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OPEC oil and the resulting growth in demand for coal seem likely to force up coal prices to a profitable \$30 a ton. By the year 2000, Australia is expected to ship 136 million tons of coal abroad, surpassing the United States as the world's leading exporter.

The half million tons of uranium oxide discovered in Australia since 1970 represent about 20 percent of known world reserves. During 1972-75, Prime Minister Gough Whitlam's Labor government blocked most mining and prevented exports. Both aboriginies and most labor unions shared his concerns over environmental and safety hazards. But Liberal Malcolm Fraser, Prime Minister since 1975, is pushing hard for energy development. Further, the new jobs promised by such mining have split both the Labor party and union leadership, greatly weakening the old opposition.

Natural gas prospects are also bright. British Petroleum, Shell, and other oil companies are jointly planning to exploit the 12-trillion-cubic-foot gas reserves located off Australia's northwest coast. Though the gas fields lie under a 120,000-square-kilometer stretch of the Indian Ocean, production for export is scheduled to begin in 1985.

Australia still imports 30 percent of the oil it needs. But the Fraser government is using tax incentives to spur exploration on land and offshore. Exxon is currently drilling off southern and western Australia. And oil shale deposits in northeastern Australia reportedly contain the equivalent of 2 to 3 billion barrels of crude. Here, production—but not export—of 250,000 barrels per day is expected by 1982.

Iran's History of Anti-Semitism

"Jews under Muslim Rule: The Case of Persia" by David Littman, in *The Wiener Library Bulletin* (vol. 32, 1979), Institute of Contemporary History, 4 Devonshire St., London, W.I., United Kingdom.

When Ayatollah Ruhollah Khomeini's revolutionaries ousted the Shah in early 1979, Iran's 70,000 remaining Jews feared that the Shiite Muslim leader would encourage a new wave of persecution and discrimination. Littman, a specialist on Jews in Muslim countries, suggests that Iran's history justifies such fears.

Jews were frequently victims of oppression in Iran (or Persia) after Islam swept through the region in the 7th century. Their lot was particularly hard under rulers belonging to the Shiah sect. Shiah Islam became Persia's state religion with the advent of the Safavid dynasty in 1502. For most of the next 150 years, Jews were forced to accept the unequal relationship (*dhimma*) between Muslims and non-Muslims. They were also regarded as ritually "unclean" by the Shiite clergy. Sometimes only Persia's fiscal needs saved Jews from forced conversion—in 1661, a five-year ban on the practice of Judaism was lifted to permit Persian officials to reimpose a tax on infidels.

The persecution of Persia's Jews dramatically increased under the Kajar dynasty (1794-1925). The slaughter of all 400 of Tabriz's Jews in 1830 began a decade of massacres and forcible conversions. Through-

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out the 19th century, Stillman writes, European visitors reported "the profound misery of Persia's Jews."

Starting in 1873, the Alliance Israélite Universelle, a Paris-based organization of European Jews, began protesting the plight of Persian Jews. By the 1890s, the Alliance persuaded the Kajar Shah to order a halt to all mistreatment and discrimination. But by then the monarchy had little control over the clergy or local authorities. It was not until the last Shah's father, Reza Pahlavi, began a new dynasty in 1925 that religious tolerance became the law, strictly enforced.

Looking Beyond Idi Amin

"Disunity in East Africa" by Anthony J. Hughes, in *Africa Report* (Nov.-Dec. 1979), Transaction, Inc., Rutgers—The State University, New Brunswick, N.J. 08903.

The overthrow of Uganda's dictator, Idi Amin, by Tanzanian troops in April 1979 was widely expected to revive cooperation among Britain's former East African colonies. But according to *Africa Report* editor Hughes, the continuing failure of Uganda, Tanzania, and Kenya to improve relations indicates that Amin was not the basic problem.

The three nations had been linked by common government services during 40 years of British rule. The newly created East African Community and Common Market held them together more superficially after independence came during the early 1960s.

But each new regime followed a different path. Kenya (population: 14.6 million) under the late Jomo Kenyatta favored free enterprise and the West. Massive British aid to colonial Kenya created a stable economy able to withstand later soaring oil prices and runaway population growth. Kenya's politics are "manipulated" but relatively free. President Julius Nyerere of Tanzania (population: 16.4 million) moved in a socialist direction. Abroad, he courted Mao's China and became a leader of the nonaligned movement. At home, his one-party regime nationalized most businesses and industry and collectivized agriculture. The economy stagnated.

These differences led to outright hostility during the early 1970s. Amin's rise in Uganda created political strains; world energy and monetary crises shook financial relationships. By 1976, the Common Market and Community had collapsed in all but name. Kenya and Tanzania closed their common frontier. Relations worsened again following the short Tanzania-Uganda border war that led to Amin's ouster. Nyerere felt Kenya's leaders tilted toward Amin, and many Kenyans feared further Tanzanian expansion.

Lately, Kenya and Tanzania have edged toward conciliation. Nyerere and Kenya's new President Daniel Arap Moi re-established reciprocal airspace rights. A World Bank official is trying to fairly divide the Community's assets and debts. Yet the Kenya-Tanzania border is still closed, and ideological differences remain. Hughes sees "little hope of accommodation," let alone a return to the cooperation of decades past.