land area in the world, stretching across the northern part of the
north American continent. It is a federal union of 10 provinces
whose powers are laid down in British North America Act of 1867.
The executive powers rest nominally in the hands of the Governor-
General who represents the English Queen. Actually Governor-
General acts only with the advice of the Prime Minister and
members of the Cabinet. The Parliament has two houses—a
Senate and a House of Commons. Canada exports newsprint, wood-
pulp, wood, fish and fishery products, aluminium, copper, nickel and
gram. Canada leads the world in production of asbestos, nickel and
platinum; ranks second in aluminium, gold and zinc and fourth in
copper and lead. Of special interest is the uranium ore mined in the
northern Canada, one of the only two places so far known in the world
where raw material for atomic energy can be mined easily. Cana-
dian fishing are among the most extensive and prolific in the world.
It has two official languages, English and French. Area: 3,845,744 sq.

CENTRAL AFRICAN FEDERATION—was established by an
Act of the British Parliament in 1953. It affects Northern and
Southern Rhodesia and Nyasaland. Northern Rhodesia and Southern
Rhodesia have a Governor, an executive council and a legislature.
Nyasaland is a protectorate. Under the Constitution of 1953, fede-
ration has a virtual self-governing status and each of the three
territories will retain status in local matters.

CEYLON—The island of Ceylon lies in the Indian Ocean, 13 miles
off the southern tip of India at its closest point. It is now an indepen-
dent republic within the Commonwealth. The constitution provides
for a parliament composed of a Senate and a House of Representatives.
The administration is in the hands of the Cabinet of Ministers headed
by the Prime Minister and responsible to the legislature. Buddhism
is the religion of the majority. There are more than 1,610,000
Hindus. Area: 25,332 sq. m. Population—8,384,000. Capital—
Colombo.

CHILE—A democratic State lies on the west coast of South
America. In Chile, the only natural nitrate in the world is found.
So sixty per cent of the world’s iodine is obtained as a by-product of
nitrate processing. World’s second largest copper producer is Chile.
Official language is Spanish. There is a National Congress consisting
of a Senate of 45 members elected for eight years and a Chamber of
Deputies with 147 members, elected for four years. The President
is elected for six years by direct popular vote. Area: 290,000 sq. m.

CHINA—China is now divided into two parts with the Republic
of China limited to Taiwan (Formosa) and the mainland under the
Communist regime known as People’s Republic of China.

The Nationalist China is now confined to Formosa since 1950.
It is an island of 110 miles of the mainland of China. Under the con-
sitution of 1947, the highest state organ is the National Assembly.
It is the sovereign organ of the people. The Assembly elects Presi-
dent and Vice-President for a term of 6 years. The organs of the
government include Executive yuan (cabinet) whose members headed by the Premier are appointed by the President with the concurrence of the Legislative yuan; and the Legislative yuan, when the Assembly is not in session, has ultimate control over the cabinet.

The People's Republic of China which controls the entire mainland was proclaimed in Peiping (Peking) on September 1949 after the defeat of the Nationalist armies under Chiang Kai-shek. The communist set up a soviet-type government. The People's Republic and the Soviet Union signed a 30-year treaty of friendship and mutual aid on February 14, 1950. The Constitution of the People's Republic adopted by the National People's Congress on Sept. 1954 established the Congress as the highest organ of State power. Executive power is vested in the Chairman or President elected for 4-year term by the Congress. He appoints the Premier and his cabinet. The Cabinet is the highest administrative organ. Effective control is exercised by the Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party. Capital—Peking.

COLOMBIA—South American Republic lies in the extreme north-west of South America, having a coast line on both the Atlantic and Pacific. Area: 447,536 sq. m. Pop.—12,657,070. Capital—Bagota.

COSTA RICA—is an independent republic in the southern part of Central America between Nicaragua and Panama. The Government of Costa Rica is republican, democratic and representative. Government functions are exercised through four semi-independent but interrelated branches: the Executive, the Legislative (Single Chamber), Judiciary and the Electoral Organisation. Area: 23,420 sq. m. Pop.—1,000,000. Capital—San Jose.

CUBA—An independent Central American State, is the largest island in the West Indies. It is the largest cane-sugar producer in the world. Tobacco ranks second in importance. The constitution is modelled on that of the U.S.A. and provides for a President, a Vice-President, a Senate and a House of Representatives. Area: 46,736 sq. m. Pop.—5,832,277. Capital—Havana.

CZECHOSLOVAKIA—A central European republic formed in 1918 as one of the succession states of the Austro-Hungarian Empire; it then comprised Bohemia, Moravia with Austrian Silesia, Slovakia and Ruthenia. Ruthenia was, however, ceded to Russia in 1945. In 1948, after the establishment of the People's Republic, the old provinces were abolished and the country was divided into 19 regions. It has a soviet-type constitution, promulgated on June 8, 1948. There is a unicameral Parliament, the supreme organ of the State with control over Courts and Civil Service. The government is headed by the President, elected by Parliament for a seven-year term and the Prime Minister and his cabinet, who are appointed by the President but are responsible to the Parliament. The constitution contains guarantees of civil liberties and provides that the State shall conduct all economic activity in the public interest on the basis of single economic plan. Czechoslovakia possesses one of the richest territories in Europe, both in the matter of natural
resources and industrial development. Area: 49,380 sq. m. Pop.: 13,272,000. Capital—Prague (Praha).

DENMARK—Denmark is a constitutional monarchy—the oldest kingdom of Europe. The Danish Parliament (the Folketing) has 179 members. Since 1915, women enjoy political rights equally with men. Agriculture is all-out importance to the Danish economy. Farm products (butter, bacon, cheese, eggs) are Denmark’s most important export articles. Industry and handicrafts employ more workers than agriculture and Denmark has developed a substantial export of machinery of many kinds, manufactured consumers goods, etc. Denmark’s foreign trade is the largest in the world per head of population. Denmark’s social services are highly developed. Greenland, world’s largest island, is a part of Denmark. Size: 840,000 sq. miles; population 24,000. Area of Denmark: 17,115 sq. miles; Population: 4,281,275 (1950), Capital—Copenhagen.

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC—An independent Central American State, sharing the Caribbean island of Hispaniola with Haiti. It lies east of Cuba between the Atlantic Ocean and the Caribbean Sea. It is governed by President and a Congress consisting of a Senate and a Chamber of Deputies. Area: 19,322 sq. m. Pop.: 2,608,600. Capital—Cuidad Trujillo.

EGYPT—An independent republic of N.-E. Africa since 1953. It is the largest and the most influential of Arab States. Egypt was a semi-independent state with a hereditary Khedive under Turkish sovereignty from 1841–1916. From 1882 it was occupied by British troops and was under British administration. In 1914 a British protectorate was declared. The Anglo-Egyptian Treaty of 1936 recognised Egyptian sovereignty but gave to the United Kingdom the right to maintain a garrison on the Suez Canal, to use Alexandria and Port Said as naval bases and to move troops across Egypt in case of war or threat of war; Sudan was to remain an Anglo-Egyptian condominium under joint administration. There was growing discontent in Egypt over the presence of foreign troops and also with the economic structure of the country with the result that King Farouk had to abdicate in 1952. The Egyptian treaty of 1936 with U. K. was terminated in 1954, it being agreed that all British forces were to leave the zone by June 1956. General M. Naguib was President and Prime Minister from 1950 to 1954 when he was accused of concentrating all powers in his own hands and was relieved of all his posts. Colonel Gamal Abdel Nasser became Prime Minister and President in 1956. Egypt has been the leader of the Arab League since its formation in 1954. In 1958 Egypt has joined with Syria to form United Arab Republic. Area: 386,198 sq. m. Pop.: 23,410,000. Capital—Cairo.

EQUADOR—Republic in the Pacific coast of South America. Equador is the world’s chief source of the supply of balsa, a light wood. It exports more bananas than any other country. Area: 116,270 sq. m. Population: 3,777,000. Capital—Quito.

EL SALVADOR—is the smallest of the six Central American Re-
publics and the only one without an Atlantic Sea coast. Area: 8,259 sq. m. Population—2,268,000. Capital—San Salvador.

FINLAND—Republic in N.-W. Europe, declared an independent State in 1917; fringed by islands and dotted with lakes, the State was an autonomous Russian State, but proclaimed an independent state in July 29, 1917 and a republic in 1919. Under the constitution there is a single Chamber composed of 200 members, elected by universal suffrage. The legislative power is vested in the Chamber and the President. The highest executive power is held by the President who is elected for a period of six years. One of the chief occupations in Finland is lumbering; articles made from wood include matches, constructional timber, paper and cellulose. The President is chosen for a term of six years. Area: 130,165 sq. m. Pop.—4,288,000 Capital—Helsinki.

FRANCE—Republic of Western Europe bordering on Spain in the S.-W. Italy, Switzerland and Germany in the E., Belgium and Luxemburg in the N.-E., and facing the Mediterranean, Atlantic Ocean and English Channel on the S., W. and N. respectively. The Constitution of the Fourth Republic came into force in Dec. 1946 and vested the Government in the National Assembly elected by the universal suffrage, and the Council of the Republic. Both Chambers are elected on a territorial basis: the National Assembly directly by universal suffrage, the Council of the Republic indirectly by the Councils of the communes and departments of Metropolitan France, Algeria and the overseas territories. The President of the Republic is chosen at a joint sitting of both houses. He appoints the President of the Council of Ministers (Prime Minister).

French Union—This is an association of all French overseas possessions and metropolitan France, established under the Constitution of the Fourth Republic in 1946. It has a President who is the President of the Republic, a High Council which was to include a delegation of the French Government and representatives of the Associate States and an Assembly of the representatives of the entire Union. The function of the High Council is to advise and assist the French Government in the management of the Union. Its powers are almost negligible. Area: 212,659 sq. m. Population—43,787,000. Capital—Paris.

FORMOSA—A large island off the south-eastern coast of China. It was a part of Chinese Empire but occupied by Japan. In the second World War, United States and U. K. promised to restore this island to China. In 1945 China led by Chiang Kai-shek was allowed to occupy and administer the island. When in 1949 the Communist Party in China became the ruling power, Chiang was forced to flee to Formosa where he established the so-called Nationalist Government of China with the support of U.S. In spite of the repeated protest of the People's Republic of China, U. S. declared that any invasion of this island or of nearby islands would have to get past the U. S. Seventh Fleet. U. K. has given de jure recognition to the Chinese People's Republic but U. S. recognises only the Government of Chiang Kai-shek. The island is maintained by the unlimited military aid

GERMANY—After the fall of Germany in the World War II, for the purposes of control, Germany was divided in 1945 into four national occupation zones, each headed by a military governor assisted by appropriate supervisory and operating staff. Efforts to unify Germany were totally unsuccessful, and the western powers were unable to agree with U.S.S.R. on any fundamental issue. So on May 31, 1948 U. S., Britain, France and Benelux countries agreed to set up a German State comprising the three western zones.

The Federal Republic of Germany came into formal existence on September 1, 1949 when Allied High Commission transferred to it the administration of the U. S., British and French Zones of occupation of Germany. On May 23, 1949 the German Constituent Assembly at Bonn enacted the constitution for Western Germany.

By the constitution, Republic was given full legislature, executive and judicial powers, but not in respect of such matters as armaments, reparations, decartelization, foreign affairs, the admission of refugees and other matters. The London and Paris agreements were ratified by the three occupying powers on 5th May, 1955. Under the Agreement, the Republic attained full sovereignty and independence, though American, British and French Forces were given permission to remain on German territory. Under the constitution, there is a Federal Diet elected by the universal suffrage for a term of four years and a Federal Council. Area: 95,724 sq. m. Population—53,500,000. Capital—Bonn.

German Democratic Republic comprises Soviet zone of occupation of Eastern Germany. It was proclaimed on Oct. 7, 1949 with its seat at Berlin on the basis of a Constitution adopted on May 30, 1949 by a People's Congress. The Constitution is Soviet in nature. Under a treaty between the German Democratic Republic and the U.S.S.R. in 1955, the Republic became a Sovereign State and was given complete freedom to decide all questions concerning its internal and foreign policy. Area: 42,112 sq. m. Population—18,000,000. Capital—Berlin.


GREAT BRITAIN & NORTHERN IRELAND—The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland comprising England, Wales, Scotland, Northern Ireland, Island of Man and the Channel Islands, lies on the north-west corner of Europe. Parliament is the legislative governing body for the United Kingdom with certain powers over the dependent Empire but none over the Dominions. It consists of two houses — the House of Lords and the House of Commons. United Kingdom is a constitutional monarchy with a
queen and a Parliament. Supreme legislative power is vested in Parliament. The executive power of the Crown is exercised by the Cabinet headed by the Prime Minister. Great Britain is second only to U.S.A. among the industrial nations of the world. Most important manufacture is heavy goods, such as machinery, tools, bridges and locomotives. Area: 94,300 sq. m. Population—51,113,000. Capital—London.


GREECE—is an independent South European State located at Balkan peninsula, stretching down into the Mediterranean Sea. Greece is a constitutional hereditary monarchy. Nominal executive power is vested in the King but the Government is administered by the Council of Ministers, headed by the Premier who must enjoy the Assembly’s confidence. Area: 51,246 sq. m. Pop.—8,150,000. Capital—Athens.

HAITI—It occupies the western third of the island known as Hispaniola, the second largest of the Greater Antilles lying between Cuba on the west and Puerto Rico on the east. It is the only Negro Republic with western hemisphere. Area: 10,714 sq. m. Pop.—3,305,000 Capital—Port-au-Prince.

HONDURAS—Republic of Central America on Atlantic and Pacific Oceans. The chief commercial activity is the cultivation of bananas and coconuts on the Atlantic coast. Bananas constitute about sixty per cent of the total value of the exports. Area: 43,227 sq. m. Population—1,608,000. Capital—Tegucigalpa.

HUNGARY—European Republic formed out of Austro-Hungary; it is the abode of the Magyars. The Soviet type of constitution was adopted by the Parliament on August 18, 1949 which declared Hungary to be a ‘People’s Republic’. The supreme organ of state control was declared to be the Parliament with Deputies elected for 4 years by direct vote. When Parliament is not in session, power is exercised by the Presidium headed by the Chairman. Executive power is vested in the Cabinet headed by the Premier. Hungary’s bauxite deposits are considered one of the largest in the world. Area: 35,902 sq. m. Population—9,700,000. Capital—Budapest.

ICELAND—Island in the North-Atlantic Ocean, now Republic; it is close to the Arctic circle in the North Atlantic; constitutionally, the President is elected for four years by popular vote. Executive power of the State resides in the Prime Minister and his Cabinet. The Althing is composed of two houses. Iceland has no army or navy but under NATO and a 1951 agreement, U.S.A. maintains on the island army, navy and air forces. Area: 39,758 sq. m. Pop.—162,000. Capital—Reykjavik.

INDIA—It is now an independent Republic since 1950. The dominion is one of the largest and richest nations in the world. Area: 1,221,889 sq. m. Pop.—356,891,624. Capital—New Delhi.

IRELAND—is now a sovereign independent and democratic State from 1949 and the constitution affirms the right of the Irish
nation to choose its own form of government; to determine its rela-
tions with other nations and to develop its life in accordance with its
own genius and traditions. The head of the State is the President
elected by the direct vote for 7 years. The Parliament consists of the
Dail Eireann elected by the universal suffrage and proportional re-
presentation and the Senate of 60 members. Area : 27,137 sq. m.
Pop.—2,895,000. Capital—Dublin.

INDONESIA—is a republic of S. E. Asia comprising territory
formerly known as the Dutch East Indies. Indonesia comprises
four large islands of Java, Sumatra, most of Borneo and Celebes,
fifteen minor islands including Madura, the Moluccas and Bali and
thousands of small ones. Ninety per cent of the population are
muslims. Indonesia is one of the richest countries in natural resour-
ces. There are vast supplies of tin, oil and coal, and sizable deposits
of bauxite, manganese, copper, nickel, gold and silver. It is the prin-
cipal producer of petroleum in the Far East and rivals Malaya in its
output of rubber and tin. It also exports coffee, tea, sugar,
copra and rice. Until March 1942, Indonesia was a Netherland
overseas territory. Following Japanese Military occupation (1942-45),
Indonesian Nationalists proclaimed a republic on Aug. 17, 1954. Four
years intermittent warfare between Netherlands and Indonesian
forces were terminated by agreements signed on Nov. 2, 1949 trans-
ferring sovereignty. Over all Indonesia, except Netherlands New Guinea,
a new Interim Government known as Republic of the United States
of Indonesia was established. On July 1950 member states agreed
to form a strongly centralised Government and accordingly a unita-
rian state with an amended constitution was proclaimed and its name
was changed to Republic of Indonesia. The Netherlands-Indonesia
Union with Netherlands Queen at its head created in 1949 began to
dissolve by Aug 10, 1945, when new protocols governing future rela-
tionship were signed. Legislative power is in the hands of a House of
Representatives numbering about 212. Area : 735,865 sq. m. Popula-
tion—81,000,000. Capital—Jakarta.

IRAN—Kingdom of Western Asia, also known as Persia. Iran
is a constitutional monarchy. Executive power is exercised by a
Cabinet headed by the Prime Minster who is appointed by the Shah
and is responsible to the Majlis (Parliament) which has 136 popularly-elected members. The Shah has power to dissolve the Majlis.
Iranian oil field in the south-west territory at the head of the Persian
Gulf is the richest single field in existence. Area : 628,000 sq. m.
Population—19,000,000. Capital—Tehran.

ISRAEL—The Jewish State in Palestine was established in 1948
in fulfilment of the aspirations of Zionism and following a decision
of U.N. Assembly on the partition of Palestine between Jews and
Arabs. Israel is a democratic State. It occupies the major portion
of Palestine. It lies on the western edge of Asia bordering on the
Mediterranean Sea. On Nov. 2, 1917, British Government made a
declaration, known as Balfour Declaration, which viewed with favour
the establishment in Palestine of a home for the Jewish people.
This principle was incorporated in the mandate to Britain which
came into force in 1923. The British mandate on Palestine ended at mid-night on May 14, 1948 when the Jewish National Council proclaimed a Jewish State of Israel. This led to the war against Israel by Arab States. But armistice agreement was signed under U.N. auspices which left Israel as an independent State. The declaration of independence of the Jewish National Council on May 14, 1948 stated that the new nation would be "based on the precepts of liberty, justice and peace taught by the Hebrew prophets." Israel is a parliamentary democracy. Supreme authority is vested in one Chamber Parliament called the 'Knesset' (Assembly) with 120 members. The cabinet is responsible to the Knesset and holds office as long as it enjoys the confidence of the Knesset. Area: 8,048 sq. m. Population—1,872,000 Capital—Jerusalem.

IRAQ—Arab Kingdom in the Middle East; formerly known as Mesopotamia; now one of the states lying between Arabia and Iran, created as a result of World War I when under the treaty of Lousanne (1923), Turkey renounced the sovereignty over Mesopotamia. A revolution took place in July 1958 when the monarchy was overthrown and Iraq was declared a republic. Iraq consists of rolling parched plains with Tigris and Euphrates cutting green swaths through the colourless terrain. Iraq is one of the great oil-producing countries of the world. Oil revenues represent more than one-third of the national income. Other products are wheat, barley, beans, rice and eighty per cent of world's dates. Area: 172,000 sq. m. Population—6,600,000. Capital—Bagdad.

ITALY—Republic of Europe stretching from the Alps southeast into the Mediterranean with the islands of Sicily, Sardania, Elba and 70 smaller ones; under Italy's new Constitution of 1948 the State is described as a "democratic republic founded on work." The President is elected for seven years by Parliament in joint session with regional delegates. The Cabinet headed by the Premier and nominated by the President, must enjoy the confidence of Parliament which is composed of the Chamber of Deputies popularly elected for a five-year term and the Senate. Italy is ordinarily the world's largest producer of mercury; it is also an important producer of sulphur. Area: 117,471 sq. m. Population—48,223,000. Capital—Rome.

JAPAN—Island empire of Asia, is situated in the North Pacific Ocean off the coast of China and Siberia. It consists of four main islands: Houshu (mainland), Hokaido, Kyushu and Shikoku. It was under the control of Allied powers upto 1951. The new constitution effective on May 3, 1957, made drastic changes in Japan's political system. The Emperor retains only ceremonial functions and the executive power is vested in the cabinet, headed by the premier and collectively responsible to the Diet. Law-making power is solely vested in the Diet, composed of two houses—House of Representatives popularly elected and House of Councillors. A bill of rights guarantees certain basic liberties.

On Sept. 8, 1951, 48 nations signed a treaty of peace with Japan restoring Japan's sovereign equal status in the community of nations.
On the same day U.S. and Japan signed a bi-lateral defence agreement. Area: 142,644 sq. m. Population—89,269,278. Capital—Tokyo.

JORDAN (Hashemite Kingdom of)—was formerly known as Trans-Jordan, is an independent state of western Asia; formerly an Arab State in the Palestine mandate. Conquered from the Turks by the British in World War I, Jordan was separated from the Palestine Mandate in 1920 and placed in 1921 under the rule of Abdulla ibn Hussain. In 1923 Britain recognised Jordan's independence, subject to the mandate. During World War II, Jordan co-operated completely with Britain. On March 22, 1946, Britain abolished the mandate and recognised the full and complete independence of Jordan. Under the new constitution of 1952, legislative power is vested in Parliament. Area: 37,700 sq. m. Population—1,500,000. Capital—Amman, Jerusalem.

KOREA—East Asiatic country on a peninsula between Manchuria and Japan. It was a vassal of China for 500 years and was annexed by Japan in 1910. During the World War II at the Cairo Conference in 1953, the Allied powers agreed that Korea should be free and independent. After the end of the World War II, at the Postdam Conference in 1945, the 38th Parallel of latitude was designated as the line dividing the Soviet and the American occupation. All the efforts to unite these two parts of Korea failed. South Korea formed the Republic of Korea in May 1948 when U.S.A. handed over the Government to them. On May 1, 1958 the communists formed the People's Democratic Republic of Korea in North Korea with the capital at Pyongyang. On June 25, 1950 North Korean Army invaded South Korea. The U.N. Security Council demanded the immediate withdrawal of the North Korean Army. U.S.A. entered the war in support of South Korea Army. The truce talks between the parties continued in 1952 and 1953 amid sporadic hostilities. An armistice was signed finally at Panmunjom on July 27, 1953. The armistice contemplated an international political conference on the status of Korea but negotiations for arranging it broke down. The question was discussed without result at the Geneva Conference on Far Eastern problems (April 26—June 19, 1954).

South Korea is a republic with legislative powers vested in a bicameral parliament and executive power in a popularly elected President and a cabinet headed by a premier. North Korea is a typical Soviet State under the constitution adopted on Sept. 2, 1948.

LAOS—An independent State, formerly belonged to the French Union. It is situated in the north-west Indo-China. The King is the head of the State and supreme religious authority. Legislature is the National Assembly. Area: 89,000 sq. m. Population—8,000,000. Capital—Luang Prabang.

LEBANON—The Republic of Lebanon is in the Levant. It occupies a strip of land along the Mediterranean coast, sandwiched between Israel in the south and Syria in the north and east. This Arab State was formed from the five former Turkish Empire districts of North Lebanon, Mount Lebanon, South Lebanon, Beirut and
Bekaa. Along with Syria, it became an independent State in 1920. Both were administered under French Mandate till 1941. Lebanon is a free democratic country with a popularly elected Government. It is governed by a President elected by Parliament for a six-year term and a cabinet of ministers appointed by the President but responsible to Parliament, which has 44 members with a population of less than 1.5 million. Lebanon is the smallest Arab State. The population of the Arab State is half Christian and half Moslem. Area: 4,000 sq. m. Pop.—1,450,000. Capital—Beirut.

LIBERIA—Independent Negro Republic of West Africa on the Guinea Coast. Liberia was founded in 1820 by the American Colonization Society as a country for freed slaves from U.S.A. and became independent republic in 1847. The government is modelled after that of the United States. Area: 43,000 sq. m. Population—2,750,000. Capital—Monrovia.

LIECHTENSTEIN—is an independent Alpine principality between Austria and Switzerland. The constitution of 1921 provides for a legislature of 15 members elected by direct universal suffrage. Area: 62 sq. m. Pop.—14,757. Capital—Vaduz.


LUXEMBURG, GRAND DUCHY OF—Luxemburg is a European Grand Duchy situated between Germany, Belgium and France. It was given its present rank as principality by the Congress of Vienna in 1815. Area: 999 sq. m. Pop.—312,000. Capital—Luxembourg.

MALAYA, FEDERATION OF—The Federation of Malaya became a limited constitutional monarchy and dominion within British Commonwealth, which was effective on August 31, 1957. It is the only free nation in the Commonwealth other than Great Britain to have its own monarch. It is composed of sovereign Malaya States and the former British Straits Settlements colonies of Penang Island and Malacca occupying the Malaya Peninsula in South-East Asia. The States included in the Federation are—Perak, Selangor, Negri Sembilan, Pahang, Johore, Kedah, Perlis, Kelantan, Trengganu, Malacca and Penang. The Federation is largely a producer of raw materials, chief of which are tin, rubber, palm and cocoanut oil, copra. The world's richest source of tin centres in Perak, supplying about one-third of the world's total. The legislative authority is vested in a Parliament consisting of the Supreme Head of the State, a Senate

MEXICO—A Federal democratic republic of 29 states, 2 territories and the federal district of Mexico City. President is elected for six years and is ineligible to succeed himself, governs with a cabinet of his appointed ministers. The Federal Congress has two houses—Chamber of Deputies and Senate. Mexico has a great mineral wealth and produces petroleum, silver, gold, copper, lead, quicksilver, iron and coal. She is the world leader for the production of silver, sisal, hemp and chicle for chewing gum. Area: 760,375 sq. m. Population—30,538,000. Capital—Mexico City.

MONACO—A tiny independent principality in the south of France; is located on the Mediterranean with land frontiers, joining France at every point. It is noted for an exceptionally mild climate and magnificent scenery. It is the smallest State in the world. Area: 0.50 sq. m. Pop.—20,422. Capital—Monaco.

MONGOLIAN PEOPLE'S REPUBLIC—is also known as Outer Mongolia. In 1915 Mongolia threw off its allegiance to China and by a treaty was recognised as an autonomous republic. Negotiations with Russia after 1917 revolution led to an alliance and by treaty, U.S.S.R. acknowledged the sovereignty of China over Outer Mongolia, but by the Russian-Chinese treaty of August 25, 1945 China recognised the complete independence of Mongolia. The Government of the republic is strikingly similar to the Soviet system. The Parliament is elected by universal suffrage and from which is drawn a seven member Presidium. Area: 1,750,000 sq. m. Pop. about 4,000,000. Capital—Ulan Bator.

MOROCCO—one of the Barbary States, is situated in the northwest of African continent. The Empire theoretically was an absolute monarchy, but the country was divided into three zones—the French, the Spanish and the International Tangier Zone. The country in effect was partitioned and subjected to foreign rule from 1912 to 1956. As a result of a Protectorate Treaty with France in 1912 and a Convention between France and Spain in 1912, the country was divided into French and Spanish Spheres of influence, known respectively as French Morocco and Spanish Morocco. In 1923 the city of Tangier with a small enclave in Spanish Morocco was neutralized and demilitarised. After a lengthy period of unrest, French Government was forced in 1956 to recognise Morocco as an independent sovereign State and Spanish Government agreed in 1956 that Spanish Morocco was an integral part of the Morocco State and on May 1956 the Tangier International Control Committee agreed to the integration of Tangier with the rest of Morocco. Area: 172,104 sq. m. Pop.—8,620,006. Capital—Rabat.

NEPAL—A land-locked country lying between India and Tibet. It occupies slopes of the Himalayas, bound in the north by Tibet, south and west by India and east by Sikkim and Bengal. Nepal has two great distinctions of containing Mt. Everest, 29,028 (ft.), the tallest mountain peak of the world and some of the toughest
fighting men in the world—Gorkhas. After a revolution in 1950, a representative government has been established in 1950 with King as constitutional head. The traditional supreme authority of the Prime Minister no longer exists. Area: 54,000 sq. m. Pop.—8,431,547 Capital—Kathmandu.

NETHERLANDS—Kingdom in North Western Europe. It is a constitutional and hereditary monarchy. Executive power is vested exclusively in the sovereign while the legislative power vests with the sovereign and Two-Chamber legislature. The sovereignty over former Netherlands Indies was transferred to the Republic of Indonesia excepting Netherlands New Guinea in 1949. Area: 12,850 sq. m. Population—10,956,251. Capital—Amsterdam.

NICARAGUA—is the largest central American Republic lying between the Caribbean Sea and the Pacific Ocean. Area: 57,145 sq m. Pop.—1,245,000. Capital—Managua.


NORWAY—Kingdom of north Europe. Norway is a constitutional and hereditary monarchy with succession in direct male line. It is a constitutional and hereditary monarchy. Legislative power is vested in the Storting (Parliament) with 150 members. They choose one quarter of their number to form the Lagting (upper house), the other three-quarters forming the Edelsting (lower chamber). Executive power is vested in the King acting through the Cabinet (Statsraad) comprising the Prime Minister and at least seven ministers. Norway is one of the greatest seafaring nations and its merchant marine is the third largest in the world. In the North Cape area is the phenomenon known as midnight sun. The sun does not set from the middle of May until the end of July, nor does it rise above the horizon approx. from Nov. 18 to Jan. 23. Varicoloured Northern Lights are visible in winter. Forests cover nearly one-fourth of the area. They are the principal sources of wealth, and the paper and wood pulp industries flourish. Area: 125,064 sq. m. Pop.—3,370,000. Capital—Oslo.

PAKISTAN—A new Muslim State was formed by the partition of India on August 14, 1947. It is the world’s largest Muslim State. Under its new constitution, it is an “Islamic Republic” where the laws should be framed according to Quoranic principles. It is divided into two parts: Western part is made up of Baluchistan, Sind and N. W. F. Province and the western part of the Punjab, princely State of Bhawalpur and a few other small muslim states which have now been formed into one unit state, while Eastern part consists of the Eastern half of Bengal and the Sylhet district of Assam. Over half of the
population is concentrated in East Bengal which contains only 16 p.c. of the total area. Area: 364,737 sq. m. Pop.—83,603,000. Capital—Karachi.

PANAMA, REPUBLIC OF—It occupies the entire Isthmus of that name connecting Central and South America and separating the Atlantic and the Pacific Oceans. It stretches 450 miles. Panama Canal is the country's big economic asset. On Nov. 18, 1903 Panama granted the canal zone to the U.S. by treaty. Panama canal zone is governed by the canal zone government and operated by the Panama Canal Company, both set up on 1 July, 1911. The Secretary of the U.S. Army holds all the shares of the Company. Area: 28,570 sq. m. Pop.—934,000. Capital—Panama.

PARAGUAY—South American Republic situate between Argentina, Bolivia and Brazil. Since the adoption of the 1940 constitution, Paraguay is a semi-authoritarian republic. Area: 157,000 sq. m. Pop.—1,601,000. Capital—Asuncion.

PERU—Maritime Republic situated on the Pacific coast of South America. Under the Constitution, the President is elected for six years by direct popular vote. The Congress consists of a Senate and a Chamber of Deputies. Each House being elected for six years. Peru has vast mineral resources. It ranks fourth in world silver production and mines about 25 p.c. of the world's vanadium. Area: 514,059 sq. m. Population—9,651,000. Capital—Lima.

PHILIPPINES—is the largest island group in the Malaya Archipelago. It is an archipelago of approximately 7,083 islands lying about 500 miles off the south-east coast of Asia. The largest islands are Luzon, Mindanao, Samar, Negros, and Palawan. The independence of the Philippines was proclaimed on July 4, 1946 in accordance with the Act passed in the American Congress in 1934. The Philippines have a republican form of Government based on that of the United States. Executive power is exercised by the President popularly elected for a 4-year term and assisted by a Cabinet appointed by him. The popularly elected Congress has two houses—the Senate with 24 members and the House of Representatives with not more than 120 members. The chief agricultural products are unhusked rices, manila hemp, sugar-cane, corn and tobacco. The principal export fruit in the pineapple. Area: 115,600 sq. m. Pop.—22,265,300. Capital—Quezon City.

POLAND—is a communist Republic of Central Europe known as Polish People's Republic. Poland's new constitution describes Poland as a people's republic in which the highest authority is the Sejm, elected for 4-year terms by direct secret ballot. The Sejm elects a Council of State and a Council of Ministers. In most respects it follows the pattern set by the U.S.S.R. constitution of 1936. The office of the President has been abolished and the Council of State is the highest organ of the government. Area: 120,310 sq. m. Population—28,070,000. Capital—Warsaw.

PORTUGAL—is a Republic of S.-W. Europe occupying the western part of the Iberian Peninsula, bounded on the north and east by
Spain and on the south and west by the Atlantic Ocean. Under the constitution of 1933 revised in 1951, Portugal is a Unitary Corporative republic. The President is elected popularly for a term of seven years. It has a National Assembly of 120 members for a term of 4 years. There is also a Corporative Chamber which handles economic and social matters and advises National Assembly. Area: 34,466 sq. m. Pop.—8,837,000. Capital—Lisbon.

RHODESIA AND NYASALAND, FEDERATION OF—The Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland comprising the self-governing Colony of Southern Rhodesia and the Protectorates of Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland came into being in 1953. The Federation is not a full member of the Commonwealth, since legislation in certain fields must be reserved for British Royal Assent which involves consideration by United Kingdom Ministers, and the United Kingdom government also retains ultimate responsibility for external affairs. There is a Federal Assembly of 59 members. The Queen of England is represented in the Federation by a Governor-General. Principal exports are copper, asbestos, gold, tobacco and tea. Area: 487,640 sq. m. Pop.—376,750,000. Capital—Salisbury.

RUMANIA—Independent Republic of the Balkans; according to new Constitution of 1948, Rumania is a “People’s Unitary and Independent State”. It is socialistic in nature. The highest authority of the Government is Grand National Assembly. Virtually all the powers formerly vested in the King are exercised by a 19-member presidium of the National Assembly; certain area has been ceded to Russia. Area: 92,000 sq. m. Pop.—17,490,000. Capital—Bucharest.

SAN MARINO—Independent republic bounded by Italian territory, lying some 12 miles S.-W. of Rimini. It claims to be the oldest state of Europe being founded in the 4th century and is one of the world’s smallest states. San Marino, the capital, is situated on a spur of the Apennines. Government is by a council of 60 and the State is under Italian protection. Area: 38 sq. m. Population—14,000.

SOUTH AFRICA—The Union of South Africa is a Dominion within the British Commonwealth of nations. It extends from the southernmost point of the African continent to the course of Limpopo region. It consists of the following provinces—Transvaal, Cape of Good Hope, Orange Free State and Natal. The capital of the Union is Pretoria, though Union’s Legislature meets in Cape Town. It is the richest gold and diamond producing country in the world and one of the richest in uranium. Area: 472,733 sq. m. Pop.—12,648,575. Capital—Pretoria (seat of administration) and Cape Town (seat of legislature).

SPAIN—Nominal monarchy of S.-W. Europe. It is separated from France by the Pyrenees mountain. It was proclaimed a republic on April 14, 1931. Spain has a dictatorship form of government under General Franco. Franco is the head of the State, national chief of the Falange party, Prime Minister and Caudillo (leader) of the empire. Practically, the country is ruled by the Cabinet (appointed
by Franco), the National Council of the Falange Party and, to a lesser extent, the Cortes (Parliament). The principal function of the Cortes is the planning and formulation of laws without prejudice to Franco's veto power. On April 1947, Franco himself declared Spain a kingdom again. He was to remain head of the State, and upon his death or incapacity, the government and a Council of the Realm constituted by the law are to nominate as King "that person of royal blood who is most qualified by right", subject to the approval of the Cortes. Area: 195,504 sq. m. Pop.—29,203,000 Capital—Madrid.

SUDAN—It was formerly Anglo-Egyptian Condominium. It lies between the Sahara and the equatorial forests and extends from the Atlantic to Ethiopia. After the defeat of Sudan by the British forces in 1898, a Condominium was established in agreement with Egypt and reaffirmed in 1936 which provided for the appointment of a Governor-General by Egypt. In 1951 Egypt abrogated the 1936 treaty and Egyptian King began to style himself as the "King of Egypt and Sudan", which was not recognised by Great Britain and by the majority of Sudanese. A compromise agreement was signed on Feb. 1953 providing for the liquidation of the dual administration and the determination by the Sudanese on either Union with Egypt or complete independence. Authority during three-year transition was vested in the British Governor-General and a five-man commission. Sudan voted for complete independence on Dec. 19, 1955, effective on Jan. 1, 1956 and provided for a constituent assembly and new parliament. Area 967,500 sq. m. Pop.—10,000,000. Capital—Khartum.

SWEDEN—Kingdom of North Europe. Government is a constitutional hereditary monarchy. Executive and judicial authority are vested in the King alone but his resolutions must be taken in the presence of the Council of State (Cabinet) headed by the Prime Minister; the Council is appointed by the King, but is responsible collectively to the Riksdag (Parliament). The Riksdag has an upper chamber elected indirectly by the provincial and municipal councils for eight years. The lower chamber of 280 members is directly elected by popular vote for four years. Sweden is an important source of high grade iron ore and also exports lumber, pulp and paper and is known for its special technical industries (ball bearings and electrical appliances). Area: 173,378 sq. m. Pop.—7,341,122. Capital—Stockholm.

SWITZERLAND—is the federal republic of Central Europe and is a federation of 22 sovereign cantons. Each canton has its own legislature, executive and judiciary Department with the right to veto over federal legislation through referendum. The national authority vests in a Parliament of two Chambers—State Council to which each canton sends two members; the lower house—National Council, has 196 members, one representative to each 24,000 population. The executive power is vested in the Federal Council of seven members. President serves for one year. On the basis of international treaties and guarantees, Switzerland is perpe-
tually neutral. Switzerland enters into no military alliance and is not a member of the U. N. or NATO. It is, however, a member of various international commissions of the U.N., W.H.O., etc. German, French and Italian are official languages of Switzerland. Dairying and stock-raising are the principal industries. Area: 15,950 sq. m. Pop.—5,023,000. Capital—Bern.

SYRIA—The republic is in the Levent covering portion of the former Ottoman Empire. It is an arid and uncultivated country situated in a fertile oasis. It had been under French mandate since 1914-18 war, became an independent republic during 1939-45 war. The constitution which is based to some extent on that of the U.S. was passed in 1950. It has now joined with Egypt in 1958 to form a political union between the two countries to be known as United Arab Republic. Area: 72,214 sq. m. Pop.—3,806,973. Capital—Damascus.

THAILAND—Constitutional Monarchy of South-eastern Asia bordered by Laos and Cambodia in the east, by Malaya in the south and separated from Burma by the river Salwen. It is a constitutional hereditary monarchy. The Constitution provides that the King shall exercise legislative power by and with the advice and consent of the Assembly of the People’s Representatives, executive power through a Council of Ministers and judicial power through Courts established by law. Area: 200,148 sq. m. Pop.—20,686,000. Capital—Bangkok.

TRIESTE—Seaport of the north Adriatic on a like-named gulf. It was a territory under Italy from 1920. After the 2nd World War, it was a debateable territory between Italy and Yugoslavia. In 1947 the Free Territory of Trieste was constituted as a compromise between Italian and Yugoslav claims, under the aegis of the United Nations Security Council; as a temporary expedient, the territory was divided into two parts, namely, the Italian Zone (A) in the north (including Trieste City) guarded by U.K. and U.S.A. forces and the larger but less populous Yugoslav Zone (B) in the South. Area: 285 sq. m.

TUNESIA—is a former French protectorate and was proclaimed a republic in 1957. It is situated on the northern coast of Africa. Area: 48,301 sq. m. Pop.—3,783,000. Capital—Tunis.

TURKEY—Republic of Asia and Europe. The European territory was reduced to the city of Constantinople and a narrow strip of country around it. It is 9,254 sq. miles including the city of Istanbul and Adrianople and is separated from Asia by the Bosphorus and Dardanelles. The Turkey in Asia has 285,246 sq. miles. The Turkish State is defined as “republican, nationalist, populist, statist, secular and revolutionary.” The President is chosen from the deputies of the National Assembly; his term of office is identical with the life of each Assembly. 487 members of the Assembly are elected by universal suffrage for a term of four years. Area: 296,500 sq. m. Population—24,797,000. Capital—Ankara.

UNITED KINGDOM—The United Kingdom consisting of England, Wales, Scotland, Northern Ireland, Isle of Man and the Chan-
nel Islands, lies off the north-west corner of Europe. The United Kingdom is a constitutional monarchy with a King and a Parliament consisting of two houses: the House of Lords and the House of Commons. Supreme legislative power is vested in Parliament which holds office for five years unless sooner dissolved. The executive power of the Crown is exercised by the Cabinet headed by the Prime Minister. The Prime Minister, normally the head of the party commanding a majority in the House of Commons, is appointed by the Sovereign; with whose consent he in turn appoints the rest of the Cabinet. All the ministers must be members of one or the other house of Parliament. Area: 94,279 sq. m. Pop.—50,033,000. Capital—London.

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA—Federal Republic of North America extending from the Atlantic to the Pacific and from Canada to Mexico with outlying areas in Alaska, Puerto Rico, Hawaii, Guam and other Pacific islands. United States consists of 48 States and the federal district of Columbia. U.S.A. has a federal government. The Federal Government is based on the separation of powers—the President, House of Congress and the Supreme Court being designed to balance and restrain each other—hence the famous concept of ‘checks and balances’. Each State is self-governing in local matters, but confides to the Central Government at Washington the control of foreign affairs and the army and navy. Police, education, public health, etc., remain within the scope of the individual states. The capital is Washington which belongs to no state, being administered directly by the Federal Government. Executive power is vested in the President elected by popular vote every four years. He chooses the members of the Cabinet, who are not (as in England) members of the legislature. Legislative power is vested in Congress, composed of two houses, the Senate with two members from each State elected to serve six years and the House of Representatives composed of a number of members varying according to the census elected for two years. There is adult suffrage. The third main component of the constitution is the Supreme Court at Washington. Area: 3,026,789 sq. m. Pop.—163,900,000. Capital—Washington.

UNION OF SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLICS—It is a Federal State of East Europe, North and West Central Asia. The U.S.S.R. emerged as a political entity under the leadership of Lenin after the Russian Revolution of 1917 and the downfall of the empire of Russia. It was proclaimed formally, 1922, after a confused interim period of civil war, war with Poland (1920); the first State basing its constitution on Marxist communism. Union of Soviet Socialist Republics is composed of Russian, Ukrainian, Byorussian, Azeri, Georgian, Armenian, Kazak, Turkmenian, Kirghiz, Tadjik, Uzbek, Karelo-Finnish, Estonian, Latvian, Lithuanian and Moldavian Soviet Socialist Republics. It is the largest country in the World, stretches across two continents from the North Pacific Ocean to the Gulf of Finland. Vast territory of U.S.S.R., one sixth of the earth’s land surface, contains every phase of climate except the distinctly tropical and a varied topography. The constitution of December 5, 1936 provides that the
highest organ in the U.S.S.R. is the Supreme Soviet consisting of two equal houses, that members thereof shall be chosen on the basis of universal, equal and direct suffrage by secret ballot for a term of 4 years, that regular sessions of each body shall be held twice each year, that there shall be a president of each house; that there shall be one Presidium of the Supreme Soviet, which shall consist of a president, 16 vice presidents (one vice-president for each constituent republic of the Union), a secretary and 16 members; that the Presidium shall act as an executive and directive body between the sessions of the Supreme Soviet.

The U.S.S.R. is probably the richest country in the world in mineral resources, containing deposits of almost every known mineral. It ranks among the top producing nations in coal, chromite, iron ore, petroleum, lead, copper, manganese, and other products. The richest mineral region is that of the Ural Mountains. Area: 7,877,598 sq. m. Pop—200,200,000. Capital—Moscow.

URUGUAY—Smallest Republic in South America. Area: 72,172 sq. m. Pop—2,615,000 Capital—Montevideo.

VATICAN CITY—The independent sovereign State, created by the Treaty of 1929, of which the Pope is the head. It covers 100 acres in the heart of Rome and includes Vatican Palace, the Pope's official residence and the basilica and square of St. Peter's. The immediate government of the State of Vatican City is in the hands of a Governor. He is assisted by a Counsellor-General and by a number of officers. There is no political parties and no parliament. Area: 100 acres. Pop—1,000

VENEZUELA—is the northernmost State of South America. Area: 352,150 sq. m. Pop—5,949,000 Capital—Caracas.

VIETNAM—one of the former French Indo-Chinese Associated States. It is situated in south eastern Asia, bounded on the north by China, on the east and south by the South China Sea and on the west by Cambodia and Laos. In 1940 Vietnam was occupied by Japan and used as a base for the invasion of Malaya. After World War II, the Republic of Vietnam, at that time comprising Tonkin and northern Annam, was recognised by the French as a free State within the Indo-Chinese Federation and the French Union. The French refusal to accede to the demands of Vietnam leaders headed by Dr. Ho Chi-Minh, a communist, for the accession of Cochin-China to the new State and the continued landing of French troops led to the outbreak of hostilities with Ho Chi-Minh's Vietnam in 1946. Amid hostilities during which negotiations were carried, France installed the former emperor of Annam as the head of the French-supported State of Vietnam. Meanwhile, the Vietnam forces organised as the Democratic Republic of Vietnam and recognised by the U.S.S.R., China and other states, acquired a hold on most of Vietnam. At the Geneva Conference in July, 1954 Vietnam was divided along the 17th parallel, into North and South Vietnam. The North Vietnam came under the control of the communists with 22 provinces with their capital Hanoi.
South Vietnam also proclaimed a republic on 20th October 1955 after ousting its Chief of the State. Its capital is Saigon.

YUGOSLAVIA—is a federal republic of S.-E. Europe in the Balkan peninsula and is a federation comprising the People’s Republics of Serbia, Croatia, Slovakia, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Macedonia and Montenegro. Under the 1953 Constitution, Yugoslavia is a federal republic. Executive power is vested in the federal executive council of 30 to 40 members elected by and from the federal assembly and presided over by the President of the republic who is elected by and is responsible to the federal assembly. The assembly consists of (1) a federal council and (2) a council of producers. Area: 98,766 sq. m. Pop.—17,799,000. Capital—Belgrade.

**POLITICAL INFORMATION**

**RULES OR HEADS OF THE WORLD**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Ruler</th>
<th>Executive Head</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Afghanistan</td>
<td>Zahir Shah, King.</td>
<td>Sardar Md. Daud Khan, P.M.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arabia-Saudi</td>
<td>Abul Aziz King.</td>
<td>R. G. Menzies, P.M.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>Sir William Slim, G.G.</td>
<td>Dr. Julius Raab, Chancellor.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>Adolf Schairf, P.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Argentina</td>
<td>Pedro E Arambura</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>Baudouin I, King.</td>
<td>Achille Van Acker, P.M.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fujiia</td>
<td>T'win Maung, P.</td>
<td>U Nu P.M.</td>
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<td>Brazil</td>
<td>Jacselino Kubitschek, P.</td>
<td>Anton Yugo, P.M.</td>
</tr>
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<td>Bulgaria</td>
<td>G. Damianov, P.</td>
<td>John Diebenbaker, P.M.</td>
</tr>
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<td>Canada</td>
<td>Vincent Massey, G. G.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>Narodom Suramarit, King.</td>
<td>Sim Var, P.M.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chile</td>
<td>Carlos Ibanez del Campo P.</td>
<td>Chu En-Lai, P.M.</td>
</tr>
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<td>China</td>
<td>Mao Tse Tung, P.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>Ceylon</td>
<td>Sir O. Goonatuleke, G. G.</td>
<td>S. W. R. D. Bandaranaike, P.M.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Czechoslovakia</td>
<td>A. Novotny, P.</td>
<td>Viliam Siroky, P.M.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>Frederik IX, King.</td>
<td>Hans C. Hansen, P.M.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>G. A. Nasser, P.</td>
<td>R. M. Endalkatchew, P.M.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethiopia</td>
<td>Haile Selassie I</td>
<td>Rainer Von Fieardt, P.M.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>U. K. Kekkonen, P.</td>
<td>De Gaulle, P.M.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>P. Rene Coty</td>
<td>Kwame Nkrumah, P.M.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ghana</td>
<td>Earl of Listowell</td>
<td>K. Adenauer, Chancellor.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany W.</td>
<td>Theodor Heuss, P.</td>
<td>O Grotewohl, P.M.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany E.</td>
<td>W. Pieck, P.</td>
<td>Harold Macmillan, P.M.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gt. Britain</td>
<td>Elizabeth II, Q.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Country</td>
<td>Ruler</td>
<td>Executive Head</td>
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<td>J. Kadar, P.M.</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Md. Raza Pahlevi Shah</td>
<td>M. Eghbal, P.M.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>Rajendra Prasad, P.</td>
<td>J. L. Nehru, P.M.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Dr. A. Soekarno, P.</td>
<td>Dr. Djuanda, P.M.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iraq</td>
<td>Feisal II, King.</td>
<td>Abdul Karim el Kassim, P.M.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>Giovanni Gronchi, P.</td>
<td>Famoun Devalera, P.M.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>Sean T. J'Kelly, P.</td>
<td>William Dukes, P.M.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>Issac Ben-Zevi, P.</td>
<td>D. Ben Gurion, P.M.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>Hirohito, Emperor.</td>
<td>N. Kishi, P.M.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jordan</td>
<td>King Hussain I</td>
<td>Suleiman Nabulsi, P.M.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korea (South)</td>
<td>Lee Bum Suk, P.</td>
<td>Syngman Rhee, P.M.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korea (North)</td>
<td>Kim Du-bong, P.</td>
<td>Kim II Sung, P.M.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laos</td>
<td>Sisavang Vong, King.</td>
<td>Souvanna Phouma, P.M.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lebanon</td>
<td>General Fuad Chehab, P.</td>
<td>Sam e-Solh, P.M.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Luxembourg</td>
<td>Charlotte, Grand Duchess</td>
<td>Joseph Bech, P.M.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liberia</td>
<td>W. V. Tubman, P.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Tuanku Abdul Rahman, K. Tunku A. Rahman Putra, P.M.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monaco</td>
<td>Prince Rainier III, K.</td>
<td>M'Barek Bekkai, P.M.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morocco</td>
<td>Sultan Mahomed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>Mahendra Bir Bikram</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>Juliana, Queen.</td>
<td>William Dukes, P.M.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>Olav V, King.</td>
<td>Elina Gerhardson, P.M.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Iskandar Muza, P.</td>
<td>Fitiz Khan Noon, P.M.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Carlos Garcia, P.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>F. Craveiro Lopes, P.</td>
<td>A. O. Salazar, P.M.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>J. Cyrankiewicz, Premier.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Dr. Petru Groza, P.</td>
<td>Chivu Stoica, P.M.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saudi Arabia</td>
<td>King Saud</td>
<td>Amir Feisal, P.M.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Abdullah Khalil, Premier.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Dr. H. F. Verwoerd, P.M.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Genl. Franco, Regent.</td>
<td>T. F. Erlander, P.M.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>Gustaf VI, King.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>Hans Streule, P.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syria</td>
<td>Shukri al-Kuwayty, P.</td>
<td>Sabri El Asaly, P.M.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>Phumier Adudet, King.</td>
<td>P. Songgram, P.M.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>Celal Bayar, P.</td>
<td>Adanan Menderes, P.M.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S.S.R.</td>
<td>N. S. Khruschev, P.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States</td>
<td>D. D. Eisenhower, P.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vatican City</td>
<td>Pius XII, Pope</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Viet-Nam, N.</td>
<td>Ho Chi Minh, P.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Viet-Nam, S.</td>
<td>Ngo Dinh Diem, P.</td>
<td>Pham Van Dong, P.M.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yugoslavia</td>
<td>Josip Boriz Tito, P.</td>
<td></td>
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</table>
### POLITICAL INFORMATION

#### PRESIDENTS OF THE U.S.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Politics</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Politics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1825-1829 J. Quincy Adam</td>
<td>Rep.</td>
<td>1885-1889 G. Cleveland</td>
<td>Dem.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1837-1841 Martin Van</td>
<td>Dem.</td>
<td>1893-1897 G. Cleveland</td>
<td>Dem.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1953 D. D. Eisenhower</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### BRITISH PRIME MINISTERS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Term</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sir R. Walpole (Whig)</td>
<td>1721</td>
<td>Earl of Derby (Con)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Earl of Wilmington (Whig)</td>
<td>1742</td>
<td>Visct. Palmerston (Lib)</td>
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<td>Henry Pelham (Whig)</td>
<td>1743</td>
<td>Lord Russell (Lab)</td>
<td>1865</td>
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<td>Duke of Newcastle (Whig)</td>
<td>1754</td>
<td>Earl of Derby (Con)</td>
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<td>Duke of Devonshire (Whig)</td>
<td>1756</td>
<td>B. Disraeli (Con)</td>
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<td>1757</td>
<td>W. E. Gladstone (Lib)</td>
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<td>Earl of Bute (Tory)</td>
<td>1762</td>
<td>B. Disraeli (Con)</td>
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<td>George Grenville (Whig)</td>
<td>1763</td>
<td>W. E. Gladstone (Lib)</td>
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<td>Lord Rockingham (Whig)</td>
<td>1765</td>
<td>M'quess of Salisbury (Con)</td>
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<td>Duke of Grafton (Whig)</td>
<td>1766</td>
<td>W. E. Gladstone (Lib)</td>
<td>1886</td>
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<td>M'quess of Salisbury (Con)</td>
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<td>Lord Rockingham (Whig)</td>
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<td>W. E. Gladstone (Lib)</td>
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<td>Sir H. Campbell-Banner-</td>
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<td>N. Chamberlain (Coal)</td>
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Sir Robert Peel (Con) 1841
Earl Russell (Lib) 1846
Earl of Derby (Con) 1852
Lord Aberdeen (Coal) 1852
Viscount Palmerston (Lib) 1855
Winston Churchill (Coal) 1940
C. R. Attlee (Lab) 1945
W. S. Churchill (Con.) 1951
Anthony Eden (Con.) 1955
Harold MacMillan (Con.) 1957

**SALARIES OF THE HEADS OF GOVERNMENTS**

President of U.S.A .......... $100,000 per year*
British Prime Minister .......... £10,000 per year
President of the Indian Union .......... Rs 10 000 per month†
Prime Minister of Japan .......... 110,000 ¥ per month†

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**RULES OF FRANCE SINCE WORLD WAR II**

(***Fourth Republic***)

H. P. Pétain .......... 1940-44
Vincent Auriol .......... 1947-54
Rene Coty .......... 1954-

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**Provisional Government**

Charles de Gaulle .......... 1944-46
Felix Goun .......... 1946
Georges Bidault .......... 1946-47

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**Fifth Republic**

Charles De Gaulle .......... 1958-

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**RULES OF GERMANY SINCE WORLD WAR I**

Weimar Republic 1919-1933
Federal Republic of Germany

Ebert (*President*) 1918-25
Thedor Heuss (*President*) 1949-
Paul Van Hindenburg
(*President*) 1925-35
K Adenauer (*Chancellor*) 1949-
3rd Reich
Democratic Republic of Germany
Adolf Hitler (*Führer*) 1939-45
(Eastern)
Allied Occupation
Wilhelm Pieck (*President*) 1949-
Germany was divided into four
Otto Grotewohl (*Prime Minister*) 1949-
zones under U.S. Great Britain,
France and Soviet Union.

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**RULES OF U.S.S.R.**

Nikolai Lenin .......... 1917-24
George M Malenkov .......... 1953-54
Joseph Stalin .......... 1924-53
Nikolai Bulganin .......... 1954-57
Nikita Khruushchev .......... 1957-

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**RULES OF GREAT BRITAIN**

(House of Windsor)

George V .......... (1910-1936)
Edward VIII .......... (1936-1936)
George VI .......... (1936-52)
Elizabeth II .......... (1952-

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*Plus taxable $50,000 for expenses and a non-taxable sum (not exceeding $40,000 a year) for travelling and official entertainment expenses

† With emoluments etc

‡ Exclusive of allowances.
POLITICAL INFORMATION

POLITICAL ASSASSINATIONS

1865 Abraham Lincoln, President U.S.A., April 14.
1872 Earl of Mayo, Governor-General of India.
1876 Abdul Aziz, Sultan of Turkey, June 4.
1881 Alexander of Russia and President Garfield, U.S.A.
1891 Marie F. Sadi-Carnot, President of France, June 24.
1896 Nasr-ed-Din, Shah of Persia.
1894 President Carnot of France.
1898 Empress Elizabeth of Austria, Sept. 10.
1900 Humbert of Italy.
1901 President McKinley, U.S.A., Sept. 6.
1903 King Alexander and his wife Draga of Serbia.
1903 Grand Duke Sergius of Russia.
1906 King Carlos and Crown Prince of Portugal.
1909 Prince Ito of Japan.
1910 Stolypin, Premier of Russia, 14th Sept.
1912 Jose Canalojas, Premier of Spain.
1913 King George I of Greece.
1914 Archduke Francis Ferdinand of Austria & his wife.
1918 Czar Nicholas II and family. July 31; President Paes of Portugal.
1919 Amir Habibullah of Afghanistan.
1921 Dato, Premier of Spain; Ta Kashi Hara, Japanese Premier.
1922 J. Narutowicz, 1st President of Poland, Dec. 16; Michael Collins, Irish Free State Premier.
1923 Ex-President Gen. Alvaro Obregon of Mexico.
1930 Premier Hamaguchi of Japan.
1932 President Doumer of France; Ki Inukai, Japanese Premier, May 31.
1933 Emir Faisal, King of Iraq, Sept. 9; Ion Duca, Romanian Premier, Dec. 24; King Nadir Shah of Afghanistan.
1934 Austrian Chancellor Dr. Dollfuss; King Alexander I of Yugoslavia; M Barthow, Fr. Foreign Minister.
1936 K. Takahasi, Finance Minister, Admiral Saito, Admiral Suzuki, Japan.
1937 General Baqir Sidiqi, Dictator of Iraq, August 12.
1938 E. Von Rath of German Embassy, Paris.
1939 Rumanian Premier M. Calinescu.
1940 Leon Trotsky, Exiled Russian leader 21st August.
1942 Hydrich German Protector of Bohemia-Moravia; Admiral Darlan of France.
1946 Ananda Mahidol, King of Siam, July 9.
1947 Gen. Aung San, Vice-President of Burma and five Cabinet Ministers.
1948 Mahatma Gandhi Jan 30.
1948 Count F Bonadottie U.N. mediator Sept 17; Premier Nokrashev Pasha of Egypt.
1949 Syrian President Hossni Ziam, Aug. 14; Abdul Rassain, Ex-Persian Prime Minister Nov. 4.
1951 Ali Razmara, Premier of Iran, Mar.7; King Abdulla of Jordan July; Liaquat Ali Khan, Premier of Pakistan, Oct. 16.
1955 President Antonio Remon of Panama.

FAMOUS ABDICATIONS

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<td>Deocletian (Roman Emp.)</td>
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<td>Edward II (England)</td>
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<td>Richard II (England)</td>
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<td>Charles V (Germany)</td>
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<td>Mary Queen of Scots</td>
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<td>Christina (Sweden)</td>
<td>1654</td>
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<td>James II (England)</td>
<td>1688</td>
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<td>Charles IV (Spain)</td>
<td>1808</td>
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<td>Nepoileon I (France)</td>
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<td>Charles (France)</td>
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<td>Louis Philippe (France)</td>
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<td>Isabella I (Spain)</td>
<td>1870</td>
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<td>Abdul Hamid II (Turkey)</td>
<td>1909</td>
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<td>Pu-Yi (China)</td>
<td>1912</td>
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<td>Nicholas II (Russia)</td>
<td>1917</td>
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<tr>
<td>Constantine (Greece)</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

1917 & 1922 Talal (Jordan) 1952

FLAGS OF COUNTRIES

Afghanistan—Three vertical bars, black, red and green, designed in centre (red) bar composed of a mosque endorsed by a crescent formed of two ears of wheat joined at the bottom.

Argentina—Two colours distributed in three horizontal stripes sky blue, white, sky blue with the sun in the centre.

Belgium—Three vertical bands, black, yellow, red.

Brazil—Green with 21 white stars forming Southern Cross on blue circle superimposed on gold diamond in centre.

Burma—Red with dark blue canton bearing a large white five pointed star with 5 smaller stars between the points.

Ceylon—Dark red with yellow border and fimbrials in corners, yellow lion symbol in centre, two vertical stripes of green and saffron at pole.

Chile—White and red horizontal bars, with white star in blue canton.

Denmark—Red with white cross.

Egypt—White crescent and three five pointed stars on green field.

Ethiopia—Three horizontal bands, green, yellow, red with lion in yellow bar.

Finland—White with blue cross.
Flags of Countries—(Concluded.)

France—The 'Tricolour', three vertical bands, blue, white, red (blue next to flagstaff).

Germany (Western)—Black, red, Gold horizontal bars.

Greece—Five blue, four white horizontal stripes, white cross on blue ground in upper corner.

Hungary—Horizontal bands, red-white-green, with coat of arms in centre.

India—Three horizontal strips, saffron, white and dark green, with 24-spoke wheel of Asoka in centre of white band.

Indonesia—Two horizontal bands, Red and White.

Iran—Three horizontal bars, green-white-red with golden lion insignia in white portion.

Iraq—Black-white-green horizontal bars; vertical red trapezoid near hoist, containing two white stars.

Ireland—Vertical bars, green-white-orange.

Italy—Three vertical stripes, dark green-white-red.

Israel—White, with two horizontal blue stripes, the Shield of David in the centre.

Japan—White ground charged with rising sun (red).

Mexico—Three vertical bars, green-white-red, with eagle and cactus emblem on white.

Netherlands—Three horizontal bars, red-white-blue.

Norway—Red with white bordered blue cross.

Pakistan—Dark green rectangle with white vertical bar at mast; white crescent and white heraldic five-pointed star in centre.

Peru—Three vertical bars, red-white-red, with coat of arms on white.

Philippines—Blue and red horizontal bars; white canton with gold sun, three gold stars.

Poland—Two horizontal bars, white and red.

Portugal—Green and red vertical bars with armillary sphere and shield in centre.

Romania—Three vertical bars, blue-yellow red with insignia in centre.

Saudi Arabia—Green with white sword below, an excerpt from Koran in white Arabic characters. (Chinese Republic, 1949).

Spain—Three equal horizontal bands (red, yellow & red) with coat of arms in centre bands.

Switzerland—White cross on red ground.

Sweden—Extended yellow cross on medium blue field.

Thailand—Five horizontal bands, red, white, dark blue, white and red (the blue band twice the width of the others).

Turkey—White crescent and white five pointed star on red field.

U.S.A.—Thirteen stripes and 48 stars.

U.S.S.R.—Red ground with gold hammer and sickle below five pointed gold star in upper corner nearest staff.

United Kingdom—Union Jack (blue ground with superimposed crosses of St. George, St. Andrew and St. Patrick in red and white).

Yugoslavia—Three horizontal bars, blue, white, red with red star in centre.
OTHER FLAGS

**NATO Flag**—is navy blue with white ensign.

**Red Crescent Flag**—with a white field is a flag of the Geneva Convention. It is used in place of Red Cross flag in all Muslim countries except Iran.

**Red Cross Flag**—is the most widely used flag of the Geneva Convention. It has Red Cross against white background.

**Red Lion Flag**—is the flag of the Geneva Convention in Iran. Flag has a white field.

**United Nations**—White UN emblem (global map projected from the North Pole and embraced in twin olive branches) centred on a rectangular blue banner.

**Pan American Union Flag**—Two pointed Pennant.

NATIONAL DAYS

**Afghanistan**—May 27 (Independence Day)

**Aranatina**—July 9 (Proclamation of Independence, 1816)

**Australia**—Jan 26 (Australia Day)

**Belgium**—July 21

**Canada**—July 1 (Confederation Day)

**Ceylon**—Feb. 4 (Independence Day)

**China**—Oct. 1 (Proclamation of Chinese Republic 1949)

**Denmark**—March 11, (Birthday of the Danish King)

**Egypt**—Nov 14 (Anniversary of the Battle for Independence, 1922)

**France**—July 14 (Taking of the Bastille 1789)

**Finland** Dec 6 (Proclamation of Independence 1917)

**India**—15th August (Independence Day)

**Indonesia**—August 17 (Independence Day)

**Ireland**—March 17 (National Day).

**Israel**—April 27 (Independence Day)

**Italy**—June (Founding of the Italian Republic)

**Japan**—April 29 (Birthday of the Emperor)

**Mexico**—Sept 16 (Proclamation of Independence 1820).

**Nepal**—Dussehra Day

**Netherlands**—April 30 (Queen’s birthday)

**Norway**—May 17 (Constitution Day)

**Pakistan**—August 14 (Pakistan Day)

**Peru**—July 28

**Philippines**—July 4 (National Day)

**Poland**—July 22 (National Day).

**Switzerland**—August 1 (founding of Confederation)

**Thailand**—June 24 (National Day)

**Turkey**—Oct 29 (Declaration of the Republic).

**USA**—July 4 (Independence Day).

**USSR**—Nov 7 (National Day of Soviet People, October Socialist Revolution in Russia, 1917)

**U.K.**—Queen’s official birthday.
**POLITICAL INFORMATION**

### POLITICAL ABBREVIATIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ECAFE</td>
<td>Economic Commission for Asia and Far East</td>
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<tr>
<td>ECE</td>
<td>Economic Council for Europe</td>
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<tr>
<td>ECO</td>
<td>European Coal Organisation</td>
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<tr>
<td>FAO</td>
<td>Food &amp; Agricultural Organisation</td>
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<tr>
<td>GATT</td>
<td>General Agreement on Trade and Tariff</td>
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<tr>
<td>ICEF</td>
<td>International Children's Emergency Fund</td>
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<tr>
<td>ICAO</td>
<td>International Civil Aviation Organisation</td>
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<tr>
<td>IFC</td>
<td>International Finance Corporation</td>
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<tr>
<td>FUND</td>
<td>International Monetary Fund</td>
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<tr>
<td>ITO</td>
<td>International Trade Organisation</td>
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<tr>
<td>IAEA</td>
<td>International Atomic Energy Agency</td>
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<td>ILO</td>
<td>International Labour Organisation</td>
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<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNRRA</td>
<td>United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration</td>
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<tr>
<td>WHO</td>
<td>World Health Organisation</td>
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<td>WMO</td>
<td>World Meteorological Organisation</td>
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<td>IMF</td>
<td>International Monetary Fund</td>
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<td>International Refugee Organisation</td>
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<td>ITU</td>
<td>International Telecommunication Union</td>
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<td>NATO</td>
<td>North Atlantic Treaty Organisation</td>
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<td>NRA</td>
<td>National Recovery Administration</td>
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<tr>
<td>MEDO</td>
<td>Middle-East Defence Organisation</td>
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<tr>
<td>OEEC</td>
<td>Organisation for European Economic Co-operation (Marshall Aid)</td>
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<td>SHAPE</td>
<td>Supreme Headquarters of Allied Powers, Europe</td>
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<td>SEATO</td>
<td>South-East Asia Collective Treaty Organisation</td>
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<td>SEADO</td>
<td>South East Asia Defence Organisation</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation</td>
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<tr>
<td>CARE</td>
<td>Co-operative for American Remittances Everywhere</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNCAFE</td>
<td>United Nations Commission for Asia and Far East</td>
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<td>UNCIP</td>
<td>United Nations Commission on India &amp; Pakistan (Kashmir)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### NAMES AND COLOURS OF FLAGS

- **Union Jack**—British National Flag.
- **Old Glory**—Flag of U.S.A.
- **Flag of Truce**—White Flag.
- **Flag of Distress**—Flown upside down.
- **Red Flag**—Once a signal for battle, now name given to Communist and Soviet Russian flags.
- **Red Cross Flag**—Same as Swiss flag but with colours reversed.
- **Yellow Flag**—Flown on a ship with persons suffering from contagious or infectious disease.
## NATIONAL ANTHEMS

**Canada**—The maple leaf forever.  
**U.S.**—Star-spangled banner.  
**England**—God Save the King or Queen.  
**France**—La Marseillaise.  
**Greece**—Hall, oh, hail liberty.  
**Soviet Union**—Hymn of the Soviet Union.  
**Sweden**—Song of the North.  
**Japan**—Kimigayo.  
**India**—Jana-gana-mana adhikayaka and Bande Mataram.

## INTERNATIONAL ORGANISATIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rio Treaty</th>
<th>Anzus Treaty</th>
<th>Organisation of American States</th>
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<td>United States</td>
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<td>France</td>
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COMMUNIST COUNTRIES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Area (sq. m.)</th>
<th>Population</th>
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<tr>
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<td>200,200,000</td>
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<tr>
<td>Outer Mongolia</td>
<td>615,000</td>
<td>1,000,000</td>
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<td>Albania</td>
<td>10,600</td>
<td>1,400,000</td>
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<td>42,800</td>
<td>7,600,000</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rumania</td>
<td>91,600</td>
<td>17,700,000</td>
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<td>Hungary</td>
<td>35,900</td>
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<td>Czechoslovakia</td>
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<td>East Germany</td>
<td>42,100</td>
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<td>China</td>
<td>3,700,000</td>
<td>627,800,000</td>
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<tr>
<td>North Vietnam</td>
<td>63,000</td>
<td>12,000,000</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>13,519,250</strong></td>
<td><strong>944,900,000</strong></td>
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POLITICAL PARTIES AND GROUPS

Parties in U.S.A.—There are no fundamental differences between two major political parties of the United States—the Republican and the Democratic. Strictly speaking, two parties can not be exactly classified under the left and right pattern and there are conservative as well as progressive Republicans as there are conservative and progressive Democrats. Republican Party is traditionally the high-tariff party strong in the Northern and Central States. In foreign policy, the party wants honourable and just peace as the supreme goal. In domestic policy, its objectives are a balanced budget, a reduced national debt, an economical administration and a cut in taxes. Democratic Party is traditionally the low-tariff party, strongest in the Southern States. In foreign policy it declared that peace with honour was the greatest goal. It reaffirms Wilsonian principle of the right of national self-determination, supports expansion of world trade.

Arab League—An association of Arab States formed on 22nd March, 1945. The League has as its purpose the strengthening of the relations between member States; the co-ordination of their policies in order to achieve co-operation between them and to safeguard their independence and sovereignty, and a general concern with the affairs and interests of the Arab countries. Eight of the ten independent Arab States are members—Iraq, Jordan, Lebanon, Libya, Saudi Arabia, Sudan, United Arab Republic of Egypt, Syria and Yemen.

Kuomintang—The Chinese Nationalist Party formed originally by the followers of Sun-Yet-Sen in 1905. The party aims at the establishment of a modern, democratic, national state in China. It stands for national unity, territorial integrity and a strong central government. It insists on full sovereignty of China and the abolition of any unequal treaties. The party has now been driven out from the mainland of China by the communists and is now confined to the Island of Formosa.
Centre Parties—Parties which are more conservative than left-wing parties and more progressive than right-wing parties.

Cominform—An organisation of the chief European communist parties formed at Belgrade in October 1947 to co-ordinate the activities of the communist parties on the basis of mutual agreement.

Conservative Party (England)—One of the chief political parties of England. It is the successor of Tory Party of the 18th and 19th centuries. It is a party of the right, in favour of existing social and economic system and is opposed to socialism. Its policy is directed at the maintenance of the Empire at the development of home agriculture and industry and at the safe guarding of private property. The external policy of the party is traditionally nationalist and imperialist. Conservative party is opposed to further nationalisation and advocates, where practicable, restoration of free enterprise.

Revolutionary Communist Party—A minor group professing Trotskyism, existing in almost all countries. They are left-wing communists more radical and revolutionary than Stalinists, official communists, with whom they are in conflict.

Falangists—The Spanish Fascist Party led by General Franco.


Communist Party—Is the world organisation of Marxist Socialists which once operated through branch national parties very loosely affiliated to the Communist International or “Comintern”, now abolished by the order of Stalin. The ‘International’ has again been revived under the name of ‘Cominform’ which is said to be the common information Bureau of Communist Parties of nine countries of Europe.

Fianna Fail—De Valera’s radical Nationalist party in Ireland.

Labour Party (England)—It is the British Socialist Party composed of Trade Unions, Socialists and Co-operative Societies which came into official existence in 1908. It aims at bringing about, by legislation changes which will benefit the poorer classes. Nationalization of basic industries and public utilities is the main programme of the party. The party’s policy is not based on Marxism—instead, it is derived from the ethical idealism of the labour, co-operative and radical movements and the practical nationalism of Fabianism.

French Parties—(1) Mouvement Republican Populaire (M.R.P.) is a bulkwork against communism and its programme has been moderately leftist in character and at the same time it contains strong Catholic elements. The party stands for limited nationalization, collective bargaining, full employment and development of exports. (2) Radical Socialist Party is a left centre party. The party favours constitutional reform and better distribution of taxes and reform of social security. (3) Independent Republicans are solidly devoted to defence of free enterprise. (4) Socialist Party.

Liberal Party—Progressive party of England, stands for free
trade, was known as Whig Party in the 18th and 19th centuries, once a great political force, but now an insignificant party.

Anti-Fascist People's Freedom League, Burma (A.F.P.F.L.)—is the national organisation of the Burmese people started by its president late General Aung San who organised Burmese insurrection against Japan in early 1945.

Popular Front—Political Party in different countries composed of communists, socialists and other democratic parties against Fascism and Nazism.

Egyptian Parties—The nationalist party of Egypt Wafd, established in 1919 by Zaghlul Pasha, the great Egyptian nationalist. 1927—the Saadist Party and in 1938 the Kotia (Ind. Wafdist bloc). Two factions split off from the Wafd after the death of Zaghlul in 1945. All Egyptian parties were nationalists in the sense that they wanted to rid the country of the British influence. Moslem Brotherhood—It has always claimed not to be a political party but rather a national movement seeking to reform Egyptian life on the basis of ‘Islamic principles.” It was suppressed sometimes.

Parties in Pakistan—The following are the main parties of Pakistan—Moslem League, Republican Party, Awami League, National Awami League, Nizami Islam (East Pakistan), Ganatantar Dal (East Pakistan).

INDIAN POLITICAL PARTIES

Indian National Congress—The object of the Indian National Congress as adopted in 1948 is now “the well-being and advancement of the people of India and the establishment in India by peaceful and legitimate means of a Co-operative Commonwealth based on equality of opportunity and of political, economic and social rights and aiming at world peace and fellowship.” The Congress advocates a democratic secular Government with a welfare State as the goal. It endeavours to maintain a strictly independent position in world affairs.

Communist Party of India—Organised in its present form in 1934. The party moulds its policy with reference to the policy of Russia in international affairs, rather than according to the conditions obtaining in India. They look to Russia for guidance and inspiration and follow orthodox international communist line. The party’s aim is “the organisation of the toiling masses in the struggle for the victorious anti-imperialist and agrarian revolution for complete national independence, for the establishment of a people’s democratic state led by the working class, for the realisation of the dictatorship of the proletariat, and the building up of socialism according to the teachings of Marxism and Leninism.”

Proja Socialist Party—formed by the fusion of the Socialist Party and the Kisan Mazdoor Proja Party. Party declares as its objective the establishment of a democratic socialist society in India.

Forward Bloc—came into existence in 1938 when Subhas Bose sought to rally leftists against the Congress orthodoxy. It
favours a programme of direct action and repudiates all compromise. The party’s objective now is the establishment of Socialist State in India with complete severance of relations from the British Commonwealth.

Forward Bloc (Marxist)—This is a group which has severed its connection with the parent body and has formed a new party on January 23, 1950. The Desh Sevak Party of Punjab merged into it.

Bharat Sevak Samaj—New national organisation brought into existence as a result of Government initiative. It is a scheme evolved to rally all patriots for the task of quickly building up economic strength of the country promoting the social well-being of the community and mitigating privations and hardship of its less-favoured sections. It is not a political organisation. It welcomes into its fold men of all thoughts save those who believe in destroying the present order of things by violent methods and those who want communal and sectarian idealism.

National Liberal Federation—was formed in 1908 when the moderates broke away from the Congress and formed a separate party. It advocated gradual progress through peaceful and constitutional means as opposed to the revolutionary creed and policy of the Congress. Their policy is very ‘moderate’ and it has never found support of the Indian masses. It represents a doctrine which has no place in a dynamic India. The Liberals are opposed to direct action of any sort. They are wedded to constitutional forms of agitation, whatever they may mean.

Scheduled Caste Federation—Party was established by Dr. Ambedkar. It has no political or economic platform. It had centred all its agitation for demanding extraordinary privileges. After partition it has changed its outlook.

Hindu Mahasabha—The aim of the Mahasabha is the protection and promotion of all that contribute to the advancement, strength and glory of Hindu Rashtra, Hindu culture and Hindu polity, and as a means to that end, to achieve Hindu Raj and re-establish the integrity of the State of Bharat by constitutional means.

Peasants and Workers Party—The party’s programme includes “severance of all connection with British imperialism, abolition of landlordism without compensation, confiscation of foreign capital invested in banks and industries.” The programme also urges nationalisation of big industries, banks and insurance companies and to perpetuate the present-day social injustice by believing in the re-organisation of States on a linguistic basis. This is a Marxist-Leninist Party following the guidance of Cominform.

Democratic Vanguard—This party was formed in 1943 by those who seceded from the Radical Democratic Party. Its object is the “attainment of the democratic revolution” in India.

Rastriya Swayam Sevak Sangh—It was started in 1925. Its objects are the military training of the Hindus, development of social consciousness and building up of character, and promotion of physical, intellectual and moral well-being of the Hindus and the
establishment of Hindu Rashtra. The party has now stated its main objective as revival of Hindu culture.

Socialist Republican Party—was started by late Sarat Chandra Bose in 1948 with the object of complete independence of India free from all foreign influences. The setting up of Socialist Republic on the linguistic basis and the establishment in the country of a Union of Socialist Republics are the main objects of the party.

Sarvodaya Samaj—A fellowship of those who believe in the Gandhian ideals. It is not an organisation but a voluntary brotherhood of constructive workers who have faith in Gandhian ideals of truth and non-violence. Its central idea is the insistence on the purity of means in the same way as of ends. Khadi, Harijan uplift, service to Adibasis, leprosy relief work and promotion of communal harmony form the main activities of Samaj.

Revolutionary Socialistic Party of India—preaches Marxist doctrine and wants to establish a socialist state in India through revolution.

Revolutionary Communist Party of India—Another Marxist party in India which calls itself Leninist, and characterizes Congress as bourgeois organisation. It is anti-Soviet with Trotskyite leanings.

Kishan Party—is a peasant movement with socialist outlook. Its programme is the amelioration of the Indian peasants. Though separate from the Congress, its programme is identical with Congress.

Bharatiya Jan Sangh—A political party founded in 1951 by Dr. Shyama Prasad Mukerjee. It believes in Akhand Bharat and also demands a more stiff attitude towards Kashmir question.

All India Muslim Majlis—Progressive Nationalist Party of Muslims, was opposed to creation of Pakistan and supporters of Congress ideals.

Jamiat-ul-ulma-Hind—An organisation of Moslem divines and religious teachers. It has always supported the political programme of the Congress. It was a supporter of Indian independence on religious grounds. It has now dropped its political programme.

Shia Political Conference—represents Shia Moslems and is the most important minority among the supporters of the Congress.

Momin Ansar Conference—Its main policy has centred on opposition to Muslim League and to Pakistan. The Conference is the full supporter of Congress politics.

Akali Dal—A politico-religious party of a section of the Sikhs. It aims at the establishment of a Punjabi Suba as a homeland for the Sikhs within Indian Union and advocates the adoption of Gurmukhi language as state language for the Punjab State. So far as politics is concerned, the party has recently merged with the Congress and wants to confine its activities to social, educational, economic and cultural field.

POLITICAL TERMS

Absolutism—The system of unlimited government, the governed having no representation, vote or other share in the administration.
An absolute ruler governs in accordance with his own will without consulting the people and without being bound by any law. Absolutism is opposite to constitutional government and democracy and the antithesis to the separation of powers.

Amnesty—An act of Government granting exemption from criminal prosecution and punishment.

Ambassador—High ranking minister representing his government in a foreign country.

Appeasement—A policy of pacification or yielding to the demands of a potential enemy rather than opposing him by force.

Anschluss—German word meaning a “joining.” Politically, it refers to the union of Austria with Germany effected on March 12, 1938.

Apartheid—An African word for “separateness.” It means complete segregation socially and politically, of white and non-white peoples, and among the non-whites of Bantus, Indians and coloured peoples of half-castes in South Africa. The government programme has centred on abrogation of native representation in the Assembly, removal of coloured voters from the electoral roll in Cape Province and forced physical separation of residential areas.

Agent Provocateur—A French term for political agent sent during political or social conflicts into the adversary’s ranks to provoke in the guise of an adherent incidents and compromising actions.

Austerity—A severe or enforced economy characterized by a lack of luxuries (as post-war austerity of Great Britain).

Authoritarianism—The political system in which the government is based on what is claimed to be the natural need for a strong and resolute authority to direct the state without reference to the fluctuating opinions of the people, as opposed to the democratic system based on the freely expressed opinions. The term is a milder name for absolutism. Totalitarian systems like Fascism, Nazism and Communism are extreme forms of authoritarian government, although Soviet Union would reject the application of the term to itself.

Anti-Semitism—Opposition to the Jewish race. The movement became conspicuous in Europe during the last quarter of the 19th century. The movement appears to be based on economic rather than religious or political cause. It flared up strongly in Nazi Germany under Hitler.

Armed Neutrality—The position assumed by a neutral when it serves notice on belligerents that it is prepared to protect its neutral rights by force.

Autocracy—means the unlimited rule of an individual.

Autarky—A term used for the idea of national self-sufficiency. The usual motive of autarky is the striving of domestic producers to monopolise the market, preparation for war and blockade and a general transference of nationalism to economists. Means for fostering autarky include protective tariffs, a ban of imports, subsidies and deliberate planning.

Armistice—Agreement between combatants to cease fighting. It may be either temporary for the purpose of removing the wound-
ed or burying the dead or it may be a preliminary to a general peace.

Anarchism—A political doctrine standing for the abolition of every organised authority and of State machinery. The anarchists hold that every form of government tantamounts to tyranny. They want to do away with all forms of state and government and to substitute for them free associations of individuals or groups without any coercive organisation, without written law, police courts, prisons or armed forces. In such a society men are expected to live together harmoniously on the basis of voluntarily respected mutual contracts.

Bamboo Curtain—Military, political and propaganda barrier isolating territory controlled by Chinese communists.

Ballot—The paper on which are printed the names of candidates for office in elections. The elector indicates his choice by marking a cross in plurality electoral systems.

Bicameral System—that form of government which consists of two separate houses or chambers in which the concurrence of both is necessary to the enactment of legislation. Adopted to act as a check upon hasty or ill-considered legislation.

Bilateral—Two-sided, a term used for agreements concluded between only two parties, as distinct from multilateral agreements which are between several parties.

Biological Warfare—Warfare in which living organisms, specially disease germs, are used against human, animal and plant life; also warefare involving the use of synthetic chemicals against plants.

Bhoodan Movement—The rehabilitation of landless agricultural worker is the primary objective of Bhoodan movement. The philosophy behind the Bhoodan movement is that 'all the land belongs to God' or the community and therefore it must be shared with those who are ready to work on it for the community. This movement was started on April 18, 1951 by Achariya Venoba Bhave. While it began as a mere land-gift movement, it has grown to incorporate the Sampattidan, Koopdan, Haldan, Grihadan, Buddhudan, Shramdan, etc.

Balance of Power—This phrase means the preservation of an equality of strength between countries or groups of countries. The idea is that no one country shall become too powerful for the safety of the others.

Blockade—a term used in international law for the prevention of goods entering or leaving an enemy country by land or sea. Neutral States are affected most by a blockade by sea, for if their ships try to approach the ports of blockaded country, they and their cargoes are liable to be confiscated by the blockading force.

Bourgeois—French word for the middle class. They comprise capitalists, manufacturers, merchants, bankers, generally all independent producers, traders and employers, also directors and managers and members of the professions with a corresponding income and social status, in contrast to the Proletariat, the working class without any property who live on selling their labour.

Bloc—means an association of legislative members or of political workers of different parties, formed to support a certain measure or ministry. A French word meaning 'mass' or 'group.'
Bolshevism—accepts the doctrine that an irreconcilable antagonism exists between the propertied class or bourgeois and the property-less workers. It invites as inevitable and necessary class war, the object of which is the destruction of all classes, except the proletariat, in whose interest and by whom future society will be organized and governed on a communistic basis.

Book burning—Systematic destruction, usually by a government, of books believed to contain dangerous ideas, hence, the suppression of ideas.

Brain Trust—In U.S.A. the nickname for a group of economists and businessmen who were officially advisers to President F. D. Roosevelt during the first year of his presidency and are believed to have greatly influenced his ‘New Deal’ policy. The term has since been applied to other groups of experts believed to be influencing government.

Brainwashing—The forcible replacement of one set of political ideas by another set, specially through indoctrination or mental torture.

Buffer State—a small state established or preserved between two greater states to prevent direct clashes between them.

Bureaucracy—Government by an elaborate system of administrative departments and officials, which generally tends to become unwieldy and laborious in its operation. It produces red tape or over-systematization. Its most frequently charged defects are rigidity, conservatism and spirit of routine.

By-election—Election to a seat rendered vacant during the running term of an elected body due to resignation, death or any other subsequent disqualification.

Capitalism.—The economic system founded on free enterprise and private ownership of the means of production and distribution.

Caucus—A meeting or conference of members of a political party in an ensuing election or other political contest.

Civil Disobedience—Refusal to co-operate with government without, however, using violence.

Coalition—is a combination of political parties having different or opposed interests, effected with the object of carrying through or resisting a particular policy.

Commonwealth of Nations—The Commonwealth is an association of ten sovereign independent States—the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, India, Pakistan, Ceylon, Malaya Federation and Ghana with their dependencies. The status of the Commonwealth was settled at the Imperial Conference of 1926 which described Commonwealth as “autonomous communities within the British Empire, equal in status, in no way subordinate to one another in any aspect of their domestic or external affairs, though united by a common allegiance to the Crown and freely associated as members of the British Commonwealth of Nations.” A further important pronouncement was made by the Prime Ministers’ Meeting of 1949 which declared, “The Government of India have... declared and affirmed India’s desire to continue her full membership of the Commonwealth of Nations and her acceptance of the King as the
symbol of free association of the independent member nations and as such as the head of the Commonwealth."

Concordat—An agreed pact; specially between Pope and a government equivalent to international convention.

Contraband—Goods or merchandize the importation or exportation of which is forbidden; in war time applied specially as between neutrals and belligerents.

Communism—represents revolutionary socialism, hostile to the slow progress or gradual reform and progressive compromise. Communism believes in the dictatorship of the proletariat for a transitional period, after which a free society would come into existence in which everybody would contribute to the common wealth according to his capacity and receive a reward according to his need. Communism proclaims the equality of all peoples and races and believes in the final establishment of an international order.

Colour bar—The denying by white men, Europeans or persons of European descent, of legal and social rights to coloured persons.

Collective Responsibility—In countries with parliamentary government, the joint responsibility of the government to the Parliament. The government is responsible for the political actions of each member of it and each member is responsible for the actions of the government.

Collective Security—Security of all the members of an association of nations from aggression by any other nation or nations.

Cold War—A struggle between two nations or groups of nations, waged by use of political and economic strategy, propaganda and other measures short of armed combat.

Corporate State—A state organised politically on the basis of vocational corporations instead of territorial units. A corporate parliament does not consist of representatives of territorial constituencies but of delegates of professional corporation who are sent to the parliament according to the quota system.

Corridor—A strip of the territory of one State running through that of another, usually to give access to the sea.

Coup D'état—A sudden change of government by force effected by holders of government or military power.

Constituent Assembly—is an assembly convened for the purpose of drawing up a constitution, but it only comes—and this is the vital point—after there is a breakdown in the existing machinery of Government and a change has been brought about in the Status quo.

Condominium—A territory over which responsibility is shared by two administering powers.

Conscientious Objector—Person who refuses to enlist in the military service on moral or religious grounds.

Colony—A company of people, purposely or otherwise transplanted from their mother country and remaining subject to the jurisdiction of the parent State.

Crown Colony—A British Empire colony in which the Crown retains some kind of control over legislation.

Customs Union—A union of states or nations for the purpose of establishing orderly trade with one another and a common tariff on
imports, exports and goods in transit as now established in Low Countries of Europe.

Democracy—"Government of the people, by the people, and for the people"—Lincoln. It is based upon freely elected representative institutions and upon an executive responsible to the people. It is based upon the fundamental assumption of the equality of all individuals and of their equal right to life, liberty (including the liberty of thought and expression) and the pursuit of happiness.

Démarche—Diplomatic term from the French, used for representations whether moderate proposals or severe threats, made by one state to another through diplomatic envoys.

Diarchy—A form of government in which the supreme power of the state is vested in two bodies or persons.

Diehards—Extremely orthodox and unbending members of a party; it was specially applied to the members of the Conservative party.

Dictatorship—Control of Government or ruling power by a minority or by an individual. In ancient Rome, the dictator was recognised as a ruler. In modern times, Dictatorship flared up in Europe after the World War I. Mussolini in Italy and Hitler in Germany seized power unconstitutionally but with the support of the people.

Dollar Diplomacy—A nickname for the foreign policy of U.S.A. for the purposes of expanding American financial and commercial interests abroad under the guise of promoting international friendship.

Dominion Status—Dominions "are autonomous communities within the British Empire, equal in status, in no way subordinate one to another in any aspect of their domestic or external affairs, united by a common allegiance to the Crown."

Diplomacy—Art of negotiation specially between countries. Each country possesses a diplomatic service to carry on negotiation with foreign countries. Some diplomats such as ambassadors, ministers, envoys, etc., go abroad and live in a foreign capital to keep in touch with the Government. Their business is to watch over interests of their country and to send regular reports upon all that concerns it.

Electoral College—Any body of electors limited in number, meeting in one place to choose a public official.

Extra-Territoriality—The legal fiction that foreign diplomats and diplomatic agencies are outside their country of residence in spite of physical presence. Embassies, etc., form foreign islands, so to speak, within the territory of a state. They are not subject to its laws.

Extradition—Surrender of a fugitive from justice by one country or state to the authorities of another.

Espionage—A French word which expresses more than English word spying; it implies an organised system.

Federalism—A system of government wherein political powers of the state are constitutionally distributed between National Government and the local Governments or member units which are called ‘States,’ ‘Provinces,’ etc. The division of powers between
Federal government and separate states is laid down in the constitution and varies between one another.

Fifth Column—Secret supporters of an enemy engaged in sabotage or other subversive activity within defence lines.

Filibuster—A politician who attempts to delay, or stop the passing of a bill by endless speech-making and other legitimate practices.

Geneva Convention—An international treaty regulating the treatment of the wounded in war, adopted at a conference held in 1864 and replaced by the existing agreement of 1906.

Guerilla—Irregular warfare. Guerilla warfare consists in attacks upon a regular army by bands of irregular troops, usually the inhabitants of an invaded country.

Genocide—The destruction of a human group, racial, ethnic, religious or national by slaughter, starvation, sterilization, compulsory abortion, mass kidnapping or other violent means. The word was coined by a Polish lawyer R Lémin in 1948 the U.N. approved a new international law defining Genocide as a crime. The convention having been ratified by 20 U.N. members, became effective on Jan. 12, 1951.

Gentleman’s Agreement—An informal international agreement based on a verbal exchange or correspondence, without a treaty or convention being signed.

Gerrymander—A practice of laying out electoral districts to ensure the majority of votes for party in power.

Hegemony—Leadership; especially of one state or a group.

Imperialism—Policy of empire-building and conquests transcending national frontiers. It now means for every policy of conquest and colonial expansion.

Internationals—Socialist movement in which socialists from many countries are united. There have been three such movements or Internationals, and each has held several Congresses. First International—accepted a programme drawn up by Karl Marx and had lasted from 1866 to 1874. Second International, in which there was trade union element, was organised in 1889. It sought to compass the aims of Socialism by constitutional, not revolutionary action and it held several congresses between 1882 and 1930. The Third International was organised in Moscow and was revolutionary in its aims. It declared in favour of establishing communism by force.

Imperial Preference—in the British Empire, the trading system whereby the members of that Empire give to each other preferential treatment in their tariff regulations and import quotas.

Iron Curtain—A barrier created by such means as censorship and prohibition of free travel to isolate Russian controlled territory from outside contacts, hence, any similar barrier against communication.

Isolationism—The path of keeping aloof from affairs of other countries.

Joint Responsibility—The guiding principle of the Cabinet system of Government. Although every minister is in charge of a parti-
cular portfolio, all ministers are jointly responsible to the legislature
and a vote of no-confidence against one is a censure on all.

Lame Duck—Members of the legislature who fail to get re-elected
but continue to function as legislators until the new legislature meets,
are known as Lame Ducks. The term Lame Duck was first used in
the United States.

Lebensraum—German word for ‘living space’, a new word for
German imperialism. It was used to stress that population is too
dense and to claim such territories as agricultural regions towards
Black Sea and colonies overseas.

Leftist—One who belongs to a radical or revolutionary party;
also one who holds or advocates ultraliberal principles.

Lend-Lease—The system of lending and leasing supplies and
installations to each other developed by the allies in the World War
II. It was started by President Roosevelt.

Marxism—The socialist doctrine following the theories of Karl
Marx (Germany). His ideas are that all wealth is produced by Lab-
bour and should go to labour, and that as this leaves nothing for the
capitalist, who can therefore never accept the system, the worker
must prepare for class war in which capitalism will be destroyed.
An essence of his theories is that history is largely determined by
economic forces.

Moratorium—A period during which no business engagements
are completed or debts or liabilities enforced. A moratorium is
declared by the government in times of a financial crisis.

Most-Favoured Nation Clause—A clause customary in treaties
of commerce whereby signatories undertake to extend automatically
to the other party any reduction in tariff or other economic favour
which they may in future accord to any other country. Thus if a
country at a later date grants a tariff reduction in respect of some
articles to some other country, this will also apply to all the coun-
tries with which it has previously made trade treaties.

Naturalization—The word is used for the admission of a person
of foreign nationality into that of a country he desires to adopt. An
oath of allegiance has to be taken.

Non-aggression Pact—Treaty between two or more states pled-
ging each not to attack the other and to settle their disputes by nego-
tiation or arbitration.

Non-intervention—Generally the principle of abstination from
interference with the internal affairs of other nations. It rests on
the recognition of sovereignty as the permanent factor in inter-
national relations and is one of the most often involved principles
in the policies of the world.

Non-belligerency—This word is used for sympathetic attitude,
short of fighting which a country adopts towards one side in war
time. It therefore differs from the strict impartiality called for in
neutrality.

Nationalization—Taking management by the state of trades
and industries, etc., with or without compensation; changes from
private to state ownership.
Neutrality—In international law, condition of a state abstaining from participating in a war between other states and maintaining an impartial attitude in its dealings with the belligerent states, with the recognition of this impartiality by the warring states.

Open Door Policy—System of keeping trade open to all countries, disregarding monopolies or preferences on equal terms without privileges or discrimination.

Opposition—Freedom to oppose the existing government is fundamental to democracy and the British practice of calling the Opposition “His Majesty’s Opposition” on the analogy of “His Majesty’s Government” is a recognition of the fact that the opposition is as loyal and essential to the state as the government.

Ordinance—That which is ordained by authority. Ordinance is an act promulgated by the chief of the state without passing through the legislature of the country.

Panch Shila—Five principles of co-existence jointly enunciated by Jawaharlal Nehru and Chinese Prime Minister Chou En-lai. The countries that have so far specially commended the ‘Panch Shila’ are—China, Indonesia, Burma, India, Nepal, Laos, Cambodia, Democratic Republic of Viet Nam and Yugoslavia. The five principles of Panch Shila are (1) mutual respect for one another’s territorial integrity and sovereignty, (2) non-aggression, (3) non-interference in one another’s internal affairs, for any reasons of an economic, political or ideological character, (4) equality and mutual benefit and (5) peaceful co-existence. These principles also formed the basis of joint declaration made by India and U.S.S.R. on June 22, 1953 and also by Poland on June 27, 1955.

Parole—An oath taken by a prisoner of war that, if released, he will not try to escape, nor during a war bear arms against his captors.

Partisan—A member of a guerilla band working behind enemy lines and engaged in such activities as sabotage, demolition, and diversionary attacks.

Point of Order—A question raised by a member of a legislative body as propriety of a motion or proceeding under the rules. The presiding officer is required to rule on it immediately as his ruling is subject to appeal to the floor.

Power Politics—(1) the policy of maintaining and expanding national power for power’s sake, (2) the sum total of international relations in a world consisting of sovereign states whose existence depends on power, (3) by a more narrow definition, the use of threats and force for the achievement of political objects in international relations without consideration of right and justice.

Protectorate—A territory not formally annexed, but in respect of which, by treaty grant, usage, sufferance and other lawful means, the other state has power and jurisdiction.

Purge—Expulsion, possibly killing of unreliable, unruly, disobe-dient or merely inconvenient members of a party.

Putsch—German word meaning “attempt to take by force”, specially power, control of state.

Prize Court—This is a court of law set up in time of war to decide whether a ship and its cargo captured by the navy is a lawful
prize or not. If it is decided that a captured ship is enemy property or a cargo is contraband, they are sold and the proceeds are distributed to all members of the navy at the end of the war.

Privy Purse—In England allowance from civil list for personal use of the Sovereign.

Prohibition—Government action which prohibits by law the manufacture and sale of intoxicating liquors except for medical or sacramental use.

Plural Voting—System allowing a person to cast more than one vote in the same election. The voter is eligible to vote in more than one constituency by virtue of its special position, i.e., a city and a university vote by the same person.

Pacifism—Opposition to war or military force in any form. Pacifists believe that all international disputes should be settled by arbitration. The various movements towards world peace are not necessarily wholly pacificistic, as they often advocate defensive war and oppose only aggressive war.

Provincial Autonomy—The system (specially in Indian Constitution) under which States enjoy complete autonomy as far as the States subjects are concerned and have concurrent jurisdiction with the Centre on subject of common interest.

Proportional Representation—is the method used in an election by which the votes are so counted that each party has representation in the elective body in proportion to its strength, so as to ensure the representation of minorities.

Plebiscite—An expression of the will of the whole people, sought in ratification or disapproval of a particular measure, already decided but regarding which their elected representatives hesitate to act. It comes from the Latin plebs, the common people.

Protectorate—A territory, not formally annexed, but over which, by grant, treaty, suffrage or usage and other lawful means another State has power or jurisdiction, e.g., Zanzibar.

Protocol—The rough-draft of a diplomatic document on which diplomatic transactions tentatively commenced.

Privileges, Parliamentary—"The sum of peculiar rights enjoyed by each House collectively as a constituent part of the High Court of Parliament, and by members of each House individually, without which they could not discharge their functions and which exceed those possessed by other bodies or individuals."—Erskine May.

Pourparler—An informal preliminary conference of representatives of different groups, functions or countries looking to a formal agreement settling disputed questions between the parties.

Police State—A totalitarian state having repressive government control of radio, press, culture, and economic and political life.

Pogrom—A Russian word for 'devastation', a term for mass raids on Jewish Quarters in Tsarist Russia; killing, looting and arson were practised. They were later introduced into Germany by Nazis.

Public Relations—The activities of a corporation, government, or other organisation in building and maintaining good relations with the general public or with special groups.
Public Utilities—Electric light, gas, telephone, street car and other services of use to all members of the community.

Proletariate—The wage-earning class of a community collectively i.e., property-less class dependent on sale of labour. In Marxism, the Proletariate is opposed to the bourgeoisie, the employing class, and will eventually overthrow it.

Politbureau—Short for political bureau, the leading body of communist parties. The communist party of Soviet Union has a Politbureau which is regarded by many as real government of Russia. Every communist party in whatever country has a Politbureau.

Quislings—Local traitors, names after the Norwegian traitor, Major Quisling, who betrayed his country to the Germans; specially those who quietly prepared the way for Germany in her neighbouring countries.

Radical—Persons of political views quite different from those held by the majority of persons who, in politics, are in favour of sweeping reforms or other changes in government or laws.

Racketeer—One who levies blackmail on industry by threats of interference.

'Reds'—Slang term for revolutionaries, specially communists, derived from Red Flag, the traditional symbol of revolt.

Republic—State in which the sovereign power resides in the electorate, which is the body of the people having a voice in electing representatives to rule them. There is no hereditary sovereign to rule.

Residuary Powers—In Federal Constitution where the powers are divided between the federal centre and the federating States or units under a system of three lists—federal, state or provincial and concurrent. Powers relating to new spheres of administration not covered by either of the three lists are known as residuary powers.

Reprisal—A retaliatory punishment inflicted by one country upon another for an alleged illegal act.

Right and Left—in the legislative bodies, it is the fixed habit of the conservative groups and parties to seat themselves on the right hand side of the Speaker or President and of the liberal or radical element to seat themselves on the left. The term ‘centre’ is used for middle parties or groups.

Regent—One who rules on behalf of a sovereign. When a sovereign is a minor, or is insane, or in any other way incapable of ruling, it is usual to appoint a regent to act for him.

Referendum—Bringing a proposed law before the people as a whole for decision.

Reciprocity—Exchange of commercial privilege. It is usually experienced when two nations make tariff concessions to each other.

Sabotage—At first this word was confined in its meaning to malicious waste or destruction of an employer’s property by workmen, as a means of enforcing demands in labour disputes. Now it is being applied more broadly, to define any malicious crippling or destruction of property especially as practised by foreign secret agents or sympathisers for the purpose of damaging military equipment.
Sanctions—Coercive measures taken to ensure fulfilment of international treaty obligations. Sanctions were provided in the covenant of the League of Nations against countries resorting to war in defiance of the Covenant. U.N. Charter also provides for sanctions though it does not use the word ‘sanctions’.

Satellite—A state or country politically and economically dominated by a more powerful neighbouring one.

Secret Session—For the discussion of important questions, Parliament sometimes sits in secret when all withdraws from the house except the members.

Sphere of Influence—A region normally undeveloped, politically under the determinative power of a foreign nation.

Splinter Group—In politics, a group broken away from a larger, original organisation.

Soviet Council—a great local governing body in the U.S.S.R. composed of peasants, soldiers and workers, which sends deputies to the higher congress.

Straw Vote—Unofficial polling of public opinion.

Suzerainty—A state that exercises political control over another state in relation to which he is sovereign.

Syndicalism—A socialist movement aiming at trade union socialism instead of State Socialism.

Scorched Earth—A wartime policy of destroying all resources when defending forces have to withdraw before the invader.

Self-determination—The principle that every distinct people or nation ought to have the right to determine the question of its independence, its form of government and its political destiny.

Tammany Hall—A name given to the Democratic Party’s organisation in New York city, which sprang from Tammany Society of 1805. One of the famous political machines of American history—very influential in New York city and State politics, also in the Democratic party on a national scale.

Third Force—A term originating in the post-World War II in France, where it was applied to the Socialists and M.R.P., intermediate between the communists and the right-wing supporters of De Gaulle. It has been applied elsewhere to policies intermediate between Communism and Fascism and other right-wing forces. It is applied also to a group of States—W. Europe which would be sufficiently strong and influential to reconcile the U.S.A. and U.S.S.R. by co-operating with both.

Totalitarian—A believer in the complete centralization of government control under the political group and suppression of other parties.

Total War—denotes the present form of war in which the distinction between combatants and non-combatants are fast disappearing.

Theocracy—A state governed by God or priests.

Trotskyism—The views of Trotsky on socialism, revolution and the development of Soviet Union and the movement propagating these ideas. After the overthrow of Trotsky in 1925-27, a number of communists supporting his opposition to Stalin formed revolu-
tionary communist parties which in 1936 established Fourth Inter-
national which held conferences in Paris in 1936 and 1948. They 
are left-wing communists, more radical and revolutionary than Stal-
nists, the official communists with whom they are in conflict. These 
Trotskyites have appeared in various countries as ‘Revolu-

tional Communist Party,’ ‘Revolutionary Socialist Party, etc.

Trust Territory—A territory administered by a State appointed 
by and responsible to, the United Nations after the 2nd World War.

Trusteeship—Administration by a member of the United Nations 
of an area not yet ready for self-government.

Unilateral action—Action taken by one party to an agreement 
without consulting the other parties in international affairs.

Ultimatum—Final statement of demands, rejection of which is 
assumed to lead at once to breaking-off friendly relations and to war.

Underground—Organised, secret opposition to the government 
or force in power.

V. E. Day—Victory in Europe, May 8th, 1945, the day of the 
official end of the European phase of the World War II.

V. J. Day—Victory in Japan, August 14, 1945, the day making 
the end of the war in Japan.

Warmonger—People who desire war and support war-like policy.
Whig—Old name for English liberals, no longer in use. It was 
the description of liberal party in English Parliament after 1680.

Veto—The term is most used to-day with reference to the 
United Nations but its history dates from Roman times. ‘Veto’ is 
Latin for “I forbid it”; it was the word used by the Roman magis-
trate when invoking the law against some action. In many modern 
States the King or President has the power of vetoing measures 
passed by the legislature. In the United Nations, only the five 
permanent members out of the eleven members of the Security Council 
have the power of veto, which prevents a decision being taken even 
if every other member is in favour of it.

Welfare State—A state that, by its concern with public health, 
insurance against sickness and unemployment and similar measures, 
assumes a large share of responsibility for the welfare of its citizens.

Wishful Thinking—signifies optimism not always founded on 
reality.

Whip—A member of a political party assigned to the task of 
rounding up members of that party to ensure their votes and to hold 
them in line with the party policy.

Writ—A document directed to some public officer or private 
person commanding him to do a certain act therein specified.

PLANS, POLICIES, TREATIES, ALLIANCES, COUNCILS, 
CHARTERS, CONFERENCES, ETC.

Anzus Treaty—was signed on Sept. 1, 1951, under which members 
acknowledge that an attack in the Pacific against any will involve all, 
and agree to “act to meet the common danger.” Members are: U.S. 
New Zealand and Australia.
Atlantic Charter—A joint declaration was made by Roosevelt-Churchill on August 14, 1941, stating (1) no aggrandisement, territorial or other. (2) No territorial changes without expressed wish of the people concerned. (3) Right of all people to choose the form of their own government. (4) Restoration of sovereign rights and self-government to those who have been forcibly deprived of them. (5) Access on equal terms to trade and to raw materials of the world. (6) Fullest collaboration between all nations in economic field. (7) Final peace of the whole world after destruction of Nazi tyranny.

Arab League—The Arab States formed a Union by a pact signed in Cairo March 22, 1945 for the purpose of maintaining Arab solidarity. The League consists of Egypt, Iraq, Jordan, Saudi Arabia, Syria, Lebanon, Yemen and Libya. Provision was made for admission of the Arab portion of Palestine upon achievement of independence. The League’s Council approved customs and payments agreements, on Sept. 7, 1958.

Arab Security Pact—This is known as Arab League Collective Security and Economic Co-operation Pact concluded on July 17, 1950. The pact has been ratified by Egypt, Iraq, Syria, Jordan and Lebanon. This treaty links the signatory States into military, political and economic alliance, pledging resistance to armed attack and reaffirming their obligations under Arab League and U.N. charters.

Bagdad Pact—A treaty in which five nations joined in November, 1955, to set up the middle East Treaty Organisation.

Benelux—This is the combination of three countries—Belgium, Luxemburg and the Netherlands which have established a complete Customs Union among themselves. No longer are there any tariff barriers between these three countries. All three are now together called Benelux. The Benelux has been an influential example of closer economic co-operation for recovery of Europe.

Bandung Conference—The meeting of the Representatives of 30 African and Asian nations held at Bandung, Indonesia, April 18-24, 1955. The aim was to promote economic and cultural co-operation and to oppose colonialism. This was more or less achieved in an atmosphere of cordiality.

Brussels Pact—The pact was signed in March 1948 by Britain, France and the Benelux countries. It is a military defence pact and also equally an economic co-operation pact. It pledges all five countries to cease from bilateral injury to one another and to enlarge their commercial exchanges.

It was designed “to fortify and preserve the principles of democracy, personal freedom and political liberty, the rule of law and constitutional traditions.”

Colombo Plan—This plan began from July 1, 1951. It was a six-year plan of economic aid to South and South-East Asia agreed on at the British-sponsored Conference at Colombo in January 1950 by Great Britain, Australia, Canada, Ceylon, India, New Zealand, Pakistan, Later Malaya, Singapore, North Borneo, Sarawak promised co-operation. Burma and Indonesia sent observers to meet-
POLITICAL INFORMATION

ings of Consultive Committee in London. The Project will raise £1,868 million, help by governments, raised by bank loans, contributions, etc., to support mills, power plants, railways, irrigation, other capital goods, thus combating poverty and communism. United States is not a participant, but will consult on Point Four Funds in Asia. The International Bank of Reconstruction and Development will co-operate. Britain will contribute £100,000,000, Canada and Australia each voted £25,000,000 for the first year.

Cominform—The Cominform (Communist Information Bureau) was set up at a secret meeting in Poland of communist delegates from nine European nations on Oct. 5, 1947. It was the successor body to the Comintern (Communist International) which was dissolved in 1943. The original Cominform linked the Communist Party of Russia with those of the East European States and those of France and Italy, the two West European countries with the biggest Communist Party membership.

Commonwealth of Nations—is a free association of ten sovereign independent states, the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, India, Pakistan, Ceylon, Ghana and Malaya Federation. The members are bound together by the community of ideals and interest. All the members owe common allegiance to the Queen of England as the Head of the Commonwealth and is the symbol of their free association in the Commonwealth, except India and Pakistan where Presidents are the Heads of the State. These countries, India and Pakistan, do not give allegiance to the Queen but recognise the Queen as Symbol of their free association as Members of the Commonwealth and as such the Head of the Commonwealth.

Commonwealth Parliamentary Association—was founded in 1911. The aim of the Association is “to promote understanding and co-operation for common purposes between those engaged in parliamentary government of the countries of the Commonwealth by the establishment of machinery for the exchange of information and individual visits and for the organisation of conferences between members of the legislatures of the Commonwealth and also to promote understanding and co-operation by similar means between those members and the members of legislatures outside the Commonwealth having close political and parliamentary associations with them.”

Council of Europe—An institution of consultive character founded on May 5, 1949 in London. It consists of a Committee of Ministers (composed of Foreign Ministers of member countries) and a consultive assembly (delegations from several parliaments), the former providing means of co-operation between governments, the latter a means through which the aspiration of the European peoples may be formulated and expressed. Every member government has to “accept the principles of the rule of law and of the enjoyment by all persons within its jurisdiction of human rights and fundamental freedoms.

The member countries are—Belgium, Denmark, France, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourgh, Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, Turkey,
United Kingdom, Iceland and German Federal Republic (Associate Member).


Eastern Military Alliance—It is the military organisation of Communist States in Europe to offset North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO), the Western Military Alliance.

Eisenhower Doctrine—A new political doctrine enunciated in 1951 by the U.S. President Eisenhower. The main features of the doctrine are as follows: (1) It is bilateral. It extends the U.S. offer of protection to individual Mid-east nations, but only at their request; it does not require organisation of the whole region to be effective. (2) Although it is designed principally to preserve the vast stretches of Arab territory from communism, it also applies to the Arabs' sworn enemy, Israel without taking sides. (3) It is informal; neither any nation nor the U.S. has to sign a new pact. (4) It is exclusively American and non-colonial. The U.S. is no longer coupled rigidly or identified in the middle-East with Britain and France—and yet the doctrine in no way excludes them but, in fact, helps to preserve a Western influence behind which the British and French may rebuild.

European Defence Community (EDC)—The treaty founding European Defence Community was signed in Paris on May 27, 1952 by France, West Germany, Italy, Belgium, Netherlands and Luxembourg. Four supplementary agreements were signed: a protocol to the NATO treaty extending guarantees of the NATO to EDC, a reciprocal pact in which the EDC pledged the same guarantees to the NATO, a treaty between the 6 EDC members and Britain committing the 7 nations mutually to resist aggression against any one of the group and a declaration by Britain, France and the U.S. that they would regard any threat against EDC as a threat to their own security and that they would maintain forces in Western Europe to defend the North Atlantic area.

European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC)—Limited economic federation of France, West Germany, Belgium, Netherlands, Luxembourg and Italy. It is sometimes called Schuman Plan, in the name of the French Foreign Minister who proposed it in 1950. The 50-year treaty creating the ECSC became effective in 1952 and established unified market for the member countries—coal and steel products. Restrictions on exports, imports and currency exchange affecting such products were gradually lifted and a unified labour market was created.

Gatt—The General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade is one of the most important of all institutions concerned with international trade. It was formed by 23 countries which met in Geneva in the middle of 1947 to discuss how to remove discrimination and unfair practices in international trade. The result was an agreement on certain principles which are together known as the General Agreements on Tariff and
Trade. One of them is that concessions given by a country to any one country in the trade in any commodity, should be given to all the other countries signing the agreement who wish to trade in that commodity. Another principle is that goods imported from other countries should enjoy the same taxation and transportation privileges as similar goods produced within the country. A third principle is that no country should enter into unfair competition by adopting what is known as the practice of "dumping goods".

Genocide Convention—was adopted by U.N. on Dec. 9, 1948. The word genocide was coined by Prof. R. Lamkin of Poland to mean the deliberate extermination of any human group on racial, religious or linguistic grounds. The convention binds its signatories to prevent and punish the crime of genocide.

Four Freedoms—President Roosevelt in his address to the Congress of Jan 6, 1941 defined four essential human freedoms—(1) Freedom of speech and expression, (2) Freedom of every person to worship God in his own way, (3) Freedom from want, (4) Freedom from fear. The programme was, substantially, incorporated in the Atlantic Charter (Aug. 1947).

Fourteen Points—Woodrow Wilson's basis offered, Jan. 8, 1918, in a message to American Congress for an equitable and enduring peace in settlement of World War I.

International Red Cross—Two international organisations are known respectively as International Committee of the Red Cross and the League of Red Cross Societies, both with headquarters in Geneva and Switzerland. The first of these is a wholly international agency unconnected with any national society which attempts to maintain the basic Red Cross principle of the Geneva convention; the second agency is a federation of autonomous national Red Cross Societies designed to further co-operation among them.

Japanese Peace Treaty—was signed at San Francisco on Sept. 8, 1951 by 49 nations. The State of War between Japan and the Allies was terminated. Japan's full sovereignty was recognised and its right to apply the U.N. membership. Japan recognised the independence of Korea, renounced all rights to Formosa, Pescadores, Kuriles, Sakhalin, the Pacific islands formerly under mandate to Japan, the Antarctic area, Sparty Island and the Paracels; Japan agrees to U.N. Trusteeship over Kyukyu and Daito Islands, the Bonius and Rosario Islands, the Volcano Islands, Parece Vela and Marcus Island.

League of Nations—An organisation of many nations formed in January, 1920 for the promotion of international peace and co-operation; dissolved in April, 1946.

Marshall Plan—Also known as Organisation for European Economic Co-operation. On June 5, 1947, the U.S. Secretary of State, Marshall made a speech in the Harvard University in which he outlined the seriousness of the shortage of dollars for the economic situation of Europe and suggested American assistance in the economic recovery on the understanding that the European countries reached some agreement about their requirements and the part they themselves would take in giving proper effect to the action of U.S.
A conference of sixteen nations of Europe willing to work the Marshall Plan began in Paris on July 12, 1947 and formulated an economic programme which aimed at restoring European economy by the end of 1950 by (a) a strong production programme by each participant, (b) creation and maintenance of internal financial stability, (c) maximum mutual help between the participating countries and (d) a solution of the problem of the European trading deficit with the American countries. The report calculated the deficit for the 16 countries and their dependent territories at $22,440 million over 4-year period.

Munich Agreement—Signed by Germany, Great Britain, France and Italy on September 29, 1938 at Munich. It provided for the cession to Germany of the Sudetan-German districts of Czechoslovakia; the new frontiers were guaranteed by all the signatories. The agreement was violated in March, 1939 by Hitler seizing what was left of the country.

Mutual Security Programme—The plan of all economic aids by U.S.A. is contained in the Mutual Security Act of 1951 which sanctions millions of dollars for military, economic and technical assistance to free nations. A large part of mutual security funds are allocated for defence. The remaining funds are used to develop manufacturing facilities, to provide technical training and to ensure economic stability.

North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO)—is an association of nations of North Africa and Western Europe. It is established by a treaty (North Atlantic Pact) signed in 1949 by United States, Canada, Iceland, United Kingdom, France, Belgium, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Norway, Denmark, West Germany, Greece, Turkey, Italy and Portugal. They joined NATO to prepare for a possible armed attack of the Soviet Union and other Communist countries. NATO countries agreed to unite their military strength for collective defence and for preservation of peace and security in the North Atlantic area. The Council of NATO is its planning and organising body. A European army to consist of fifty or more divisions were established. Supreme Headquarters of Allied Powers in European (SHAPE) was established in France.

Organisation of American States (OAS)—This organisation was chartered in 1948 for co-operation and mutual respect among American States.

Philadelphia Charter—was adopted by the International Labour Organisation at the Philadelphia Conference on May 10, 1944. It declares: that labour is not a commodity; that freedom of expression and of association are essential to sustained progress; that poverty anywhere constitutes a danger to prosperity everywhere; and that war against want requires to be carried out with unrelenting vigour within each nation.

Point Four—In Jan. 20, 1949 President Truman outlined four major courses of action for American foreign policy. The fourth point from which the programme took its name, called upon the peoples of the United States “to help the free peoples of the world through their own efforts to produce more food, more clothing,
more materials for housing and more mechanical power to lighten
their burdens. . . . It must be a wide world effort for achievement
of peace, plenty and freedom.” Point Four is meant to make the
scientific and technical knowledge of America available to free
nations for their agricultural and industrial development. On Sept.
1960 funds became available for a Technical Co-operation Programme.

Pan-American Union—An international body created by the 21
American republics for the fostering of mutual understanding and
co-operation, with essential duty of making effective the resolutions
adopted by the successive Pan-American Conferences. A general
conference of the member Republics is held quinquennially known as
Pan-American Conference. The Union is financed by its 21
members on the basis of population.

Rio Treaty—A treaty signed in August 1947, under which the
signatory nations pledge themselves, in the event of aggression
against any one of them, to provide assistance to that nation on
request. Members are: United States, Cuba, Honduras, Mexico,
Guatemala, El Salvador, Nicaragua, Haiti, Dominican Rep. Costa
Rica, Panama, Venezuela, Ecuador, Colombia, Peru, Bolivia,
Paraguay, Brazil, Chile, Argentina and Uruguay.

SEATO.—South-East Asia Treaty Organisation was signed
in Manila on Sept. 8, 1954 by Australia, New Zealand, Pakistan,
Philippines, France, Thailand, United Kingdom and United States
covering the “general area of South-east Asia” to strengthen defence in
S. E. Asia and to develop economic measures for social well-being.
In case of aggression, its members are to “consult immediately in
order to agree to measures which should be taken for common
defence.”

Tripartite Security Treaty—This is between U.S.A., Australia
and New Zealand, signed on Sept. 8, 1951 (1) to settle by peaceful
means any international disputes, (2) parties will consult together
wherever the territorial integrity, political independence or security
of any party is threatened in the Pacific.

UNICEF :—is a popular abbreviation for United Nations Inter-
national Children’s Emergency Fund. Established in 1946 and
administered directly by U. N. Secretariat. UNICEF is the world’s
largest voluntary international effort to improve the health and
welfare of children and mothers.

Versailles, Treaty of—the peace treaty ending the war of 1914-18
concluded between the Alhes and Associated Powers and Germany
on June 29, 1919. It imposed terms on Germany in regard to the
occupation of Rhineland territory for a period of years, the surren-
der of Alsace-Lorraine to France and parts of East Prussia to Poland,
the handing over to the Allies of Germany’s colonial possessions.
An important feature of this treaty was the establishment of
League of Nations.

Warsaw Pact—Mutual defence treaty signed by the several
communist countries—U.S.S.R., Bulgaria, Albania, Czechoslovakia,
Poland, Rumania and Hungary on 14th May, 1955 at Warsaw. The
alliance was made necessary by the remilitarization of West Germany
under Paris Pacts of 1954, the treaty is binding for 20 years but provides for its lapse as soon as an East-West collective security should come into force. A unified military Command was also set up.

Western European Union (W.E.U.)—Seven nations formally organised the Western European Union in 1955. Great Britain, France, Belgium, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands and Western Germany ratified a treaty to establish the new defensive coalition.

United Nations Technical Assistance Administration (UNTTA)—was set in 1950 to direct provision to governments which request it, technical assistance in the fields of economic development, social welfare and public administration. Important activities of UNTTA include the provision of experts in the various specialised fields, awards of fellowships and study or training grants in fields related to economic or social developments; and the organisation of regional seminars and training centres in specialised fields.

CONSTITUTION OF INDIA

Sovereign Democratic Republic—Indian Constitution resolves to establish a sovereign democratic republic. The country is absolutely republic independent in its internal and external affairs. India being a democratic republic, the real fountain head of all powers is the people. Thus sovereignty is vested in the people of the country.

The aim of the Constitution is to secure for all its citizens—

Justice, social, economic and political;

Liberty of thought, expression, belief, faith and worship;

Equality of status and of opportunity; and to promote among them all

Fraternity, assuring the dignity of the individual and the unity of the Nation.

Territory and Extent—There are in India fourteen States, each with a Governor as its head, such as Andhra Pradesh, Assam, West Bengal, Bihar, Bombay, Madhya Pradesh, Madras, Orissa, Punjab, Uttar Pradesh, Kerala, Rajasthan, Mysore, Jammu & Kashmir.

There are six territories, such as Himachal Pradesh, Delhi, Manipur, Tripura, Andaman & Nicobar Islands and Laccadive, Amindivi and Minicoy Islands and such other territories as may be acquired.

Fundamental Rights—The Constitution of India makes a declaration of some fundamental rights which it guarantees against violation by the State.

The Constitution contains rights which are declared fundamental and justiciable. These fundamental rights have been classified under the following heads:

1. Right to equality.
2. Right of freedom.
3. Right against exploitation.
4. Right to freedom of religion.
5. Cultural and educational rights.
6. Right to property.
7. Right to constitutional remedies.
Right to Equality—Discrimination against any citizen on grounds of religion, race, caste, sex or place of birth is prohibited. In public employment, Constitution assures equality to opportunity for all. It has established social equality by abolition of title, local and foreign.

Right to Constitutional Remedies—The Constitution guarantees the right to every citizen to move the Supreme Court for enforcement of all fundamental rights. And for that purpose the Supreme Court is given general powers to safeguard these rights as well as the power to propose particular remedies, such as habeas corpus, mandamus, etc.

Rights to Freedom—Guarantees (a) Freedom of speech and expression, (b) to assemble peacefully and without arms, (c) to form associations or unions, (d) to move freely throughout India, (e) to reside and settle in any part of India, (f) to acquire, hold and dispose of properties, (g) to practise any profession, trade or business.

Religious Freedom—Subject only to public order, morality, health and some other essential provisions, all persons are equally entitled to freedom of conscience and the right to profess, practise and propagate religion freely.

Cultural and Educational Rights—The Constitution provides for the protection of the interests of linguistic, cultural and religious minorities and their right to establish and administer their own educational institutions.

Rights against exploitation—Traffic in human beings is declared punishable offence. So too is begar (forced labour) except without payment or any form of forced labour except compulsory service for the State for public purpose.

Rights to Property—No person shall be unlawfully deprived of his property, movable or immovable.

Directive Principles—The Indian Constitution also includes a set of directives enjoining the state to undertake within its means, a number of welfare measures. These are intended to assure citizens an adequate means of livelihood, raise the standard of living, improve public health, provide free and compulsory education for children, and assure that the operation of the economic system does not result in the concentration of wealth and means of production to the detriment of the common good.

UNION EXECUTIVE—President—The Executive at the centre consists of the President and a Council of Ministers. The President is the executive head of the Indian Republic. All the executive powers of the Union including the Supreme command of the Defence Forces is formally vested in the President and all executive actions are taken in his name. He is elected by an electoral college consisting of the elected members of both Houses of Parliament and Legislative Assemblies of the States, by the system of proportional representation by single transferable vote.

The qualifications of the office of the President—(1) He should be a citizen of India; (2) must have completed the age of 35 years; and (3) qualified for election as a member of the House of the People.
He will not be eligible for election if he holds a job in Government, giving him financial rewards.

**Term of office**—The President holds office for five years and is eligible for re-election.

**Salary and Allowance**—The President draws a salary of Rs. 10,000 and usual allowance.

**Impeachment**—The President may be removed from office by impeachment for any violation of the constitution.

**Vice-President** is the ex-officio Chairman of the Council of States (Rajya Sabha). Any citizen of India aged thirty-five years and above and qualified for the membership of the Council of States can be elected to this office by both the Houses of Parliament at a joint sitting on the basis of proportional representation by single transferable vote. His term of office is five years. When the President is ill, if he resigns or dies or is removed or is for any reason absent, his place will be taken by the Vice-President, till a new President is elected.

**Council of Ministers**—The Constitution provides for a Council of Ministers. The actual executive authority is discharged by the Prime Minister and the Council of Ministers appointed by him, all of whom are collectively responsible to the House of the People, the lower chamber of the Parliament. The Council of Ministers hold office during the pleasure of the President.

**LEGISLATURE**—**Parliament**—The Legislature of the Indian Union consists of the President and two Houses—(1) **Lok Sabha** (House of the People), (2) **Rajya Sabha** (Council of States).

The **Lok Sabha** consists of not more than 500 members and not more than 20 members to represent the Union Territories chosen in such manner as Parliament by law provides. The members are directly elected by the voters in the several states. Every adult or grown-up citizen of India is given the right to vote. The normal life of the House is five years. The minimum age for membership is 25 years for the Lower House. The House of the People elects a Speaker and a Deputy Speaker from amongst its members.

The **Rajya Sabha** consists of not more than 250 members of whom 12 are nominated by the President. The nominated members should be men of learning and wide experience, such as artists, writers, scientists and social workers. The Council of States is not subject to dissolution, a third of its members retiring after every two years. The elections to the Council are indirect, the allotted quotas of the representatives of each State being elected by the elected members of the Legislative Assembly of that State in accordance with the system of proportional representation by means of the single transferable vote. The Vice-President of India is the ex-officio Chairman of the Council of States.

**Powers and Privileges of the Parliament**—The constitution confers certain powers and privileges on members of the Houses of Parliament. No member of parliament "shall be liable to any proceedings in any court in respect of anything said or any vote given by him in parliament or any committee thereof, and no person shall be so
liable in respect of the publication by or under the authority of either house of parliament of any report, paper, votes or proceedings. The powers, privileges and immunities of member of each house of parliament shall be such as may from time to time be defined by parliament by laws and until so defined, shall be those of the House of Commons of the Parliament of the United Kingdom, and of its members and committees."

The difference between the House of the People and the Council of States is as follows:—

The difference is not merely in their size. The powers given to them are not the same. The function of both is to legislate but the greater part of this responsibility will be borne by the Lower House. A bill has to be passed by both the Houses before it becomes law. In case of a disagreement between the two Houses, a joint session of the two Houses is summoned to resolve the dead-lock. The opinion of the Lower House will ultimately prevail owing to its numerical majority. But it is to be noted here that the procedure regarding dead-lock relates only to Bills other than money bills, for, as regards money bills the provision of the constitution is that sole power shall belong to the Lower House. Money Bills cannot be introduced in the Council of States. They must, as a rule, originate in the House of the People.

JUDICIARY—Supreme Court of India.—The Supreme Court of India consists of Chief Justice and not more than ten other judges appointed by the President. Judges hold office until they attain the age of 65 years.

The Supreme Court decides dispute between the Government of India and any State or States or between two or more States involving any question of law or fact. Civil and Criminal appeals of a certain kind from High Courts will also be heard by it. The Supreme Court is also competent to order the enforcement of Fundamental Rights. It has also Advisory Jurisdiction by which the President can refer to it any question of public importance. The law declared by it is binding on all courts of the country.

STATE GOVERNMENTS—States Reorganisation Act of 1955 and Bihar and West Bengal Transfer of Territories Act, 1955 abolish the distinction of States as A, B and C as envisaged in the Indian Constitution. There are now two classes of administrative divisions—(1) 14 States and (2) six Territories. The 14 States are Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Bombay, Jammu & Kashmir, Kerala, Madhya Pradesh, Madras, Mysore, Orissa, Punjab, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal. The six Territories, all of which are centrally-administered, are as follows—Andaman & Nicobar Islands, Delhi, Himachal Pradesh, Laccadive, Amindivi and Minicoy Islands, Manipore and Tripura. The full-fledged States enjoy the same democratic administration as the former Part A States.

States—There is a Governor for each State in whom all executive powers are vested. He is appointed by the President and holds office during his pleasure. Any citizen of India who has completed 35 years of age is eligible for the appointment as
Governor. Governor holds office for a term of five years unless he resigns earlier. Besides official residence, the Governor draws a salary of Rs. 5,500 per month and other allowances and privileges.

The Governor will be assisted by a Council of Ministers with Chief Minister at the head of the Council to aid and advise the Governor. The Chief Minister is appointed by the Governor and the other Ministers are also appointed by him on the advice of the Chief Minister. Ministers hold office during the pleasure of the Governor. The Council of Ministers is collectively responsible to the Legislative Assembly of the State.

Every State has a legislature. Some States have two chambers, while others have only one chamber. Where there are two chambers, one is known as the Legislative Council and the other as the Legislative Assembly and where there is only one House, it is known as Legislative Assembly. Those with two Houses are Bombay, Bihar, Madras, Punjab, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal. In all the States the Lower House is called Legislative Assembly and the Upper House is known as Legislative Council.

Legislative Assembly of each State is elected by direct election on the basis of adult franchise. The total of the Assembly members shall in no case be more than 500 or less than 60. Its normal life is five years. Some seats may be reserved for Scheduled Tribes and Scheduled Castes. The Governor may also nominate the representative of Anglo-Indian community.

The total number of members of the Legislative Council of a State is not to exceed one-third of the total members in the Legislative Assembly, but in no case shall be less than 40. This is a permanent body; one-third of its members retire every second year. Half of its members are elected from local bodies, from among the graduates of three years standing and teachers who have worked at least three years. A third of the members are elected by the Legislative Assembly from among non-members and the rest are nominated by the Governor from among men of eminence in literature, art, science or social service.

Territories—Union Territories have no popular administration and even Delhi, Himachal Pradesh and Tripura which had a Legislature and ministry of their own, have none under the new set-up (Re-organisation of States Act, 1956). The Territories are governed row through an administrator each, with whom some non-official elements are associated. Parliament is the sole legislating authority for these Territories, while additionally the President has power of making regulations in respect of Andamans and Laccadives. Advisory Councils have been set up in Delhi, Himachal Pradesh and Manipur with elected members of the Parliament from these areas to advise the Union Home Minister in the matter of legislation to be placed before the Parliament, on the budget to be framed in respect of them.

States Judiciary—The Constitution envisages a High Court for each State. The High Court consists of a Chief Justice and such other judges as the President may from time to time deem it necessary to appoint. The judges of a High Court are appointed by the President.
of India in consultation with the Chief Justice of India and the
Governor of the State and in case of an appointment of a Judge other
than Chief Justice, the Chief Justice of the High Court concerned.
They hold office until they attain the age of 60 years and are remov-
able from office in the same manner as a judge of the Supreme Court.

Relation between Union and the States—Parliament can legislate
for the whole or any part of the territory of India and the Legisla-
ture of a State for whole or any part of the State. No law, how-
ever, made by the Parliament can be considered invalid on the
ground of extra-territorial jurisdiction. For the purposes of distrib-
uting legislative powers between the Centre and the States, three
comprehensive lists have been drawn up. These lists are (1) Union
List, (2) Concurrent List, (3) State List.

The Parliament has "executive power" to make laws in regard
to the matters mentioned in the first list, i.e., Union List. The Con-
current List means that matters shared between Union and the
States, such as criminal law, civil procedure, preventive detention,
marrage and divorce, transfer of property other than agricultural
lands, contracts, bankruptcy, etc.

There are 66 items in the "State List." Some of them are police,
administration of justice, prisons, local government, public health
and sanitation, forests, fisheries, etc. The legislature of a State has
"exclusive powers" to make laws in matters mentioned in this list.

Jurisdiction over all other matters not mentioned in the Con-
current and State Lists will belong to the Parliament. This means
that the Union will acquire residuary powers.

As regards Administrative Relations, the executive powers of
every State shall be so exercised as to ensure compliance with the
laws made by the Parliament and any existing laws which apply in
that State, and the executive power of the Union shall extend to the
giving of such direction to the State as may appear to be necessary
for that purpose.

Union executive is empowered to give direction to a State
regarding construction and maintenance of the means of communi-
cation declared to be of national or military importance. Parlia-
ment can declare certain highways or waterways to be national high-
ways or waterways. Union executive can also construct and main-
tain means of communication required in connection with naval mil-
itary and air force works. The President may with the consent of
the Government of the State entrust to that Government functions
in relation to any matter to which the executive power of the Union
exists.

There is provision for the formation of an Inter-State Council
to investigate and discuss subjects in which States have common
interest and inquire into and advise upon disputes which may have
arisen between the States.

There are also Emergency provisions in case of grave crisis
created by war or internal disturbances in which President can
give direction to the constituent States as to how their authority to
be exercised. President can suspend from operation several articles
of the Constitution. During such period, Union Parliament has
power to legislate with respect of any of the matters enumerated in the State List.

Election Commission—The superintendence, direction and control of elections to Parliament and Legislature of every State and of President and Vice-President including appointment of an election tribunal shall vest in an Election Commission to be appointed by the President. The Chief Election Commissioner enjoys conditions of tenure and service similar to those of a judge of the Supreme Court.

There shall be only one general electoral role for every territorial constituency and no person will be ineligible for inclusion in such role on grounds only of religion, race, caste, sex or any of them.

There is no property qualifications of the voters. Every person who is a citizen of India and who is not less than twenty one years of age and who is not otherwise disqualified, is entitled to vote at the elections of the House of the People and the Legislative Assemblies of States.

Special provisions for certain classes—Seats shall be reserved in the House of the People for (a) Scheduled Castes, (b) Scheduled Tribes.

If Anglo-Indian community is not adequately represented in the House of People, President may nominate not more than two members of that community.

Seats shall be reserved for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in the Legislative Assemblies of the States. Anglo-Indians are to be nominated by the Governor or Rajpramukh of a State, if not adequately represented.

The reservation of seats and special representation shall cease after ten years from the commencement of this Constitution.

Financial and other provisions—There is a provision in the Constitution for setting up of a Finance Commission to make recommendations to the President as to the distribution between the Centre and the Units of the net proceeds of certain taxes (like the income-tax, excise duties, some export duties, etc.,) and the allocation between the States of such proceeds.

The Central and State Governments are required to set up respectively the Consolidated Fund of India and the Consolidated Fund of the States respectively. All revenues received by the Government of India and the Government of a State are to be credited into their respective consolidated funds. No money is to be appropriated from the Consolidated Fund of India or of a State except in accordance with an Appropriation Act passed by Parliament or the Legislature of the State concerned. Provision has also been made for the establishment of a Contingency Fund of India and a Contingency Fund for each State to meet unforeseen expenditure, pending proper authorisation by the appropriate legislature.

Authority of Audit—As for auditing the funds, the Constitution provides for the appointment of a Comptroller and Auditor-General of India by the President to keep watch on the finances and accounts of the Union. It is his responsibility to see that the expenses voted
by the Parliament or the legislature of a State and laid down in the Appropriation Fund are not exceeded or varied.

Trade and Commerce—The Constitution provides the broad principles of freedom of trade, commerce and intercourse throughout the territory of India. Union Parliament and the State Legislatures are, however, authorised to prescribe limitations when there is scarcity of any particular commodity or for any other consideration of national or public interest. But no Legislature, whether Parliament or a State Legislature, has power to make a law giving any preference to one state over another or discriminating between different States in respect of items relating to trade and commerce in the lists of the 7th Schedule. Only certain Part B States are exempted from this provision for a period of ten years.

Official Language—Hindi in Devnagri script shall be the official language of the Union and the form of numerals for official use shall be the international form of Indian numerals. The English language shall continue for all official purposes of the Union for a period of 15 years from the commencement of the Constitution. The President is authorised to constitute, after the expiration of five years from the commencement of the Constitution and thereafter at the expiration of ten years from such commencement, a special commission to examine the growth and development of Hindi and make recommendations as to its progressive use for all or any of the official purposes of the Union with a view to replacing English completely at the end of the stipulated period.

The Constitution recognised the use of Assamese, Bengali, Gujarati, Hindi, Kannada, Kashmiri, Malayalam, Marathi, Oriya, Punjabi, Sanskrit, Tamil, Telegu and Urdu, any one or more of which may be used as the regional languages of the Union.

Amendment of the Constitution—Article 368 provides for the amendment of the Constitution. The Constitution shall stand amended when the President gives assent to any bill for the purpose after it is passed in each House of Parliament by a majority of not less than two thirds of the members of the House present and voting. The only provision for the amendment of which ratification by the legislatures of not less than one-half of the States has also been prescribed, relates to the Supreme Court and High Courts, the distribution of legislative powers between the Centre and the States, the representation of the States in Parliament and the procedure for amendment of the Constitution.

AMENDMENTS TO THE INDIAN CONSTITUTION

Since the inauguration of the Constitution on January 26, 1950, the following amending enactments have been passed—

1. Constitution (First Amendment) Act, 1951—The first amendment to the Indian Constitution was made by the Constitution (First Amendment) Act, 1951. By this, besides making minor changes in
Articles 15, 19, 85, 87, 174, 176, 341, 342, 372, and 375, it added two new Articles 31A and 31B and a 9th Schedule.

By an amendment to clause (2) of Article 19, it has permitted reasonable restrictions to be imposed by law on the exercise of the right of freedom of speech and expression in the interest of friendly relations with foreign States or public order or on the ground of incitement of an offence. An amendment of clause (6) of Article 19 has, however, removed from the scope of judicial review, or grounds of reasonableness, restrictions imposed on the right of citizens to carry on any trade, business, industry or service where such restrictions have been imposed with a view to enabling the State to undertake any scheme of nationalisation.

To Article 15, sub-clause (4) was inserted stating that the State can make special provision for the advancement of any socially and educationally backward classes of citizens or for the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes.

Two new Articles, 31-A and 31-B, were inserted. Article 31-A provides that no law providing for the acquisition by the State of any estate or of any rights therein or for the extinguishment or modification of any such rights shall be deemed to be void on the ground that it is inconsistent with, or takes away or abridges any of the rights conferred by any provisions of this Part (III).

To preserve the Zamindary Abolition Acts by various States in India, Article 31-B provides that none of the Acts and Regulations specified in the Ninth Schedule nor any of the provisions thereof shall be deemed to be void, or even to have become void, on the ground that such Act, Regulation or provision is inconsistent with, or takes away or abridges any of the rights conferred by, any provisions of Part III, and notwithstanding any judgment, decree or order of any court or tribunal to the contrary, each of the said Acts and Regulations shall continue in force.

2. Constitution (Second Amendment) Act, 1952 :—It sought to amend Article 81 with a view to readjusting the scale of representation in the House of the People necessitated by the completion of 1951 census.

Art. 81 relates to the composition of the House of the People. Sub-Clause (b) states that there shall be not less than one member for every 750,000 of the population and not more than one member for every 500,000 of the population. But on account of increase in the number of population in the census of 1951, some adjustment in the ratio of representation was necessary. Accordingly, the words—“not less than one member for every 750,000 of the population and”—were omitted. The result is that the upper limit of representation is abolished and there shall be not more than one member for every 500,000 of the population.

3. Constitution (Third Amendment) Act, 1954 :—Under Article 369, Parliament had power to legislate in respect of certain essential commodities upto January 1955. As it was considered essential that Centre’s control over some of these commodities should continue, the Constitution (Third Amendment) Act, 1955, amplified the scope of entry 33 of List III in the Seventh Schedule.
It included four classes of commodities, namely, foodstuffs, cattle fodder, raw cotton and raw jute. Imported goods of the type produced by the centralised industries were also placed in that entry. This will enable the Centre to exercise full control over the development of such industries.

4. Constitution (Fourth Amendment) Act, 1955.—This Legislation was intended to meet objections raised by courts on questions relating to the acquisition of private property. This Fourth Amendment amended Articles 31, 31A, 305 and added few more entries to the Ninth Schedule. The amendment to Article 31 (2) that the State can compulsorily acquire private property for a public purpose and that the scale of compensation prescribed by the authorising legislation should not be called in question in a Court of Law. Article 31A was amended so as to exclude temporary taking over of a property by the State either in public interest or to secure its better management from the compensation clause. The amendment to Article 305 was in the nature of a saving clause for laws providing for State monopolies. Seven new entries were also added to the Ninth Schedule.

5. Constitution (Fifth Amendment) Act, 1955.—Under the proviso to Article 3 of the Constitution, it was provided that any bill for the purpose of forming a new State or altering the area, boundaries or name of any State could not be introduced in Parliament unless the views of the Legislatures of the States concerned had been ascertained by the President. This amendment has amended the said proviso so as to authorise the President to prescribe a time limit for the State Legislatures to communicate their views in the matter and to enable the Bill to be introduced after the expiry of the time limit so prescribed.

Constitution (Sixth Amendment) Act, 1956.—The sixth amendment came into force on and from 11th September, 1956. The sixth amendment amends the Seventh Schedule by providing a new entry 92A (after entry 92) in the Union List. The entry 92A reads as follows: “Taxes on the sale or purchase of goods other than newspapers, where such sale or purchase takes place in the course of inter-State trade or commerce”

It also amends entry 54 of the State List as follows: “54. Taxes on the sale or purchase of goods other than newspapers, subject to the provisions of entry 92A of List I.”

It also amends Article 286 of the Constitution. The Explanation in clause (1) has been omitted. For clause (2) and '(3) the following clauses have been substituted:

“(2) Parliament may by law formulate principles for determining when a sale or purchase of goods takes place in any of the ways mentioned in clause (1).

(3) Any law of a State, in so far as it imposes, or authorises the imposition of a tax on the sale or purchase of goods declared by Parliament by law to be of special importance in inter-State trade or commerce, be subject to such restrictions and conditions in regard to the system of levy, rates and other incidents of the tax as Parliament may by law specify.”
By virtue of this amendment, the Central Government shall levy and collect taxes on the sale or purchase of goods other than newspapers, where such sale or purchase takes place in the course of inter-State trade or commerce. Parliament may by law formulate principles for determining when a sale or purchase of goods takes place in the course of inter-State trade or commerce. The proceeds of such taxes shall be distributed among the States in whose territories the tax will be levied and collected.

Constitution (Seventh Amendment) Act, 1956—This Act came into force from 1st November, 1956. It was passed for the reorganisation of the States. It involved not only the establishment of new States and alterations in State boundaries but also the abolition of the three categories of the States and the classification of certain areas as Union Territories. This led to the amendment of Article 1 and the First Schedule of the Constitution. Among the other important Articles which were affected by this amendment were Article 80 (Composition of the Council of States) along with the Fourth Schedule dealing with the allocation of seats in the Council of States 1 Articles 81 and 82 which have been revised and simplified, (It is now provided that each state shall be allotted seats in the House of the People in such a way that the ratio between the number of such seats and the population of the State is, so far as practicable, the same for all the States. It has also been laid down that the ratio between the population of each constituency and the number of seats allotted to it in a State should, as far as possible be uniform throughout the State). Article 131 on the original jurisdiction of the Supreme Court, Article 168 providing for bicameral legislatures in certain States, and Articles 216, 217, 220, 222, 224 dealing with the High Courts. Two new Articles 350 A and 350 B were added with a view to implementing the recommendations of the States Reorganisation Commission regarding Constitutional safeguards for linguistic minorities.

SCHEDULE

First Schedule (Articles 1 and 4)—1. States—Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Bombay, Karala, Madhya Pradesh, Madras, Mysore, Orissa, Punjab, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal, Jammu & Kashmir.

2 Union Territories—Delhi, Himachal Pradesh, Manipur, Tripura, Andaman & Nicobar Islands, Laccadive, Minicoy and Amindivi Islands.

Second Schedule (Part A)—Provisions as to the President and the Governor of States.

—(Part B)—Omitted by the Constitution (Seventh Amendment) Act, 1956

—(Part C)—Provisions as to the Speaker and Deputy Speaker of the House of the People and the Chairman and the Deputy Chairman of the Council of States and the Speaker and Deputy Speaker of the Legislative Assembly and the Chairman and the Deputy Chairman of the Legislative Council of a State.

—(Part D)—Provisions as to the Judges of the Supreme Court and of the High Court.
INdian citizenship

At present citizenship law is determined by the Indian Citizenship Act 51 of 1955. The Act provides five methods for the acquisition of Indian citizenship. These are: by birth, by descent, by registration, by naturalisation and by incorporation of territory. The Act also provides for the termination of citizenship.

By Birth: Every person born in India on or after the 26th January, 1950, shall be a citizen of India by birth. Children born in India to foreign diplomats and enemy aliens, however, shall not acquire Indian citizenship by birth.

By Descent: A person born outside India on or after the 26th January, 1950, shall be a citizen of India by descent if his father is a citizen of India at the time of his birth. But if the father of such a person was a citizen of India by descent only, that person shall not be a citizen of India by descent, unless his father is registered at an Indian consulate within one year of its occurrence, or, his father is at the time of his birth, in service under a Government of India.

By Registration: Citizenship can be acquired by registration on application to the Government of India by any person who is not already such citizen by virtue of the Constitution or by virtue of any other provisions of this Act. He must belong to any of the following categories.—(a) persons of Indian origin who are ordinarily resident in India and have been so resident for six months immediately before making an application for registration; (b) persons of Indian origin who are ordinarily resident in any country or place out-
side undivided India; (c) women who are, or have been, married to citizens of India; (d) minor children of persons who are citizens of India; and (c) persons of full age and capacity who are citizens of a Commonwealth country.

Commonwealth countries include United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, Union of South Africa, Pakistan, Ceylon and the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland. The Republic of Ireland is also placed on the same footing. For the purpose of registration, a person shall be deemed to be Indian origin if he, or either of his parents, or any of his grand-parents, was born in undivided India. A person of full age must take an oath of allegiance before he is registered as a citizen of India.

By Naturalisation—A person of full age and capacity not being a citizen of a Commonwealth country, may be naturalised as an Indian citizen provided he makes an application in the prescribed manner to that effect. The qualifications for naturalisation of a person who is not a citizen of a country in the Commonwealth are:

(a) that he is not a subject or citizen of any country where citizens of India are prevented by law or practice of that country from becoming subjects or citizens of that country by naturalisation;

(b) that if he is a citizen of any country, he has renounced the citizenship of that country in accordance with the law therein in force in that behalf and has notified such renunciation to the Central Government;

(c) that he has either resided in India or been in the service of a Government in India or partly the one and partly the other, throughout the period of twelve months immediately preceding the date of the application;

(d) that during the seven years immediately preceding the said period of twelve months, he has either resided in India or been in the service of a Government in India or partly the one and partly the other, for periods amounting in the aggregate to not less than four years;

(e) that he is of good character;

(f) that he has an adequate knowledge of a language specified in the Eighth Schedule to the Constitution; and

(g) that in the event of a certificate of naturalisation being granted to him, he intends to reside in India or to enter into or continue in, service under a Government in India or under an international organisation of which India is a member or under a society, company or body of persons established in India.

Provided that, if in the opinion of the Central Government, the applicant is a person who has rendered distinguished service to the cause of science, philosophy, art, literature, world peace or human progress generally, it may waive all or any of the conditions specified above.

By Incorporation of Territory—If any territory becomes a part of India, the Central Government may specify the persons who shall be citizens of India by reason of their connection with that territory; and those persons shall be citizens of India as from the date to be specified in the order.
TERMINATION OF CITIZENSHIP—Indian citizenship can be terminated by renunciation or termination or deprivation. Any citizen of India of full age and capacity can terminate his Indian citizenship by making a declaration to that effect, except during a time of war. Any citizen of India who has been naturalised in a foreign country shall cease to be an Indian citizen. The Government of India can also deprive a naturalised citizen of his citizenship on ground of disloyalty to the State of India or continued absence from the country for a period of seven years.

OUR NATIONAL EMBLEMS & AWARDS

NATIONAL FLAG

The first flag in India was hoisted on August 7, 1906 in the Parsee Bagan Square, Calcutta. The flag was composed of horizontal stripes of red, yellow and green.

The second flag was hoisted by Madame Cama and her band of exiled revolutionaries in Paris in 1907. It was similar to the first flag with slight modifications.

The third flag was hoisted during Home Rule Movement in 1917 by Dr. Annie Besant and Tilak. This flag had five red and four green horizontal stripes and in the left hand top corner (the pole end) was the Union Jack occupying one-fourth of the space and seven stars in the centre. There was also a crescent and a star in one corner.

The Tricolour was first born at A.I.C.C. meeting at Bezwada in 1921 when a flag was shown by an Andhra youth and improved by Mahatma Gandhi with the addition of a white stripe and charka. Though not officially accepted by the Congress, it was hoisted on all Congress occasions. In 1931, when A.I.C.C. met at Karachi, a resolution was passed stressing the need for a national flag. In the same year a resolution was passed adopting a tricolour flag as our National Emblem. It had three colours: saffron for courage and sacrifice, white for truth and peace, green for faith and chivalry. It also carried a charka in blue on white band. The size was three lengths by two breadths. On July 22, 1947 with the attainment of independence, the Constituent Assembly adopted it as free India’s national flag. The colours and their significance remain the same. The Dharmachakra of Emperor Asoka was adopted instead of Charka.

The National Flag of India consists of a horizontal tricolour in the saffron (Kesari) at the top, white in the middle and dark green at the bottom, all stripes being equal in breadth. The ratio of the width of the Flag to its length is two to three. The emblem of the
flag is an exact reproduction of the wheel on the capital of the Asoka pillar at Saranath, superimposed on the central band and is as broad as the white stripe. The colour of the emblem is dark blue and the wheel has 24 spikes.

Use of National Flag—

(1) It should not be dipped to any person or anything. The regimental colour, the State Flag, the organisational or institutional flag will be used for this purpose when necessary.

(2) No other flag or emblem should be placed above the National Flag or to its right.

(3) All flags are placed to the left of the National Flag if they hang in a line, and if they are raised, then the National Flag is raised highest.

(4) When other flags are flown along with the National Flag on the same halyard, the latter should be at the peak.

(5) The Flag should not be carried flat or horizontally, but always aloft and free.

(6) When carried in a procession, it must be borne high on the right shoulder of the standard-bearer and carried in front of the procession.

(7) When the Flag is displayed from a staff, projecting horizontally or at an angle from a window sill or a balcony or the front of a building, the saffron end should be at the top.

(8) Normally the National Flag should be flown on important Government buildings at the Centre and in the States. Frontier areas may, however, fly the National Flag at some special points.

(9) The use of the Flag will, however, be unrestricted on certain special occasions, such as the Independence Day, Mahatma Gandhi's birthday and during the National week and on any other days of national rejoicing.

NATIONAL EMBLEM

The National Emblem is replica of the capital of the Asokan pillar at Saranath and is formed of three lions mounted on an abacus with Dharma Chakra carved in relief in the centre, a bull on the right and a horse on the left, and the outlines of the Dharma Chakra on the extreme right and left. The words Satyameva Jayate, meaning 'truth alone triumphs', are inscribed in Devanagri script below the emblem. The lion capital was adopted as National Emblem on January 26, 1950.

The fact that the original lion capital designed between 242–232 B.C. was created by Emperor Asoka to hallow the spot where the Buddha first initiated his disciples in the eight-fold path of salvation, invests the Emblem with historical and spiritual significance. Carved out of a single block of sandstone, the original capital was surmounted by a wheel (Chakra).

NATIONAL SONGS

The Constituent Assembly of India on the 24th January, 1950 adopted Rabindranath Tagore's song Jana-gana-mana as the national
OUR NATIONAL EMBLEMS AND AWARDS

The anthem of India. It was concurrently decided that Bankim Chandra Chatterjee's *Bande Mataram* shall have equal status.

The Orchestral, Choral and Military Band versions of the National Anthem *Jana Gana Mana* have been standardised. The Government of India have emphasised that the general public should use the authorised versions of the Anthem, both on public and private occasions.

AWARDS & DISTINCTIONS & TITLES

*Bharat Ratna*—The award is made for exceptional work for the advancement of art, literature and science and in recognition of public service of the highest order. The decoration takes the form of a *peepal* leaf. It is of toned bronze. On the obverse side is embossed a replica of the Sun, below which the words *Bharat Ratna* are embossed in Hindi. On the reverse are the State Emblem and the motto, also in Hindi. The Emblem, the Sun and the rim are of platinum.

*Padma Vibhushan*—The award is made for exceptional and distinguished service in any field, including service rendered by Government servants.

*Padma Bhushan*—The award is made for distinguished service of a high order in any field, including service rendered by Government servants.

*Padma Shri*—The award is made for distinguished service in any field, including service rendered by Government servants.

*President’s Police & Fire Service Medal, Police Medal.*

*Krishi Pandit*—The title ‘Krishi Pandit’ is given annually by the Indian Council of Agricultural Research to farmers who have made notable contributions to the cause of Indian agriculture.

*Gopal Ratna*—This title has been instituted in 1956 by the Government of India and will be awarded to the owners of the highest milk-yielding cows and buffaloes of certain breeds in all India milk-yield competitions. Owners of each breed of cattle besides title of Gopal Ratna will get cash prizes of Rs. 2,000 each.

HONOUR AND AWARDS FOR ARMED FORCES

*Gallantry in the Face of the Enemy—1 Param Vir Chakra* is the highest decoration for valour which is awarded for "most conspicuous bravery or some daring or pre-eminent act of valour or self-sacrifice in the presence of the enemy, whether on land, at sea, or in the air." This decoration is made of bronze and is circular in shape. It has, on the reverse, four replicas of 'India's Vajra' embossed round the State emblem in the centre. On the reverse, the words "Param Vir Chakra" are embossed both in Hindi and English, with lotus flowers in the middle. The decoration is worn on the left chest with a plain purple coloured ribbon, an inch and a quarter in width.

2. *Mahavir Chakra* is the second highest decoration and is awarded for acts of conspicuous gallantry in the presence of the
enemy whether on land, at sea, or in the air. It is made of standard silver and is circular in shape.

3. *Vir Chakra* is third in the order of awards given for acts of gallantry in the presence of the enemy, whether on land, at sea and in the air. The decoration is made of standard silver and is circular in shape.

Officers and all other ranks of the Army, Navy and Air Force, the Reserve Forces, the Territorial Army, the militia and any other lawfully constituted Armed Forces, matrons, sisters, nurses and staff of the Nursing and other Services pertaining to Military Hospitals and Civilians of either sex serving regularly or temporarily under the direction or supervision of any of the above-named forces are eligible for any of the three awards.

A recipient of any of these decorations is entitled to special pension.

For gallantry other than in the Face of the Enemy—1. *Ashoke Chakra Class I*—This medal is awarded for the most conspicuous bravery or some daring or pre-eminent act of valour or self-sacrifice on land, at sea or in the air. The Chakra is made of gilt gold and is circular in shape.

2. *Ashok Chakra, Class II*—is awarded for conspicuous gallantry. It is made of standard silver and is circular in shape.

3. *Ashoke Chakra, Class III*—is awarded for an act of gallantry. It is exactly like two Ashoke Chakras except that it is made of bronze.

Officers and all other ranks of the Army, Navy and Air Force, the Reserve Forces, the Territorial Army, the Militia and any other lawfully constituted forces, as also members of the Nursing services of the Armed Forces, and Civilian citizens of either sex in all walks of life are eligible for the award of Asoka Chakra, classes 1, 2, 3.

4. *Mentioned in Despatches*—In recognition of distinguished and meritorious service in operational areas and acts of gallantry of an order not sufficiently high to warrant the grant of gallantry awards, a system of Mentioned in Despatches was instituted with effect from August 15, 1947. Those who are ‘mentioned in despatches’ are entitled to have an emblem—a miniature leaf.

Campaign Medals—1. *General Service Medal* awarded for services rendered under active service conditions after August 15, 1947. An individual qualifying for it for the first time is awarded the medal together with a clasp indicating the particular operation for which award has been made.

2. *Clasps*—So far two clasps have been instituted. The *Jammu and Kashmir Clasp* was awarded for operations in Jammu & Kashmir between October 1947 and January 1949.

3. The *Overseas Clasp* was intended for service overseas. The first issue has been made to those service personnel who saw operational service in Korea between 1950-53.

Medals for Meritorious Service and Long Service and Good Conduct—(1) There are two classes of medals—*Meritorious Service Medal* is awarded on a Service-wise allotment of vacancies at the rate of one per 900 men of the authorised strength. (2) Long Service
Modal and good conduct medal is awarded on a Service-wise allotment of vacancies at the rate of two per 900 men.

Decorations to Territorial Army Personnel—1. *Territorial Army Decoration* is awarded to Commissioned Officers of the Territorial Army with 20 years' meritorious service.

2. *Territorial Army Medal* is awarded to Junior Commissioned Officers, Non-Commissioned Officers and the men of the Territorial Army who have completed 12 years' efficient service.

**RANK & PRECEDEENCE OF PERSONS**

1. President.
2. Vice-President.
3. Prime Minister.
4. Governors and Sadar-i-Riyasat, Jammu & Kashmir, within their respective charges.
5. Ex-Presidents and ex-Governors General.
6. Lieutenant Governors within their respective charges.
8. Cabinet Ministers of the Union
9. Holders of Bharat Ratna Decorations.
10. Ambassadors Extraordinary & Plenipotentiary accredited to India.

High Commissioners of Commonwealth Governments in India.

11. Rulers of Indian States with a salute of 17 guns and above within their States.
12. Governors and Sadar-i-Riyasat, Jammu & Kashmir, outside their respective charges.
13. Lieutenant Governors outside their respective charges.
14. Rulers of Indian States with a salute of 17 guns and above outside their States.
15. Chief Ministers of States

16. Ministers of the Union (other than Cabinet Ministers).
17. Members of the Planning Commission.
18. Rulers of Indian States with a salute of 15 guns or 13 guns.
19. Judges of the Supreme Court.
20. Visiting Class I Ambassadors of India.
21. Visiting High Commissioners of India and High Commissioners of other Commonwealth countries visiting India.

22. Charges d'Affaires and acting High Commissioners a *pied* and *ad interim*.
23. Chiefs of Staff and Commanders-in-Chief holding the rank of full General or equivalent rank.
25. Chairmen of Legislative Councils in States.
26. Speakers of Legislative Assemblies in States.
Rank & Precedence of Persons—(Concl.)

24. Ministers of States.
Deputy Ministers of the Union.
Attorney-General.
Comptroller and Auditor General.
Deputy Chairman of the Rajya Sabha.
Deputy Speaker of the Lok Sabha.
25. Chiefs of Staff and Commanders-in-Chief holding the rank of Lieutenant-General or equivalent rank.
26. Rulers of Indian States with a salute of 11 guns or 9 guns.
27. Chairman, Union Public Service Commission.
Chief Election Commissioner.
29. Deputy Ministers of States.
Deputy Chairmen and Deputy Speakers of State Legislatures.
Speakers of State Legislatures.
Chief Commissioners of Union territories within their respective charges.
31. Officers of the rank of full General or equivalent rank.
Secretary to the President.
Secretaries to the Government of India and Principal Private Secretary to the Prime Minister.
Visiting Class II and Class III Ambassadors of India.
Commissioner for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes.
Officiating Chiefs of Staff and Commander-in-Chief holding the rank of Major-General or equivalent rank.
Visiting Ministers Plenipotentiary of India and Foreign Ministers Plenipotentiary visiting India.
Chairman of the Railway Board.
Financial Commissioner for Railways.
Solicitor-General.
Political Officer in Sikkim.
32. Members of the Railway Board.
Ministers of Foreign and Commonwealth missions other than Ministers Plenipotentiary.
Officers of the rank of Lieutenant-General or equivalent rank.
33. Additional Secretaries to the Government of India.
Chairman, Tariff Commission.
Chairman, Central Water and Power Commission.
Vice-Chairman of the Indian Council of Agricultural Research.
Financial Adviser, Ministry of Finance (Defence).
Chairman, Central Board of Revenue.
*P.S.Os. of the Armed Forces of the rank of Major-General or equivalent rank.
34. Chairman of the Public Service Commission of a State.
Chief Secretaries to the States.
Financial Commissioners.
Members of the Union Public Service Commission.
Rear Admiral Commanding, Indian Naval Squadron.
Members of a Board of Revenue.
35. Director-General, Health Services.
Director-General, Posts and Telegraphs.
Director, Intelligence Bureau.
General Managers of Railways.

*Should a P.S.O hold the rank of Lieutenant-General, his seniority in the Table of Precedence will continue to remain the same as laid down for Officers of the rank of Lieutenant-General or equivalent rank in Article 32 of the Table.
Rank & Precedence of Persons—(Concl.)

Establishment Officer to the Government of India.
Joint Secretaries to the Government of India (including Jt. Secretary to the Cabinet).
Visiting Class IV Ambassadors of India.
Officers of the rank of Major-General or equivalent rank.
Surveyor General.
Members of the Tariff Commission.
Inspectors General of Police in States.
Commissioners of Divisions.
Director-General of Civil Aviation.
Director-General of Supplies and Disposals.
Director-General of Ordnance Factories.

Indian Navy Commodores-in-Charge, Naval Ports or Areas.
Commanders of Indian Air Force Commands of the rank of Air Commodore.
*P.S.O.s. of Naval and Air Headquarters of the ranks of Commodore and Air Commodore.
Chief Commissioners of Union Territories outside their respective charges.
Director-General, All India Radio

Military Secretary to the President (so long as he also holds the post of Director-General, Government Hospitality Organisation).

Councillors of foreign and Commonwealth missions in India.
Deputy Comptroller and Auditor-General.

TRANSPORT & COMMUNICATIONS

1. RAILWAYS

TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATIONS—Transport deals with Railways, Roads, Road Transport, Inland Waterways, Shipping, Tourist Traffic and Civil aviation, whilst Communications deal with Postal Services, Telegraphs, Overseas Communications.

RAILWAYS IN INDIA—India has an extensive railway network, reaching all major cities. With over 34,744 route mileage, the system is exceeded in mileage only in the United States and Canada. Most of the railways are owned and operated by the Central Government. Those which are still privately owned are narrow-gauge feeder lines, are subject to Government regulation, and are usually dependent upon Government assistance. The Government lines have in recent years been reorganised into seven major systems.

Indian railway system is the largest in Asia and it is the single biggest nationalised undertaking in the country. In inter-regional traffic, 80 per cent of the goods and 70 per cent of the passenger
traffic are carried by rail. The Capital-at-charge exceeds Rs. 1,078 crores and gross earnings Rs. 350.6 crores. The railways employ over 10 lakhs of people. Daily, the Indian railways carry about 38 lakh passengers or the equivalent of one per cent of the country’s population. For their convenience, they operate over 4,200 passenger trains daily, serving nearly 6,500 railway stations.

BEGINNING OF RAILWAYS IN INDIA—The regular railway projects in India date from 1844. The first line to be opened was a small section of 22 miles by the G.I.P. Railway between Bombay and Kalyan in April 1853. The E. I. Railway line between Calcutta and Pandoor was the second to follow in August 1854 and Mardas had the line upto Arkonam opened in July 1856.

Terms for Opening Railways—In the early stage (between 1844 and 1868) the construction of railways in India was entrusted to British Companies under State guarantee of a minimum return of 4½ p.c. to 5 p.c. on the capital invested. Government provided the land free of cost but retained the right to purchase the lines after 25 or 50 years on certain terms.

This policy, however, entailed heavy loss to the State, amounting by 1869 to about 1.7 crores and after an unsuccessful attempt to enlist the co-operation of companies without any guarantee of return, Government adopted the policy of direct ownership, construction and management by the State. Between 1869 and 1879 about 2,175 miles of lines were so constructed.

The policy of direct State construction, however, did not bear fruit as expected, specially because the exigencies of time necessitated the diversion of capital resources of the State to other directions and political and strategic considerations had led to the spending of large sums on unproductive lines. But the Famine Commission appointed in 1878 strongly urged the early extension of the railway network. Company construction was thereafter revived, and even for State-owned lines management by companies was favoured.

In dealing with the guaranteed companies, the Government exercised as far as found desirable their rights to terminate the contracts as and when opportunities arose in subsequent years: the method of making use of this right and the manner of continuing management of the railways after State acquisition having differed in different cases.

New Era Begins—With the beginning of the 20th century a new era began. Traffic had grown enormously and the railways had ceased to be a burden on public exchequer. In 1901, Mr. Robertson, a Special Commissioner appointed to enquire into the working of the railways, advocated the discontinuance of the dual system of State and Company management and advised the leasing out of all lines to companies, with or without guarantee. Public opinion in India had, however, ceased to remain inarticulate and strong feelings were entertained against management by English Companies, which often acted against the best interests of the people and stood in the way of Indianisation and advancement of Indian trade and industry. The policy, however, continued upto 1920-21.
In 1921 a Railway Enquiry Committee under the Chairmanship of Sir William Acworth examined critically the question of State vs. Company management and advocated State-management.

In 1923 the Indian Legislative Assembly adopted a resolution advocating State management only and it was decided to eliminate the system of management by Board of Directors in London. Accordingly, the East Indian Railway was taken over under direct State management in January 1925 and the G. I. P. Railway in July next year and since then all company-managed lines have been taken over. After independence in 1947, the railway system has been nationalised. It is now entirely managed by the State.

CO-ORDINATION OF TRANSPORT SERVICES—In order to ensure a wellplanned development of Transport and co-ordination between various modes of transport on the one hand and the Central and State Transport policies on the other, Government of India have decided to set up three new transport bodies. They are Transport Development Council, Road and Inland Water Transport Advisory Committee and the Central Transport Co-ordination Committee. These bodies have replaced Transport Advisory Council constituted in 1935, Central Board of Transport and the Standing Committee of the Central Board of Transport.

Transport Development Council is a high level body to advise the Government of India on all matters of policy relating to roads, road transport as well as inland water transport. The Council will also advise on problems relating to co-ordination between different forms of transport that may be referred to it by the Government of India.

Road & Inland Water Transport—A Committee will be set up to discuss problems relating to roads, road transport and to make recommendations to the Transport Development Council for final decisions.

Central Transport Co-ordination Committee—is constituted in place of the Standing Committee of the Central Board of Transport and will deal with the day to day transport problems, confronting the different ministries of the Government of India.

RAILWAY COMMITTEES—For the improvement of railway management and also to settle the State vs. Company management question, Acworth Committee was appointed in 1921 which made various recommendations for the improvement of Indian Railways. Its main recommendations were: (1) Railways to be managed by the State instead of Company management. (2) Railway Budget should be separated from the general budget and that the general revenues should receive annual contributions from railways. (3) Establishment of Rates Tribunal to adjudicate upon disputes between railways and the public.

The Acworth Committee laid the foundations of State management and State Control of Indian Railways. Its recommendations constituted the broad basis on which the railway system in India developed in subsequent years.
The Pope Committee was appointed in 1932 which inter alia made many recommendations in regard to the intensive use of locomotives, coaching stock and machinery, disposal of uneconomical wagons, combining resources between railways, ticketless travel and methods of increasing earnings.

The Wedgewood Committee in 1936 made the following recommendations: (1) reduction in locomotives and carriage under repairs, (2) amalgamation of workshop for construction of rolling stock, (3) acceleration of trains, (4) withdrawal of unremunerative services, (5) greater caution in capital expenditure, (6) a campaign to root out dishonesty and incivility from amongst railway staff, (7) development of the commercial departments of railways, (8) building of a General Reserve Fund to serve as an equalisation fund for payment of interest charges and amortisation of capital.

Indian Railway Enquiry Committee—The Committee appointed by the Government of India published its report in 1948. The main findings and recommendations are (a) the staff strength in the railways is on the high side while there has been general deterioration in the efficiency of workers, (b) in place of present central organisation under which the Railway Board is part of the Secretariat of the Government of India, the Committee recommended the vesting of control and management of Indian Government Railways in a Statutory Authority, (c) it is desirable to have in the Finance Branch of the Railway Board a separate unit primarily concerned with exploring means to improve earnings, (d) no capital outlay should be incurred other than on strictly financial considerations, except when a capital expenditure is justified on other important considerations, (e) an Amortisation Fund should be created (as recommended by the Wedgewood Committee) in respect of intangible assets of the railways amounting to about Rs. 68 crores, the annual contribution to the fund being one per cent of gross earnings, (f) the existing method of making ad hoc contribution to the General Revenues has to continue until the future position of the railways can be assured with greater precision.

Railway Stores Enquiry Committee—was set up under the Chairmanship of A. D. Shroff to examine the Stores arrangements on the railways with a view to bringing about improvement and rationalisation in procurement, issue and holding of stores in 1951. The Committee recommended that Ministry of Railways should be responsible for the procurement of specialized Railway Stores. This recommendation has been accepted. The procurement of specialised railway stores will be transferred to the Railway Board.

ADMINISTRATION OF RAILWAYS—The Railways are under the direct charge of the Minister of Railways who is responsible for the proper management and running the system throughout the country. The Minister is assisted by two Deputy Ministers and a board of management called the Railway Board with a Chairman and three Members. The Railway Board is the supreme authority in regard to the day to day administration of the railways. The Board enunciates policies and issues instructions for the execution of the same.
TRANSPORT & COMMUNICATIONS

There are three members, viz., the member for engineering, the member for transportation and the member for staff members. There is also a Financial Commissioner who looks after the financial side of the business. There are, in addition, certain Additional members to assist the Board in carrying out the programmes in connection with (1) Works, (2) Mechanical, (3) Commercial, (4) Financial and (5) Staff Matters.

Divisional System—The essence of the divisional system is to provide a unified control of operation and other allied railway activities over a larger area than that of an average district and to vest the responsibility for co-ordinating the working of different departments in the area in an administrative officer called the Divisional Superintendent, located in the Division. Divisional system of administration has been introduced in the Central, Southern and Western Railways. The Central Railway is divided into seven divisions with headquarters at Secunderabad, Bombay, Bhusaval, Nagpur, Sholapur, Jabalpur and Jhansi. Southern Railway is divided into eight divisions:—Bezawada, Hubli, Guntakal, Olavakkot, Madras, Madurai, Mysore and Tiruchirapalli. Western Railway is divided into eight divisions with headquarters at Bombay, Baroda, Kotah, Jaipur, Ajmer, Rajkot, Bhavnagar and Ratlam.

Each Division is under a Divisional Superintendent who will function in his sphere more or less as the General Manager does for the entire Zonal railway. He will, however, be under the control of the General Manager. Specialised departments, like stores and workshops, are excluded from the divisional scheme. These will continue to be controlled by headquarters direct as hitherto.

RAILWAY FINANCE—In 1924, the railway finance was separated from the general finance with the object of relieving the general budget from violent fluctuations, thus enabling the railways to carry on a continuous policy. Under the Convention, railway revenues had to pay to general revenues a contribution on the capital-at-charge and working results of commercial lines plus a share of the surplus profits. These arrangements were subject to periodic revision. The Convention was reviewed in 1943, when the contribution to general revenues onwards was decided on an ad hoc basis. The Convention was further reviewed in 1949 and in 1954, when it was settled—

(a) The existing relationship between general revenues and railway finance was altered to give the former the status of the sole shareholder in the railway undertaking and general finances were granted a fixed dividend of 4 per cent on the loan capital invested in the undertaking as computed annually. From April 1, 1955, on the element of over-capitalization, the dividend to the general revenues was decided at the rate equivalent to the average rate charged to other commercial departments and on the capital-at-charge of new lines, at the aforesaid rate. During the period of construction and up to the end of their opening for traffic, the deferred amount being repaid from the sixth year onwards in addition to the current dividend out of the net income of the new lines.
(b) The contribution of the Depreciation Reserve Fund was fixed at a minimum of Rs 15 crores a year for the quinquennium, commencing from April 1, 1950. This was raised to Rs. 35 crores from April 1, 1955.

(c) A Development Fund was instituted (merging in it the Betterment Fund) for expenditure on passenger amenities, labour welfare works and unremunerative projects. The scope of the Fund was expanded from April 1, 1955 to include expenditure on the provision of amenities for users of rail, transport and quarters of Class III staff; but the expenditure on the construction of new lines was excluded from the scope of the Fund. The general finance is to advance funds for the purpose of expenditure from the Development Fund in the shape of temporary loans, not to pay interest at the average borrowing rate. This amount is repayable in instalments, if necessary, from accretions to the Fund in more prosperous years.

FARE AND FREIGHT.—The fare & freight rates were rationalised in 1948. The rates of passenger fare is on the telescopic basis from April 1, 1955 (i.e. rates diminishing with increase in distance travelled). Scale of passenger fares from 1st April, 1955 are given below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Distance in miles</th>
<th>Rates per mile</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Air-conditioned</td>
<td>1—300</td>
<td>34 ppp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>301 and above</td>
<td>32 ppp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First class</td>
<td>1—150</td>
<td>18 ppp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>151—300</td>
<td>16 ppp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>301 and above</td>
<td>15 ppp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Class (Mail or Express)</td>
<td>1—150 (Mail/Exp.)</td>
<td>11 ppp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1—150 (Ordinary)</td>
<td>9½ ppp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd class (ordinary)</td>
<td>151—300 (Mail/Exp.)</td>
<td>10½ ppp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Ordinary)</td>
<td>9 ppp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>301 and above (Mail/Exp.)</td>
<td>9½ ppp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Ordinary)</td>
<td>8½ ppp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third class</td>
<td>1—150 (Mail/Exp.)</td>
<td>6½ ppp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Ordinary)</td>
<td>5½ ppp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>150—300 (Mail/Exp.)</td>
<td>6 ppp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Ordinary)</td>
<td>5 ppp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>151—300 (Mail/Exp.)</td>
<td>6 ppp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Ordinary)</td>
<td>5 ppp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>301 and above</td>
<td>5 ppp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Mail/Exp.)</td>
<td>4½ ppp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Ordinary)</td>
<td>4½ ppp</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Railway Passengers Fares Act came into force on September 15, 1959. New taxes on railway passengers fares have been imposed from 15th September, 1957 in all classes at the following rates—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Distance</th>
<th>Rates per cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 to 15 miles</td>
<td>No Tax</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 to 30 miles</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>501 and above</td>
<td>10 p.c.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Season tickets will be exempted from the levy of the tax.

For vestibuled air-conditioned third class trains running between
Delhi-Howrah, Delhi-Bombay and Delhi-Madras, an additional charge of 4 pies per mile is charged.

Freight Structure—From October 1, 1958 there have been a number of changes in the rate structure for goods carried by the Indian Railways. The charge for parcels has also gone up slightly and another change is the introduction of the metric system of weights. With the increase of rate, the average rate per ton mile is expected to be 11.3 pies as against 5.8 in 1938-39. Taking 100 as the pre-war level of prices, the new freight structure represents an increase to about 203 compared with the general price index of 400.

RAILWAY LOCOMOTIVE AND OTHER PRODUCTIONS—Internal production is now able to meet the railway's normal annual requirements of rails, wagons and coaches. The Government-owned Chittaranjan Locomotive Works and the Government-assisted Tata Locomotive and Engineering Co. Ltd., which have gone into production are helping to attain self-sufficiency in locomotives also. The Government extended financial assistance to the Telco at Jamshedpur by holding shares to the value of Rs. 2 crores for the manufacture of locomotives and spare boilers. The Chittaranjan Works started production in 1950. The first locomotive was turned out in 1950, the 100th in Jan. 1954, the 200th in Feb. 1955 and 300th in Nov. 1955. During the plan period 341 locomotives have been manufactured. The Integral Coach-building Factory at Perambur (Madras) has gone into production in October 1955, making a major step towards making the railways self-sufficient in passenger coaches. The Government-owned Hindustan Aircraft Ltd. at Bangalore are producing all-steel third class passenger coaches.

TRAINING CENTRES AND RESEARCH—Training facilities for officers in the Engineering and Traffic Departments are provided in several railway training and technical institutes. A Staff College for training of Class I and Class II officers and Special Class Apprentices were opened at Baroda in Jan. 31, 1952. The College provides facilities for training of probationery officers and special class apprentices, refresher courses for junior officers of all departments (except medical), and special short-term courses on selected subjects for senior officers. For the training of Class III staff, there are 24 training schools including one each at the Chittaranjan Locomotive Works and the Perambur Integral Coach Factory, some of these are technical schools attached to the railway workshops to train apprentices for eventual appointment of skilled artisans or as supervisors of skilled workers. A Signal Training School to train inspection staff of the Signalling Department of the Indian Railways has been opened in 1967 at Lallaguda in Secunderabad. This is the first of its kind in India and will train 100 candidates at a time.

ELECTRIFICATION OF RAILWAYS—The electrification of railways in India began in 1925. The total electrified route mileage on the Indian Railways is 254.24 miles as follows: Central Railway (Bombay-Kurla-Kalyan, Poona-Igatpuri, and Kurla-Markhurd) 134.85 miles; Southern Railway (Madras-Tambaram) 18.14 miles; Western Railway (Bombay-Borivili-Virar) 37.25 miles; Eastern 14 miles. A
further 826 miles will be electrified during Second Plan—463 miles on the Eastern Railway, 72 miles on the South-Eastern, 191 miles on the Central and 100 miles on the Southern.

The main line electrification project in the Eastern and South Eastern Railways consists of electrification of 1,350 route miles of track at an estimated cost of Rs. 84 crores. Electrifications between Mughalsarai on the Eastern Railway and between Asansol and Rourkela including Barajamda branch and the Tatanagar-Kharagpur Section on the South-East Railway have been planned to be completed by the end of 1960.

GAUGES OF RAIL—There are three Gauges of Rail in the Indian Railway system, viz., Broad Gauge ‘-6’; Meter Gauge 3'-3|8” and Narrow Gauge, which is again divided into two, viz., 2'-0” and 2'-6”.

RAILWAY ZONES

The eight zones of the Indian Railways are now as follows—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Zone</th>
<th>Former Rys. included</th>
<th>Head-quarters</th>
<th>Route mileage as on March 31, 1956</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Southern</td>
<td>M. &amp; S.M., S.I. &amp; Mysore Railways</td>
<td>Madras</td>
<td>6,100.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>April 14, 1951</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central</td>
<td>G.I.P., Nizam’s State, Dholpur and Scindia Railways</td>
<td>Bombay</td>
<td>5,292.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nov. 5, 1951</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western</td>
<td>B.B. &amp; C.I., Sauashtra, Cutch, Rajasthan and Jai-</td>
<td>Bombay</td>
<td>6,012.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nov. 5, 1951</td>
<td>pur Railways and a short section—Marwar-Phulad</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>of the Jodhpur Railways.</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Northern</td>
<td>Eastern Punjab, Jodhpur, Bikaner, the three upper</td>
<td>Delhi</td>
<td>6,333.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>April 14, 1952</td>
<td>divisions of E. I. Ry. and a portion of the B.B.C.I.</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>Rly.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern</td>
<td>E. I. Ry. (minus the three Upper Divisions).</td>
<td>Calcutta</td>
<td>2,329.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aug. 1, 1955</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South-Eastern</td>
<td>B. N. Ry.</td>
<td>Calcutta</td>
<td>3,423.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aug. 1, 1955</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North-Eastern</td>
<td>O. T. &amp; Assam Rys. and Fatehgarh Dist. of old B.B.C.I. Rly.</td>
<td>Gorakhpur</td>
<td>3,060.30</td>
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<tr>
<td>North-East</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Frontier</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jan. 15, 1950</td>
<td>do do do</td>
<td>Pandu</td>
<td>1,738</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>South-Eastern Railway—has the route mileage of 3,399.07.</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>This Railway caters to the needs of six States, that is, West Bengal, Bihar, Orissa, Andhra Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh and Bombay. Starting from Howrah it runs 72 miles west upto Kharagpur. Onwards from Kharagpur, the Railway spreads out in three directions. Westwards the main line goes to Nagpur, 703 miles from Howrah.</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
To the South, the East coast line runs to Waltair, a distance of 547 miles from Howrah. The third line runs from Kharagpur in the north-westerly direction to serve the coal fields of West Bengal and Bihar. The Raipur-Vizianagram broad gauge section which was opened in 1931, links the port of Visakhapatnam with Madhya Pradesh for carrying the heavy manganese ore traffic for export from this area. The Railway joins the Eastern Railway at Howrah, Asansol, Gomoh, Barkakana and Chandrapura. It joins the southern Railway at Waltair and with the Central Railway at Nagpur and Katni. The broad gauge portion comprises 2,474 route miles and the narrow gauge lines serving mainly the Satpura areas in Madhya Pradesh add up to 925 miles. Connecting the ports of Calcutta and Visakhapatnam with their vast hinterlands, it serves the rich paddy fields of West Bengal, the extensive timberlands of Orissa and Madhya Pradesh, as also the coal and steel industries of Bihar and West Bengal. The area covered by the railway is rich in deposits of essential raw materials, such as iron ore, copper, coal, manganese, lime, bauxite and dolomite. Many of the major development projects in eastern India lie on this railway, such as (1) Hirakud project at Sambalpur, (2) two steel plants at Rourkela and Bheilai, (3) Hindustan Shipyards at Visakhapatnam, (4) oil refinery at Visakhapatnam, (5) two steel works at Tatanagar and Burnpur.

North-Eastern Railway—which came into existence on January 15, 1958 serves the northern part of West Bengal and Assam, northern part of Uttar Pradesh, Northern Bihar. This line has been formed with the former Oudh and Tirhut Railway and Assam Railway. It passes through an area which is subject to heavy rains and consequent floods and breaches. The river Brahmaputra divides the railway into two separate portions. This line operates in a well-developed agricultural region and carries large quantities of sugar-cane, tobacco, tea and rice.

Eastern Railway—has a route mileage of 2,321. The railway serves an area of over 80,000 sq. miles and covers the States of West Bengal, Bihar and parts of Uttar Pradesh which have a heavy population density. This Railway is composed of the five Divisions of the old East Indian Railway, east of Moghal-sarai, namely, Dinapore, Dhanbad (transportation division, Asansol, Howrah and Sealdah. This last-named Division was attached to E. I. Ry. after the partition of Bengal-Assam Railway in 1947. Working on the divisional system, the Eastern Railway will have its headquarters at Calcutta. The Eastern Railway connects the port of Calcutta with its rich vast hinterland. It provides transportation facilities, among others, to the rice and jute producing areas of West Bengal and Bihar. The Railway serves the coal-producing areas of Bengal and Bihar and carries 70 to 80 per cent of the total coal produced there.

It serves important industries like metallurgical and steel manufacture at Burnpur and Kulti; chemical fertilizers at Sindri; and locomotives at Chittaranjan. The transport demands of the various industries like jute, chemicals, engineering, cement, leather and
textiles, situated in and around Calcutta and at other industrial points are also met by the Eastern Railway.

Western Railway—serves Bombay, Rajasthan and Madhya Pradesh. The line consists of former B. B. C. I. Railway, Saurashtra Railway, Rajasthan Railway and Jaipur Railway. This line serves the great industrial areas of Bombay, Ahmedabad and Baroda and handles tremendous quantities of cotton.

Central Railway—serves Bombay, Madhya Pradesh and north-western part of Madras. The line consists of the former G.I.P. Railway, Scindia Railway, Dholpur Railway and Nizam’s State-Railway.

Southern Railway—On April 14, 1951, the three railway systems, viz., Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway, South Indian Railway and Mysore Railway were integrated into a single railway zone—the Southern Railway serves the densely-populated fertile areas of Madras, Mysore, Kerala and parts of southern Bombay and Andhra. This railway links the northern and southern portion of India.

Northern Railway—This Railway came into being in 1952 through the synthesis of the three divisions of East Indian Railway, a portion of the Bombay, Baroda and Central India Railway and the whole of the Eastern Punjab, Jodhpur and Bikaner Railways. This line serves Punjab, Delhi, northern and eastern Rajasthan and Uttar-Pradesh upto Banaras.

SOME RAILWAY ORGANISATIONS

Central Standards Office—There is a Central Standards Office in New Delhi for the conduct of all works connected with the production of standard design and specifications for all materials, plant and rolling stock in use on Indian railways. Three separate branches of this office deal respectively with mechanical engineering standards, civil engineering standards and specifications, while a separate research branch undertakes civil and mechanical engineering research.

Indian Railway Conference Association—This Association was first organised in 1871. The present organisation was inaugurated in 1902 establishing the permanent Conference, independent of Government. The Association lays down rules for the interchange of stock between railways and acts as a central co-ordinating agency for tackling all problems of common interest pertaining to the different systems of railways in regard to transport, such as coaching tariff, freight structure, interchange rules, cross traffic rules, etc.

 Standards Advisory Committee of experts has been set up to introduce standardization in railway working and to remove wide divergencies regarding the stores nomenclature, servicing and repairs to rolling stock, methods of training staff, etc.

 Consultative Committees—In order to afford closer consultation between the public and the railway administrations at different levels on matters relating to the service provided by the railway, consultative committees have been established, in place of the advisory committees—

(1) Regional-Users’ Consultative Committees at the regional or divisional levels;