officials in Colombo

Deputy Chief of Mission
John S. Boardman

Political Officer
Scott H. Delisi

Economic Officer
Nicholas H. Riegg

Commercial Officer
Bruce Nealing

Consular Officer
Brian K. Oberle

Administrative Officer
Judith A. Chammas

Public Affairs Officer
Duncan H. MacInnes

Regional Security Officer
John S. DiCarlo

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