

SCIENCE AND SCIENTISTS IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES¹

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I was born in the country town of Jhang, then part of British India, now Pakistan, in 1926. My father was a teacher and educational official in the Department of Education and my mother was a housewife. I had 6 brothers and 1 sister. My family was by no means rich. My father took a vast amount of interest in my school work. He had great ambitions for me. I was destined for the Indian Civil Service, entry to which was by competitive examination. However, this was not to be—as events in my life took a different turning.

When I was at school in about 1936 I remember the teacher giving us a lecture on the basic forces in Nature. He began with gravity. Of course we had all heard of gravity. Then he went on to say “Electricity. Now there is a force called electricity, but it doesn’t live in our town Jhang, it lives in the capital town of Lahore, 100 miles to the east”. He had just heard of the nuclear force and he said “that only exists in Europe”. This is to demonstrate what it was like to be taught in a developing country.

When I was 14, I won a scholarship to Government College, Lahore, with the highest marks ever recorded. I recall that when I cycled home from Lahore, the whole town turned out to welcome me. I wrote my first research paper when I was about sixteen years of age which was published in a mathematics journal but I wasn’t actually hooked on research till I went to Cambridge University.

I was very fortunate to get a scholarship to go to Cambridge. The famous Indian Civil Service examinations had been suspended because of the war and there was a fund of money that had been collected by the Prime Minister of Punjab. This money had been intended for use during the war, but there was some of it left unuesed and five scholarships were created for study abroad. It was 1946 and I managed to get a place in one of the boats that were full with British families who were leaving before Indian Independence. If I had not gone that year, I wouldn’t have been able to go to Cambridge; in the following year there was the partition between India and Pakistan and the scholarships simply disappeared.

¹ This article is put together from various interviews given by Salam, and the sentences are mostly his; we thought that it might be instructive for the reader to understand Salam’s motivations in establishing ICTP.

At Cambridge, I achieved a First in the Mathematics Tripos in two years. I still had a third year free in the sense that I had the scholarship and the choice of whether to go on with higher mathematics—that's part III of the mathematics tripos—or to do the physics tripos. On the advice of my tutor, Fred Hoyle, who said "If you want to become a physicist, even a theoretical physicist, you must do the experimental course at the Cavendish. Otherwise, you will never be able to look an experimental physicist in the eye", I joined the Cavendish Laboratory where Rutherford had carried out his experiments on the structure of the atom. The Cavendish was an outstanding laboratory for experimental work and a focus for physicists around the world. However, I had very little patience with experimental equipment. To be a good experimenter you must have patience towards things which are not always in your control. I think a theoretician has got to be patient too, but that is with something of his own creation, his own constructs, his own stupidities.

The very first experiment I was asked to do was to measure the difference in wave length of the two sodium D lines, the most prominent lines in the sodium spectrum. I reckoned that if I drew a straight line on the graph paper then its intercept would give me the required quantity I wanted to measure. Mathematically, a straight line is defined by two points and if you take one other reading then mathematically that should be enough since you then have three points on that line, two to define the straight line and the third one to confirm. I spent three days in setting up that equipment. After that I took three readings, and took them to be marked. In those days the marking of experimental work in the class counted towards your final examination. Sir Denys Wilkinson was one of the men who supervised our experimental work, and I took it to him. He looked at my straight line, and asked "What's your background?" I said "Mathematics". He said "Ah, I thought so. You realise that instead of three readings you should have taken one thousand readings and drawn a straight line through them". I had by that time dismantled my stuff and didn't want to go back. So I tried very hard to avoid Denys Wilkinson during the rest of the year. I still remember the results came out in 1949. I was looking at the results sheets hung in the Cavendish and Wilkinson came up behind me. He looked at me and said "What sort of class have you got?" and I very modestly said "Well, I've got a first class". He turned full circle on his heel, three hundred and sixty degrees, turned completely round, and said "Shows you how wrong you can be about people".

I went back to Lahore in 1951 and taught there at the University. But as a physicist, I was completely isolated. It was very difficult to get the journals and keep in touch with my subject. I had to leave my country to remain a physicist. Now, it is the lack of this contact with others that is the biggest curse of being a scientist in a developing country. You simply do not have the funds, the opportunities, which those from richer countries enjoy as a matter of course. There are not the communities of people thinking and working in the same fields. This is what we have tried to cure by bringing people together at the International Centre for Theoretical Physics which I founded in Trieste in 1964. The Centre provides the possibility for scientists to remain in their own country for the bulk of the time, but come to the Centre to carry out research for three months or so. They meet people working in the same subject, learn new ideas and can return to their own country charged with a mission to change the image of science and technology in their own country.

I returned to Cambridge in 1954 as a lecturer and Fellow of St. John's College. Three years later, I accepted a professorship at Imperial College, London, where I succeeded in establishing one of the best theoretical physics groups in the world.

The pinnacle of my physics career came in 1979 when I shared the Nobel Physics Prize with Sheldon Glashow and Steven Weinberg for our unification of electromagnetism and the weak nuclear force in the 'electroweak' (a word which I invented in 1978) theory, one of the major achievements of twentieth century physics. This theory had made predictions that could be verified by experiment. The most revealing of these was that a new particle exists at extreme energies. To test this theory we had to convince the experimental physicists working on the great particle accelerators to build new equipment: To create, in principle, conditions that would be similar to those first few moments in the birth of the universe. In 1983 the final confirmation was obtained with the discovery that the predicted particles—the intermediate vector bosons—did exist. Called W^+ , W^- and Z^0 , these hypothetical particles were seen for a few fleeting moments under the cosmic conditions of the CERN accelerator. This temporary existence was enough to demonstrate that the unification theory was an accurate description of the fundamental nature of matter. This experimental verification led to the award of the Nobel Prize to Carlo Rubbia and Simon van der Meer in 1984.

I spoke earlier of the difficulties of doing science in developing countries. I would like to conclude with an appeal. Funds allotted for science in developing countries are small, and the scientific communities sub-critical. Developing countries must realize that the scientific men and women are a precious asset. They must be given opportunities, responsibilities for the scientific and technological developments in their countries. Quite often, the small numbers that exist are underutilized. The goal must be to increase their numbers because a world divided between the haves and have-nots of science and technology cannot endure in equilibrium. It is our duty to redress this inequity.