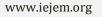
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India and Pakistan: Overview on Freedom to Till 2000

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In this present study, researcher done a historical research of two country India and Pakistan. Both are similar country before freedom and after they both country become very revelry to each other. , India's government created a limit as to how big one's land holdings could be, and it transformed millions who had been tenant farmers into farmers owning their own land. India was the first country to recognize the People's Republic of China, which took power in December, 1949. India expressed sympathy with China's fears of US military retaliation against the Chinese revolution. Wikipedia describes him as one of the first Untouchables to obtain a college education in India and as having earned law degrees and multiple doctorates. Legalities imposed by the British were a part of emerging Pakistan. Definitions of crimes, criminal proceedings, guidance as to what was and was not admissible evidence, and punishments, remained in place, except in places ruled by princes and in tribal areas near the border with Afghanistan. The president of the Muslim League, Liaquat Ali Khan, was among the secularists, and in 1951 he was assassinated, with suspicions lingering that his death had been plotted by factions within the government. Pakistan inherited a rural economy, manufacturing in 1947 being only 6 percent of Pakistan's Gross National Product. Pakistanis, like everyone else,

were concerned with international prestige, and with good reason. Muhammad Ayub Khan tried to curb excessive profits by industrialists, but found that matters economic did not obey his orders as did his subordinates in the army. There the Prime Minister of India, Lal Bahadur Shastri, and the President of Pakistan, Ayub Khan, declared their resolve to restore normal and peaceful relations between their two countries and to promote understanding and friendly relations between their peoples. Regarding the Kargil conflict in 1999 there is overwhelming evidence to support the fact that regular and para-military personnel of Pakistan army were fighting the Indian army.

Democratic India

Following its semi-independence under the British crown in 1947, India's parliament wrote a constitution that became law on 26 January 26 1950 and removed India from dominion status to a fully independent republic, a federated nation and a union of states. Some 275 principalities had been merged into five new states. The stated goal of the constitution was: "to secure for all" of India's citizens "social, economic and political" justice; to establish "liberty of thought, expression, belief, faith and worship;" to establish "equality of status and opportunity;" and to promote among all citizens a "fraternity assuring the dignity of the individual and the unity of the Nation."

The nation was to have a president, the first of whom was Dr. Rajendra Prasad, a Sanskrit scholar and longtime activist for independence and well being for the people of India. The nation's first prime minister was Nehru, a moderate or Fabian socialist, a progressive who had often denounced India's caste system and priest-ridden society. Nehru would tell a US ambassador to India, John Kenneth Galbraith, that he, Nehru, would be "the last Englishman to rule India." The British had left behind in India some of its values in the organization that had been created to throw it out. India's constitution created a parliamentary system similar to that of the United Kingdom, but with nearly 4,000 representatives, elected by a society that in the 1940s was 80 percent illiterate.

In April 1951, India's first five year economic plan was inaugurated, which proposed an 11 percent rise in national income by 1956. It was a success. Production in general increased 25 percent. Power and irrigation projects were undertaken. Food production increased. But increases were diminished by a growth in population, and by 1959 the government was endorsing family planning.

A second five-year plan began in 1956, which put more emphasis on advancing industrial capacity and infrastructure. Coal production increased from 38 million tons to 54,

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and India's power capacity doubled. The second five-year plan involved three times the spending of the first plan, with money borrowed from abroad, much of it from the United States. From the US, India had been receiving assistance in the form of food, but, with the rise in food production during the second five-year plan, India neared self-sufficiency and food aid from the US diminished.

Meanwhile, India's government created a limit as to how big one's land holdings could be, and it transformed millions who had been tenant farmers into farmers owning their own land. And the government was making life better for women. The new constitution had given women the right to vote and to rise to any position in the nation, including prime minister. People were free to marry people from different castes. In 1955, the government had raised the minimum age of marriage to fifteen. Also, Hindu women now had the right of divorce, including the right to sue for divorce if their husbands had acquired other wives – while Muslim men were still allowed their four wives. But husbands who took more than one wife were not allowed to divorce a previous spouse. Attitudes toward women in India were changing, more among the middle and upper classes than among the rural poor – rural folk in India, as in the rest of the world, being more conservative culturally.

A third five-year plan was begun in 1961. New steel factories were built, and India was on its way to being one of the seven most industrially advanced nations, accomplished by a combination of government initiative and private enterprise, despite a modicum of waste and individual corruption.

Foreign Affairs

India was the first country to recognize the People's Republic of China, which took power in December, 1949. India expressed sympathy with China's fears of US military retaliation against the Chinese revolution.

Tibet had arisen as an issue between China and India. Tibetans had hoped that the transfer of British power to India would give them an opportunity to regain the territory that, in their view, the British had taken from them a century before: the area of Sikkim and other mountainous places between Tibet and India. India ignored Tibet's claims.

In 1950, India increased its influence in Nepal. It encouraged Tibetan separatism from Chinese authority and attempted to increase its influence in Tibet – traditional self-interest geopolitics. The United States was also interested in Tibet remaining independent of Chinese control, and in 1950 a load of American weaponry was shipped into Tibet through Calcutta.

In late 1950, as China was beginning to send troops into Korea, 40,000 Chinese troops took Tibet's provincial capital of Qamdo, from eight directions. The small Tibetan force,

consisting of 8,000 troops and militia, were defeated and 4,000 of Tibetan forces killed. India was upset while China was describing the People's Liberation Army as liberating all Chinese territories, including Tibet and, in September 1951, Chinese troops were marching into Tibet's capital, Lhasa.

India's position in the Cold War was neutrality. It signed a treaty with China, recognizing that the Tibetan people were returned to the "big family of the Motherland," in other words, China. As a member of the United Nations, India, along with Norway and Sweden, was providing medical units for the United Nations forces fighting the Chinese and North Koreans in Korea.

In 1954, India signed a treaty of friendship with China, which included recognition of each other's territorial integrity and sovereignty. Border area territorial disputes remained. In June 1954, Zhou Enlai came to New Delhi where he received a grand welcome, but, in July, China was protesting the existence of Indian troops in mountainous Barahoti, which it called Wu-je.

In 1955, India took a lead in the meeting of representatives of twenty-nine African and Asian nations held at Bandung, Indonesia, in 1955. The aim of the conference was to promote economic and cultural cooperation and to oppose colonialism. Zhou Enlai also played a prominent part in the conference, while not invited to the conference were South Africa, Israel, Taiwan, South Korea and North Korea.

The Soviet Union's Nikita Khrushchev visited India in 1959 and received a big welcome. And to compete with the Russians it was decided in Washington that Eisenhower should also go to India. Eisenhower was well received. He was showered with flowers, and millions of citizens gathered at New Delhi's fairgrounds to hear him speak. It was the first of India's televised live broadcasts.

By 1961, Portugal's colonialist wars in Africa had increased the likelihood of its loss of the small state of Gao on Indian subcontinent. Portugal's ruler, Antonio Salazar, was in no mood to negotiate a peaceful transfer of Goa to India. On 19 December 1961, India sent land, sea and air forces against Goa. The people of Goa had not been warned, nor had President Kennedy. Portugal was a United States ally in the Cold War and a member of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization. Kennedy was annoyed with Nehru for not having mentioned a word of his intentions to him. The United Nations was never to recognize India's seizure of Goa, but in India the move was accepted as a rightful liberation of one more part of India from colonial rule.

In 1962, Nehru ran into trouble with Maoist China. Nehru had been criticized in China as a stooge for the capitalist imperialists. China viewed India's control of mountainous

Arunachal (in India's far northeast) as a continuation of British imperialism's theft of land that belonged to China. Having failed to win India's acceptance of its point of view, China moved troops into Arunachal that began on 20 October 1962. By November 18 the Chinese had reached the outskirts of Tezpur. India asked the United States for support, and on November 21 the Chinese declared a unilateral cease-fire. Each side had lost around 500 men, and any attempt by the Chinese to press farther into the plains of Assam would have exposed them to more difficult lines of supply and a more powerful resistance. The Chinese withdrew their troops from the area. India returned to administrative control over the area, and disagreement over whose land it was continued for years to come.

An Untouchable: Bhimroa Ramji Ambedkar

Bhimrao Ramji Ambedkar lived from 1891 to 1956. *Wikipedia* describes him as "born into a poor Untouchable family" and as having "spent his whole life fighting against social discrimination." The historian Arthur Herman writes that Ambedkar "could remember how, when he was a child, people had recoiled from him in horror and stepped five paces back when they learned his caste, and how at school he had been forced to sit on the floor so that he did not pollute the chairs. His teachers and fellow students refused to give him a drink of water unless they could pour it into his mouth without his lips touching the glass." (Churchill & Gandhi, p. 386)

It was bound to happen: someone born into low status who was to prove himself brighter than a lot of those born to a higher status. Ambedkar benefited from an opportunity that had been denied bright Untouchables before him. Herman describes Christian patrons as having paid Ambedkar's entry to the nondenominational Elphistone College in Bombay and then to Columbia University. *Wikipedia* describes him as one of the first Untouchables to obtain a college education in India and as having earned law degrees and multiple doctorates. "Ambedkar returned home a famous scholar and practiced law for a few years before publishing journals advocating political rights and social freedom for India's untouchables." Ambedkar was interested in justice for those who labored. "For centuries," writes Arthur Herman, "Ambedkar argued [that] traditional India had maintained itself by a system of exploitation disguised as spiritual hierarchy." (p. 386.) Ambedkar played a role in India's independence. *Wikipedia* describes him as the chief architect of India's Constitution.

discrimination, but Gandhi called the untouchables *Harijan* (Children of God), which Ambedkar thought condescending. Gandhi was submerged in Hinduism while Ambedkar was a critic of Hinduism. Gandhi romanticized traditional village life while Ambedkar, writes

Ambedkar had differences with Gandhi. Gandhi called for the abolition of untouchability and

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Wikipedia, "tended to encourage his followers to leave their home villages, move to the cities, and get an education."

Ambedkar was critical of Islam and its practices in South Asia. *Wikipedia* writes that "he condemned the practice of child marriage in Muslim society, as well as the mistreatment of women." He approved of self-determination for Muslims in their own state: Pakistan. Ambedkar converted to Buddhism and in 1955 founded *Bharatiya Buddha Mahasabha*, or the Buddhist Society of India. The days of Ambedkar's birth and death are annually commemorated in India. Since his death there have been clashes between Hindus hostile toward Ambedkar and Buddhist supporters of Ambedkar.

The Islamic Republic of Pakistan, to 1966

Legalities imposed by the British were a part of emerging Pakistan. Definitions of crimes, criminal proceedings, guidance as to what was and was not admissible evidence, and punishments, remained in place, except in places ruled by princes and in tribal areas near the border with Afghanistan. In tribal areas, the judgments of elders were still relied upon, some of these judgments based on the Koran and some on traditions from before Islamic times.

Pakistan emerged on 14 August 1947 with Lord Mountbatten swearing in Muhammad Ali Jinnah as Pakistan's Governor-General. Jinnah was also still president of the most powerful political body among Muslims: the Muslim League. And he was president of the Pakistan's Constituent Assembly – at body of select persons authorized to create a constitution. And Pakistan's Constituent Assembly named Jinnah the *Quaid-e-Azam* (Great Leader).

On 30 September 1947, Pakistan became a member of the United Nations. A year later, on11 September 1948, the *Great Leader*, who was eighty-one and had been suffering from tuberculosis, died. With Jinnah's death the President of the Constituent Assembly passed Maulvi Tamizuddin. Khwaja Nazimudden became Governor General. President of the Muslim League passed to Liaqat Ali Khan. Pakistan was far from unified politically. Influential persons who had moved from India to the western portion of Pakistan were resented by indigenous politicians. Opposing views existed between secular-oriented Pakistanis and those wanting an Islamic state. Those from urban areas with middleclass backgrounds tended to be secular-minded and believers in free enterprise. Rural Pakistanis tended to favor the establishment of an Islamic state and a state managed economy. The Muslim League was divided in outlook. Bitter conflict existed over who was to have power over the instruments of government, and wrangling continued over

The president of the Muslim League, Liaquat Ali Khan, was among the secularists, and in 1951 he was assassinated, with suspicions lingering that his death had been plotted by

factions within the government. After his death, Pakistan's civil service – the bureaucrats – dominated government authority. Pakistan still had no constitution. Riots occurred in Bengali (or eastern) Pakistan in 1952 when the government in Karachi attempted to make Urdu the official language of all Pakistan. The Bengalis were 54 percent of the population and also angry over being inadequately represented in Pakistan's capital.

Economics and Cold War Politics

Pakistan inherited a rural economy, manufacturing in 1947 being only 6 percent of Pakistan's Gross National Product. Pakistan's population was predominantly rural, with four fifths of its population dependent upon agriculture. Those who had arrived from India had left behind much of their wealth and had to be accommodated economically, and India severing trade with Pakistan in 1949 was also an economic burden.

The Korean War, which began in 1950, brought wealth to Pakistani merchants who sold raw materials to the anti-Communist nations. The merchants invested their profits in the manufacture of consumer goods for Pakistanis – Pakistan's first industrial revolution. Pakistan's economy, measured as Gross National Product, began growing at a rate of 18 percent a year, the high percentage made possible by meagre beginnings. From 1954, Pakistan's government stepped in and established an elaborate system of exchange controls to protect the country's infant industry from outside competition and to supply the budding industrialists with more capital for technological growth. Cooperation on matters of creating wealth was more easily achieved than political harmony.

Also in 1954, Pakistan joined the Southeast Asia Treaty Organization (SEATO) created by US Secretary of State John Foster Dulles. Dulles disliked India's prime minister, Nehru, and described Nehru's neutrality as immoral. Dulles saw Pakistan as a front-rank ally against the spread of Communism. He told the American journalist Walter Lippmann that Pakistanis were "the only real fighting men in South Asia," and he added that "We could never get along without the Gurkas." When Lippman pointed out that the Gurkas were not Pakistanis but Indians, Dulles said, "They may not be Pakistanis but they're Muslims," to which Lippmann replied that they were Hindus. "No matter," said Dulles.

It was India that concerned Pakistan, rather than the Soviet Union or China. Pakistan asked Dulles to include under the shield of his alliance protection from aggression from all sides, not just from Communist states. But Dulles refused. Pakistan was pleased, however, as it benefited from loans and military equipment from the United States.

A Constitution and Military Coup

Pakistanis, like everyone else, were concerned with international prestige, and with good reason. They believed themselves to be as bright and capable as anyone. India had created its constitution in early 1950, and the Pakistanis finally established their constitution in 1956. The Islamists were accommodated, the preamble to the constitution speaking of Allah as having "sovereignty over the entire Universe." It spoke of authority exercised by the people of Pakistan as being within the limits "prescribed by Him is a sacred trust." The preamble spoke of all laws of Pakistan conforming to the Koran and the Sunnah.

Muslim scholars (*Ulema*) in Pakistan had been urging that all legislation be null and void that contravened in letter or spirit the law as laid down in the Koran. They had been urging that the powers of government be derived from and circumscribed by and exercised within the limits of the Islamic law (*Sharia*) alone. Political constitutions, nevertheless, had to deal with matters that Muhammad the Prophet had ignored: specifics in the distribution of power and succession. Pakistan's Constitution proclaimed that members of central and provincial legislatures were to be elected every five years, that parliament was to be ruled by a president and that effective power was to be with a prime minister. Also, Pakistan was to remain a member of the Commonwealth – a secularist innovation.

Pakistan's 1956 constitution was followed by a political harmony no greater than Islam had experienced following the death of the Prophet. Regional politicians resented powers accorded to those from other regions – the most favored and resented region being the Punjab. A plan to merge some regions was resented. An important government minister was assassinated and other violence and ethnic unrest was on the rise. The Pashtuns (in the northwest and next to Afghanistan) were seeking a separate homeland for themselves, and in Baluchistan the Khan of Kalat declared independence.

The Muslim League, the dominant political party of politicians at the time of independence, had by now lost most of its public support. The Muslim League tried to make a comeback by appealing to the Kashmir issue, declaring its support for Muslims in Kashmir. But it failed.

Pakistan was coming apart politically, and, on 7 October 1958, Pakistan's president, Iskander Mirza, with support from the army and the civil service bureaucracy, suspended the constitution and imposed martial law. Elections scheduled for January 1959 were canceled. Then the head of the military, General Muhammad Ayub Khan, had a parting of the ways with president Mirza, and, on October 27, General Khan assumed control of the government.

Pakistan led by Ayub Khan

Muhammad Ayub Khan tried to curb excessive profits by industrialists, but found that matters economic did not obey his orders as did his subordinates in the army. But Ayub Khan was a man of breadth, including an education at England's military academy at Sandhurst, where he had earned scholarships, and he had served as a major and then a colonel on various fronts during World War II.

Muhammad Ayub Khan was an example of Pakistani potential. He wanted economic and social progress for Pakistan. In 1960, he launched Pakistan's second five-year plan. He continued Pakistan's ties with the United States, which brought more economic assistance. Ayub Khan wanted to lift Pakistan from its high infant and child mortality and low education levels. Only 30 percent of Pakistan's children were attending primary school, compared to India's 61 percent. In Pakistan, only 16 percent of female children were attending primary school, compared to India's 40 percent. In Pakistan, 15 percent of the population was literate, in India 75 percent.

In 1961, Ayub Khan instituted the Muslim Family Laws Ordinance, seen by some Muslim scholars as an assault against Islam. The law included a provision in which a second marriage to be valid had to be approved by the state and by the man's first wife. And to marry, boys had to be eighteen and girls fourteen.

War and Kashmir

In 1962, martial law was replaced by a second constitution, with the preamble to the 1956 constitution remaining in place to appease the Islamists. In 1962 war erupted between India and China, and Ayub Khan was advised that he should take advantage of the war by moving troops into Kashmir, but Ayub Khan knew war, disliked war, and was adamantly opposed to war with India.

It was after the four-week war between China and India that US military supplies began arriving in India. The Kennedy Administration had promised that weapons given to India would never be used by India against Pakistan, but the Pakistanis were not convinced. And President Kennedy had promised Ayub Khan that Pakistan would be consulted before any military aid was extended to India. Kennedy had not done this. Ayub Khan was "deeply offended" and never forgave Kennedy. Pakistanis had hoped that in giving weapons to Pakistan, the US would insist on reciprocation from India beneficial to Pakistan. Ayub Khan believed that it was a good time for the US to put pressure on India for a settlement of the Kashmir issue, but the US made no such move. And many in Pakistan viewed the United States as having betrayed a friend and ally. Disappointed over its relations with the United States, Pakistan moved toward closer ties with China, and President Lyndon Johnson lectured Ayub Khan's foreign minister that if Pakistan continued to build its relations with China, there would be a "serious public relations problem."

In late February, 1964, Zhou Enlai announced China's support for the Muslim liberation of Kashmir. Nehru seemed on a path toward making an agreement over Kashmir. There was talk of giving the Kashmiris another chance to decide their own future and talk of the 1957 and 1962 elections in Kashmir as having been rigged. Then, in May, 1964, Nehru died. Ayub Khan ran for re-election, challenged by Fatima Jinnah, the younger sister of the *Great Leader*, Muhammad Ali Jinnah. Ayub Khan's opposition appealed to the new anti-Americanism in Pakistan. Ayub Khan's popularity had dropped because he was seen as having been too close to United States policy and because he had failed to join China against India in 1962. But the ballot counting favored Ayub Khan, giving him four more years in office.

Since Nehru's death, India had begun calling Kashmir an 'integral part' of the country, contrary to the UN resolutions and India's pledges regarding Kashmir. It appeared to Pakistan that the Kashmir issue could be settled only by a Pakistani move. In Pakistan a plan was laid to send thousands of fighters – *mujahideen* – in civilian clothes into India-governed Kashmir to mix with the native population. It was believed that such a force would inspire a popular uprising among the Muslims of India-governed Kashmir and that a guerrilla war would win freedom for them within a few weeks. It was believed that if this did not happen at least the United Nations would be forced to intervene to create a cease fire and that a UN intervention might be favorable to the Pakistani position on Kashmir.

The Mujahideen crossed into India-ruled Kashmir on 5 August 1965. Skirmishes with Indian forces started as early as August 6 or 7. Local Muslims did not co-operate with the arriving force to the degree that Pakistan had hoped, and, on September 6, soon after having learned of the movement of an infiltration of soldiers from Pakistan, India declared war. India's army penetrated Pakistan and quickly found stalemate. In late September the war officially ended with an agreement signed in Tashkent (in the Soviet Union) on 10 January 1966. There the Prime Minister of India, Lal Bahadur Shastri, and the President of Pakistan, Ayub Khan, declared their resolve to restore normal and peaceful relations between their two countries and to promote understanding and friendly relations between their peoples. They reaffirmed their obligation under the United Nation's Charter not to resort to force and to settle their disputes through peaceful means.

India and Pakistan, to 2002

In Kashmir in early 1990, Muslim separatists began a campaign of violence, and the old hostilities and tensions between India and Pakistan increased, with Pakistan denying charges by India that it had given money and guns to the Muslim rebels in Kashmir. In India, Muslims were living peacefully alongside their Hindu neighbors – the Muslims a minority at around 12 percent of the population. But some Hindus still hated Muslims, and some Hindus wanted to move India from a secular state to a closer association with Hinduism.

In 1992, in India's northern state of Uttar Pradesh, Hindus demolished the Muslim mosque at Ayodhya, built in 1528 during the time of the Muslim conqueror Babur (when Ayodhya was called Oudh). The Hindu wrecking crew complained that the mosque had been built on top of the birthplace of their deity, Lord Rama. The tearing down of the mosque triggered more Hindu-Muslim violence in India.

Those who destroyed the mosque were aligned with the Bharatiya Janata Party (BJP). The Congress Party was declining since the murder of Prime Minister Rajiv Gandhi in 1991 (by a suicide bomber associated with a dissident group in Sri Lanka), and in 1966 the Congress Party suffered its worst electoral defeat. The BJP emerged as India's strongest political party. Accused of religious chauvinism and of threatening India's secular tradition, BJP leadership appealed to as many voters as it could by proclaiming its tolerance of Christians (2.3 percent of the population) and Muslims and running one Muslim as a BJP candidate.

Pakistan, meanwhile, was suffering political instability. Its Prime Minister, Benazir Bhutto, had been working on improving relations with India, but in late 1996 she was sacked by Pakistan's president and new elections had been called. In those elections, Bhutto and her People's Party lost, and Bhutto claimed election fraud. The winner was Nawaz Sharif of the Muslim League. To secure his power, Sharif used his parliamentary majority to undermine every conceivable challenge to his power. Pakistan was sliding further into bankruptcy and anarchy. Sharif imposed "quasi-marshal law." And in August, 1997, fighting resumed in Kashmir, with Indian and Pakistani troops exchanging artillery fire along the disputed Kashmir border.

In India, middle and upper class groups were trying to suppress demands from poorer folks for land reform and the payment of minimum wages. At the end of the year, the BJP promised to address the abuse and discrimination against the poor. The Congress Party ran Rajiv Gandhi's Italian-born widow, Sonia, who complained of political parties using religion for political gain. The BJP candidate won and a new government formed under Prime Minister Atal Behari Vajpayee.

In May, 1998, it was reported that India had conducted its first nuclear tests since 1974. China was already a nuclear power, with over 2300 nuclear warheads. The pro-nuclear strategists in India believed that having nuclear weapons were a deterrent whereas those who did not have nuclear weapons were vulnerable to attack. Pakistan also felt vulnerable and, in late May, Pakistan tested five underground nuclear devices. The Clinton administration responded to the nuclear testing by placing economic sanctions against both India and Pakistan.

Comment by a nuclear scientist from India, Manjit Singh: Regarding the Kargil conflict in 1999 there is overwhelming evidence to support the fact that regular and paramilitary personnel of Pakistan army were fighting the Indian army. The Islamic militants were only a false front and contributed towards only 10-20% of the total intruders. Even these 10-20% militants were used as porters and helping hands and rarely employed in the fighting. There is enough evidence to support these statements.

In February 1999, the prime ministers of India and Pakistan – Vajpayee and Sharif – agreed on steps to reduce the risk of an escalation of hostilities. In May, relations between India and Pakistan collapsed again. What is known as the Kargil War began. Islamic militants seized strategic heights inside a portion of Kashmir, at Kargil, claimed by India. India launched air strikes and a ground assault while Pakistan denied India's claim that it was backing the Muslim guerrillas.

Prime Minister Sharif of Pakistan pledged full support to the Kashmir campaign. Then, on July 12, under pressure from the US, he ordered a full withdrawal, and India's leaders celebrated what they saw as a victory.

On 12 October 1999, Sharif's government announced the sacking of army chief Pervez Musharraf. Musharraf supported self-determination for Muslims in Kashmir and accused Sharif of having grown soft on that issue. He led a bloodless coup against Sharif. The new military regime claimed that civil rights, press freedoms and the judiciary remained intact, and it denounced Sharif for having systematically destroyed state institutions and driven the economy toward collapse. Musharraf pledged reform and appointed an eight-member National Security Council to function as Pakistan's supreme governing body. In May, 2000, Pakistan's Supreme Court ruled that the Musharraf's coup was legal. It set a three-year deadline for the restoration of democracy, and Musharraf announced elections for October 2002. Sharif was released from prison in December 2000 and sent into exile to Saudi Arabia.

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