

GENERAL KNOWLEDGE ENCYCLOPAEDIA

Revised & brought up-to-date

By

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GENERAL KNOWLEDGE ENCYCLOPÆDIA

AND

WHO'S WHO

ABBREVIATIONS FOR GENERAL USE

A

A. A.	Anti-Aircraft.
A. A. A	Amateur Athletic Association.
A. A. F.	Auxiliary Air Force.
A. A. I. A.	Associate of the Association of International Accountants.
A. A. Q. M. G.	Assistant Adjutant Quartermaster-General.
A. B. A.	Amateur Boxing Association.
A. B. C. A.	Army Bureau (or Board) of Current Affairs.
ab init.	Ab initio (from the beginning).
Abp.	Archbishop.
A. C.	Aero Club; Before Christ (ante Christian); Alternating Current.
A/c., Acct.	Account, Accountant.
A. C. A.	Associate of Chartered Accountant.
A. C. A. (B.E.)	Allied Commission for Austria (British Element.)
Acad.	Academy.
A. C. I. S.	Associate of the Chartered Institute of Secretaries.
A. D.	<i>Anno Domini</i> (=in the year of our Lord).
A. D. C.	Aide-de-Camp; Amateur Dramatic Club.
A. D. G. B.	Air Defence of Great Britain.
Ad. hoc.	For this purpose.
Ad. Inf.	<i>ad infinitum</i> = To infinity.
Ad init.	<i>ad initium</i> = At or to the beginning.
Adj.	Adjutant; adjective.
Advt.	Advertisement.
Ad. lib.	<i>ad libitum</i> = At pleasure.
A. E. C.	Atomic Energy Commission of S. C.
A. E. L. T. C.	All England Lawn Tennis Club.
A. E. U.	Amalgamated Engineering Union.
A. F.	Air Force.
A. F. A.	Associate Faculty of Actuaries.

A. F. C.	Air Force Cross.
A. F. I.	Air Force Institute.
A. F. L.	American Federation of Labour.
A. F. M.	Air Force Medal.
A. I. A. A.	All India Automobile Association.
A. I. C. C.	All India Congress Committee.
A. I. C. E.	Associate of the Institute of Civil Engineering.
A. I. N. E. C.	All India Newspaper Editors' Conference.
A. I. R.	All India Radio.
A. I. N. T. U. C.	All India National Trade Union Congress (dominated by the Indian National Congress.)
A. I. R. F.	All India Railwaysmen's Federation.
A. I. T. U. C.	All India Trade Union Congress (Dominated by the Communists.)
A. M. A. T. S.	American Military Air Transport Services.
Alt.	Alternate, Altitude.
A. M. G. O. T.	Allied Military Government of Occupied Territories.
A. M. I. C. E.	Associate Member, Institute of Civil Engineers.
a. m.	<i>ante meridiem</i> (= before noon.)
Anon.	Anonymous.
A. N. S.	Army Nursing Service.
A. N. Z. A. C.	Australian and New Zealand Army Ordnance Corps.
A. O.	Army Order.
A. O. C.	Air Officer Commanding.
A. O. D.	Army Ordnance Department.
A. P.	Associated Press.
A. P. A.	Associated Press of America.
A. P. C. C.	Andhra Provincial Congress Committee.
A. P. I.	Associated Press of India.
A. P. P.	Associated Press of Pakistan.
Apropos	According to.
A. P. T. C.	Army Physical Training Corps.
A. R. A.	Associate, Royal Academy.
A. R. A. L.	Associate of the Royal Academy of Literature.
A. R. A. M.	Associate of the Royal Academy of Music.
A. R. C. S.	Associate of the Royal College of Science.
A. R. I. B. A.	Associate, Royal Institute of British Architects.
Arith.	Arithmetic, Arithmetical.
A. R. P.	Air Raid Precautions.
A. R. W.	Air Raid Warden.
A. S. E.	Associate of the Society of Engineers.
A. S. A.	Atomic Scientists' Association.
A.S.L.E. and F.	Associated Society of Locomotive Engineers and Firemen.
A. S. C.	Army Service Corps.

ABBREVIATIONS FOR GENERAL USE

A. V. C. Army Veterinary Corps.
 Avoir. Avoirdupois

B

B. A.	Bachelor of Arts; British Academy; British Association.
B. A. R.	Bengal Assam Railway.
Bar.	Barrister.
Bart.	Baronet.
B. B. C.	British Broadcasting Corporation; Baseball Club.
B. B. & C.I.R.	Bombay, Baroda and Central Indian Railway.
B. C.	Before Christ; British Council.
B. C. E.	Before Christian Era.
B. Com.	Bachelor of Commerce.
B. C. L.	Bachelor of Civil Law.
B. C. G.	Bacillus Calmette Guerin (T. B. Vaccine).
B. D. A.	British Dental Association.
B. D. S.	Bachelor of Dental Surgery.
B. E.	<u>Bachelor of Engineering</u> ; Bill of Exchange.
B. E. A.	British East Africa.
B. E. F.	British Expeditionary Force.
B. F. A. S.	British Fine Arts Society.
B. F. B. S.	British and Foreign Bible Society.
B. F. U. W.	British Federation of University Women.
B. I. A. E.	British Institute of Adult Education.
B. I. P. O.	British Institute of Public Opinion.
B. I. S.	Bank of International Settlements.
B. I. S. N. C.	British Indian Steam Navigation Company.
B. Litt. (L.)	Baccalaureus Literarum, Bachelor of Letters.
B. M. A.	British Medical Association.
B. M. J.	British Medical Journal.
B. N. R.	Bengal Nagpore Railway.
B. N. W. R.	Bengal North Western Railway.
B. O. A.	British Olympic Association; British Optical Association.
B. O. A. C.	British Overseas Airways Corporation.
B. C. O. F.	British Commonwealth Occupation Force.
B. O. A. F. G.	British Order of Ancient Free Gardeners.
B. of T.	Board of Trade.
B. P. A. C.	Bengal Press Advisory Committee.
B. R. C. S.	British Red Cross Society.
Bros.	Brothers (usually used for firms).
B. Sc.	Bachelor of Science.
B. S. C.	Bengal Staff Corps.
B. S. L.	Botanical Society of London.
B. S. T.	British Summer Time.
B. U. P.	British United Press.

- B. V. *Beata Virgo* = Blessed Virgin; also *bene Vale* = Farewell.
 B. W. I. British West Indies.
 B. W. T. A. British Women's Temperance Association.
 B. V. M. The Blessed Virgin Mary.

C

- C. A. Chartered Accountant ; Clerical Association ; Country Alderman ; Court of Appeal ; Church Association ; Church Army.
 C. A. R. E. Co-operative for American Remittances of Europe.
 Cantab. *Cantabrigiensis* = of Cambridge.
 c. & b. Caught and bowled (cricket).
 C. B. Companion of (the most Honourable Order of the) Bath (Civil or military).
 C. B. E. Commander of the Order of the British Empire.
 C. C. Chamber of Commerce ; Circuit Court ; Country Council ; Country Court ; Cricket Club.
 C. C. A Commission on Conventional Armaments of S. C. (Security Council).
 C. C. C. Central Criminal Court ; Corpus Christi College.
 C. C. C. S. Colonial and Continental Church Society.
 C. C. G. (B E) Control Commision for Germany (British Element).
 C. C. H. E. Central Council for Health Education.
 C. D. S. O. Companion, Distinguished Service Order.
 C. E. E. C. Committee of European Economic Co-operation.
 C. E. M. A. Council for Education in Music and Arts.
 C. E. E. C. Committee of European Economic Co-operation.
 C. E. T. S. Church of England Temperance Society.
 C. E. W. C. Council for Education in World Citizenship of U. N. A. (United Nations Association).
 C. E. W. M. S. Church of England Working Men's Society.
 C. F. M. Council of Foreign Ministers (of China, France, U. K., U. S. A., U. S. S. R.)
 C. F. G. General Confederation of Labour.
 C. G. S. Chief of the General Staff ; centimetre-gramme-second (system of measurement in science).
 C. II. Companion of Honour.
 C. I. (Imperial Order of the) Crown of India ; Chief Inspector ; Channel Islands.
 C. I. D. Criminal Investigation Department.
 C. I. E. Companion of the Order of the Indian Empire.
 C. I. F. Cost, Insurance and Freight.
 C. I. G. S. Chief of Imperial General Staff.
 C.-in-C. Commander-in-Chief.
 C. I. O. Committee for Industrial Organization.
 C. L. S. C. Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle.

C. M. G.	Companion of the Order of St. Michael and St. George.
C. M. O.	Chief Medical Officer.
C. M. P.	Corps of Military Police.
C. M. S.	Church Missionary Society.
C. N.	Central News (Agency).
Co.	Company
C/o.	Care of.
c. o. d.	Cash on delivery ; Central (Command) Ordnance Depot.
C. of E.	Church of England,
Col.	Colonel.
Commissr.	Commissioner.
Comp.	Composition ; Comparative ; Compare ; Compound.
C. O. S.	Church Organisation Society.
C. O. P. E. C.	Conference on Politics, Economics and Citizenship (Ch. of Eng.).
c. p.	Candle power.
C. P. G. B.	Communist Party of Great Britain.
C. P. P.	Convention Peoples Party (of the Gold Coast of Africa).
C. P. S.	Keeper of the Privy Seal.
C. P. R.	Candian Pacific Railway.
C. S.	Court of Session ; Chemical Society.
C. S. I.	Companion of the Star of India ; Chartered Surveyors' Institute.
C. S. M.	Company's Scargent Major.
Cu.	Copper.
C. V. O.	Commander of the Royal Victorian Order.
C. W. G.	Co-operative Women's Guild.
C. W. I. N. C.	Central, Water Power, Irrigation and Navigation Commission.
cwt.	A hundredweight.

D

D. B. E.	Dame Commander of the Order of the British Empire.
D. C.	Direct current (elect).
D. C. L.	Doctor of Civil Law.
D. C. M.	Distinguished Conduct Medal.
D. D.	Doctor of Divinity.
D. D. D.	<i>dat, dicat, dedicat</i> =He gives, devotes and dedicates.
D. D. G.	Deputy Director General.
D. D. T.	Domani Dormiano Tranquillo ("Tomorrow we'll be able to sleep soundly") - a medicine which kills germs and insects.
D. E.	Daily Express.
Dec.	December.

D. E. I.	Dutch East Indies.
D. F.	Defender of the Faith ; Dean of the Faculty.
D. F. C.	Distinguished Flying Cross.
D. H.	Daily Herald, De Havilland.
D. L. O.	Dead-letter office.
D. M.	Daily Mail ; District Magistrate.
D. M. T.	Director of Military Training.
D. N. B.	Dictionary of National Biography.
Do.	Ditto.
D. O. M.	To God, best and greatest.
D. O. R. A.	Defence of the Realm Act.
D. P.	Displaced Persons.
D. P. H.	Diploma in Public Health.
D. P. O.	Distributing Post Office.
D. Phil.	Doctor of Philosophy.
D. P. I.	Director of Public Instruction.
D. P. M	Diploma in Psychological Medicine.
D. S. C.	Distinguished Service Cross.
D. S. M.	Distinguished Service Medal.
D. S. O.	Distinguished Service Order.
D. Sc.	Doctor of Science.
D. T.	Daily Telegraph ; Doctor of Theology.
D. V.	God Willing.
D. V. C.	Damodar Valley Corporation.

E

E. A. C.	Extra Assistant Commissioner.
E. & O. E.	Errors and omissions excepted.
E. B.	Encyclopaedia Britannica.
E. B. R.	Eastern Bengal Railway.
E. C. A.	(U. S.) Economic Co-operation Administration (for European Recovery Programme.)
E. C. A. F. E.	Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East.
E. C. E.	Economic Commission for Europe.
E. C. I. T. O.	European Central Inland Transport Organisation.
E. C. L. A.	Economic Commission for Latin America (U. N. A.)
E. C. O.	European Coal Organisation.
E.C.O.S.O.C.	Economic and Social Council of United Nations.
E. E. C. E.	Emergency Economic Committee for Europe.
E. D. S.	English Dialect Society.
e. g.	<i>Exempli gratia</i> = (For Example.)
E. G. U.	English Golf Union.
E. I. C.	East India Company.
E. I. R.	Eastern Indian Railway.
E. M. B.	Empire Marketing Board.

E. N. E.	East-north-east.
En route	On the way.
E. P. A.	Empire Parliamentary Association.
E. P. R.	East Punjab Railway.
E. P. T.	Excess Profit Tax.
E. R. I.	<i>Edwardus Rex Imperator</i> =Edward, King and Emperor.
etc.	Etcetra = And so forth.
E. R. P.	European Recovery Programme.
Esq.	Esquire.
<i>et. seq</i>	And the following.
E. W. O.	Essential Work Order.
Euph.	Euphemia.

F

F. A. O.	Food and Agriculture Organisation (of United Nations.)
F. A. M.	Free and Accepted Masons.
F. A. P.	First aid post.
F. A. S.	Fellow of the Society of Arts.
F. B.	Fenian Brotherhood.
F. B. A.	Fellow, British Academy.
F. B. I.	Federation of British Industries.
F. C. A.	Federal Bureau of Investigation.
F. C. I. S.	Fellow, Institute of Chartered Accountants.
Fcp.	Fellow, Chartered Institute of Secretaries.
F. E. C.	Foolscape.
F. E. I. S.	Far Eastern Commission (Composed of 11 Powers) which had participated in the war against Japan.
F. G. S.	Fellow of the Educational Institute of Scotland.
F. H. S.	Fellow of the Geographical Society.
F. I. J.	Fellow of the Historical Society.
F. F. A.	Fellow of the Institute of Journalists.
F. F. C.	Fellow of the Faculty of Actuaries.
F. F. P. S.	Film Finance Corporation.
F. I. S. A.	Fellow of the Faculty of Physicians and Surgeons.
Flt. Lt.	Fellow of the Incorporated Secretaries Association.
F. M.	Flight Lieutenant.
F. M. S.	Field Marshal.
F. O.	Federated Malay States.
F. O. B.	Foreign Office.
F. O. R.	Free on Board.
F. P. A.	Free of Railway charges.
F. P. S.	Foreign Press Association.
F. P. S. C.	Fellow of the Philosophical Society.
F. R. Ac. S.	Federal Public Service Commission.
	Fellow, Royal Aeronautical Society.

F. R. A. I.	Fellow of the Royal Anthropological Institute.
F. R. A. S.	Fellow, Royal Astronomical (or Asiatic) Society.
F. R. C. P.	Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians.
F. R. C. S.	Fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons.
F. R. C. V. S.	Fellow, Royal College of Veterinary Surgeons.
F. R. E.	Fellow of the Society of Engineers.
F. R. E. S.	Fellow, Royal Economic Society.
F. R. G. S.	Fellow, Royal Geographical Society.
F. R. Hist. S.	Fellow of Historical Society.
F. R. Hort. S.	Fellow of the Royal Horticultural Society.
F. R. I. B. A.	Fellow, Royal Institute of British Architects.
F. R. Met. Soc.	Fellow, Royal Meteorological Society.
F. R. M. S.	Fellow of the Royal Microscopical Society.
F. R. N. S.	Fellow, Royal Numismatic Society.
F. R. N. S. A.	Fellow, Royal School of Naval Architecture.
F. R. P. S.	Fellow, Royal Photographical Society.
F. R. S.	Fellow, Royal Society.
F. R. S. A.	Fellow, Royal Society of Arts.
F. R. S. L.	Fellow of the Royal Society of Literature.
F. R. S. S.	Fellow of the Royal Statistical Society.
F. S. A.	Fellow, Society of Antiquaries.
F. S. I.	Fellow, Chartered Surveyors' Institution.
F. S. R.	Field Service Regulations.
F. S. S.	Fellow, Statistical Society.
F. Z. S.	Fellow, Zoological Society.

G

G. A.	General Assembly. (U. N.)
G. A. T. T.	General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade of I.T.O. (International Trade Organisation)
G. B. E.	(Knight or Dame) Grand Cross of the Order of the British Empire.
G. B. S.	George Barnard Shaw.
G. C.	George Cross.
G. C. B.	(Knight) Grand Cross of the Bath.
G. C. H.	(Knight) Grand Cross of Hanover.
G. C. I. E.	(Knight) Grand Commander of the Order of the Indian Empire.
G. C. M.	Greatest Common Measure.
G. C. M. G.	(Knight) Grand Cross of St. Michael and St. George.
G. C. S. I.	(Knight) Grand Commander of the Order of the Star of India.
G. C. V. O.	(Knight) Grand Cross of the Victorian Order.
G. E. C.	General Electric Co.
G. H. Q.	General Headquarters.
G. I.	Government Issue (American soldiers have humorously adopted this word to themselves)

G. K. C.	Gilbert Keith Chesterton.
G. M. F.	Grow More Food (campaign).
G. M. I.	Grand Master of the Indian Empire.
G. M. S. I.	Grand Master of the Star of India.
G. M. T.	Greenwich Mean Time.
G. O.	General Order.
G. O. C.	General Officer Commanding.
G. O. C-in-C.	General Officer Commanding-in-chief.
G. O. M.	Grand Old man (W. E. Gladstone).
G. P. O.	General Post Office.
G. R. I.	<i>Georgius Rex. Imperator George</i> , King and Emperor.
G. S. N. C.	General Steam Navigation Company.
G. S. P.	Good Service Pension.
G. T. C.	Girls' Training Corps.

H.

H. A. C.	Honourable Artillery Company.
H. B. M.	His Britannic Majesty.
H. C.	House of Commons.
H. C. M.	His (or Her) Catholic Majesty.
H. C. F.	Highest Common Factor.
H. E.	His Excellency, His Eminence, High Explosive.
H. E. H.	His Exalted Highness.
H. E. I. C. S.	Honourable East India Company Service.
H. H.	His (or Her) Highness, His Holiness.
H. I. H.	His (Her) Imperial Highness.
H. I. M.	His Imperial Majesty.
H. L.	House of Lord.
H. M. G.	His Majesty's Government.
H. M. I. S.	His Majesty's Inspector of Schools.
H. M. S.	His Majesty's Ship ; His Majesty's Service.
H. M. V.	His Master's Voice (Gramophone Co.).
Hon.	Honourable.
H. R.	House of Representatives.
H. R. E.	Holy Roman Empire, (or Emperor.)
H. R. I. P.	<i>hic requiescit in pace</i> =Here rests in peace.
H. S. H.	His Serene Highness.

I

I. A. C	Indian Armoured Corps.
I. A. O. C.	Indian Army Ordnance Corps.
I. A. M. C.	Indian Army Medical Corps
I. A. R. O.	Indian Army Reserve of Officers.
I. A. S.	Indian Administrative Services.

- I. A. T. A. International Air Transport Association
 I. B. R. D. International Bank of Reconstruction and Development.
 I. C. Intelligence Corps.
 I. C. A. International Co-operative Alliance.
 I. C. A. Institute of Chartered Accountants.
 I. C. A. O. International Civil Aviation Organisation.
 I. C. A. R. Indian Council of Agricultural Research.
 I. C. E. Institute of Civil Engineers.
 I. C. E. F. International Children's Emergency Fund.
 I. C. I. Imperial Chemical Industries.
 I. C. J. International Court of Justice.
 I. C. S. Indian Civil Service,
 I. D. B. Illicit Diamond Buying (in S. Africa).
 I. D. Intelligence Department.
 I. D. C. Imperial Defence College.
 I. D. S. M. Indian Distinguished Service Medal.
 I. E. Id. Est. (That is).
 I. E. F. C. International Emergency Food Committee of F. A. O.
 I. F. A. Indian Football Association (Calcutta).
 I. F. S. Indian Forest Service ; Irish Free State ; Indian Foreign Service.
 I. F. T. U. International Federation of Trade Unions.
 I. G. C. Inter-Governmental Committee (on Refugees).
 I. J. Institute of Journalists.
 I. L. P. International Labour Party, Independent Labour Party.
 I. M. A. Indian Military Academy (Dehra Dun).
 I. M. C. O. Inter-Government Maritime Consultative Organisation.
 I. M. F. International Monetary Fund.
 I. M. P. P. A. Indian Motion Pictures Production Association.
 I. M. S. Indian Medical Service.
 I. N. R. I. Jesus of Nazareth King of the Jews.
 I. N. A. Indian National Army (which under the leadership of Netaji Subhas Chandra Bose fought against the British) ; Institution of Naval Architects ; Indian National Airways.
 I. N. C. Indian National Congress.
 I. O. C. International Olympic Committee.
 I. O. G. T. Independent Order of Good Templars.
 I. O. M. Indian Order of Merit ; Isle of Man.
 I. O. F. Independent Order of Foresters.
 I. O. U. I owe you
 I. P. D. In presence of the Lords (of Session.)
 I. P. S. Indian Police Service.
 I. R. A. The Irish Republican Army.
 I. R. C. International Red Cross.

I. R. O.	International Refugee Organisation.
I. R. R. O.	Indian Royal Reserve of Officers.
I. S. C.	Indian Staff Corps.
I. S. E.	Indian Service of Engineers.
I. S. O.	Imperial Service Order.
I. S. R.	Indian State Railways.
I. S. T.	Indian Standard Time.
I. S. U.	International Students' Union.
I. T. O.	International Trade Organisation.
I. T. U.	International Telecommunications Union.
I. T. U. C.	Indian Trade Union Congress.
I. V. S.	Indian Veterinary Service.
I. W. W.	Industrial Workers of the World.
I. Y.	Imperial Yeomanry.

J

Jan.	January.
J. C.	Jesus Christ.
J. C. O.	Junior Commissioned Officer.
J. P.	Justice of the Peace.
J U. D.	Doctor both of Canon and of Civil Law.
Jurisp.	Jurisprudence.

K

K. B.	King's Bench : Knight of the Bath.
K. B. E.	Knight Bachelor of the Order of the British Empire.
K. C.	King's Counsel ; King's College.
K. C. B.	Knight Commander of the Bath.
K. C. H.	Knight Commander of Hanover.
K. C. B. E.	Knight Commander of the Order of the British Empire.
K. C. I. E.	Knight Commander of the Order of the Indian Empire.
K. C. M. G.	Knight Commander of the Order of St. Michael & St. George.
K. C. S. I.	Knight Commander of the Star of India.
K. C. V. O.	Knight Commander of the (Royal) Victorian Order.
K. G. C. B.	Knight Grand Cross of the Bath.
K. G.	Knight of the [Most Noble Order of the] Garter.
K. G. F.	Knight of the Golden Fleece.
K. I. H.	Kaiser-i-Hind Medal.
K. L. H.	Knight of the Legion of Honour.
K. K. K.	Ku-Klux-Klan (A secret society of the Whites of America hostile to Negroes, formed in the

	southern states after the American Civil War.)
K. M. T.	Kuomintang (Govt. party under Chiang Kai Shek).
K. P.	Knight of the Order of St. Patrick.
K. O. Y. L. I.	King's Own Yorkshire Light Infantry.
K. M. P. P.	Kisan Mazdoor Praja Party.
K. R. C.	Knight of the Red Cross.
K. S. I.	Knight of the Star of India.
K. T.	Knight of the Order of the Thistle.
Kt.	Knight.

L

L. A.	Law Agent ; Literate in arts.
L. b. w.	Leg before wicket (Cricket).
L. C.	Lord Chancellor ; Lord Chamberlainc.
L. C. J.	Lord Chief Justice.
L. C. M.	Least common multiple.
L. D. S.	Licentiate in Dental Surgery.
Ltd.	Limited.
L. G. B.	Local Government Board.
L. H. D.	<i>Literarum Humaniorum Doctor</i> = Doctor of Letters.
L. I.	Light Infantry.
Lieut.	Lieutenant.
Litt. D.	Doctor of Letters.
L. J.	Lord Justice.
LL. B.	Bachelor of Laws.
LL. M.	Master of Laws.
LL. D.	<i>Legum Doctor</i> = Doctor of Laws.
L. N.	League of Nations.
L. P.	Labour Party ; Lord Provost ; Letters Patent.
L. of C.	Lines of Communication.
Log.	Logarithm.
L. R. C. P.	Licentiate of the Royal College of Physicians.
L. R. C. S.	Licentiate of the Royal College of Surgeons.
L. T. A.	Lawn Tennis Association.
L. S. D.	<i>Librae, solidi, denarii</i> = Pounds, shillings, pence.
L. T. C.	Lawn Tennis Club.
Lt. Col.	Lieutenant-Coloncl.
L./Sgt.	Lance Sargeant.

M

M. A.	Master of Arts
M. B. B. S.	Bachelor of Medicine and Bachelor of Surgery.
M. B. E.	Member of the Order of the British Empire.

M. C.	Military Cross; Member of Congress; Member of Council; Master of Ceremonies.
M. C. C.	Marylebone Cricket Club, Member of the County Council.
M. C. L.	Master of Civil Law.
M. Com.	Master of Commerce.
M. C. S.	Madras Civil Service.
Md.	Maunds.
M. D.	Doctor of Medicine.
M D. S.	Master of Dental Surgery.
M. E. C.	Member of the Executive Council.
memo.	Memorandum.
M. E. S.	Military Engineering Service.
M. G. B.	Machine gun brigadier.
M. G. C.	Machine-gun Corps.
M. G. G. S.	Major-General, General Staff.
M. G. O.	Master General of Ordnance.
M. H. R.	Member of the House of Representatives.
M. I.	Military Intelligence.
M. I. A. E.	Member, Institute of Automobile Engineers.
M. I. J.	Member of the Institute of Journalists.
M. I. C. E.	Member of the Institute of Civil Engineers.
M. I. N. A.	Member, Institute of Naval Architects.
M. L. A.	Member of Legislative Assembly.
M. L. C.	Member of the Legislative Council.
M. M.	Military Medal.
M. N. A. S.	Member, National Academy of Sciences (U. S. A.)
M. N. S.	Member of the Numismatical Society.
M. O.	Medical Officer ; money order.
M. O. H.	Medical Officer of Health.
M. O. I.	Ministry of Information.
M. P.	Member of Parliament ; Ministry of Pensions ; Metropolitan Police ; Military Police.
M. P. S.	Member of the Philological Society.
m. p. h.	miles per hour.
M. R.	Master of the Rolls.
M. R. A. S.	Member of the Royal Academy of Science ; Member of the Royal Asiatic Society.
M. R. C. P.	Member of the Royal College of Physicians.
M. R. C. S.	Member of the Royal College of Surgeons.
M. R. C. V. S.	Member of the Royal College of Veterinary Surgeons.
M. R. G. S.	Member of the Royal Geographical Society.
M. R. S. L.	Member of the Royal Society of Literature.
M. R. S. T.	Member of the Royal Society of Teachers.
MSS.	Manuscript.

M. R. I.	Member of the Royal Institute.
M. S. C.	Madras Staff Corps ; Medical Staff Corps.
M. Sc.	Master of Science.
M. S. S.	Member of the Statistical Society. Military Staff Committee of Security Council (of U. N.)
M. S. M. R.	Madras and Southern Marhatta Railway.
M. T. C.	Mechanised Transport Corps.
M. V. O.	Member of the Victorian Order.

N

N. A. T. C.	North Atlantic Treaty Council.
naut:	Nautical.
N. A. A. F. I.	Naval, Army, and Air Force Institute.
N. A. T. O.	North Atlantic Treaty Organization.
N. B.	<i>nota bene</i> =Note well, or take notice.
N. B. C.	National Broadcasting Corporation. (U. S. A.)
N. C. C.	National Cadet Corps.
N. C. O.	Non-commissioned Officer.
N. E.	New England.
N. E. I.	North East Indies.
nem. con.	No one contradicting, unanimously.
N. I. A. A.	Northern India Automobile Association.
N. N. E.	North-north-east
N. N. W.	North-north-west.
non. seq	<i>non sequitur</i> = It does not follow.
n. o. p.	Not otherwise provided.
N. S. P. C. C.	National Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children.
N. U. J.	National Union of Journalists.
N. U. R.	National Union of Railwaymen.
N. U. S. E. C.	National Union of Societies for Equal Citizenship.
N. W. F. P.	North West Frontier Province.
N. R. A.	National Rifle Association (England).
N. S.	New Style. Not in stock
N. T.	New Testament.
N. U. T.	National Union of Teachers.
N. V. M.	Nativity of the Virgin Mary.
N. Y.	New York.
N. Z.	New Zealand.
N. & Q.	Notes and Queries.

O

O. B. E.	Officer of the Order of the British Empire.
O. C.	Officer Commanding.

O. C. R.	Order of Corporate Reunion.
O. C. T. U.	Officer Cadets Training Unit.
O. E. E. C.	Organisation for European Economic Co-operation. (of 16 E. R. P. nations)
O. G. L.	Open General Licence.
O.H.M.S.	On His Majesty's Service.
O. K.	All correct (perh. a humorous spelling of this or Choctaw <i>OKeh</i> , so be it).
O. M.	Order of Merit.
O. S. A.	Order of St. Augustine.
O. S. B.	Order of St. Benedict.
O. S. F.	Order of St. Francis.
o. s. p.	<i>obit sine prole</i> = Died without issue.
O. T. C.	Officers' Training Corps.
O. T. S.	Officers' Training School.
OXON.	<i>Oxon'ia</i> Oxford.

P

P. A.	Press Association ; Publisher's Association ; Personal Assistant.
Pa.	Pennsylvania.
P. A. A.	Pan-American Airways.
P. A. C.	Pan American Cathays (Air-Lines).
P. A. Y. E.	Pay as you earn (Income Tax).
P. C.	Privy Councillor ; Police Constable ; Post Commander.
P. C. A.	Production Code Administration.
P. C. S.	Principal Clerk Session ; Provincial Civil Service.
P. C. I. R. O.	Preparatory Commission of the International Refugee Organisation.
p. c.	per cent
P. C. O. B.	Permanent Central Opium Board of E. C. O. S. O. C.
P. E. N.	International Club of Poets, Playwrights, Editors, Essayists and Novelists.
P. E. P.	Political & Economic Planning.
P. E. P. S. U.	Patiala and East Punjab States Union.
per. pro.	By profession.
Ph. D.,	Doctor of Philosophy.
P. M.	Prime Minister ; <i>post meridium</i> = After noon.
P. M. G.	Postmaster-General.
P. M. O.	Principal Medical Officer.
P. O. A. L.	Pacific overscas Air Lines.
P. O. C.	Peninsular and Oriental Company.
P. O. W.	Prisoner of War.
P. P. C.	<i>pour prendre congé</i> = To take leave.

P. P. S.	Parliamentary Private Secretary ; post postscript.
P. R.	Proportional Representation.
P. R. A.	President of the Royal Academy.
P. R. B.	Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood.
P. R. O.	Public Relation Officer.
P. R. I. B. A.	President of the Royal Institute of British Architects.
P. R. S.	President of the Royal Society.
P. R. S. A.	President of the Royal Scottish Academy.
P. R. S. E.	President of the Royal Society of Edinburgh.
P. S.	Postscript ; Private Secretary.
P. S. N. C.	Pacific Steam Navigation Co.
P. S. C. C.	Punjab States Congress Committee.
P. T. I.	Press Trust of India.
P. T. O.	Please turn over ; Post and Telegraph Office.
P. U. C.	Paper under Consideration.
P. W. D.	Public Works Department.
P. W. R.	Police War Reserve.

Q

Q. E. D.	Which was to be proved (L. <i>quod erat demonstrandum</i>).
q. d.	<i>quasi dicat</i> = As if he should say.
q. e.	<i>quod est</i> = which is.
Q. E. F. (L.)	Quod erat faciendum, "which was to be done."
Q. E. I. (L.)	quod erat inveniendum, "which was to be found out."
Q. M. G.	Quartermaster-General.
Q. M. S.	Quartermaster-Sergeant.
q. v.	<i>quod vide</i> = which see ; <i>quantum ris</i> = as much as you will.

R

R. A.	Royal Artillery, Royal Academician.
R. A. A. F.	Royal Australian Air Force.
R. A. C.	Royal Automobile Club, Royal Armoured Corps.
R. A. D.	Royal Academy of Dancing.
R. A. D. A.	Royal Academy of Dramatic Art.
R. A. F.	Royal Air Force.
R. A. F. V. R.	Royal Air Force Volunteer Reserve.
R. A. G. C.	Royal and Ancient Golf Club (at St. Andrews).
R. A. M. C.	Royal Army Medical Corps.
R. A. M.	Royal Academy of Music.
R. A. O. C.	Royal Army Ordnance Corps.
R. A. S.	Royal Astronomical (or Asiatic) Society.
R. A. S. C.	Royal Army Service Corps.
R. B.	Rai Bahadur ; Rao Bahadur.

R. B. A.	Royal Society of British Artists.
R. C. A. F.	Royal Canadian Air Force.
R. C. P. I.	Revolutionary Communist Party of India.
r. d.	refer to drawer (of an overdrawn cheque).
R. E. S.	Royal Empire Society.
Rev	Reverend.
R. F. A.	Royal Field Artillery.
R. F. C.	Royal Flying Corps.
R. G. A.	Royal Garrison Artillery.
R. G. G.	Royal Grenadier Guards.
R. G. S.	Royal Geographical Society.
R. H. A.	Royal Horse Artillery.
R. H. G.	Royal Horse Guards.
R. H. S.	Royal Historical Society.
R. I. A. F.	Royal Indian Air Force.
R. I. B. A.	Royal Institute of British Architects.
R. I. I. A.	Royal Institute of International Affairs.
R. I. N.	Royal Indian Navy.
R. I. N. V. R.	Royal Indian Navy Volunteer Reserve.
R. I. P.	Rest in Peace (<i>Requiescat in Pace</i>).
R. K. R.	Rohilkund and Kumaon Railway.
R. L. S.	Robert Louis Stevenson.
Rly.	Railway.
R. M.	Royal Marines ; Royal Mail.
R. M. A.	Royal Military Academy; Royal Marine Artillery.
R. M. C.	Royal Military College.
R. M. L. I.	Royal Marine Light Infantry.
R. M. S.	Royal Mail Steamer.
R. N. A. S.	Royal Naval Air Service.
R. N. R.	Royal Naval Reserve.
R. N. V. R.	Royal Naval Volunteer Reserve.
R. P.	(Member) Royal (Society of Portrait) Painters ; Regius Professor.
R. P. A.	Rationalist Press Association.
R. P. S.	Royal Photographic Society.
R. R. C.	Royal Red Cross.
R. S.	Rai Sahib ; Rao Sahib.
R. S. A.	Royal Society of British Artists ; Royal Society of Antiquaries.
R. S. D.	Royal Society of Dublin.
R. S. F. S. R.	Russian Soviet Federal Socialist Republic.
R. S. L.	Royal Society of London.
R. S. M.	Royal School of Mines.
R. S. O.	Railway Sorting Office.
R. S. P. C. A.	Royal Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals.
R. S. S.	Rashtriya Swayamsewak Sangh.
R. S. V. P.	Reply, if you please, (Fr. <i>repondez s'il vous plait</i>).
Rt. Hon.	Right Honourable.

- R. T. C. Round Table Conference (1930-32).
 R. T. O. Royal Transport Officer.
 R. T. S. Religious Tract Society.
 R. W. D. G. M. Right Worshipful Deputy Grand Master.
 R. W. G. T. Right Worthy Grand Templar (or Treasurer)

S

- S. A. C. M. E. Supreme Allied Command Middle East.
 S. B. Sardar Bahadur ; Special Branch (of Police).
 S. C. Security Council of United Association ;
 Supreme Court.
 S. C. A. P. Supreme Commander Allied Powers (occupying
 Japan).
 S. C. A. P. A. Society for checking the abuses of Public
 Advertising.
 S. C. O. B. Shell Company of Burma.
 S. D. F. Social Democratic Federation.
 S. D. U. K. Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge.
 S. E. South East.
 S. E. A. C. South East Asia Command (during the Second
 World War).
 Sec. Secretary.
 S. F. Sinn Fein.
 S. G. Solicitor-General.
 S. H. A. P. E. Supreme Headquarters, Allied Powers in Europe.
 S. I. R. South Indian Railway.
 S. J. A. B. St. John's Ambulance Brigade.
 S. L. Solicitor at Law.
 S/Ldr. Squadron Leader.
 S. M. M. *Sancta Mater Maria*--Holy Mother Mary.
 S. O. Staff Officer.
 S.O.C.O.N.Y. Standard Oil Company of New York.
 S. O. S. Save our souls (Wireless signal of distress
 at sea).
 S. P. C. A. Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to
 Animals.
 S. P. C. K. Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge.
 S. P. E. Society for Pure English.
 S. P. G. Society for the Propagation of the Gospel.
 S. P. G. B. Socialist Party of Great Britain.
 S. P. Q. R. *Senatus Populusque Romanus*--The Senate and
 the people of Rome.
 S. R. M. Sorter Railway Mail.
 S. R. & O. Statutory Rules and Orders.
 S. S. B. Service Selection Board.
 S. S. C. Solicitor before the Supreme Court.
 S. S. E. South-south-east.
 S. S. M. Staff Sergeant-Major.
 Station Staff Officer.

S. S. R.	Soviet Socialist Republic.
S. S. W.	South-south-west.
S. T. D.	Doctor of Sacred Theology.
S. T. P.	<i>Sanctae Theologiae Professor</i> =Professor of Theology.

T

T. B.	Tuberculosis.
T. B. D.	Torpedo-boat Destroyer.
T. C.	Trusteeship Council of United Nations.
T. C. D.	Trinity College, Dublin.
T. M. O.	Telegraph Money Order.
T. O.	Telegraph Office.
T. T.	Telegraphic Transfers.
T. T. C.	Travelling Ticket-Checker.
t. t. l.	To take leave.
T. R. H.	Their Royal Highnesses.
T. U. C.	Trades Union Congress.
T. V. A.	Tarneze Valley Authority.

U

U. K.	United Kingdom.
U. K. C. C.	United Kingdom Commercial Corporation.
Ult.	<i>Ultimo</i> =Last.
U. M. F. C.	United Methodist Free Churches.
U. N. A.	United Nations Association.
U. N. A. C.	United Nations Appeal for Children.
U.N.A.C.K.	United Nations Assistance Command Korea.
U. N. C. I.	United Nations Commission on Indonesia.
U. N. C. I. O.	United Nations Conference on International Organization.
U. N. C. I. P.	United Nations Commission on India and Pakistan.
U.N.I.C.E.F.	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund.
U.N.E.S.C.O.	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization.
U. N. O.	United Nations Organisation.
U. N. R. R. A.	United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration (terminated in 1947).
U. N. S. A.	United Nations Student Association of U.N.A.
U.N.S.C.O.B.	United Nations Special Committee on the Balkans.
U.N.S.C.O.P.	United Nations Special Committee on Palestine (terminated 1947).
U. P.	The United Provinces ; Uttra Pradesh.
U. P. S. C.	Union Public Service Commission.

U. P. U.	Universal Postal Union.
U. P. W.	Union of Post Office Workers.
U.S. or U.S.A.	United States of America.
U. S. A. A. F.	United States Army Air Force.
U. S. C.	United States of Colombia.
U. S. I.	United States of Indonesia.
U. S. I. S.	United States Information Service.
U. S. M.	United States Marine.
U. S. M. A.	United States Military Academy.
U. S. N.	United States Navy.
U. S. N. A.	United States Naval Academy.
U. S. S.	United States Ship ; United States Senate.
U. S. S. C.	United States Supreme Court.
U. S. S. R.	Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.
U. T. C.	University Training Corps.

V

V.	Victory (Symbol of the Victory Campaign initiated in 1941—Second World War).
V. 1.	The German Flying Bomb.
V. 2.	The German Flying Rocket.
V. A. D.	Voluntary Aid Department.
V. C.	Victoria Cross ; Vice-Chancellor ; Vice Consul.
V. C. O.	Viceroy's Commission Officer.
V. D.	Volunteer Decoration ; Venereal Disease.
V. D. M.	<i>Verbi Dei Minister</i> —Preacher of God's Word.
V. Day.	Victory Day, (Second World War.)
VE Day.	Victory in Europe Day.(Second World War.)
V. G.	Vicar-General.
Vid	<i>Vide=See.</i>
Viz	<i>Videlicit</i> (Namely).
VJ Day.	Victory over Japan Day. (Second World War.)
Vol.	Volume.
V. P. P.	Value Payable Packet.
V. R.	<i>Victoria Regina</i> (Queen Victoria.)

W

W. A. A. C.	Women's Army Auxiliary Corps (in First World War).
W. A. A. F.	Women's Auxiliary Air Force.
W. C. T. U.	Women's Christian Temperance Union.
W. D.	War Department.
W. E. A.	Workers' Educational Association.
W. F. L.	Women's Freedom League.
W. F. T. U.	World Federation of Trade Unions.

W. F. U. N. A.	World Federation of United Nations Associations.
W. H. O.	World Health Organisation.
W. I. R.	West India Regiment.
W. L. A.	Women's Land Army.
W. M. O.	World Meteorological Organization.
W. M. S.	Wesleyan Missionary Society.
W. N. W.	West—North—West.
W. O.	War Office.
W. P. B.	Waste-paper basket.
W. R. A. C.	Women's Royal Air Corps.
W. R. A. F.	Women's Royal Air Force.
W. R. N. S.	Women's Royal Naval Service.
W. S.	Writer to the Signet.
W. S. P. U.	Women's Social and Political Union.
W. T. U. C.	World Trade Union Conference; Worker's Trade Union Committee.
W. V. S.	Women's Voluntary Service.

X

Xmas.	Christmas.
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Y

Yd.	Yard.
Y. M. C. A.	Young Men's Christian Association.
Y. M. S. C. E.	Young Men's Society for Christian Endeavour.
Y. W. C. A.	Young Women's Christian Association.

Z

Z. S.	Zoological Society.
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ROMAN NUMBERS.

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II—2	IX—9	XC—90	MM—2000
III—3	X—10	XCIX—99	MCC—1200
IV—4	L—50	CXC—190	MDCCCLXIV—1804
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VI—6	D—500	DC—600	CMXCIX—999
VII—7	M—1000	MDCLI—1651	MCMLIV—1944

GENERAL TERMINOLOGY

HISTORICAL & POLITICAL TERMS

HISTORICAL TERMS.

Abbasides : A dynasty of 37 Caliphs, who ruled at Baghdad from 750 to 1258 A. D.

Addled Parliament : The second English Parliament that sat in the reign of James I in 1614 ; was dissolved after sitting for two months without passing a single bill, as it refused to grant the King money until the question of import was settled.

Admonition, The : A book issued in 1588 advocating the Spanish invasion of England and a papal declaration of excommunication against Elizabeth.

Alliance, The Triple : Alliance between England, Holland and Sweden against Louis XIV in 1668. Also the alliance in 1882 between Germany, Austria and Italy known by the same name. This alliance continued upto 1914, when Italy declined to enter the War with the other two allies.

American Civil War, The : Fought in 1861-65 between the 11 Southern states which wished to maintain their "states rights" and claimed the right to secede and the Northern Federal States, which fought to maintain the Union. After four years of bitter strife, the North came out victorious, slavery was abolished and an era of great economic activity began.

Armada, The Spanish : A naval armament fitted out in 1588 by Philip II of Spain against England, consisting of 130 war vessels, mounted with 2,430 cannon, and manned by 20,000 soldiers. It was defeated by Admiral Howard of Britain in the English Channel and finally shattered in retreat by a storm from the north-west.

Austrian Succession, War of : Fought (1740-48) between Austria supported by England and Holland on one side and Prussia, France and Spain on the other. The war started when on the death of Charles VI, a number of European Powers disputed the succession of Maria Theresa, the Emperor's daughter. It came to an end by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748.

Balkan Wars : Wars fought between Turkey and the Balkan States in 1912-13.

Bedchamber Question : It arose when Lord Peel insisted on his right to change the old attendants of the Royal Household in 1839-41.

Beggars of the Sea : Netherland seafarers, who preyed upon the Spanish Commerce in 1569.

Black Death : The terrible plague which visited England in 1348-49 and stripped her of about one-third of her population.

Bloody Assizes : The judicial massacres and cruel injustice perpetrated by Judge Jeffreys during his circuit tour in 1685.

Bourbon : Name of the French Royal dynasty which reigned for generations in France, Naples and Spain with almost an overweening sense of their rights as born to rule. The dynasty was banished from France on the establishment of the Republic in 1871. The Spanish branch was dethroned in 1931.

Bread Riots : Occurred in England in 1816 owing to the high price of food.

Bye Plot : An unsuccessful plot in 1603 to capture James I of England.

Casket Letters : Written by Queen Mary to Bothwell requiring the murder of her husband, Lord Darnley.

Cato-Street Conspiracy : An insignificant abortive plot to assassinate British Cabinet Ministers in 1820, by Thistlewood.

Cockpit of Europe : Belgium, on account of many battles fought there.

Confederate States : The eleven southern states of the American Union which seceded in 1861 on the question of slavery, which occasioned a civil war lasting four years.

Continental System (or Blockade) : Napoleon's scheme for interdicting all commerce between the continent and Britain in 1806.

Crimean War : (1854-56) War between Russia on one side and Turkey aided by Britain, France and Sardinia on the other.

Crusades : Military expeditions, especially those sent from Europe to recover Palestine from the non-Christians. Eight such crusades were organized between 1096 and 1291.

Curse of Cromwell: Name given to Cromwell's Irish campaign in 1650.

Defence of the Realm Act: (D. O. R. A.) A number of laws passed at different times during the World War 1914-18, designed to prevent the leakage of important information and army secrets to the enemy. The Act was enforced during the last war also.

Directory: The Governing Body of France from 1795 to 1799 when it was overthrown by Napoleon.

Doctrine of Lapse: Introduced by Lord Dalhousie in India, whereby the Paramount Power could refuse to acknowledge

the right of an heirless prince to transfer his state to an adopted son, and merge the state into Crown's possessions in India.

Domesday Book: The record of the survey of all the lands of England made in 1085—86 at the instance of William, the Conqueror, for purposes of taxation.

Eastern Question: Problem relating to the existence of Turkish rule over European territory as affecting the European Powers. The placing of a large number of christians under Turkish rule made the question quite acute in the 19th century. Turkey lost most of her European possessions after the World War of 1914–18 and this brought the Eastern Question to an end.

Field of the Cloth of Gold: Site near Guisnes, where Henry VIII met Francis I of France in June 1520; so called from the magnificence displayed on the occasion by both sovereigns and their retinue.

Fiery Cross, The: A cross dipped in blood and sent to summon the Highland clans to battle.

Fire of London, The: A furious fire lasting four days in September, 1666, in which some 13,000 houses and 90 churches were burnt.

First Republic: Proclaimed in France on September 21, 1792 by the National Convention, following the overthrow of the Bourbon regime by the Revolution.

Fourth Republic: Term applied to the regime established in France after the liberation of 1944. The second and third republics were proclaimed in 1848 and 1870 respectively.

Franco-Prussian War: The War of 1870–71 between France and Prussia provoked by Bismark's policy of unifying and extending Germany under Prussian domination on the one hand and Napoleon III's disastrous ventures in foreign policy on the other. France was defeated, surrendered Alsace—Lorrain and paid an indemnity of £200,000,000.

Freemasons: Members of an international organization open to men over 21, united by the possession of a common code of morals and beliefs, and of certain traditional 'secrets'.

French Revolution: The great upheaval in France from 1789 to 1799, caused by the evils of the taxation and land-owning system and the influence of Rousseau on the Middle classes, who demanded a greater share in the Government. "Liberty, Equality and Fraternity" were its slogans, and although the democratic institutions established during the revolutionary period received a set-back by the emergence of Bonaparte as Emperor, in 1799, the upheaval had world-wide repercussions and can truly be called the harbinger of modern democracy.

Furies of the Guillotine: Fearless women who expressed their opinions freely on current affairs, while knitting before the tribunals of France, during French Revolution.

Gordon Riots. A demonstration held by a mob led by Lord George Gordon in June 1780 in London against the laws proposed for the relief of Roman Catholics.

Grand Alliance: An alliance signed at Vienna in 1689 by England, Germany and the States-General to prevent the union of France and Spain.

Great War, The, (1914-18): This international conflict between the Central Powers (Germany, Austria, Turkey and Bulgaria) on the one side and the Allies (Britain, France, Japan, Belgium, Serbia and later Italy) arose out of the assassination of Archduke Francis Ferdinand, heir to the throne of Austria, by a Serb on June 28, 1914. Although Serbia agreed to eight out of ten points advanced by Austria and was ready to refer the remaining two to the Hague Conference, Austria, broke off relations with Serbia and declared war on July 28, 1914. The War continued for more than four years and was also joined by the United States of America on the side of the Allies in 1917. For the first time in history, not only armies, but whole nations were at war, some 30,000,000 men being under arms. Poison gas, aeroplanes and other scientific aids to fighting were introduced. The Central Powers were ultimately defeated and hostilities ceased with an armistice on November 11, 1918. The Peace Treaty of Versailles signed in June 1919 brought the war to an end.

Gunpowder Plot: A conspiracy to blow up the Parliament of England on November 5, 1605, by a small section of Roman Catholics dissatisfied with King James's government. The plot was discovered when Guy Fawkes, one of the chief plotters was proceeding to execute it. The conspirators were arrested, and executed. November 5 has since become a day for fireworks and "Guy" burning in England.

Habeas Corpus Act: Passed in the reign of Charles II. It provides for the production in court of a person accused of crime and detained by the executive before conviction.

Hapsburg: A famous royal house which has played a leading part in the history of continental Europe, especially in that of Austria. Representatives of this family wore the Imperial crown of the holy Roman Empire for centuries.

Hearth-Money: A tax levied on every hearth or fireplace by Charles II of England in 1662. It existed for about a quarter of a century and yielded £200,000 a year. William III abolished it.

Heptarchy: Name applied to the seven Kingdoms into which England was divided after the Anglo-Saxon invasion.

Hohenzollern : The German family which became Electors of Brandenburg, in 1415, Kings of Prussia in 1701 and the Emperors of Germany in 1871. The last emperor, William II abdicated in 1918, when Germany became a republic.

Holy Alliance : An alliance of the Sovereigns of Russia, Austria and Prussia on the fall of Napoleon professedly to maintain the European *status quo*, but really for the suppression of political liberty and the maintenance of absolute power.

Holy Roman Empire : Name applied to the empire of Charles, the Great (Charlemagne) and his successors and to the German Empire (962-1806), both being regarded as a revival of the Roman Empire.

Iconoclasts : ('Image Breakers') Name given to a sect of the Eastern Church who, in the 8th century, opposed the presence of images in churches and the worship paid to them.

Incas : The reigning and aristocratic order in Peru from the 13th to the 16th centuries.

Indian Mutiny : A widespread rebellion, chiefly of the army against British authority in India in 1857. Bahadur Shah, the last Mughal Emperor, Nana Sahib and the Rani of Jhansi were the chief leaders of this first national uprising in India, which was ultimately put down by the British.

Indus Valley Civilization : The culture of pre-historic north-western India, which flourished in the 3rd millennium B.C., and can be divided into the urban civilization of Harappa and the various peasant cultures of Baluchistan and Sind. The excavation at Harappa and Mohenjo-daro have revealed the existence of complete and well planned cities. Sculptures in alabaster and marble, jewellery etc. bear witness to a high civilization. There are evidences of a flourishing economy based on agriculture and cattle-rearing.

Jenkins' Ear, War of : Between England and Spain in 1739 on account of the cruel treatment (cutting of the left ear) meted out to Robert Jenkins, an English master mariner by the Commander of a Spanish Coastal Guard.

Legion of Honour : A French order instituted by Napoleon to provide distinctions for meritorious civil or military service.

Lollards : A body of English Reformers who denounced some practices and beliefs of the Roman Church. Wycliffe was their leader. Many of them were burnt at the stake especially in the time of Richard II.

Lombards : Italian merchants who settled in England in the 13th century: They became mostly moneylenders and bankers.

Mad Parliament : Held in 1258 at Oxford, when the Barons compelled Henry III to appoint a Council pledged to carry out certain reforms.

Manchus: The original inhabitants of Manchuria, China. A Manchu dynasty ruled China from 1744 until the advent of the Chinese Republic in 1911.

Merciless Parliament: Summoned in 1388 by Richard II. It decreed the execution of several of King's Ministers and the outlawry of the Duke of Suffolk.

Middle Ages: The period of European history between the fall of the Roman Empire in 476 and the Renaissance of the 15th century. Its distinctive features were the unity of Western Europe within the Roman Catholic Church, and the feudal organization of political, social and economic relation.

Militia: A home defence force as distinguished from the regular army. King Alfred established the first 'Militia' or 'Fyrd' in the 9th century. It was recognized in 1759 and was used for home defence during the French wars. The place of militia to-day is occupied by a territorial army.

Morton's Fork: The scheme devised by Archbishop John Morton to increase the revenue of Henry VII (1457-1509).

New Model Army, The: Name given to the Parliamentary Army after its reorganisation in 1645.

Nuremberg trials: The trial of German Nazi and military leaders by an Inter Allied Court at Nuremberg in Germany after the World War II. The court consisted of the representatives of the U. S. A., U. K., France and the U. S. S. R. The trial began in Sep. 1945 and ended in May 1946. Some top-most leaders like Ribbentrop, Goering, Kiel, Rosenberg etc., were sentenced to death and others to long terms of imprisonment.

Oath of Allegiance: An act passed in the time of Queen Elizabeth requiring every member of the House of Commons, every public officer and every parish priest to take an oath of allegiance to the Queen and defy the Pope's authority in England.

Opium War: The name given to hostilities between Great Britain and China in 1840-42, following the destruction of British ships taking opium to China.

Orleans, Dukes of: The name of four distinct branches of the royal family of France.

Ottomans: Turks who founded the Ottoman (Turkish) Empire and took Constantinople in 1453.

Papacy: The ecclesiastical system of the Roman Catholic Church, considered as a form of spiritual or temporal government.

Pale, The: That part of Ireland which was colonized by Henry II in 1175.

Peninsular War: War (1807-1814) between Napoleon on the one hand and Britain, Spain and Portugal on the other, fought in the Spanish peninsula. It resulted in the defeat of France.

Permanent Settlement: The most famous measure of Lord Cornwallis concluded in 1793, when the then existing assessment of land revenue, which had been made for ten years, was declared to be perpetual.

Peterloo, Massacre of: Occurred in Manchester on Aug. 16, 1819, when a gathering of workers demanding reforms was dispersed by the military at the sacrifice of 13 lives and the wounding of 600 people, a proceeding which excited widespread indignation.

Pilgrimage of Grace: A peasant rising in Northern England in 1536 against the royal policy of suppressing Catholic religious houses.

Pitt's India Bill: Passed in 1784 reducing the number of Councillors from four to three and establishing in England a Board of Control, with Secretary of State as President and defining the powers of the Governor-General.

Poland, Partition of: First partition—Aug. 1772.
Second partition—Jan. 1793.
Third partition—Nov. 1795.
Fourth partition—Oct. 1939.

Pretenders: James III and Prince Charles, the son, and grandson of James II respectively. They were called the Elder and Younger Pretenders.

Pride's Purge: The violent exclusion in 1648 by Col. Pride of about 100 M. P.'s for favouring the return of Charles I to the throne.

Quadruple Alliance: Formed in 1717 between England, France, Austria and the Netherlands, to secure the settlement of European affairs after the treaty of Utrecht.

Reformation: The movement which in the 16th century ended the religious unity of Western Europe and resulted in the establishment of the Protestant Churches. It was initiated by Martin Luther in 1517, who protested against the sale of indulgences and nailed to the church-door at Wittenberg his famous 95 theses.

Regulating Act: Passed in 1774 during the administration of Warren Hastings, to ensure a better government in India.

Reign of Terror: The period of French Revolution which lasted from the fall of the Girondists on May 31, 1793, to the overthrow of Robespierre on July 27, 1794, during which several thousand supposed counter-revolutionaries were put to death by guillotines.

Renaissance: The revival of classical learning in the 15th and 16th century in Europe. The movement originated in Italy with a revival of the study of ancient models in the literature and art of Greece and Rome and spread to Germany and

other countries. An emphasis on the potentialities of the individual and his life, a belief in the power of education to produce the "complete man", the desire to enlarge the bounds of learning and growth of scepticism and free thought were among its most outstanding characteristics.

Restoration, The: Name given in English history to the re-establishment of monarchy in May 1660, when Charles II returned to the throne after the fall of the Commonwealth.

Revolution: The American in 1775; the English (also known as the Glorious Revolution) in 1688-89; the French from 1789 to 95; the South American from 1810 to 24; and the Russian in 1917.

Romanoff: Name given to an old Russian family from which sprang the last dynasty of Russian Czars, the first Czar of which was Michael Fedorovich (1613-1645) and the last Nicholas II (1868-1917).

Roman Catholics: That section of the Christian Church which acknowledges the supremacy of the Pope.

Roundheads: The name given contemptuously by the cavaliers to the Parliamentary party during the Civil War on account of their wearing closely cropped hair—a practice of the lower classes.

Russo Japanese War: Started by Japan in 1904 on the refusal of Russia to evacuate Korea and Manchuria. The War ended in Sept. 1905 on American mediation, Japan gaining most of her demands by the Treaty of Portsmouth.

Savoy, House of: An ancient royal house of Europe, represented until June, 1946 by the King of Italy.

Scutage: A tax paid by feudal tenants in lieu of personal service to the overlord.

Serfs: A class of labourers under the feudal system, who were attached to the soil and could be transferred with it. They differed from slaves in that they could not be sold from one person to another except with the estate on which they worked.

Seven Years' War: The third and the most terrible struggle between Frederick the Great of Prussia, and Maria Theresa, Empress of Austria for the possession of Silesia is 1756. It embroiled practically the whole of Europe and had far-reaching effects on the destinies of England, France and Prussia.

Shameful Peace, The: The Treaty of Northampton.

Sino-Japanese Wars: First War 1894-5, ended in Japanese victory and the annexation of Formosa. Another clash occurred when in 1931-32, Japan occupied Manchuria. The third and the longest, Sino-Japanese war started in 1937 and ended in Japanese surrender in Sept. 1945.

South Sea Bubble : A disastrous financial project intended to relieve the national debt but resulting in speculation and ruination of thousands of people in England in 1720.

Spanish Civil War : Started in 1936 with the uprising of General Franco against the Republican Government of Spain. Franco was secretly helped by Italy and Germany and was able to overthrow the republic in 1939.

State-General : Name of the assembly of nobles, clergy and bourgeoisie in France prior to the Revolution of 1789.

Succession Wars : (i) War of the Spanish Succession (1701-1713) and (ii) War of the Austrian Succession (1740-48).

Subsidiary Alliance : System introduced by Lord Wellesley to establish British supremacy in the whole of India by subordinating the Indian princes to the British Government in all matters of external policy and by making them undertake to maintain British troops within their respective territories.

Sword-in-hand Address : Presented to Queen Anne of England in 1713 by the Highland Chiefs.

Templars : A religious order of knights founded in 1119 to protect pilgrims to the Holy Land from Saracen attacks.

Thermopylae : A pass in Northern Greece; memorable as the scene of Leonidas's heroic attempt with his 300 Spartans to stem the advancing Persians under Xerxes (480 B.C.).

Thirty Year's War : A series of wars arising out of one another in Germany during 1618-48. Started as a quarrel between the Catholic and Protestant States, it developed into a struggle for supremacy in Europe between France and the Hapsburg Empire. The War ended with the peace of Westphalia in 1648, which secured the principle of Religious tolerance and recognised the independence of Switzerland.

Treaties of Paris : Name given to a number of peace Treaties signed in Paris, the chief being those concluding the Seven Year's War (1763), the American War of Independence, the Napoleonic Wars, the Crimean War and the Great War of 1914-18.

Triple Entente : Made in self-defence by Britain, France and Russia against the Triple Alliance of Germany, Austria and Italy:

Triumvirate : An alliance between Caesar, Pompey and Crassus for the purpose of dividing powers between them: (59 B.C.) The second triumvirate was that of Mark Antony, Octavius, and Lepidus (43 B.C.).

Trojan War : A 10-year war between the Greeks and Trojans for the recovery of Helen, who was abducted by Paris, a Trojan Prince. A legendary version of the struggle is the subject of Homer's 'Iliad.'

Verdun, Treaty of : By this treaty, the three sons of Louis I.e Debonnair became emperors, one of Italy, the other of France, and third of the region between the Rhine and Elbe, all independent States.

Vijayanagar Dynasty : The ancient Hindu dynasty with its capital at Vijayanagar, founded in 1336 A.D. by the two brothers Hari Hara and Bukka. It was ended in 1564 by the defeat of Raja Ram, the last king, at the battle of Talikota.

Wars of the Roses : The civil wars between Houses of York and Lancaster in England, so called from the badges of the two being a white rose and a red rose respectively (1453 to 1486). The wars ended with the accession of Henry VII, who united in his person the rival claims.

Yeomen of the Guard : A military corps which was founded by Henry VII in 1485 and since then has constituted the bodyguard of English Sovereigns. The "Beefeaters," though a different corps, share the uniform of the Yeomen.

CONSTITUTIONAL TERMS

Abdication : Renunciation of an office or dignity, usually throne by a ruler or sovereign, whether voluntarily or by compulsion.

Adjournment : Postponement of the sitting of a legislature or public corporation until another fixed time.

Administrative Laws : The laws made and the judicial decisions arrived at by the Executive under powers delegated to them by the Legislature. These are a special feature of the British constitution. But such extensions of the legislative powers of the Executive have been strongly attacked by many lawyers.

Adult Suffrage : The right of voting in political elections granted to every adult person, male or female, without distinction of caste, creed, colour or holding of property etc.

Allegiance : The duty of obedience owed by a subject to a Sovereign. The Sovereign in return gives protection.

Amnesty : An act of government granting exemption from prosecution and punishment to political offenders or other convicts. The power usually vests in the head of the state.

Anarchy : The term means the negation of ordered government. This term has been adopted by a phrase of revolutionary socialism associated with the names of Proudhon and Bakunin (leaders of anarchist movement.) Their ideal of society was of one without a government of any kind when every man should be a law unto himself.

Autarchy : Political self-rule, absolute sovereignty or despotism. It is distinct from **AUTARKY**, which means economic self-sufficiency.

Authoritarian Government . A type of dictatorship, not necessarily of an individual. It is something opposed to the democratic type of government. The authority of the state is supreme and the individual has few or no rights of his own.

Autocracy : A form of Government in which political power is absolute and unlimited. Such governments do not exist today, but they were known to ancient Greece and India. The Czarist Government of Russia till 1917 could be called an autocracy.

Autonomy : A word of Greek origin meaning “ Self-law ” or ‘home-rule.’ The Government of India Act 1935 established provincial autonomy in the eleven governor’s provinces of India.

Back Bencher : A legislator who occupies a back seat on account of his comparative juniority or insignificance in his party or the legislature.

Ballot : Secret voting.

Bicameral System : Form of Government in which the legislature consists of two houses, the lower and the upper. The House of Commons and the House of Lords in Britain or the House of Representatives and the Senate in U S A. are examples. Both the houses have defined powers and the concurrence of both is generally essential for the enactment of a legislation. The function of an upper house is usually to exercise a restraining influence on the activities of the lower house, which is more broadbased, is representative of younger elements and also enjoys larger powers.

Bloc : A word of French origin meaning ‘mass’ or ‘group.’ It is the grouping together of members of legislature or of political workers of different parties for a common political action. It is a common feature of multi-party governments. France, with her too many political parties provides a fertile ground for the formation of ‘ bloc.’

Bureaucracy : Government by an elaborate system of administrative departments run by a hierarchy of officials like the I C. S rule in India. The system has a tendency to become unwieldy and laborious in its operation. It produces red tape or over-systematization and is often charged with rigidity, conservatism and a spirit of routine.

Bye-Election : Election to a seat rendered vacant during the running term of an elected body. This might occur on

Cabinet : The Committee of ministers holding the most important portfolios. They are responsible to the legislature and work under a system of joint responsibility. Meetings of the cabinet are usually presided over by the Prime Minister. It is the cabinet which decides the governments' policy. Strict secrecy is one of the most important rules of conduct for a cabinet minister.

Casting Vote : The deciding vote of a chairman in the case of a tie.

Caucus : It means the powerful directive nucleus of a political party. It is an unofficial grouping of the influential members, who actually control the policy of the party.

Centralism : A system of government under which the entire territory of a state is controlled from the centre. It is something opposed to federalism, where the component units enjoy a considerable amount of autonomy.

Civil List : It is a peculiar feature of the British constitution and means the statement presented annually to Parliament showing the expenses of the Sovereign's household. In India, *Civil List* is a publication containing the names and other details of government officials in civil employ.

Closure : A motion to stop a debate in a legislative chamber by the vote of the whole house.

Coalition : A combination of two or more political parties with a view to forming a government. This usually happens either in times of a national emergency or when a number of parties are returned to the legislature, but none of them commands a clear majority.

Cold War : Hostility fanned between two countries who are nominally at peace by various kinds of propaganda and mud throwing at each other, specially in the press.

Common Law : That part of the English law, which is not embodied in legislation. In contrast with legislation, common law consists of rules of law embodied in judicial decisions. Hence it is also called "case law" or "judge-made law". It serves as an important agency to keep the law in harmony with the needs of the community.

Communal Representation : Representation of different communities on population basis. The minority communities in such an arrangement, enjoy some sort of weightage or reservation. The system tends to create separatist mentality among the minority groups and leads to national disintegration.

Confederation : Alliance of states for a particular common purpose. It is distinct from a federation in as much as it emphasises greater amount of independence to its constituents.

Constituency : Body of electors who form an electoral district to elect representatives to a legislature.

Constituent Assembly : A representative body of people created with the specific purpose of drawing up a constitution for their country.

Constitution : The fundamental laws of a state, laying down the system of government and defining the relations of the legislature, executive and judiciary to each other and to the citizens.

Convention : A term denoting an assembly of representative persons delegated to decide important questions. It also means a 'temporary treaty.'

Corporatism or the Corporate State : A state in which the members are organized and represented not on a local basis as citizens, but as producers working in a particular trade, industry or profession. Italy under Mussolini experimented with this system.

Coup D'etat : A violent and sudden change of government usually by a military administration.

Democracy : A form of government in which the supreme power is vested in the people collectively and is administered by them directly or by their representatives. The ideal of democracy is "a government of the people, by the people and for the people". Modern democracy has taken the form of a republic or a constitutional monarchy, the basic principle being always the sovereignty of the people, expressed by the will of the majority. The existence of two or more organised political parties is essential for the successful functioning of representative democracy.

Despotism : An arbitrary government by one invested with absolute power—a tyrant.

Diarchy : A form of government in which the supreme power of the state is vested in two persons or bodies. In other words, it is a dual government. The Government of India Act, 1919 introduced a system of diarchy in the Indian provinces.

Dictatorship : Absolute rule of a person or group without the consent of the governed.

Disenfranchisement : To be deprived of the right to vote.

Election : The act of choosing a representative by voting.

Federation : The act of uniting in a league for common political action in which all units are equal and each is self-governing and none is leader.

Filibustering : The practice of making long speeches in a legislature with a view to obstructing legislation.

Franchise : The right to vote.

Fundamental Rights : Basic rights of an individual, e.g., rights to equality, liberty of expression and association, rights relating to religion, property, also, cultural and educational rights and rights to constitutional remedies etc. Modern practice is to make these rights a part of a country's written constitution, if there is one. They form part III of the Constitution of India.

Government : Government is the organisation or the machinery of the state. It is the collective name for the agency, magistracy or organisation through which the will of the state is formulated, expressed and realised. The Executive, the legislature and the judiciary are the three main organs of a Government.

Hagiarchy : A form of Government composed of priests.

Impeachment : Special trial of the head of a state or a minister before Parliament or other high tribunal for offences against the state. In bicameral legislatures, the upper house generally acts as the tribunal and the lower house as the prosecutor.

Initiative : The right vested in the people to initiate legislation. If a prescribed percentage of the electors can unanimously suggest a measure to the legislature, it can be taken up for regular enactment. The Swiss and the German (Weimer) constitutions contain provisions for "initiative".

Joint Responsibility : It is one of the guiding principles of the cabinet system of Government. Although every minister is in charge of a particular portfolio, all ministers are jointly responsible to the legislature and a vote of no-confidence against one is a censure on all.

Limited Monarchy : A system of Government in which the sovereign enjoys only limited powers, he acts through his ministers, who are responsible to the legislature and derive their powers from the will of the people. The British monarchy is a typical example.

Lobbying : The practice of trying to canvass support for a particular measure or view-point by means of personal contacts with the members of a legislature. This is usually done in the "lobbies" to which the public has access. Hence the term "lobbying".

Lord Chancellor : One of the most important member of the British Cabinet. He is the highest judicial officer of the state under the Crown and also presides over the meetings of the House of Lords.

Lord Paramount : The term is used for the British King.

Lord President of the Council : A cabinet minister who presides over the meetings of the Privy Council. He may be a member of the Commons or of the Lords.

Lords : Members of the upper house (House of Lords) in the British Parliament. They represent the entire peerage of United Kingdom including lords spiritual, such as the Archbishops and certain Bishops. The Lords exercise only a suspensive veto over the powers of the House of Commons. Ordinarily their concurrence is necessary for enactments by the Parliament, but they cannot prevent the Commons from having their way if the latter decide to do so.

Mandamus, Writ of : A command issued from the King's Bench Division of the High Court addressed to any person, corporation or inferior court requiring them to do something which appertains their office.

Manifesto : It is a declaration of policy by a political party, issued on the eve of a general election: In it, the party defines its future programme and the issues on which it proposes to contest the election.

Money Bills : Bills involving financial commitments on the part of the Government. Such bills must necessarily originate in the Lower House of the British Parliament and the Lords have no right to withhold them for more than a month. Whether a particular bill is a money bill or not is decided by the Speaker of the House of Commons, whose verdict is final.

Nation, Nationality, People and the State : A nation is a people plus the growth of political life which seeks its immediate and necessary fulfilment in the establishment of a state; and the spirit or sentiment which goads a people to develop a political life which is ultimately to fructify in the establishment of a state, is nationality. So the logical evolution of a state, is usually like this : 'a people imbued with a spirit of nationality soon develops a political life which culminates in the establishment of a state, whereupon the people becomes transformed into a nation.'

Oligarchy : According to Aristotle's classification of government, oligarchy is the perverted form of aristocracy, which is the rule of a few. Whenever the few start ruling in their own interest at the cost of the general public, whose welfare should be their first concern, such a rule degenerates into oligarchy. It is cosidered to be a bad form of government.

Order in-Council. A term of British Constitution. It means an order issued directly under the seal of the British Sovereign, on the advice of his Privy Council. In actual practice, it is an order issued by the minister, with the consent of the Privy Council, but in the name of the King.

Ordinance. That which is ordinated by authority. Ordinances were a common feature of the British rule in India.

Parliament. The supreme legislature of Britain. It consists of the two houses of Commons and Lords. Although the

term is British in origin, many other countries have also started calling their legislatures 'Parliament.' Free India is one of such countries.

Parliament Act of 1911. The effect of this act was to curtail the powers of the House of Lords and shift the legal sovereignty of Parliament to the House of Commons. Its main provisions were : (1) Money Bills passed by the Commons to become law one month after their passage irrespective of the Lord's wishes. (2) Speaker's certificate regarding the nature of the Bill to be final (3) On other bills, the suspensive veto of the Lords reduced to two years at the maximum and (4) The life time of Parliament reduced to five years from seven.

Petition of Rights. This petition was drawn up by the British Parliament in 1628 and presented to Charles I. It embodied constitutional demands which were conceded by the King under popular pressure and became a statute called "The Bill of Rights". Petitions of right are in vogue even today. A person who intends proceeding against the King, must do so by a "petition of rights", i. e. commence by petition for leave to initiate proceedings.

Plebiscite. A vote of the entire electorate taken on a clearly defined issue. The Treaty of Versailles (1919) decided that in order to decide frontier questions and nationality etc. in areas of mixed population, a plebiscite should be conducted. The Saar Plebiscite in 1933 and the proposed plebiscite in Kashmir are examples.

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 his special position, e. g. a city and a university vote may be enjoyed by the same person. This was a common practice in Britain, but has now practically disappeared on account of strong public opinion against it.

Plutocracy. It is the form of government which is controlled by the wealthy section of the community, and the wealthy people have the dominant voice in it.

Point of Order. A doubtful or controversial issue raised by a member of a legislature which requires clearing up by discussion. The issues are usually of a legal or constitutional nature.

Poll Term denoting the voting or taking of votes at an election.

Polling Booths. Places or stations where voting takes place.

Preamble. Preliminary or introductory part of the statute. It contains a brief statement of the need and advisability of having a particular statute or constitutional law passed.

Prerogative. Exclusive right or privilege belonging to some one by virtue of his status.

Privy Council. It is an enlarged council of the British King's advisers chosen from among the princes of blood, archbishops and elder statesmen of United Kingdom and Commonwealth countries. The Privy Council, as a whole, seldom meets. Its advisory functions are performed by the Cabinet, whose members are ex-officio members of the Privy Council.

Privy Purse. Allowance from public revenue for monarch's private expenses.

Privy Seal. Seal affixed to documents that do not require the Great Seal. The keeper of this royal seal is called the Lord Privy Seal.

Proportional Representation. An electoral system designed to ensure that minority votes are not wasted, and the distribution of seats corresponds to that of votes. Candidates are elected according to party lists, and votes given to a party in any constituency not sufficient for the election of a candidate are reserved for a second scrutiny, in which these "remainder votes" are added up. Thus, if the total is sufficient for the election of one or more candidates, they are taken from a national list of their party presented in addition to the local lists, and become members of parliament without a constituency. The system is in use in Switzerland and some smaller European countries.

Prorogation. Interruption of a sitting of a legislature. Later on, when the House re-assembles, the proceedings start from the point where it was left off.

Proviso. Clause of stipulation or limitation in a document.

Provincial Autonomy. This was a special feature of the Govt. of India Act, 1935. The system was, for the first time, introduced in the Governor's provinces in 1937. Under this the provinces enjoy complete autonomy as far as the provincial subjects are concerned and have concurrent jurisdiction with the centre on subjects of common interest. The Government is parliamentary in structure and functions through popularly elected ministers.

Quorum. The minimum number of members whose presence is essential in order to constitute a house, which can lawfully transact official business.

Quo Warranto? The title of a writ by which a person or corporate body is summoned to show by what warrant a particular franchise or office is claimed.

Reparations. The indemnities to the victorious Powers by the defeated ones, like those demanded under the Versailles and other treaties when the World War 1914-1918 ended.

Ratification : A constitutional device providing safeguard against any possible misuse of executive authority by the head of a state. The power usually vests in the legislature. For example, all diplomatic appointments made by the President of U. S. A. are to be ratified by the Senate.

Recall : Summoning back by the electorate of a representative who ceases to represent their views, by some sort of a direct vote of no-confidence: The Weimer Constitution of Germany had provision for 'recall.'

Referendum : The principle or practice of submitting directly to the vote of the entire electorate, legislative or political questions of a controversial nature.

Republic : A form of government in which there is no hereditary sovereign. The supreme power of the state is vested in representatives elected by the people as in the United States of America or France: The system of government in a modern republic is parliamentary democracy except that the sovereign is replaced by an elected President.

Reserved Subjects: The Government of India Act 1919, transferred a number of administrative subjects to the provinces, which were further sub-divided into "Reserved" and "Transferred" subjects. Reserved subjects were to be administered by the governor with the help of Executive Councillors, appointed by the Crown and thus responsible, ultimately, to the Secretary of State and the British Parliament.

Residuary Powers. These are a feature of federal constitutions, where the powers are divided between the federal centre and the federating units under a system of three lists Federal, State and Concurrent. Powers relating to new sphere of administration, not covered by either of the three lists, are known as residuary powers. These usually vest in the federating units as in U. S. A.

Rule of Law : One of the most important characteristics of English jurisprudence: Its implication is that no man is punishable or can lawfully be made to suffer in body or good except for a distinct breach of law established in the ordinary legal manner before an ordinary court of law: It also implies "equality before law" and the absolute supremacy of regular law over arbitrary authority:

Safeguard : A special provision in the constitution of a country intended to protect the interests of a minority or backward community.

Sanction : In constitutional parlance, sanction means the authority behind a Government. For example, popular will or support is the sanction behind a democratic form of Government.

Select Committee: A committee of a few members of a legislative Assembly who are selected by the whole house to consider a measure in all its aspects and report their findings back to the Assembly: The procedure is adopted in order to have the benefit of closer examination and scrutiny by a deliberative body of chosen few.

Self-Determination: The right of every distinct people of a nation to determine the question of its independence, its form of Government and its political destiny. The principle is a development of the mono-national state theory propounded by John Stuart Mill. "All well defined national aspirations should be accorded the utmost possible satisfaction." In practical application, however, the principle has its limitations and cannot be taken too far.

Soviet (Russian word for 'Council') The original Soviets were strike committees elected by the Russian workers during the 1905 revolution. After the deposition of the Czar, local soviets were set up by peasants, soldiers and industrial workers; and these elected delegates to an All Russian Congress of Soviets, which under Bolshevik leadership took over the Government in November, 1919. Soviets have been set up in many other countries during periods of crisis, e.g. in Germany in 1948 and Hungary in 1956. The British Councils of Action during the General strike in 1926, were also Soviets under a different name.

The Soviet system of Government in Russia is based fundamentally on the small soviet in workshop, factory, village or town. In 1935, the Russian Constitution was amended to abolish indirect election, so that now all Soviets are elected directly by the people. The lower Soviet no longer controls the higher ones and the Supreme Soviet takes the place of Parliament in other countries.

Sovereignty. It is the original, supreme and unlimited power of a state to impose its will upon all persons, associations and things within its jurisdiction. Freedom from external control is an essential element of Sovereignty.

Speaker. The President of a Legislative Assembly elected by the members of that Assembly. The moment a speaker is elected, he is supposed to abandon his party allegiance and acts as an impartial person. The bona fides of a speaker's rulings are to be respected by the members of all parties. A convention has grown that a speaker's election should be uncontested and also that if he seeks re-election to the House in a general election, he should not be opposed by a rival candidate.

Spoils System. The system is a special feature of the American constitution. The occasion for its operation arises when a candidate of the opposition party is elected President. In

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such a case, the President can appoint an entirely new set of personnel to work out his programmes. The old set goes out of service with the outgoing president. At times, the number of such appointments runs into thousands, but their nature is generally political. Recent tendency is to discourage the spoils system in the interest of continuity and efficiency in administration.

Standing Committee. A regular committee of selected legislators attached to a particular ministry. Their function is to advise that ministry in all matters of importance.

Standing Orders. The name given to permanent regulations made by either house of Parliament or other body for the conduct of its proceedings, and enduring permanently unless rescinded.

State. The term has been variously defined. According to Professor Garner, "The state, as a concept of Political Science and Constitutional Law, is a community of persons more or less numerous, permanently occupying a definite portion of territory, independent of external control and possessing an organized Government to which the great body of inhabitants render habitual obedience". President Woodrow Wilson of America called the State "a people organised for law within a definite territory". Population, territory, organization (Government) and Sovereignty are the four essential elements of a state and from this point of view, it can briefly be defined as 'an association of people settled on a fixed territory, organised as a political unit based on Governmental system free from all outside control and possessing its own Sovereignty.'

Statute. A written law expressly enacted by the legislature (as distinguished from a customary law or law of use and want).

Suffrage. The right or the exercise of the right of voting in political affairs.

Suffragette. Name given to a woman who belonged to the Woman's Suffrage Movement in the early parts of this century. They agitated to obtain the Parliamentary vote. Most important leaders of this movement were Mrs. Panhurst and her daughters etc.

Supplementary Question. A question that flows from the answer of the main question and can be asked without any previous notice.

Totalitarian. Single party, dictatorial system of Government, based on the "totality of the state," as opposed to the liberal conception of state which gives to the state only certain spheres of life and reserves others to the free decision of the individual. National Socialist Germany and Fascist Italy were types of Totalitarian states.

Transferred Subjects. Subjects which under the Diarchical system introduced by the Government of India Act 1919, were transferred to the charge of elected ministers in the provinces.

Tyranny. Absolute monarchy cruelly administered.

Unicameral System. A system of Government in which there is only one chamber of legislature.

Unitary State. A state in which all authority resides in the central Government. The units and local governments derive their power from and are controlled by the centre.

Utopia. Name given by Sir Thomas More to the imaginary Commonwealth described in his *Utopia* 1516, and represented as possessing a perfect political organization. The term has come to be applied to similar dream countries of other writers like Campanellas' 'City of the Sun'; Plato's Republic and Bacon's "Atlantis" etc.

Veto. The right to reject a proposed law or decision. The right of veto has been discussed in recent times in connection with the right of any one of the five principal powers to reject a proposed decision by the Security Council of U. N. O. The frequent use of veto by Russia has aroused considerable adverse comment in international circles.

Vote. Expressions of a choice or opinion, especially at an election. Voting is done either by show of hands or by ballot. Votes may be cast under the following systems :-(i) *The Single non Transferable Vote.* Under this system a voter has one vote only which he can cast for any one of the candidates who seek his suffrage. (ii) *The Distributive Vote.* The elector has as many votes as there are seats, but can give one vote only to any one candidate.

(iii) *The Cumulative System.* The elector has as many votes as there are seats, but may plumb them all for one candidate or distribute them over two or more candidates.

Weightage. A kind of safeguard given to a minority or backward community by allowing it more representation than it is entitled to.

Whip. A party official appointed to enforce discipline among members and ensure their attendance in the legislature specially at the time of a division on bills.

DIPLOMATIC TERMS:

Accession Clause : An enabling clause added to the text of an international treaty facilitating the accession of absentee powers later on.

Accord : Matters which are not of special importance to call for a formal treaty or convention are often arranged among powers by means of an "accord" or "agreement".

Acte Final . A formal summary or statement of the proceedings of a conference drawn up at its conclusion for the sake of convenience. Other names for such a summary are 'Acte', 'protocol', 'procès verbal final' or 'Act Final'.

Ad Referendum : It means 'subject to the approval of my government.' When a negotiator accepts a proposition without committing his government, such an acceptance is 'ad referendum'.

Agent Provocateur : A person sent, during political or social conflicts, into the adversary's ranks to provoke, in the disguise of an adherent, compromising actions.

Agre'ment or Agre'ation : Before a government officially announces the appointment of an ambassador or Minister, the approval of the government to whom the ambassador is to be accredited, is taken. The approval is known as the Agre'ment or Agre'ation.

Aggression : A first act of unprovoked hostility for motives other than self-defence. A term first used officially in the Treaty of Versailles, mentioning "The Aggression of Germany".

Ambassador : A diplomatic envoy of the highest order sent by one sovereign power to another. As personal representatives of their sovereigns, ambassadors enjoy many privileges and powers which extend also to their families and households.

Annexation : The act whereby a State takes possession of the territory of another State or of territory belonging to no state.

Armed Neutrality : Formed in 1780 by Russia, Sweden and Denmark to ensure free navigation of vessels and establish certain principles of blockade.

Armistice : A short suspension of hostilities by agreement between combatant parties.

Asylum : When a political refugee flies and takes protection in a foreign country, he is said to have taken 'Asylum'.

Attache : A junior member of an ambassador's suite. Attache's are of different types, e. g. Naval, Military, Air, Commercial, Cultural or Diplomatic attache's.

Bag, The : An ambassador abroad communicates with his government through written reports and despatches, which are put in mail bags for being carried by special couriers. Hence the name 'the Bag'.

Balance of Power : The idea that the strength of one group of powers should be equal to the strength of the other group, thus preventing any hegemony and ensuring peace,

Berlin-Baghdad Line : The idea of a German controlled political system stretching from Germany across the Balkans and Turkey to Baghdad and Mosul Oilfields. This was the slogan of German imperialism before and during the 1914-18 World War.

Blockade : The prevention of enemy shipping and of supplies reaching the enemy by sea. A blockade may be exercised against the enemy's coasts only and not against the shores of neutrals.

Buffer State : A small neutral State between two greater States to prevent direct clashes between them.

Charge D' Affaires : When the head of a diplomatic mission is absent from his post, he entrusts the conduct of his mission to the most senior officer of his-staff, who for the time being becomes the head. Such person is known as Charge D'Affaires.

Compromise D' Arbitrage . When two powers agree to submit a dispute to arbitration and find it convenient to draw up an agreement defining the course of procedure to be followed, such an agreement is called 'Compromise D'Arbitrage'.

Concordat : A treaty between the Pope and another head of a State. It is tantamount to an international convention.

Condominium : Common rule of two or more nations in a territory. Anglo-Egyptian rule in Sudan is an example.

Consul : An official employed by the State to protect the interests of its citizens and to assist its trade, in a foreign country.

Contraband : Goods, the delivery of which to a belligerent by a neutral is forbidden by another belligerent, in times of war.

Convention : A less important form of treaty. Conventions are concluded between governments and not between heads of states.

Covenant : A mutual agreement entered into by two or more governments. e.g. the covenant of the League of Nation.

Corridor, Polish : A narrow stretch of land giving Poland an outlet to the Baltic Sea in 1919. Germany, which disliked the arrangement, occupied the Corridor in 1939.

Credentials : A letter entitling the bearer to credit of confidence. Credentials are presented by newly appointed ambassadors to the heads of the States, to which they are accredited.

Curzon Line : Eastern boundary of Poland as devised by the Allies in 1919.

Dawes Plan (1923) : A scheme to stabilize German currency and reparation payment in proportion to the fall in prices. This was replaced by the Young Plan in 1930.

De facto Recognition : An act whereby a new government or state without being recognised formally, is made a partner in international relations.

De jure Recognition : The formal recognition of a new state.

Demarche : A French word meaning a diplomatic "offer, suggestion, proposal, overture, measure or step" according to the circumstances in which it is used.

De'tente : It means 'relaxation of tension.'

Diplomatic Illness : If an ambassador or diplomatic agent finds it convenient to absent himself from a function or meeting, he pleads illness in order not to cause undue offence. Such feigned illness is known as 'Diplomatic Illness.'

Diplomatic Service : Name given to that department of the Civil Service of a country which is specially charged with the conduct of relations with the governing powers of other State. It is this important office which selects and sends to other country ambassadors, envoys extraordinary and ministers plenipotentiary, or *Charge D' Affaires*.

Dominion Status : The political status of a co-equal member of the British Commonwealth of Nations. Dominions were described as "autonomous Communities within the British Empire, equal in status, in no way subordinate one to another in any respect 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." But now with the free and equal association of the Republic of India as a full-fledged member of the Commonwealth, without any allegiance to the crown, the whole conception of Commonwealth has changed.

Durand Line : The line demarcating the limits of neutral territory between British India and Afghanistan.

Economic and social Council, The : An organ of the U. N. O., consists of representatives of 18 member states elected for three years, initiates studies of international economic, social, cultural, educational, health and related matters and may make recommendations on them. It operates largely through its specialised commissions, like the economic and unemployment, transport and communications, fiscal, statistical, population, social, human rights, status of women and narcotic drugs commissions. It also co-ordinates the activities of such specialised agencies as the I. L. O., the F. A. O. and the U. N. E. S. C. O

Embargo : A temporary order to prevent the arrival or departure of ships. It is also used for the temporary stoppage of a trade.

Embassy : The charge or functions of an ambassador.

EnClair : When a telegram is in plain language and not in secret code, it is known as telegram 'EnClair'.

Envoy : A diplomatic emissary sent to transact business in a foreign country—usually a diplomat of the second order.

Evacuee : One, who, in a war, is conveyed to a safer place.

Extradition : Delivering up by one government to another, of fugitives from justice.

Extra-territoriality : The immunity from the jurisdiction of local laws and courts enjoyed by sovereigns and diplomats in foreign countries.

Fin De Non Recevoir : The diplomatic practice of rejecting an official complaint without looking into its merits.

Free Ports : Ports in which facilities are guaranteed to foreign governments to land and despatch goods free of taxation or regulations.

Freedom of the air : Defined as (a) Freedom of passage ; (b) Freedom of facilities (use of air ports and weather reports etc.) ; and (c) Freedom of trade.

Freedom of the seas : Freedom for commercial ships to sail in time of peace and war, on the high seas outside of a country's territorial waters, wherever they will, without any hinderance.

General Assembly : The General Assembly of the U. N. O., consists of the representatives of all member states. It may discuss and make recommendations on any matter within the scope of the Charter, except those already referred to the Security Council. Decisions on important questions are made by a two-third majority of members voting, but on other questions by a simple majority.

Geneva Protocol : A statement adopted by the League of Nations in 1924 defining an 'aggressive war' as one in which the attacker refused to submit the question at issue to mediation and attempted to defy sanctions applied against him.

Gentleman's Agreement : An informal agreement between states, based on good faith or the overriding interests of both parties.

Good Offices. When a Power offers its service for the purpose of easing controversy or avoiding war by peaceful negotiations between two countries, it is said to have offered its 'Good offices'.

Hague Tribunal : Another name for the Permanent Court of International Justice which sits at the Hague.

Imperial Preference : The system whereby the States within the British Empire exempt goods from Empire States from import duties or charge lower duties.

International Labour Organisation : An international organization created in 1919 for furtherance of the principles of social justice by laying down equitable conditions of labour and inducing governments to incorporate those conditions in their national legislation. It works through its General Conference, the Governing Body and the International Labour Office. Though affiliated to the League of Nations, the I.L.O. was an independent body. It is now affiliated to the U.N.O. on a similar basis.

International Law That body of law or collection of rules that civilized states regard as binding in their relations with each other. These exist in the form of numerous treaties, pacts, conventions and widely recognized international practices. A move to codify international law is in the offing in U.N. Circles.

League of Nations : International organisation established in 1920 under a covenant of 26 articles forming part I of the Peace Treaty of Versailles, with Geneva as headquarters. The main purpose of the League was the preservation of international peace and security and the settlement of all international disputes either by arbitration or conciliation. The organs through which the League worked were—the Assembly, the Council, the Secretariate, the Permanent Court of International Justice and International Labour Office.

The League failed because of the rivalries of its members, the defective procedure of securing unanimity on all important matters, the inherent looseness in its organisation and above all the lack of an executive force of its own.

The League did succeed to a considerable extent in the humanitarian field, e.g., in assisting refugees, suppressing epidemics, drug and white slave traffic and in bettering the lot of workers through the I.L.O.

Its place has now been taken by the United Nations Organisation.

Lebensraum : German—‘living space’. Implies Germany’s stress on her over-population as the reason for her expansionist imperialism.

Legation . The official residence of a legate or ambassador.

Little Assembly : The Interim Committee of the General Assembly of U.N.O., which functions when the Assembly is not in session. It was set up in 1947 at the second session of the General Assembly held at Lake Success. Countries of the Soviet Group boycotted the Little Assembly as a move to perpetuate the General Assembly, and nullify the veto in the Security Council—something contrary to the U.N. Charter according to them.

Lytton Report : Prepared by the League of Nations Commission headed by Lord Lytton. It declared Manchuria's separation from China by Japan as unwarranted, without any connection with its self-defence and recommended non-recognition of Manchuria.

Machmahan Pledges : Pledges alleged to be given by Sir H. Machmahan on behalf of the British Government to the Arabs guaranteeing Arab Independence in return for support in the Great War (1914-18).

Mandate System : The system under which the League of Nations entrusted the administration of former German and Italian colonies to certain powers. The League exercised a supervisory authority over the mandated territories, which has now been taken over by the Trusteeship Council of the U. N. O.

Mediation : To interpose between parties as a friend of both. This is something more formal than 'Good Offices', as a mediator has to conduct the negotiations himself.

Memoire : A type of memorandum addressed by the head of a diplomatic mission to another head or Foreign Secretary without formal introduction or signature. This is usually done at the end of an interview recording a summary of the representations made verbally.

Mise En Demeure : When a government confronts another government with the situation "take it or leave it," or when it insists on a definition of intention, it is called a Mise en Demeure.

Modus Vivendi : A temporary agreement which it is intended to replace afterwards by a more formal and precise convention.

Most Favoured Nation Clause : A clause frequently inserted in commercial agreements between states whereby the contracting parties agree to grant one another's goods custom rates as favourable or even better than those granted by them to any other power.

Neutrality : Non participation in a war between other countries.

New Order, Nazi : Hitler's scheme for the permanent exploitation of that part of Europe which had been or would be overrun. The Germans were to be the *Herrenvolk* or master people under the scheme and others were to occupy an inferior status.

Non-Aggression Pact : An agreement between States not to attack one another and to decide all disputes peacefully.

Non-Belligerency : The position of the country which is technically neutral, but is otherwise supporting one of the belligerents.

Non-Intervention : A fictitious policy invented during the course of the Spanish Civil War (1935-39), by which the

principal powers undertook not to intervene, but in practice did so one way or the other.

Open Door Policy: Admission, specially for commercial purposes, to the nationals of all countries on equal terms.

Permanent Court of International Justice: An international court set up at the Hague (Holland) in 1921, in accordance with article 14 of the League Covenant. Its name has now been changed to International Court of Justice under the San Francisco Charter of the U. N. O.

Plenipotentiary: A person invested with full powers, especially a special ambassador or envoy to some foreign court.

Pogrom: A government-inspired or organised massacre or plunder specially applied to the persecution of Jews in Russia.

Protectorate: The relationship of a sovereign state to a territory not recognized as sovereign over which the former exercises a direct or indirect control, specially in the sphere of external relations. Uganda and Zanzibar are British Protectorates.

Protocol: The first draft of a diplomatic document used especially of treaties before their definitive signature.

Quai D'Orsay: Buildings housing the French Foreign office in Paris.

Quisling: A traitor co-operating with the enemies of one's country. Derived from the name of pro-Nazi politician Vidkun Quisling of Norway, who collaborated with Hitler and became a puppet Premier in 1942. He was shot as a traitor in 1945 and his name added to war vocabulary to describe those guilty of his brand of treason.

Raison D'E'tat: The interests of the state are paramount over all private morality.

Reciprocity: Exchange of commercial privileges between nations.

Reparations: Indemnities to be paid by a defeated nation for the damage done in a war.

Safe-Conduct: Permission to pass without let or hindrance through the enemy territory.

Sanctions: Penalties for the breach of a covenant or law. It has also come to mean an economic boycott of any power that resorts to war contrary to its undertakings.

Scorched Earth Policy: A military measure denying to the advancing enemy all advantages of occupation by removing or destroying everything that can be utilized by the enemy.

Security Council: One of the most important organs of the U. N. O. The Security Council consists of five permanent members (Britain, the U. S. A., Russia, France and China) and 6 others elected for two years by the General Assembly.

It is empowered to take all measures to preserve the peace of the world including persuasion, negotiation, mediation, conciliation, arbitration, economic sanctions, the interruption of communications and military measures. Its decision must receive the support of at least 7 of its members including all the permanent members, who thus exercise a right of veto.

Sphere of Influence : An area covering countries or parts of countries over which some other Power, without annexing them desires to exert exclusive influence.

Status Quo : As the position was before.

Suzerainty : Control, specially political, of one nation over another.

Territorial Waters : The seas adjacent to a country over which it has an exclusive jurisdiction. The general convention is that territorial rights extend for three miles from the coast line measured from low-water mark.

Trusteeship Council : Another organ of the U.N.O. consisting of members administering trust territories other than permanent members of the Security Council and 2 other members elected for three years. It is responsible for territories held under mandate, detached from enemy states after the world war or voluntarily placed under trusteeship by states responsible for their administration. It has taken the place of the Permanent Mandate Commission of the League of Nations.

Ultimatum : The last word before breaking off negotiations. It generally takes the form of a written intimation that if a satisfactory reply is not received by a certain time on a certain date, consequences will follow.

United Nations Organization : An association of states pledged to maintain international peace and security. The Organization is based on the Charter drawn up by the San Francisco Conference in 1945. The purposes of the U. N. Character are : (i) to maintain international peace and security ; (ii) to develop friendly relations among nations ; (iii) to achieve international co-operation in the solution of economic, social, cultural and humanitarian problems ; and (iv) to provide an international centre for the attainment of these ends.

The U. N. O. works through its six principal organs : (1) General Assembly ; (2) Security Council ; (3) Economic and Social Council ; (4) Trusteeship Council ; (5) International Court of Justice and (6) Secretariate.

U. N. E. S. C. O. ; Stands for the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation. Its aim is to promote international co-operation in educational, scientific and cultural projects.

U. N. R. R. A. Stood for the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration. Founded in 1943 as an agency of the United Nations to carry out relief work in war-devasted territories. Liberated countries were assisted with foreign exchanges to finance the import of essential goods. It also assisted the repatriation of displaced persons. The organisation was closed down in 1947.

Whiteman's Burden, The : An expression denoting the self-imposed 'burden' of the White imperialists to 'Civilize' the backward people of Asia and Africa. The phrase has assumed a sarcastic connotation.

W. H. O.: World Health Organization. A new agency of the U. N. O. created in 1948 with a view to promoting the health of the peoples of member nations.

Yankee Imperialism : A term 'denoting the imperialist tendencies of the United States of America. The hitherto isolationist policy of America confined the operation of this tendency to the republics of the Caribbean sea and of South America. But now with America's occupation of Japan, and her far-reaching commitments in Europe through the Marshall Plan and the North Atlantic Pact, her critics describe Yankee Imperialism as a world peril.

SOME MORE POLITICAL AND OTHER TERMS

Agony Column : The portion of a newspaper devoted to advertisement of a secret or personal nature.

All the Hacks : British Ministry of 1807.

All the Talents : Administration of Lord Grenville that included a number of talented people like Fox, Erskine and Fitzwilliam etc. (1806.)

Alsace Lorrain : A district of France on the north-eastern frontier. Politically known as a continuous bone of contention between France and Germany.

Amgot : A contraction for Allied Military Government of Occupied Territories.

Anschluss : Term used for the Union of Austria with Germany accomplished by Hitler on March 12, 1938.

Appeasement : Name given to the generally conciliatory policy of the British Government, under Neville Chamberlain, towards the Nazi-Fascist dictators, resulting in the Munich pact of 1938.

Aryan Decrees : Laws adopted by the National Socialists on the assumption of power in 1933, reducing the status of 'Non-Aryans' from citizens to subjects and gradually helots without rights or protection of any kinds.

Bag and Baggage Policy : Gladstone's Policy (1876) of turning Turkey out of Europe if it did not reform.

Balkan States : Comprise of Albania, Bulgaria, Greece, Rumania, Yugoslavia and European Turkey.

Baltic States : Collective name for the republics of Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania, which have now been admitted into the Soviet Union as Soviet Republics following a plebiscite after the last war.

Bastille : A state prison in Paris, demolished by infuriated mobs in the French Revolution of 1789. It was contemp-tuously described as "tyranny's stronghold".

Big Three : Stands for the United States of America, Russia and Britain, who have emerged as the top powers of the world after the last War. The addition of France makes them "Big Four" and that of China "Big Five".

Black Rod : Officers of the Royal household and of the House of Lords in Great Britain.

Black Shirts, The : Members of Mussolini's now defunct Fascist Party in Italy.

Blanket Meeting : A gathering of cotton-mill workers that marched with blankets on, in 1817 to lay their grievances before the British Parliament. They were called Blanketeers.

Blitzkrieg : "Lightning War" (German) The idea of rapidly destroying the enemy by one or several concentrated annihilating blows.

"Blue" Books : Government Publications generally. In particular, British Parliamentary papers bound in blue are known as "Blue Books".

Corresponding documents in France and China are known as "Yellow Books", in Germany and Portugal as "White Books", in Italy as "Green Books", in Spain as "Red Books" and in Japan as "Gray Books".

Blue Laws : Phrase used in U. S. A. to indicate laws which interfere with personal liberty.

Capitulation : Act of surrendering troops or territory to the enemy.

Caribbean Commission : An Anglo-U.S. Commission set up in March, 1942 to encourage and strengthen social and economic co-operation between the two countries in the Caribbean area.

Cash-And-Carry : The U.S.A. was neutral at the outbreak of the last war (1939) and had laid an embargo on the sale of arms to all belligerents. President Roosevelt tried to raise the embargo so that Britain and France could buy arms in the U.S.A. by cash payment and carry them on their own

ships. The provision was accordingly inserted in the Neutrality Act (1939).

Caudillo : Official title of General Franco of Spain, meaning 'Chief of State'.

Collective Security : The idea that all nations should guarantee collectively the security of each individual nation.

Commandos : Name given to picked British troops in World War II forming part of Combined Operations Command employed in raiding enemy-held territory with a view to collecting information and sabotaging enemy-controlled industry.

Conscientious Objector : One who refuses to join the fighting forces on moral or religious grounds.

Conscription : Compulsory enlistment for military service.

Cortes, The : The name given in Spain and Portugal to the representative assemblies of those nations.

Cripps Proposals : Brought by Sir Stafford Crips, on behalf of the British Government, for a settlement of the constitutional deadlock in India. These were :—

- (1) Dominion Status after the War ;
- (2) A Constituent Assembly to be set up immediately after the cessation of hostilities ;
- (3) Any province could stay out of the proposed Union ;
- (4) No important changes were to be introduced during the war, defence continuing to be the main charge of the British.

These proposals were rejected by all the Political parties and the Cripps Mission ended in a failure.

Dalai Lama : The Sovereign pontiff of Tibet.

Danzig Question, The : Danzig was a free port on the Baltic under the protection of the League of Nations upto 1939, when it was annexed by Hitler. In 1945, it was made a part of Poland.

Dauphin : The title of the French heir-apparent, during the days of the monarchy.

Diehard : One who opposes bitterly upto the end, applied particularly to a British conservative extremist.

Dossier : A state document containing confidential particulars about a person's record.

Downing Street : The seat of the British Government. No. 10 Downing Street is the official residence of the British Prime Minister and Houses the British Foreign Office.

Duce : The official title of Mussolini, meaning "Leader".

Encirclement : The term was used by the Nazis for the alleged policy of Britain trying to apply an economic and military blockade against Germany after the Munich Pact (1938).

Escheat : The reversion to the crown of an estate held in vassalage on the failure of heirs.

Espionage : An organized System of Spying.

Fifth Column : This term originated from the Spanish Civil War (1936-39), when General Franco's troops in four columns attacked Republican Madrid from outside, while his supporters organized internal uprisings. These internal fighters were styled the 'fifth column'. Since then, the term is used to describe enemy sympathisers within a country, who attack in the rears either with arms or by propaganda.

Five Year Plans : The economic plans of Soviet Russia drawn for five years each, with a view to attaining self-sufficiency in agricultural as well as industrial production. Three such plans were executed with signal success during the years 1927-42.

Four Year Plans : Nazi plans for the economic development of Germany, established in imitation of the Russian five year plans:

Fourth Estate : Name applied to the daily press. Burke was the first to coin this phrase while pointing to reporters in the press galleries as the fourth great power in the country.

Fuehrer : German word for 'Leader' and applied for Herr Hitler, the Dictator of Germany.

Gestapo : The German secret Political Police, with Himmler as its Chief.

G. P. U. The Russian Secret Political Police.

Group Area Bill : A bill passed by the South African Federation of which Dr. Malan is the Prime Minister, according to which, the various races in South Africa are to live in separate area. This bill has been passed to give effect to the notorious "apartheid" (racial segregation) policy of the Malan government, whose ultimate aim seems to be to squeeze the Indians out of South Africa.

Hansard : The name given to the official report of the proceedings of parliament.

Hara Kiri : Form of suicide by disembowelment prevalent among the military classes of Japan.

Hegemony : Leadership or Supremacy, specially of one state over a group of states.

Hindenburg Line : The name given to German Defence Line erected in 1916-17 and broken by the British and the French in 1918.

Hoare-Laval Project : A provisional agreement between Britain and France forcing Abyssinia to make concessions to Italy at the time of Italian invasion of Abyssinia in 1935. The proposals were, however, abandoned due to strong public opinion in England against them.

Hyde Park : One of the largest open spaces in London, used for open-air gatherings.

Investiture : The ceremony of conferring honour, office or other public recognition.

Iron Curtain : Term denoting the Stettin - Trieste line in Europe, the territories to the east of which are directly or indirectly controlled by the U. S. S. R. The lands behind the line are so sealed that the outside world knows very little as to what is happening there.

Iron Guard : Rumanian Nazi Organisation.

Junta : A de facto or self-constituted committee which meets for political purposes e. g., the Junta in Spain under General Franco in 1936.

Khedive : Title granted by the Sultan of Turkey in 1857 to his Viceroy in Egypt and held by the latter's successors until 1914.

Kremlin : A castle in Moscow, once the residence of the Tsars, now the seat of the Soviet Government.

Lend Lease Act : An arrangement whereby the Government of U. S. A. undertook to provide Britain and afterwards China, Russia, Turkey and a number of other allied states with munitions and other necessities as a loan to be liquidated on some future undefined date 'by payment or repayment in kind or property, or any other direct or indirect benefit which the President deems satisfactory.' The first act was passed in March 1941, before U. S. entry into the War. About 40 thousand million dollars worth of goods etc. were supplied under the arrangement, which in the end took the shape of a mutual aid programme, ignoring the balances of account and the sides to which they fell due. The arrangement came to an end on August 21, 1945.

Little Englisher : First used about 1870 for a person who is opposed to any expansion of the British Empire.

Luftwaffe : The German Air Force.

Lynching : The execution of an offender by a mob in U. S. A., derived from the name of a farmer of Virginia (1736-66). Recent cases of lynching have occurred in the Southern States as a means of keeping the Negroes in subjection.

Maginot Line : French system of fortifications along the Franco-German border built in 1927-35 under the direction

of Andre Maginot, the then War Minister. It was outflanked by the Germans in 1940.

Mannerheim Line : The Finnish Defence system on the Karelian Isthmus in the south-east of Finland, constructed at the suggestion of Field Marshall Mannerheim.

Maroons : The runaway slaves of Jamaica and Cuba.

Marshall Aid Plan : This is the name applied to European Recovery Programme initiated by General Marshall. Its object is to lend economic aid to anti-communist governments to enable them to stand on their own legs and ultimately to stand up as a bulwark against the direct or indirect influence of communism, which, otherwise, would have certainly drawn them towards communism and ultimately in the arms of Russia. This is also called the 4 year plan because the aid was to be extended over a period of 4 years. The countries that accepted American aid are :—

Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Eire, Greece, Iceland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, England and France.

'Mayflower' : Name of the vessel on which the 'Pilgrim Fathers' sailed from Plymouth, England and founded the first colony in New England (America) on September, 16, 1620.

Mikado : Official title of the Emperor of Japan.

Minorities, National : Racial, religious or linguistic sections of the population of a state, for the safeguarding of whose interests, special provisions are made.

Moratorium : Postponement of a debt or other liability usually for a definite period.

Morgenthau Plan, The : A proposal for the treatment of Germany put forward in 1944 by Mr. Henry Morgenthau Jan, the then U. S. Secretary of the Treasury. It provided for the annexation of territory west of Rhine by France and east of Order by Poland and the dismemberment of the rest of Germany into two independent states-Southern and Northern, with only small scale agriculture and industries permitted.

Moscow Trials : Held in 1936-37 to try 'conspirators against Stalin and the communist regime. The trials resulted in a general party purge including execution of distinguished communists like Zinovieff (ex-chairman of the Communist International), Kamonieff, Reykoff, Bukharin and others.

National Anthem : A patriotic song employed on official occasions, e.g., 'God Save The King' of Britain or 'Jana Gana Mana' of India ; "The star-spangled Banner" of the U.S.A.; 'the *Marsellaise*' of France etc.,

Nationalization: Taking possession and management by the State of land, trades and industries etc. with or without compensation.

Nation Of Shopkeepers: A phrase attributed to Napoleon, but first used by Adam Smith in his 'Wealth of Nations' to characterise the British nation.

National Debt: A debt incurred by the Central Government of a country for financing a war or to implement a scheme of national reconstruction.

Naturalization: The word is used for the admission of a foreign national to the citizenship of a country he wants to adopt.

Negus: The title of the Emperor of Abyssinia.

N.E.P. (Nep): New Economic Policy of Russia adopted in 1921, with a view to promoting the recovery of production and trade. It admitted a certain amount of private enterprise and profit—a deviation from the strict communist ideal. The NEP was replaced by the Socialistic Five-Year Plans in 1927.

New Deal: Programme of reforms, embodying provisions for employment, old age and unemployment, insurance, right to organize against unfair practices of employers, loans to local authorities for slum clearance, government loans to farmers at cheap rates of interest and raising of agricultural prices by planned restrictions of output etc., introduced by President Roosevelt from 1933 onwards to counteract the economic crisis of the early thirties. In spite of its successes, the New Deal was opposed and many of its provisions declared unconstitutional by the Supreme Court in 1935-36.

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.

Pilgrim Fathers: Emigrants who sailed from Plymouth in the "Mayflower" in 1620 and founded the colony of New Plymouth in America.

Pipe Rolls: The great Rolls of the English Exchequer preserved in the Record Office, which are almost perfect from 1155 onwards.

Poll Tax: A tax by the Poll or head, i.e. on each person. First levied in England in 1377.

Pot Walloper: Name applied to certain electors, who, prior to 1832 elections in England, were permitted to receive the franchise on producing proof that they had "boiled their own pot" in the constituency during the six months preceding an election.

Pourparler: An informal preliminary conference of representatives of different groups, functions or countries looking to a formal agreement settling disputed question among them.

Privy Purse: The amount set apart in the Civil List for the King's personal use.

Prohibition: The control and regulation of the liquor traffic by legislation. This experiment has been tried in recent years in several states of India, as for example, in the Saleem district of Madras, in Bombay state etc.

Proletariat: The propertyless classes who live by the sale of their labour-power.

Purge: Cleaning by expulsion or possibly doing away with the unreliable, unruly, disobedient or inconvenient members of a party.

Putsch: German word meaning "attempt to take by force," specially power or control of a state.

Red Army: The Russian Army named after the red flag it bore in the Communist Revolution of 1917.

Red Cross Society: An international organisation founded in 1863, for the alleviation of human suffering especially during war. A red cross on a white background is the symbol of the Society.

Reichstag Fire: The burning of the Reichstag building at Berlin on February 27, 1933, organized probably by the Nazis themselves in order to discredit the Communists.

Reconnaissance: Survey or examination of a tract of a country with a view to military or engineering operations.

Regent: One who rules on behalf of a sovereign, in case of the Sovereign's minority, insanity or any other incapacity.

Rescript: An imperial edict or pronouncement.

Round Robin: A document, letter or petition signed by a number of persons in such a way that the order in which they have signed cannot be discovered.

Sabotage: Wanton destruction of equipment by discontented employees. During war, it means destruction of vital war industries, lines of communication etc., by enemy agents.

Samurai: The highest of the four classes in Japan- the military class.

Self-Denying Ordinance Passed in 1645 at the instance of Cromwell providing that no member of parliament should hold any military or civil office.

Siegfried Line: Germany's strongly fortified western frontier line, mostly constructed of steel and concrete and consisting of under-ground communicating chambers and dug-outs.

Sinn Fein : It means "Ourselves alone" It was adopted as the party motto and name by the Irish nationalist movement of the early twentieth century.

S. S. Schutz Staffel : (Protective Squadron) These were Hitler-Storm-Troops created about 1921 and later formed a part of Hitler's Bodyguard.

Stalemate : A deadlock.

Straw Vote : Unofficial poll of public opinion.

Strike : A voluntary stopping of work by common agreement of a number of workers to alter conditions of employment or to resist conditions which are not approved by the general body.

Sublime Porte, The : Official name of the court of the Sultan of Turkey before the establishment of the Republic (1922).

Swastika : The national emblem of Germany especially of the Nazi Party.

Strike Ballot : Secret voting taken by the heads of workers to know general opinion whether or not there should be a strike.

Tammany Hall : The meeting place of the Tammany Society, a powerful political organization of New York City. It is named after a celebrated Red Indian Chief—the centre of a cycle of legendary tales.

Tanaka Memorandum : Described as the "Mein Kampf" of Japanese Imperialism. It was issued by General Tanaka, the Foreign Minister of Japan in 1927. The memorandum runs. "In order to conquer the world we must first conquer China. If we succeed in conquering China, the rest of the Asiatic countries will fear us and surrender to us. Then the world will realize that Eastern Asia is ours and will not dare to violate our right." The memorandum also recommends the occupation of Manchuria and Mongolia. Japan so closely followed this policy since 1931 onwards, that it is difficult to accept the Japanese plea that the document was a forgery.

Third Degree Methods : Questionable and extremely cruel methods sometimes resorted to by the police to extract information or confession from an undertrial prisoner; as for example, making a prisoner stand on ice with naked feet, and either beating him or not letting him sleep till he gave out his secrets, if any.

Thailand : New name of Siam.

Third Reich : A term to denote the Nazi regime in Germany.

Third Republic : The republican government set up in France in 1871.

Total War : Denotes the present form of war in which the distinction between combatant and non-combatant is fast disappearing.

Underground : Secret and organised opposition to the Government in power.

Ukase : Official order or decree.

V. E. Day : Victory in Europe in World War II—May 8, 1945.

V. J. Day : Victory in Japan—August 14, 1945.

Vatican, The : The palace of the Pope in Rome. ‘Vatican’ is also used to describe the papal administration.

Vikings : Sea-robbers who preyed on the coasts of Britain and France in the ninth century.

Volstead Act: Name popularly applied to an Act of the American Congress passed in 1919, rendering the sale of intoxicating liquor illegal. It was repealed in 1933.

Wai Wupu : The Chinese Foreign Department.

Wall Street : The site of New York Stock Exchange, the centre of American finance and business.

War Criminal : One guilty of atrocities and other irregularities of conduct during a war.

Wehrmacht : The former German military machine.

Westminster, Statute of : (1931) The Charter of legislative independence of the self-governing British Dominions. It also provided for getting out of the Empire of any Dominion, if it so desired.

White Paper : A report issued by the British Government giving full information to the public on a matter of public importance.

White Elephant : A gift which occasions the recipient more trouble than it is worth—a white elephant being a common gift of the kings of Siam to a courtier they wished to ruin.

White House : The official residence of U. S. President in Washington.

White Slave Traffic : Traffic in white women for immoral purposes. The League of Nations tried to put a stop to the practice.

Wilhemistrasse : Government offices in Germany, especially the Foreign Office.

Woolsack : The seat of the Lord Chancellor in the House of Lords, as Speaker of the House.

Yankees : Citizens of the United States of America.

Yellow Peril : The danger of Japanese Imperialism (before Second World War).

Young Turk : A follower of the ‘Young Turk Reform Party’ a Turkish National movement.

Zemsto : The provincial and district assemblies in pre-1917 Russia.

LEGAL TERMS

Abandonment : The relinquishing of an interest or claim.

Abatement : A "plea in abatement" is one which shows some reason for abating or quashing the plaintiff's statement of claim on the ground that it was improperly framed.

Acceptance : Agreeing to terms; acceptance of a bill of exchange. A contract for sale of goods is not enforceable unless the buyer "accepts" part of the goods and actually receives them.

Accessory : One who is concerned in the commission of a crime either (i) before the act—in abetting the crime, or (ii) after the act, i. e. in concealing the crime.

Acquittal : A judicial discharge from an accusation.

Action : Proceedings undertaken to obtain the recognition of one's rights.

Act of God : Term used for occurrences not attributable to human negligence or that could not have been avoided by ordinary foresight.

Adjudication : A court order adjudging the debtor to be a bankrupt, and transferring his property to a trustee.

Administrator : A person appointed by the court to manage the estate of any one dying intestate or leaving a will in which no executor is named.

Adoption : An act whereby a person assumes the responsibilities of parenthood towards the child of another, the child becoming legally his own.

Affidavit : A written statement of evidence given on oath before a magistrate.

Alibi : A legal defence, often used in criminal cases, to prove that the person charged with the offence was absent from the scene of crime at the time it was committed.

Appellant : One who makes an appeal from the decision of a lower court to a higher court.

Approver : An accomplice in crime admitted to give evidence against a prisoner.

Arbitration : Method of having disputes decided by uninterested parties in order to avoid law suits.

Assessor : A person who assists and advises a magistrate or arbitrator in assessing the facts of a case.

Assets : Property of every description belonging to a person, company or institution.

Assignment : A transfer by deed or other instrument of any property, or right, title or interest in property.

Bail : The security given to procure the release of an accused person by becoming guardian or surety for his appearing in court.

Bill of Sale : A document by which personal property is transferred from one person to another, generally in order to give security for a loan.

Caveat : A notice or warning entered by a person in a court to prevent judicial steps being taken against him.

Caveat Emptor : An expression denoting that a buyer purchases at his own risk, unless there is an express warranty.

Circumstantial evidence : Evidence based on circumstances, which when sifted and put together leaves no room for doubt as to one's guilt, even though none saw the culprit doing the deed.

Codicil : A supplement to a will of which it is considered an integral part.

Collateral Security : An additional security given by a debtor for fulfilment of an obligation or contract.

Consideration : The thing given or done or abstained from in an agreement with another, in view of that other person giving, doing or abstaining from something.

Conspiracy : The agreement of two or more persons to do any unlawful act.

Contempt of Court : Disobedience to judgments or orders of the court, or the obstructing or endeavouring to obstruct the administration or course of justice.

Conviction : The act of finding or pronouncing guilty by a magistrate.

Corporal Punishment : Punishment inflicted on the body, as flogging as a correction for crime.

Court Martial : A court convened to try persons subject to military law for offences against military discipline.

Damages : A compensation in money awarded to one who has been injured through the act of another.

Debenture : A written acknowledgment of a debt.

Decree : A judicial decision.

Defendant : The person accused or sued.

Discharge : To acquit or set free.

Easement : An advantage or privilege, without profit, which one proprietor has in or through the estate of another, distinct from the ownership of the soil, e. g., a right of way, a water course or a right to light. Easements arise by custom, prescription, long use, express grant, or by necessity.

Endowment Policy : Insurance policy on which premiums are payable only for a prescribed period.

Equated Time : When several debts falling due at different times may be paid together.

Eviction or Ejectment : The legal proceedings whereby a person is dispossessed of his premises.

Evidence : Proof—direct, circumstantial, oral or documentary—of allegations in issue between parties in an action of law.

Executor : A person appointed under a will to carry out the wishes of a testator after his death.

Exhibit : A document produced in court to be used as evidence.

Fee simple : Land in absolute ownership.

Fiduciary Loan : Loan granted without any security.

Forfeiture : A penalty whereby a person loses the title to his property as a result of some illegal act.

Forgery : The act of falsifying or altering a written document with general intent to defraud.

Fraud : The wilful deception of one person by another.

Habeas Corpus : An order requiring the production in court of a person detained without trial.

Hearsay Evidence : Evidence at second hand and hence not to be taken as conclusive proof by a law court.

Indemnity : Undertaking to make good any possible loss or damage.

Injunction : An order of court forbidding persons to do certain things.

Intestate : Person who dies without having made a valid will.

Judicial Separation : A remedy in matrimonial disagreements. It differs from divorce in not enabling the parties to marry again.

Jury : A committee of adjudicators or examiners, selected and sworn, as prescribed by law, to declare the truth on evidence before them.

Juvenile Offenders : Children under the age of 16 found guilty of crimes.

Larceny : The unlawful taking and carrying away of personal property of others.

Lease : A document setting forth the conditions of a contract for letting lands or buildings for life, a term of years, or at will, usually in consideration of an annual rent.

Legal Tender : Form of money which can be used as legal quittance of a debt and which cannot be refused by the creditor.

Letters Patent : A document emanating from the sovereign, not sealed but left patent or open, granting some special

privilege to an individual or body, such as exclusive rights in an invention.

Libel : A malicious defamatory publication or statement.

Limited Liability : Liability on the part of the shareholders of a joint-stock company limited to the nominal amount of their share.

Liquidation : The process by which a joint-stock company is dissolved.

Moratorium : An emergency act by which an extention of time is granted for the payment of debts.

Mortgage : A conveyance of property, usually land, as a security for debt; on condition that if the debt be discharged at the time and in the manner specified, the pledge shall be returned.

Negotiable Instrument : Documents, such as a bank note, cheque, warrant or promissory note etc., which on transfer from one person to another convey the legal right to the property they represent.

Nisi : A decree or order of court enforceable when the party has failed to show cause against the order.

Novation : Act of substituting a new obligation for the one existing.

Perjury : In common use the term means false swearing. In law it means the crime committed by one who, when giving evidence on oath as a witness in a court of justice, gives evidence which he knows to be false.

Plaintiff : One who commences a suit against another.

Power of Attorney : An instrument by which one person authorises another to do on his behalf some act or acts such as to execute a deed or transfer stock.

Pre-emption : The right to first offer, or to purchase property before or in preference to any other person.

Sedition : An offence against the State next to treason.

Summons : A call from authority to appear in court.

Will : An instrument executed by a person (being neither an infant, nor a lunatic) as a disposition of his property on his or her death. It must be signed by the testator in the presence of a witness who also signs.

Writ : An order or command of a court to an individual to appear at a certain place at an appointed time.

COMMERCIAL TERMS

(Including Terms in Economics).

Above Par. A price above nominal value.

Acceptance: Is the signification by the person on whom a bill of exchange is drawn of his assent to the order of the drawer.

Account: A statement showing the amounts debited and credited to a person or concern.

Actuary: A statistician whose duties are chiefly concerned with applying the doctrine of probability to such matters as life insurance, annuities, etc.

Advice: Any notification of a business transaction apprising an agent, correspondent or customer that a certain thing has been done.

Agenda: A list of matters to be transacted or discussed at a meeting.

Allotment: The allotting of shares or bonds in a company.

Amortisation: The redemption or repayment of a debt, the term usually being applied to the drawing and repayment of Government and debenture bonds.

Ante-date: To give a date on a cheque or bill prior to that on which it is written.

Annuity: A fixed sum of money paid yearly or in certain instalments at fixed periods of the year, and which may be for a certain number of years only or for life.

Arbitration: A method of settling disputes with reference to disinterested parties, frequently resorted to in order to avoid law suits, and sometimes recommended by a court of law.

Articles of Association: Are the rules and regulations detailing the scope and method of conducting the internal business of a limited company.

At sight: A notification on a bill of exchange signifying that it is payable on demand.

Attachment: A legal term applying to the seizure of goods before a court under process of law.

Attorney, Power of: A document authorizing the person to whom it is given to act in all respects as the grantor of the power, in relation to matters specified in the document. When the power is general it applies to everything in which the grantor is interested, when special it applies to specific matters, such as the power to sign cheques, receive moneys, to effect sales etc.

Auditor: The person who carries out an audit of accounts. His chief duty is to ascertain the true financial position of

the business and draw out a balance sheet in which this is accurately set forth. The employment of auditor is compulsory in regard to the accounts of public bodies and limited companies.

Balance Sheet : A statement prepared from the accounts of a concern, setting forth on the debit side the capital, its debits and other liabilities, and on the credit side all the assets, including cash, property, plant and so on.

Banker's Cheques : Cheques drawn by banks on each other.

Bear : A stock exchange operator who sells for future delivery shares which he does not possess in the hope that he will be able to purchase them before the date of delivery at a lower price. His interest lies in a fall in security prices and he works to that end. In case the price rises he suffers a loss.

Bearer Cheque : A cheque payable to person holding it without requiring any endorsement. The words "or bearer" are added after the name of the payee.

Broker : An intermediary agent in the purchase and sale of any goods, his remuneration being derived from commission or brokerage charged on a percentage basis on such transaction.

Bull : One who buys, or contracts to buy, shares in the expectation of a rise in their price, with a consequent realisation of profit on them. In case the price falls he suffers a loss.

Cheque Crossed : A cheque is crossed for protection. The crossing is usually done by the drawer, who writes "& Co." between two parallel lines across the face of the cheque, after which the cheque can only be realised through a bank.

Cheque to order : Is one having the words "or Order" following the name of the person in whose favour it is drawn, who must endorse the cheque before the payment can be obtained.

Credit, Letters of : A letter from a bank, firm or one person to another, authorising payment to a third person named in it, of a specified sum for which the sender assumes responsibility.

Current Account : The amount of money a person has deposited in a bank, and on which he can draw or add as much as may be desired, no interest being as a rule chargeable on either side.

Days of Grace : A period of three days allowed by custom or law beyond the fixed day of payment for a bill of exchange or note.

Debenture Shares : Are the shares of a company or corporation, engaging to repay a specified borrowed sum, with interest at a time named, the interest being payable periodically.

Debit Note: Is a note giving particulars of an allowance claimed in respect of defective or damaged goods.

Deed: Is a written or printed document under hand and seal. It must be signed in the presence of a witness or witnesses; must bear a seal and must be delivered formally.

Deferred Shares: Are shares issued by a corporation or company, entitling the holder to a gradually increasing rate of dividend until a fixed rate is reached, when they become converted into ordinary shares.

Demand Draft: A bill of exchange payable on demand.

Demurrage: A term generally used in connection with delays in removing goods after being conveyed to the station of destination, a certain fixed penalty for each day of delay being charged.

Dividend: A periodical payment of interest on an investment, the payment being generally made out of profits.

Draft: This term generally denotes an order in writing to pay a certain specified sum of money.

Excess Profits Tax: Was introduced as a war measure in the last war to secure extra finance for the prosecution of the war. It was also used to check war-profiteering.

Face Value: The nominal value marked on the face of a security — the par value.

Goodwill: Is the benefit acquired by a business by the patronage of constant customers.

Hire Purchase: A system for the purchase of goods, by which they are obtained on hire and each payment is also treated as part payment of the purchase price.

Inventory: A list of all goods, effects, etc. in possession.

Letter of Credit: Is a letter written by one correspondent to another requesting him to credit the bearer with a certain sum of money. It is not negotiable.

Ordinary Shares: Such shares as have no special privilege or right attaching to them, but which receive dividends representing the profits after paying interest on preference shares and debentures and making provision for other necessary items.

Par: A price that is equivalent to nominal value.

Patent: An exclusive right granted under the law to the inventor of a new and useful invention or process of manufacture.

Payee: The person or firm to whom a bill of exchange or promissory note is made payable.

Preference Shares: Are such shares as are issued at a fixed rate of interest, and payable before dividends are declared on ordinary shares.

Profit Sharing : A method of remunerating labour, under which the employees receive, in addition to ordinary wages a share of the profit of the concern. It is also an important method of securing industrial peace.

Stock Exchange : A place where the operations of buying and selling stocks and shares are carried on.

Tender : An offer to supply certain things, or perform certain services at specified rates, binding only after being accepted.

Trade-Mark : A mark used for the purpose of indicating the legal right of some person to the exclusive manufacture of certain goods.

Turnover : The amount representing the total sales of a trader during a given period.

Treasury Bills : Are negotiable Government acknowledgment of short-term loans, and may be for three or six months.

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TERMS IN ECONOMICS

Ability in Taxation : One of Adam Smith's canons of taxation : the individual should contribute towards expenditure of the state in proportion to his ability, i.e., in proportion to the revenue enjoyed under protection of the State.

Amortisation of Taxes : Phenomenon as a result of levying tax on income from durable property, reducing the value of the property in question.

Appreciation of Money : Rise in the value of money that is caused by a fall in the general price level.

Balance of Payments : List of items (goods, services, interest charges, capital movements, etc.) for which one country has to make or receive payments from another.

Balance of Trade : May be (a) favourable when the value of exported goods of a country exceeds that of imported goods ; (b) unfavourable when the value of imported goods of a country exceeds that of her exports.

Bank Credit : The extra purchasing power created by banks over and above their cash balances because of the public confidence in the bank's solvency.

Bank Return : A weekly statement issued by a Central Bank detailing the position of her Issue and Banking departments, providing therefrom an insight into the money market.

Bank Rate : The minimum rate at which the Central Bank will discount notes, bills of exchange or advance loans on approved securities.

Bills of Exchange: Credit instruments in vogue in a modern community, e.g., cheques, bank notes, government notes, book credit etc.

Bimetallism: A monetary system under which gold and silver circulate freely as legal tender at a fixed ratio of exchange and are freely minted.

Call Loans: Temporarily unemployed or unemployable funds loaned by commercial banks and corporations, recalled at quick notice and used only by bill brokers and stock brokers.

Capital Levy: Proposal to tax individual incomes and wealth above a certain level on a progressive scale, the assessment being based upon the capital value of the wealth of the individual as distinguished from his income.

Clearing House: A general organisation of the banks of a given place mainly connected with offsetting the claims of each bank on the other's settlement being made by the payment of difference.

Combination: Monopoly formed by the combination of several firms into one organisation. It may be ; a (a) *Vertical Combination* in which all stages of production beginning from the obtaining of raw material upto the preparation of the finished products are combined ; or (b) *Horizontal Combination* in which a number of enterprises of the same sort may be associated.

Complementary Goods: Commodities jointly demanded for the satisfaction of a want, e.g., bricks, lime, cement, etc., for building a house ; also labourers like plasterers, masons, carpenters etc.

Composite Demand: Demand for a commodity for several alternative uses, e.g., steel for bridges, or buildings, machinery etc.

Composite Supply: Several of those sources where from the demand for a thing can be satisfied e.g., the demand for a beverage may be satisfied by tea, coffee or cocoa.

Constant Returns: Conditions under which the production of a commodity can be increased without any change in the expenses of production per unit of output. An increase in the factors of production causes a constant increase in the return.

Consumer's Surplus: Surplus satisfaction that a consumer gets, obtained by the difference between the amount of satisfaction from purchasing things over that which he foregoes by paying money : derived from the concept that price equals the marginal utility : but in actual practice the utility yielded from a commodity is varied.

Deadweight Debt: Public debt for which there are no assets in the hands of the public authorities while the interest is paid out of the general revenues of the state.

Death Duty : Direct taxation of property at death and paid by the inheritor.

Deflation : Phenomenon of falling profits, wages, incomes and employment arising out of a decrease in the supply of money and bank deposits, relatively to the demand for media of exchange, so as to bring about fall in the general price level.

Degressive Tax : A tax which increases with the increase of income, but the rate at which its incidence falls decreasing progressively for higher incomes.

Depreciation of money : A fall in the value of money brought about by a rise in the general level of prices.

Diminishing Returns : Law governing agriculture and mining etc. stating that increase in the capital and labour applied in the cultivation of land causes in general a loss more than the proportionate increase in the amounts of the produce raised ; any possibility of improvement in the art of agriculture being excluded from consideration.

Diminishing Utility : A law stating that the additional benefit which a person derives from a given increase in the stock of a commodity diminishes with every increase in the stock that he already has.

Direct Tax : A tax under which the impact and incidence falls on the same person.

Discriminating Monopoly : Monopoly in which different prices are charged from different purchasers or different markets.

Elasticity in Taxation : A principle in taxation requiring that a tax should increase or decrease according to the needs of the state and the length of the tax payer's purse.

Forced Savings : A phenomenon arising from an increase in the general level of price. The people are unable to buy the same amount of goods as before with their incomes, causing a forced saving of the community's resources.

Foreign Exchange : The mechanism by which the payment in connection with international trade are transacted.

Forward Exchange : A contract acquiring the supply of foreign exchange at some future date, with rates fixed before hand.

Futures Market : A section of the stock exchange where 'futures' contracts are bought and sold—the chief feature being the absence of actual delivery which takes place at a future date.

Gold Standard : A monetary system whereby bank notes are convertible into gold at a fixed rate at any time and to any extent.

Index numbers : Figures of price levels arranged in a table, with a view to showing the changes in the prices of goods and services.

Increasing Returns : A law stating that an increase in the amount of any factor of production will yield a more than proportionate increase in the output.

Inflation : A phenomenon that occurs when the supply of money and of bank deposits circulating through cheques increases, relatively to the demand for the medium of exchange, so as to bring about a rise in the general price level developing into a spiral wherein costs and prices chase each other.

Malthusian theory : A theory stating that whereas the food supply increases in arithmetical progression, the population increases much faster i. e., in geometrical progression and the former holds the latter in check.

Maximum Social Advantage : A principle of public finance laying down that the government should conduct its finances in such a way as to secure the maximum social advantage. i.e., by continually transferring wealth from one set of persons to another.

Money Market : A term referring to the financial institutions like banks, discount houses, brokers, stock exchange, etc. which compete with one another for borrowing and lending money.

Monopolies : A concern or a combination of concerns having the sole control over the supply of a particular commodity or service, being thereby in a position to determine the price of the commodity.

National Dividend : That part of the objective income of a community, measured in money, which is distributed during a given period, among the factors of production and consists of the aggregate value of all the goods produced and all the services rendered during that period after making proper allowance for the wear and tear and depreciation of the capital goods of the country.

Normal value : The value of a commodity that will ultimately prevail if the given conditions in the market get sufficient time to exercise their full influence and if, in the meantime no other change takes place.

Open Market Operations : A term signifying those transactions of the Central Bank whereby it buys or sells securities on its own initiative to control the volume of credit in the country.

Optimum theory of Population : A theory stating that a country, with its stock of natural resources and productive technique as given, has an optimum of population i. e., a population which provides the greatest real income of commodities and services per head.

Over Population : A concept applied when the population of a country over reaches the optimum point and brings about a fall in the real per capita income of its members.

Pools : Associations of different concerns combined for the purpose of acquiring monopoly power, working on the principle that each member shall make over a fixed sum per unit of its output to a common fund, from which a division is made according to a pre-arranged plan.

Progressive taxation : A principle in taxation under which larger and larger percentage of the value of the income or of the property is taken away in taxes as the income or the property increases in amount.

Public Debts : The various loans raised from time to time by the government for meeting state expenses of a non-recurring kind.

Rate of Exchange : The ratio at which domestic currency can be changed against foreign currency.

Rationalisation : A concept meaning "putting reason into industry", and applied to changes in technique and organisation designed to secure the minimum of waste, either of efforts or of materials.

Real wages : The amount of necessities, comforts and luxuries which the labourer can obtain for his services.

Speculation : The buying and selling of shares and securities in a stock exchange with a view to gaining profit from the future changes in prices.

Supplementary Cost : Those permanent charges which every businessman must incur even though his business has come to a stand still for the time being.

Trade Cycle : The fluctuations in business activities-the booms and depressions-that occur in a cyclic order, and are composed of periods of good trade characterised by rising prices and low unemployment percentages, alternating with periods of bad trade characterised by falling prices and high unemployment percentages.

Trade depression : A general downward trend of business activity characterised by falling prices and employment that follows a boom period. Also marked by little or no activity in the money market.

Trade Unions . A continuous association of wage earners for the purpose of maintaining or improving the conditions of employment.

Trusts : A form of combination under which the controlling share-holders of various companies pass on their shares to a board of trustees who hold them in trust for them.

Utility : A concept used in the analysis of value. It signifies the intensity of the desire for a particular commodity ; and is measured in terms of the money which one is prepared to forego for the commodity in question rather than go without it.

War finance : A method in public finance suggesting that wars ought to be financed through taxation based on a progressive scale and the method of creating money should be avoided.

Works Council : A scheme for maintaining industrial peace by setting up councils of workers and employers. Such councils acquaint the workers with the actual conduct of business and foster a better understanding and sense of responsibility of workers.

LITERARY & ARTISTIC TERMS

LITERARY TERMS

Academies : Associations of scientific, literary or artistic men brought together for the advancement of culture and knowledge within their special fields of interest.

Adage : A proverb of wise saying made familiar by long use.
Example : "No bees, no honey".

Agnosticism : The doctrine that beyond our personal knowledge of phenomenon everything is uncertain. The agnostic neither affirms nor denies the existence of God.

Alexandrine : A verse line of 6 iambic feet.

Allegory : The treatment of a subject, a description, or an action in which the incidents or characters are presented through symbolism or personification. Allegories are often simple stories which convey metaphorically some spiritual or ethical ideas. Example : Bunyan's *pilgrim's Progress*.

Alliteration : The repetition of the first letter or sound in two or more closely associated words or syllables. Example : "Faithful friends from flattering foes".

Almanac : In middle ages an almanac was a permanent calendar showing the movements of the heavenly bodies, from which calculations for any year could be made.

Anachronism : It is a chronological error specially in literature or art. False assignment of an event, a person, a scene, language – in fact anything, to a time when that event or thing or person was not in existence.

Analogy . A comparison of two things, alike in certain respects ; particularly a method of exposition by which one unfamiliar object or idea is explained by comparing it in certain of its similarities with other objects or ideas more familiar.

Anthem : Generally speaking, it refers to any song of reverence, rejoicing or praise.

Anti climax : A sudden or gradual decrease in interest or importance in the items of a series of two or more statements.

Antiquarianism : The study of ancient periods through any available relics especially artistic, literary or cultural.

Anti thesis : A figure of speech marked by contrasting words, sentences, clauses or ideas. A balancing of one term against another for force and impressiveness.

Aphorism : A concise and terse expression of a thought, giving an aspect or a summary of the truth on any particular subject as it appears to the writer.

Apostrophe : A figure of speech in which the writer digresses to addresses some one (usually absent — some abstract quality, or a non-existent personage).

Arcadian : This term is applied to pastoral prose, poetry, and drama written in the mood of rural and idyllic simplicity and peace. Example : Sidney's *Arcadia* and Shakespeare's *As You Like It*.

Archaism : Obsolete words, phrases, idioms or syntax.

Architeconics : A critical term which expressess collectively those structural qualities of symmetry, unity, emphasis and scale which make a piece of writing proceed logically and smoothly from beginning to end with no waste effort, no faulty omissions.

Assonance : Resemblance or similarity in sound between vowels in two or more syllables.

Atmosphere : This term refers to the feeling or mood in which a piece of literary composition is pitched.

Attic : A style of writing marked by clarity, simplicity, polish and wit.

Augustan : Refers to the period of the Emperor Augustus of Rome who ruled from 27 B. C. to 14 A. D. Generally speaking, it stands for any period of polished manners, high culture and great literary achievements which may be favourably compared with the age of the Roman Emperor Augustus Caesar.

Autobiography : An account of one's life written by oneself.

Ballad : A story in verse, composed with spirit, generally of patriotic interest, and sung originally to the harp.

Ballet : A theatrical exhibition composed of dancing, posturing and pantomimic action.

Bard : More popularly known in modern times as a "poet".

Bathos : When a writer fails to achieve dignity of pathos or elevation of style, his efforts end in *bathos*. In other words it is

an unintentional anticlimactic dropping from the sublime to the ridiculous ; the depth of stupidity.

Bestiary : A form of literature, very popular in the middle ages, in which the habits of birds, beasts and reptiles (dragons etc.) were made the text for allegorical and mystical Christian teachings.

Bibliography : This term denotes a system, containing the description or knowledge of books, in regard to their authors, subjects, editions and history.

Billingsgate : A form of language which is abusive, violent, vulgar, coarse and unrefined.

Biography : A written account or history of the life of an individual, (not written by himself).

Blank Verse : Blank verse may be said to consist of unrimed lines of ten syllables each, the second, fourth, sixth, eighth and tenth syllables bearing the accents (iambic pentameter). This form has generally been accepted as that best adapted to dramatic verse in English and is commonly used for long poems whether dramatic, philosophic, or narrative.

Bluestockings : A term which suggests women of the intellectual type.

Bolero : Spanish national dances ; also the air to which it is danced.

Bombast : A form of language marked by insincere, extravagant and high-sounding words.

Bowdlerize : To expurgate a book or piece of literary composition by omitting all distasteful, indecent and offensive passages or lines.

British Museum : It is perhaps the biggest library in the world, founded as far back as 1700. The collection now embraces over 5,000,00 items.

Broadside Ballad : It is a term given to a narrative song cheaply printed on one side only of a single sheet, and hawked in the streets and at fairs and other gatherings for a penny or two. The Broadside ballads were the work of hack poets.

Bucolic : This term is used to denote pastoral writing, especially poetry which deals with shepherds and rural life. The treatment in such poetry is generally fanciful and formal.

Burlesque : A form of comic literature marked by ridiculous exaggeration. In other words, the term refers to any farcical composition in which a serious subject is treated ludicrously, especially one in which the manner of one or more literary works is held up to ridicule Examples : Fielding's *Tom Thumb* and Sheridan's *Critic*.

Cadence : Measured movement of sound, e.g., "the gradual dusky veil".

Caesura: A pause or break in the metrical or rhythmical flow of a line of verse.

Calligraphy: This term refers to the art of beautiful writing.

Cant. Insincere, specious language calculated to give the impression of piety and religious enthusiasm. This term also indicates any technical or special vocabulary or dialect.

Canto: A division or section of a long poem. Byron's *Childe Harold's Pilgrimage* is divided into cantos.

Caricature: This term refers to the particular type of descriptive writing which seizes upon certain individual traits of a person and through exaggeration produces a ridiculous effect. In modern times caricature is usually associated with drawing (cartoons) than with writing.

Catastrophe: This term denotes the final stage in the falling action of a tragedy. It usually marks the end of the dramatic conflict and generally involves the death of the hero and others.

Catharsis: "Aristotle describes the effect of tragedy as *katharsis* (lit., 'purging') of the spectator's emotion: the pity and fear excited by the tragic action 'purge' by modifying or repelling passion. Though it is not certain just what Aristotle meant, the term now commonly denotes the 'purging' or 'purification' of the emotions through 'imaginative participation' in the sufferings of others; or the 'mood of emotional release and intellectual serenity, induced by tragic literature or art.'

Character: This term is generally applied to the personages in a literary work. It is also the name of a literary genre, an essay, usually brief and often didactic, in which a human type is analysed.

Chorus: In the ancient drama, a group of persons introduced on the stage representing witnesses of what is being acted, and giving expression to their thoughts and feelings regarding it; originally a band of singers and dancers on festive occasions.

Chronicle Play: Generally speaking these chronicle plays were based on legend or factual history. They were rather crude dramatizations of narrative materials, with unity only in the circumstances that the play dealt in general with the reign of one king.

Classic: A piece of literary composition which has achieved a distinguished position in literary history for its superior and marked literary qualities; also an author of like standing. Thus *Paradise Lost* is a "classic" in English literature.

Classicism: The term is characterised by a sense of form, balance, and proportion. It implies self-knowledge, self-control, an unsaltering sense of reality; also an adherence to

externally imposed rules and canons, and acquiescence in things as they are.

Climax: This term denotes the highest point of interest in narrative fiction.

Cockney School: A derisive epithet applied by Scots reviewers to a group of 19th century writers including Hazlitt, Leigh Hunt, Keats and Shelley, because of their alleged poor taste in such matters as diction and rime.

Colloquialism: A term used in describing informal conversation but not recognised as good usage in writing.

Columns and Columnists: In modern times many newspapers have turned over columns, usually on their editorial pages, to writers who are allowed a certain amount of freedom to express themselves humorously, satirically, and critically on the social and political events of the day.

Comedy: In literary art this term represents that form of drama which presents mimetically the lighter or more laughable aspects of human action and character. Generally speaking, it is the opposite of tragedy which presents the serious, sorrowful elements in life. Example: *As You Like It.*

Comedy of Humours: A term representing the special type of realistic comedy which was developed towards the end of the 16th century by Ben Jonson and Chapman. This type of Comedy derives its comic interest largely from the exhibition of "humorous" characters; that is, persons whose conduct is controlled by some one characteristic or whim or humour.

Comedy of Manners: A term used for the realistic, often satirical, comedy of the Restoration period. This type of comedy is concerned with the manners and conventions of an artificial, highly sophisticated society.

Couplet: Two lines of verse with similar end-rimes.

Critic: One who can estimate and pass judgment on the value and quality of the work of a literary writer.

Cycle: This term is usually applied to a collection of poems or romances centering about some outstanding and significant event or character.

Decadence: A term used to denote the decline which marks the end of a great period (of literary history or criticism).

Decorum: A term used to describe that which is proper to a subject, character, or setting in a literary work.

Deism: Belief on purely rational grounds in the existence of God, and distinguished from theism as denying His providence.

Denouement: This term denotes the final solution of the plot in fiction or drama. In other words, denouement implies an untying of the knot of a mystery or intrigue.

Diction: The use of words in spoken or written discourse.

Didacticism: This term implies a desire on the part of the literary artist to moralise, instruct or preach.

Dilettante: A person who practises an art for the love of it rather than as a serious profession. The term is generally used in a derogatory sense.

Dirge: A mournful song sung at a funeral or in commemoration of death. This term also stands for a short lyric of lamentation.

Doggerel: Rude, jerky, unrhythmic composition in verse.

Dramatic: In critical discussion the term is most commonly used to express the effect produced when there is a marked and significant difference in the meaning of what is being done or said on the stage for the characters themselves on the one hand and for the spectators on the other.

Dramatic Monologue. A verse form in which a single character expresses his thoughts and feelings. In other words, it is a lyric poem revealing "a soul in action".

Eclogue: This term is applied to a short poem of a pastoral nature.

Elegy: Generally speaking, this term denotes a poem of mourning or lamentation.

Empiricism: A philosophical term applied to the theory that all knowledge is derived from the senses and experience alone, to the rejection of the theory of innate ideas.

Epic: A narrative poem in which is treated a theme of one great complex action, in heroic proportions and elevated style.

Epilogue: A conclusion or farewell used in several literary types but particularly in the drama, where it corresponds at the end of the play to the prologue at the beginning.

Epithalamium: A nuptial song, sung before the bridal (**Epithalamion**) chamber in honour of the newly wedded couple.

Erotic Literature: Amorous writing. This type of literature is based on *love* as its theme.

Esperanto: A universal language invented by Dr. Ludwig Zamenhof of Warsaw in 1887. This speech is constructed from roots common to the chief European languages.

Eulogy: A literary form of composition in which the character or life of some person is praised.

Euphemism: Is in speech or writing the avoiding of an unpleasant or indelicate word or expression by the use of one

which is less direct and which calls up less disagreeable image in the mind.

Euphuism : A prose style which flourished during the reign of Elizabeth. Its chief characteristics are the constant use of balance and antithesis, complex schemes of alliteration, and profusion of metaphorical comparisons.

Exemplum : A tale preaching a moral lesson.

Expressionism : A particular manner of writing, marked by an effort "to present an intellectual abstraction of nature, to give emphasis to some quality inherent in the object, rather than by a desire to present normal external aspects of nature". Some of the modern writers who have adopted this manner of writing are Maxwell Bodenheim, T. S. Eliot, Lola Ridge, and James Joyce.

Fable : A short allegorical tale in prose or verse designed to a moral lesson.

Fabliau : This term designates a short tale in verse which deals in farcical and often bawdy vein with incidents in the lives of the common people.

Farce : This term is usually applied to short humorous plays in which plot and incident are exaggerated. Such a dramatic piece is intended to excite laughter.

Free Verse : 'Free Verse' is also *verse libre* and *polyrhythmic verse*. This type of verse is distinguished from conventional verse by its irregular metrical scheme, its use of cadence rather than uniform metrical feet. Even though 'free verse' does not form a regular rhythm of the usual poetry, it has great possibilities for subtle effects; in fact this freedom to secure a variety of rhythmical effects instead of one is the chief justification for the existence of the form.'

Genre : This term implies a group or classification. It is usually used to indicate a style, or medium, or manner of writing. This term is also used in the sense of 'literary type'. For instance, the picturesque novel may be said to be a *genre* popular in the 18th century.

Gest : This is an old term, meaning a tale of war or adventure.

Gnomic : Aphoristic, moralistic, sententious. The term *gnomic* was also applied by ancient Greeks to all poetry which dealt in a sententious way with ethical questions.

Goliardic Verse : Secular lyrics written in latin by the *goliards*;—wandering students of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. The verses deal principally with wine, women and song; they are youthful, ebullient, fresh, lively and unrestrained.

"Graveyard School" : This term is often used in designating the group of eighteenth-century poets who wrote long, gloomy

poems on death and immortality. This school of poetry implied a tendency to cultivate melancholy for its own sake. The graveyard poets tried to create an atmosphere of "pleasing gloom" by realistic efforts to call up not only the horrors of death but the "odour of the charnel house". An outstanding poem produced by this group is *Night-Piece on death* (1721) by Thomas Parnell.

Heroic Couplet : Iambic pentameter lines rimed in pairs. An example of the heroic couplet :

"But when to mischief mortals bend their will
How soon they find fit instruments of ill": Pope.

High Comedy : This term designates a pure or serious comedy as contrasted with "low comedy". High comedy rests upon an appeal to the intellect and arouses 'thoughtful' laughter by showing the inconsistencies and incongruities of human nature and displaying the follies of social manners.

Historical Novel : This term stands for a particular type of novel in which the characters, setting and action are drawn from the records of a locality, a nation, or a people. In other words, historical novel deals with some remote period of history in an imaginative manner.

Holy Grail : This term stands for the cup from which Christ is said to have drunk at the Last Supper and which was used to catch his blood at the Crucifixion. This theme has been treated in many Arthurian romances.

Humanism : This term designates that form of intellectual culture which in the 15th century took the place of medieval Scholasticism. With the advent of Renaissance there evolved at the close of the middle ages a philosophy that was less abstract than that of the Schoolmen and more concerned with the relationship of human beings of the world in which they lived. Some of the early distinguished humanists were Erasmus (1466—1536), John Colet (1467 - 1519), and Sir Thomas More (1478—1535).

Humours : In the theory of ancient physiolgy the four chief liquids of the human body : blood, phlegm, yellow bile, and black bile, were known as "humours." They were closely allied with the four elements. Thus blood, like air was hot and moist ; yellow bile, like fire, was hot and dry ; phlegm, like water, was cold and moist ; black bile, like earth, was cold and dry. Both physical diseases and mental and moral dispositions ("temperaments") were caused by the condition of the humours.

Hymn : This term implies a lyric poem expressing religious emotion and generally intended to be sung by a chorus. Some notable hymn writers of England were Wesley, Cowper, Watts and Newman.

Hyperbole : A figure of rhetoric, implying exaggeration or the magnifying of an object beyond its natural bounds—e.g., “as swift as the wind,” “light as air.” Our common forms of compliment are almost all of them hyperbolical.

Idyll : A poem in celebration of everyday life amid natural, often pastoral, even romantic and at times tragic surroundings.

Imagery : This term implies the use of figurative language for poetic or rhetorical effects.

Imagism : This name is given to a 20th century experiment in verse which advocates the utmost economy and the most careful selection of concrete words to present visual image. Some of the notable imagists are Amy Lowell and Ezra Pound.

Impressionism : The technique of a school of painters originating in France before 1870, and introduced into this country some 10 years later. It is a revolt against traditionalism in art and aims at reproducing on canvas the “impression” which eye and mind gather, rather than representing actual fact. Among the leaders of the school were Pissarro, Degas, Manet and Monet.

Innuendo : This word implies a hint or indirect suggestion often with sinister connotation.

Interlude : A dramatic or musical performance given between parts of an independent play. In music the interlude is a passage subordinate to the parts of the principal performance between which it is introduced.

Invective : This term designates a particular manner of writing in which harsh and abusive language is used against a person or class.

Inversion : Turning round of a sentence or words in a sentence to secure emphasis.

Invocation : An address to a god or superior power for help. In classical literature there was a convention to address the muses in the opening lines praying for their assistance in the writing.

Jargon : A crude mixture of languages such as is sometimes used for intercourse between natives of a country and foreign settlers. The word is also used to denote the phraseology peculiar to a trade or profession, as “legal jargon.”

Kailyard School : This term is applied to a group of late nineteenth and early twentieth-century interpreters of simple Scottish life. *Kailyard* is Scotch for cabbagepatch; the word suggests the realistic simplicity of village life. The writers used lowland vernacular and native philosophy in their characters. Sir James M. Barrie (1860–1937) was the best known of the group.

Kit-Cat Club : This was the name of a Whig club founded near the end of William III’s reign to help ensure a

Protestant succession. Among the members were Addison, Steele, Congreve, and Walpole.

Lake School, Lake Poets, Lakers : These terms are always applied to a number of Romantic Poets, all of whom lived in an English Lake District (Westmorland and Cumberland): The chief Lake Poets were Wordsworth, Coleridge and Southey.

Lampoon : A scurrilous personal piece of satire, generally on some prominent individual. The word is from the French "Lampoon," a drinking-song, so called from the exclamation "lampions!" i.e., "let us drink," frequently introduced into such songs. Lampoons were written in either verse or prose.

Lay : A song or short narrative poem. For instance, Scott's *Lay of the Last Minstrel* and Macaulay's *Lays of Ancient Rome*.

Lexicography : This term implies the art of writing a dictionary or "Icxicon".

Limerick : A jingle, a particularly popular type of "nonsense-verse," Edward Lear published his *Book of Nonsense* in 1846.

Litanies : A form of prayer in which the officiant's short supplications are responded to by the congregation or choir.

Litotes : An affirmation made indirectly by the negation of its contrary, as 'a citizen of no mean city' = 'of an illustrious city'.

Locution : This term implies an indirect round about form of writing. A manner of expression or phrasing ; a peculiarity of idiom in speech or writing ; a manterism.

Lyric : Originally *Lyric poetry* was intended to be sung as to the lyre, but the term is now used to include many kinds of poems, whether designed as song or not. Generally speaking, a lyric is a short poem in which a single emotion, usually personal, is expressed. The treatment in a lyric is simple and subjective.

Macaronic Verse : This is a type of humorous verse which mixes two or more languages. Particularly speaking, it refers to poems incorporating modern words with Latin or Greek.

Madrigal : This term is applied to a short lyric dealing with love or pastoral subjects. It is suitable for musical setting. An outstanding example is "Take, O, take those lips away" from Shakespeare's "*Measure for Measure*".

Malapropism : This term is derived from a character, Mrs. Malaprop, in Sheridan's, *The Rivals*. It stands for the act of misapplying words in the attempt to use fine language.

Masques : A species of dramatic entertainment in which originally the performers wore masks of peculiar forms suggestive of the allegorical character assumed. Its essential feature was

the presence of group of dancers called masquers, who were frequently noblemen or courtiers.

Mazurka : A lively Polish round dance for four or eight couples ; also the music such as is played to it.

Melodrama : Originally a play with music, now a play remarkable for rapid and incessant action, sensational situation and violently expressed emotion, with marked contrast between hero and villain.

Metaphor : 'Transferring' ; the application of name or descriptive term to an object to which it is not literally applicable. 'The intuitive perception of the similarity in dissimilars.'

'Life's but a walking shadow.' *Macbeth.*

Metre : A rhythm established by the regular, or almost regular, recurrence of similar accent-patterns (feet). The most popular metres are the iambic, trochaic, anapaestic, and dactylic.

Miracle Play : This term is usually applied to medieval English dramas which presented the miracles of the Saints and, more often, scenes from the Bible.

Mock Epic, Mock-Heroic : These terms, virtually interchangeable, are applied to literary works in which the epic or heroic tradition is ridiculed or mocked. Sometimes the devices of Homer's epics are directly burlesqued—as in Pope's *Rape of the Lock*, the graveyard battle of Molly Sragrim in Fielding's *Tom Jones*, and Byron's *Don Juan*.

Monody : See Elegy.

Morality Play : This term is usually applied to that type of medieval allegorical church play which was designed to furnish a dramatized guide to Christian living and Christian dying.

Muses, The : In Greek mythology, goddesses of the arts, daughters of Zeus and Mnemosyne. They were nine in number : Clio presided over history, Euterpe over music, Thalia over comedy, Melpomene over tragedy, Terpsichore over choral dance and song, Erato over erotic poetry and elegy, Polyhymnia over lyric poetry, Urania over astronomy, and Calliope over eloquence and epic poetry.

Mystery Play : See Miracle Play.

Mysticism : The doctrine of spiritual revelation which transcends the ordinary powers of understanding, such as direct communion of the soul with God. The spiritual apprehension of truths beyond the grasp of the intellect.

Naturalism : This term is often applied to that type of literature which tries accurately to imitate nature. It is, therefore, often synonymous with *realism*. In other words, naturalism implies a kind of realism, the slavish attempt to reproduce

details from life without selection, sometimes called *photographic realism*. In French literature, the term *naturalism* applies to a school of nineteenth-century novelists—including Flaubert, Zola and the brothers Goncourt.

Neo-Classicism : The term Neo-classic is applied to any school which closely follows classical rules and models. It has special reference to the 17th and 18th centuries of French literature, based very largely upon misinterpretations of Aristotle's *Poetics*.

Neology : This term has been recently introduced into the field of literary criticism. It implies the introduction of new words, or new senses of old words, into a language.

Nocturne : This term is used to designate a poetic and often sentimental composition, expressing moods supposed to be particularly appropriate to evening or night time.

Nom de plume (pen name) : A fictitious name adopted by a writer for professional use or to disguise his true identity. For example, Sidney Porter assumed the pen name "O. Henry."

Novelette : This term designates a short novel, or short stories usually containing thirty or forty thousand words.

Novella : A short story or tale. This term is particularly used to specify the early tales of Italian and French writers. An outstanding example is *Decameron of Boccaccio*.

Ode : In the words of Professor Gosse, the ode is "any strain of enthusiastic and exalted lyrical verse, directed to a fixed purpose, and dealing progressively with one dignified theme." Two outstanding Odes in literature are *Ode to Nightingale*, (Keats) and *Ode to France*, Coleridge.

Onomatopoeia : 'Name-making'; the formation of words by the imitation of sounds resembling those associated with the object. *Murmur, cuckoo, buzzing*

Opera : A musical entertainment written in rime and designed on the lines of Italian opera to be sung instead of spoken.

Otiose : This term is used in literary criticism to designate a style which is redundant and verbose.

Oxford Movement : A religious movement, known also as the Tractarian Movement, originated by John Henry Newman, John Keble, R. H. Froude, and others. Newman wrote the first of the *Tracts for the Times* in 1833; a year later Pusey joined the movement. The *Tracts*, which aroused much controversy, were a protest against Low Church and Broad Church Anglicanism. The Movement did much to restore the prestige of the Anglican Church, and prepared the way for the sympathy later shown towards Catholicism.

Oxymoron : ‘ Sharp-dull ; the combining of two words or phrases of opposite meaning, for effect.

‘ But fare thee well, most foul,
most fair ! farewell

Thou pure impurity and impious purity !

Much Ado About Nothing.

Panegyric : This term is often used in a derogatory sense to designate a formal written or oral composition in praise of some person, object or event.

Pantheism : This term is usually used to specify the “ doctrine which identifies God with nature, or asserts His immanence at the expense of his transcendence ; distinguished from deism, which denies the former but affirms the latter, from theism, which affirms both, and from atheism, which denies both.”

Pantomime : This term implies a form of dramatic art in which the actions and moods are expressed silently by posture, gesture, facial expression, and other non-oral interpretative means.

Parallelism : The similarity of construction or meaning of phrases placed side by side, as is common in Hebrew poetry.

‘ Let there be no dew, neither
let there be rain upon you ! ’

Parenthesis : This word designates an explanatory remark used in the body of a statement and frequently separated from it by ().

Parnassus : This is the name of a mountain in Greece famed as the haunt of Apollo and the Muses.

Parody : This term designates a work of literary composition in which the manner of another work, author, or literary type is imitated, usually for purposes of ridicule. Among the prose parodies in English are the opening chapters of Fielding’s *Joseph Andrews*, a parody of Richardson’s *Pamela*.

Pastoral : A term often applied in literary work to a rural setting, more specifically to mean any poem or play of rural people.

Pathetic Fallacy : This term was coined by Ruskin. It implies a tendency on the part of certain literary writers to invest nature with the emotions of human-beings.

Periphrasis : This term designates a manner of expression, an indirect, abstract, roundabout method of stating ideas ; the application to writing or speech of the old conviction that “the longest way round is the shortest way home.”

Peroration : This term marks the ending of a speech or discourse in which the discussion is summed up in a pointed and rhetorical appeal to the emotions of the audience.

Personification : ‘Marking into a person’; the representation of inanimate objects or abstract ideas as persons, or endowed with personal attributes.

Philistinism : This word was popularized by Matthew Arnold in the 19th century. He writes that “if it were not for this purging effect wrought upon our minds by culture, the whole world, the future as well as the present, would inevitably belong to the Philistines. *The people who believe most that our greatness and welfare are proved by our being very rich, and who most give their lives and thoughts to becoming rich, are just the very people whom we call Philistines.*”

Philology : Generally speaking, it means the scientific study of both language and literature.

Picaresque Novel, The : The *picaresque novel* or *picaresque romance* is essentially the reverse of the traditional romance of chivalry – with a rogue or *picaresque hero* replacing the chivalrous hero, and realistic farce replacing romantic adventures. The plot is usually a series of miscellaneous incidents strung on a slender thread ; it often ends with the rogue’s reform and marriage.

Plagiarist : An author who steals from the literary writings of others. Plagiarism is more noticeable when it involves a stealing of language than when substance only is borrowed.

Platonism : The idealistic philosophical doctrines of Plato, because of their concern with the higher aspirations of the human spirit, their tendency to exalt mind over matter, their mystical and optimistic grappling with the great problems of the universe and of man’s relation to the great cosmic forces, and their highly imaginative elements, have appealed strongly to certain English authors, particularly the poets of the Renaissance and of the Romantic period.

Poetic Diction : This term designates words chosen for a supposedly inherent poetic quality.

Poetic Justice : This term in a narrow sense implies the mere rewarding of virtue and the punishment of vice. But in the deeper sense, it is the logical and motivated outcome of the given conditions and terms of the tragic plan as presented in the earlier acts of the drama, even though, from a wordly sense, virtue meets with disaster and vice seems temporarily rewarded.

Poetic License : This term implies the privilege, sometimes claimed by poets, of departing from normal order, diction, rime, or pronunciation in order that their verse may meet the requirements of their metrical pattern.

Poetry : “Poetry, therefore, we will call musical Thought.”
(Carlyle)

Imaginative metrical discourse...the art of representing human experiences, in so far as they are of lasting or universal interest, in metrical language, usually with chief reference to the emotions and by means of the imagination."

Raymond Macdonald Alden.

Pre-Raphaelitism : This term denotes a movement which was initiated in 1848 by Dante Gabriel Rossetti. Some outstanding characteristics of Pre Raphaelite poetry are : pictorial elements, symbolism, sensuousness, tendency to metrical experimentation, attention to minute details, and an interest in the medieval and the supernatural. By certain critics, who deemed sensuousness the dominant characteristic of their poetry, the Pre-Raphaelites were styled the "fleshy school".

Prologue. A preface or introduction. The term is applied especially to dramatic writing and the prologue is of frequent occurrence in English drama from the Elizabethan period to the beginning of the nineteenth century.

Prosody : The study of the laws of versification, depending in classical poetry on the quantity of syllables and the vowels they contain : in modern European poetry generally on the number of syllables with or without stress accent.

Protagonist : This word signifies the chief character in a story or play. When the plot is based on conflict, the main rival or opponent of the *protagonist* is called *antagonist*.

Psalm : A lyrical composition of praise. This term is often applied to the sacred and devout lyrics in the Book of Psalms ascribed to David.

Pseudonym : A fictitious name sometimes assumed by writers and others.

Pun : A play on words, based on the similarity of sound between two words with different meanings.

Purist : This word designates a writer who always emphasizes, or over-emphasizes, accuracy or "Purity" in language, specially in minor or "fine points of pronunciations, diction, grammar, and rhetorical style."

Purple Patch : "A piece of fine writing". This term denotes passages which are intensely colourful, strongly emotional and stylistic.

Quatrain : A stanza, consisting of four verses.

Quibble : A play or pun upon words, particularly a verbal device or deviating from the main point.

Quip : A sarcastic jest.

Rationalism : In the history of human thought, the belief that reason is the most important, if not the only, means of ascertaining truth. The name is usually applied to the

system of thought which interprets religious doctrines by the light of reason, questioning traditional and rejecting supernatural authority. The Rationalist movement arose in Germany in the 18th century, and in the 19th it extended to Britain and U. S. A.

Realism : This term is frequently applied in criticism of art or literature to designate works which depict life as it is. Hence *realism* is commonly opposed to *romanticism*, *idealism*, and *escapism* – all of which suggest a flight from the world of reality into the world of the imagination. There are, of course, many degrees of realism. Sometimes the word is used to denote an objective literary technique which depicts, in a scientific, unselective manner, only tangible, observable facts. This approach is also called *photographic realism* and *naturalism*. To some readers, particularly those to whom literature and escape are synonymous, realism means the revelation of sordid, unpleasant details which should not besmirch respectable books.

Redundant : This word denotes a particular type of writing marked by the use of superfluous or irrelevant words.

Refrain : This word denotes a group of words which repeatedly occur at intervals in the poem, usually at the end of a stanza.

Renaissance : (Fr *rebirth*). The intellectual movement, which originated in 14th-16th century in Italy, and spread over W. Europe in the 16th century. Among its outstanding characteristics were an emphasis on the potentialities of the individual and his life ; the belief in the power of education to produce "the complete man," the man of action who is also master of all the culture of his age ; the desire to enlarge the bounds of learning ; the growth of scepticism and free thought ; and the acceptance of Greek and Latin literature and art as models.

Requiem : A mass offered for the soul of a dead person ; many famous composers have written music for Requiem masses, among them Mozart, Brahms, and Verdi.

Rhetoric : This term designates the art of persuasive or effective speech, written as well as oral. This manner of expression emphasizes the presentation of facts and ideas in clear, convincing, and attractive language.

Rhythm : This word denotes the regular or measured flow of sound, as in music, poetry or some kinds of prose, or in action, as in dancing.

Rime Royal : A seven-line iambic pentameter stanza riming *ababbcc*.

Romance : Term applied in modern usage to any highly-coloured prose fiction remote from the conditions of everyday life ; and in medieval times to the lengthy stories in

verse and prose which became popular in France (c. 1200), and spread throughout Europe. The romances usually dealt with the adventures of Charlemagne and his heroes, King Arthur and his knights, or the classical themes of Troy, Thebes, etc.

Romanticism: The term is characterized by the qualities of remoteness, desolation, disillusionment, decay, passion, divine unrest, melancholy, and all-embracing power of the imagination. It is suggestive of strangeness and adventure; never-satisfied aspiration after the unknown or unattainable.

Neo-classicism: The term Neo-classic is applied to any school which closely follows classical rules and models. (It has special reference to the 17th and 18th centuries of French literature, based very largely upon misinterpretations of Aristotle's *poetics*.)

Romany: The language of the Gypsies.

Roundelay: This term denotes a simple poem or song of about fourteen lines in which part of one line frequently recurs as a refrain.

Saga: This name is often applied to a collection of ancient Scandinavian myths and stories treated in a continuous narrative and forming a short prose epic. Sagas usually centre on some mythological or historical hero.

Satanic School: This phrase was first used by Southey to designate the members of the romantic group consisting of Shelley, Byron, Hunt and their companions, who led irregular lives and propagated radical ideas.

Satire: Strictly speaking, this term denotes an attitude or mood of ridicule directed against society or individuals. A Satirical composition may be light and playful, it may be malicious or merely mischievous, it may be judicious and corrective in purpose, or purely abusive and vindictive. In literary art the satirical mood appears in many form-prose, verse, or drama—and oftener in some periods than in others.

Scansion: The examination of metrical structure, counting and distinguishing the feet in a line.

Scenario: A working synopsis of a story plot arranged according to the particular needs of the moving-picture industry. A summary of a story told in picturising words.

Scholasticism: This term is often applied to the philosophy that prevailed in Europe during the Middle Ages, particularly in the 12th and following centuries. It has been generally characterised as an attempt to form a scientific system on the basis, founded on the pre-supposition that the creed of the Church was absolutely true and capable of rationalisation.

Sentimentalism: This term is often used in two senses. Firstly it denotes an over indulgence in emotion particularly the deliberate attempt to induce an emotion in order to analyse and enjoy it; also the failure to check or evaluate emotion through the exercise of the judgment. Secondly it implies an optimistic over-emphasis of the goodness of humanity ("sensibility"), representing in part a rationalistic reaction against orthodox Calvinistic theology, which regarded human nature as depraved.

Serenade: This term denotes a sentimental composition written to be sung out of door at night under a lady's window and in praise of a loved one.

Simile: "Like." A comparison. Two things or actions are linked to each other either for clearness and ease of explanation or for other poetical effect. It can be simple or developed.

(i) 'Loose clouds like earth's decaying leaves are shed.' *Ode to the West Wind* (Shelley).

Sociological Novel. The: This term denotes a particular type of prose fiction which derives its main interest, background and problem from the conditions of society, among which the characters move. An outstanding example of this type of fiction is Galsworthy's *Forsyte Saga*.

Socratic: The "Socratic method" in argument or explanation is the use of the question-and-answer formula employed by Socrates in *Plato's Dialogues*.

Solecism: A violation of grammatical construction or idiom in speech or in writing. "Between you and I" and "he don't" are solecisms.

Soliloquy: Etimologically, "speaking while one is alone (*solus*).". In literary art it is the solitary oral expression of one speaker. The device is employed particularly in drama where it is used to reveal the innermost thoughts of the soliloquizer, or to convey to the audience information or moods not obtained either from the action or the dialogue.

Sonnet: Poetic form introduced from Italy to England by Sir Thomas Wyatt, who followed in principle the Petrarchan mode, which, strictly interpreted, has the rhyme scheme abba abba, ccdcd, with a turn of thought at the close of the octave; Milton and Wordsworth are exponents of this type. The Elizabethan form, as used by Shakespeare, has the rhyme scheme abab cdcd efef gg.

Spenserian Stanza: Nine-line stanza, consisting of eight pentameters, followed by one hexameter or Alexandrine, rhyming ababbcbcc.

Spoonerism: Ludicrous involuntary transposition of sounds of spoken words e.g., 'shoving leopard' for 'loving shephcrd' (chamber Dic.).

Stanza: This term denotes a division of a poem written, usually, according to a single pattern.

Stream-of-consciousness Novel, The: In the words of a critic it is "a modern literary term applied to the technique of mental and emotional dissection used particularly by writers of the psychological novel. In these highly introverted narratives the external experiences of the chief characters are much less important than the relationship of these events to the consciousness and subconsciousness of the actors".

Sweetness and Light: This phrase was made popular by Matthew Arnold who used it in his book *Culture and Anarchy* (1869). These two "noblest of things," as Arnold uses the term, are *beauty and intelligence*—and it is to these two qualities that "sweetness and light" refers.

Symbolism: The characteristic of some writers to invest objects, actions, or ideas with a symbolic meaning; representation, not literally, but by symbols.

The symbolists turned away from Realism, towards a kind of Mysticism. They stressed the power of music and tried to make their lyrical poetry convey by musical language and delicate nuances thoughts and emotions beyond definite analysis. (See the writings of E. A. Poe, and the French Symbolists Mallarme Verlaine).

Symphony: A musical composition for full orchestra, usually consisting of four contrasted but closely related movements. Beethoven and Mozart, as well as Brahms and Vaughan Williams are some of the greatest composers of the symphony.

Symposium: Literally speaking this term stands for a convivial gathering or drinking together following a dinner at which intellectual conversation was exchanged or other entertainment given; and, derivatively, *a collection of opinions or articles by different writers on various aspects of some question*.

Synonym: A name or word having the same meaning with another.

Tautology: Needless repetition of the same thing in different words. For instance, "he wrote an autobiography of his life".

Terza rima: A three-line stanza form borrowed from the Italian poets. The rime scheme is *aba, bcb, cdc, etc.*

Tragi-comedy: This term designates a play in which the moods and techniques of both tragedy and comedy are combined. The action, serious in theme and subject matter

and sometimes in tone also, seems to be leading to a tragic catastrophe until an unexpected turn in events, often in the form of a *deus ex machina*, brings about the denouement.

Transcendentalism: A mode of thought, originating with Kant, "concerned not with objects, but with our mode of knowing objects". From Germany it was introduced into England, and influenced Coleridge and Carlyle. In New England it developed c 1840–60 into a mystical doctrine which saw God as immanent in nature and the human soul. Outstanding American transcendentalists are Thoreau and Emerson.

Travesty: A kind of burlesque in which the original characters are preserved, the situations are parodied.

"Tribe of Ben": This was a contemporary nick-name for the young writers of the seventeenth century who followed "rare Ben Johnson" as their master. The chief of this "tribe" was Robert Herrick.

Universality: This term is often used to indicate the presence in a work of art of an appeal to all people and all time.

University Wits: This name was used to designate certain young University men who came to London in the late 1580's and adopted careers as professional men of letters. Some of the outstanding University Wits were Marlowe, Greene, Peele etc.

Utopia: (Gk, *nowhere*). Name given by Sir Thomas More to the imaginary commonwealth described in his "Utopia" (1516), and hence applied to similar dream-countries of other writers e. g. Plato's "Republic," Bacon's "Atlantis," and Capanella's "City of the Sun."

Vade mecum: This term is frequently used to indicate an article which one always keeps with him. By constant use the term has come to signify any book much used as a handbook, a *thesaurus*:

Vaudeville: An entertainment consisting of successive performances of unrelated songs, dances, dramatic sketches, acrobatic feats, juggling, pantomime, puppet-shows, and varied "stunts."

Verisimilitude: The appearance or semblance of truth and actuality. The term has been used in criticism to indicate the degree to which a writer faithfully presents the truth.

Wardour-Street English: This name is applied to a style characterised by archaisms; and insincere, artificial expression.

Whimsical: A term often used in criticism to specify writing which is eccentric, odd, fanciful.

ARTISTIC TERMS

Bas Relief : Shallow carving or sculpture on a background (less than half of its depth).

Black-letter Printing. Printing in old-fashioned types, as in German until recently.

Calisthenics : The art of exercising limbs and muscles not only for acquiring strength but also for acquiring grace of form and movement.

Cameo . A piece of relief-carving in stone with colour layers which are utilized as the background.

Cartoon . A large illustration, usually on political subject, in a comic paper.

Chiaroscuro : Treatment of light and shade in painting.

Cubism : A recent style in art. Cubism consists in presenting objects in such a manner as to give the effect of a collection of geometrical figures.

Decadence : A period of literature after its culmination when certain vices, obscurities, and affectations of style become prominent.

Elgin Marbles, The : Lord Elgin (1766—1841), a British diplomatist, brought to England from Athens, a large number of old Greek statuary and other works of art. The 'Elgin Marbles', as they were called were acquired for the British Museum. The poet Keats was highly impressed by them.

Embossing : Carving or moulding of figures in relief.

Etching : Reproducing a picture or portraying a subject by engraving metal plate etc., by means of acids or others corrosives.

Exoticism : A romantic tendency in art and literature that encourages the drawing of exotic or foreign and unfamiliar (hence romantic) scenes of passions.

Expressionism : A tendency in modern art and literature that consists in subordinating realism to the symbolic or stylistic expression of the artist's or character's inner experience.

Fantasia : A musical composition in which form is subservient to fancy.

Filigree : Ornamental work of fine gold or silver or copper wire formed into delicate tracery.

Fresco-Painting : A method of painting in water-colour laid on a wall or ceiling before the plaster is dry.

Gargayle : A grotesque looking spout usually with human or animal mouth, head or body, projecting from the gutter of a Gothic building.

Guitar : Six stringed lute played with hand with fretted finger-board.

Harp : Stringed, triangular musical instrument played with fingers.

Hieroglyphics : Picture-writing, such as prevailed in ancient Egypt.

Impressionism : A method of painting that started with the American-born painter Whistler (1834–1903), consisting in giving the general tone or effect without elaborate detail or with details so treated as to be apprehended simultaneously, and not successively, as in Pre-Raphaelite painting.

Jazz : A kind of music and dancing, of American Negro origin.

Painting (a) **Oil-painting** : Art of painting with pigments (colours) ground in oil. (b) **Water-colour painting**. Painting in which the pigments are mixed with water, not with oil.

Pantomime : Dumb show ; a play ending with a transformation scene followed by the broad comedy of the clown and the pantaloon, and the dancing of the harlequin and columbine.

Renaissance : The revival of art and letters in Europe (at first in Italy and then elsewhere) under the influence of classical models during fourteenth to sixteenth centuries. Renaissance affected every branch of human activity. Whereas in art it produced Raphael and Leonardo, in literature Dante, Boccaccio and Shakspeare, in politics it produced Machiavelli, and in religion, Erasmus and Luther.

Sculpture : Art of representing objects by chiselling stone, carving wood, modelling clay or casting metal.

Waltz : A kind of dance in which the partners progress circling round each other in embrace.

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PSYCHOLOGICAL & PHILOSOPHICAL TERMS

Abnormal Psychology : The branch of psychology concerned with the study of uncommon, removed from the average, phenomena of mental life (whether due to cultural maladjustment or to physiological disorders).

Adolescence : The transitional period of development, from the child into the adult, usually lasting from 13 to 22 in males. During this stage, also known as *puberty*, the individual undergoes physiological growth and mental restlessness as a prelude to adult maturity.

Ambivalence : Duality or bipolarity of feeling. The phenomenon that a person may experience the opposite feelings, e.g. love and hate at the same time towards a given object.

Amnesia : The loss or the impairment of memory.

Anxiety Neurosis : A mental state consisting of dread and fear, without apparent cause in the outer world.

Archetype : A term in the Jungian psychology standing for what is acquired through the racial or traditional background of the individual, which influences his conduct imperceptibly.

Aesthetics : A study concerned with the facts and laws of aesthetic experience. Though traditionally treated as a philosophical study it is now more or less independent.

Automatism : Self-regulating phenomenon, which though requiring conscious attention normally, can operate by itself while the mind is away.

Behaviourism : The view that mental processes are conditioned physiologically ; that there is no such thing as consciousness and the 'mind' works according to fixed patterns.

Cardinal Virtues : Plato's famous list of the four fundamental virtues namely, wisdom, courage, temperance and justice.

Case History : All evidence about an individual which explains him, such as physiological, psychological or environmental.

Catharsis : An Aristotelian term denoting the purging of hidden passions by the inducement of pity or fear ; *in modern terms the removal of repressed complexes.*

Child-parent Fixation : A psycho-analytic term meaning attachment to the parent in such a way as to exclude the attraction towards others.

Claustrophobia : The fear of being closed in narrow spaces. Its etiology is explained psychologically.

Cognition : The process whereby one arrives at the knowledge, or the awareness of an object.

Compulsion Neurosis : A bunch of psychological disorders, recognisable by the irresistibility by which they force on an individual to perform or to cherish an idea or action, though the unreasonableness of which may be admitted by that very individual.

Complex : A group or system of emotionally tinged ideas which have been repressed and thus give rise to abnormal or morbid behaviour.

Conflict : Opposing tendencies leading to divergence in conduct.

Cosmology : A department of metaphysics which rounds off and corrects the knowledge attained by the separate sciences to provide us with a coherent theory of the universe.

Defence Mechanism : An adjustment which enables a person to avoid an unpleasant fact by overlooking it.

Delinquency : A term denoting the breaking of legal or moral codes ; especially used in relation with children's habitual misconduct .

Delusion : Belief so unsound as to be capable of being held only by an insane mind.

Dementia : The loss of mental powers and of emotional response.

Dissociation : Weakening of the general tendency of mental activities to be systematically organized or integrated with reference to each other. Nevertheless the split up systems within the consciousness continue to have a unity of their own.

Dream : A more or less coherent imagery sequence occurring during sleep.

Dream Interpretation : Analysis of a dream by means of free association and by the application of certain principles to discover the concealed or repressed wishes of the dreamer. This is the fundamental technique of the psycho-analyst.

Educational Psychology : The investigation of the psychological problems involved in education and statements as to the practical application of psychological principles to education.

Ego : The ego designates the self-centered as opposed to the social motives of the self. Freud divided the psyche into the Ego and the Id. The 'ego' is that part of the individual which centres round perception and is therefore regulated by the reality principle. While the 'Id' is the rest of the personality regulated by the pleasure principle.

Epistemology : Department of Metaphysics concerned with the validity, the means and the limits of human knowledge.

Ethics : A normative study dealing with what is good or evil, right or wrong, in human conduct. At present some philosophers are inclined to treat it as including a general study of the nature of value.

Faculty Psychology : The doctrine that human nature is composed of a number of powers or agencies which cause and carry out the various mental activities.

Habit : The punctual and regular carrying out of an act.

Hedonism : An ethical theory which holds pleasure to be the sole intrinsic good.

Heredity . The phenomenon of the transmission of traits from parent to children through generations (explained by biologists as due to the existence of chromosomes).

Hyperosis : A passive dream-like state induced by a hypnotizer. The subject is attentive to the latter and acts according to his suggestions, though inattentive to other stimulus.

Hypochondria : The exaggerated anxiety about one's own health.

Hysteria : Mental and nervous derangements, followed by symptoms like hallucinations, anesthesia, paralysis etc.

Illusion : The sensing of a non-existent object, or a mistaken perception or the mistaking of one object for another.

Impotence . Sterility or loss of the ability to reproduce.

Impulse : An involuntary action, unpreceded by reflective thought.

Infantilism : The display of infantile or adolescent traits, physical or mental, in a grown adult.

Inferiority feeling : The conviction that one is below the average standard of one's fellow.

Inferiority Complex : An exaggerated feeling of inferiority to one's fellow of which the victim is unconscious.

Inhibition : The blocking or the stopping of a process from its continuation on its course ; mental condition where an individual finds it difficult to pursue a course of action as if restrained by some outside agency.

Insight : The sudden realization of the inner connections of the meaning or purpose of a situation or of an object. A knowledge not based on an earlier experience of the same.

Insomnia : The inability to sleep.

Instinct : A complex mode of behaviour which is determined for each species by factors in the germ-plasm. This mode will manifest itself in characteristic ways in each member of the species (if allowed to develop in an environment normal to its species). This act is displayed as a response to a definite type of situation and runs its natural course without the necessity for conscious or voluntary action.

Intellect : Generally, cognitive functions or process of the brain.

Intelligence test : A device for judging the ability and intelligence of individuals.

Introversion : A turning within (opp. of Extraversion). It implies an absorbment with one's own internal-psychical processes.

Intuition : Immediate or sudden direct knowledge without recourse to 'thinking or reflection.' Religiously it implies the knowledge that cannot be put into words.

Kleptomania : The inability to restrain oneself from stealing while there is no need to do so.

Logic : A department of philosophy dealing with the principles of valid thought.

Maladjustment : A psychological situation or state where an individual or group of individuals are incapacitated to act to the best of their abilities, due either to divergent pulls

within or too little or too great ability in the context of a given situation.

Masochism : Aggression turned upon the self (very often due to sexual maladjustment).

Memory : The general function of the brain to reproduce byegone experiences, with the conscious knowledge that they are only copies or images of real situations.

Mental Age : The level of growth reached by an individual in general intellectual capacities ; and measured by intelligence tests.

Mental Measurement : The quantitative evaluation of an individual's capacities and resources.

Metaphysics : A term originally adopted by Aristotle's commentators to denote his treatises following the 'physics'. Very often it is treated as the study of what is supersensuous or beyond our experience. Perhaps it may be best defined in the words of F. H. Bradley, as an attempt to find out the best "*intellectual* attitude towards ultimate Reality."

Moral imbecility : The incapacity to gauge or imbibe moral rules and values and to act up to them. (It is very often due to mental deficiency).

Multiple Personality : Deranged condition of the mind, when it acts not as a whole but through complicated compartmentalized pieces, or sub-personalities which very often contradict one another. Nevertheless, underlying them a unity can be discovered consisting of the essential personality of the individual (dual personality does not possess this unity).

Nervous : The state of a person easily excited emotionally showing unsystematic activity and irritability, restlessness, impulsiveness and purposelessness:

Neurosis : Mental disorder of the nervous system or some specific part thereof. The symptoms of it include fixed ideas, phobias, obsessions etc.

Obsession : Involvement with an idea, and the tendency to connect all of one's experiences with it automatically. But an obsession does not have a definite content, like fixed notions.

Oedipus Complex : An unconscious desire for incestuous relationship with one's parent of the opposite sex.

Ontology : Department of metaphysics dealing with the most general determinations of being.

Paranoia : A psychosis recognizable by well-organized delusions (delusions of grandeur and persecution are the most common).

Perversion : Socially reprehensible behaviour resulting from the breaking of accepted forms.

Pleasure-pain principle : A Freudian principle according to which the unconscious personality of man is (or the back-brain) always moved by the simple formula of the search for pleasure and the avoidance of pain, and is thus influencing the actions of the conscious mind unknown to the latter.

Projection : The unconscious process whereby the disliked parts of one's own personality, which one cannot tolerate in oneself, are reflected on to others and thus one escapes the guilty feeling (by attributing the same to others).

Psycho-analysis : The method of finding by a process of free association, in dream etc. the various motivations of a person, not easily discernible by the person itself, because of their painful association, and of freeing the person of their inhibitory power. This whole concept involves the hypothesis of the unconscious and its repressed contents and their being brought into the conscious mind by the technique of the psycho-analyst.

Psychiatrist : One who treats diseases of the mind.

Psycho-path : Person suffering from eccentricities, mental disorders and emotional instability.

Psychosis : A severe mental disease leading to loss of sanity.

Puberty : Period during which the generative organs develop and become capable of functioning.

Reflex : A simple act which involves no act of choice, will or deliberation. It can also be called automatic behaviour (based upon an arrangement of nerves).

Regression . A reversion to primitive modes of response, either physiologically or mentally. Amongst human beings this tendency unlike other species affects the mentation and the physiognomy. Thus under great emotional stress the individual tends to the lowest level or, in other words, to the infantile method of response to reality environment.

Repression : This is the corner-stone of the Freudian psychology. The undesirable ideas and wishful imaginings all out of harmony with the demands of the personality as well as reality, are supposed to be pushed down into the 'underground unconscious'. Nevertheless they try to smuggle out in the shape and garbs of ideas that cannot be identified by consciousness.

Self-consciousness : An emotional and mental state when one is keenly aware of the presence of others and their reaction towards one (as opposed to the involvement of oneself with one's own thoughts).

Shut in personality : Individual greatly lacking in expressiveness of either feeling, thought, or sociability.

Social Behaviour : Acts channelized towards the external reality : society, or in being useful to more than oneself.

Solipsism : Belief that there is no certainty beyond one's own self-existence.

Somnambulism : Walking in one's sleep which leaves no after-effects or the memory of having done so.

Suggestion : An idea or plan of action adopted by an individual without calling it in question. It is usually suggested by some one, other than the subject. When a suggestion is made by the individual to himself it is called *Auto-Suggestion*.

Stereotype : A mind that takes for granted certain ideas and believes in them blindly, thus blocking unbiased observations and clear thought about a situation.

Super-ego : The personified name for all those elements in a personality that stand for altruistic or social ideals.

Transference : Displacement of effect from the person analysed on to the analyst in a psycho-analysis course.

Taboo : The prohibition by a group, social or religious authority of certain modes of behaviour, in thought, word or deed.

Trauma : An abnormal condition of body caused by external injury.

Unconscious : The opposite of the conscious. It is the source of most activities, whose motivating force, though unknown to the doer, yet occupies a vital place on the psyche. Most of these unconscious motivations are sexual in origin, and thus are repressed, nevertheless they find outlet by unrecognizable means in the conscious personality, in other words, symbolically. The unconscious desires mainly originate during childhood and live a vital life in the unconscious.

Volition : A state of deliberate choice, of voluntary behaviour, chosen and preferred by the individual.

SCIENTIFIC TERMS

Absolute Zero : The lowest temperature which can possibly exist equivalent to -273°C .

Aerial (Wireless) : The wires which transmit or collect electrical waves whereby communication is set up.

Aero bomb : A bomb dropped by an aeroplane.

Aerolite : Meteoric stones which sometimes fall from the sky to the earth.

Aerometry : Science of air measurement.

Aeronaut : A person connected with the navigation of an airship.

Aeronautics : Science of air-navigation.

Aerostatics : The science of elastic fluids or air equilibrium.

Air base : A base from which air force units operate.

Air craft-carrier : This is a large war-ship fully protected and armed, carrying planes which can take off from its deck and return to it afterwards.

Air-line : An organization controlling an air service over an air route.

Air-pocket : This is an aerial disturbance caused by vacuum spaces, among high hill and over valleys, making it dangerous for flying.

Air registrations letters : Aircraft of each country are definitely marked for distinctive purposes. These aircraft letters are :

Great Britain	G - AAAA	to	G - ZZZZ
Germany	D - AAAA	to	D - ZZZZ
France	F - AAAA	to	F - ZZZZ
Italy	I - AAAA	to	I - ZZZZ
USSR	RA - AAA	to	RQ - ZZR
India	VT - AAA	to	VT - ZZZ

Airship : A large bloated or gas-filled envelope of fabric with suspended gondolas or internal accommodation, lighter than air, depending for its buoyancy on the gas pressure. Britain abandoned this type of aircraft in 1931 on grounds of inutility. Germany never officially abandoned this kind of airship, and the U. S. A. has found it useful.

Alchemy : Occult chemistry, aiming at the transmutation of baser metal into gold.

Alkaloid : A group of organic alkaline found in plants, e. g. nicotine, morphine, etc.

Alternating Current : Electric current which periodically varies in magnitude and direction, starting from zero, increasing to maximum, decreasing to zero again, increasing to maximum and decreasing to zero in reverse direction.

Ampere : Unit of intensity of electric current ; current sent by 1 volt through 1 ohm.

Anemometer : Gauge for measuring speed or pressure of wind.

Anthropography : The science of distribution of the human race.

Anthropology : Phychological and psychological science of man.

Anti-cyclone : It is an atmospheric phenomenon. A high pressure area is created in the form of a circle or oval, the pressure decreasing towards the edges.

Archimedean law : The law which states that a body wholly or partly immersed in a fluid loses in weight by an amount equal to that of the fluid displaced.

Armaments : Forces armed or equipped for war, but chiefly munitions such as big guns for fortifications.

Armature : Core of laminated copper wire, the part of a dynamo which rotates in the magnetic field.

Arsenals : Government manufactories of military and naval requirements.

Artesian well : A method of obtaining water by boring a hole through an impervious strata to the water-bearing strata below.

Arson : The malicious burning of a dwelling-house or outhouse of another man.

Asdic . This word is an abbreviation for Arti Submarine Dector Indicator Committee which invented an apparatus for detecting the presence of enemy submarines under water by use of echoes. It was used during the 2nd World War.

Asteroid : A small planet whose orbit is between Mars and Jupiter, revolving round the sun.

Artigmatism : Structural defect in the eye or a lense; preventing rays of light from being brought to a common focus.

Atmospheric pressure : This is exerted on land and sea surfaces and comes from the weight which air possesses.

Atom Bomb : A bomb manufactured by the Allied scientists in the U. S. A. during the last war. It has the explosive power of 20,000 tons of T. N. T. and derives it from atomic fission; only two bombs were dropped on Japan and they wiped out the cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki.

Audiphone : An instrument for improving imperfect sense of hearing.

Audiometer : Instrument for testing hearing power or for measuring intensity of sounds.

Aurora Borealis : Luminous quivering glow, seen at night in the sky in northern latitudes.

Autoclave : Apparatus enabling the temperature of an introduced substance to be raised well above 100° C of water.

Automobile : Self-moving or self movable. Specifically used for vehicle propelled by an engine worked by petrol.

Autotoxin . Poisonous substance produced by changes within the organism.

Avalanche : is a mass of snow and ice loosened by thaw which rushes down a mountain side collecting more and more snow, together with earth, etc, in its descent.

Bacillus : A rod-shaped germ.

Bacteriology : The study of bacteria or microbes.

Balloon Barrage : Obstacle for hostile aircraft by balloons floating at a height in order to guard docks, workshops, etc.

Battle cruiser : A large cruiser lightly armoured with great speed and hitting power.

Battle-ship : It is a formidably armed, heavily armoured and highly mobile floating fortress, which can hit harder and better repulse all forms of attacks than any other warship. It can inflict the utmost destruction, and withstand the maximum punishment and is the most powerful fighting ship it is possible to construct.

Beacons : Flares or arc lights on the ground to indicate to aviators where they may safely land.

Beam system (wireless) : A system whereby, with the aid of reflectors, short waves are projected in a particular direction, not radiated in all directions.

Binnacle : The box or the case used on board ships containing the compass and accessories.

Binoculars : Field or opera glasses through which both eyes look at the same time.

Biochemistry : The science that deals with the structure of constituents of living matter.

Biometry : Science of measurement or calculation of the probable duration of life.

Blood transfusion : Transferring of blood from the veins of a person or animal to those of another person.

Bren gun : A new type of machine-gun, light and rapid.

Bren gun carrier : A light armoured car fitted with bren gun.

Broadcasting : Distributing from a station by wireless telegraphy, of news, lectures, music, etc., for general reception with suitable apparatus.

Camouflage : The skilful concealment of troops, or gun by using natural objects, such as branches of trees, to afford cover from air attack, or at sea the painting of ships and the

erection of tunnels to deceive the enemy in respect to the direction of movement.

Capstan : An upright machine turned by spokes used on ships and in docks for manipulating heavy ropes, cables etc. to draw such things as the anchor etc.

Carburetter : An apparatus mixing air with petrol vapour in combustion, in motor vehicles.

Cellulose : Consisting of cells or substance forming solid framework of plants.

Centigrade thermometer : Has 0° as the freezing point of water and 100° as the boiling point of water.

Centrifugal force : The force with which a body revolving round the centre tends to fly off.

Chemistry : Natural science of the composition and formation of substances.

Chloroform : An anaesthetic; a thin, colourless liquid which when inhaled, produces insensibility.

Chronometer : Instrument much like a watch in size and shape for measuring time with particular exactitude, used for determining longitude at sea and for other purposes, where accuracy and portability are required.

Chronoscope : An instrument for measuring minute time intervals.

Clinometer : An instrument for the measurement of vertical angles, largely employed in ordinary survey to determine the position of contour lines.

Convoy : A ship or ships of war guarding a fleet of merchant vessels and bringing them safely to port under escort, also the escort of supply lorries.

Corvette : A class of vessels in the British navy of a modified whaler design, built during the World War, chiefly in Canada, renderes service in guarding convoys.

Criminology : The scientific study of crime as a social phenomenon.

Cruiser : It is a fast type of warship used in naval warfare, which has adequate protection and substantial armament, superior to all other types of warships except the battleship or the battle cruiser. It is capable of proceeding independently half across the world without refuelling.

In modern warfare its main function is to patrol the principal ocean high ways for the defence of the sea-bound trade of its country, search out and destroy enemy surface raiders and other hostile crafts and act as a scout for the battle fleet at sea.

Depth charges : Bombs dropped on submerged submarines, either by anti-submarine, naval craft or aircraft, which only explodes below the surface of the water, at desired depths. Its radius is approximately 60 feet.

Dermatology : The science which treats of the skin, its structure, functions and diseases

Destroyer : It is a class of very fast, well armed, but unarmoured warship between 900 to 2,300 tons displacement. It is a handy general utility vessel mounting from 4 to 8 guns, a number of torpedo tubes, numerous light anti aircraft weapons and depth charge throwers. It was used in the 2nd world war to destroy submarines and to protect convoys. India recently acquired three destroyers from the British Navy, which it has renamed the Rana, the Rajput and the Ranjit.

Dictaphone : An electrical machine for recording on the same principle as a gramaphone, on a revolving wax cylinder, words spoken into the attached mouthpiece. This cylinder is then transferred to the transcribing machine, which reproduces the words through a headphone, when they can be typed out.

Diesel Engine : An oil-engine invented by Dr. R. Diesel of Munich.

Dive Bomber : A bombing plane that dives down and comes close to the target before dropping its bombs and zooms up quickly to avoid a smash. German Stuka planes were dive-bombers.

Dynamo : A machine converting mechanical into electrical energy by rotating coils of copper wire in a magnetic field.

Dynamometer : A machine for measuring amount of force exerted by an engine.

Electron : A minute particle charged with negative electricity, or a unit negative charge having inertia, normally forming part of an atom but capable of isolation as in cathode rays.

Electrocution : Killing by electricity as capital punishment (U. S. A.).

Electrolysis : The decomposition of a substance by means of the passage of an electric current through it. The process is used on an industrial scale in the manufacture and refinement of many metals. Thus crude copper is purified by electrolysis in a bath of acidified copper sulphate solution, the impure metal being made the anode and a thin sheet of pure copper being used as a cathode. During the process of electrolysis the coins of the pure metal are attracted to and are discharged at the cathode, while the remaining material remains as a slush at the anode.

Electrometer : An instrument for measuring minute differences of voltage, or the quantity of electricity.

Epidemiology : The science of epidemics.

Eugenics : The science of race-improvements by judicious mating.

Ferrel's Law : It states that if a body moves in any direction on the earth's surface except east and west it is deflected owing to the earth's rotation, to the right in the northern hemisphere and to the left in the southern hemisphere. In geography, the principle governs the direction of winds and currents. It is largely responsible for the summer monsoons of India.

Fuse : A bit of a fusible metal inserted as a safeguard in an electric circuit. If the current carried by the fuse exceeds the fixed value the fuse melts and thus disconnects the current.

Fusilage : That part of an aeroplane or seaplane which forms the main body to which all the other parts are attached.

Galvanometer : An instrument for measuring current of small magnitude.

Gamma Rays : Specially penetrating rays emitted by radium and other radio-active substances.

Geoscopy : Knowledge of the earth or its soil gained from observation.

Helicopter : A flying machine rising vertically by means of lifting propellers, revolving horizontally. It can hover, and rise from and alight in a very limited area.

Heliograph : An instrument for sending messages over long distances by flashing the sun's rays from a mirror.

Heliography : Method of communicating swiftly between distant points by means of the sun's rays, reflected from mirrors.

Hydrometer : Instrument for measuring specific gravity of liquids.

Hydroplane : A form of aeroplane with pontoons (flat boats) and made to alight on, rise from, and glide upon water.

Hydroscope : Instrument for observing the bottom of a body of water.

Hydrostatics : The science of pressure and equilibrium of fluids.

Internal Combustion Engine : It is an engine in which heat energy is added to the air within the working cylinder and converted into mechanical work through the medium of a piston or by a turbine motor. Petrol is used in the motor engine, heavy oil in the Diesel Engine and coal gas in the gas engine.

Jet Propulsion : As generally applied in the propulsion of air craft, this is based on the principle that when gases under great compression and heating processes are allowed to escape through a jet, they provide a reaction which gives a thrust ; this being directly proportional to the amount of the air-gas acceleration. In a large modern Jet Propulsion unit the hot gas escaping at the rear may attain to as much as 1 ton a minute. In the jet plane the hot products of combustion are forced into a restricted chamber housing a turbine mounted on a long shaft, at the forward end of which is a compressor driven by this turbine and this compresses the air and forces it into the combustion chambers under pressure, where it burns with the atomised fuel. This drives the turbine and the gases are forced out with an extremely high velocity which thrusts the plane forward.

Kaleidoscope : An optical instrument for presenting constantly varying patterns. It consists of a tube containing pieces of coloured glass.

Linotype : A machine used for setting up type matrices and casting bars of type in complete lines by mechanical operations.

Lithography : The art of writing or engraving on a kind of yellow slabby limestone and printing therefrom.

Machine gun : Quick firing, small arm gun with mechanism of loading and firing, operated by the recoil or discharge or by the expulsion of gas.

Magneto : An apparatus for generating high voltage electric currents to produce ignition in an internal combustion engine. It is used in aeroplanes, tractors, motor boats etc.

Meteor : A shooting or falling star or any phenomena in the sky.

Meteorology : The science which treats of the phenomena of the atmosphere as regards weather and climate.

Micrometer : Instrument for making minute and exact measurement.

Microphone : An instrument that converts sound waves into electrical waves. It intensifies and renders audible the faintest possible sound.

Microscope : Instrument with high power of magnification used for observing minute objects.

Microtome : Instrument used in cutting very thin sections of objects for examination by the microscope.

Mortar : A short and very thick piece of artillery of large calibre, firing a heavy shell at a fixed angle of 45° or thereabouts.

Necromancy : The art of revealing future events by calling up and questioning the spirits of the dead.

Osmosis : The process by which liquids diffuse through a permeable membrane from a solution in which they are more concentrated to one in which concentration is less. This process is thus responsible for the absorption of soil water by roots and of materials in a liquid state by organs and membranes of animal bodies.

Parachute : A collapsible umbrella-shaped device, attached to the person of an airmen, which, when released, opens out and carries the airmen down to safety, by retarding his too rapid fall or descent. So *parachutist*, and *para-troops*.

Paratroops : Troops trained to be dropped from an aeroplane by means of parachutes behind enemy lines much used by the Germans during the 2nd world war, which enabled them to confuse their enemy and thus gain easy victory.

Pedometer : Instrument worn on the person which records the distance walked by the wearer.

Periscope : An optical instrument designed for observation from a concealed position. In essence it is based on the use of two reflecting mirrors in a tube with parallel surfaces inclined at an angle of 45° to the tubes axis: It attained prominence in naval and military operations (specially in the trenches) in the First Great War.

Phonogram or Phonograph : An instrument by which spoken words or other sounds can be recorded and afterwards given out again, almost in the original tones.

Photo-telegraph : Instrument for transmitting drawings and photographs, etc., by telegraphy.

Plane of the ecliptic : Represents the plane in which the path or orbit of the earth lies in its revolution round the sun.

Polarioscope or Polarimeter : An instrument for determining the amount of polarization of light.

Pom-Pom : The name given to one-pounder quick firing shell gun, from its sound.

Pylon : Large metal towers erected to support power transmission cables.

Pyrophotometer : An optical instrument for the measurement and comparison of very high temperatures.

Radar : This is a sensitive instrument by which the position of an object in space is located by radio waves and its speed and direction of movement is also located. The principle on which it is worked is, that all solid and liquid bodies reflect radio waves, which are uninfluenced by darkness, cloud or fog. To detect any reflecting object it is necessary first to flood that object with radio waves. Ground reflectors are used to pick up the reflected beam and it is then possible to determine

the direction of arrival of the waves and thus the direction of the radio located object with respect to the ground station.

The distance along that direction may also be determined by timing the journey of the radio waves to the reflecting object and back. The accurate and speedy measurement of the time intervals of these waves going and coming back is the basic feature of the radio measurement of distance.

Radio-location : Detection of aircraft, ships, etc., by radio device. Hence *radio-locator*.

Radiometer. An instrument for measuring effect of radiant energy.

Radio-telegraph : Apparatus for transmitting messages by wireless telegraph.

Radium therapy : Treatment of diseases by means of radioactive substances.

Range Finder : An optical instrument for finding the distance of a target from the firing point.

Relay (wireless) : To broadcast anew a message, programme, or the like, received from another station.

Rocket Bomb : It is an aluminum tube 50 ft. long tapering to a warhead point, carrying a ton of explosive. Below this are the radio receiver, alcohol and oxygen tanks. When fired, it rises to a height of 70 miles and attains a speed of 3000 m. p. h. and is aimed at the object which is meant to be destroyed by gyroscopic control. This type of bomb, called the V₂ bomb by the Germans was used by them during 1944-45, specially at London.

Sextant : An optical instrument used in navigation and in land surveying for measuring the altitudes of celestial bodies and their angular distances. It consists of a graduated brass sector—the sex part of a circle and an arrangement of two small mirrors and telescope.

Specific gravity : Relative weight of any kind of matter expressed by the ratio of given volume to same volume of water (for liquid or solid matter) and of air (for gas).

Spectroheliograph : Instrument for photographing the sun by monochromatic light.

Spectrometer : Instrument for measuring angular deviation of ray of light passing through prism.

Spectroscope : Instrument for analysing the spectra of rays emitted by luminous bodies.

Speedometer : Instrument which registers the speed at which a vehicle is travelling.

Stereoscope : Optical instrument, for representing to the eyes as single object in relief, two views of the object taken from slightly different angles.

Stethoscope : An instrument for hearing sound of heart, lungs etc.

Submarine : Essentially an under-water craft which submerges, especially, to fire torpedoes; it has a round or square conning or look out tower and a periscope or reflecting instrument which are its eyes under water.

Tear gas : A kind of poison gas that causes tears, used by the police to disperse crowds.

Teleprinter : Instrument which types automatically messages received on telephone wires.

Television : The transmission of scenes or varying images by converting them into electrical waves by means of the photo-electric effect and reproducing them at the receiving end from the electrical wave.

Tommy Gun : A self-loading rifle so called from its inventor John. T. Thomson (U.S.A)

Torpedo : A self-propelled submarine weapon of offence, usually cigar shaped, carrying a charge of gun-cotton.

Torpedo boat : A small swift warship specially designed to attack by discharging torpedoes.

Tracer-bullet : A bullet which leaves a smoke trail to mark its course.

Turbine : It is a rotary steam engine in which kinetic energy of steam or water is converted into work. It consists usually of a shaft, wheel or rotor, carrying a number of blades. Against the latter are directed jets of steam which cause the shaft to rotate at a high speed and thus set into motion the machines to be worked.

Ultramicroscope : A microscope with strong illumination from the side whereby the presence of objects can be observed though they are too small to be seen in their own form.

V-I or the Flying Bomb : A bomb carried in a small pilotless aircraft, moving by jet propulsion, first used against Southern England by the Germans in the Summer of 1944.

V-II or the Rocket Bomb : Is a rocket, carrying load of high explosive, flying faster than sound (more than 3000 m. p. h.) ; first used by the Germans.

Vacuum-cleaner : Apparatus for removing dust from carpets etc., by suction.

Valve (wireless) : An electric contrivance which converts wireless waves into vibrations audible in the receiver.

Wireless station : A station for wireless transmission.

Y-gun : A two-barrelled anti-submarine gun.

Zeppelin : Large airship first built in Germany.

MEDICAL TERMS

Abscess : A localised collection of pus enclosed anywhere in the body caused by infection with germs.

Acidity : Excess of hydrochloric acid in the stomach found in some cases of dyspepsia and is relieved by giving alkalies.

Acne : or blackheads usually found on the face and chest—caused by inhalation of gland secretions and occur commonly at puberty.

Adenoids : Areas of spongy tissue lying at the back of the throat, which, when they become infected and inflamed, cause obstruction to breathing ; usually found in children. The symptoms are cough, cold-fever, and mouth breathing.

Allergy : Abnormal sensitivity to any substance which does not harm normal people.

Anaemia or Bloodlessness : A condition in which the blood is deficient either in quantity or quality. There is paleness of the skin, loss of energy, palpitation and breathlessness on exertion.

Angina Pectoris : Attacks of severe pain in the heart coming on after exertion. The pain is very severe and radiates from the heart region to the left arm, caused by narrowing of the blood vessels of the heart.

Antidote : A remedy for counteracting a poison.

Antiseptic : A drug which destroys germs. Most commonly used antiseptics are Lysol, Dettol etc.

Anti-Toxin : A substance produced by the blood to counteract the effect of poison or infection.

Appendicitis : Is inflammation of the appendix which is a small body about the size of the little finger, projecting from the intestine in the right lower part of the abdomen. Appendicitis occurs in attacks of abdominal pain in the right lower abdomen. There may be vomiting and fever. The treatment is removal of appendix by operation.

Ascites : Accumulation of fluid in the abdomen ; may be due to kidney, heart or liver disease.

Aspirin : A white crystalline drug to give relief from any pain.

Asthma : An allergic disease marked by intermittent difficulty in breathing with cough and sense of constriction due to contraction of bronchi (air tubes). The attack lasts from a few hours to several days. The attacks often come at night.

Ataxia : Loss of co-ordinated movement due to disease of nervous system.

Bacteria : Germs not visible to naked eye causing many types of diseases.

Barber's Itch or Sycosis : Infection of the beard caused by infected towels or shaving brush. It appears in the form of small moist septic spots all over the face.

Beri-beri : A deficiency disease caused by eating food deficient in vitamin B. There is numbness of arms and legs and swelling of the feet and hands. There is also anaemia and neuralgic pains.

Bile : Golden yellow or greenish yellow substance secreted by the liver. Bile aids in the digestion of the fats and prevents putrefactive changes in the intestine.

Bitters : A popular name for various alcoholic medicines used as tonics and appetisers.

Bladder : A membranous sac situated in the front part of the pelvic cavity which acts as a reservoir of urine.

Blackwater fever : A dangerous and infectious fever marked by chill, vomiting, jaundice and passing of blood in the urine.

Blood Pressure : The condition commonly known as blood pressure means high blood pressure. It is a symptom of many different diseases e.g., kidney disease or internal poisoning during pregnancy.

Blood Tests : Tests made on blood by specialists to determine the composition of the blood and to detect foreign substances in it, such as poisons, alcohol, pus, bacteria, the quantity of albumin etc. etc. to enable a doctor to treat the patient on a correct diagnose of the disease.

Boil : It is an infection of the skin. It is caused by 1. Presence of infecting germs on the skin. 2. Lowered resistance of the body. 3. Pressure or friction causing the infecting germs to be rubbed on the skin. Hence they are commonly found on the neck where the collar causes friction or on the wrist beneath the cuffs.

Bronchitis : Inflammation of the bronchi i.e., tubes leading from the wind pipe to the lungs. At first there is an ordinary cold, then cough, then pain in the chest and fever. At first the cough is hard and dry, but later a great amount of sputum is coughed up.

Burns : The seriousness depends upon the depth of the burn and also how extensive it is. The patient should be kept completely comfortable and at absolute rest. He should be kept warm and pain relieved by giving drugs.

Cachexia : A profound and marked state of ill-health.

Caesarean operation. Operation named after Julius Caesar who was born this way. The abdomen of the mother is opened to take out the child since delivery by the natural way is impossible. The operation is no longer considered to be serious.

Cancer: It is a new growth in malignant form. It is not a disease in the real sense of the word because no definite cause has yet been found. The tumour goes on increasing in size and it infiltrates the surrounding tissues. It also gives rise to secondary growths much away from the original site. It is curable in the early stage when no secondaries are formed.

Carbohydrates: They are a group of compounds composed of carbon, hydrogen and oxygen. They include sugars, starches and cellulose and form the chief foodstuffs of animals. They contribute to health because they build up the body tissues and are a source of energy to the body.

Carbuncle: A very large boil; mostly associated with diabetes.

Caries: A condition of decay usually applied to decay of teeth.

Carrier: An individual who harbours germs of a certain disease in his body without having any symptoms and thus acts as a carrier or distributor of infection.

Cataract: Clouding of the lens of the eye which interferes with clear vision. Usually occurs in old people. Operation can be performed only when the cataract is mature, that is, when the whole of the lens is clouded. The degenerated lens is removed by operation and glasses are given.

Cerebellum: A part of the nervous system situated at the back of the brain. Its function is co-ordination of movements.

Cerebro-spinal fluid: A watery fluid which surrounds the brain and spinal cord. The function of this fluid is to absorb shock.

Chicken pox: A very infectious disease caused by a virus occurring commonly in children. Small white blisters appear all over the body, especially on the face and chest. One attack gives life long immunity.

Cholera: An intestinal infectious disease commonly found in India. It occurs by eating infected food. The symptoms are very severe watery diarrhoea and severe vomiting. Loss of fluid gives rise to severe muscular cramps. It is a very serious disease and all efforts should be taken to prevent it. Vaccines have been prepared which when given by injection protect against cholera.

Chorea: It is also known as St. Vitus's dance. A disease of the nervous system associated with rheumatism. The symptoms are rapid twitchings of the hands and sometimes of the body.

Circumcision: The operation of cutting off the foreskin carried out by Moslems as a religious custom. Circumcision is also performed when certain disease is present.

Colic: It is a disease which is attended with severe pain and flatulent distension of the abdomen, without diarrhoea.

Colitis: Inflammation of the large intestines. Most of the cases are neurotic in origin and caused by the patient making an excessive use of purgatives. It is found in patients who are constantly concerned with their bowels and are taking medicines.

Colon: The large intestines.

Colour blindness: Inability to distinguish between different colours while ordinary vision remains normal. It is an inborn condition and the patient cannot tell between red and green.

Coma: Complete loss of consciousness ; may be due to many diseases. Alcohol, diabetes, cerebral haemorrhage, brain tumour etc.

Concussion: A state of mental confusion and dizziness due to a blow on the head. Patient is pale and suffers from shock and weak pulse and slow breathing.

Convulsions: Any kind of fits ; most commonly occur in children. Any type of infectious disease may give rise to fits in infants because their nervous system is not yet developed completely.

Coryza: Common cold.

Cretinism: A condition caused by deficient secretion of Thyroid gland just after birth. The child is idiotic and maldeveloped. The condition can be cured by treatment of the Thyroid.

Crisis: A sudden turning point of a disease, as in Pneumonia — the fever comes down suddenly on the 7th day.

Debility: General weakness which may be the result of many diseases.

Delirium: A mental disturbance, may be due to some infection as Pneumonia or some poison. The patient is restless and may have hallucinations.

Dermatitis. An inflammation of the skin.

Diabetes: A disease of the pancreas in which there is deficient secretion of the insulin (the secretion of pancreas). The function of insulin is proper utilisation of sugar in the body. Hence when enough insulin is not produced there is an accumulation of sugar. The blood becomes loaded with sugar and ultimately it is passed in the urine. Symptoms in the early stages may not be visible to the patient, but

later there is excessive thirst and too much urine is passed.
Treatment is regulation of diet and injections of Insulin.

Diarrhoea: Loose stools due to many causes but mostly due to bad food.

Digitalis: A drug used for treating heart disease.

Diphtheria: An infectious and dangerous disease-common to children. A membrane may grow on the throat which interferes with breathing and may cause death. It can be prevented by giving prophylactic injection.

Dropsy: An abnormal collection of fluid anywhere in the body. It may be generalised all over the body or only in the legs. Severe dropsy is due to kidney or heart disease.

Dysentery: A group of disorders in which there is diarrhoea due to irritation of the bowels. Two main types are Amoebic & Baccillary. Infection occurs by eating infected food. In minor degree there is only diarrhoea but in severe forms there is passing of blood and mucous. This disease is most common in tropical or subtropical countries.

Dyspepsia: Indigestion may occur in mild or severe form.

Exzema: Dermatitis or inflammation of the skin.

Empyema: A collection of pus in the lungs commonly seen in children. It is caused by germs which cause ordinary boils or it may be caused by tuberculosis. When pus is formed it is necessary to draw it out with a needle. With the advent of Penicillin and Sulpha drugs the outlook has very much improved.

Encephalitis: Inflammation of the brain.

Endocarditis: Inflammation of the lining of the heart especially of the valves of the heart. Generally follows Rheumatism and Diphtheria.

Enteric: Typhoid fever.

Enteritis: Inflammation of the intestinal tract by infection or irritating food.

Enzymes: Organic catalysis secreted by living organisms, by means of which the various chemical changes necessary for life of the cell are controlled. They are usually found in natural secretions, such as the digestive secretions, pepsin and trypsin etc.

Epilepsy: A disease of the nervous system characterised by attack of fits and dribbling of saliva from the mouth. Epileptic fits should not be mistaken for other fits due to psychological disorder as hysteria etc. It is an hereditary disease and so an epileptic should never get married because the disease will pass on to the children.

Epistaxis: Bleeding from the nose.

Erysipelas : An infection of the skin with germs known as streptococci. It begins as a red raised area anywhere in the body and later this spreads to other parts of the bbdy. It is a very infectious disease.

Exanthema : Any fever accompanied by a rash.

Favus : A fungus infection of the skin and hair.

Fibrositis : Inflammation of the fibrous tissue in between the muscle fibres. Usually the muscles of the back are affected. It may be due to exposure to cold and damp or over exertion or due to some septic focus in the body as septic teeth or infected gall bladder. The treatment consists in treating the cause and massage.

Flatulence : Gas in the stomach and intestines. There is a feeling of discomfort and the patient tries to expel the gas—that leads to swallowing of more air, the patient again tries to expel it out and sucks in more air. Thus a vicious circle is set up and the stomach remains full of gas. The patient must try to resist this effort of bringing up to wind.

Fracture : Breaking of a bone either completely or incompletely. Fracture at one place is called a single fracture, at two places a compound fracture. The patient should be moved as little as possible and kept warm and comfortable.

Gall-bladder : A pear-shaped bag which acts as a reservoir for the bile secreted by liver. It lies on the under surface of the liver.

Gangrene : The death of a part of the body which occurs due to interference with its blood supply. Old people and diabetics are specially liable to get this. The limb below the affected part becomes pale and numb and later turns bluish-black. The tissues are damaged beyond repair; so the treatment consists in removing the dead part by operation.

Gastritis : Inflammation of the stomach. It is a state of irritation in which the lining of the stomach becomes red swollen. The substances which act as irritants are usually alcohol or any food poison. Gastritis may be Acute when there is pain over the stomach lasting for many days or Chronic when there is dull ache over the stomach and feeling of nausea and vomiting.

Glands : There are three types of glands in the body. 1. *Lymph Glands* which occur mainly in the various joints of the body such as armpit or groin. Their function is to trap any infection and prevent its reaching vital Organs. (2) *Large Glands* such as liver and pancreas which produce digestive agents and they pour their secretions into the intestines through their ducts. (3) *Endocrine Glands* or ductless glands because they pour their secretions directly into the blood

stream and have no ducts. These glands control important functions of the body.

Goitre : Enlargement of the thyroid glands which lie at the base of the neck. Two types 1. *Simple Goitre* usually occurring in childhood due to deficiency of iodine in the diet in countries where water supply is deficient in iodine. 2. *Exophthalmic Goitre*—due to excessive secretion of Thyroid gland. The symptoms are general over activity of the body—the heart beats faster, the patient is nervous, and thin; flushes and sweats and there is bulging of the eyes.

Gonorrhœa : A venereal disease.

Gout : A painful type of disease of joints, usually starts from the big toe. There is an upset in the excretion of certain kinds of food and nitric acid collects in the blood and later is deposited in some joint.

Haematemesis : Vomiting of blood ; may be a symptom of many diseases, such as stomach ulcer, certain diseases of blood, and liver.

Haematuria : Passing of blood in the urine. It can occur in many diseases, as diseases of the kidneys or Blackwater fever.

Haemoptysis : Spitting of blood seen most commonly in tuberculosis and heart diseases.

Haemorrhage : Bleeding—usually due to an injury, but it may be internal—due to an ulcer or some deficiency of vitamins or some blood disease.

Hernia : The protrusion of a loop or knuckle of an organ or tissue through an abnormal opening. Found most commonly in the groin called Tinguinal hernia or in the middle of the abdomen called umbilical hernia.

Hysteria : It is a form of neurosis. The patient fears facing the reality and can manifest symptoms of any diseases but physically he is absolutely normal.

Immunity : The ability to resist infectious diseases. When any kind of germs invade the body, the body produces certain substances as antitoxins to fight the infection or toxin. When the infection has been neutralised the body becomes immune to further infection as long as the antitoxin remains active in the blood.

Inflammation : When a body tissue is invaded by germs, the changes that take place in it are known as inflammation. The signs are redness, swelling pain and rise of temperature of the part affected.

Influenza : A disease caused by a virus i. e. a germ that cannot be seen under a microscope. It may occur in mild form when it looks just like an ordinary cold. But in severe forms symptoms are pains in the back and legs and redness of the eyes, fever and great weakness.

Insulin : The internal secretion of the pancreas gland used in the treatment of diabetes.

Intestines : The tube beginning at the mouth and ending at the rectum. It includes the food pipe leading to stomach, small intestines and large intestines.

Jaundice : Yellowness of the skin, eyes and urine due to presence of bile in the blood. It may occur due to excessive break down of blood i. e. excessive formation of bile, or due to some obstruction to the outflow of bile. Bile accumulates in the blood and gives rise to yellow coloration of the eyes and skin.

Kala-azar : A disease of tropical countries. It is caused by the bite of sand fly. There is fever, anaemia and enlargement of liver and spleen.

Kidney : They are two organs one on each side lying in the small of the back. The function of the kidneys is to filter all the blood and excrete the waste matter, which passes through tubes known as ureters, which enter the urinary bladder, and from there it leaves the body through urethra as urine.

Labour : Child birth.

Leprosy : A chronic disease affecting the skin and nerves. There is first pain and tingling in the affected part and later loss of any sensation and then various deformities may occur. The disease is curable.

Liver : An organ which lies in the upper right side of the abdomen just under the margin of the ribs. It has manifold functions. 1. All the food, particularly sugar, that is not required by the body is stored here in the form of Glycogen and is released whenever required. 2. It also breaks down the poisons produced inside the body. 3. It produces bile which is an important digestive agent.

Lungs : Two large organs one on each side which completely fill the chest. They are organs of breathing.

Malaria : A very common disease produced by the bite of mosquitos which contain the malarial parasites. It is easily curable with quinine. The control of the disease depends upon the control of mosquitos.

Marasmus : Progressive wasting in infants.

Measles : An infectious disease in which there is fever, rash of pink spots and redness of the eyes. It occurs mostly in children and one attack gives life long immunity. The infection is caused by a virus.

Meningitis : An infection of the lining of the brain. There is fever and soar throat and later headache, vomiting and delirium. It is a serious disease sometimes followed by mental disorders in children.

Menopause or Change of Life : Occurs in women between the ages of 40-55. And about ten years later in men. In women it is marked by stopping of the monthly periods and also some other physical and mental symptoms such as headache, hot flushes & dizziness. Mentally, a women is depressed, anxious and nervous.

Migraine : Periodic attacks of headache together with nausea or vomiting and flashes before the eyes. It is believed to be allergic in origin. Between the attack the patient is normal.

Mumps : An infectious disease usually occurring in children ; marked by swelling of the large salivary glands in front of the ears. It is caused by a virus and one attack gives life long immunity.

Myocarditis : Inflammation of the heart muscles.

Neoplasm : A new growth or tumour.

Nephritis : Inflammation of the kidney which may be acute when there is swelling and puffiness of the face, hands and feet. The patient runs temperature and passes blood in the urine. In chronic form which is due to long and gradual process there may or may not be swelling, but the blood pressure is usually raised.

Neuralgia : Pain in a nerve. Pain in the tooth is called dental neuralgia and pain in the face, facial neuralgia. The treatment is injection of alcohol into the nerve root.

Neuritis : Inflammation of a nerve. It may affect any nerve in the body. The cause may be various poisons as arsenic, lead, alcohol or germs, or internal diseases as diabetes, gout or diphtheria. There is pain, wasting of the muscles and defective sensation.

Obstetrics : Branch of medicine dealing with pregnancy.

Osteomalacia : A deficiency disease found in adult women. There is bending and spontaneous fracture of the bones due to deficiency of Calcium and Vitamin D. Found where diet is poor and inadequate.

Osteomrelitis : Inflammation of the bone due to infection with germs which are carried by blood and settle down at the site where there is some local weakness and injury. There is severe pain and fever in the beginning but later a small hole forms in the bone which discharges large amount of pus. Common sites are long bones of the arms or legs.

Pancreas : A large gland lying behind the stomach. Its secretion helps in digestion of proteins. It also produces insulin.

Paralysis : Loss of power of movement in one or more parts of the body. It is due to some damage to the nerve or brain due to injury, haemorrhage or disease.

Parturition : Childbirth.

Pellagra : A disease due to deficiency of Vit. B. There are skin rashes, weakness, mental depression. It can be cured by giving good diet and injections of Vit. B.

Pencillin : A recently discovered drug which has completely revolutionised medical treatment. It is non-poisonous to the human body, yet kills germs of many types of diseases e.g. pneumonia, Gas Gangrenes, Meningitis, Syphilis, Gonorrhoea.

Pencillin therapy has made an easy affair of Venereal Disease control, requiring only about two weeks of treatment costing about Rs. 4/- per patient. Formerly, treatment of this disease was costly, extending over a period of 18 months.

Piles : Varicose veins round the anus. They are due to pressure on the veins which prevents the free flow of blood. Pregnancy and constipation are most liable to lead to this condition. External piles are those developed outside the anus and cause itching, irritation and pain. Internal piles form inside the rectum and at first cause no trouble to the patient but if they grow they cause pain and feeling of fullness of bowels. Mild cases can be treated by relieving the constipation but other cases require injection or operation.

Peristalsis : Movements of intestines which move the food along the digestive tract.

Plague : Very infectious disease caused by germs which live on the fleas. The fleas carry the germs from infected rats to human beings and the bite of the flea injects the germs into the blood stream. It can be prevented by having inoculation against plague.

Plastic Surgery : The surgical repair of damaged tissues. During the two World Wars a number of methods were developed whereby surgeons can restore faces that have been almost entirely destroyed, replace burnt skin, mend damaged nerves and perform many other surgical marvels.

Pleurisy : Inflammation of the pleura which is the lining of the chest and also covering of the lungs. It always occurs due to infection with a germ. Common symptoms are pain in the chest, cough and fever.

Pneumonia : Inflammation of lungs mostly due to the germs known as Pneumococcus. The air cells of the lungs become blocked with fluid and this causes difficulty in breathing. There is fever and pain in the chest. Most cases respond to Sulpha drugs and Pencillin and after the discovery of these drugs death rate in Pneumonia has decreased from 20 per cent to less than one per cent.

Polyurea : Too much secretion of urine.

Proteins: Organic substances containing carbon, hydrogen, oxygen, and nitrogen. They contribute to health because they constitute an important part of living cells and are essential in animal diet. The most common examples are: egg-albumen, casein in milk, haemoglobin in blood and ossein in bone.

Pruritis: Itching.

Pсорiasis: A chronic skin disease. Red scaly patches develop on the chest, back and abdomen.

Puerperium: A period immediately following child birth.

Pyacmia: A form of blood poisoning. The germs are carried around in the blood and produce abscesses all over the body.

Pyelitis: Inflammation of the pelvis of the kidney i.e. the area where the kidney is connected to the ureter. Cause of inflammation may be due to irritation of a stone or due to spread of inflammation from bladder or elsewhere. The usual symptom is pain in the small of the back and frequent passing of urine. There may be blood or pus in the urine.

Pyorrhœa: An infection of the gums which causes edges of the tooth sockets to bleed easily. There is constant discharge of pus.

Pyresia: Fever.

Pyuria: Pus in the urine.

Quinsy: Formation of an abscess around one of the tonsils.

Podium: A rare metal used in treatment of cancer.

Rheumatism: Rheumatic fever is a definite disease where there is fever and pain in the joints. Cause is unknown. It is followed by the disease of the heart.

Rickets: A deficiency disease of children due to lack of nourishment i.e. diet poor in Vitamin D. Symptoms are bow legs, bad teeth and generally weakness. Treatment is giving plenty of fat containing foods and vitamin D by mouth.

Ringworm: An infectious disease of the skin. Caused by a fungus. Many types of ringworm are seen :

- (a) Ringworm of the groin or Dhobie's itch.
- (b) Ringworm of the body found in round patches.
- (c) Ringworm of the scalp.

Salpingitis: Inflammation of the Fallopian tubes.

Sarcoma: Malignant tumour composed of connective tissue.

Scabies: Commonly known as the itch. A very common infectious disease of the skin caused by a mite which burrows under the surface and causes extreme discomfort and itching. The areas affected are groin, fronts of the elbows, the wrist, and in between the fingers. It is caused by contact with a person who has the disease.

Sciatica : Neuritis of the Sciatic nerve at the back of the thigh. There are many diseases which cause pain of the similar type e.g. diseases of pelvis, disease of spine, fibrositis, psychological upsets.

Scurvy : A deficiency disease due to deficiency of Vitamin C which is found in fresh fruits. It is rarely seen these days. Used to be common among sailors going on long journeys.

Septicaemia : When germs invade the blood in large numbers, the condition is known as septicaemia or blood poisoning. It is now curable with Penicillin and Sulphonamide drugs.

Shock : The symptoms are pallor, weak or rapid pulse, clammy cold skin and shallow rapid breathing. It may develop after an injury. It is caused by nervous over stimulation or loss of blood and dilatation of the blood vessels which enables the fluid part of the blood to escape into the tissues. The patient should be kept warm and at rest with head lower than the rest of the body.

Sinusitis : Inflammation of the sinuses. The sinuses are cavities found naturally in the bones of the skull. All these cavities communicate with the nose. When the lining of the cavity becomes infected with germs it becomes swollen and exit into the nose is blocked and this causes severe pain on the area of the sinus i.e. between the eyes or in the upper jaw. With the discovery of Sulpha drugs and penicillin it is possible to cure this without operation.

Small pox : A serious infectious disease. There is fever, pain, vomiting and an eruption of red spots which later become blisters and afterwards are filled with pus. If the patient lives this eruption leads to disfiguring scars. It is not commonly seen now-a-days due to the use of vaccination.

Spinal Cord : Part of the brain enclosed within the backbone. Its function is to transmit impulses to and from the brain.

Spleen : An organ situated in the left upper part of the abdomen. It manufactures blood cells and destroys old ones. It may increase in size in many diseases as malaria, typhoid and blood diseases.

Sprain : Overstretching of the ligaments due to injury to a joint.

Sprue : A tropical disease due to some dietary deficiency. The patient becomes thin, weak and anaemic and passes large, pale frothy motions.

Squint : Or cross-eyed. Caused by extreme near-sightedness of one eye in childhood.

Sterility : The inability to have children. May be due to defects either in the man or woman.

Sulphonamides : A group of recently discovered drugs also called Sulpha drugs used in many bacterial diseases. In

warfare it has been found possible to prevent sepsis of wounds by the immediate use of dusting powder containing this drug. They are also used for the prevention and treatment of child birth fever, pneumonia etc.

Tetanus or Lockjaw: A disease caused by Tetanus Baccilus found in rich soil. It is produced by germs entering through a wound or a cut. There is contraction of all the muscles of the body, in particular the jaw, so that the mouth is unable to open. Death occurs if no treatment is given. Fortunately people can be immunised by giving inoculation.

Thrombosis: A clot forms within a blood vessel. The causes are sluggish flow of the blood due to weak action of the heart and mild infection in the neighbourhood.

Toxaemia: Any illness caused by poisons absorbed from germs in the system.

Trachea: The windpipe.

Trechoma: An infectious disease of the eyes common in India.

Tuberculosis: Caused by Tuberclie Baccilus. It may affect any part of the body e.g. Lungs, intestines, bones. The symptoms are cough, low grade fever, loss of weight, sweating at night and general exhaustion. Treatment is very effective and is likely to improve in the near future.

Typhoid fever or Enteric: An Infectious fever caused by eating infected food or drinking infected water. Its course can be divided into 3 stages. In the first week there is fever, headache and general malaise. In the 2nd week the fever reaches its maximum, there may be diarrhoea and a rose-coloured rash on the chest and abdomen. In the third week there is improvement if the patient is going to recover otherwise complications as Pneumonia or Perforation sets in. It is a very infectious disease and can be prevented by preventive inoculation.

Uraemia: When the kidneys fail to excrete all the waste products of the blood - the last stage of all kidneys diseases. It shows itself as fits, high blood pressure, defective vision, headache and vomiting.

Ureter: The tube connecting the kidneys with the bladder.

Urethra: The tube which carries the urine from the bladder to the outside.

Urticaria: Small blisters occur all over the skin due to hypersensitivity to some substance.

Vaccine: It is a lymph derived from a calf immune to cowpox, with a view to producing a general reaction by which the subject who is vaccinated, that is, into whose skin the lymph has been injected develops immunity to small pox.

Vertebra: The back bone is composed of number of bones known as Vertebrae each of which is separated from the adjoining one by a small disc made of elastic material. All the Vertebrae are joined together by ligaments.

Virus: They are organisms, so small that they pass through the bacterial filter. Rabbits, yellow fever, small pox, mumps, typhus, canine distemper and foot and mouth diseases are carried by them.

Vitamins: Complex organic compounds present in food and essential to the maintenance of health. Deficiency of one or some of them is the cause of many ailments.

Several vitamins are now known, which have been named A,B,C,D,E. and so on.

Vitamin A is contained in butter, milk, eggs, the liver of cod and halibut etc. This vitamin is necessary for growth. Its shortage results in loss of weight, dryness of the skin, night blindness, various paralysis, degeneration of the mucous membrane of the air passages and intestines etc.

Vitamin B is contained in the outer layers of cereals, green vegetables, tomatoes, yeats, milk, egg, yolk, beans, nuts, fish oil and spinach. Its absence causes beri beri.

Vitamin C is found in lemons, oranges, green vegetables etc. Its absence causes scurvy.

Vitamin D This is found in abundance in fish liver oil. This vitamin prevents rickets.

Vitamin E is present in the oil of the germ of wheat and other cereals. Its absence may cause sterility in men and miscarriage in women.

White Leg: Swelling of the leg due to thrombosis of the veins. Most commonly occurs as a complication of child birth.

Whitlow: Septic finger.

Whooping cough: An infectious disease characterised by 3 stages. In the first week there is slight fever and ordinary cold. In the 2nd week typical cough begins and lasts for one month or six weeks. The third stage marks a gradual recovery.

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MISCELLANEOUS TERMS

Aileron: Adjustable flap attached to the wing tips of a flying machine for the purpose of its lateral balancing.

Air-conditioning: (*Build., etc.*). The process whereby atmospheric air is cleaned and brought to a suitable condition of temperature and humidity prior to admission to buildings, factories, cinemas, film laboratories, telephone exchanges,

studios, etc. One method of adjustment is by washing the air with water refrigerated to the desired dew-point and then heating it to the required temperature.

Altitude (Astrom.): The angular distance of a heavenly body measured on that great circle which passes, perpendicular to the plane of the horizon, through the body and through the zenith. It is measured positively from the horizon to the zenith, from 0° to 90° .

Amethyst (Min.): A mauve-coloured form of quartz, used as a semi-precious gemstone.

Ampitheatre: An oval or circular building in which the spectators' seats surround the arena or open space in which the spectacle is presented, the seats rising away from the arena.

Anemometer (Metor): An instrument for measuring the velocity of the wind.

Aneroid (Barometer): An instrument for measuring the pressure of the atmosphere. It consists of a small watch shaped, air tight, air exhausted metallic machine, with internal spring, and an index. Variations in the atmospheric pressure cause changes in the distance between the sides of the shallow cylindrical box and then movements are magnified by a series of levers, which cause the rotation of a pointer pivoted at the centre of a circular calibrated scale. Variation in the atmospheric pressure are indicated by this pointer.

Antarctic Circle: The parallel of latitude $66^\circ 33'$ S. bounding the region of the earth surrounding the south terrestrial pole, this parallel being the locus of points where the sun touches the horizon but does not set at the winter solstice.

Antinode (Acous): In interference between waves of equal frequencies, the location where the resulting disturbance is a maximum but not necessarily the greatest.

Artoisian well (Civ. Eng.): A well sunk into a permeable stratum which has impervious strata above and below it, and which outcrops at places higher than the place where the well is sunk, so that the hydrostatic pressure of the water in the permeable stratum is alone sufficient to force the water up out of the well. Named from Artois (France).

Astrophysical clock (Astrom.): A pendulum clock which reads sidereal time; in its most modern form electrically driven and controlled.

Astrophysics: That branch of astronomy which deals with the material constitution of the stars, such as their temperature, chemical composition, and absolute luminosity.

Audiorieter (Acous): An electrical apparatus for measuring the minimum intensities of sounds perceptible by an ear, for

specified frequencies. Used also for testing the power of hearing.

Aurora Borealis (*Astron.*) : A phenomenon of great beauty, believed to be caused by some kind of electric discharge from the sun, best seen in north latitudes about 70° .

Autoclave (*Chem.*) : A vessel, usually constructed of thick walled steel, for carrying out chemical reactions under pressure and at high temperatures.

Bacteria (*Bacteriol.*) : A large group of unicellular or filamentous microscopic organisms, lacking chlorophyll and well-defined nuclei, multiplying rapidly by simple fissure, some species developing a highly resistant resting ('spore') phase, some species motile.

Ballast (*Civ. Eng., Rail.*, etc.) : Gravel, stone, or other material placed in the hold of a ship to increase her stability when floating without cargo or with insufficient cargo.

Barometer : An instrument used for the measurement of atmospheric pressure.

Beckmann thermometer : A special form of mercury thermometer possessing, on account of its large bulb, great sensitivity but a small range.

Biochemistry : The chemistry of living things ; physiological chemistry.

Bleaching (Paper) : The use of chlorine gas or bleaching powder (chloride of lime) to bring raw materials to the desired whiteness.

Bolometer (*Elec. Eng., Heat*) : An instrument for measuring minute amounts of radiant energy.

British Standard candle (*Illum.*) : The standard of luminous intensity formerly adopted in Great Britain ; equivalent to 1.02 international candles ; it is the light given by a sperm candle of specified make-up and dimensions.

Bulkhead : A partition separating one part of a ship's interior from another, either transverse or longitudinal, and usually watertight. The bulkheads serve to restrain the inrush of water when damage results to a ship either in naval action or by collision.

Bullion (*Met.*) : (1) Gold or silver in bulk, i.e. as that produced at the refineries. May, or may not be in the form of coin.—(2) The gold-silver alloy produced before the metals are separated.

Buoyancy (*Hyd., Phys.*) : The loss in weight of a body when immersed in a fluid, due to the resultant upward pressure exerted by the fluid on a body wholly or partly immersed in it.

Camera staff. (*Cinema.*) : In motion-picture production, the operators of cameras acting under the direction of the camera man.

- Carat or karat** : A standard unit of weight for precious stones. The standard carat used on the London market is 0.2053 grams. The American is Metric carat of 0.200 grams.
- Carbograph** (*Photog.*) : A combined silver bromide and pigmented bichromated gelatine process for printing.
- Celluloid** (*Plastics*) : A well-known thermoplastic made from nitrocellulose, camphor, and alcohol.
- Chamber** (*Artillery*) : That part of the bore which houses the propellant charge.
- Cheating** (*Cinema*) : The alteration of walls or furniture during shooting, in order to get good camera angles.
- Co-efficient** (*Phys., etc.*) : A numerical constant prefixed as a multiplier to a variable quantity, in calculating the magnitude of a physical property.
- Coke** (*Fuels*) : The solid residue from the carbonisation of coal after the volatile matter of the coal has been distilled off.
- Commandos** : Name given to British troops, forming part of combined operations command, who were employed in surprise raids on enemy occupied territory during the 2nd World War.
- Concave mirror** (*Light*) : A curved surface-usually a portion of a sphere-the inner surface of which is a polished reflector.
- Constellation** (*Astron.*) : A group of stars, not necessarily connected physically, to which have been given a pictorial configuration and a name (generally of Greek mythological origin) which persist in common use, although of no scientific significance.
- Control room** (*Elec. Eng.*) : A room used by the engineers of an electric-power supply system for supervising the operation of the entire system.
- Cosmic rays** : The shortest electro-magnetic waves known, discovered in 1925 by Dr. R. A. Millikan, thought to come from interstellar space.
- Cosmogony** (*Astron.*) : The science of the origin of stars, planets, and satellites. It deals with the genesis of the galaxy and the solar system.
- Cross-fertilisation** (*Biol.*) : The fertilisation of the female gametes of one individual by the male gametes of another individual.
- Crystal** : A body, generally solid, whose atoms are arranged in a definite pattern, the crystal faces being an outward expression of the regular arrangement of the atoms.
- Cyclone** (*Meteor.*) : A depression of small area but considerable pressure gradient, in which the winds attain hurricane force and often do much damage.
- Deck** (*Ship Constr.*) : A platform which forms the ceiling of one horizontal division of a ship and the floor of that immediately above.

Delta (Geol.) : The more or less triangular area of river-borne sediment deposited at the mouth of rivers heavily charged with detritus.

Denudation (Geol.) : The laying bare (Latin *nudus*, naked) of the rocks by chemical and mechanical disintegration and the transportation of the rocks into debris by atmospheric action or running water.

Depth Charge (Ammunition) : A bomb which can be set to detonate at a given depth below the surface of the sea. Used mainly as an anti-submarine device.

Differential Calculus (Maths.) : A branch of mathematics dealing with continuously varying quantities.

Drift (Aero.) : The motion of an aircraft in a horizontal plane, under the influence of an air current.

Eclipse (Astron.) : A name strictly applicable only to cases where a non-luminous body passes into the shadow of another, as the moon does in a lunar eclipse.

Ellipse (Maths.) : The section of a right circular cone by a plane, the whole of the section lying on one side of the vertex of the cone.

Foundry (Eng.) : A workshop in which metal objects are made by casting in sand or loam moulds.

Galaxy (Astron.) : The name given to the belt, of milky white appearance, which encircles the heavens, nearly in a great circle—now known to be formed of individual stars in countless numbers. Also called the *Milky Way*.

Galvanometer (Elec. Eng. etc.) : An electrical instrument for measuring small electric currents.

Gin : A colourless Potable spirit, containing about 80% of proof spirit.

Glider : An heavier-than-air, craft propelled without an engine. Gliding is done by means of sail planes, and advantage is taken of the ascending currents of air. In the modern designed machines soaring flights are made even without wind, and return flights have been made without landing. Gliders were extensively used by the Germans during the 2nd World War in their military operations on Crete.

Graft (Bot.) : A plant consisting of a rooted part (the stock) into which another part (the scion) has been inserted so as to make organic union.

Gregorian Calendar : The name commonly given to the civil calendar now used in Western Europe, which is the Julian calendar as reformed by a decree of Pope-Gregory the Great in 1582.

Gyroscope : It is a scientific apparatus, illustrating the principle of a spinning top, the axis of which tends to retain its direction. It is applied to keep self propelled torpedoes on their course, and to steady ships and help in steering.

Hibernation : This term is applied to the dorment condition which certain animals assume during cold weather due usually to the failure of food supply. The frog, the bat, the badger, the hedgehog and some reptiles go into the state of hibernation during winter.

Hormones : Complex active organic compounds secreted by glands or other specialized parts of an organism and possessing specific functions. The chief of the organs are : The pancreas, ovaries, testicles, thyroid, parathyroid, pituary, suprarenal. Thus the pancreas secretes insulin which helps the concentration of glucose in the blood, the thyroid secretion determines the rate at which the organism shall live, the sexual secretions govern the reproductive functions, the adrenalin hormone secreted by the suprarenal glands controls the blood pressure etc., etc.

Horse-power (Eng.) : The engineering unit of power, equal to a rate of working 33,000 foot pounds per minute, 23.56 C. H. U. per minute, or 42.42 B. Th. U. per minute.

Humidity (Meteor.) : The absolute humidity (q. v.) of the air—that is, the quantity of water vapour present per unit volume.

Hybrid : The offspring of two organisms belonging to different species. The mule is a hybrid product.

Insulator (Elec. Eng.) : An appliance used to insulate a conductor from earth, or from another conductor, and frequently also serving to support the conductor.

Introvert (Psychol.) : An individual interested mainly in his own mental processes and attitudes, and in the way in which he is regarded by others.

Isotherm (Meteor.) : A line drawn on a map through places having equal temperature.

Jet : A fluid stream issuing from an orifice or nozzle : a small nozzle, as the jet of a carburettor.

Kernel (Bot.) : The seed inside the stony endocarp of a drupe.

Light year : It is a unit to express stellar distances, based on the speed with which light travels in a year's time. This unit is of 6,000,000,000,000 miles.

Lithography (Print.) : Originally the art of printing from stone, but now applied to printing processes depending on the mutual repulsion of water and greasy ink.

Magnetism : A general term used to denote either a magnetic field or the whole science associated with the behaviour of such fields.

Metamorphosis (*Zool.*) : Pronounced change of form and structure taking place within a comparatively short time.

Microscope (*Optics.*) : An instrument used for obtaining magnified images of small objects.

Milk Teeth : These are teeth which appear in each jaw from the age of six months to $2\frac{1}{2}$ years and number 20. They are replaced by permanent teeth from the sixth year onwards.

Permanent teeth are 32 ; 2 incisors, 1 canine (eye tooth), 2 premolars and 3 molars on each side of each jaw.

Miners dip needle (*Mining*) : A portable form of dip needle used for indicating the presence of magnetic ores.

Morse code (*Teleg.*) : The dot-dash heterogeneous code devised by Morse for telegraphy.

Movietone (*Cinema.*) : The original method of recording sound on film.

Mycosis : A disease of animals caused by a fungus.

Nebula : A faint misty appearance in the heavens produced either by a group of stars too distant to be seen singly, or by diffused gaseous matter.

Neon lamp (*Illum.*) : An electric discharge lamp containing neon and giving a red glow.

Neptune (*Astron.*) : The eighth planet of the solar system, in order of distance from the sun.

Nicholson hydrometer (*Phys.*) : An hydrometer of the constant-displacement type, which can be used for determining the specific gravity of a solid.

N. R. M. E. (*Build.*) : Abbrev. for *notched, returned and mitred ends..*

N. S. (*Aston. etc.*) ; Abbrev. for *New Style*.

Nt. (*Chem.*) : The symbol for *nitron*.

N. T. P. (*Chem.*) : An abbrev. for *normal temperature and pressure* i.e: 0°C , and 760 mm. of mercury.

N. T. S. : Abbrev. for *not to scale* ; used by draughtsmen on some drawings.

Objective noise-meter (*Acous.*) : A noise-meter in which the noise-level to be measured operates a microphone amplifier and detector, the last-named indicating the noise-level on the phone scale.

O. B. M. (*Surv.*) : Common abbrev. for Ordnance Bench Mark.

Offset (*Print.*) : (1) A synonym for set-off (2) Abbrev. for offset printing.

Ohm's Law (*Elec. Eng.*) : The law governing the flow of a steady current in an electric circuit.

Optics : The study of light.

Orbit (Astron.) : The path of heavenly body moving about another under gravitational attraction.

Orientation (Biol.) : Change of position of an organism under stimulus.

O. S. (Astron. etc.) : Abbrev. for *Old Style*.

O. S. (Build.) : Abbrev. for *one side*.

Os (Chem.) : The symbol for *osmium*.

Os (Zool.) : A bone, as the *os coccygis*. (Latin *os*. gen. *ossis*, bone.)—*pl.* *ossa*.

Parallelogram of forces (Mech.) : A rule for the composition of two forces which states that if two forces, acting at a point, are represented in magnitude and direction by two adjacent sides of a parallelogram, the resultant of the two forces is similarly represented by the diagonal of the parallelogram passing through the common point.

Paravane : It is a torpedo-shaped device, with fins or vanes, which is towed from the bow of a ship to remove mines from the ship's path by deflecting them along a wire and severing their moorings.

Peat (Geol.) : The name given to the layers of dead vegetation, in varying degrees of alteration, resulting from the accumulation of the remains of marsh vegetation in swampy hollows in cold and temperate regions.

Pendulum (Horol.) : The time-controlling element of a pendulum clock.

Phonogram (Teleph.) : A telegram which is dictated over the telephone, a spelling code (A for Arthur, etc.) being used to ensure accuracy.

Photochemistry (Chem.) : The study of the chemical effects of radiation, chiefly visible and ultra-violet, and of the direct production of radiation by chemical change.

Planet (Astron.) : The name given in antiquity to the seven heavenly bodies, including the sun and the moon, which were thought to travel among the fixed stars. The term is now restricted to those bodies including the earth, which revolve in elliptic orbits about the sun; in the order of distance they are : Mercury, Venus, Earth, Mars, Jupiter, Saturn, Uranus, Neptune, and Pluto. The two planets, Mercury and Venus, which revolve within the Earth's orbit are designated inferior planets.

Plimsoll line : A circle is drawn on the side of every vessel to indicate to what depth it may be loaded in salt water. The horizontal line through its centre is the Plimsoll Line.

P. M. (Build.) : Abbreviation for *purpose made*.

P. M. C. (Build.) : Abbreviation for *Plaster-moulded cornice*.

P. M. X. (Teleph.) : Abbreviation for *private manual exchange*.

P. M. X. B. (Teleph.) Abbreviation for *private manual branch exchange*.

Polarisation (Elec. Eng.) : A phenomenon, occurring in primary cells, by virtue of which a reduction takes place in the e. m. f. after current has been flowing for some time, owing to the collection of certain products of electrolysis on the electrodes.

Polarisation : (of light) "the effect produced by causing light waves, reflected from a smooth surface or passed through crystals, to travel in a single plane. The plane of polarisation may be altered by passing the light through certain solutions, and this fact is used in chemistry for estimation of the strength of solutions. The polarised light may also be used to determine whether glass is free from strain."

Positivism : The conception which regards natural phenomena as being the only reality demonstrable by experiment.

Precipitation (Chem.) : The formation of an insoluble solid by a reaction which takes place in solution.

Quarantine : It is a term applied to any period during which persons, animals and vessels suspected of carrying infectious diseases, from a certain area or a foreign country are detained and isolated and preventive measures are taken, so that the disease may not spread into the country.

Radiation (Phys.) : Energy emitted in the form of electro-magnetic waves.

Radio : A generic term applied to methods of signalling through space, without the use of connecting wires, by means of electromagnetic waves generated by high-frequency alternating current.

Refraction (Light.) : When a ray of light passes from one medium to another it generally changes its direction, and is therefore said to suffer refraction or be refracted.

Robinson cement (Build.) : A slow but hard-setting plaster used for interior work. It is fire-resisting and does not expand or contract in setting.

Royal Marines : A corps of sea soldiers, of the British Navy established in 1775, with its headquarters at Catham, Portsmouth and Plymouth. Its badge is the Globe granted to it in 1827.

Sapphire (Min.) : The fine blue transparent variety of crystalline corundum, of gem tone quality; obtained chiefly from Ceylon, Kashmir, Siam, and Australia.

Satellite (Astron.) : The name given to a smaller body revolving round another, generally a planet; e.g. the moon, which is the earth's satellite.

Saturn (*Astron.*) : The sixth planet of the solar system in order of distance from the sun.

Sb. (Chem.) : The symbol of antimony.

S. B. (Radio.) : Abbrev. for *simultaneous broadcasting*.

SB alloy (*Elec. Eng.*) : A resistance material having a low temperature co-efficient of resistance.

S. B. C. lamp cap (*Elec. Eng.*) : Abbrev. for *small bayonet lamp cap*.

S. C (Paper.) : Abbrev. for *supercalendered paper*.

Sc (Chem.) : The symbol for scandium.

Sheep pox (*Vet.*) : An epidemic disease of sheep, due to infection by a filterable virus, and characterised by fever.

Specific Gravity (*Phys.*) : The ratio of the mass of a given volume of a substance to the mass of an equal volume of water at a temperature of 4° C.

Step-down transformer (*Elec. Eng.*) : A transformer which changes a high voltage supply into a low voltage supply.

Stevenson screen : A form of housing for meteorological instruments consisting of a wooden cupboard having a double roof and louvred walls, these serving to protect the instruments from the sun and wind while permitting free ventilation.

Stratosphere : That part of the atmosphere beyond six miles from the earth wherein the temperature is constant. The air here is extremely rarified and the minimum temp. is -55° C.

Sunspot (*Astron.*) : A marking on the solar surface appearing as a relatively dark centre with less dark surrounding matter.

Sunstroke (*Med.*) : A nervous disease produced by exposure to high atmospheric temperature.

Tank : A mechanically propelled military armoured car, which consists of a body or hull of thick steel, on which are mounted machine guns and a larger gun. The hollow hull contains the military crew who fire the guns and smash their way through the enemy lines. The tank travels on endless bands or "tracks" and is capable of negotiating uneven country and knocking down such natural obstacles as trees. It was first used by the British in World War I in the Battle of Somme 1916.

Telegraphy : The electrical communication system whereby messages are transmitted in coded signals by trained operators.

Telephony : The transmission of speech-currents over wires, by means of which two persons can effectively converse at a distance.

Telescope (*Astron.*): An optical instrument for making distant objects appear nearer.

Television. The electrical transmission of visual scenes and images by wire or radio, in such rapid succession as to produce in the observer, at the receiving end, the illusion of being able to witness events as they occur at the transmitting end.

Thermodynamics (*Phys.*): The mathematical treatment of the relation of heat to mechanical and other forms of energy.

Ulbricht globe photometer: A photometer for giving a direct measurement of the mean spherical candle power of a lamp.

Vaccine (*Med., Vet.*): Cow-pox. A disease of cows characterised by the eruption of vesicles on the udders and teats.

Velocity (*Mech.*): Rate of change of position or rate of displacement, expressed in feet (or centi-metres) per second.

War neurosis (*Psychol.*): A preferable synonym for *shell-shock*. The term was originally used (war of 1914-18) for all types of nervous conditions resulting from war experiences, especially those caused by a bursting shell.

White Dwarf (*Astron.*): The name given to any of a small class of stars outside the normal spectral sequence.

Wisdom Teeth: are the three molars which sometimes do not appear until the age of 25 or 30.

Zenith (*Astron.*): The point on the celestial sphere vertically above the observer's head.

Zodiac (*Astron.*): A name, of Greek origin, given to the belt of stars, about 18° wide, through which the ecliptic passes centrally.

LITERARY INTERLUDE
(ART AND LITERATURE)

1. THE CHIEF LANGUAGES OF THE WORLD

According to the estimate of the French Academy the number of languages spoken and written in the world is 2796.

English is used by more than 270,000,000 people. Of these 150,600,000 are residents of U. S. A. 118,500,000 are citizens either of U.K. or its dominions and dependencies. Besides U.K., Ireland and U.S.A., English is largely prevalent in Canada, Australia, New Zealand, Tasmania, Africa, India, the Malays etc.

Chinese is used by nearly 500 million people.

Indian languages are used by about 331 million people.

The Russian language and its dialects are used by 166 million.

The Spanish language is used by about 103 million.

The rest of the languages are arranged in order thus :—

Japanese, used by 97 million ; African dialects, 93 million ; German, 78 million ; French, 68 million ; Portuguese, 49 million ; Italian, 44 million ; Javanese, 42 million ; Polish 32 million ; Arabic, 29 million.

Universal languages.

1. **Esperanto**—Invented in 1887 by Dr. L L. Zamenhoff of Warsaw ; based on phonetic principles ; introduced into England in 1902. An international Academy and a language committee, with its headquarters in Paris, exercise control over it. More than 4000 books have been published and about 100 magazines appear regularly. Nearly 50 broadcasting stations transmit Esperanto programmes. It has been officially recognized as a telegraphic language.

2. **Volapuk**—Invented by a German, Johann Martin Schleyer, in 1879. Its vocabulary consists of about 15,000 words, taken from Latin, English and the Romance languages. The alphabet consists of 26 letters, 8 being vowels, the rest consonants. It is primarily meant to be a universal commercial language.

3. **Basic English**—It has been developed by a number of persons. Macknie's Basic English has only 600 words, but Fausset and Palmer suggest 1100 and 1500 words respectively. In 1930 C. K. Ogden, an English scholar of Cambridge evolved it further, and great men like Shaw have been interested in it. At one time Basic English was much discussed and advocated in India, especially by Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru.

2. GIANTS OF WORLD LITERATURES

(i) GREEK

1. **Aesop**—(middle of the 6th Cen. B.C.).—The traditional composer of Greek fables about animals.

2. **Aeschylus** (525-456 B. C.).—A great tragic poet and dramatist ; wrote some 70 plays, of which only seven are extant viz. *Suppliants* ; *Persians* : *Seven Against Thebes* ; *Prometheus Unbound* ; the trilogy *Oresteia* including *Agamemnon*, the last two being his master-pieces.

Regarded as the real founder of Greek tragedy. He chose themes of the utmost grandeur, often superhuman and terrible, and delighted in picturesque, sonorous language and bold metaphors. His tragic conception centres round the ideas of destiny or fatality, working through the divine will and human passion ; of the heredity of crime ; and of the vengeance of the gods on overweening pride.

3. **Aristophanes** (448-380 B. C.).—A celebrated Athenian comic poet. His comedies are of the highest historical interest, containing as they do an admirable series of caricatures on the leading men of the day. Eleven of his plays have come down to us. *The Knights* (424), directed against Cleon, then at the height of his power ; *The Clouds* (423) a satire on the Sophists ; *The Wasps* (422), ridiculing litigation ; *The Birds* (414), based on the idea of birds uniting and building a great walled city in the air ; *The Frogs* (405), an amusing play based on a contest between Aeschylus and Euripides in Hades on the relative merits of their tragedies ; *Lysistrata* (411), centres round a last appeal, half-farcical and half-serious, for peace.

He had a direct influence on English literature, notably on Ben Jonson, Middleton and Fielding.

4. **Aristotle** (384—322 B. C.).—A philosopher, probably the greatest intellectual of Greece. Lectured to his disciples in the shady paths near Lyceum, walking up and down (335—323). His school came to be known as Peripatetic. His writings cover an extraordinarily wide field: logic, moral philosophy, metaphysics, poetry, physics, zoology, politics, and rhetoric. *Works* : *Ethics*, an introduction to moral philosophy; *Poetics*, a treatise on poetry; *Politics*; *Metaphysics*.

5. **Socrates** (469—399 B. C.).—The famous Athenian philosopher who was sentenced to death for the alleged introduction of new deities and the corrupting of the youth of Athens.

6. **Epicurus** (341–270 B. C.).—The founder of the Epicurean school of philosophy. The teaching of the school is thus summed up: "Nothing to fear in God. Nothing to feel in Death. Good can be attained. Evil can be endured." The modern English sense of the word 'Epicurean', i.e. 'devoted to refined and tasteful sensuous enjoyment' (O. E. D.), misrepresents the teaching of Epicurus.

7. **Euripides** (480-406 B. C.).—One of the three great Attic tragedians. Wrote 80 or 90 plays, but only about eighteen are extant. *Medea* (431); *The Bacchae* (405); *The Trojan Women* (415); *Hippolytus* (428); *Electra*.

He chose for his tragedies situations of violent stress showing men and women in the grip of passion or torn by conflicting impulses, but, unlike Aeschylus and Sophocles, brought down the ancient heroes and heroines to the ordinary standard of men and women; questioned traditional religion and morality; criticized contemporary society; gave great prominence to female characters.

8. **Herodotus** (484-425 B. C.).—Called by Cicero and others 'the father of History'. *The History of the Persian Invasion of Greece*,—the first attempt at realistic history and also the first masterpiece of Greek prose.

9. **Hesoid** (c. 735 B. C.).—Poet. Little is known with certainty about him beyond what may be gathered from his *Works and Days*, a poem in 828 hexameters about the need for justice and work in a tyrannical age.

10. **Homer** (900 B. C.).—The greatest Greek epic poet. Great uncertainty about the dates of his birth and death, and authorities in modern times have questioned the very existence of Homer as an individual poet. His works: *The Iliad*; *the Odyssey*, great epics, basis of Greek literature.

11. **Moschus** (150 B. C.).—A pastoral poet of Syracuse. *Lament for Bion*, a beautiful pastoral elegy for the author's friend and teacher. There is an echo of it in Milton's *Lycidas*, Shelley's *Adonais*, and in Matthew Arnold's *Thyrsis*.

12. **Pindar** (522-443 B. C.).—A great lyric poet. The form of his Pindaric Ode, has been imitated by English poets such as Cowley, Dryden and Gray.

13. **Plato** (427-348 B. C.).—A famous philosopher, the founder of idealism in philosophy and one of the greatest of Greek prose writers. Taught philosophy in the Academy, whence his school derived its name. Works: *Phaedo*, a dialogue in which Phaedo of Elis, a disciple of Socrates, narrates the discussion that took place between Socrates and his friends during the last hour of his life, and the manner of his dying; *Republic*, a dialogue concerning Justice; *Symposium*, a series of discourses on Love.

14. **Plutarch** (C. A. D. 46-c. 120).—Famous biographer and moral philosopher. *Parallel Lives*, biographies of great men like Pericles, Demosthenes, Cicero etc. The most famous translation of the *Lives* into English was that of Sir Thomas North (1579). Shakespeare closely followed it in his three Roman plays, *Julius Caesar*, *Antony and Cleopatra* and *Coriolanus*.

15. **Sappho** (600 B.C.).—A Lesbian lyric poetess. Wrote nine books of odes, epithalamia, elegies, and hymns, of which only fragments survive. The principal theme of her poems was love.

16. **Sophocles** (496-406 B. C.).—The second of the three great Attic tragedians. Wrote some 120 plays—only seven are extant: *Antigone* (441); *Oedipus Tyrannus*; *Electra*; *Ajax*; *Trachiniae*; *Philoctetes* (409); *Oedipus at Colonus* (401).

Sophocles introduced several new features in tragedy, such as the third actor, better stage scenery, and fifteen instead of twelve persons in the chorus. He lays greater stress on man's will, the characters being more independent of the influence of gods than in the plays of Aeschylus; accepts conventional religion; creates great heroines like Antigone and Electra. Arnold described him as one "who saw steadily and saw it whole".

17. **Theocritus** (3rd Cen. B. C.).—Pastoral poet. *Lament for Daphnis*, a dirge imitated in the *Adonis* of Bion, and in the *Bion* of Moschus, and the prototype of such elegies as Milton's *Lycidas*, Shelley's *Adonis* and M. Arnold's *Thyrsis*.

18. **Thucydides** (460-400 B. C.).—Historian. *The History of the Peloponnesian War*.

19. **Zeno** (460 B. C.).—Philosopher. Founder of the Stoic school of philosophy.

20. **Xenophon** (430-355 B. C.).—Historian: *Anabasis*, a prose narrative in seven books of the expedition of the younger Cyrus, son of Darius II, against his brother Artaxerxes II, King of Persia; *Hellenica* or *History of Greece*.

(ii) LATIN

1. **Caesar, Julius** (102-44 B. C.).—The great Roman Conqueror who was assassinated by Brutus and other senators. Historian. *The Gallic War* (952-51), an unadorned, straightforward and detached military narrative of surpassing interest and a skilfully concealed justification of the author's actions.

2. **Catullus** (84-54 B. C.). Poet; exerted a wide influence on his Roman successors. In English literature his influence may be traced in the Elizabethan wedding-odes, the Caroline lyrics, notably in Herrick.

3. **Cicero, Marcus Tullius** (106-43 B. C.).—A great Roman orator and statesman. *Against Catiline*, *Philippics*, speeches against Antony.

4. **Horace** (65-8 B. C.).—Poet, satirist and critic. *Epistles*, satirical poems; *Odes*; *De Arte Poetica*, a literary essay on the art of poetical composition. His fame rests on the perfection of his form, the sincerity and frankness of his self-portraiture, his patriotism, his urbanity, humour and good sense. He exercised a great influence on English poetry, both lyrical and satirical. Pope imitated him in his *Satires* and *Epistles*.

5. **Juvenal** (Born about A. D. 60-70).—A great Roman satirist; *Satires* (16 in number), being fierce attacks on the vices, abuses, and follies of Roman life. Greatly admired by English satirists, including Dryden, Pope and Johnson.

6. **Livy** (59 B. C.-17 A. D.).—Historian. *The History of Rome*.

7. **Lucretius** (99-55 B. C.).—Poet. *On the Nature of Things*, a didactic poem, in six books of hexameters, presenting the fullest exposition of the Epicurean system of philosophy.

8. **Ovid** (43 B. C.-A. D. 17).—Poet. *Metamorphoses*—a series of mythological tales of miraculous transformations; *The Art of Love*. He is a vivid and lucid story-teller; the favourite Latin poet of the Renaissance; Chaucer and Shakespeare drew largely on him.

9. **Petronius, Arbiter** (died 66 A. D.).—Satirist. *Satyricon*, a satirical novel, describing the adventures of two disreputable rogues: Encolpius and Ascyltus. Only a small portion of the novel has come down to us.

10. **Plautus** (254-184 B. C.).—A great writer of comedies. *Menaechmi*; *Amphitruo*; *Miles Gloriosus*; a sort of musical comedies. Greatly influenced English literature from the *Ralph Roister Doister* of Udall (1505-56), *The Mother Bombie* of Lylly (1554-1606). *The Comedy of Errors* of Shakespeare and many of the comedies of Ben Jonson. The stock character of the braggart soldier, e. g. Jonson's Bobadil, is derived from Plautus.

11. **Pliny the Elder** (A. D. 23 or 24-79).—Historian and naturalist. *Natural History* (in 37 books).

12. **Pliny the Younger** (A. D. 61 or 62-113).—Famous for his letters (in nine books), on various subjects such as public affairs, descriptions of scenery, wild-boar hunt, private dinners etc.

13. **Seneca** (4 B. C.-A. D. 65).—Philosopher and dramatist. Dialogues, rhetorical and philosophical discourses; nine tragedies, including *Medea*; *Agamemnon*; *Oedipus*; and *Thyestes* based on the plays of Euripides, Aeschylus and Sophocles, but

marred by excess of declamation, moral disquisition, mythological lore, and clever argument. Had a great influence on drama both in Italy and England.

14. **Terence** (190-159 B. C.)—Great Roman comedian. Wrote six plays, including *Andria*, *Phormio*, *Adelphoe*; followed their Greek originals more closely than Plautus. In his plays, portraiture takes the place of caricature; the characters are more natural; urbanity and courtesy prevail. His influence can be traced in early English comedy, in the comedy of manners of the Restoration, notably in Congreve, and later in Steele and Sheridan.

15. **Virgil (Publius Vergilius Maro)** (70-19 B. C.)—The greatest epic poet of Rome. *Aeneid*—his famous epic in twelve books of hexameters; left incomplete; designed to celebrate the origin and growth of the Roman Empire. *Georgics* (agricultural poems), a didactic poem, in four books of hexameters, on the various forms of rural industry. (See Tennyson's tribute to the great poet in his *Ode to Virgil*).

(iii) ENGLISH

(a) (1340 to 1900 A. D.)

1. **Addison, Joseph** (1672-1719).—Founder of the modern essay and literary journalism. Collaborated with Richard Steele in *The Tatler*, a periodical which appeared thrice a week from April 1709 to Jan. 1711; brought out the daily paper *The Spectator* from Mar. 1711 to Dec. 1712.

2. **Arnold, Sir Edwin** (1832-1904).—Poet. Principal of the Government Deccan College, Poona (1856-61). Interpreted in English verse the life and philosophy of the East. *The Light of Asia* (1879), a poem on the life and teaching of Buddha; *The Light of the World* (1891), dealing with the teaching of Christ; *The Song of Songs of India* (1875).

3. **Arnold, Matthew** (1822-1888).—Poet, critic and essayist. *Poems*: *Sohrab and Rustam*; *Scholar Gipsy*; *Thyrsis* (both pastoral elegies); *The Forsaken Merman*; *Rugby Chapel*, an elegiac lyric on Victorian England; *Essays*: *Essays in Criticism*; *Culture and Anarchy*; *Literature and Dogma*.

4. **Austen, Jane** (1775-1817).—Great novelist. *Sense and Sensibility* (1811); *Pride and Prejudice* (1813), her masterpiece; *Emma* (1816). Famous for pictures of everyday domestic life, compact plot-construction, vivid delineation of character and subtle irony and satire.

5. **Bacon, Francis** (1561-1626).—Philosopher and father of the English essay. Writings characterised by keen insight,

brilliancy of language and depth of thought. Author of *Essays*; *The Advancement of Learning*; *Novum Organum*.

6. **Beaconsfield, Benjamin Disraeli, 1st Earl of** (1804-1881).—Statesman and novelist. Novels: *Vivian Grey* (1827) remarkable for brilliance, audacity, and veiled portraits of living celebrites; *Coningsby* (1844); *Sybil* (1845); *Tancred* (1847). His novels, besides having a moral purpose, are witty, fascinating and present a clear picture of English politics under Queen Victoria.

7. **Beaumont, Francis** (1584-1616), and **Fletcher, John** (1579-1625).—Poets and dramatists, indissolubly associated in English literature. Joint authors of many plays, including *Philaster* (1611); *Maid's Tragedy* (1611), considered to be masterpieces, unmatched except by Shakespeare; and *The knight of the Burning Pestle* (1611), an amusing burlesque of knight-errantry.

8. **Blake, William** (1757-1827).—Painter, poet and mystic. His *Songs of Innocence* (1779) reveal an intense spirituality. *The Chimney-Sweeper*; *The Lamb*; *The Tiger*.

9. **Boswell, James** (1740-1795).—Biographer. *The life of Samuel Johnson* (1791), one of the greatest biographies in English literature.

10. **Bronte, Charlotte** (1816-1855).—One of the most gifted novelists of the 19th century. Her *Jane Eyre* (1847) took the public by storm, and her other novels, *Shirley* (1849); *Villette* (1852) and *The Professor* (1857) are all marked by the force of strong genius. Her sister Anne Bronte wrote some remarkable verse.

11. **Bronte, Emily** (1818-1848).—Novelist and poet. Sister to Charlotte. *Wuthering Heights* (1847), a novel of extraordinary reality and imagination; ranks as one of the world's masterpieces of fiction.

12. **Browne, Sir Thomas** (1605-1682).—Physician and metaphysical prose writer; a great stylist; influenced Lamb, Coleridge and Carlyle. *Religio Medici* (the Religion of a Physician) (1642); *Hydriotaphia or Urn-burial* (1658).

13. **Browning, Elizabeth Barrett** (1806-1861).—Poetess; married Robert Browning in 1846. *The Cry of the Children*; *Lady Geraldine's Courtship*, *The Romaunt of the Page*; *Bertha in the Lane*. *Aurora Leigh*—a novel in poetic form.

14. **Browning, Robert** (1812-1889).—One of the greatest Victorian poets, highly original in thought and style. Most of his poetry is dramatic in form. *Men and Women* (1855); *Dramatis Personae* (1864) and his master piece *The Ring and the Book* (1872). Shorter pieces: *Rabbi Ben Ezra*; *Evelyn Hope*; *The Pied Piper of Hamelin*; *A Grammarian's Funeral*.

15. **Bunyan, John** (1628-1688).—Puritan prose writer. *The Pilgrim's Progress*, Part I (1678), Part II (1684), a beautiful

religious allegorical tale in the form of a dream seen by its hero, Christian ; probably the most widely read book in the English language, and translated into 108 languages and dialects. Other works include *The Holy War* ; *The Life and Death of Mr. Badman* and *Grace Abounding*.

16. **Burke, Edmund** (1729-1797).—Statesman, orator, and political philosopher. *On the Sublime and Beautiful* (1756) ; *Conciliation with America* (1775) ; *Reflections on French Revolution* (1782).

17. **Burns, Robert** (1759-1796).—Famous Scotch poet and spokesman of the “Romantic Revival” ; occupies a front rank among lyric poets. *The Two Dogs* ; *Hallowe'en* ; *The Cottar's Saturday Night* ; *The Mouse* ; *The Daisy* ; *Tam o' Shanter*, full of rollicking humour and blazing wit ; *Holy Willie's Prayer*, a blistering satire.

18. **Byron, George Gordon, Lord** (1788-1824).—Famous poet of the early 19th century Romanticism ; exercised great influence upon European thought and literature. A very handsome man, he had several amorous ventures, which made his life unhappy. Great as a satirist, narrative poet, and writer of love lyrics. *English Bards and Scotch Reviewers* (1809)—a scathing satire on contemporary writers ; *Vision of Judgment* (1822) a satire ; *Childe Harold* (1812-17), his master piece ; *Don Juan* (1818-22) ; *Corsair*, *Lara*—verse tales. Also wrote a number of poetic plays. Died at Missolonghi on his way to helping the Greeks in their freedom struggle.

19. **Carlyle, Thomas** (1795-1881).—Historian and essayist. *Sartor Resartus* (1839) ; *Heroes and Hero-worship* (1841) ; *Past and Present* (1843) ; *French Revolution* (1837) ; *Oliver Cromwell* (1845) and *Frederick the Great* (1851-65).

20. “**Carroll, Lewis**” (**Charles L. Dodgson**) (1832-1898).—Writer of books for children. *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland* (1865) and its sequel, *Through the Looking-glass*.

21. **Chaucer, Geoffrey** (1340-1400).—Father of English poetry. Modern English Literature begins with him, *The Canterbury Tales*, a long narrative poem of 18,000 lines remarkable for story-telling, humour and vivid character portraiture.

22. **Chesterfield, Earl of** (1694-1773).—Statesman and letter-writer ; distinguished for his wit, conversational power, and grace of manner. He was the recipient of Johnson's famous letter as to his “patronage”. *Letters* to his natural son, Philip D. Stanhope.

23. **Coleridge, Samuel Taylor** (1772-1834).—Romantic poet, philosopher and critic. *Poems* ; *The Ancient Mariner* ; *Christabel* ; *Kublai Khan*. Criticism : *Biographia Literaria*—a medley of literary autobiography and a discussion of the

philosophy of Kant, Fichte, Schelling, and a criticism of Wordsworth's poetry; *Lectures on Shakespeare*.

24. **Collins, William** (1721-1759).—*Ode to Evening; The Passions.*

25. **Collins, William Wilkie** (1824-1889).—Novelist; remarkable for the construction of a skilful plot, which holds the attention of the reader and baffles his curiosity to the last. *The Woman in White; The Moonstone.*

26. **Congreve, William** (1670-1729).—The greatest dramatist of the Restoration period. *Love for Love* (1695); *The Way of the World* (1700), famous comedies of manners, remarkable for wit and sparkling dialogue, though marred by profanity and licentiousness.

27. **Cowper, William** (1731-1800).—Poet and charming letter writer. *The Task* (1785), one of the great poems of the 18th century. Shorter pieces: *The Castaway; John Gilpin; On the Receipt of Mother's Picture.*

28. **Darwin, Charles** (1809-1882).—Naturalist. *The Origin of Species* (1859).

29. **Defoe, Daniel** (1660-1731).—Journalist and realistic novelist—also a political writer. *Robinson Crusoe* (1719); *Moll Flanders* (1722) and several other picaresque novels of great merit.

30. **De Quincey, Thomas** (1785-1859).—Essayist and miscellaneous writer. *The Confessions of an English Opium Eater.*

31. **Dickens, Charles** (1812-1870).—One of the greatest Victorian novelists, especially remarkable for his genial rollicking humour. *Pickwick Papers* (1837-39); *Oliver Twist; David Copperfield*, his masterpiece (1849-50); *Martin Chuzzlewit; A Tale of Two Cities* (1859) and many others.

32. **Donne, John** (1573-1631).—Poet and divine; the greatest spokesman of the Metaphysical School of poetry.

33. **Dryden, John** (1631-1700).—Great classical poet, dramatist and satirist. Poems: *The Ode for St. Cecilia's Day; Alexander's Feast. Satires: Absalom and Achitophel* (1681); *Medal* (1682); *Mac Flecknoe. Plays: All for Love* (an adaptation of Shakespeare's *Antony and Cleopatra*) (1678). Criticism: *Essay on Dramatic Poetry*, in the form of a dialogue, fine alike as criticism and as prose (1668).

34. “**Eliot, George**” (**Mary Ann Evans**) (1819-80).—Gifted novelist. *Adam Bede* (1859); *Silas Mariner* (1861), the most artistically constructed of her novels; *The Mill on the Floss* (1860), partly autobiographical; *Middlemarch* (1871-72), her masterpiece.

35. **Evelyn, John** (1620-1706).—*Diary* (1624-1706) gives an interesting account of his travels on the Continent, visits to galleries and art collections, public and private events.

36. **Fielding, Henry** (1707-1754).—One of the chief makers of the English novel. *Joseph Andrews* (1742), a parody of Richardson's *Pamela*; *Jonathan Wild*, a grave satire; *Tom Jones* (1749), his masterpiece which ranks among the world's greatest novels; *Amelia* (1751).

37. **Fitzgerald, Edward** (1809-1883).—Translator and letter-writer. *Rubaiyat of Omar Khayyam* (1859).

38. **Gaskell, Elizabeth** (1810-1865).—Novelist. *Mary Barton* (1848); *North and South* (1855), deals with the manufacturing working class; *Cranford* (1851-3), her masterpiece, notable for humoristic description.

39. **Gibbon, Edward** (1737-1794).—Historian. *The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire* (1766).

40. **Gissing, George** (1857-1903).—Novelist, depicting the environment and struggles of the lower middle classes with a somewhat pessimistic and depressing realism. *New Grub Street* (1891); *Born in Exile* (1892); *The Private Papers of Henry Ryecroft* showing a somewhat brighter outlook.

41. **Goldsmit, Oliver** (1728-1774).—Poet dramatist, novelist and essayist. *Poems*: *The Traveller* (1764); *The Deserted Village* (1770). *Plays*: *She Stoops to Conquer* (1773). *Novel*; *The Vicar of Wakefield* (1766). *Essays*: *The Citizen of the world* (1761) (in letter form).

42. **Gray, Thomas** (1716-1771).—Poet and letter-writer. *Elegy written in a Country Churchyard*, one of the most popular poems in the English language.

43. **Hazlitt, William** (1778-1830).—Essayist and critic. *The Round Table*; *Characters of Shakespeare's Plays*; *On the English Poets*; *Table Talk*.

44. **Herrick, Robert** (1591-1674).—Lyric poet. *Love songs*: *Anthea*; *Gather Ye Rose-buds*; *Blossoms*; *Daffodils*.

45. **Johnson, Dr. Samuel** (1709-1784).—One of the most famous English men of letters; known as the great Lexicographer and the Literary Dictator of his day. Greater as a man than as a writer. *Essays*: *The Rambler* (1750-2); *The Idler* (1758-60). *Poems*: *London* (1738); *The Vanity of Human Wishes* (1749). *Novel*: *Rasselas*, the story of an Abyssinian Prince (1759), written to defray the expenses of his mother's funeral. *Dictionary* (1755). *Biography and Criticism*: *The Lives of the Poets* (1779-81), his best work.

46. **Jonson, Ben** (1573-1637).—Poet and dramatist. Pioneer of the neo-classical movement. *Every Man in His Humour* (1598); *Volpone, or the Fox* (1605); *Epicaene, or the Silent*

Woman (1609); *The Alchemist* (1610)—all comedies of humours, full of wit and satire. *Discoveries*, a book of short essays and notes on various subjects.

47. **Keats, John** (1795-1821).—One of the greatest romantic poets; died of consumption at a very early age. *Endymion* (1818); *Lamia* (1820); *Isabella*; *The Eve of St. Agnes*. The odes to the *Nightingale*, *Autumn*, *The Grecian Urn* (1820-21) and others are his best work.

48. **Kingsley, Charles** (1819-1875).—Novelist and historian. Novels: *Hypatia*; *Westward Ho!*; *Hereward the Wake*.

49. **Lamb, Charles** (1775-1834).—Essayist and critic of a very high rank; also a poet. *The Essays of Elia* (1820-25); *The Last Essays of Elia* (1833); *Tales from Shakespeare* (1807).

50. **Lyly, John** (1554-1606).—Dramatist and miscellaneous writer. Famous chiefly for his two didactic romances, *Euphues*. *The Anatomy of Wit* (1579), and *Euphues and his England* (1580). The pedantic, elaborate style of the books is known as 'euphuism'.

51. **Lytton, Bulwer** (1803-1873).—Novelist and statesman. *Last Days of Pompeii*, *Rienzi*; *The Last of the Barons*.

52. **Macaulay, Thomas Babington Lord** (1800-1859).—Historian, essayist, poet and statesman. *The History of England*; *The Lays of Ancient Rome* (1842); *The Essays*, including those on Milton, Bunyan, Johnson and Boswell—his best and most popular work.

53. **Malory, Sir Thomas** (C. 1430-C. 1470).—Translator of *Morte d' Arthur*, which is an attempt to make a continuous story of the Arthurian legends.

54. **Marlowe, Christopher** (1564-1593).—The greatest dramatist before the advent of Shakespeare. *Tamburlaine* (1587); *Faustus* (1604); *The Jew of Malta*; *Edward II*—the last being his masterpiece.

55. **Meredith, George** (1828-1909).—A great Victorian novelist and poet. Novels: *Ordeal of Richard Feverel* (1859); *Evan Harrington* (1861); *The Egoist* (1879), considered to be his masterpiece; *Diana of the Crossways*, his most popular novel. A psychological novelist, he evolved his own theory of comedy, with great emphasis on the role of women in society. Poems: *Poems and Lyrics of the Joy of Earth* (1883); *Ballads and Poems of Tragic Life* (1887); *Modern Love* (1862), his chief tragic poem.

56. **Mill, John Stuart** (1806-1873).—Philosopher and essayist. *On Liberty*; *Autobiography*

57. **Milton, John** (1608-1674).—Great English poet, second only to Shakespeare. *L' Allegro* and *II Penseroso* (1632); *Lycidas*, a pastoral elegy. *Comus* (1634) a masque; *Paradise Lost* (1658-1664, published in 1667), the greatest English epic; *Paradise Regained*, a sequel to *Paradise Lost*; *Samson Agonistes*

(1671), a Greek tragedy. Also wrote 19 prose pamphlets, including *Areopagitica, A Speech for the Liberty of Unlicensed Printing* (1644).

58. **Montagu, Lady Mary Wortley** (1690-1762).—Famous for her sparkling *Letters from the East*.

59. **More, Sir Thomas** (1478-1535).—Historical and political writer. *Utopia* (1515-16), originally written in Latin and later translated into many European languages. It is an account of an ideal imaginary island and its people.

60. **Morris, William** (1834-1896).—Poet, artist and socialist, associated with the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood. *The Life and Death of Jason* (1867); *The Earthy Paradise* (1868-70), both long narrative poems on classical themes. *Socialistic writings: The Dream of John Bull* (1888), and *News from Nowhere* (1891).

61. **Newman, John Henry** (1801-1890).—Theologian and essayist; one of the leaders of the Oxford Movement. *The Idea of a University* (1873); *Apologia pro Vita Sua* (1864), a remarkable religious autobiography. Author of short poems, including the famous hymn ‘Lead Kindly Light.’

62. **Pater, Walter** (1839-1894).—Essayist and critic. *Appreciations* (1889), containing his great essays on Aesthetic poetry and Style.

63. **Pepys, Samuel** (1633-1703).—Diarist. *Diary* (begun Jan. 1660 and continued upto May 31, 1669), a most singular example of unreserved self-revelation.

64. **Pope, Alexander** (1688-1744).—The great neo-classical poet, at his best in satire. *The Essay on Criticism* (1711) an exposition in verse of neo-classical criticism; *The Rape of the Lock* (1714), his masterpiece and the greatest mock-heroic poem in the language; *The Dunciad* (1728-42), a great satire on contemporary small wits and poetasters.

65. **Radcliffe, Mrs. Ann (Ward)** (1764-1823).—The leading novelist of the Gothic or Terror School of fiction. *The Mysteries of Udolpho* (1794).

66. **Reade, Charles** (1814-1884).—Novelist. *The Cloister and the Hearth* (1861).

67. **Richardson, Samuel** (1689-1761).—One of the greatest of 18th century novelists. *Pamela* (1740); *Clarissa Harlow* (1748), his masterpiece; *Sir Charles Grandison* (1753)—all written in the form of letters.

68. **Rossetti, Christina** (1830-1894).—Poetess, sister of D. G. Rossetti. Wrote poetry imbued with religious feeling.

69. **Rossetti, Dante Gabriel** (1828-82).—Poet and painter, leader of the Pre-Raphaelite Movement. *The Blessed Damozel* (1847); *The House of Life* (1881), a remarkable sonnet sequence.

70. Ruskin, John (1819-1900).—A great master of English prose, critic and essayist. *The Stones of Venice* (1851-53); *Modern Painters*, both treatises on art viewed with a religious bias. *Unto this Last* (1860); *The Crown of Wild Olive* (1865), both dealing with economic problems; *Sesame and Lilies* (1865), a lecture on books, education and the duties of women. He exercised a great influence in the realms of economics and morals.

71. Scott, Sir Walter (1771-1832).—Poet and the greatest historical novelist. Poems: *The Minstrelsy of the Scottish Border* (1802); *The Lay of the Last Minstrel* (1805); *Marmion* (1808); *The Lady of the Lake* (1810). Novels: *Waverley* (1814); *Ivanhoe*; *The Bride of Lammermoor* (both 1819) *Old Mortality* (1817); *The Heart of Midlothian* (1818), considered to be his masterpiece; *Kenilworth* (1821).

72. Shakespeare, William (1564-1616).—England's greatest dramatist and poet. Wrote thirty-seven plays. Comedies: *Merchant of Venice* (1594); *Midsummer Night's Dreams* (1595); *Much Ado About Nothing* (1599); *As you Like it* (1599); *Twelfth Night* (1599). Tragedies: *Romeo and Juliet* (1591); *Hamlet* (1601-2), regarded as his masterpiece; *Othello* (1604); *Macbeth* (1605-6); *Lear* (1606). Tragi-comedies: *Cymbeline* (1610-11); *Winter's Tale* (1610-11); *Tempest* (1611). Historical plays: *Richard III.* (1592-3); *Richard II.* (1593-4); *Henry IV* 1 and 2. (1597); *Henry V.* (1599); *Julius Caesar* (1601); *Antony and Cleopatra* (1608). Poems: *Venus and Adonis* (1593); *Rape of Lucrece* (1594); *Sonnets* (1591-94).

73. Shelley, Percy Bysshe (1792-1822).—Great romantic poet, especially in the realm of lyric poetry; a daring unorthodox thinker, idealist and reformer. Had several complicating love affairs, always at war with his family; an exile from home in his last days. Drowned in the Gulf of Spezia by the capsizing of a boat in a storm. *Prometheus Unbound* (1820); *Epipsychedion* (1821); *Adonais* (1821), a pastoral elegy on the death of Keats. Shorter pieces: *The Skylark*; *Ode to the West Wind*; *Music when soft voices die*; *I arise from dreams of thee*; *when the lamp is shattered*.

74. Sheridan, Richard Brinsley (1751-1816).—Dramatist and orator. *The Rivals* (1775); *The School for Scandal* (1777)—great comedies of manners.

75. Sidney, Sir Phillip (1554-1586).—Poet and prose writer. *Astrophel and Stella*—a sonnet sequence; *Arcadia*—a pastoral romance (1580-81); *Apologie for Poetrie*—a prose critical essay in defence of poetry.

76. Smollett, Tobias George (1721-1771).—Novelist. *Humphrey Clinker*—his best novel.

77. Southey, Robert (1774-1843).—Poet, biographer. *Life of Nelson*. *The Holly Tree*, *The Battle of Blenheim*—shorter poems.

78. **Spenser, Edmund** (1552-1599).—Great Elizabethan poet. *The Shepherd's Calender* (1579), a long pastoral poem in 12 eclogues; *The Fairie Queene* (1596), an incomplete romance, his masterpiece; *Epithalamion* (1594), a magnificent marriage song, by many regarded as his most perfect poem.

79. **Steele, Sir Richard** (1672-1729).—Essayist and playwright. *Tatler* and *Spectator* papers. *Tender Husband* (1705). *Conscious Lovers* (1722)—both sentimental comedies.

80. **Sterne, Laurence** (1713-1768).—A sentimental novelist. *Tristram Shandy* (1760-67) a novel in 9 volumes, his masterpiece; *A Sentimental Journey* (1768).

81. **Stevenson, Robert Louis** (1850-1894).—Novelist and essayist of the first rank—a great master of prose style. Novels: *The New Arabian Nights* (1878); *Treasure Island* (1882); *Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde* (1886); *Markheim*, a great psychological story. Essays: *Virginibus Puerisque* (1881); *Memories and Portraits*. Travel books: *Travels with a Donkey* (1879).

82. **Swift, Jonathan** (1667-1745).—Satirist. *Gulliver's Travels* (1726)—a great satire, but his most popular book. *Tale of a Tub*—a consummate piece of satire. *Journal to Stella*—a series of letters revealing the tender side of Swift's nature.

83. **Swinburne, Algernon Charles** (1837-1908).—Poet. *Atalanta in Calydon* (1865); *Songs before Sunrise* (1871); *Bothwell* (1874); *Mary Stuart* (1881)—all famous for singular poetic charm and musical appeal. *William Blake*—a critical essay (1867).

84. **Tennyson, Alfred** (1809-1892).—The most representative Victorian poet. *In Memoriam* (1850), an elegy on the death of his friend Arthur Hallam; *Maud* (1855); *Idylls of the King*, a series of poems about King Arthur; *Enoch Arden*. Shorter pieces: *Lotos-eaters*; *The Death of Oenone*; *Ulysses*; *Tithonus*; *Crossing the Bar*; *The Lady of Shallot*.

85. **Thackeray, William Makepeace** (1811-1863).—One of the greatest English novelists. *Vanity Fair* (1847-48); *Henry Esmond* (1852), a masterpiece of historical fiction; *The English Humorists*—a series of critical biographies.

86. **Thompson, Francis** (1859-1907).—Mystic poet. *The Hound of Heaven* (1893).

87. **Trollope, Anthony** (1815-1882).—Novelist. *Barchester Towers*. (1857).

88. **Walton, Izaak** (1693-1683).—Biographer. *The Compleat Angler* (1653), a discourse on fishing.

89. **Wilde, Oscar** (1856-1900).—Poet, dramatist and novelist. *The Picture of Dorian Gray* (1891), a novel. Plays. *Lady Windermere's Fan* 1892). *A Woman of No Importance*

(1893); *The Importance of Being Earnest* (1895). *De Profundis* (1905), an autobiography.

90. **Wordsworth, William** (1770-1850).—The greatest nature poet of England. *The Prelude*; *The Excursion*; *The Recluse*—long poems. Numerous shorter lyrics about man and nature, including *Tintern Abbey*; *Daffodils*; *Solitary Reaper*; *Intimations of Immortality*. Introduced a new theory of Poetic diction in his preface to the *Lyrical Ballads* (1798).

(b) Twentieth Century English Writers

This century has produced many remarkable writers in every sphere of literature, but its greatest literary achievements lie in the domain of the novel, the short story and biography.

1. **Aldington, Richard** (1892-).—Made his literary reputation as a leader of the Imagists in poetry; also a novelist, short story writer and classical scholar. *Poems : War and Love* (1915-1918); *A Fool i' the Forest*, a phantasmagoria (1925); *A Dream in the Luxembourg* (1930); *Novels : Death of a hero* (1929).

2. **Auden, Wystan Hugh** (1907-).—Prominent among the modern group of poets, *Poems : Look, Stranger* (1936); *Another Time* (1940); *New year Letter* (1941); *For the Time Being* (1945).

Poetic Drama : The Dog Beneath the Skin (1935); *The Ascent of F 6* (1936) (with Christopher Isherwood). *Prose : Journey to a War* (1939) (with Christopher Isherwood); *Letters from Iceland* (1941) (with Louis Mac Neice).

3. **Barrie, Sir James Matthew** (1860-1937).—Novelist, playwright, story writer and journalist. His fame rests chiefly on his plays: *The Admirable Crichton* (1902); *Peter Pan, or, The Boy who did not grow up* (1904)—his most popular play; *What Every Woman knows* (1908). *Biography : Margaret Ogilvy* (1896) (Barrie's mother).

4. **Beerbohm. Sir Max** (1872-).—Delightful artist and caricaturist. Range of his work limited but technique highly accomplished. *Essays : Yet Again* (1909); *And Even Now* (1920); *Around Theatres* (1924).

Stories : The Happy Hypocrite, a fairy tale for tired men (1897). *Parodies and Burlesques : Zuleika Dobson, or, An Oxford Love Story* (1911); *A Christmas Garland* (1912). *Caricatures and Cartoons : The Poets' Corner* (1904); *Rossetti and His Circle* (1922).

5. **Belloc, Hilaire** (1870-).—A versatile writer. *Essays : On Nothing* (1908). *Fiction : Belinda* (1928). *Travel : The Path to Rome* (1902). *Children's Books ; The Bad Childs Book of Beasts* (1896). *Biography : Wolsey*.

6. **Bennett, Arnold** (1867-1931).—An accomplished novelist. Novels : *The Old Wive's Tale* (1908), considered to be his masterpiece ; *Clayhanger* (1910) ; *The Card* (1911) ; *Riceymen Steps* (1923) ; *Imperial Palace* (1930).

7. **Binyon, Laurence** (1869-1942).—Poet and an authority on Oriental art. *For the Fallen*—a famous lyric written for the dead of the 1914-18 war. *The Burning of the Leaves* (1944).

8. **Blunden, Edmund** (1896).—Poet and critic. Served in the first Great War. Professor of English Literature at Tokio University (1924-27). *Undertones of War* (1928), a notable piece of prose about the war. Critical studies : *Thomas Hardy* (1942) ; *Shelley* (1946).

9. **Bowen, Elizabeth** (1899).—An eminent contemporary woman novelist. Novels : *The Hotel* (1927) ; *To the North* (1932). During the last war she wrote mostly stories, the best collection being *The Demon Lover* (1945), which presents a vivid picture of war-time England.

10. **Bridges, Robert** (1844-1930).—Poet Laureate since 1930. *The Testament of Beauty* (1929), a long philosophical poem—one of the masterpieces of the century.

11. **Brook, Rupert** (1887-1915).—Poet ; died in the first World War. *The Soldier*—a popular patriotic sonnet.

12. **Butler, Samuel** (1835-1902).—Novelist. *The Way of All Flesh* (1903), a powerful satirical exposure of Victorian life.

13. **Caine, Sir Thomas Henry Hall** (1853-1931).—A popular novelist, extensively advertised ; many of his novels have been dramatised and filmed. *The Shadow of a Crime* (1885) ; *The Deemster* (1887) ; *The Bondman* (1890) ; *The Eternal City* (1901) ; *The Woman Thou Gavest Me* (1913).

14. **Cary, Joyce**—An outstanding novelist of to-day. Writes about African life and children. Novels : *Mister Johnson* (1939), a powerful study of an ill-fated African clerk ; *Charley is My Darling* (1940) ; *A House of Children* (1941), both powerful studies of children ; *To be a Pilgrim* (1942)—his best novel ; *The Moonlight* (1946).

15. **Chesterton, Gilbert Keith** (1874-1936).—Novelist, short story writer, critic, essayist, poet and playwright. Remarkable for his religious philosophy and use of keen paradox. *Man Alive* (1912) ; *The Flying Inn* (1914)—both novels. *The Innocence of Father Browne* (1911)—short stories: *Tremendous Trifles* (1909) —essays. *Browning* (1904) ; *Shaw* (1909) ; *Dickens* (1911)—critical studies.

17. **Churchill, Rt. Hon. Winston Leonard Spencer** (1874).—Biographer and historian. *Lord Randolph Churchill* (1906)—life of his father ; *The World Crisis* (4 volumes) (1913-9) ; *My Early Life* (1920). an autobiography : *Life of Marlborough* (4 volumes)

39. **Kennedy Margaret** (1896).—Novelist. *The Constant Nymph* (1924)—a very famous novel, later filmed and dramatised.

40. **Kipling, Rudyard** (1865-1936).—Poet and novelist with imperialistic sentiments. Awarded the Nobel Prize for literature in 1907. *Kim* (1901), his best novel. *Puck of Pook's Hill* (1906), a children's book, and numerous other works.

41. **Lawrence, David Herbert** (1885-1930).—Novelist. *Sons and Lovers* (1913); *Lady Chatterley's Lover* (1928), proscribed for sometime as pornographic literature. *Letters* (1932).

42. **Lawrence, Thomas Edward** (1888-1935).—One of the most enigmatic and romantic figures of the 20th century. *The Seven Pillars of Wisdom* later abridged into *Revolt in the Desert* (1927).

43. **Lewis, Cecil Day** (1904).—Poet, Novelist and critic.

44. **Lewis Wyndham** (1886).—Novelist. *Tarr* (1918) *The Apes of God* (1930).

45. **Linklater, Eric** (1899).—Novelist. *Juan in America* (1931); *Magnus Merriman* (1934); *Poet's Pub.*

46. **Lucas, Edward Verrall** (1868-1938).—A delightful personal essayist in the manner of Charles Lamb, on whom he is an authority. *The Open Road* (1899); *Over Bemerton's* (1908).

47. **Lynd, Robert ('Y. Y.')** (1897).—Essayist and poet. *The Pleasure of Ignorance* (1921); *Life's Little Oddities* (1941).

48. **Macaulay, Rose**—Novelist. *Potterism* (1920). *Told by an Idiot* (1923); *They were Defeated* (1932)—a novel written round Robert Herrick. *And No Man's Wil* (1940).

49. **Mackenzie, Compton** (1883).—Novelist and satirist. *Sinister Street* (1913-14); *The Monarch of the Glen* (1941)—a satire of Scottish life.

50. **Mansfield, Katherine** (1888-1923).—Married John Middleton Murry in 1913. Novelist and short story writer. *Short Stories: Bliss* (1920); *The Garden Party* (1922); *The Dove's Nest* (1923).

51. **Masefield, John Edward** (1875).—Poet Laureate since 1930. Famous for long narrative poems. *The Everlasting Mercy* (1911); *Dauber* (1913); *Reynard the Fox* (1919) *Play: The Tragedy of Nan* (1909). Novel: *Jim Davis* (1914), a thrilling tale of smugglers. Biography: *In the Mill New Chum*, his most recent work.

52. **Maugham, William Somerset** (1874-).—One of the most popular and prolific modern novelists, playwrights and short story writers. Novels : *Of Human Bondage* (1915) ; *The Moon and Sixpence* (1919) ; *Cakes and Ale* (1930), a veiled satire on Thomas Hardy ; *The Narrow Corner* (1932) ; *The Razor's Edge* (1944) ; *Then and Now* (1946), a great historical novel ; *Catalina* (1948). Stories : *Altogether*, (1934) containing 'Rain' regarded as one of the world's best short stories. More than twenty plays.

53. **Moore, George** (1853-1933).—Novelist and short story writer. Novels : *Esther Water* (1894) ; *Evelyn Innes* (1898) ; *Sister Teresa* (1901) ; *The Brook Kerith* (1916), a story of Christ. Autobiography : *Hail and Farewell* (1911-14).

54. **Morgan, Charles** (1894-).—Novelist. *The Fountain* (1932) ; *The Voyage* ; *The Empty Room* (1941).

55. **Munro, Hector Hugh ("Saki")** (1870-1916).—A Short story writer and humorist, with a strong sense of satire. Killed in the first World War. *The Westminster Alice* (1902) ; *Beasts and Super-Beasts* (1914) ; *The Short Stories of Saki* (1930).

56. **O'casey, Sean** (1884-).—Famous Irish dramatist. *Juno and the Paycock* (1925) ; *The Plough and the Stars* (1926) ; *The Silver Tassie* (1928) ; *The Star Turns Red*.

57. **Pound, Ezra** (1885-).—American poet. Came to England as a young man. The founder of the Imagist group of poets.

58. **Priestley, J. B.** (1894-).—Novelist, playwright, essayist and critic. Novels : *The Good Companions* (1929), dramatised (1931) ; *Angel Pavement* (1930).

59. **Quiller-Couch, Sir Arthur "Q"** (1863-1944).—Professor of English Literature at Cambridge. Poet and critic. *On the Art of Writing* (1916) ; *On the Art of Reading* (1920).

60. **Richardson, Dorothy M.** (Mrs. Alan Odle).—The originator of the style of technique in fiction known as the "stream of consciousness". *Pilgrimage* (1938), a continued story in twelve novels.

61. **Russell, George William ("H.E.")** (1867-1935).—Irish mystic poet and dramatist. His play *Deirdra* (1907) was an important landmark of the Irish Theatre movement.

62. **Shaw, George Bernard** (1856-1950).—The Grand Old Man of modern letters. Plays : *Three Plays for Puritans* (1901) ; *Man and Superman* (1903) ; *The Doctor's Dilemma* (1911) ; *Back to Methuselah* (1921) ; *Saint Joan* (1923) ; *The Apple Cart* (1930). Of all his miscellaneous books the most important is *The Intelligent Woman's Guide to Socialism and Capitalism* (1928). Awarded the Nobel Prize for Literature in 1925.

63. **Sinclair, May.**—One of the foremost woman novelists. *The Divine Fire* (1904); *Mary Olivier* (1919); *Life and Death of Harriett Frear* (1922); *A Cure of Souls* (1924).

64. **Sitwells.**—A talented family of letters. Osbert (1892) and Sacheverell (1897) are the two brothers and Edith (1887) is their sister. All write poetry.

65. **Spender, Stephen** (1909-).—Poet and prose writer. *Twenty Poems* (1930); *Ruins and Visions* (1942); *Poems of Dedication* (1946).

66. **Strachey, Giles Lytton** (1880-1932).—An eminent biographer. *Eminent Victorians* (1918); *Queen Victoria* (1921)—created the vogue for the modern light and well-informed biography.

67. **Synge, John Millington** (1871-1909).—Famous Irish dramatist. *The Shadow of the Glen* (1905); *Riders to the Sea* (1905); *The Playboy of the Western World* (1907).

68. **Wallace, Edgar** (1875-1932).—Creator of numerous thrillers. *The Four Just Men* (1906).

69. **Walpole, Sir Hugh** (1884-1941).—Famous novelist. *Prelude to Adventure* (1912); *The Cathedral* (1922); *The Herries Chronicle* (1935), his most ambitious work.

70. **Waugh, Evelyn** (1903).—Witty and satirical novelist and biographer. *Decline and Fall* (1928); *Vile Bodies* (1930); *Black Mischief* (1932); *A Handful of Dust* (1934); *Put out More Flags* (1942); *Work Suspended* (1942); *Brideshead Revisited* (1945), a famous novel of recent times.

71. **Wells, H. G.** (1866-1946).—A most prolific writer and penetrating thinker of the century. Novelist with a scientific and sociological bias. *The Time Machine* (1895); *Love and Mr. Lewisham* (1900); *Kipps* (1905); *Ann Veronica* (1909); *Marriage* (1912). *Mr. Brill Sees it Through* (1916); *The World of William Clissold* (1926). Also an accomplished short story writer.

72. **West, Rebecca**, pseudonym (Cicily Fairfield (1892-)).—One of England's keenest critical intellects, a philosophical student of human personality. Novels: *Harriet Hume* (1929); *The Thinking Reed* (1936). Essays: *The Strange Necessity* (1928).

73. **Wodehouse, P. G.** (1881-).—Humorous novelist. Author of the famous Jeeves stories (from about 1911 onwards) which have been collected in "My Man Jeeves; The Inimitable Jeeves; Carry On, Jeeves; Very Good, Jeeves"; and recently in "The Jeeves Omnibus."

74. **Woolf, Virginia** (1882-1941).—Novelist of the 'Stream of Consciousness' school. Novels; *The Voyage Out* (1915); *Jacob's Room* (1922); *Mrs Dalloway* (1925); *The Light House* (1927); *Orlando* (1924); *Between the Acts* (1941); *A Haunted*

House (Stories) (1943). *Criticism*. *The Common Reader* (1925; 1932); *A Room of One's Own* (1929).

75. **Yeats, William Butler** (1865-1939).—Poet and Playwright; leader of the Irish National Theatre movement. Awarded Nobel Prize for literature in 1923. *Plays*: *The Countess Cathleen* (1892); *The King's Threshold* (1904); *Deirdre* (1907). *Poems*: *The Wind Among the Reeds* (1899); *The Tower* (1927).

(iv) AMERICAN

1. **Alcott, Louisa May** (1832-88).—Novelist. *Little Women* (1868-9), a charming and immensely popular story for children; autobiographical, portraying herself as Jo and her early life in New England; *Little Men* (1871).

2. **Anderson Sherwood** (1876-1941).—Short story writer and novelist. Depicts the mentality and emotional states of the negro of North America. *Winacoburg, Ohio* (1919); *Poor White* (1920), a novel of the Midwest; “the town was really the hero of the book”; *The Triumph of the Egg* (1921), stories depicting aspects of frustration and maladjustment in typical American backgrounds; *Many Marriages* (1923), a novel about a businessman’s attempt to escape routine; *Dark Laughter* (1925), a novel contrasting the laughter and song of unrepressed Negroes with the spiritual sterility of the Whites.

3. **Bromfield, Louis** (1896-).—Novelist. *Early Autumn* (1926); *The Rains Came* (1937); *Night in Bombay* (1940)—the last two are set in India.

4. **Bryant, William Culien** (1794-1878).—Poet of Nature. *Thanatopsis* (1817).

5. **Buck, Pearl** (Sydenstricker) (1892-).—Famous novelist. *Novels*: *The Good Earth* (1930), a story of the lives of Chinese peasants. It won her the Pulitzer prize. The novel has been filmed and translated into more than twenty languages, including the Chinese. *Sons* (1932); *A House Divided* (1935); *The Mother* (1934); *The Patriot* (1939); *Other Gods* (1940). *The Exile* (1936), biographies of her mother and father. Awarded the Nobel Prize for Literature in 1938, being the first American woman to be honoured.

6. **Cabel, James Branch** (1879-).—A leading novelist, esp. prominent in Virginian literary life. *Jurgen* (1919), a pseudo-erudite romance of Dom Manuel, set in the mythical medieval country of Poictesme. It gained a wide reputation for its author because of its attempted suppression on charges of obscenity. *Hamlet had an Uncle* (1940).

7. **Cather, Willa** (Sibert) (1876-1947). A gifted woman novelist. *O Pioneers!* (1913), a story of the Nebraska prairies; *The Song of a Lark* (1915), a study of a woman's character; *My Antonia* (1918), a tale of a Bohemian immigrant girl's life on the frontier; *Death Comes to the Archbishop* (1927), celebrating the spiritual pioneering of the Catholic Church in New Mexico.

8. **Clemens, Samuel Langhorne** ("Mark Twain") (1835-1910).—Celebrated novelist, short story writer and humorist. *Tom Sawyer* (1876); *Huckleberry Finn* (1884), celebrates the flowering of Mississippi frontier civilization. *The Innocents Abroad* (1869), a humorous narrative; *The Gilded Age* (1873), a satirical novel of Post-Civil War boom times.

9. **Cummings, E. E.** (1894-).—*XLI Poems* (1925), American poetry reaches the height of experimentation.

10. **Dos Passos, John** (1896-).—Famous modern novelist. *Three Soldiers* (1921), showing the effects of war service on three types of character; *Manhattan Transfer* (1925), his mature work, a collective portrait in hundreds of fictional episodes of the diversified life of New York City; *U.S.A.* (1938), a trilogy, telling the story of the first three decades of the 20th century in the U. S., especially the degradation of character in a decaying civilization based on commercialism and exploitation.

II. **Dreiser Theodore** (1871-1945).—Novelist. *Sister Carrie* (1900); *Jenni Gerhardt* (1911); *An American Tragedy* (1925), his best known novel. All three paint the tragedy of modern American life.

12. **Emerson Ralph Waldo** (1803-82).—Famous essayist, poet, and philosopher. *The American Scholar* (1837) a philosophical oration; *Representative Men* (1850), a series of lectures on Plato, the philosopher; Swedenborg, the mystic; Montaigne, the sceptic; Shakespeare, the poet; Napolean, the man of the world; and Goethe, the writer. *Essays* (1841 & 1844). *Journals* (10 vols., 1909-14). He was a man of singular elevation and purity of character.

13. **Faulkner, William** (1897-). One of the most advanced American novelists; his style is not easy reading but he has a considerable following. Novels. *Soldiers' Pay* (1926), about the home coming of a dying soldier; *The Sound and Fury* (1929), the story of the decadence of a family; *The Wild Palms* (1939); *Pylon* (1940).

14. **Franklin Benjamin** (1707-90).—Statesman. *Autobiography* (incomplete) (1818).

15. **Frost Robert** (1875-),—Poet. *North of Boston* (1914), a collection of poems about New England, containing such pieces as 'Mending Wall' and 'The Death of the Hired

Man'; *Mountain Interval* (1916) containing such characteristic poems as 'The Road Not Taken', 'Birches', 'Bond and Free'. Won the Pulitzer prize for poetry thrice.

16. **Harte, Francis Bret** (1839-1902).—Short story writer and poet; *The Luck of Roaring Camp and Other Sketches* (1870), local colour stories mainly concerned with moral contrasts.

17. **Hawthorne, Nathaniel** (1804-1864).—Novelist and writer of short stories. *The Scarlet Letter* (1850), a sombre romance of conscience and the tragic consequences of concealed guilt, is set in Puritan Boston during the mid-17th century. *The House of Seven Gables* (1851), another romantic novel. Most of his work is pervaded by a strong element of mysticism, abstraction and allegory. Regarded as the greatest imaginative writer of America.

18. **Hemingway Ernest** (1898-).—Novelist and short story writer. *The Sun Also Rises* (1926), tells of the moral collapse of group of expatriated Americans and Englishmen, broken by the war; *A Farewell to Arms* (1929), a poignant love story of an English nurse and an American Ambulance lieutenant during the War; *For Whom the Bell Tolls* (1940)—his greatest novel. Though concerned with an incident in the Spanish Civil War, it deals with the universal theme that loss of liberty in one place means a loss everywhere.

19. **Henry, O. (William Sydney Porter)** (1862-1910).—One of the most famous short story writers, a great craftsman, remarkable for the surprise ending of his stories. *The Gift of the Magi*; *The Last Leaf*; *The Furnished Room*—are some of his best known stories.

20. **Hergesheimer, Joseph** (1880-).—A novelist of careful and stylish fiction. *Java Head* (1919), his masterpiece. Other titles: *The Three Black Pennys* (1917) *The Limestone Tree* (1931).

21. **Holmes, Oliver Wendell** (1809-94).—Poet and essayist. *The Autocrat of the Breakfast Table* (1857), graceful, allusive and pleasantly egotistical essays in Addisonian style, describing imaginary table-talk at a Boston boarding house. *Elsie Venner* (1861), called "the snake story of Literature," because of its heroine Elsie Venner, a New England girl whose snake-like nature is traced to the prenatal influence of a snakebite that her mother received. Poems: *The Chambered Nautilus*; *The Last Leaf*; *Homesick in Heaven*; *The Voiceless*; *The Boys*.

22. **Howells, William Dean** (1837-1920).—Novelist and critic. *The Rise of Silas Lapham* (1885), his masterpiece.

23. **Irving, Washington** (1783-1859).—Outstanding prose writer and story-teller. *History of New York* (1809), a burlesque, containing the comic Dutch-American scholar, Diedrich Knicker-

bocker ; *Sketch Book* (1819-20), containing the celebrated stories 'Rip Van Winkle' and 'The Legend of Sleepy Hollow'.

24. **James, Henry** (1843-1916).—Celebrated novelist and short story writer. Came to Europe in 1869 and settled in Rye, England ; became naturalized as a British subject in 1915. Novels : *Daisy Miller* (1878), very popular owing to its portrayal of a charming, ingenuous American girl ; *The portrait of a Lady* (1881), a triumph of his method of psychological realism ; *The Ambassadors* (1903) ; *The Golden Bowl* (1904).

25. **Lewis, Sinclair** (1885-).—Novelist. *Main Street* (1920) ; *Babbitt* (1922), a very famous novel being a satirical portrayal of an average American businessman ; *Arrowsmith* (1925) ; *Dodsworth* (1929) ; *It Can't Happen Here* (1935), concerned with a future fascist revolt in U.S.

26. **Lindsay, Vachel** (1879-1931).—Poet. *The Congo* (1914), gained him recognition as an exponent of the 'new poetry.'

27. **Lippmann Walter** (1889-).—An outstanding thinker of to-day. *A Preface to Morals* (1929), a searching analysis of modern society.

28. **London, John Griffith** ("JACK") (1876-1916).—Novelist. Chiefly famous for his sympathetic animal stories such as *The Call of the Wild* (1903), the story of a dog in the Far North, who escapes from civilization to lead a wolf pack; *White Fang* (1906), about a wild dog who is tamed.

29. **Longfellow, Henry Wadsworth** (1807-82).—Famous children's poet. *Hymn To the Night*; *A Psalm of Life* (both in 1839); *Excelsior* (1841); *Evangeline* (1847), a narrative poem on the Acadians; *Hiawatha* (1855), a celebrated 'Indian Edda' in unrimed trochaic tetrameter; translation of the *Divine Comedy* (1867).

30. **Lowell Amy** (1874-1925).—Poetess; leader of the poetic group called the Imagists.

31. **Lowell, James Russell** (1819-91).—Poet and critic. *The Vision of Sir Launfal* (1848); *Fables for Critics* (1848).

32. **Markham, Edwin** (1852-1940).—Poet. *The Man with the Hoe* (1899), a popular blank verse poem, depicting a brutalized farmer—the victim of exploited labour.

33. **Melville, Herman** (1819-91).—Novelist. *Moby Dick or the White-Whale* (1851), regarded as one of the world's greatest novels, relating Captain Ahab's prolonged fight with a large white whale, the fight being symbolic of man's struggle against fate.

34. **Mitchell, Margaret**.—Novelist. *Gone With the Wind* (1926-36), one of the fastest selling novels in the history of American publishing; extremely popular. It is a long romantic novel of Georgia during the Civil War and Reconstruction.

35. **O' Neill, Eugene** (1888-).—The most outstanding living American dramatist; awarded the Nobel Prize for Literature in 1936; *The Emperor Jones* (1920); *Desire under the Elms* (1924), *Strange Interlude* (1927); *Mourning becomes Electra* (1931) *Ah, Wilderness!* (1933). Maker of the little theatre movement:

36. **Paine, Thomas** (1737-1809).—Pamphleteer. *The Rights of Man* (1791-2).

37. **Poe, Edgar Allan** (1809-49).—Famous short story writer and poet. *Short Stories*: : *The Golden Bug*; *The Golden Beetle*, both early examples of the cryptogram story; *The Fall of the House of Usher*. In *The Purloined Letter*, *The Mystery of Marie Roget*, he is the pioneer of the modern detective story.

38. **Sandburg, Carl** (1878).—Poet and biographer. Representative of what is most modern and free in American verse. *Poems*: : *Chicago*; *Grass*; *Fog* (1916); *The People, Yes* (1936), a panoramic picture in verse of American folk-lore and folk history. *Abraham Lincoln* (1926), a monumental biography of the American President.

39. **Santayana, George** (1863).—Philosopher and novelist. *The Life of Reason* (1905-6), a study of reason in common sense, society, religion, art and science. *The Last Puritan* (1935), a novel set in America during the period of the waning strength of Calvinism.

40. **Sinclair, Upton** (1878).—Famous novelist, a fervent socialist. *The Jungle* (1906), an exposure of the American meatpacking industry—a famous book; *Worlds End* (1940), an exposure of the munitions factory and dollar diplomacy during World War I; *Dragon's Teeth*.

41. **Steinbeck John** (1902-).—Novelist and dramatist. *The Grapes of Wrath* (1939), concerned with the problem of the landless farm labourer; *Of Mice and Men* (1937); *Tortilla Flat*.

42. **Stockton, Frank, R.** (1834-1902).—Novelist and short story writer. *The Lady or the Tiger?* (1884), a sensational popular tale.

43. **Stowe, Harriet Beecher** (1811-96).—Novelist. Her novel *Uncle Tom's Cabin* (1852); an exposure of slavery took the world by storm. Very popular and good seller. 300,000 copies sold in the first year of the publication.

44. **Thoreau, Henry David** (1817-62).—Famous essayist and naturalist. *Walden* (1854), 18 essays inspired by his stay at the solitary Walden pond, in an attempt to test his transcendental philosophy of individualism, self-reliance and material economy.

45. **Wallace Lew** (1827-1905). Novelist. *Ben Hur* (1880), a romantic depiction of the late Roman empire and the rise of Christianity, which is said to have sold 2,000,000 copies, besides being translated into many foreign languages.

46. **Wharton, Edith** (1862-1937).—Woman novelist. *Ethan Frome* (1911), her greatest tragic story; *The Age of Innocence* (1920), her best constructed novel, shows the influence of Henry James.

47. **Whitman, Walt** (1819-92).—Famous poet. *Leaves of Grass* (1855), highly unconventional poems both in subject matter and in the discarding of rhyme.

48. **Whittier, John Greenleaf** (1807-92).—Poet. *Snow Bound* (1866) a long religious narrative poem, his greatest work; *Maud Muller* (1856), a poetic idyll, telling of the meeting of a wealthy judge with the rustic maiden, Maud Muller.

49. **Wilder, Thornton** (1897).—Novelist and dramatist. *The Bridge of San Luis Rey* (1927), a popular novel; *Our Town* (1938), his best play.

50. **Wright, Richard** (1908-). Self-educated leading negro novelist and short story writer. *Native Son* (1940).

(v) FRENCH

1. **Balzac, Honore De** (1799-1850).—Considered by some authorities (including Henry James) to be the greatest of all novelists, and has powerfully influenced later writers of fiction. *The Human Comedy* (1842-8), a great collection of romances; *Old Man Goriot* (1834) his masterpiece; *Eugenie Grandet* (1833); *Le Cousin Pons*.

2. **Barbusse, Henri** (1871-1935).—Novelist. *Under Fire* (1916), a well-known volume of short stories of the War; *Light* (1919); *Thus and Thus* (1928); *One Looks at Russia* (1930).

3. **Baudelaire, Charles** (1821-67).—Famous lyric poet, with a pessimistic philosophy of life. *The Flowers of Evil* (1857), poems in which the melancholy romantic spirit is carried to a morbid excess; but remarkable for their originality and peculiar charm. The first edition was suppressed, a second edition with omissions and additions appeared in 1861. The character of Spandrell in A. Huxley's *Point Counter Point* has, probably, its original in Baudelaire.

4. **Beaumarchais, Pierre Augustin Caron De** (1732-99).—Famous dramatist. *The Barber of Seville* (1775), a delightful comedy; *The Marriage of Figaro* (1784), a keen satire on French society.

5. **Bergson, Henri** (1859-1941).—Philosopher, *Creative Evolution* (1907); *The Meaning of War* (1915).

6. **Bernardin De Saint-Pierre, Jacques Henri** (1737-1814).—Novelist. *Paul and Virginia* (1787), a famous novel; became popular in England in translation.

7. **Boileau, (Despreaux), Nicolas** (1636-1711).—Critic and poet, the friend of Moliere, La Fontaine, and Racine, who by his *Satires* and *The Art of Poetry*, remarkable for discrimination, and good sense, did much to form French literary taste, previously vitiated by Spanish and Italian influences. Exercised great influence on 18th century classical literature in England.

8. **Brieux, Eugene** (1858-1932).—Dramatist, wrote plays on social themes. *Damaged Goods* (1901). He was made known to English readers in general by G. B. Shaw, in an introduction to a translation by his wife of three of Brieux's plays (1911).

9. **Chateaubriand, Francois De** (1768-1848).—Novelist; one of the pioneers of the French Romantic movement. *The Genius of Christianity* (1802), his principal work, based on the emotional and imaginative appeal of religion to the deepest instincts in man's nature. From this work he detached and published two fragments, *Atala* (1801), the romance of a young Red Indian, Chactus and an Indian maiden Abala; and *Rene* (1805), the story of a young European, the author himself under a thin disguise, devoured by a secret sorrow, who flees to the solitudes of America.

10. **Corneille, Pierre** (1606-84).—Dramatist; founder of classical tragedy. *The Cid* (1637), his masterpiece, based on the legends and plays concerning that Spanish hero; *The Liar* (1642), a fine comedy.

11. **Daudet, Alphonse** (1840-97).—Novelist. *The Little Weakling* (1868); *Tartaruan of Tarascon* (1872), his most popular work; *Sappho* (1884).

12. **Descartes, Rene** (1596-1650).—Mathematician and philosopher. *The Discourse on Method* (1637), exposition of the Cartesian system of philosophy, beginning with the famous phrase, *cogito, ergo sum*, 'I think, therefore I am'.

13. **Diderot, Denis** (1713-84).—Philosopher, writer of sentimental comedies and critic; chiefly known for editing, *The Encyclopaedia*.

14. **Dumas Fils, Alexander** (1824-95).—Son of Alexandre Dumas, the famous novelist. Dramatist and novelist; wrote some highly successful romantic dramas. *The Lady with the Camellias* (1848), his masterpiece.

15. **Dumas Pere, Alexander** (1802-1870).—Famous popular novelist and dramatist. Wrote historical novels. *The Three Musketeers* (1844); *The Count of Monte Cristo* (1844); *Twenty Years After* (1845).

16. **Flaubert, Gustave** (1821-80).—Great novelist, remarkable for his highly finished style and for the impersonal, objective, carefully sculptured method of narrative. *Madame*

Bovary (1856), his masterpiece, a realistic sordid tale of bourgeois life; *Education Sentimentale* (1869).

17. **Fontaine, Jean Dela** (1621-95).—Poet and fabulist.

18. **France, Anatole** (pseudonym of JACQUES ANATOLE THIBAULT) (1844-1924).—Outstanding novelist, critic, and satirist. *Thais* (1890), an historical novel of which Alexandria in the first century is the scene; *Crainquebille* (1903); *The Gods Are Athirst: Penguin Isle* (1908). Awarded the Nobel Prize for Literature in 1921.

19. **Froissart, Jean** (1337-1410).—Traveller and historian. *Chronicles*, covering the period (1325-1400), and dealing with the affairs of Flanders, France, Spain, Portugal, and England.

20. **Gautier, Theophile** (1811-72).—Novelist and poet of the Romantic movement. *Emaux et Camees* (1852), his best poetical work. Novels: *Mlle. de Maupin* (1835); *Captain Fracasse* (1863).

21. **Gide, Andre** (1869).—Novelist; exercised a great influence on his own and became a sort of leader for the younger generation; gave a new turn to the novel. *The Counterfeitors* (1926), his masterpiece. There are echoes of it in A. Huxley's *Point Counter Point*.

22. **Concourt, Edmond De**, (1822-96) and **Jules De** (1830-70).—Novelists and collaborators. Wrote *Germinie Lacerteux*, a novel (1865), and plays. They founded in 1896 a literary society which awarded an annual prize of fr. 5,000 to the best imaginative work in prose.

23. **Gourmont, Remy De** (1858-1915).—Critic, novelist and poet. Novels: *A Night in the Luxembourg* (1906); *A Virgin Heart* (1907), translated into English by A. Huxley.

24. **Halevy, Ludovic** (1834-1908).—Novelist. His novel *Abbe Constantin* is ranked by some with Goldsmith's the *Vicar of Wakefield*.

25. **Hugo, Victor** (1802-85).—Famous novelist, dramatist and poet, the leader of the French Romantic movement. *Hernani* (1830), introduced a revolution in drama; *Marion Delorme* (1831); *Ruy Blas* are his other plays. Novels: *Notre Dame de Paris* (1831); *Les Miserables* (1862), one of the world's most famous novels.

26. **Lafayette, Maria, Countess De** (1634-93).—Novelist. Her work was the forerunner of the sentimental fiction of later days. *The Princess of Cleves* (written with Segrais and La Rochefoucauld in 1678).

27. **Lamartine, Alphonse De** (1790-1869).—Lyric and poet. *Meditations Poetiques* (1820), his best work.

28. **La Rochefoucauld Francois De** (1613-80).—Moralist and memoir-writer; *Memoirs*; *Moral Maxims and Reflections*

(1665), "pithy maxims of extreme concision and finish, embodying a somewhat cynical philosophy that finds in self-love the prime motive of all action."

29. **Le Sage, Alian Rene** (1668-1747).—Novelist. *The Adventures of Gil Blas* (1715-35), a picaresque romance, presenting an admirable satiric picture of Spanish life of the period.

30. **Loti, Pierre** (pseudonym of Louis Marie Julien Viaud) (1850-1923).—Naval officer and author; an impressionist writer, with a remarkable gift for depicting exotic scenery and the melancholy aspects of nature, especially of the sea. *The Iceland Fisherman* (1886), his masterpiece.

31. **Mallarme, Stephane** (1842-98).—Poet; innovator in regard to the style of poetry, especially the form of a phrase and punctuation. Popular among younger writers. Most of his poetry is lyrical.

32. **Martin Du Gard, Roger** (1881).—Novelist. *The Thibaults* (1922).

33. **Maupassant, Guy De** (1850-93).—Novelist, and probably the world's greatest short story writer. His most remarkable work is the short story *Boule de Suif* (1880), an audacious tale of an episode in the Franco-German War. *Pearl Necklace* is another very popular story. Novels: *A Woman's Life* (1882); *Bel-Ami* (1885); *Pierre and Jean* (1888),—all belong to the naturalistic school of fiction and are marred by a certain morbidity.

34. **Maurois, Andre** (pseudonym of Emile Herzog) (1885).—Well-known novelist and biographer. *Ariel (Shelley)*, (1923); *Disraeli* (1927); *Byron* (1930); *Voltaire* (1932)—all biographies that read like fiction. Other works: *The Silence of Col. Bramble* (1918); *Mapc* (1926); *Whatever Gods May be* (1929); and several volumes of critical and literary essays.

35. **Mistral, Frederic** (1830-1914).—Poet who revived the glory of Provincial literature. *Mireio* (1859), a pastoral epic.

36. **Moliere, Jean Baptiste (Poquelin)** (1622-73).—Famous dramatist. Comedies: *The Romantic Ladies* (1659); *The School for Husbands* (1661); *The School for Wives* (1662); *The Forced Marriage* (1664); *The Man Hater* (1666)—all these plays are witty and satirical.

37. **Montaigne, Michel De** (1533-92).—Father of the Essay and philosopher. *Essays* (1580; 1595).

38. **Montesquieu** (1689-1755).—Political philosopher. *The Spirit of Laws* (1748), his masterpiece, an exposure of the French monarchical system; *Persian Letters* (1721), his best-known work in which through the medium of an imaginary Persian visitor the author criticizes French legal and political institutions.

39. **Musset, Alfred De** (1810-57).—Poet of the Romantic school. Wrote much passionate lyrical verse and some sparkling comedies.
40. **Pascal, Blaise** (1623-62).—Philosopher and scientist. *Pensees* (published in 1670), an uncompleted Defence of the Christian Religion, directed principally against the free-thinkers.
41. **Prevost, Abbe** (1697-1763).—Novelist. *Manon Lescaut* (1731).
42. **Proust, Marcel** (1871-1922).—A celebrated modern psychological novelist. *The Remembrance of Things Past* (1913-26), an epoch-making novel.
43. **Rabelais, Francois** (1494-1553)—Satirist and humanist. *Gargantua and Pantagruel* (1564), a satirical romance in several parts.
44. **Racine, Jean Baptiste** (1639-99).—Famous dramatist; wrote tragedies on classical themes, historical and scriptural subjects. *Phedre* (1677), based on the plays of Euripides; *Athalie* (1690), dealing with a scriptural subject.
45. **Rimbaud, Jean Arthur** (1854-91).—Lyric poet. *A Season in Hell* (1873).
46. **Rolland, Romain** (1866-1944).—Famous novelist, biographer, musicologist and religious writer. Mahatma Gandhi met him in his Swiss home in 1931. *John Christopher* (1904-12), a novel in 10 vols.; several books on music, including *Beethoven* (1903); *A Musical Tour* (1919). *Mahatma Gandhi* (1924), a biography. In his later years he studied Indian Philosophy and wrote the lives of *Ramakrishna* and *Swami Vivekananda* (1928, 1930).
47. **Romains, Jules (Louis Farigoule)** (1885-).—Dramatist and novelist. *Dr. Knock*; *Men of Good Will*.
48. **Ronsard, Pierre De** (1524-85).—Famous lyric poet, regarded by his contemporaries with intense admiration. He contributed powerfully to the reform of French literature, creating a new poetic language, and exercised considerable influence on the English sonnet-writers of the 16th century.
49. **Rostand, Edmond** (1868-1918).—Dramatist. *Cyrano de Bergerac* (1898). A volume of his plays in English translation appeared in 1921.
50. **Rousseau, Jean Jacques** (1712-78).—Famous philosopher, in revolt against the existing social order. *La Nouvelle Heloise* (1761), a novel in which the question of the return to nature was discussed in its relation to the sexes and the family; *Emile* (1761), deals with education; *The Social Contract* (1762), his most famous work, which had a profound influence on French thought and prepared the way for the French Revolution. *Confessions* (1782), an autobiography.

51. **Sainte-Beuve, Charles Augustin** (1804-69).—Critic and poet. Broke away from the dogmas of the classical school and did much to promote the Romantic movement in France.

52. **Sand, Georges (Baroness Dudevant)** (1804-76).—Novelist. *Indiana* (1831); *Jacques* (1834) marked by freshness and a spirit of revolt against the institution of marriage; *Consuelo* (1842-45), the product of her study of philosophy and politics.

53. **Sartre, Jean-Paul** (1905).—Philosopher, novelist and dramatist. Leader of the Existentialist movement. *Novels*. *Nausica*; *The Age of Reason*. *Plays*: *The Respectable Prostitute*; *Men without shadows*.

54. **Scudery, Madeleine De** (1607-1701).—One of the most voluminous writers of heroic romances. *Artamene, ou le Grand Cyrus* (10 vols., 1649-53); *Clelie* (1656-60), on the subject of the Clelia who escaped from the power of Porsenna by swimming the Tiber.

55. **Sevigne, Marie De Rabutin-Chantal, Marquise De** (1626-96).—Writer of letters; was left a widow at 25 years with two children. Of these, Francoise Mme de Grignan; became the principal recipient of her mother's letters, which, written in an easy and natural style, give a vivid picture of the time of Louis XIV.

56. **Stael, Madame De** (1766-1817).—Novelist and critic. *Dolphine* (1802); *Cornine* (1807), novels reflecting her passionate relation with Benjamin Constant.

57. **Stendhal** (pseudonym of Henry Beyle) (1783-1842).—One of the greatest of French novelists. *The Red and the Black* (1831); The *Charterhouse of Parma* (1839). On the strength of these he has been accorded, by modern critics, a place in French fiction equal in importance to that of Balzac. His definite gift to fiction is the objective, dispassionate analysis of complicated states of conscience.

58. **Sue, Eugene** (1804-57).—Novelist. *The Mysteries of Paris* (1842-43); *The Wandering Jew* (1845).

59. **Sully-Prudhomme, Rene** (1839-1907).—Lyric poet. Awarded the Nobel Prize for Literature in 1901.

60. **Taine, Hippolyte** (1828-93).—Critic and historian. *History of English Literature* (1856-9).

61. **Valery, Paul** (1871-).—Poet, philosopher and essayist. *Charms*; *Variety*.

62. **Verlaine Paul** (1844-96).—Lyric poet. His verse is musical, mystical, passionate, and generally regarded as decadent in character.

63. **Verne, Jules** (1828-1905).—Famous novelist who achieved great and enduring popularity by the combination of adventure with popular science - a sort of French H. G. Wells.

A Journey to the Centre of the Earth (1864); *From Earth to the Moon* (1865); *Around the World in Eighty Days* (1872); *Michael Stragoff* (1871), also dramatised and filmed. The marvels of science in the two world wars have brought Jules Verne and his delightful day-dreams to the minds of all.

64. **Villon, Francois** (1431-63).—Lyric poet, led a thoroughly reckless life; known for his ballads.

65. **Voltaire (Francois Marie Arouet)** (1694-1778).—Celebrated philosopher, poet, dramatist and novelist. A sceptic in philosophy, rejecting all systems, he was a believer in God, though he condemned particular religions. His anti-clericalism, his wit and style have made him one of the most famous of French writers and one of the leaders of free thought everywhere. Influenced the French Revolution on the practical side.

Wrote some seventy volumes, the masterpieces being *Letters Concerning the English Nation* (1734) and *Candide* (1759). Bitterly condemned Shakespeare for lack of taste and ignorance of the classical rules of the drama.

66. **Zola, Emile** (1840-1902).—The principal figure in the French School of naturalistic fiction. *Therese Raquin* (1867); *Germinal* (1885); *The Debacle* (1870); *Nana* (1880).

(vi) ITALIAN

Ariosto, Ludovico (1474-1533).—Poet. *Orlando Furioso* (1532), the greatest of Italian romantic epics; served as a model to Spenser for his *Fairie Queene*.

2. **Boccacio, Giovanni** (1313-75).—Novelist, poet, and humanist. *Decameron* (1348-58), a collection of tales drawn from many sources. The work had much influence on English literature, notably on Chaucer. Boccacio also influenced Shakespeare, Dryden, Keats, Longfellow, and Tennyson.

3. **Cellini, Benvenuto** (1500-71).—Florentine goldsmith and sculptor, and author of one of the most vivid and interesting autobiographies ever written. *Autobiography* (published in 1730).

4. **Croce, Benedetto** (1866). Philosopher and critic. *Philosophy of the Spirit*; *Historical Materialism*.

5. **D'Annunzio, Gabriele** (1863-1938).—Novelist, poet and dramatist; a consistent and enthusiastic supporter of fascism and of the regime of Mussolini. *The Triumph of Death* (1894); *The Virgin of the Rocks* (1896); *The Dead City* (1898); *The Flame of Life* (1900); *Tales of My Native Town* (1901); *Italy or Death* (1919); *Italy and Life* (1920).

6. **Dante. Alighieri** (1265-1321).—The greatest of Italian poets and the real founder of the Italian language. *Divina*

Commedia, his masterpiece, comprising the *Inferno*, the *Purgatorio* and the *Paradiso* (written about 1300, first printed 1472).

7. **Deledda, Grazia** (1875-1936).—Novelist. She was awarded the Nobel Prize for Literature in 1926. *After the Divorce* (1902); *Ashes* (1904); *Nostalgia* (1905); *The Mother* (1920).

8. **Goldoni, Carlo** (1707-93).—Dramatist; the father and inspirer of modern Italian Comedy. *The Coffee House* (1750); *The Liar* (1750); *The Fan* (1763); *The Mistress of the Inn*; *The Good Humoured Ladies*.

9. **Leopardi, Giacomo** (1798-1837).—Poet and scholar, an invalid from his youth, the author of some of the finest poetry in modern Italian literature, classic in form and imbued with melancholy and pessimism. *Patriotic Odes*, including *To Italy, On the Monument of Dante* (1819); *Operette Morali* (1827), a prose masterpiece.

10. **Machiavelli, Niccolo** (1469-1527).—Distinguished Political writer. *On the Art of War*; *The Prince* (1513), his masterpiece, a treatise on statecraft, directed to the attainment of a united Italy, by means that included cruelty and bad faith. A character sketch of Machiavelli is found in George Eliot's *Romola*. His name has passed into the language: 'Machiavel' stands for—'unscrupulous schemer.'

11. **Manzoni, Alessandro, Count** (1785-1873).—Dramatist and novelist; chiefly known for his novel, *The Betrothed Lovers* ('1825-26) which brought him a European fame and came to be more widely translated than any novel of the day.

12. **Petrarch, Francesco** (1304-74).—Famous poet and humanist. Crowned Poet Laureate at Rome in 1341. His literary activity marks the dawn of the Renaissance in Italy. *Laura poems*—his masterpiece, a long series of love poems for his beloved Laura, according to tradition, the daughter of Audibert de Noves, and the wife of Count Hugues de Sade. Also wrote a number of treatises and letters in Latin and a Latin epic, *Africa*, on the contest between Rome and Carthage.

13. **Pirandello, Luigi** (1867-1936).—Dramatist and novelist. Novel: *The Late Mattia Pascal* (1904). Players: *Six Characters in Search of an Author* (1921); *Henry IV* (1922). His plays are all built upon a pseudo-metaphysical presupposition that existence is relative. *Better Think Twice About It* (1931), a selection of his short stories in English translation.

14. **Savonarola, Girolamo** (1452-98). Poet and religious and political writer.

15. **Tasso, Torquato** (1544-95).—Famous poet. *Jerusalem Delivered* (1581), epic of a crusade; *Aminta* (1581) *Torrismondo* (1587).

(vii) RUSSIAN

1. **Andreyev, Leonid** (1871-1919).—A prolific novelist and dramatist. *A Grand Slam* (1899); *The Seven that were Hanged* (1908); *He Who gets Slapped* (1915); *Requiem* (1917).
2. **Artzybashev, Mikhail** (1879-1927).—Novelist and dramatist. *Sanine*; *War*; *The Millionaire*; *Tales of the Revolution*.
3. **Bunin, Ivan** (1870-).—Novelist. *Sukhodel*; *The Gentleman from San Francisco*; *The Village*.
4. **Chekhov, Anton** (1860-1904).—A great dramatist, novelist and short story writer, possessed of a remarkable gift of satirical humour. *Plays*: *Ivanov* (1887); *The Seagull* (1896); *The Cherry Orchard* (1904); *Novels*; *The Peasants* (1897); *My Life* (1895). *Stories*: *Particoloured Stories* (1896) and many others. An English translation of all his stories (in 13 vols.) exists. He has exercised a great influence on modern short story writers.
5. **Dostoyevsky, Feodor** (1821-81).—One of the greatest novelists of the world. *Crime and Punishment* (1866); his masterpiece, known all over the world; *The Idiot* (1866); *The Possessed* (1871); *The Brothers Karamanzov* (unfinished) (1880).
6. **Gogol, Nikolai** (1809-52).—Novelist. *Dead Souls* (1837), his masterpiece, a picaresque romance, satirizing the Provincial Russian society of the day; *The Inspector-General* (1836), a well-known play, satirizing Russian government officials.
7. **Gorki, Maxim** (ALEXEI MAXIMOVICH PYESHKOV) (1868-1936)—A well-known novelist and revolutionary. *Novels*: *The Lower Depths* (1903); *Mother* (1907), a very famous novel, translated into many languages. Realistic stories (1895-1900), dealing with thieves, tramps and other outcasts. *Autobiography* (in 3 parts): *My Childhood* (1915); *In the World* (1918); *Reminiscences of My Youth* (1924). *Reminiscences of Tolstoy* (1920).
8. **Krylov, Ivan** (1768-1844).—Fabulist, greatly honoured in his country. *Fables* (in 2 series) (1809-11).
9. **Lermontov, Mikhail** (1814-41).—Poet and novelist. His poems were translated into German, and various other languages, gaining for him a wide reputation after his death. *On the Death of a Poet* (1837); *The Demon* (1856).
10. **Lomonosov, Mikhail** (1710-65). Lyric poet; notable for having furnished by his writings the linguistic model followed by modern Russian literature *Ode on the Taking of Khotin* (1739).
11. **Pushkin, Alexander** (1799-1837).—Poet, dramatist, and writer of prose narratives. He was the first national poet of

Russia, a liberal and a disciple of Byron. *Eugene Onegin* (1831), a Byronic verse-romance of contemporary life; *Boris Godunov* (1825), a historical tragedy on the Shakespearian model; *The Fountain of the Bakhisarai* (1827); *Poltava* (1829); *The Queen of Spades* (1834); *The Golden Cockerel*.

12. **Sholokhov, Mikhail** (1905) — Novelist. *Virgin Soil Upturned* (1932); *And Quiet Flows the Don*; *The Don Flows Home to the Sea*.

13. **Tolstoi, Aleksei** (1882-1945).—Novelist and dramatist. *Peter the Great*.

14. **Tolstoi Leo** (1828-1910).—The most famous Russian writer, reformer and moral philosopher; influenced Mahatma Gandhi. “The union of a great moral conviction and realistic details, and an immense imaginative vision, combine to make him one of the great European writers”. Novels: *War and Peace* (1865-72), an epic tale of the Napoleonic invasion; *Anna Karenina* (1875-6). Plays: *The Power of Darkness* (1866). Other works: *What is Art?* (1898), a profound analysis of the nature of art. *What then must we do?* (1886), a study of economic conditions; *Confession* (1882), an autobiographical account of the great spiritual crisis of his life.

15. **Turgenev, Ivan** (1818-83).—One of the greatest novelists of Russia, possessing in a high degree humour and the power of presenting character and local colour. Novels: *A Nest of Gentlefolk* (1859); *Fathers and Sons* (1862), his masterpiece; *Smoke* (1867); *Virgin Soil* (1876).



(viii) GERMAN, DUTCH AND SCANDINAVIAN.

1. **Andersen, Hans Christian** (1805-75).—Danish writer of fairy tales—*Rambles* (1831); *Fairy Tales* (1835-37); *A Picture Book without Pictures* (1840); *A Poet's Bazaar* (1842); *To Be or Not to Be* (1857).

2. **Andersen - Nexo, Martin** (1869).—Danish novelist. *Days in the Sun* (1903); *Pelle the Conqueror* (1906-10).

3. **Baum, Vicki** (1888-).—German woman novelist who made her reputation with *Grand Hotel* (1926); ranks as one of the foremost writers of fiction. Novels: *Results of an Accident* (1927); *Martin's Summer* (1929); *Helene* (1930); *Berlin Hotel*; *The Weeping Wood*, being her most recent productions.

4. **Bjornson, Bjornstjerne** (1832-1910).—Norwegian novelist, dramatist and poet, a friend of Ibsen. Wrote stories of peasant life and plays dealing with Norwegian history. His experiments

Awarded the Nobel Prize for Literature in 1903. *The Fisher Girl* (1868) ; *The Editor* (1874) ; *The Bankrupt* (1875) ; *A Gauntlet* (1883).

5. **Bojer, Johan** (1872-).—Prolific and popular Norwegian novelist, whose works have been a good deal translated. *The Power of a Lie* (1903) ; *The Great Hunger* (1916) ; *God and the Woman* (1919).

6. **Brandes, Georg Morris Kohn** (1842-1927) — Danish critic and miscellaneous writer. *Main currents in Nineteenth Century Literature* (1877-98) ; *Shakespeare* (1895-96) ; *Ibsen* (1898).

7. **Chamisso, Adelbert Von** (1781-1838).—German poet and novelist. *Peter Schlemihl* (1813), which was widely translated and made him famous all over Europe.

8. **Couperus, Louis** (1863-1923).—Dutch novelist. *Ecstasy* (1892) ; *Old People* (1906) ; *The Comedians* (1917) ; *Book of Small Things*.

9. **Erasmus, Desiderius** (1465-1536).—Great Dutch humanist, scholar and satirist ; widely travelled in Europe ; enjoyed a continental reputation. *The Praise of Folly* (1512) ; a satire principally directed against theologians and Church dignitaries ; *Colloquies* (1531).

10. **Eschenbach, Wolfram Von** (1170-1220).—Medieval German poet, an outstanding figure in the poetry of his day. He is said to have been illiterate and to have needed to be read to and to dictate. *Parzival* (first printed in 1477), an epic poem.

11. **Fichte, Johann Gottlieb** (1762-1814).—Famous German philosopher, a pupil of Kant. His philosophy is a pure idealism. *The Science of Knowledge* (1794).

12. **Goethe, Johann Wolfgang Von** (1749-1832). The greatest German genius-poet, dramatist, novelist and scientist. *Faust* (Part I 1808, Part II 1832), a great dramatic poem ; *The Sorrows of Young Werther* (1774 and 1787), a romance in epistolary form based on two incidents in the author's life ; *Hermann and Dorothea* (1797), a poem founded on the expulsion of the Protestants by the archbishop of Salzburg in 1732 ; *Wilhelm Meister's Apprenticeship* (between 1786-1830), a romance of biographical interest ; also wrote beautiful lyrics, ballads and love songs.

13. **Grimm, Jakob** (1785-1863) and **Wilhelm** (1786-1859).—German writers of fairy tales.

14. **Grimmelshausen, Christoffel Von** (1624-76).—German satirist and romancer. *The Adventuresome Simplissimus* (1669).

15. **Grotius, Hugo** (1583-1645).—Dutch statesman and Jurist. *Laws of War and Peace* (1625), a great treatise on international law.

16. **Hamsun, Knut** (1859).—Distinguished Norwegian novelist and dramatist. Awarded the Nobel Prize for Literature in 1920. Novels : *Hunger* (1890) ; *Growth of the Soil* (1917) ; *August* (1930).

17. **Hauptmann, Gerhart** (1862).—Distinguished German dramatist. Awarded the Nobel Prize for Literature in 1912. *The Weavers* (1892) ; *The Sunken Bell* (1896). *The Island of the Great Mother* (1924).

18. **Hegel, Georg Wilhelm Friedrich** (1770-1831).—Distinguished German philosopher, an active opponent of the philosophy of Schelling. *Philosophy of Right* (1821).

19. **Heine, Heinrich** (1797-1856).—Famous German lyric poet. *Book of Songs* (1827).

20. **Herder, Johann Gottfried Von** (1744-1803).—Philosopher, poet and critic ; an ardent Hellenist and a student of German folk-lore and of the philosophy of history. *Ideas on the History of Mankind*.

21. **Heyse, Paul** (1830-1914).—German novelist and poet. Awarded the Nobel Prize for Literature in 1910. *L'Arrabiata* (1855).

22. **Hoffmann, Ernst Theodor Amadeus** (1776-1822).—Famous German romance writer and musical composer. *The Devil's Elixir* (1815) ; *The Serapion Brothers* (1819-21).

23. **Ibsen, Henrik** (1828-1906).—Distinguished Norwegian dramatist, regarded as the father of modern drama. Wrote satirical problem-plays, directed to social reforms. *A Doll's House* (1879) ; *Ghosts* (1881) ; *An Enemy of the People* (1882) ; *Hedda Gabler* (1890) ; *The Master Builder* (1892).

24. **Kant, Immanuel** (1724-1804).—Famous German philosopher. *The Critique of Pure Reason* (1787).

25. **Klopstock Friedrich Gottlieb** (1724-1823).—German poet, famous for his patriotic odes and his great religious epic *Messias* (*The Messiah*) inspired by Milton's *Paradise Lost*.

26. **Kotzebue, August Von** (1761-1819).—German dramatist. Wrote sentimental, melodramatic plays which had considerable vogue in their day and influenced the English stage.

27. **Lagerlof, Selma** (1858-1941).—Woman Swedish novelist. *Gosta Berling* (1891) ; *The General's Ring* (1925). Awarded the Nobel Prize for Literature in 1909.

28. **Lessing, Gotthold Ephraim** (1729-81).—Outstanding German dramatist and critic. *Minna Von Barnhelm* (1763), a serious comedy ; *Nathan the Wise* (1779), based on religious

tolerance. *Laokoon* (1766), a famous critical work. Macaulay called Lessing 'beyond all dispute the first critic in Europe.'

29. **Ludwig, Emil** (1881).—Eminent German biographer and dramatist. Before the First World War he wrote many historical plays and thereafter devoted himself mainly to biography. *Goethe* (1920); *Napoleon* (1925); *Bismarck* (1927); *Lincoln*—all epoch-making biographies written in the impressionistic manner.

30. **Maeterlinck, Maurice Count** (1862).—Belgian poet, dramatist and philosopher. His work is strongly tinged with mysticism. He has three times been awarded the Triennial Prize for Dramatic Literature in Belgium. Created Count, 1932. Received the Nobel Prize for Literature in 1911. *The Life of the Bee* (1901); *The Blue Bird* (1909); *Mary Magdalene* (1913); *The Magic of the Stars* (1929). *The Life of the Ant* (1930).

31. **Mann, Thomas** (1875).—Distinguished modern German novelist; awarded the Nobel Prize for Literature in 1929. *Buddenbrooks* (1901); *The Magic Mountain* (1924); *Mario and the Magician* (1930).

32. **Marx, Karl** (1818-83).—A celebrated political theorist. *The Communist Manifesto*; *Capital* (1867), the Bible of Communists.

33. **Mommsen, Theodor** (1817-1903).—Distinguished German historian. Awarded the Nobel Prize for Literature in 1902. *Roman History*.

34. **Nietzsche, Friedrich Wilhelm** (1844-1900).—A brilliant German philosopher, whose lack of balance developed into lunacy in 1889. *Beyond Good and Evil*.

35. **Remarque, Erich Maria** (1897-).—German woman novelist. *All Quiet on the Western Front*, a very famous novel of the post-World War I era.

36. **Richter, Jean Paul Friedrich** (1763-1825).—German romantic novelist, who wrote under the name 'Jean Paul'; praised by Carlyle for his gift of humour. *Quintus Fixlein* (1796).

37. **Schiller, Friedrich Von** (1759-1805).—Famous German dramatist and lyric poet. *Wallenstein* (1799), a long historical tragedy, his masterpiece; *Mary Stuart* (1801); *The Maid of Orleans* (1802); *William Tell* (1804). He also wrote several philosophical and historical works.

38. **Schlegel, August Wilhelm** (1767-1845).—German romantic poet and scholar, chiefly known in England for his translation into the German language of the plays of Shakespeare.

39. **Schlegel, Friedrich Von** (1772-1829), younger brother of the above Schlegel; notable for his studies of the history of

literature, and especially for his recognition of the importance of ancient Sanskrit poetry.

40. **Schnitzler, Arthur** (1862-1931).—Austrian prolific dramatist and novelist. *Anatol* (1892).

41. **Schopenhauer, Arthur** (1788-1860).—Famous German pessimistic philosopher. *The World as Will and Idea* (1819). Supposed to have influenced Thomas Hardy, the well-known English novelist.

42. **Spengler, Oswald** (1880-1936).—German philosopher. *The Decline in the West*, an analysis of the evils of modern civilization—a very famous book.

43. **Spinoza, Benedict De** (1632-77).—Famous Dutch philosopher of Portuguese-Jewish descent. “The principal source of his philosophy was the doctrine of Descartes, transformed by a mind steeped in the Jewish scriptures.” *Ethics* (1665), his principal work.

44. **Storm, Theodor** (1817-88).—German poet and novelist. His long series of novels became enormously popular. *Immensee* 1852. Various selections of Storm’s stories have been translated into English and other languages.

45. **Strassburg, Gottfried Von** (1180-1250).—Medieval German epic poet. *Tristan and Isolde* (written probably early in the 13th cen.)—an epic which has inspired several modern works.

46. **Suder Mann, Hermann** (1857-1928).—Well-known German novelist and dramatist. *Dame Care* (1887); *The Indian Lily* (1911); *The Mad Professor* (1926).

47. **tieck Ludwig** (1773-1853).—German novelist. *Puss in Boots*. Many collections of his stories have been published in English translation.

48. **Undset, Sigrid** (1882-).—Well-known modern Norwegian woman novelist. Awarded the Nobel Prize for Literature in 1928. *Kristin Lavransdatter* (1920-22), a remarkable trilogy of novels which brought her European reputation; *The Burning Bush* (1930).

49. **Wedekind, Franz** (1864-1918).—German dramatist. *The Awakening of Spring* (1891).

50. **Werfel, Franz** (1890-1945).—German novelist and dramatist. *The Forty Days of Musa Dagh*; *Goat Song*.

51. **Zweig, Arnold** (1887-).—German novelist; an enthusiastic socialist and Zionist. *The Case of Sergeant Grischa* (1928).

52. **Zweig, Stefan** (1881-1942).—German poet, novelist and biographer. *Romain Rolland* (1921), a biography; *Conflicts* (1926); *Marie Antoinette*.

(ix) Other Continental Writers.

1. **Alarcon, Pedro De** (1833-91).—Spanish novelist. *The Three-Cornered Hat* (1874).

2. **Baroja-Y-Nessi, Pio** (1872-).—Well-known Spanish novelist who established his reputation with novels of Basque life. *The Lord of Labraz* (1903); *The Tree of Knowledge* (1911); *The Struggle for Existence*.

3. **Benavente, Jacinto** (1866-).—Prolific Spanish dramatist; awarded the Nobel Prize for Literature in 1922. *The Bonds of Interest*; *The Passion Flower*; *Saturday Night*.

4. **Blasco Ibanez, Vicente** (1867-1928).—Well-known Spanish novelist, perhaps more popular in other countries than in his own. *The Mayflower* (1895); *The Four Horsemen of the Apocalypse* (1916).

5. **Cal Deron De La Barca** (1600-81).—Spanish dramatist; extremely popular; at high favour at the Court of King Philip IV, who conferred a knighthood on him. Joined the Franciscan order in 1650 and thereafter devoted his energies to the writing of religious plays.

6. **Camoens, Luis De** (1524-79).—Portuguese epic poet. *The Lusiad*, an epic dealing with the voyage of Gama in the 15th century; also a poetic eulogy of Portugal and its history.

7. **Capek, Karel** (1890-1938).—Czechoslovakian dramatist; came into prominence with his play *R.U.R.* ('Rossum's Universal Robots') (1923), which was at once translated into English and other languages.

8. **Cervantes, Miguel De** (1547-1616).—Spain's greatest novelist and dramatist. *Don Quixote* (Part I 1605, Part II 1615), his greatest work, a burlesque of the romances of chivalry. The book influenced English literature considerably, the plot of several 17th century English plays being traceable to it.

9. **Echegaray, Jose** (1833-1916).—Spanish dramatist. *Madman or Sanctity*; *The Great Galeoto* (1881); *The Son of Don Juan* (1892).

10. **Gongore Y Argote, Luis De** (1561-1627).—Spanish poet wrote poems, songs, and plays. His style was so individual and exercised so much influence on other writers that 'Gongorism' became a phrase.

11. **Pereda, Jose Maria De** (1833-1906).—Spanish novelist. *The Taste of the Earth*.

12. **Perez Galdos, Benito** (1845-1920).—Spanish novelist and dramatist. *Dona Perfecto* (1876); *Gloria* (1877). *Cassandra* (1905).

13. **Queve Do, Gomez De** (1580-1645).—Spanish satirist and novelist. *The Life and Adventures of Buscon* (1626).

14. **Sienkiewicz, Henryk** (1846-1916).—Polish novelist. In 1905 he received the Nobel Prize for Literature. *Quo Vadis* (1896), his most famous work, translated into many languages; *On the Field of Glory* (1907).

15. **Unamuno, Miguel De** (1864-1936).—Spanish poet, essayist and novelist. *The Tragic Sense of Life* (1913).

16. **Valera, Juan** (1824-1905).—Spanish novelist. *Pepita Jimnez* (1874).

17. **Vega, Lope De** (1562-1635).—Spanish dramatist. *Punishment without Revenge*; *A Certainty for Doubt*.

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(X) PERSIAN

1. **Abul Fazl** (1551-1602).—Celebrated court poet and councillor of Akbar. A great scholar. His famous works are *Akbarnamah* and *Ain-i-Akbari*, written in pure persian, free from Arabic words.

2. **Amir Khusro of Delhi** (1253-1325).—An outstanding poet of the time of Balban, one of the Slave Kings of India. Gained recognition from Persians who called him Tuti-i-Hind. A devout Sufi. *Panj Ganj*, his masterpiece, comprising five 'Masnavis,' which compare favourably with Rumi's *Masnavi*.

3. **Faizi** (Abul Faiz) (1547-1595).—Honoured by Akbar as Malikush Shaura (Poet laureate). A prolific writer, with a hundred works to his credit. *Nal Daman*, a Masnavi, his masterpiece.

4. **Firdausi** (Abdul Qasim Hasan) (920-1025).—One of the greatest Persian poets, famous for his epic *Shahnama* (974-999), a legendary history of Iran, written at the bidding of Mahmud Ghazni.

5. **Ghalib** (1796-1879).—An outstanding poet and prose writer. Born at Agra, lived mostly in Delhi. Wrote all kinds of poetry—'Ghazal,' 'Qasida,' 'Masnavi,' 'Qata' and 'Rubai.' *Kulliyat*—his collection of poems.

6. **Hafiz Shirazi** (died 1389).—One of the pillars of Persian poetry. Supposed to have met Timur. Enjoyed extensive reputation; known chiefly for his *Ghazaliyyat*, which are steeped in Sufism and esoteric love Composed in all about 693 poems of which 573 are Ghazals.

7. **Khaqani** (1106-1185).—Known for his *Habsiyyat* a celebrated 'Qasida.' His other works comprise a large Diwan and 'Masnavi.'

8. **Maulana Rumi** (1207-1273).—An esoteric and mystical poet. *Masnavi*, in six volumes (1261-1273)—a difficult book of poetry.

9. (**Sir**) **Mohammad Iqbal** (1870-1938).—The most famous modern Persian poet of India. *Piyam-i-Mashrik*; *Asrar-i-khudi*, *Ramuz-i-khuddi*; *Pas Cheh Bayad Kard*.

10. **Nazeeri Nishapuri** (died in 1612).—Migrated from Persia to India (1584); enjoyed the patronage of Akbar and Jehangir. Famous for Ghazals which are tinged with Sufistic notions and esoteric significance.

11. **Nizami Ganjwi** (1141-1203).—A great poet. *Khamsah* or (Quintet), being five 'Masnavies' written in different metres, a great and new achievement in Persian poetry.

12. **Nizamul Mulk Tusi** (1017-18-1092).—Poet and Prime minister of Persian kings. *Siyasat Namah*, a remarkable poetical treatise on the art of government and administration of justice.

13. **Qaani** (1807-1853).—The most melodious poet of Persia; enjoyed the patronage of three Persian Emperors. Mastered French in his later life. *Kulliyat*, contains 'Qasaid', 'Muqattaat', 'Ghazaliyyat' and 'Rubaiyat'.

14. **Saadi Shirazi** (1184-1291).—One of the greatest and most celebrated Persian poet. An eminent Sufi, a great moralist mystic, an accomplished scholar, a practical counsellor, a sincere friend and a jolly companion. *Bostan* (1257); *Gulistan* (1258), the most popular of Persian poems, translated into many languages. Saadi was also a master of Ghazal.

15. **Saib** (died 1670).—An eminent poet. His 'Ghazals' rank high in Persian literature. Came to India in 1629 and return to Isfahan after a number of years.

16. **Umar Khyyam** (Died 1123-24).—Belonged to Nishapur; no details of his life are available. World-famous for his *Rubaiyat* which have been translated into English by Edward Fitzgerald.

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3. THE INDIAN SCENE IN ENGLISH

India figures in the English language in two ways : in the works of Englishmen who wrote about India, her life and people and in the literary creations of Indians who chose the English language as their medium of expression. The former is known as Anglo-Indian literature, and the latter is best described by the term Indo-Anglian literature. Sir Edwin Arnold is the leading figure of the first, just as Rabindra Nath Tagore holds the field in the second.

(i) ANGLO-INDIAN LITERATURE

This literature is mostly the product of Englishmen, who lived in India as administrators, educationists or came into

contact with Indian life in the course of their travels in the country.

The earliest beginnings of this literary activity may be traced to the 17th century travel books, of which Sir Thomas Rowe's account of his visit to the Mughal Court is the most notable. The greater part of the 18th century was, in a literary sense, barren and uneventful, the only writings being histories of the occupation of India by the English. The last two decades of the century, especially the closing years of the career of Warren Hastings, saw the real birth of Anglo-Indian literature. The first English newspaper, Hickey's *Bengal Gazette*, was founded in 1780, and three years later, there came to India the great oriental scholar, Sir William Jones who made notable contributions to literature by his translations of the *Hitopadesa* and *Shakuntala*.

The early decades of the 19th century witnessed further advance in this kind of literature. Special mention must be made of James Tod's *Annals and Antiquities of Rajasthan* (1829-32), "a work richer in romance than most epics." Several other histories, historical sketches, memoirs and letters were published. Reference may be made to Eliza Fay's *Original Letters from Calcutta* (1817) and to Mary Martha Sherwood's *Little Henry and his Bearer* (1815), a novel inspired by the passing away of her son, Little Henry. *Hartley House* (1789), an anonymous novel, in the form of letters, also deserves to be mentioned for its vivid picture of life in the Calcutta of those days.

India continued to arrest the attention of English men of letters during the pre-Mutiny days. Works like Major David Lester Richardson's *Literary Leaves* (1836), *Literary Chit-Chat* (1848) and *Literary Recreations* (1852) occupy an honoured place in Anglo-Indian Literature. During this period many distinguished historians applied themselves to the study of the various phases of the history of this land. Grant Duff's *History of the Mahrattas* (1826), Elphinston's *History of India* (1841) have become classics of Indian history. Other memorable works in the field are Sir Henry Miers Elliot's *History of India as told by its own Historians* and Sir John Kaye's *History of the Sepoy War in India* (1864-75).

In the realm of fiction, William Browne Hockley produced in his *Pandurung Hari or Memoirs of a Hindu* (1826) a remarkable study of Maratha character. Hockley's masterpiece is *Tales of the Zenana or a Nawab's Leisure Hours* (1827). It is a sort of Anglo-Indian *Arabian Nights*, full of wit and liveliness. Other important novelists were Philip Meadows Taylor and Matthew Arnold's brother William Delafield Arnold. The former wrote *Tara* (1863), *Ralph Darnel* (1865) and *Seeta* (1873), while the latter administered in *Oakfield, or Fellowship in the*

East (1853) a stern rebuke to the Anglo-Indian for his dissipated life and arrogant neglect of Indian sentiments.

In the post-Mutiny period also Anglo-Indian literature continued to develop. Again a number of remarkable histories were written. Mention may, however, be made only of Sir William Hunter's *Annals of Rural Bengal* (1868) and the uncompleted *History of British India* (1899).

Among the novelists, John Lang wrote a number of novels, satirizing the failings of the Anglo-Indian community. Alexander Allardyce brought out the *City of Sunshine* (1877), while Sir George Chesney (1833-95), the author of the celebrated *Battle of Dorking* (1871), which had created a sensation in England, wrote a novel about India called *The Dilemma* (1876), a powerful Mutiny romance.

Turning to poetry, we come across the greatest celebrity in Anglo-Indian literature, Sir Edwin Arnold (1832-1904), who was for some time Principal, Government Deccan College, Poona. His greatest work is *The Light of Asia or the Great Renunciation* (1879), a long poem glorifying the life and teaching of Lord Buddha. He translated several Sanskrit poems, while his description of famous historical places in India, notably Agra and the Taj, figures in many an Indian anthology of English prose. Another name to be reckoned with is that of Sir Alfred Comyn Lyall (1835-1911), sometime lieutenant-governor of the North-West Provinces who published a volume of remarkable *verses Written in India* (1889), including the beautiful pieces 'The Land of Regrets,' 'Siva, or Mors Janua Vitae,' 'The Old Pindaree,' 'Retrospection,' and 'Theology in Extremis' (the imaginary soliloquy of an Englishman in the Mutiny who is offered his life if he will embrace Islam).

In the domain of miscellaneous prose, mention should be made of Iltudus Prichard's *The Chronicles of Budjepore* (1870-1880) and G. R. Aberigh—Mackay's *Twenty-one-days in India* (1878-9). Both books are bitter satires. Lighter and more pleasant ones include Philip Stewert Robinson's *In My Indian Garden* (1878) and Edward Hamilton Aitken's *Behind the Bungalow* (1889). Another remarkable writer is Sir George Otto Trevelyan whose *The Competition Wallah* (1864) relates the effects of the change from the old method of selecting officials to the new. Trevelyan's historic sketch, *Cawnpore*, (1865) is a masterpiece of narrative.

From the Closing Years of the 19th Century to the Present Day.

The stream of Anglo-Indian literature during this period runs in full swing. In particular, numerous works of fiction, both novels and stories, with India as the setting, the theme or the excuse, have been coming out in such quick succession that

it is impossible to mention all the writers or treat their works individually. Those who wish to study this interesting subject may consult Dr. Bhupal Singh's commendable *Survey of Anglo-Indian Fiction* (1934).

The most outstanding writer in the modern times was Rudyard Kipling (1865-1936). Born in Bombay, he was engaged in journalistic work in India from 1882 to 1889, and wrote many short stories dealing with India, the sea, the jungle, and its beasts, the army, the navy etc. His novel *Kim* (1901) presents a vivid picture of India, its teeming population, religions and superstitions, and the life of the bazaars and the road.

Kipling, however, neither understood nor rightly interpreted Indian Life. His outlook was vitiated by imperialistic prejudices and he confined himself generally to the aristocracy, the Army and the Government. He was unsympathetic even hostile to Indian national aspirations. "Kipling is not an inspired interpreter of India; but he is unmatched as a brilliant delineator of the Indian scene."

Mrs. Flora Annie Steel (1847-1929) has a more sympathetic and intimate approach towards India, though her novels, as works of art, compare unfavourably with Kipling's. *The Potter's Thumb* (1894), *On the Face of the Waters* (1896) are her best-known works and possess considerable merit.

Only a passing reference can be made to the other writers of fiction such as Mrs. Alice Perinn (1867-1934) who wrote *East of Suez* (1901), *The Anglo-Indian* (1912), *Red Records* (1928), Mrs. Maud Diver, the authoress of Desmond series, especially *Captain Desmond V. C.* (1907), Mrs. George Henry Bell (John Travers) with her *Sahib-log* (1910) and *Hot Water* (1929). This brings us to a very important work, E. M. Forster's *A Passage to India* (1924), which took the English reading world by storm, on account of its exposure of the arrogance and race prejudices of the British bureaucracy in India and the sympathetic treatment of Indians. The novel has become a classic of Anglo-Indian literature. The only other great name to be included in this survey is that of Edward Thompson (1886—), poet and the well-known interpreter of Tagore. In his novels *An Indian Day* (1927), *Night Falls on Siva's Hills* (1929), *A Farewell to India* (1930), he interprets Indian political life with keen insight and sympathy.

The bulk of miscellaneous prose during the modern period is considerable. The outstanding writers are the two brothers, Sir George John Younghusband (1859), author of the *Story of the Guides* (1908) and Sir Francis Edward Young-Husband (1863), whose books about Kashmir and Tibet—*The Gleam*, *The Wonders of the Himalayas*, *But in Our Times* and the *Epic of Everest*—are well-known. The works of Sister Nivedita (Margaret E. Noble)—*Foolfalls of Indian History*, *The Web of*

Indian Life, and *Cradle Tales of Hinduism*—stand in a class of their own. Among travel books, one can recall F. Yeats—Brown's *Bengal Lancers* and *Lancer at Large*, while A Huxley's *Jesting Pilate* (1926) is a brilliant, highly interesting and thought-provoking account of his tour of Northern India. As a work of art it remains unexcelled in the whole range of travel books about India. This brings the story of Anglo-Indian literature to a fitting close, unless one desires to talk about slanderous books like Miss Mayo's *Mother India* and Beverly Nichols's *Verdict on India*.

(ii) INDO-ANGLIAN LITERATURE

Indians have now been using the English tongue for over a century and in spite of obvious handicaps they have produced a body of creative work which will ever occupy an honoured place in the annals of English literature. Their contribution to poetry autobiography, in particular, has been of a very high order, though their achievements in the realm of fiction, biography and miscellaneous prose has also earned considerable recognition. Quite a number of Indians, Rabindra Nath Tagore, Sarojini Naidu, Sir Radha Krishnan, Pt. Jawahar Lal Nehru, Mulk Raj Anand—to mention only a few most outstanding personalities,—have acquired a command over the English language which has won unstinted admiration from distinguished connoisseurs in India and abroad.

Below is a brief account, in chronological order, of this laudable literary achievement of our countrymen.

(a) Poetry

Bengal led the way for the creation of Indo-Anglian literature. Raja Ram Mohan Roy was the first Indian whose mastery of English astonished Bentham. He, however, chose to devote himself to social and religious reform. It is the talented Dutt family that enjoys the honour of creating the earliest and some of the finest Indo-Anglian poetry. Michael Madhu Sadan Dutt's verse collection *Visions of the Past* is a greater achievement than his *The Captive Ladie* (1849), a romance of Prithvi Raj, King of Delhi. Ramesh Chandra Dutt's *Lays of Ancient India* (1894) are such highly successful English renderings of the *Ramayana* and the *Mahabharata*, that they have been published in Dent's Everyman's Library.

Torulata Dutt (1856-77).—A gifted poetess. Her premature death at twenty-one was a great blow to Indo-Anglian poetry. The daughter of Govindra Chandra Dutt, who himself wrote some delightful English verse, she spent a large part of her short life in England and acquired a wonderful mastery of the spirit and idiom of the English language. She and her only less

talented sister, Aru Dutt contributed some remarkable poems to the *Dutt Family Album* (1876). In the same year appeared her *A Sheaf Gleaned in French Fields*, consisting of excellent verse translations from the original French. The book was praised by Sir Edmund Gosse as "an important landmark in the history of the progress of culture." *Ancient Ballads and Legends of Hindustan* (published posthumously in 1882) is her best work, comprising original poems on Indian themes, the most notable of them being 'Lakshman', 'Savitri' 'Jogadhya Uma' and 'Dhruv'. Their charm and poetical appeal are ever fresh and abiding and their creator, in the words of Mr. H. A. L. Fisher, is likely to remain for ever "in the great fellowship of English poets."

Manmohan Ghose (1867-1924).—A very remarkable poet. Educated at Oxford, he was the contemporary and friend of Laurence Binyon, Arthur Cripps, and Stephen Philips, in collaboration with whom he published a collection of poems called *Primavera* (1890). His most original and successful poetry is found in *Love Song and Elegies* and *Songs of Love and Death*, which a reader, in the words of George Sampson, "would readily take as the work of an English poet trained in the classical tradition."

Aurobindo Ghose (1872-1951).—Manmohan's brother, an exponent of Indian nationalism, a philosopher and mystic; lived in his Ashram at Pondicherry. *Ahana and Other Poems*; *Songs to Myrtilla*,—his early work. In his later work, he has attained maturity and shown a remarkable fusion of English idiom with Hindu traditions and aspirations. *The Hero and the Nymph* is an excellent English rendering of Kalidasa's *Vikramovasium*; *Perseus the Deliverer*, a blank-verse play in five acts. *Urvashi, Baji Prabhu and Love and Death*—narrative poems, breathless in action and full of vivid characterisation, also highly remarkable for mastery of blank verse. *Six Poems of Sri Aurobindo*, his recent work embodying his spiritual experiences in a medium that is a happy blending of free verse and traditional metrical patterns.

Rabindra Nath Tagore (1861-1941).—Poet, philosopher and thinker; the greatest genius in Indo-Anglian literature. He wrote most of his poetry in Bengali but translated it into English. *Gitanjali* (1912); *The Crescent Moon* (1913); *Fruit Gathering* (1916); *The Gardiner* and others. The poetical creations took the literary world by storm. "The simple loveliness of his prose poems," writes K. R. Srinivasa Iyengar, "compound of day-dream and aspiration, fancy and prayerful ecstasy, naivete and profundity became an irresistible thing in the world of letters." His longer poems *The Child* and *Urvashi*, though, not very widely known, are first rate works of art. *Urvashi* in Mr. Gupta's exquisite English version is one of Rabindranath's greatest achievements. *Thoughts from Rabindra*

Nath Tagore by Mr. C. F. Andrews is an excellent anthology of the poet's writings.

Sarojini Naidu (1879-1949).—Stands in the front rank of Indian poets. If Tagore is remarkable for lofty grandeur the appeal of Sarojini's poetry lies in its rapturous loveliness, and the bird-like quality of song, piercing and melodious. She is less of a philosopher and more a devotee and singer of love. In her later poetical career, the patriot in her, however, overshadowed the lyric poet. Except in her earliest poems, she sings of typically Indian themes. *The Golden Threshold* (1905); *The Bird of Time* (1912); *The Broken Wing* (1917),—all the three collections were published in one volume, *The Sceptred Lute or Songs of India* in 1943 by Kitabistan, Allahabad. Some of her best individual poems are "Solitude", "The Gift of India," "The Illusion of Love", "Love Omnipotent", "Love Transcendent", "Wandering Singers", "The Palanquin-Bearers", "Bangle-sellers" and "The Indian Gipsy".

MINOR POETS

Most of these draw their inspiration from Tagore or Sarojini and their work is imitative and derivative. Mention is made below of only those who have some spark of genius and originality.

1. **V. N. Bhushan**: Associated with Wadia College Poona; a prolific writer of verse which is highly appealing, though slightly marred by his weakness for compound epithets, unusual phrases and alliterative devices. *Enchantment*; *Flute Tunes*; *Footfalls*; *Horizons*; *Moonbeams*; *Silhouettes*, *Starfires*.

2. **Harindranath Chattopadhyaya** (1898).—Brother of Sarojini; poet and playwright; at his best, he is the equal of his sister. *The Feast of Youth*; *The Perfume of Earth*; *Grey Clouds and White Showers*; *Ancient Wings*.

3. **G. K. Chettur**: Late Principal of the Government College, Mangalore; influenced by Oxford. *Triumph of Love*—a sequence of twenty-three sonnets, dedicated to the eternal and spiritual aspects of Love. *The Temple Tank*; *The Shadow of God*, his most mature work.

4. **Joseph, Furtado**: A Goan, occupies a very high place among Indo-Anglian poets of Nature and Man. His most representative poems are "The Brahmin Girls", "The Flight", "The Maiden's Prayer."

5. **Humayun Kabir** (Bengali Muslim, at present one of the Secretaries in the Education Ministry) Government of India, a product of Oxford. *Padma*; *Jahan Ara*, long poems of considerable merit. *Mahatma and other Poems*, his recent work.

6. **Armando Menezes** : A Goan ; Professor of English at the Karnatak College, Dharwar ; a great poet, who eschews the shock tactics of 'modernist' poets. *The Fund*—a highly successful mock-epic. *The Emigrant*, an attempt to analyse the hollowness of mere intellectualism. *Chords and Discords*, his best work.

7. **P. Seshadri** : Late Principal, Government College, Ajmer. *Bilhana*, a free rendering in vigorous English verse of a Sanskrit tale of love and romance ; *Champak Leaves* ; *Vanishing Hours*, both sonnet sequences.

8. **N. V. Thadani** : Principal, [Hindu College, Delhi for a long time. *Krishna's Flute* ; *Triumph of Delhi*.

9. **K. S. Vekataramani** : Known as the Tagore of South India. *On the Sand-Dunes*, a poem inspired by the frustrations and complications of modern town life.

(b) Fiction.

With a few exceptions, achievement in this sphere has been rather scanty.

1. **Toru Dutt** : *Bianca or the Young Spanish Maiden* (About 1874).

2. **Romesh Chandra Dutt** : *The Lake of Palms*, the earliest important exhibit of Indo-Anglian fiction, originally written in Bengali, but can be read with pleasure in its English translation. It is a convincing picture of Indian domestic life in a Bengali village, after which the novel is named.

3. **A. Madhaviah** : *Thillai Govindan*, a novel with a typically South Indian setting.

4. **B. R. Rajam Aiyar** : Famous Tamil novelist: *Vasudeva Shastri or True Greatness*, an irresistible story, full of thought, vivacity and fun.

5. **Rabindra Nath Tagore** : Creator of great novels, originally written in Bengali but rendered into English by the poet himself. *Gora*, *The Wreck*; *The Home and the World*. Gora is a very living Character. *Short stories* : *Hungry Stones and Other Stories* : *Mashi and Other Stories*, including such well-known and popular tales as "Home Coming", "Minnie", "The Cabuliwallah", "The Babus of Nayanjore". They have been rightly called prose lyrics in fiction ; also remarkable for fine portraits of women. In Mr. Ernest Rhys's words, "He is one of the very few tale-tellers who can interpret women by intuitive art."

6. **K. S. Venkatara Mani** : A poet turned novelist. *Paper Boats*, a picture of South Indian life ; *Kandan the Patriot*, his masterpiece ; *Murugan the Tiller*, dealing with the frustration of Indian intellectuals ; *Jaihadharam and Other Stories*. All

his work depicts the evils of town life and the necessity of rehabilitating the village and being faithful to the land. Nevertheless he is a social and political philosopher with the instinct of the true artist.

7. **Shankar Ram** (pseudonym of T. L. Natesan) : *The Love of Dust*, a novel. *The Children of the Kaveri*; *Creatures All*—both collections of stories. His theme is the Indian peasant, the unsophisticated India. A great artist, capable of convincing characterization, fine plot-construction, vigorous, simple dialogue, and artistic restraint.

8. **Mulkraj Anand** (1905).—A gifted Punjabi novelist, sometime lecturer in literature and philosophy to the London Country Council adult education schools. Editor *MARG Magazine*. Works : *Untouchable* (1935); *The Lost Child and Other Stories*; *Coolie* (1936) (also published in the Penguin series), a very famous novel; *Two Leaves and a Bud* (1937); *The Village* (1936), a fine picture of Sikh life in the Punjab; *Across the Black Waters* (1940); *The Sword and the Sickle* (1942); *The Big Heart* (1945); *The Tractor and the Corn Goddess* (1947). (Most of his novels are being reprinted in a uniform set by Messrs. Hutchinson International Authors Ltd.) Has also written several volumes of essays and belles lettres and two children's books, viz. *Indian Fairy Tales* (1947); and *A Child's History of India* (1948). Anand writes about the social under-dog but his socialistic thesis does not mar his art. His stories are well-told and characters sharply individualized. Above all, his prose is illuminated with a poet's sensibility and picturesqueness.

9. **R. K. Narayan** : An artist and engaging story-teller. *Swami and His Friends*, depicts the world of school boys. *The Bachelor of Arts*, a mature work of considerable merit. *Mr. Sampath* (June, 1950), his most recent work.

MINOR NOVELISTS.

1. **Ahamed Ali** : *Twilight in Delhi*.
2. **D. M. Borgaonkar** : *The Image Breakers*.
3. **Sita Chatterjee** : *The Cage of Gold*.
4. **G. K. Chettur** : *The Ghost City and Other Stories*.
5. **S. K. Chettur** : *Bombay Murder*; *The Cobras of Dharmashevi*.
6. **J. Chinnadurai** : *Sugirtha*.
7. **Manjeri Isvaran** : *Naked Shingles and Other Stories*.
8. **D. F. Karaka** : *Just Flesh*.
9. **Dhan Gopal Mukerji** : *The Chief of the Herd*; *Kuri the Elephant*; *My Brother's Face*; *Rama, the Hero of India*,
10. **Sir Firoz Khan Noon** : *Scented Dust*.

11. **T. Ramakrishna** : *The Dive for Death ; Padmini.*
12. **Sir Jogendra Singh** : *Kamala ; Kamini : Nur Jehan.*
13. **Cornelia Sorabji** : *Between the Twilights ; Sunbabies.*
14. **Innocent Sousa** : *Radha ; A Hindu Belle.*
15. **Ramabhai Trikannad** : *Victory of Faith and Other Stories.*

(c) Drama

No remarkable achievement, except Tagore's fine poetic plays—*Chitra*, *The King of the Dark Chamber*, *The Post Office*. They are dream-plays in the manner of Hauptmann, Maeterlinck and Strindberg. Bushan's playlets, *Anklet Bells*, *Sumyukta*, *Eur Rings* and *Mortal Coils* are interesting pieces but of uneven artistic value.

(d) Biography

Although there are no outstanding achievements in biography, the following is a list of the important Indo-Anglian biographers and their works.

1. **K. Chandrasekharan** : *Persons and Personalities.*
2. **Iswara Dutt** : *Sparks and Spumes.*
3. **K. R. S. Iyengar** : *The Scholar ; The Mahratta.*
4. **Pandit H. Kunzru** : *Life of G. K. Deodhar.*
5. **R. P. Masani** : *Dadabhai Nuoroji.*
6. **Sardar K. M. Panikkar** : *Life of Gulab Singh ; The Late Maharaja of Bikaner.*
7. **Khasa Subba Rao** : *Men in the Limelight.*
8. **P. C. Ray** : *Life of C. R. Das.*
9. **V. S. Srinivasa Sastri** : *Life of Gokhale.*
10. **Kartar Singh** : *Life of Guru Govind Singh.*
11. **P. A. Wadia** : *Mahatma Gandhi*, a best-seller.

(e) Autobiography

Several outstanding achievements in this sphere.

1. **Surendra Nath Bannerjee** : *A Nation in the Making*, one of the earliest remarkable autobiographical works in Indo-Anglian literature.
2. **M. K. Gandhi** : *My Experiments with Truth* (1927)—One of the most truthful and sincere autobiographies of the world, originally written in Gujarati, translated into flawless, lucid simple English by Mahadev Desai.
3. **Jawahar Lal** : *Autobiography* (1936), a best-seller in England and India, a remarkable self-portraiture and analysis of

the Indian political scene since the first decade of the present century.

4. **Subhas Bose** : *An Indian Pilgrim* (in two volumes) as great a book as Nehru's *Autobiography*.
5. **Krishna Huthee Sing** : *With No Regrets*.
6. **D. F. Karaka** : *I Go West*.
7. **K. M. Munshi** : *I Follow the Mahatma*.

(b) Miscellaneous Prose

1. **Bhagwan Das** : *The Essential Unity of All Religions ; Hindu Ethics*.
2. **Aurobindo Ghose** : *Essay on the Gita ; The Life Divine*.
3. **D. F. Karaka** : *Chungking Diary ; Out of Dust*.
4. **Mineo Masani** : *Our India*.
5. **R. P. Masani** : *The Religion of the Good Life*.
6. **S. Radha Krishnan** : *Kalki ; The Hindu View of Life ; An Idealist View of Life*.
7. **Rabindra Nath Tagore** : *The Religion of Man ; Sadhana*.
8. **Sophia Wadia** : *The Brotherhood of Religions ; Preparation for Citizenship*.

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5. POETS LAUREATE

In the Middle Ages there arose the custom of crowning with laurel a student who was admitted to an academic degree, such as the bachelor of arts. Later "the phrase *poet laureate* was used as a special degree conferred by a university as a recognition of skill in Latin grammar and versification. There also existed in the late Middle Ages the custom of bestowing a crown of laurel on a poet for distinctive work, Petrarch being so honoured in 1341."

The present English official laureateship was established in the 17th century. We give below the list of Poets Laureate :

Ben Jonson	...	1617	Thomas Warton	...	1785
Sir William Davenant	...	1638	Henry Pye	...	1790
John Dryden	...	1670	Robert Southey	...	1813
Thomas Shadwell	...	1689	William Wordsworth	...	1843
Nahum Tate	...	1692	Alfred, Lord Tennyson	...	1850
Nicholas Rowe	...	1715	Alfred Austin	...	1896
Laurence Eusden	...	1718	Robert Bridges	...	1913
Colley Cibber	...	1730	John Masefield	...	1930
William Whitehead	...	1757			

SOCIETIES, BOOK CLUBS, PRIZES.

1. The American Academy of Arts and letters.
 2. National Institute of Arts and Letters, U.S.A.
 3. The Book of the Month Club (American Book Club).
 4. The Literary Guild (,, „ „).
 5. The Book Society (British „ „).
 6. The Pulitzer Prize, U. S.A.
 7. The Renaudot Prize, France.
 8. The Stalin Prize, U S.S.R.
 9. The Maugham Prize for Short Stories, U.K.
 10. The Nobel Prize for Literature.
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6. FAMOUS PEN-NAMES.

1. **A. E.** : George William Russell.
2. **Aimie, George** : Gilbert Murray.
3. **Annunzio** : Gabriel D' Annunzio (Italian).
4. **Arion** : G. K. Chesterton.
5. **Bab** : Sir William Schwenk Gilbert.
6. **Bell Acton** : Anne Bronte.
7. **Bell Currer** : Charlotte Bronte.
8. **Bell, Ellis** : Emile Bronte.
9. **Biglow, Hosea** : James Russell Lowell (American).
10. **Billings Josh** : Henry Wheeler Shaw (American).
11. **Boz** : Charles Dickens.
12. **Bridie, James** : O. H. Mavor.
13. **Brown, Tom** : Thomas Hughes.
14. **Carroll, Lewis** : Rev. C. Lutwidge Dodgson.
15. **Cleishbotham, Jedediah** : Sir Walter Scott.
16. **Conrad, Joseph** : Joseph C. Korzeniowski (Polc by birth but naturalized Briton).
17. **Crayon, Geoffrey** : Washington Irving (American).
18. **Crowfield, Christopher** : Mrs. Harriet Beecher— Stowe.
19. **Dane, Clemence** : Miss Winifred Ashion.
20. **Eagle, Solomon** : Sir J. C. Squire.
21. **Elia** : Charles Lamb.
22. **Eliot, George** : Mary Ann or Marian Evans.
23. **Ettrick, Shepherd** : James Hogg.
24. "Evoe" : E. V. Knox.

25. **France, Anatole**: Jacques Anatole Thibault (French).
26. **Froissart, Jean**: Alphonse Daudet (French).
27. **Gorky, Maxim**: Alexei Maximovich Pyeshkov (Russian).
28. **Hope, Anthony**: Sir Anthony Hope Hawkins.
29. **Iconoclast**: Charles Bradlaugh, M. P.
30. "Jack": John Griffith London.
31. **Knickerbocker, Diedrich**: Washington Irving.
32. **Lee, Vernon**: Violet Paget.
33. **Lenin, Nikolai**: Vladimir Ulianov.
34. **Longway, Hugo A**: Andrew Long.
35. **Loti, Pierre**: Louis M. J. Viaud. (French).
36. **Mannin, Ethel**: Mrs. J. A. Proteous.
37. **Mansfield, Katherine**: K. Beauchamp (Mrs. Middleton —Murry).
38. **Meredith, Owen**: Bulwer Lytton.
39. "Monk" Lewis: Matthew Gregory Lewis.
40. **North, Christopher**: John Wilson.
41. **O. Henry**: William Sydney Porter.
42. **Ouida**: Louise de la Ramee (English authoress, born of a French mother).
43. **Paul, Jean**: Jean Paul F. Richter (French).
44. **Pendennys, Arthur**: William Makepeace Thackeray.
45. **Prevost, Abbe**: Antoine Francois Prevost D' Exiles.
46. Q: Sir Arthur Quiller-Couch.
47. **Rowley, Thomas**: Thomas Chatterton.
48. **Rutherford, Mark**: William Hale White.
49. "Saki": H. H. Munro.
50. **Sand, George**: Madame Dudevant (French).
51. **Scriblerus, Martinus**: Swift; Pope and Arbuthnot.
52. **Stern, G. B.**: Mrs. Holdsworth.
53. **Stendhal**: Henri Marie Beyle (French).
54. **Teufelsdrockh, Herr**: Thomas Carlyle.
55. **Thompson, Alice**: Mrs. Wilfred Meynell.
56. T. P.: T. P. O'Connor.
57. **Tawain, Mark**: Samuel Langhorne Clemens (American).
58. **Voltaire**: Francois Marie Arouet (French).
59. W. A.: William Archer.
60. **Ward, Artemus**: Charles F. Browne (American).
61. **West Rebecca**: Cecily Fairfield.

7. WORLD'S FAMOUS BOOKS

(From the earliest times to 1920 A. D.)

N. B. The writers of the books are Englishmen, unless otherwise indicated.

(a) POETRY

1. **Absalom and Achitophel** (Pt. I 1681; Pt. II by Dryden and Nahum Tate 1682): a satirical poem in heroic couplets by John Dryden directed against the Whigs.
2. **Adonais** (1821), an elegy on the death of John Keats written by Shelley.
3. **Aeneid**, the famous epic by the Roman poet Virgil (70 B. C.-19 B. C.); left incomplete; relates to the wanderings of the Trojan hero, Aeneas.
4. **Alexander's Feast** (1697), an ode by John Dryden; written for a musical society. He thought it the best of all his poetry.
5. **Allegro, L'**, a poem by Milton written in 1632. The Italian title means 'The cheerful man', and this idyll is an invocation to the goddess Mirth to allow the poet to live with her and enjoy the delights of rustic scenes and 'towered cities'.
6. **Amoretti**, a series of 88 sonnets by Spenser, which have been thought to illustrate the course of his wooing of Elizabeth Boyle, the lady whom he married.
7. **Ancient Mariner, the**, a famous poem by S.T. Coleridge (1798,) notable for its moral and supernatural significance.
8. **Andrea Del Sarto** (1855), a dramatic monologue by Robert Browning. The title means 'The Faultless Painter'.
9. **Astrophel**, a pastoral elegy by Spenser in 1586 on the death of Sir Philip Sidney.
10. **Astrophel and Stella**, a series of sonnets in which Sir P. Sidney expressed his love for Penelope Devereux who was married against her will to Lord Rich in 1580.
11. **Belle Dame Sans Merci, La** (1819), a very famous and popular short ballad by John Keats.
12. **Beowulf**, an old English epic poem of unknown author written probably about 650 A.D.
13. **Bhagawad Gita**, the most sacred book of the Hindus, containing the essence of Vedanta philosophy, in a verse dialogue in Sanskrit between Lord Krishna and Arjuna on the eve of the epic contest between the Pandavas and Kauravas.
14. **Blessed Damozel** (1850); revised versions in 1856 and 1870 : a mystical, symbolic love poem by D. G. Rossetti.

15. **Book of Nonsense** (1846) by Edward Lear, a popular nursery classic, containing numerous rhymes cherished both by children and adults ; a medley of buoyant fun and humour.

16. **Canterbury Tales, the** (1386-1400), Chaucer's greatest work, a collection of 24 stories, all but two of which are in verse. The stories are supposed to be related by a company of 31 pilgrims (including the poet himself) on their way to the shrine of St. Thomas at Canterbury. The Prologue is especially interesting for the vivid picture it presents of contemporary social life.

17. **Chansons De Geste**, French historical verse romances, mostly connected with Charlemagne, composed in the 11th-13th cents., of which the *Chanson de Roland* is the oldest and best-known.

18. **Childe Harold's Pilgrimage** (1812 ; 1816 ; 1818), Lord Byron's masterpiece, a long narrative poem, in Spenserian Stanzas, describing the travels and reflections of a pilgrim (who stands for Byron himself) who, sated and disgusted with a life of pleasure and revelry, seeks distraction in foreign lands, Portugal, Spain, Italy etc.

19. **Christabel** (1816), by S.T. Coleridge. The poem, apart from introducing a new metre, is important as one of the most beautiful in English poetry. (It is incomplete.)

20. **Coming of Arthur, The** (1869), the first of Tennyson's *Idylls of the King*.

21. **Deserted Village, The** (1770), a poem by Goldsmith on the superiority of agriculture to trade.

22. **Divine Comedy, The**, by Dante (Italian), written between 1302 and 1321. "It is at once a vision of the other world, an allegory of the Christian life, a spiritual autobiography, and a cyclopaedic embodiment of all the knowledge of its day."

23. **Don Juan** (1819-24), an epic satire in ottava rima, in sixteen cantos by Lord Byron.

24. **Dover Beach**, a famous elegiac lyric by M. Arnold, lamenting the decay of faith and happiness in Victorian England.

25. **Dunciad, The** (1728), a satirical poem by A. Pope, directed against Dulness in general, but in the course of it all the authors who earned Pope's condemnation are held up to ridicule. The mock-heroic poem may be called the Iliad of the Dances.

26. **Dynasts, The** (1904-8) by Thomas Hardy, a great epic-drama of the War with Napoleon—the author's greatest achievement in poetry.

27. **Earthly Paradise, The** (1868-79), a beautiful series of romantic tales by William Morris.

28. **Elegy Written in a Country Church Yard** (1750), a melancholy lyric by Gray dealing with the 'annals of the poor'; one of the most well-known and popular poem in English.

29. **Endymion** (1818), an allegorical romance by Keats embodying the poet's pursuit of ideal perfection; an immature work. 'Endymion' is also the name of a novel by Disraeli (1880).

30. **Enoch Arden** (1864), a popular love poem by Tennyson.

31. **Epipsychedion** (1821), Shelley's famous poem in defence of free love, not only Platonic but passionate.

32. **Epithalamion**, a splendid hymn by Spenser, perhaps in celebration of his marriage with Elizabeth Boyle in 1594. The Greek title means 'upon the bride chamber'.

33. **Eve of St. Agnes** (1819), Keats's greatest narrative poem about the love and flight of Madeline and Porphyro.

34. **Excursion, The** (1814), a narrative and reflective poem (nine books) in blank verse by W. Wordsworth.

35. **Everlasting Mercy, The** (1911), John Masefield's most famous long narrative poem.

36. **Faerie Queene, The** (1590), an uncompleted famous romance (in six books, though the original plan consisted of twelve) by Edmund Spenser. The poem is allegory, founded on the manners and customs of chivalry, with the aim of portraying a perfect knight, in the person of Prince Arthur who goes in search of the Fairie Queene, standing for Glory of the abstract and for Queen Elizabeth in particular.

37. **Faust** (written between 1770 and 1832), a world famous dramatic poem in two parts by Goethe (German) on the mediæval legend of a man who sold his soul to the Devil.

38. **Fra Lippo Lippi** (1855), a dramatic poem by R. Browning about the experience of the painter—Fra Lippo Lippi.

39. **Hind and the Panther, The** (1687), a controversial religious poem in heroic couplets by J. Dryden.

40. **Hound of Heaven, the** (1893), a famous mystical poem by Francis Thompson, describing the poet's flight from God, the pursuit, and the overtaking.

41. **How They Brought the Good News from Ghent to Aix** (1824-5), a very popular poem by R. Browning

42. **Hudibras** (in three parts 1663, 1664, 1678), a mock-heroic poem by S. Butler (1612-80), ridiculing the hypocrisy and self-seeking of the Presbyterians and Independents.

43. **Hymn to Intellectual Beauty** (1816), a famous lyric by Shelley.

44. **Hyperion** (1818-19), an uncompleted poem, in two versions, J. Keats. (Also the name of a prose romance by Longfellow).

45. **Idylls of the King** (completed 1885), a series of 12 narrative episodes in the epic manner by Tennyson, the whole forming a unified epic of King Arthur.

46. **Il Penseroso** (1632), a short idyll by Milton, describing the pleasure of the studious, meditative life.

47. **Iliad**, the famous Greek epic poem attributed to Homer, describing the war waged by the Greeks against Troy for the purpose of recovering Helen, wife of Menelaus, whom Paris, King of Troy, had carried away. Its hero is Achilles.

48. **In Memorium** (1850), an elegiac and reflective poem by Tennyson, inspired by the death of his friend Arthur Henry Hallam—Tennyson's masterpiece.

49. **Isabella or The Pot of Basil** (1820), a romantic narrative poem of love by Keats.

50. **Jason, the Life and Death of** (1867), a long narrative poem by W. Morris, about Jason and Medea, the Argonauts and golden Fleece.

51. **Jerusalem Delivered** (1581) by Tasso (Italian)—the epic of crusade, with the addition of romantic and fabulous elements.

52. **John Gilpin** (1785), a delightful humorous ballad by William Cowper.

53. **Jolly Beggars, The** (1709), a famous poem by Robert Burns. It is a masterly picture of the out-casts of society, of a company of vagrants who meet, carouse and sing in a hedge ale-house.

54. **Kubla Khan** (1816), a fragment of a great romantic poem by Coleridge.

55. **Lady of Shalott, The** (1852), by Tennyson, relating the tragic passion of the Lady of Shalott for Lancelot.

56. **Lady of the Lake** (1810), a long narrative poem by Scott.

57. **Lake Isle of Innisfree, The**, a very beautiful and famous lyric by W. B. Yeats.

58. **Lalla Rookh** (1817), a series of oriental tales in verse, connected together by a story in prose, by T. Moore.

59. **Lamia** (1819), a long narrative poem by Keats, about the Seduction of a Greek youth Lycius by Lamia, a witch.

60. **Last Ride Together, The** (1855), a famous love lyric by R. Browning.

61. **Lay of the Last Minstrel, The** (1805), the first long narrative poem by Scott.

62. **Leaves of Grass** (1855), a collection of poems in free rhythm by Walt Whitman (American).

63. **Light of Asia or the Great Renunciation** (1879) by Sir E. Arnold, dealing with the life and teaching of Lord Buddha.

64. **Lines Composed a Few Miles Above Tintern Abbey** a famous reflective poem by Wordsworth expounding his attitude towards Nature.

65. **Lotos Eaters, The** (1833), one of Tennyson's best known poems, in Spenserian stanzas, founded on the Homeric story, followed by the celebrated choic ode of the sailors.

66. "**Lucy**" Poems, a collection of well-known poems by Wordsworth.

67. **Lycidas** (1637), a pastoral elegy by Milton, on the death of Edward King, a fellow of Christ's College, Cambridge.

68. **Lyrical Ballads** (1798), a famous collection of poems by Wordsworth and Coleridge, a great landmark in English Romantic poetry.

69. **Mac Flecknoe** (1682), a powerful satire by Dryden, directed against Shadwell.

70. **Mahabharata, The**, a great Sanskrit epic attributed to Vyās, written probably about 200 B. C., narrating the great contest between the Pandavas and Kauravas.

71. **Marmion** (1808), Scott's best narrative poem about the battle of Flodden Field.

72. **Maud** (1855), Tennyson's lyrical monodrama, considered to be one of his best works.

73. **Medal** (1682), a well-known satire by Dryden.

74. **Morte D' Arthur The** (1842), a well-known poem about the passing away of King Arthur by Tennyson. (Also the name of a prose translation, made from the French, by Thomas Malory, of all the legends about Arthur during 1469-70 A. D.).

75. **Nibelungenlied, The**, an epic poem in Middle High German, by an unknown poet at the end of the 12th or the beginning of the 13th cent.

76. **Ode to Autumn, Ode on a Grecian Urn, Ode to a Nightingale** (1819), these odes by Keats show him at his very best as a poet.

77. **Ode to Evening** (1747), by William Collins, a priceless gem of English poetry.

78. **Ode on the Intimations of Immortality**, (1806), the famous reflective ode of Wordsworth embodying his theory of previous birth and the divine nature of the child.

79. **Ode to a Sky Lark**, (1819), by Shelley, one of his most popular poems, remarkable for spontaneity and melody.

80. **Ode to the West Wind** (1819), a great ode by Shelley, remarkable for its prophetic message, personal touches and verbal artistry.

81. **Odyssey, The**, a Greek epic poem attributed to Homer, describing the ten years' adventures of Odysseus (also known as Ulysses) during his return journey from Troy to his own kingdom of Ithaca. The poem is a sequel to the *Iliad*.

82. **Orlando Furio So** (1532), a romantic epic of Charlemagne and his peers, by Ariosto (Italian).

83. **Paradise Lost** (1667), the greatest English epic poem, in 12 books, by Milton, dealing with the Fall of Man.

84. **Paradise Regained** (1671), an epic poem, in four books, by Milton—a sequel to *Paradise Lost*.

85. **Pied Piper of Hamelin, The** (1845), a delightful poem, by Browning, about a piper who first removes all the rats of the town, but on being refused his reward for the feat, lures away all the children with his music into a mysterious land.

86. **Pippa Passes** (1841), a popular dramatic poem by R. Browning.

87. **Prelude, The** (1805 ; published in 1850), a long autobiographical poem, in fourteen books, by Wordsworth.

88. **Princess** (1847), a long poem by Tennyson, about the rights of women ; remarkable for the beautiful lyrics, added to it later on.

89. **Prisoner of Chillon** (1816), by Lord Byron—a well known and popular poem, dealing with the imprisonment of Bonnivard in the castle of Chillon, on the Lake of Geneva.

90. **Prosopic**, a short lyric by Browning, showing his fearlessness of death and belief in the life to come.

91. **Rabbi Ben Ezra** (1864), a significant, long reflective lyric by Browning, being an exposition of his religious philosophy through the mouth of a learned Jew.

92. **Rape of the Lock, The** (1712), a powerful mock-heroic poem by Pope, inspired by the incident of the forcible cutting of a lock of Miss Arabella Fermor's hair by Lord Petre.

93. **Reynard the Fox** (1919), a famous poem about fox-hunting by J. Masefield.

94. **Ring and the Book, The** (1872), the longest and most ambitious poem by Browning, based on the story of a Roman murder-case.

95. **Rubaiyat of Omar Khayyam, The** (1859), a translation of the 'rubais' or quatrains of the Persian poet of that name, by Edward Fitzgerald.

96. **Rugby Chapel** (1867), an elegy by M. Arnold.

97. **Scholar—Gipsy, The** (1853), an elegy by M. Arnold, based on the old legend of a poor Oxford scholar, who joined gipsies to learn their lore, roamed the world with them, and still haunts the Oxford countryside.

98. **Sohrab and Rustum** (1853), an epic fragment by M. Arnold, narrating Sohrab's quest for his father Rustum, culminating in a duel in which the latter ignorantly kills the former.

99. **Solitary Reaper, The**, a fine short lyric by Wordsworth

100. **Thyrsis** (1867), by M. Arnold. The poem, pastoral in form, is at once a lament for A. H. Clough and an exquisite description of the Oxford countryside.

101. **Traveller, The** (1764), a narrative — cum — reflective poem by Goldsmith.

(b) DRAMA.

1. **Abraham Lincoln** (1918), J. Drinkwater's famous play, dealing with the American President.

2. **Admirable Crichton, The**, (1902) by Sir J. M. Barrie, centring round the idea of establishing perfect social equality ; Crichton, the butler, is the central figure.

3. **Agamemnon**, a tragedy by Aeschylus, setting forth the theme of retribution with a dramatic power, a depth of religious insight, and a splendour of diction unequalled in Greek literature.

4. **Ajax**, a Greek tragedy by Sophocles (195-406 B. C.).

5. **Alcestis** a Greek tragedy by Euripides (480-406 B. C.).

6. **All for Love, or, The World Well lost**, by John Dryden (1678) ; based, to some extent, on Shakespeare's *Antony and Cleopatra*.

7. **All's well that ends well**, by Shakespeare (1602). It is a tale of husband-catching by a curious kind of trick ; the heroine is Helen de Narbon, a physician's daughter.

8. **Andromache**, a tragedy by Racine (1667), regarded to be his greatest work. It wrought a revolution in French dramatic art by proving that the subtleties of the passion of love could be an inexhaustible source of interest on the stage.

9. **Antony and Cleopatra**, an historical Roman tragedy by Shakespeare, written about 1606-7.

10. **Arcades**, a masque by John Milton (1633).

11. **Arms and the Man**, a popular drama by G. B. Shaw, satirizing romantic notions of love and war.

12. **As You Like It**, a very popular comedy by Shakespeare produced about 1599. Rosalind, Jacques and Touchstone are some of the important, well-drawn characters.

13. **Atalanta in Calydon** (1860), a tragedy by Swinburne in the classical Greek form with choruses, remarkable for unsurpassed melody. The plot is based on the tragic romance of Atalanta and Meleager.

14. **Athalie** (1691), the greatest tragedy by the French dramatist, Racine, dealing with the story of Athaliah, who is slain after her numerous attempts to kill Josah,—a biblical theme (2 Kings XI).

15. **Aurag-Zebe** (1676), the last rhymed tragedy by Dryden about the last great Indian Moghul Emperor.

16. **Avare,l'** ('The Miser') (1668), one of Moliere's most famous prose comedies.

17. **Beggar's Opera, The** (1728), a musical play by John Gay, satirizing London 'polite' society and Italian opera.

18. **Blind: The** (1890), and **Blue Bird, The** (1908), the two best-known plays of symbolism by the Belgian poet-dramatist, Maurice Maeterlinck.

19. **Boris Godounoff** (1826), an historical drama by the Russian A. S. Pushkin, dealing with the troubled period of Russian history that followed the death of Czar Theodore in 1598.

20. **Caesar and Cleopatra** (1899), an amusing satire by G. B. Shaw, representing Caesar in modern light, as a mighty conqueror but satiated with war and prizes clemency more than any thing else. Cleopatra is depicted as a charming young barbarian.

21. **Candida** (1897), a highly successful comedy by Shaw.

22. **Cherry Orchard, The** (1904) by A. Chekhov (Russian). The play is historical and symbolic, a picture of the passing of the old order of Russian aristocracy.

23. **Comedy of Errors, The** (1592), one of the earliest and crudest of Shakespeare's plays.

24. **Comus** (1634), a masque by John Milton.

25. **Countess Cathleen, The** (1892) by W. B. Yeats—one of the two plays with which the Irish Literary Theatre started on its course.

26. **Cymbeline** (1610), a trag—comedy by Shakespeare.

27. **Doctor Faustus** (1588), a powerful tragedy in blank verse and prose by Marlowe, based on the medieval legend of a man who sold his soul to the Devil.

28. **Doll's House, A** (1879), one of the best-known plays of H. Ibsen (Norwegian). The heroine is Nora, who embodies the new awakening of Woman in the modern world.

29. **Edward II** (1593), Marlowe's masterpiece, an historical tragedy.
30. **Epicoene, or the Silent Woman** (1609), Ben Jonson's most entertaining comedy.
31. **Eumenides** ('the Gracious ones', a euphemism for the Furies), the last and greatest play by Aeschylus (Greek).
32. **Every Man in his Humour** (1598); **Every Man out of his Humour** (1599), two famous satirical comedies by Ben Jonson.
33. **Frogs, The** (405 B. C.), a great comedy by Aristophanes (Greek).
34. **Ghosts, The** (1881) by H. Ibsen (Norwegian), a powerful play, a sort of Greek tragedy translated into the littleness and barrenness of modern life.
35. **Hamlet** (1603), Shakespeare's longest and most famous play—the drama of the intellect, of the soul, of man, of domestic tragedy. The plot centres round Hamlet's inability to kill his uncle, who has murdered his father and married his mother.
36. **Henry IV, King**, Parts I and II (1598-1600). **Henry V. & Henry VI** (1599-1592) historical plays by Shakespeare.
37. **Iphigenia** (407 B. C.), a famous play by Euripides (Greek).
38. **Julius Caesar** (1599), the noblest of Shakespeare's historical plays.
39. **Justice** (1910), a powerful social tragedy by John Galsworthy. It led to certain important reforms in prison administration in England.
40. **King Lear** (1606), one of the great tragedies of Shakespeare, about the hot-tempered King Lear and his daughters, Regan and Goneril (both ungreatful and cruel) and the devoted but unassuming Cordelia.
41. **Knight of the Burning Pestle, The**, a very humorous mock-heroic play by Beaumont and Fletcher (1607).
42. **Lady Windermere's Fan** (1892), a popular comedy by Oscar Wilde.
43. **Land of Heart's Desire, The** (1894), a beautiful fairy-play by W. B. Yeats.
44. **Love's Labour Lost** (1595), a comedy by Shakespeare.
45. **Macbeth** (1606), Shakespeare's great tragedy of ambition and retribution.
46. **Man and Superman** (1903), one of the best-known comedies of G. B. Shaw; 'a stage-production of the tragic-comic love chase of the man by the woman.'
47. **Medea** (431 B. C.), a great tragedy by Euripides (Greek).

48. **Merchant of Venice, The** (1596), perhaps the best-known comedy of Shakespeare's, remarkable for the characters of Shylock, the Jew, and Portia the heroine.

49. **Marriage of Figaro, The** (1776) by Beaumarchais (French), a famous comedy of intrigue revolving round the marriage of Figaro, a Count's servant and Suzanne, the countess's waiting-woman, and exposing aristocratic pretensions.

50. **Midsummer Night's Dream, A** (1595 or 1596), a highly romantic comedy by Shakespeare, having the famous supernatural character Puck.

51. **Much Ado About Nothing** (1598-9), a popular comedy by Shakespeare.

52. **Oedipus at Colonus**, and **Oedipus the King**, two great tragedies by Sophocles (Greek).

53. **Othello** (1604), ranks with *Hamlet*, *Lear* and *Macbeth*, as one of Shakespeare's four great tragedies. It is powerful study in suspicion and jealousy, which lead Othello to murder his innocent wife Desdemona.

54. **Peter Pan** (1904), the most popular play by J. M. Barrie about Peter Pan, the child who does not grow.

55. **Phedre** (1677), one of the greatest tragedies of Racine (French), based on a famous Greek legend, also treated by Euripides in his play of the same name.

56. **Play Boy of the Western World, The** (1907), by J. M. Synge, a famous Irish comedy.

57. **Precieuses Ridicules, Les** (1659), a very famous satirical comedy by Moliere (French), directed against French 'Blue Stockings' of the period.

58. **Prometheus Bound**, a great drama by Aeschylus, the most sublime of Greek tragedians. (Also a poem of the same name by E. B. Browning).

59. **Prometheus Unbound** (1819), a lyrical drama by Shelley, breathing the unyielding spirit of a revolutionary, very different from its Greek prototype.

60. **Riders to the Sea** (1904), a great tragedy by J. M. Synge.

61. **Richard II** (1595)—**Richard III** (1594), English historical plays by Shakespeare.

62. **Rivals, The** (1775), a famous comedy by Sheridan.

63. **Romeo and Juliet** (1595), the first romantic and extremely popular love—tragedy of Shakespeare's.

64. **Samson Agonistes** (1671), a tragedy by Milton, modelled on Greek tragedies, dealing with the life and death of Samson, the wrestler.

65. *School for Scandal*, The (1777), Sheridan's dramatic masterpiece.

66. *She Stoops to Conquer*, or *The Mistakes of a Night* (1773), Goldsmith's best play, full of infinite fun and humour, which arise mainly from the hero Marlow's mistaking the house of Mr. Hardcastle for an inn.

67. *Silver Box* (1909), a famous play by Galsworthy, showing that there is one law for the rich and another for the poor.

68. *Strife* (1909), a powerful tragedy by Galsworthy, depicting the horror and waste involved in an industrial strike.

69. *Tamburlaine the Great* (1590), the first great drama by Marlowe based on the story of the Asian conqueror Timur the Lame.

70. *Tartuffe* (The Impostor) (1669), the most famous comedy of Moliere's (French).

71. *Tempest*, the (1611), Shakespeare's last play, a tragicomedy, containing two unusual characters Ariel and Caliban.

72. *Twelfth Night, or, What You Will* (1601), a famous comedy by Shakespeare, revolving round the tangle caused by the Duke's love for Olivia, who loves Viola (in male guise), who has already lost her heart to the Duke.

73. *Volvore, or the Fox* (1605), a fine satirical comedy by Ben Jonson.

74. *Wallenstein* (1800), a great historical drama by F. Schiller (German), about the Austrian general Wallenstein celebrated for his campaigns in the Thirty Years War.

75. *Way of the World*, The (1700), the greatest and most famous comedy by W. Congreve.

76. *Weavers, The* (:893), by G. Hauptmann (German), depicting the violent demonstrations of a set of weavers against their employers— one of the first modern plays about the life of the proletariat.

77. *Winter's Tale*, The (:669-10), one of Shakespeare's last dramatic pieces.

(c) FICTION

1. *Abbe Constantin*, The, by Ludovic Halvey (French)—extremely popular, has had more than 150 editions since its first publication in 1882.

2. *Adam Bede* (1859), the earliest of George Eliot's novels.

3. *Adventures of Tom Sawyer* (1876)—a famous novel by "Mark Twain" (American).

4. **Alice in Wonderland** (1865), by Lewis Carrol (Charles L. Dodgson). Alice, the heroin of this fantastic tale, has a dream, in which she follows an extraordinary rabbit down into a hole, leading to a wonderland, full of all sorts of strange creatures, including animals.

5. **Almayer's Folly**, by Joseph Conrad (1895), a novel of Eastern life, whose scene is laid in Borneo, and whose personages are fierce Malays, cunning Arabs, Dutch traders, slaves, pirates and Almayer, the hero, son of a Dutch official in Java.

6. **Ambassadors, The**, by Henry James (1902-3).

7. **Amelia**, by Henry Fielding (1751), his last novel, a story of married life, Amelia, the heroine, is painted as a virtuous and lovely wife.

8. **Anna Karenina** (1873-76), a world famous novel by Leo Tolstoy (Russian). Its theme—the simple one of the wife, the husband and the lover—is treated with a marvellous perception of the laws of morality and of passion. The character of Anna Karenina, the heroine, is the subject of a subtle psychological study.

9. **Arabian Nights' Entertainments, or The Thousand and One Nights**, a collection of about 250 stories, written in Arabic, collected about the 14th or 15th century, translated into English in 1840. The tales are Persian and Arabic in character, related by the clever princess Scheherazada to her husband, the cruel Sultan, in order to save her life.

10. **Arcadia**, a pastoral-cum-chivalrous prose romance by Sir P. Sidney, written about 1580, published in 1590, a very popular book in the 16th and 17th centuries.

11. **Atala**, (1801), a romance of the American wilderness by the great French writer Chateaubriand. It is an extravagant and artificial but beautiful romantic story of two lovers, a young brave Indian Chactas and an Indian maiden, Atala.

12. **Ayesha, the Return of She** (1905), a romance by Sir Henry Rider Haggard.

13. **Barry Lyndon** (1844), the best of Thackeray's shorter novels, in the form of the autobiography of Redmond Barry, an impudent Irish adventurer.

14. **Ben Hur: A Tale of The Christ** (1880), by the American Lewis Wallace, being a romantic description of the late Roman Empire and the rise of Christianity; a best seller.

15. **Bondman, The** (1890), one of Hall Caine's best-known romances.

16. **Bride of Lammer Moor, The** (1819), regarded as the best novel by Sir Walter Scott. Though sombre and depressing it is very popular.

17. **Brothers Karamazov, The** (1880), an uncompleted novel by the famous Russian writer Dostoevsky ; ranks as one of the world's greatest novels.
18. **Candide** (1759), a romance by the great French writer Voltaire, satirizing optimistic philosophies.
19. **Captain's Daughter** (1832), a story by A. Pushkin (Russian), narrating the adventures of a young officer and his sweetheart, during Pugachev's rebellion, in the reign of Catherine II.
20. **Captains Courageous** (1897), a remarkable novel by R. Kipling, the hero being an American boy, Harvey Cheyne.
21. **Castle of Otranto** (1764) by H. Walpole, the first of the novels which constitute the Gothic of Terror school of fiction.
22. **Clarissa Harlowe** (1751) a famous novel by S. Richardson, in the form of letters, remarkable for the character of the heroine, Clarissa.
23. **Cloister and the Hearth** (1861), an historical romance of the 15th cent. by Charles Reade.
24. **Coningsby** (1844), Disraeli's sixth and most successful novel.
25. **Count of Monte Cristo, The** (1844) by the famous French romancer Alexander Dumas ; a novel about modern times—so widely known that 'the treasure of Monte Cristo' has passed into a proverb.
26. **Cranford** (1851-3), by Mrs. Gaskell, an amusing novel about quaint old ladies residing at Cranford, a village in England.
27. **Crime and Punishment** (1866), a Russian realistic novel by Dostoevsky, being a subtle and powerful psychological study revolving about the murder of an old woman, a money-lender, and her sister, by Raskolnikoff a student in St. Petersburg.
28. **Daisy Miller** (1878), one of Henry James's most famous stories, recounting the adventures of a young American girl travelling in Europe.
29. **Daniel Deronda** (1876), George Eliot's last novel, considered by some critics to be her greatest work.
30. **David Copperfield** (1849-50), Dickens's masterpiece ; autobiographical. 'Of all my books,' wrote Dickens, 'I like this best.' It has a galaxy of immortal characters, Betsy Trotwood, Uriah Heep, Micawber, David, the hero and many others. Most of these names have passed into the language and become types.
31. **Dead Souls** (1846), by N. V. Gagol. This panorama of Russian national life is the greatest humorous novel in the Russian language.

32. **Decameron, The** (1349), by Giovanni Boccaccio (Italian) is a famous collection of 100 prose tales, supposed to be related by 7 ladies and 3 gentlemen in the plague-stricken Florence in 1348.

33. **Diana of the Crossways** (1885), famous novel by George Meredith, remarkable chiefly for the character of the beautiful and witty Irish girl, Diana Merion, the heroine.

34. **Don Quixote** (1605 ; 1615), a romance by Cervantes (Spanish) satirizing the decadent romances of chivalry, but not the essential chivalric ideals. Don Quixote, the mock Knight-errant and his squire Sancho Panza have become household words.

35. **Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde**, by R. L. Stevenson (1886) is a psychologic romance illustrating the complex quality of man's nature.

36. **Egoist, The** (1879), Meredith's best work, a study of egotism in the person of Sir Willoughby Patterne, the hero.

37. **Emile** (1762), a famous romance by Rousseau (French) dealing with a reformed, elaborate system of education. Emile, the little boy, is its hero.

38. **Emma** (1816), regarded by some as Jane Austen's best novel. Emma, its heroine, with her fad of match-making is a sharply individualised character.

39. **Erewhon** (an anagram of 'nowhere') (1872), a satirical utopian romance by Samuel Butler.

40. **Esther Waters** (1894), a severly realistic tale by George Moore; relates Esther's life of poverty and hardship, and exposes the results of betting among the British working class.

41. **Euphues** (1579 ; 1580), romance by John Lyly, remarkable for its peculiar style to which it has given the name 'Euphuism.'

42. **Evan Harrington** (1861), one of the well-known novels by Meredith.

43. **Fables of Aesop, The**, a collection of brief stories mostly about animals who think and speak like men, each tale illustrating some practical truth; attributed to Aesop, a deformed Greek slave of the 7th cent. B. C.

44. **Far from the Madding Crowd** (1874), a pastoral novel by Thomas Hardy—the best example of his earlier manner, and of his achievements in the domain of comedy.

45. **Fathers and Sons** (1861), by J. S. Turgeneve (Russian)—a powerful novel about the conflicting old and new forces at work in modern society. The hero is Bazarof, a social iconoclast.

46. **Fisher Maiden, The** (1868), a great novel about Norwegian life by B. Bjornson (Norwegian)—translated into many tongues.

47. **Flame of Life, The** (1899), a powerful novel about a great tragic actress, La Foscarina, the heroine, by G. D. Annunzio (Italian).

48. **Forsyte Saga, The** (1906; 1920; 1921), one of the greatest trilogies of novels of the 20th cent. by J. Galsworthy, of which the main theme is the possessive instinct, embodied in Soames Forsyte.

49. **Frankenstein, or the Modern Prometheus** (1818), by Mrs. Shelley—a tragic tale of gloom and terror about Frankenstein a Genevan student of natural philosophy, who is killed by a monster whom he himself created by collecting bones from a churchyard. The term 'F's monster' has become a familiar phrase for the thing that becomes formidable to its creator.

50. **Gargantua and Pantagruel** (in five books) (1532-64), by Rabelais (French), a series of satirical romances narrating the farcical adventures of the giant Gargantua and Pantagruel, king of the Drunkards.

51. **Gil Blas**, (1715-35), a picaresque romance, presenting pictures of Spanish life of two centuries ago by Le Sage (French)—a popular and widely-known story.

52. **Gods are Athirst, The** (1912), a novel by Anatole France (French) about the French Revolution, remarkable for the vivid pictures of Paris of the Terror.

53. **Golden Ass, The**, a Latin satire by Apuleius of Madauri in Africa (b. c. A. D. 114), in the form of the supposed autobiography of the author, transformed into an ass.

54. **Great Expectations** (1861), a popular novel by Charles Dickens.

55. **Great Hunger, The**, (1916), a famous novel by Johan Bojer (Norwegian).

56. **Gulliver's Travels** (1727), J. Swift's most well-known book—one of the most imaginative of stories and one of the best models of style. The first part, Gulliver's travel to Lilliput, is a world famous tale, extremely popular with children.

57. **Hajji Baba of Ispahan**, a picaresque novel or narrative of roguery by James Morier (1824), and followed in 1828 by *Hajji Baba in England*.

58. **Heart of Midlothian, The**, (1818), of Scott's best novels, a story of two sisters Effie Deans and Jeanie Deans, the latter undertaking a hazardous journey to London in order to obtain pardon for her sister, accused of child-murder.

59. **Henry Esmond** (1852), by Thackeray—one of the greatest English historical novels, dealing with the time of Queen Anne. Henry Esmond and Beatrix are its two famous characters.

60. **Hereward The Wake** (1865), a legendary — cum historical novel about the 15th cent. outlaw, Hereward, by C. Kingsley.
61. **Hitopadesa** (13th cent. A. D.) a famous collection of Sanskrit tales, known in its earliest form as the *Panchatantra*.
62. **Humphry Clinker** (1771), the last and the pleasantest of Smollett's novels.
63. **Hypatia** (1838), by C. Kingsley—a famous romance, presenting a stirring picture of the 5th cent. of the Christian era, against the background of the learned city of Alexandra in Egypt.
64. **Idiot, The** (1868), a famous novel by Dostoevsky (Russian), presenting the author's own ideal of a Christian like character in the person of Prince Myshkin, the hero, an epileptic.
65. **Immensee** (1850), a short story by Theodor Storm (German), being, among other things, an attractive study of the dreamy side of the German character.
66. **Innocents Abroad, The** (1869), one of Mark Twain's (American) most successful and world famous books. It is a rollicking tale of a tour of Europe and the East, made by a group of liberty-loving Americans on board the steamer 'Quaker City.'
67. **Ivanhoe** (1819), a most popular and famous novel on a purely English subject by Sir W. Scott.
68. **Jane Eyre** (1847), a semi-autobiographical novel which established the reputation of its author Charlotte Bronte.
69. **Java Head** (1918), a famous novel by Joseph Hergesheimer (American).
70. **Jean Christophe** (1904-12), an epoch-making biographical and psychological novel, in ten volumes, by Roman Rolland (French). Its hero is Jean Christophe, a musical genius of an independent, heroic character.
71. **Jonathan Wild The Great** (1743), a satirical romance by Henry Fielding.
72. **Joseph Andrews** (1742), the first novel by Fielding, intended to satirize Richardson's *Pamela*. Joseph and Parson Adams are its two memorable characters.
73. **Jude the Obscure** (1895), the last and most grim and pessimistic of Thomas Hardy's novels.
74. **Jungle, The** (1906), by Upton Sinclair (American), being an exposure of the horrible and revolting life and practices in the Chicago stockyards. Its effect was so great that many Americans refused for a time to eat meat from Chicago and an investigation of the yards was instituted by the U. S. government.
75. **Jungle Books, The I & II**, (1894 ; 1895), by R. Kipling, relating how the child Mowgli was brought up by wolves and was taught by them and other wild beasts.

76. **Kenilworth** (1821), one of the most famous novels of Scott, dealing with the life and times of Queen Elizabeth.
77. **Kidnapped** (1886), the best romantic novel by R. L. Stevenson.
78. **Kim** (1901), a brilliant novel about Indian life by R. Kipling.
79. **Kipps** (1905), one of the best novels of H.G. Wells — autobiographical in its early part.
80. **Lady of the Tiger, The** (1882) a short story by Frank Stockton (American), very famous for its abrupt and surprising conclusion.
81. **Last Days of Pompeii, The** (1834), an historical novel by Bulwer Lytton, dealing with the love of two young Greeks against the background of the destruction of Pompeii in a volcanic eruption in A. D. 79.
82. **Lord Jim** (1915), the best-known novel by Joseph Conrad.
83. **Le Feu** (Under Fire) (1916), a famous collection of War stories by Henri Barbusse (French).
84. **Les Miserables**, (The Miserables) (1862), the French novelist, Victor Hugo's most famous work. Its hero is Jean Valjean.
85. **Lorna Doone** (1869), a novel by R. D. Blackmore against a slight historical background of the times of Charles II and James II.
86. **Love and Mr. Lewisham** (1900), a non-propaganda novel by H. G. Wells.
87. **Madame Bovary** (1856) by G. Flaubert—a great novel of the realistic school in modern French fiction. It is a powerful unpleasant study of the steps by which Madame Bovary, a married woman sinks in sin, debauchery and suicide.
88. **Main Street** (1920) by Sinclair Lewis (American); a realistic picture of the depressing atmosphere of a small town in the American Middle-west.
89. **Manon Lescaut** (1731), a famous novel by Abbe Prevost (French), the story of a brilliant young man, his passion for a courtesan, followed by his moral transformation. It is a classic, and has served as a model for many other books.
90. **Mayor of Casterbridge, The** (1886), one of Hardy's greatest novels, relating the tragic life and death of Michael Henchard.
91. **Middlemarch** (1872), **Mill on the Floss** (1860), two great tragic novels by George Eliot.
92. **Mr. Britling Sees It Through** (1916), H. G. Wells, being an account of the mind of England during the first two

years of the first World War, in terms of the actual life of Mr. Britling and his pleasant family.

93. **Mr. Polly, The History of,** (1910), a novel by H. G. Wells, unmarried by any sociological, political or scientific bias.

94. **Moby Dick** (1851) by Herman Melville (American), a very famous and powerful sea romance, relating the prolonged tragic contest between a huge whale, Moby Dick, and Captain Ahab.

95. **The Moon and Sixpence** (1919) an immensely popular novel by Sommerset Maugham, dealing with a painter Charles Strickland, who sacrifices everything, including his family, for the sake of art.

96. **Mother** (1906) by Maxim Gorky (Russian)—a very famous novel, translated into many languages, presenting an intimate picture of a group of socialists, engaged in the liberation of the working people. The central character is a worker's mother who also works for the cause and gets beaten and choked to death.

97. **Nana** (1880), one of the series of novels by Emile Zola (French), called *Les Rougon-Macquart*. It is a very realistic study of the life of a courtesan and actress, who has a very gay life owing to her beauty and wealth, but who dies of small-pox, deserted and wretched.

98. **New Arabian Nights, The** (1882), a romance by R. L. Stevenson.

99. **New Grub Street**, (1891), a novel by George Gissing depicting the struggle for life, the jealousies and intrigues of the literary world of his time, and the chilling effect of poverty on artistic endeavour.

100. **Nostromo ; A Tale of the Seaboard** (1904), one of the great novels of Joseph Conrad. It is a tale of a silver mine, buried treasure, and revolutions—all set in a South American Republic.

101. **Notre-Dame of Paris** (1830) by Victor Hugo (French), relating a romance which grows up in and around the cathedral of that name.

102. **Of Human Bondage** (1915), one of S. Maugham's great novels, dealing with the mental and spiritual growth of its hero, Philip Carey.

103. **Old Mortality** (1816), considered to be the best novel of Scott's, a tale of the rising of the Covenanters during the reign of Charles II.

104. **Old Curiosity Shop** (1841), by Dickens, famous for its unhappy heroine Little Nell.

105. **Old Wives' Tale, The** (1908), Bennett's masterpiece especially remarkable for compact plot-construction, careful-

ness of detail and the portrayal of the character of two sisters Constance and Sophia, the heroines of the novel.

106. **Oliver Twist** (1838), one of the best novels of Dickens, showing the miseries of the poor, and crime in its true colours.

107. **Pair of Blue Eyes, A** (1873), a popular novel by Thomas Hardy.

108. **Pamela, or Virtue Rewarded** (1740), the first novel by Samuel Richardson, father of modern English fiction. It is the story (told in the form of letters) of a virtuous serving-maid, Pamela, who repels the dishonourable advances of her master, Mr. B. and later on succeeds in persuading him to marry her honourably.

109. **Paul and Virginia** (1788), a great novel by Bernordin de Saint-Pierre (French), a simple but tragic love tale of a boy (Paul) and a girl (Virginia) who have sought refuge from their troubles in Mauritius.

110. **Pendennis** (1850), a semi-autobiographical novel by Thackeray.

111. **Penguin Island** (1909) by Anatole France (French), a great allegorical satire about the history of France (represented by an island of penguins) and the evils of civilization, chiefly modern.

112. **Pere Goriot, Le** (The Old Man Goriot) (1834), considered to be the greatest novel by Balzac (French)—a most painful study of Goriot, who may be called a modern Lear.

113. **Pickwick Papers, The** (1837) by Charles Dickens—one of the most humorous novels in the English language ; it took the literary world by storm and established its author's reputation. Many of its characters have become immortal.

114. **Pilgrim's Progress, The** (1678), an allegory by John Bunyan, written in Bedford Jail, relating the journey of its hero, Christian, to the Eternal City. A most popular and widely read book both among adults and children : a best-seller.

115. **Pride and Prejudice** (written in 1796, published in (1813), Jane Austen's best novel, full of pleasant humour and irony ; a simple tale of courtship and marriage in a quiet village.

116. **Prisoner of Zenda, The** (1894), the best-known of Anthony Hope's romances ; relates the picturesque adventures of Rudolf Rassendyll, an English gentleman, during a three months' sojourn in the kingdom of Ruritania.

117. **Quintin Durward** (1823), a historical novel by Scott, dealing with the rivalry between Louis XI and the Duke of Burgundy, the hero being a young Scot Quintin Durward.

118. **Quo Vadis ?** (1895), the most popular novel of Henryk Sienkiewicz (Polish), dealing with Rome in the time of Nero.

119. **Rasselas Prince of Abyssinia** (1759), a didactic romance by Dr. Johnson, written in a week to defray the expenses of his mother's funeral.

120. **Redgauntlet** (1824), by Scott, dealing with Sir A. Redgauntlet, who pays with his life for espousing the cause of the Young Pretender.

121. **Red and the Black, The** (1831), the masterpiece of the great French novelist Stendhal.

122. **Return of the Native, The** (1878), one of the greatest novels of Hardy's, a remarkable study in Fatalism, with Eustacia Vye and Clym Yeobright as its heroine and hero, living their tragic life against the background of Egdon Heath.

123. **Robinson Crusoe** (1719), by Defoe—one of the world's most famous books ; a tale of adventure of shipwrecked Robinson Crusoe on a desert island, supposed to have been suggested by the real experience of Alexander Selkirk.

124. **Roderick Random** (1748), a picaresque novel by Smollett.

125. **Round the World in Eighty Days** (1872), a famous scientific romance by Jules Verne (French).

126. **Scarlet Letter, The** (1850), a great novel by Nathaniel Hawthorne (American).

127. **She** (1887) by Sir Rider Haggard, a stirring tale about an Englishman going to Africa to avenge the death of an Egyptian ancestor, who has been murdered by a sorceress known in the novel as 'She'.

128. **Sherlock Holmes, Adventures of** (1892), the most famous detective novels by Sir A. Conan Doyle, consisting of twelve Sketches, purporting to have been recorded by Dr. Watson, a friend and co-adjustor of Sherlock Holmes.

129. **Shirley** (1849), a famous novel by Charlotte Bronte.

130. **Silas Mariner** (1861), the best and most popular novel by George Eliot—a tale of the poor, dull-witted Methodist cloth-weaver, after whom the book is named.

131. **Sir Charles Grandison** (1754), the third and last novel by Richardson, portraying an ideal gentleman.

132. **Sorrows of Werther, The** (1774 ; 1787), by Goethe (German), a romance in epistolary form, based on two incidents in the author's life.

133. **Story of Gosta Berling, The** (1894) by Selma Lagerlof (Swedish), depicting life in the province of Varmland, in Southern Sweden, at the beginning of the 19th cent. It won for its author the Nobel prize for literature in 1909.

134. **Tale of two Cities, A** (1859), a historical novel by Dickens, with the French Revolution as its back ground : very popular ; has been filmed.

135. **Tales From Shakespeare** (1807), by Charles and Mary Lamb—a highly successful children's story book, based on Shakespeare's plays.

136. **Tess of The D'Urbervilles** (1891), Hardy's most remarkable novel, depicting the Tragedy of the Woman,—the world-old story of her fall, and of her battle with man to recover her purity of soul. Tess, the heroine, despite her physical defilement, is depicted as a pure woman.

137. **Thais** (1890) by Anatole France, relating the striking tale of a holy man who fell a victim to the charms of a famous courtesan, Thais, in Alexandria in his attempts to reform her.

138. **Three Musketeers, The** (1844), the first novel of Dumas's famous trilogy of which the others are *Twenty Years After* and *The Vicomte de Bragelonne*.

139. **Time Machine, The** (1895), a scientific romance by Wells.

140. **Tom Brown's School Days** (1857), a very popular book by Thomas Hughes, the finest and most famous example of stories depicting English public-school life.

141. **Tom Jones** (1749), Henry Fielding's masterpiece and one of the greatest novels of the world. Full of fine storytelling, good characterisation and mirror of the 18th cent. life in country and town.

142. **Tono-Bungay** (1908), one of Wells's best novels, a sort of romance of modern advertisements, as seen in the fortunes of George Ponderevo, inventor of a quack patent medicine "Tono-Bungay".

143. **Treasure Island** (1883), one of the most popular of Stevenson's romances.

144. **Tristram Shandy** (1760-67), Sterne's masterpiece, "a heterogeneous sort of whimsical humorous memoirs"; translated into French and German; still a popular novel.

145. **Uncle Tom's Cabin** (1851) by Harriet Beecher Stowe (American)—a world-famous anti-slavery novel, presenting the sufferings of negroes in U. S. A., 'a collection and arrangement of real incidents'; did much to hasten the American Civil War. Translated into 23 languages.

146. **Vanity Fair** (1847-48), the greatest novel by Thackeray, the epic of an adventuress, Becky Sharpe, as well as an anatomy of contemporary society.

147. **Vicar of Wakefield, The** (1766), Goldsmith's only and very famous novel, containing the unforgettable Dr. Primrose (a character-study of the author's father) and his family.

148. **Wandering Jew, The** (1845) by Eugene Sue (French), a curious rambling episodic romance, written from an extreme

Protestant point of view, about Ahasuerus, a legendary shoemaker in Jerusalem.

149. **War and Peace** (1864-69), Tolstoy's (Russian) masterpiece and one of the world's greatest novels, dealing with the stirring conflict between Napoleon and France, and Koutouzoff and Russia.

150. **Waverley** (1814), the first of the world—famous series of historical novels of that name by Scott.

151. **Way of All Flesh, The** (1903), a powerful satirical novel by Samuel Butler, directed against Victorianism, particularly the tyranny of parents over children and the Anglican Church.

152. **Westward Ho** (1855), C. Kingsley's most popular novel, dealing with the exploits of Elizabethan sailors in the West Indies.

153. **Wuthering Heights** (1847), the only novel written by Emile Bronte and regarded as one of the world's greatest novels. Its hero is Heathcliff, a man of stormy untrained nature, brought up at Wuthering Heights.

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(d) MISCELLANEOUS PROSE

Advance of Learning, The (1605), by Francis Bacon, a philosophical work on the nature of knowledge, esp. history, poetry, and philosophy.

Akbar-Namah (1605), by Abul-Fazl, a history in Persian of the reign of Akbar.

Apologie for Poetrie, The or Defence of Poesie, a prose essay by Sir Philip Sidney, written about 1580, in answer to Stephen Gosson's *The School of Abuse*.

Appreciations (1889), by W. H. Pater, a series of critical essays on Shakespeare, Wordsworth and others and on Style.

Areopagitica, a prose pamphlet by John Milton in advocacy of the liberty of unlicensed printing (1644).

Autocrat of the Breakfast Table, The, by the American, Oliver Wendell Holmes (1858)—a series of imaginary conversations around a boarding-house table, notable for their kindly humour and general sagacity. Its companion pieces are *The Professor at the Breakfast Table* (1859), *The Poet at the Breakfast Table* (1872), and *Over the Tea-Cups* (1890).

Avesta, Zind, the sacred writings of the Parsees, usually attributed to Zoroaster, composed probably about the 13th cent.

Battle of the Books, The (1697), by Swift—a satire on the endless controversy over the relative merits of the ancients and the moderns, represented by the Bee and the Spider respectively.

Bible, The, the sacred book of the Christians, containing the Old and New Testament. Standard English translation known as the Authorised version (1610).

Biographia Literaria (1817), a loosely-knit series of chapters, autobiographical, philosophical and critical, by S. T. Coleridge.

Book of Snobs, The, (1848); a series of highly amusing satirical sketches by W. M. Thackeray.

Capital (1867), by Karl Marx (a German Jew), expounding the philosophy of communism; has exercised tremendous influence on the labour movement all over the world.

Cellini, Benvenuto, The Life of, one of the few world famous autobiographies and a vivid picture of the Italian Renaissance. This Italian's autobiography was translated into German by Goethe; translated into several other languages also.

Chronicles of Froissart, The, by the French poet and historian J. Froissart, giving an account of the events occurring from 1325-1400 in England, Scotland, France, Spain, and the Low countries.

Churchill, Lord Randolph, by Winston Churchill (1906), a famous biography.

Citizen of the World, The (1762), by Goldsmith, a collection of letters purporting to be written by or to an imaginary Chinaman, residing in London.

Conciliation with America (1775), a speech by E. Burke, recommending a conciliatory policy towards the revolting American colonies.

Confessions (written from 1765 to 1770) by Rousseau (French), a masterpiece of autobiographical literary essays.

Confessions of an English Opium Eater (1822) by Thomas De Quincey, a most brilliant set of essays.

Confessions of Saint Augustine, The, (397 A. D.), a world famous autobiographical work of the Roman Christian saint and theologian, St. Augustine.

Crown of Wild Olive, The, (1866), four lectures by John Ruskin on 'War'. 'The Future of England', 'Work', and 'Traffic'.

Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire, The, (1776-88), a famous historical work by E. Gibbon.

Defence of Poetry (1821), a notable critical essay by P. B. Shelley.

Dialogues of Plato, (Between 399 and 347 B. C.), a series of philosophical treatises in dramatic form, in which problems

metaphysical, ethical and political are discussed by Socrates, his friends and pupils.

English humourists of the Eighteenth Century, The (1853), a most interesting series of lectures—literary sketches—by Thackeray on 18th century writers.

Eothen (1844), a delightful travel book of the East by A. W. Kinglake. (The little means ‘From the Dawn’).

Essays in Criticism, (1865 ; 1888) by M. Arnold.

Essays of Elia, The (1823 ; 1833), a series of highly original, delightful and personal essays by Charles Lamb.

Essays, Counsels, Civil and Moral, The (1597 ; 1612 ; 1625), famous essays by F. Bacon, father of the English essay.

Eminent Victorians (1918), a series of brilliant biographical sketches by Lytton Strachey.

Franklin's Autobiography (1788-89), a famous autobiography by Benjamin Franklin (American).

French Revolution, The (1837), a history of the French Revolution by Thomas Carlyle, one of the monumental books of all literature.

Heroes and Hero Worship (1841), a series of five lectures on great personalities, including Shakespeare, Mohmet, Johnson and Napoleon, by T. Carlyle.

Hydriotaphia or Urn Burial (1658), a curious but remarkable treatise by Sir Thomas Browne, on the various modes of disposal of the dead.

Idler, The (1758-60), a series of essays contributed by Dr. Johnson to a literary periodical of his day.

Idea of a University, The (1873), a series of inspiring lectures by J. H. Newman.

John Bull and his Island (1884) by “Max O’ Rell,” (Paul Blouet), a humorous exposition of his view of English life and character.

Johnson, Life of (1791), a very famous biography by James Boswell.

Koran or Quran, The, from the Arabic signifying ‘to read’ the sacred book of the Mohammadens.

Laokoon (1766), an uncompleted but epoch-making treatise on literary and artistic criticism by Lessing (German).

Letter to Lord Chesterfield (1755), by Dr. Johnson giving a great blow to the system of patronage of letters by noblemen.

Leviathan, The (1651), a treatise on political philosophy by Hobbes.

Life of Nelson, The (1813), a most famous biography of Lord Nelson by R. Southey.

Lives of the Noble Grecians and Romans, by Plutarch (Roman) (46-120 A.D.), the source of the plot of several of Shakespeare's plays.

Lives of the Poets, *The* (1779-81), a biographical and critical work by Dr. Johnson—his masterpiece.

Maxims (1665), a collection of 504 brief observations by La Rochefoucauld (French), headed by the motto in the preface "Our virtues are most commonly mere vices in disguise".

Meditations, a collection of ethical and philosophical reflections, in Greek by Roman Emperor, Marcus Aurelius (121-80 A.D.).

My Reminiscences (1917), by Rabindra Nath Tagore (Indian) a story of his early life.

On Going a Journey, a popular and well known essay by Hazlitt.

Origin of Species, The (1859), Charles Darwin's epoch-making book on the Theory of Evolution.

Pensees (issued posthumously in 1670) by M. Pascal (French)—an uncompleted Defence of the Christian Religion, directed principally against the free-thinkers.

Pepys's Diary, private journal in short-hand kept from Jan. 1st, 1660, to May 31st, 1669, by Samuel Pepys; an intimate record of his personal life as well as a mirror of political and social changes of the Restoration and events of public interest, such as the Great Fire of London.

Prince, The (1513), a famous political treatise by Machiavelli (Italian).

Reflections on the Revolution in France (1790), a political essay in epistolary form by E. Burke.

Republic, The, by Plato (Greek), the first and perhaps the greatest treatise on education.

Rambler, The, a periodical in 208 numbers issued by S. Johnson from 20 Mar. 1749-50 to 14 Mar. 1751-52.

Sesame and Lilies (1865), two lectures by Ruskin, the first deals with the choice of books, the second treats of the education and duties of woman.

Social Contract, The (1762), a famous treatise on political rights by Rousseau (French).

Spectator, The (1711-12), a periodical conducted by Addison and Steele, remarkable for its gentle irony, pleasant moralising tone, and simple, graceful and lucid style. The papers were supposed to emanate from an imaginary Spectator Club.

Tatler, The (1709-11), a periodical conducted by Steele and Addison, appearing thrice a week.

Travels of Marco Polo—a famous travel book of Marco Polo, an Italian traveller of the 13th cent.

Travels with a Donkey (1879), a charming account of Stevenson's journeys, for the sake of health, in Southern France.

Unto this Last (1860-2), four essays on economic problems by Ruskin.

Utopia (1515; 1516), a speculative political essay in Latin by Sir Thomas More, intended to reform society, morals, systems of government etc., the progenitor of several subsequent works on the same lines. Translated into several European languages.

Vision of Mirza, The, a beautiful allegorical essay on the meaning of life, which appeared in Addison's *Spectator*.

Virginibus Purisque (1881), a famous delightful series of essays by Stevenson.

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II. WORLD'S FAMOUS BOOKS—(Continued)

(From 1920 to 1945.)

1. **After Many a Summer** (1939), a novel with an American setting, by A. Huxley, satirizing, among other things, the craze for longevity.

2. **Age of Innocence, The** (1920), a novel by Edith Wharton (American), being a picture of the artificial, conventional society of the New York of the 1870's.

3. **All Quiet on the Western Front** (1929), a very famous anti-war novel by Eric Remarque (German).

4. **American Tragedy, An** (2 vols., 1925), a remarkable novel by Theodore Dreiser (American) about the tragic aspects of modern American life.

5. **Angel Pavement** (1931), a sombre, gloomy story by Priestley, about a set of Londoners working in a street named Angel Pavement.

6. **Antic Hay** (1923), a novel by A. Huxley, depicting the disillusionment, aimlessness and bitterness of post-World War I London life.

7. **Apple Cart, The** (1930), a play by Shaw, showing the success of dictatorship and the failure of democracy.

8. **Ariel** (1924), a famous biography of Shelley, in the form of a novel, by A. Maurois (French).

9. **Babbitt** (1922), a satirical novel about American life by Sinclair Lewis (American), justly famous for the creation of the great character, Babbitt, symbolic of the self-satisfied, unscrupulous, but very lovable modern business man.

10. **Back to Methuselah** (1921), a play by Shaw about creative evolution.
11. **Black Mischief** (1932), a novel by Evelyn Waugh, one of the outstanding living English novelists.
12. **Blue Lagoon, The**, an extremely popular and fast-selling novel by H. de Vere Stacpoole.
13. **Brave New World** (1932), a remarkable and sensational exposure by A. Huxley of the evils of scientific civilization, in the form of a satirical Utopia.
14. **Bridge of San Luis Rey, The** (1927), a powerful novel by Thornton Wilder (American)—a delicately wrought ironic study of the way in which providence has directed disparate lives to one end.
15. **Brideshead Revisited** (1945) a novel by Evelyn Waugh, about the workings of the divine spirit through an aristocratic Catholic family in England.
16. **Buddenbrooks** (2 vols. 1924), a great novel by Thomas Mann (German), being a chronicle of four generations of the Buddenbrook family, beginning with the year 1825.
17. **Cakes and Ale** (1930), one of the most popular of S. Maugham's novels alleged to be a satirical presentation of Thomas Hardy, the great English novelist, in the person of Driffield, the hero of the novel.
18. **Constant Nymph, The** (1924), a most popular and best-selling novel by Margaret Kennedy; also filmed.
19. **Counterfeiters, The** (1925), an epoch-making novel by Andre Gide (French), remarkable as a new experiment in the technique of fiction.
20. **Dark Laughter** (1925), a powerful novel by Sherwood Anderson (American).
21. **Darkness at Noon** (1941), a sensationally popular novel by Arthur Koestler (Hungarian, now living in England), shedding great light on the Moscow treason trials.
22. **Death of a Hero** (1929), an anti-war novel by Richard Aldington.
23. **Death of the Heart** (1938), a novel by Elizabeth Bowen, one of the foremost living woman novelists.
24. **Disraeli** (1928), a famous biography of Disraeli, in the form of a novel, by Andre Maurois (French).
25. **Emperor Jones** (1921), a play by the most famous living American dramatist Eugene O'Neill.
26. **Ends and Means** (1937), a series of stimulating essays by A. Huxley on moral and religious subjects—a very well-known book of the present century.

27. **Family Reunion, The** (1939), a drama by T. S. Eliot.

28. **Farewell to Arms** (1929), a famous novel of the post-World War I period by Ernest Hemingway (American), narrating an American's experiences of war and love as a Red Cross officer with the Italian army on the Alpine front.

29. **Finnegan's Wake** (1939), the last novel by James Joyce, an extreme example of the 'stream of consciousness' fiction, with no coherence of plot, action, character and thought.

30. **Fountain, The** (1932), a beautiful semi-philosophic novel by Charles Morgan.

31. **Good Companions, The** (1929), Priestley's novel in the traditional manner, full of Dickensian rollicking fun and humour.

32. **Hairy Ape, The** (1922), a highly original and vigorous play by Eugene O'Neill (American).

33. **Hassan** (1922), a beautiful poetic play by J. E. Flecker, with a Persian theme.

34. **Hatter's Castle** (1931), a sensationally popular novel by A. J. Cronin, who, after its publication, gave up the medical profession for writing.

35. **Herries Chronicle, The** (1939), an ambitious novel, in four parts (Rogue Herries, Judith Paris, The Fortress, Vanessa), by A. Bennett, dealing with experiences of members of the Herries family from the 18th cent. down to modern times.

36. **Hollowmen, The**, poem by T. S. Eliot, echoing the hollowness of life after the first World War.

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37. **House of Children, A** (1941), a novel about children by Joyce Cary.

38. **Indian Day, An** (1927), a sympathetic picture of Indian life by Edward Thompson.

39. **It may never Happen** (1945), a novel by V.S. Pritchett.

40. **Jacob's Room** (1923), a novel by Virginia Woolf, in the 'stream of consciousness' manner.

41. **Jeeves, The Inimitable** (1923); **Very Good, Jeeves** (1930). These Jeeves books beginning with *My Man Jeeves* (1911) by P. G. Wodehouse, are remarkable for humour, for the creation of funny people using funny language.

42. **Jesting Pilate** (1926), a brilliant travel book by A. Huxley, narrating the author's sojourn in Northern India, Eastern Archipalego, Japan, and U. S. A.

43. **Juan in America** (1931); **Juan in China** (1937), by Eric Linklater. The first of these two novels proved very popular.

45. **Kristin Lavransdatter** (1920-22), a trilogy by Sigrid Undset (Norwegian)—a domestic and psychological novel of the first half of the 14th century, with Kristin, the heroine, as daughter, wife and mother. Translated into English in 1923-27; awarded the Nobel Prize for Literature in 1928.

46. **Lady Chatterley's Lover** (1928), the most famous novel by D. H. Lawrence; suppressed for a time on charges of obscenity.

47. **Loyalties** (1922), one of the best plays of Galsworthy.

48. **Magic Mountain, The** (1927), a novel by Thomas Mann (German). The 'magic mountain' is the symbol for an international sanitorium for tubercular patients who come as a precaution for a month and linger within the magic circle losing all count of time. The hero is Hans Castorp.

49. **Mein Kampf** (My Struggle), Adolf Hitler's autobiography, one of the most significant books of the present century.

50. **Marriage and Morals** (1929), a thought-provoking book by Bertrand Russell.

51. **Mrs. Dalloway** (1925), a novel by Virginia Woolf, dealing with the events of a single day in the life of Clarissa Dalloway.

52. **Mysterious Universe, The** (1930), a famous book by Sir James Jeans, being an interesting exposition of the structure of the stellar universe for the lay man.

53. **Napoleon** (1925), a remarkable biography of the French emperor by Emile Ludwig (German).

54. **Passage to India** (1924) a famous novel by E. M. Forster notable for the sympathetic portrayal of Indian life.

55. **Point Counter Point** (1928), A. Huxley's greatest novel, an experiment in contrapuntal plots; also a fine exposition of the spiritual vacuum of post-war period.

56. **Queen Victoria** (1921), an epoch-making biography by Lytton Strachey.

57. **Razor's Edge, The** (1944), S. Maugham's great novel with a religious atmosphere.

58. **Rain**, one of Maugham's most famous short stories; also a play of the same name based on the story (1922).

59. **Remembrance of Things Past** (8 vols. 1918-27), by Marcel Proust (French). It is a long novel written in the form of an imaginary autobiography in complete disregard of time and space. Has exercised much influence on contemporary literature.

60. **Revolt in the Desert** (1927), (abridgment of *Seven Pillars of Wisdom*), by T. E. Lawrence, one of the best travel books of the present age.

61. **Saint Joan** (1924), a famous play by G. B. Shaw.

62. **Scarlet Pimpernel**, a novel by Baroness Orczy.
63. **Shape of Things to Come**, The (1933), a prophetic survey of the future of the world by H. G. Wells.
64. **Six Characters in Search of an Author** (1922), a comedy by Luigi Pirandello (Italian).
65. **Sound and the Fury**, The (1929), a novel by William Faulkner (American), notable for its technique which completely disregards chronology.
66. **Sun also Rises**, The (1926), a novel by Ernest Hemingway (American) depicting the tragedy and hollowness of modern life.
67. **Testament of Beauty**, The (1929), a long philosophical poem by Robert Bridges—one of the greatest poetical triumphs of the present age.
68. **Time must have a Stop** (1944), a highly religious and mystical novel by A. Huxley.
69. **Triumph of an Egg**, The (1921), a book of impressions from American life in tales and poems, by Sherwood Anderson (American).
70. **Ulysses** (1922), a curious voluminous novel by James Joyce, which created a storm in the literary circles. A 'stream of consciousness' novel, it is all about a single day spent by N. Blum, a Jew in Dublin in hot weather. Proscribed for some time for its alleged pornographic character.
71. **Verdict on India** (1945), a slanderous book about India by Beverly Nichols. It called forth vigorous protest by Indians esp. K. L. Gauba (*Verdict on England*) and N. C. Jog (*Judge of Judas*).
72. **Waste Land**, The (1922), an epoch-making poem by T. S. Eliot—perhaps the best expression of post-war cynicism and despair.
73. **Week with Gandhi**, A (1942), a small but interesting book by Louis Fisher (American), about his meeting with Gandhiji at Sewagram and discussions on the Indian political deadlock of the day.
74. **Work, Wealth and Happiness of Mankind** (1932), a thought-provoking book by Wells.
75. **World Crisis**, The (1923-9), a searching analysis of post-war crisis (in 4 vols.) by Winston Churchill.
76. **Yogi and the Commissar**, by Arthur Koestler.

SOME VERY RECENT PUBLICATIONS

1. **Ape and Essence** : Novel by A. Huxley.
2. **Catalina** : novel by Somerset Maugham.

3. **Diaries of Frauz Kafka, The** (Czech) : edited by Max Brod and translated by Joseph Kresh.
 4. **Discovery of India, The** : Jawahar Lal Nehru.
 5. **Headless Angel** : novel by Vicki Baum (German).
 6. **Heart of the Matter, The** : novel by Graham Greene.
 7. **Ides of March, The** : novel by Thornton Wilder, (American), on Caesar's life and death.
 8. **If it Die** : autobiography of Andre Gide (French), now being published in English.
 9. **Intruder in the Dust** : novel by William Faulkner (American).
 10. **Loved One, The** : a novel by Evelyn Waugh.
 11. **Naked and the Dead, The** : a war novel by Norman Mailer.
 12. **Peony** : novel about China by Pearl Buck (American).
 13. **Plague, The** : novel by Albert Camus, about German occupation.
 14. **Seven Faces of Love**. literary essays by Andre Maurois (French).
 15. **Silent Chilidern** : novel by Mai Mai Sze (Chinese).
 16. **Sleep Walkers, The** : a trilogy on pre-Hitlerite Germany by Hermann Broch (Austrian).
 17. **Then & Now**: historical novel by Somerset Maugham.
 18. **War Memoirs** (The Gathering Storm; Their Finest Hour): Winston Churchill.
 19. **World is a Wedding, The** : Delmore Schwartz (American).
 20. **World without Visa** : good novel on war time France by Jean Malaquais.
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8. GANDHIANA

(A select list of Books by Gandhiji and others on Gandhiji and Gandhism)

Gandhi, M. K :

1. *Christian Missions*, 1941, Navajivan Press, Ahmedabad.
2. *Constructive Programme*, 1941, Navajivan Press, Ahmedabad.
3. *Conquest of Self*, (compiled by R. K. Prabhu & U. R. Rao) 1943. Thacker & Co., Bombay.

4. *Cent per cent Swadeshi or the Economics of Village Industries*, 1938, Navajivan Press, Ahmedabad.
5. *Delhi Diary*, 1948, Navajivan Press, Ahmedabad.
6. *Economics of Khadi*, 1941, Navajivan Press, Ahmedabad.
7. *Ethical Religion*, 1930, S. Ganesan, Madras.
8. *From Yeravda Mandir*, 1937, Navajivan Press, Ahmedabad.
9. *Gandhi Series* (Edited and published by A. T. Hingorani, Karachi).
 - (i) *To the Students*, 1935.
 - (ii) *To the Women*, 1941.
 - (iii) *To the Hindus and the Muslims*, 1942.
 - (iv) *To the Princes and their People*, 1942.
 - (v) *Our Language Problem*, 1942.
 - (vi) *My Appeal to the British*, 1942.
10. *Gandhi's Correspondence with the Government* (1942-1944), 1945, Navajivan Press, Ahmedabad.
11. *Gita the Mother* (Edited by Jag Parvesh Chander) 1932, Lahore.
12. *A Guide to Health*, 1921, S. Ganesan, Madras.
13. *Hind Swaraj*, 1938, Navajivan Press, Ahmedabad.
14. *Hindu Muslim Tension*, 1924, Navajivan Press, Ahmedabad.
15. *Indian States Problem*, 1941, Navajivan Press, Ahmedabad.
16. *Jail Experiences*, 1922, Tagore and Co. Madras.
17. *My Early Life* (Edited by Mahadev Desai) 1932, Oxford University Press, Bombay.
18. *My Soul's Agony*, 1932, Navajivan Press, Ahmedabad.
19. *Nation's Voice* (Edited by C. Rajgopalachariar and J. C. Kumarappa) 1931, Navajivan Press, Ahmedabad.
20. *Non-Violence in Peace and War*, 1945, Navajivan Press, Ahmedabad.
21. *Quit India* (Edited by R. K. Prabhu and U. R. Rao), 1942, Padma Publications, Bombay.
22. *Rowlatt Bills and Satyagraha*, 1919, G. A. Natesan & Madras.
23. *Satyagraha in Gandhiji's Own Words* (1910-1935), All India Congress Committee, Allahabad.
24. *Satyagraha in South Africa*, 1928, S. Ganesan, Madras.
25. *Self-restraint Versus Self-indulgence*, Part I, 1930, Part II, 1939, Navajivan Press, Ahmedabad.

26. *Speeches and Writings*, 1933, G. A. Natesan & Co., Madras.
27. *The Story of My Experiments with Truth* Vol. I (1927), Vol. II (1927). One Vol. Edition 1940, Navajivan Press, Ahmedabad.
28. *Swadeshi, True and False*, 1939, Poona.
29. *Wheel of Fortune*, 1922, Ganesh & Co., Madras.
30. *Women and Social Injustice* 1942, Navajivan Press, Ahmedabad.
31. *Harijan*, 1938, 1940, 1942, Navajivan Press, Ahmedabad.
32. *Indian Opinion*, 1904-14 Natal.
33. *Young India*, 1919-32, Navajivan Press, Ahmedabad.

BOOKS ON GANDHIJI AND GANDHISM.

1. **Adhikari, G.** : *Gandhism—A Review*, 1940, Bombay.
2. **Andrews, C. F.** : *Mahatma Gandhi's Ideas*, 1929 ; *Mahatma Gandhi* ; *His Own Story*, 1930 ; *Mahatma Gandhi at Work*, 1931, all published by Allen & Unwin London.
3. **Athelye D. V.** : *Life of Mahatma Gandhi*, 1923, Swadeshi Publishing Co., Poona.
4. **Basu, Nirmal Kumar** : *Studies in Gandhism*, 1940, Indian Associated Pub. Co., Ltd.
5. **Dantwala, M. L.** : *Gandhism Reconsidered* 1944, Padma Publication Bombay.
6. **Desai, Mahadev** : *The Epic of Travancore*, 1937, Navajivan Press, Ahmedabad ; *Gandhiji in Indian Villages*, 1927 S. Ganesan Madras ; *The Story of Bardoli*, 1929, Navajivan Press Ahmedabad ; *With Gandhiji in Ceylon*, 1928, S. Ganesan Madras.
7. **Doke, Joseph J.** : *M. K. Gandhi*, 1909, C. A. Natesan & Co., Madras.
8. **Fielden, Lionel** : *Beggar My Neighbour*, 1943, Secker & Warburg, London.
9. **Fischer, Louis** : *A Week with Gandhi*, 1942, Duell, Sloan & Pearce, New York. *Gandhi and Stalin*, 1947.
10. **Fuellop-Mitler, Rev** : *Gandhi and Lenin*, 1930 Putnam, London : *Gandhi the Holy Man*, 1931, Putnam, London.
11. **George, S. K.** : *Gandhi's Challenge to Christianity*, 1939, Allen and Unwin, London.
12. **Gregg, Richard B.** : *A Discipline for Non-violence*, 1941, Navajivan Press, Allahabad : *Economics of Khaddar*, 1928, S. Ganesan, Madras : *The Power of Non-violence*, 1938, Navajivan Press. Ahmedabad : *The Psychology and Strategy of Non-violence* ; 1929 Madras.

13. **Homage to Bapu**, 1948, Government of India, New Delhi.
14. **Jayprakash Narayan**: *Gandhiji's Leadership & the Congress Socialist Party* 1940.
15. **Kripalani, J. B.** : *The Gandhian Way*, 1938, Vora & Co., Bombay.
16. **Krishnadas** : *Seven Months with Mahatma Gandhi*, 1928. S. Ganesan Madras.
17. **Lester, Muriel** : *Entertaining Gandhi*, 1932, Ivor Nicholson & Watson, London.
18. **Mashruwala, K. G.** : *Practical Non-violence*, 1941, Navajivan Press, Ahmedabad.
19. **Natesan, G. A.** . *Mahatma Gandhi : The Man and His Mission*, 1943 Madras.
20. **Pethick-Lawrence, Polack, Brailsford**—*Gandhi* (1949).
21. **Polak, Millie Graham** : *Mr. Gandhi ; The Man*, 1931, Allen and Unwin, London.
22. **Prabhu R. K. & Ram U. R.** : *The Mind of Mahatma Gandhi*, 1945, Oxford University Press, Bombay.
23. **Prasad Rajendra** : *Gandhi in Champaran*, 1928, S. Ganesan, Madras.
24. **Pyarelal** : *The Epic Fast*, 1932, Navajivan Press, Ahmedabad.
25. **Radha Krishnan, S.** : (Edited by), *Mahatma Gandhi : Essays and Reflections on His life and Work*, 1939, Allen and Unwin, London. *Commemoration Volume on Gandhiji's 75th birthday*.
26. **Reynolds, Reginald** : *India, Gandhi and World Peace*, 1931, London.
27. **Rolland, Romain** : *Mahatma Gandhi*, 1924, Allen and Unwin, London.
28. **Shridharani, K.** : *War without Violence*, 1939, Harcourt Brace & Co., New York. *Gandhi and the World*.
29. **Shukla, Chandra Shanker** : (Edited by), *Incidents of Gandhiji's Life* (1949), *Reminiscences of Gandhiji ; Conversations of Gandhiji ; Famous Interviews with Mahatma Gandhi* (under preparation) Vora & Co. Ltd., Bombay.
30. **Sitaramayya, Pattabhi** : *Gandhi and Gandhism*, Vols. I & II, 1924, Kitabistan, Allahabad.
31. **Spratt, P.** : *Gandhism an analysis*, 1939, Madras.
32. **Walker Roy**. : *The Wisdom of Gandhi* (1943), Andrew Dakers Ltd., London.

(For an exhaustive bibliography of Gandhi Literature see *Gandhiana*, recently published by Nav Jivan Press, Ahmedabad).

NEHRU LITERATURE.

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|---|---|---|---|
| 1. <i>Glimpses of World History</i> —(1934), Jawahar Lall Nehru
(Written in Prison) | | | |
| 2. <i>Letters to His Daughter</i> — | „ | „ | „ |
| 3. <i>Autobiography</i> —(1936)
(Written in Prison) | „ | „ | „ |
| 4. <i>The Discovery of India</i> —(1935)
(Written in Ahmadnagar Prison) | „ | „ | „ |
| 5. <i>The Unity of India</i> —
(A collection of miscellaneous essays) | „ | „ | „ |
| 6. <i>Independence and After</i> —(1949)
(Speeches from Sep. 1945 to May 1949) | „ | „ | „ |
| 7. <i>Nehru on Gandhi</i> —(1949)
(An anthology of his speeches and
writings on Gandhiji) | „ | „ | „ |
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9. FAMOUS CHARACTERS IN LITERATURE
AND LEGEND

1. **Adam**—The old servant of Orlando in Shakespeare's *As You Like It*; symbol of loyal and devoted service.
2. **Adams, Parson**—A country curate in H. Fielding's *Joseph Andrews*; the prototype of a simple-minded, pious person, utterly ignorant of the world.
3. **Ahab, Captain**—A character in Herman Melville's novel *Moby Dick*.
4. **Aladdin**—A well-known character in the *Arabian Nights*, in possession of the magic ring and lamp.
5. **Ali Baba**—The hero of the story of the *Forty Thieves*. His phrase 'Open Sesame' is well-known.
6. **Alice**—A little girl in *Alice in Wonderland* and Through the *Looking Glass* (Lewis Carrol), who, by falling down a rabbit hole, reaches a strange land full of curious men and beasts.
7. **Almayer**—An Englishman in Malaya, hero of Conrad's novel *Almayer's Folly*.
8. **Amelia**—The heroine of Fielding's novel of the same name and also one of the principal female characters in Thackeray's *Vanity Fair*.

9. Ancient Mariner—The hero of S.T. Coleridge's poem of the same name, who brings a curse on himself and his shipmates by shooting the Albatross.

10. Antonio—The name of the merchant in Shakespeare's *Merchant of Venice*, who stands a trial for 'a pound of flesh' demanded by Shylock, the Jew.

11. Ariel—A spirit who obeys the commands of Prospero in Shakespeare's *Tempest*.

12. Artful Dodger, The—nickname given to the young pickpocket, Jack Dawkins, the apt pupil of Fagin the Jew, in Dickens's *Oliver Twist*.

13. Ashton, Lucy—The heroine of Scott's *Bride of Lammermoor*. Though in love with Edgar, Master of Ravenswood, she is married to the Laird of Bucklaw, whom she subsequently murders.

14. Athos, Porthos, and Aramis—The 'Thrice Musketeer's' in Alexander Dumas' novel of that name.

15. Babbitt—The central character in Lewis Sinclair's novel of that name, the type of a self-satisfied unscrupulous modern business man. Babbitt (who has given rise to the term 'Babbitry') is one of the major creations of contemporary literature.

16. Backbite, Sir Benjamin—A conceited and spiteful scoundalmonger in Sheridan's *School for Scandal*.

17. Baines, Constance and Sophia—The two sisters, heroines of A. Bennett's novel *Old Wives' Tale*.

18. Barkis—A carrier in Dickens's *David Copperfield*, who proposes to David's nurse Peggotty in the famous phrase 'Barkis is willin'.

19. Bassanio—A principal character in Shakespeare's *Merchant of Venice*, who marries Portia with money borrowed from Antonio.

20. Beatrice—The heroine of Shakespeare's *Much Ado About Nothing*; also the beloved of the poet Dante and inspiration of his *Divine Comedy*.

21. Beau Tibbs—A vain, foppish but hard-up character in Goldsmith's *Citizen of the World*.

22. Bede, Adam—The hero of George Eliot's novel of that name, a straightforward and manly village carpenter.

23. Bedivere, Sir—One of King Arthur's Knights of the Round Table, the last who remained with him at his death and who threw his famous sword Excalibur into the lake. He appears in Tennyson's *Morte D' Arthur*.

24. Belch, Sir Toby—A jolly drunkard, the uncle of Olivia, in Shakespeare's *Twelfth Night*, who plays on the folly of Sir Andrew Aguecheek.

25. **Benedick**—The chief character in Shakespeare's *Much Ado About Nothing*, who, after a series of witty contests with Beatrice, marries her.

26. **Ben Hur**—The Jewish hero of Lew Wallace's famous novel of the same name.

27. **Bennet, Elizabeth**—The heroine of Jane Austen's novel *Pride and Prejudice*.

28. **Bobadil, Captain**—A cowardly braggart in Ben Jonson's *Every Man in his Humour*.

29. **Bottom, Nick**—The Athenian weaver, the chief comic character in Shakespeare's *Midsummer Night's Dream*. His head is changed into that of an ass and in that condition, the fairy queen Titania falls in love with him.

30. **Bovary, Emma**—The romantic heroine of G. Flaubert's novel *Madame Bovary*. She ruins herself by leading a life of infidelity and extravagance.

31. **Bridehead, Sue**—The heroine of Hardy's novel *Jude the Obscure*.

32. **Brobdignag**—The country of the giants in Swift's *Gulliver's Travels*. The term is sometimes used for the giants themselves.

33. **Brown, Father**—The Roman Catholic priest in Chesterton's *Wisdom of Father Brown*. His hobby is criminology.

34. **Brown, Tom**—Typical English School boy, the hero of Thomas Hughe's story *Tom Brown's School Days*. He appears later as a youth in *Tom Brown at Oxford*.

35. **Brutus, Marcus**—A Roman patriot, one of the principal figures in Shakespeare's *Julius Caesar*.

36. **Bull, John**—The English nation personified, first in Arbuthnot's political satire *'The History of John Bull'* and then in Washington Irving's Essay entitled *John Bull*. The term Uncle Sam, as his U. S. counterpart derives from the initials U. S. A.

37. **Bumble**—The celebrated pompous, self-important and tyrannical beadle in Dicken's *Oliver Twist*.

38. **Buzfuz Serjeant**—A fussy, conceited lawyer counsel for Mrs. Bardell in her breach of promise action against Pickwick in Dickens's *Pickwick papers*.

39. **Caliban**—A mis-shapen brutal and malignant monster in Shakespeare's *Tempest*, who is the servant of Prospero.

40. **Candida**—The wife of Morell in Shaw's *Candida*.

41. **Candide**—A stoic, optimistic person, the hero of Voltaire's novel *Candide*.

42. **Carton, Sydney**—The hero of Dicken's *Tale of Two Cities*, whose love for Lucy Manette prompts him to be hanged in place of her lover.
43. **Cassim**—Ali Baba's brother in *Arabian Nights*.
44. **Cassio**—A Florentine lieutenant, whom Othello suspects to be in love with Desdemona in Shakespeare's tragedy *Othello*.
45. **Cassius**—One of the chief conspirators in Shakespeare's *Julius Caesar*.
46. **Celia**—The daughter of the usurping Duke in Shakespeare's *As you Like It* and cousin and friend of the heroine Rosalind.
47. **Chadband, The Rev. Mr.**—A hypocritical clergyman in Dickens's *Bleak House*.
48. **Chatterly, Lady**—A woman of passionate nature, the heroine of D. H. Lawrence's sensational novel *Lady Chatterley's Lover*.
49. **Cheeryble, Edwin and Charles**—Two brothers in Dicken's *Nicholas Nickleby*, known as the personification of benevolence in business.
50. **Childe Harold**—The hero of Byron's famous poem of the same name.
51. **Christian**—An allegorical character, the hero of Bunyan's *Pilgrim's Progress*.
52. **Christopher Robin**—The little boy whose adventures in the nursery with his toys from the theme of poems and stories by A. A. Milne in *When we Were Very Young*.
53. **Chuzzlewit, Martin**—The hero of Dickens's novel of that name. Jones and Martin, the elder, are other members of the same family.
54. **Clare, Angel**—The hero of Hardy's *Tess D'Urbervilles* who deserts Tess on knowing her past affair with Alec and tries to reclaim her only when it is too late.
55. **Claudius**—King of Denmark in Shakespeare's *Hamlet*. He murders Hamlet's father and marries his mother, Gertrude.
56. **Cleopatra**—The queen of Egypt and heroine of Shakespeare's *Antony and Cleopatra*.
57. **Clinker, Humphrey**—The hero of the Smollett's novel *Humphrey Clinker*.
58. **Copperfield, David**—The hero of Dickens's novel of the same name, largely modelled on the author himself.
59. **Cordelia**—The youngest daughter of King Lear, the symbol of unselfish love and devotion, in Shakespeare's tragedy *King Lear*.

60. **Coverley, Sir Roger de**—An old knight and country gentleman drawn by Stelle and Addison in the *Spectator*.
61. **Crawley, Sir Pitt, Pitt and Rawdon**—Members of an aristocratic and degenerate family in Thackeray's *Vanity Fair*. Rawdon Crawley marries Becky Sharpe.
62. **Cuttle, Captain**—Old one-armed ship Captain in Dickens's *Dombey and Son*, who frequently uses the phrase "when found make a note of it."
63. **Cymbeline**—A legendary King of England in Shakespeare's play of that name.
64. **Darcy, Fitzwilliam**—A principal character in Jane Austen's *Pride and Prejudice*, in love with Elizabeth Sennett.
65. **D'Artagnan**—A brilliant and witty swordsman and adventurer, the hero of Alexander Dumas's novels, *The Three Musketeers* and *Twenty Years after*.
66. **Deans, Jeanie and Effie**—Two sisters, the heroines of Scott's *Heart of Midlothian*. Jeanie trudges all the way to London to secure pardon for Effie, accused of child-murder.
67. **D'Urberville, Alec**—The villain who seduces Tess in Hardy's novel *Tess D'Urbervilles*.
68. **Defarge, Madame**—A strong-willed woman, a prominent character in Dickens's *Tale of Two Cities*.
69. **Desdemona**—The heroine of Shakespeare's *Othello*, killed by her husband Othello, who was led by Iago to suspect her fidelity.
70. **Dick, Mr.**—A kindly half-witted gentleman who is prevented from drawing up a memorial by his inability to avoid a reference to the head of King Charles I.
71. **Dishart, Gavin**—The hero of J. M. Barrie's play *Little Minister*.
72. **Dobbin William**—A shy, awkward young man in Thackeray's *Vanity Fair*, who eventually marries Amelia Sedley.
73. **Dodson and Fogg**—The pettifogging lawyers who carried on the breach of promise action against Mr. Pickwick in Dickens's *Pickwick Papers*.
74. **Dogberry and Verges**—Two amusing and talkative constables in Shakespeare's *Much Ado About Nothing*.
75. **Dombey, Mr.**—A self-conceited, money-loving and cruel merchant in Dickens's *Dombey and Son*.
76. **Don Quixote**—A crazy knight, the hero of Cervantes' romance of the same name.
77. **Doone, Lorna**—The heroine of R. D. Blackmore's novel of that name.

78. **Drummond, Bulldog**—Amateur criminal investigator created by Sapper (H. C. McNeile) in his series of detective novels beginning with *Bulldog Drummond*.
79. **Durward, Quentin**—The hero of Scott's novel of the same name.
80. **Esmeralda**—The beautiful gipsy dancer in Victor Hugo's *Hunchback of Notre Dame*.
81. **Esmond, Beatrix**—The dazzlingly beautiful heroine of Thackeray's *Henry Esmond*. The hero of the novel, Henry Esmond, loves her unsuccessfully.
82. **Estella**—The beautiful, heartless heroine of Dicken's *Great Expectations*, loved by Pip.
83. **Everdene, Bathsheba**—The heroine of Hardy's *Far From the Madding Crowd*.
84. **Eyre, Jane**—The heroine of Charlotte Bronte's novel of the same name.
85. **Fagin**—The despicable old Jew, receiver of stolen goods in Dickens's *Oliver Twist*. He trains boys to steal.
86. **Falstaff, Sir John**—The 'fat knight', the finest comic character drawn by Shakespeare, appearing in *Henry IV*. Parts I & II and the *Merry Wives of Windsor*.
87. **Faust**—The hero of Goethe's famous dramatic poem of that name. He appears as Dr. Faustus in Marlow's tragedy of the same name. He is believed to have sold his soul to the Devil.
88. **Ferdinand**—A principal character in Shakespeare's *Tempest* who marries Miranda, Prospero's daughter.
89. **Feverel, Richard**—The romantic young hero of Meredith's novel *Ordeal of Richard Feverel*.
90. **Flanders, Moll**—A notorious harlot and jailbird and criminal, the heroine of Defoe's novel of the same name.
91. **Forsyte The**—The family drawn by John Galsworthy in his trilogy *Forsyte Saga*. The chief member is Soames Forsyte.
92. **Frankenstein**—A student of physiology in Mrs. Shelley's romance of the same name, who constructs a hideous monster that leads to its creator's death.
93. **Friday, Man**—A savage in Defoe's *Robinson Crusoe*, who becomes servant to Crusoe.
94. **Galahad, Sir**—One of the knights of King Arthur's Round Table, celebrated for his chastity.
95. **Gamp, Mrs. Sarah**—A large and talkative nurse in Dickens's *Martin Chuzzlewit*, given to drink and always carrying a big baggy umbrella.

96. **Gargantua**—A giant with a huge appetite and unquenchable thirst in a romance of the same name by Rabelais.
97. **Giant Despair**—A formidable giant in Bunyan's *Pilgrim's Progress*, who lived in Doubting Castle and captured Christian.
98. **Gil Blas**—The adventurer hero of Le Sage's novel of Spanish gay life.
99. **Gilpin John**—A London merchant whose famous breakneck ride on horseback is described in Cowper's humorous poem of the same name.
100. **Gobbo, Launcelot**—An amusing clown in Shakespeare's *Merchant of Venice*, at one time servant to Shylock.
101. **Goneril**—The eldest wicked daughter of Lear, who along with her equally wicked sister, Regan, treats her father most cruelly in Shakespeare's tragedy *King Lear*.
102. **Gradgrind, Thomas**—A calculating, uncharitable dealer in hardware, the leading character in Dickens's *Hard Times*.
103. **Grandison, Sir Charles**—The hero of Richardson's novel of that name.
104. **Gray, Dorian**—A handsome, accomplished sensualist in Oscar Wilde's *Picture of Dorian Gray*.
105. **Greatheart**—In Bunyan's *Pilgrim's Progress* he is the guide of Christiana and her children to the Celestial City.
106. **Grieselda**—The heroine of one of Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales*, personification of meekness, virtue and long suffering.
107. **Grundy, Mrs.**—A farmer's wife frequently spoken of by Mrs. Ashfield, another farmer's wife, in Morton's comedy, *Speed the Plough* (1798). She stands for conventional propriety.
108. **Guinevere**—The wife of King Arthur, notorious for her illegitimate love for Sir Launcelot. She appears in Arthurian legends and Tennyson's *Idylls of the King*.
109. **Gulliver, Lemuel**—The hero of Swift's famous *Gulliver's Travels*.
110. **Hamlet**—Prince of Denmark and hero of Shakespeare's *Hamlet*. In avenging the murder of his father, he loses his own life and causes the deaths of several other characters. He is the personification of excessive reflection leading to inaction.
111. **Hardcastle, Mr. Mrs. and Kate**—The family portrayed by Goldsmith in *She Stoops to Conquer*. Marlow mistakes their house for an inn and Kate stoops to conquer him.
112. **Harlowe, Clarissa**—The heroine of Richardson's novel of this name, a girl of great sweetness, beauty and moral dignity betrayed by her lover Lovelace, the rake.
113. **Harrington, Evan**—A tailor, the hero of Meredith's novel of that name.

114. **Harris, Mrs.**—The imaginary friend of Mrs. Gamp in Dickens's *Martin Chuzzlewit*.

115. **Hastings**—The lover of Miss Neville in Goldsmith's *She Stoops to Conquer*.

116. **Havisham Miss**—An old spinster, full of spite against men on account of her lover's infidelity in Dicken's *Great Expectations*.

117. **Hawkins, Jim**—The hero of Stevenson's *Treasure Island*.

118. **Heathcliff**—A gipsy boy, the central figure of Emily Bronte's *Wuthering Heights*.

119. **Heep, Uriah**—The flattering, mean clerk of Mr. Wickfield in Dickens's *David Copperfield*, always emphasising his "humbleness" though plotting to ruin his employer and marry his daughter Agnes.

120. **Henchard, Michael**—A great tragic character, the hero of Hardy's *Mayor of Casterbridge*.

121. **Heron, Irene**—The wife of Soames Forsyte in Galsworthy's *Forsyte Saga*.

122. **Herries, The**—The family drawn by Hugh Walpole in *Herries Saga*.

123. **Hiawatha**—Traditional figure in the folk-lore of the North American Indians, the hero of Longfellow's poem of the same name.

124. **Holmes, Sherlock**—A. Conan Doyle's famous detective, the hero of *The Adventures of Sherlock Holmes*.

125. **Hook, Captain**—The pirate chief, pursued by a crocodile, in J. M. Barrie's *Peter Pan*.

126. **Horatio**—The devoted friend of the Prince in Shakespeare's *Hamlet*.

127. **Houyhnhnms**. The Race of wonderful horses in Swift's *Gulliver's Travels*.

128. **Hyde, Mr.**—The baser half of the dual personality of Dr. Jekyll in Stevenson's *The Strange case of Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde*.

129. **Iachimo**—An Italian villain in Shakespeare's *Cymbeline* who leads Posthumous to believe that his wife Imogen has been unfaithful to him.

130. **Lago**—The notorious villain in Shakespeare's *Othello* who persuades Othello of Desdemona's unfaithfulness.

131. **Imogen**—The unhappy wife of Posthumous in Shakespeare's *Cymbeline*.

132. **Iseult or Isolde**—A legendary beauty for whose love Tristram dies of grief. She appears in poems by Tennyson, Arnold and Swinburne.

133. **Ivanhoe**—The favourite knight of Richard the Lion-hearted and hero of Scott's *Ivanhoe*.
134. **Jacques**—A melancholy, and contemplative lord in Shakespeare's *As You Like It*.
135. **Jarvie, Bailie Nicol**—A Glasgow magistrate in Scott's *Rob Roy*, an admirably humorous character.
136. **Jeeves**—The perfect man servant in P.G. Wodehouse's series of *Jeeves* novels.
137. **Jekyll, Dr.**—The brilliant and noble doctor in Stevenson's *Strange Case of Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde*, who under the influence of a drug changes his personality and becomes the criminal and dissolute Mr. Hyde, and ultimately commits suicide.
138. **Jessica**—The daughter of Shylock who elopes with and marries Lorenzo in Shakespeare's *Merchant of Venice*.
139. **Jim, Lord**—A young Englishman, the hero of J. Conrad's novel of the same name.
140. **Jones, Tom**—The manly, good-hearted but dissipated hero of Fielding's *Tom Jones*.
141. **Jude, Fawley**—The central figure of Hardy's tragic novel *Jude the Obscure*.
142. **Juliet**—The heroine of Shakespeare's famous tragedy *Romeo and Juliet*.
143. **Karenina, Anna**—The heroine of Tolstoy's novel of the same name. She is a beautiful passionate woman, who forsakes her husband for her paramour Vronsky and eventually commits suicide.
144. **Kim**—An orphan boy of an Irish soldier, the hero of Kipling's novel of the same name.
145. **Kipps**—The hero of Wells's novel of that title.
146. **Lady of the Lake, The**—A beautiful enchantress in Tennyson's *Idylls of the King*; also the heroine, named Ellen, of Scott's poem of the same title.
147. **Lady of Shalott, The**—The beautiful maiden in Tennyson's poem of the same name, who brings a curse upon herself by looking at Sir Lancelot.
148. **Lalla Rookh**—The heroine of Moore's poem of the same name, represented as the daughter of the emperor Aurangzeb and as going to Kashmir to marry the king of Bukhara.
149. **Lancelot Sir**,—The most famous of King Arthur's knights with whom Guinevere falls in love.
150. **Languish Lydia**—A very romantic young lady, the heroine of Sheridan's comedy *The Rivals*.
151. **Lear, King**—The hero of Shakespeare's tragedy of the same title.

152. **Little Dorrit**—The heroine of a novel of the same name by Dickens, remarkable for her diminutive size and largeness of heart.
153. **Little Nell**—The child heroine of Dicken's *Old Curiosity Shop*, who dies a pathetic death.
154. **Lochinvar**—The hero of a ballad by Scott, who snatches his love from the feast on the eve of her marriage to a rival.
155. **Lovelace, Robert**—The handsome but heartless liberating hero of Richardson's *Clarissa Harlowe*.
156. **Lumpkin, Tony**—An ignorant, idle, mischievous but good-natured young man in Goldsmith's *She Stoops to Conquer*.
157. **Mab**—The fairy queen who appears throughout English poetry from Ben Jonson to Shelley.
158. **Macbeth**—An ambitious Scottish thane, the hero of Shakespeare's tragedy of the same title. He murders King Duncan, but is later killed by Macduff. His wife Lady Macbeth is another principal character in the play.
159. **Mad Hatter, The**—An amusing character encountered by Alice in Lewis Carroll's *Alice in Wonderland*.
160. **Malaprop, Mrs.**—A lady in Sheridan's comedy *The Rivals*, notorious for misusing words ; hence the term "malapropism."
161. **Malvolio**—The pompous and conceited steward of Olivia in Shakespeare's *Twelfth Night*. Sir Toby Belch and his companions lead him to believe that he is loved by Olivia.
162. **Manette, Dr.**—A prisoner in the Bastille in *A Tale of Two Cities* by Dickens. Lucie Manette, his daughter, is the heroine of the novel.
163. **Markheim**—The hero of Stevenson's short story of that name.
164. **Marmion**—The hero of Scott's poem *Marmion*, celebrating the Battle of Flodden.
165. **Mariner, Silas**—The hero of G. Eliot's novel of the same name.
- 166.—**Mephistopheles**—The demon attendant upon Faust in Goethe's *Faust* and in *Dr. Faustus* by Marlow.
167. **Merion, Diana**—The wife of Augustus Redworth, heroine of Meredith's *Diana of the Crossway*.
168. **Merlin**—The famous magician of the legends connected with King Arthur.
169. **Micawber, Mr. Wilkins**—A humorous character in Dickens's *David Copperfield*, given to high-flown language, fond of good living, extremely improvident but generally optimistic and waiting for 'something to turn up'.

170. **Miranda**—The daughter of Prospero and heroine of Shakespeare's *Tempest*.

171. **Mowgli**—The hero of Kipling's *Jungle Book*. He is a little Hindu boy, who lives with the animals and has learnt their language.

172. **Nemo, Captain**—The captain and navigator of a mysterious ship the Nautilus in Jules Verne's *Twenty Thousand Leagues Under the Sea*.

173. **Newcome, Colonel**—An exemplary character in Thackeray's *New-comers*, who maintains his upright character in spite of his fortune.

174. **Nickleby, Nicholas**—The hero of Dickens's novel of the same title.

175. **Oberon**—The King of the fairies in Shakespeare's *Midsummer Night's Dream*.

176. **Old Bill**—Type of humorous soldier in Great War journalism, drawn by Bruce Bairnsfather in his sketches and cartoons.

177. **Olivia**—A principal female character in Shakespeare's *Twelfth Night*. She falls in love with Viola who is in male guise.

178. **Ophelia**—The heroine beloved by the Prince of Denmark in Shakespeare's *Hamlet*.

179. **Orlando**—A noble youth who loves Rosalind, the heroine of Shakespeare's *As you Like It*.

180. **Othello**—The Moor in Shakespeare's *Othello* who kills his wife Desdemona for her suspected infidelity.

181. **Pamela**—A virtuous servant-maid, the heroine of novel of the same title.

182. **Pantagruel**—An enormous giant, the boisterous hero of Rabelais's *Gargantua and Pantagruel*.

183. **Panza, Sancho**—The loyal squire of Don Quixote in Cervantes romance *Don Quixote*.

184. **Patterne, Sir Willoughby**—A perfect egotist, the hero of Meredith's novel *The Egoist*.

185. **Pecksniff, Mr.**—A hypocritical rogue in Dickens's *Martin Chuzzlewit*; the personification of hypocrisy.

186. **Peggotty, Clara**—David's nurse who marries Barkis in Dickens's *David Copperfield*.

187. **Pendennis, Arthur**—A youth, the hero of Thackeray's novel *Pendennis*, partly modelled on the author himself.

188. **Peregrine Pickle**—A dissolute, vulgar and hot-headed practical joker, the hero of Smollett's *Adventures of Peregrine Pickle*.

189. **Peter Pan**—The boy who will not grow up in J. M. Barrie's *Peter Pan*.
190. **Pickwick, Samuel**—Fat, genial president of the Pickwick club, the central figure in Dickens's *Pickwick Papers*.
191. **Podsnap**—A character in Dickens's *Our Mutual Friend*, the type of self-satisfaction and self-importance.
192. **Poirot Hercule**—A clever detective in Mrs. Agatha Christie's crime novels.
193. **Polly, Alfred**—The owner of a haberdashery shop and hero of Wells's *History of Mr. Polly*.
194. **Ponderevo, Edward**—An ambitious chemist who pushes the sale of a quack drug in *Tono Bungay* by Wells.
195. **Portia**—A rich heiress in Shakespeare's *Merchant of Venice*, who marries Bassanio and saves his friend Antonio by giving judgement against Shylock.
196. **Primrose Dr.**—The vicar in Goldsmith's famous *Vikar of Wakefield*, a good and simple man with amiable weaknesses and vanities.
197. **Prospero**—The magician and exiled Duke of Milan in Shakespeare's *Tempest*.
198. **Puck**—A mischievous spirit of English fairy-legend who appears in Shakespeare's *Midsummer Night's Dream* and Kipling's *Puck of Pook's Hill*.
199. **Quasimodo**—The one-eyed hunchback bell-ringer in Hugo's *Hunch-back of Notre Dame*.
200. **Quatermain, Allan**—The hunter hero of several of Rider Haggard's novels, including *King Solomon's Mines*.
201. **Quickley, Mistress**—The hostess of a tavern frequented by Falstaff. She appears in Shakespeare's *Henry IV*, *Henry V* and *The Merry Wives of Windsor*.
202. **Random, Roderick**—A sensual, selfish scottish adventurer, the hero of Smollett's novel of the same name.
203. **Rasselas**—A prince of Abyssinia, the hero of Dr. Johnson's moral tale *Rasselas*.
204. **Reeder, J.G.**—A detective-inspector of Scotland yard, the central figure in many of Edgar Wallace's "thrillers."
205. **Reynard the Fox**—The hero of John Masefield's poem of the same name.
206. **Rip Van Winkle**—The hero of W. Irving's famous tale of the same name.
207. **Romeo**—The hero of Shakespeare's tragedy *Romeo and Juliet*.
208. **Rosalind**—The beautiful daughter of the exiled Duke and heroine in *As You Like It* by Shakespeare.

209. **Sawyer, Bob**—A young doctor, often nicknamed “Sawbones” in Dickens’s *Pickwick Papers*.
210. **Sawyer, Tom**—The mischievous and lovable hero of Mark Twain’s novel *Tom Sawyer*.
211. **Scheherazade**—The bride of the Caliph who saves her life by telling the endless series of stories known as *Arabian Nights*.
212. **Shandy, Tristram**—The hero of Sterne’s novel of the same title.
213. **Sharp, Rebecca (Becky)**—The beautiful, unscrupulous adventuress in Thackeray’s *Vanity Fair*.
214. **She**—A mystical African queen and priestess, the central figure in Rider Haggard’s romance *She*.
215. **Shylock**—The famous Jew in Shakespeare’s *Merchant of Venice*, who insists on his ‘pound of flesh’ to be cut from Antonio’s body for the latter’s failure to repay in time his 3,000 ducats.
216. **Sindbad the Sailor**—A Bagdad merchant in *The Arabian Nights*.
217. **Squeers, Mr. Wackford**—The crafty, cruel and bogus schoolmaster of Dotheboys Hall in Dickens’s *Nicholas Nickleby*.
218. **Tarzan**—The hero of Edgar Rice Burrough’s *Tarzan of the Apes*. He is brought up by a she-ape, lives in the trees and becomes King of the jungle.
219. **Teazle, Lady**—The heroine of Sheridan’s *School for Scandal*, wife of Sir Peter Teazle, who is much her senior in years.
220. **Tess**—The tragic heroine of Hardy’s most famous novel, *Tess of the D’Urbervilles*. Desereted by her husband, she is compelled to go back to her former seducer Alec, whom she later on murders. She is hanged in the end.
221. **Titania**—The wife of Oberon and queen of the fairies in Shakespeare’s *Midsummer Night’s Dream*.
222. **Toby, Uncle**—The lovable, charitable, wounded old soldier in Sterne’s *Tristram Shandy*.
223. **Tom, Uncle**—The aged and venerable negro slave, hero of H. Beecher Stowe’s *Uncle Tom’s Cabin*.
224. **Topsy**—The mischievous slave girl of unknown parentage in *Uncle Tom’s Cabin*.
225. **Touchstone**—A wise and witty clown in Shakespeare’s *As You Like It*.
226. **Trilby**—The artist’s model and heroine of George du Maurier’s novel *Trilby*.

227. Tristram—One of the knights of King Arthur who falls in love with Iseult.

228. Trotwood, Betsy—The grand-aunt of David Copperfield in Dickens's novel of this name, sharp tongued, strong-willed but kind-hearted.

229. Troy, Francis—A sergeant and one of the three lovers of Bathsheba in Hardy's *Far From the Madding Crowd*.

230. Twist, Oliver—A poor orphan boy, brought up in a workhouse and thrown among thieves in London, the hero of Dickens's novel of that name.

231. Valjean, Jean—An ex-convict, the hero of Victor Hugo's *Les Misérables*.

232. Veronica, Ann—The daughter of Peter Stanley and heroine of Wells's novel of that name.

233. Viola—The chief heroine of Shakespeare's *Twelfth Night*; in love with Duke Orsino.

234. Vye, Eustacia—The beautiful heroine of Hardy's *Return of the Native*.

235. Watson, Doctor—The friend of Sherlock Holmes in Arthur Conan Doyle's detective stories.

236. Weller, Sam—A sharp-witted humorous Londoner, servant of Mr. Pickwick, one of the greatest creations of Charles Dickens.

237. Wendy—The sweetheart of Peter Pan and heroine of J. M. Barrie's play *Peter Pan*.

238. Wildeve, Demon—A principal character in Hardy's *Return of the Native*, who secretly makes love to the heroine Eustacia Vye.

239. Winkle, Mr. Nathaniel—One of the companions of Pickwick, who made a fool of himself in pretending to be a good skater.

240. Woodhouse, Emma—The heroine of Jane Austen's *Emma*, remarkable for her hobby of match-making.

241. Yeobright, Clym—The hero of Hardy's *Return of the Native*: The other members of the Yeobright family are Clym's mother and cousin Thomasin.

10. PERSONS AND PLACES IN THE BIBLE.

1. Abel—The younger son of Adam and Eve murdered by his elder brother Cain. (*Genesis II to IV.*).

2. Abigail—A beautiful woman of good understanding who by her strategy prevented David from taking bloody revenge against her husband, Nabal and his men. (*I. Sam. XXV. 3.*).

3. **Abraham**—The great patriarch and ancestor of the Jews (*Genesis*). “Resting in Abraham’s bosom,” (*Luke XVI. 22,*) refers to the repose of the faithful in death.

4. **Adam and Eve**—The first man and woman who came to live on earth, after being expelled from Eden.

5. **Babel**—The place in the plain of Shinar where men, in direct disobedience of God’s order, decided to build a city and tower, ‘whose top may reach unto heaven’. God thwarted their project by causing confusion in their tongues so that they could not understand one another and got scattered in different directions. ‘Babel’ means ‘confusion’ and the incident is commonly known as the confusion of tongues. (*Genesis XI, 1-9*).

6. **Beelzebub**—The prince of the devils.

7. **Benjamin**—The younger son of Jacob. The name is used for one’s best beloved child. ‘A Benjamin’s portion refers to a man’s receiving a large share of favour through the partiality of another.’ (*Genesis XXXVII & XXXIX*).

8. **Bethlehem**—A village of Judea where Jesus was born.

9. **Cain**—The elder son of Adam, who murdered his younger brother Abel. He is known as “the first murderer” and was condemned by God to be a fugitive and vagabond for the rest of his life. Hence the phrase “Cain’s curse.” (*Genesis IV*.)

10. **Daniel**—A prophet of the old Testament, who interpreted the writing on the wall at Belshazzar’s feast (*Daniel V.*) In the phrase “A Daniel come to Judgment” the name stands for a wise, honest judge.

11. **David**—The son of Jesse, known for killing a huge Philistine giant Goliath with only a sling and five stones. He became the second King of Israel. Also wrote Psalms and so is sometimes known as the Hebrew Psalmist. (*I Samuel XVI*).

12. **Delilah**—The faithless wife of Samson who betrayed the secret of her husband’s strength to his enemies the Philistines who captured and blinded him. Type of an unfaithful, treacherous woman (*Judges XVI. 17*).

13. **Eden**—The paradise created by God for Adam and Eve, who lost it after tasting the fruit of the forbidden Tree of Knowledge.

14. **Elijah and Elisha**—Two prophets of God among the Israelites. When Elijah rose to heaven, his mantle fell upon Elisha, who thereupon succeeded the former as prophet. Hence when one man succeeds another and follows the policy of his predecessor it is said that his predecessor’s mantle has fallen upon him. (*I Kings, XVII-XIX, XXI and II Kings, I-IX*).

15. **Esau**—The elder son of Isaac, frank, impetuous and passionate. His younger brother Jacob was cool-headed, selfish and cunning. One day Esau returning from the chase, utterly

exhausted and hungry, found Jacob preparing pottage (a kind of soup) and begged him to give him some of this. Jacob gave Esau the pottage only when the latter agreed to sell to him his birthright, i.e. the right of the eldest son to inherit a larger portion of his father's wealth. Hence "to sell one's birthright for a mess of pottage" is to throw up a great right for an insignificant gain. (*Genesis XXV, XXVII-XXXVII.*)

16. **Esther**—A beautiful Jewish woman, queen of the Persian King Ahasuerus of Babylon, who knelt before her husband in the court and successfully pleaded for sparing the lives of the Jews who were captives in the land. (*Esther*).

17. **Gibeonites**—A crafty tribe, conquered by the Israelites and condemned to live as 'hewers of wood and drawers of water', i. e. as servants or slaves. (*Joshua IX.*).

18. **Goliath**—See David.

19. **Israel**—Jewish name for Palestine.

20. **Jacob**—See Esau.

21. **Jeremiah**—The Hebrew prophet of the Old Testament who lamented the sins and follies of his countrymen, their captivity and the ruin of his country. Hence his name stands for a doleful prophet (*Lamentations*).

22. **Jezebel**—A woman of loose morals, the wife of Ahab, whose wickedness brought evil upon the Kingdom of Israel (*Revelations II. 20*). The type of an immoral woman.

23. **Job**—The patriarch who lived in the land of Uz and who on account of calmly bearing his sufferings—the loss of his possessions, the death of his children, the boils on his body—has become the personification of patience. "A Job's comforter" is one who tries to comfort but really does no comfort at all. (*The Book of Job*).

24. **Joseph**—The most favourite son of Jacob. He was thrown into a pit by his jealous brothers, but one of them Reuben took him out and sold him as a slave to merchants who, in turn sold him to Potiphar in Egypt, where he suffered many hardships but eventually won his way by dint of his steady character. Years after, during a famine his brothers came to Egypt in search of grain which Joseph gave them. He also revealed his identity to his youngest brother Benjamin and called his parents to live with him. Joseph has come to stand for a person who cannot be deflected from the path of virtue by the severest temptation. (*Genesis XXXVII, XXXIX-L.*).

25. **Judas Iscariot**—One of the twelve disciples of Jesus, who betrayed his master with a kiss for thirty pieces of silver. His name is a synonym for an infamous traitor. "Judas Kiss" denotes outward courtesy which cloaks deceit. (*Matthew XXVII*).

26. **Laodicea**—A town in Asia Minor, the people of which were lukewarm in matters of religion. Hence a “Laodician policy” is a policy characterised by want of enthusiasm.

27. **Lazarus**—A poor, sickly, friendless beggar mentioned in one of Christ’s parables.

28. **Magdalene Mary**—One of the sinning women who turned over a new leaf and followed Christ. The name is now used for a reformed prostitute (*Luke VIII*).

29. **Mammon**—The Syrian or Chaldean god of riches and worldly possessions. Hence the phrase “Ye cannot serve God and Mammon” (*Matthews VI. 24*).

30. **Martha**—The type of the domestically preoccupied woman. (*Luke X* 39-42).

31. **Methuselah**—A patriarch whose days “were nine hundred sixty and nine years”, the oldest man mentioned in the Bible. Hence he is the yardstick of old age (*Genesis V.*).

32. **Moloch or Molech**—The god of the Ammonites who burnt their children in his honour. (*Leviticus XVIII. 21* and *2 Kings XIII. 10*). The name is applied to any fiercely destructive person or state, war, or mob rule etc.

33. **Moses**—The greatest of the Hebrew law-givers and prophets. He delivered the Israelites from the oppression of the Egyptians and brought them to the peninsula of Sinai and thence to the bank of Jordon beyond which lay Palestine, the promised land, flowing with milk and honey. Wrote the first five books of the Bible. Lived about 1500 B. C. (*Exodus, Leviticus*).

34. **Nebuchadnezzar**—A great King of Babylon who destroyed Jerusalem and persecuted Jews, but when three Jewish youths, whom he got thrust into a terribly hot furnace, came out unscathed, his hostility towards the Jews and their God was changed into respect and devotion. (*Daniel II & III*).

35. **Noah**—A patriarch who constructed a great Ark and saved humanity and other living beings from utter destruction during the Great Flood.

36. **Paul**—A cruel Jew of the Pharisee sect, who persecuted early Christians but later on, a divine miracle brought about a complete change of heart in him and he became a great Christian apostle (*Acts of the Apostles VIII*).

37. **Pharisee**—A Jewish sect which considered itself holier than others, but its holiness consisted in mere outward conformity to rule. Hence a ‘pharisee’ is synonymous with a hypocritical formalist in religious matters.

38. **Philistines**—A Jewish sect, notorious for love of wealth and materialistic possessions. Now the term stands for ignorant, ill-behaved people, lacking in liberal culture.

39. **Pilate**—Roman Governor in Judea, who had to yield to the popular will and order the crucifixion of Christ (*Matthew XXVI*).

40. **Samaritan**—Member of a community who lived in Samaria, Palestine. Samaritans were kind-hearted, helpful and pious but the Jews hated them. For the parable of the Good Samaritan see *Luke X 30-37*. The term is now used for a philanthropist who comes to the succour of the poor and the needy.

41. **Solomon**—The son of David and King of Israel. Renowned for great wisdom. Also possessed great riches. Regarded as the author of the three books of the Old Testament, including the *Song of Solomon*. (I Kings I and onward).

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11. A GLIMPSE OF CLASSICAL MYTHOLOGY

1. **Achilles**—The chief Greek hero in the Trojan war; slew Hector, but was himself slain by Paris, who wounded him in the right heel, the only vulnerable point in his body. The phrase “Achilles’ heel” stands for a person’s or nation’s only weak point.

2. **Adonis**—A beautiful Greek youth beloved by Venus and killed by a wild boar.

3. **Aegis**—The shield of Jupiter, bearing the Gorgon’s head in the centre.

4. **Aeneas**—A Trojan prince, the hero of Virgil’s epic *Aeneid*.

5. **Aeolus**—God of the winds among the Greeks and Romans.

6. **Agamemnon**—Leader of the Greeks in the Trojan war.

7. **Ajax**—A Greek warrior in the Trojan War, who became distracted with passion and stabbed himself to death when the armour of Achilles was awarded to Ulysses.

8. **Alcestis**—Wife of Admetus, and gave herself up to death in his stead, but was restored to life by Hercules.

9. **Amazons**—A mythical race of warlike women, dwelling in Asia Minor.

10. **Ambrosia**—The food of the gods.

11. **Amphitrite**—The consort of the sea-god Neptune.

12. **Aphrodite**—The Greek name of Venus, the goddess of beauty.

13. **Apollo or Phoebus**—The Greek and Roman sun-god, patron of music, poetry and a symbol of health and manhood.

14. **Argo**—The ship in which Jason and the Argonauts sailed to bring the Golden Fleece from the island of Colchis.

15. **Argus**—The hundred-eyed guardian, used for a person who keeps a very keen and jealous watch.

16. **Artemis**—The Greek name of Diana.

17. **Atalanta**—A famous huntress of Greek myth, who determined to marry one who could defeat her in a race, the consequence of failure being the death of the suitor. She was defeated by Milanion, who dropped successively three golden apples, and thus led her to stop and pick them up.

18. **Athene**—The Greek goddess of wisdom, usually identified with the Roman Minerva ; also called Pallas Athene.

19. **Atlas**—In Greek myth, a Titan, who had to support the globe on his shoulders.

20. **Atropos**—One of the three Fates among the Greeks. It was she who cut the thread of life. The other two were Clotho and Lachesis.

21. **Aurora**—The goddess of dawn.

22. **Bacchus**—The Greek and Roman god of wine.

23. **Baucis and Philemon**—An aged and loving couple, whose humble dwelling was changed into a temple for their hospitable entertainment to Jupiter and Mercury ; while they themselves, in compliance with their wish to die together, were changed into two trees.

24. **Bellona**—The Roman goddess of war.

25. **Cadmus**—The founder of Thebes. He slew a dragon and sowed its teeth in the ground. The armed men who sprang up from them the first population of Thebes.

26. **Calliope**—The muse who presided over eloquence and epic poetry.

27. **Cassandra**—Daughter of King Priam of Troy. Possessed the power of prophecy, but owing to Apollo's curse, she was never believed.

28. **Centaurs**—A race of half-horses and half-men.

29. **Cerberus**—The many headed watch dog of Hades. 'A sop to Cerberus' means a bribe to placate a troublesome person.

30. **Ceres or Proserpine**—The Roman goddess of earth's produce and plenty.

31. **Charon**—The Greek and Roman god who ferried the souls of the dead across the Styx to Hades.

32. **Chimera**—A monster shaped like a lion in front, a dragon behind, and a goat in the middle. The word now stands for a bogey or fanciful conception.

33. **Circe**—A Greek sorceress, who turned the companions of Ulysses into swine for some time.

34. **Cupid**—The god of love for whom the Greek name is Eros.

35. **Cyclopes**—A race of shepherd giants with only one eye in the middle of the forehead.

36. **Cynthia**—A name for Diana, the moon goddess.

37. **Damocles**—A companion and flatterer of King Dionysius of Syracuse, who invited him (Damocles) to a banquet but hung by a single horse-hair a naked sword over his head, as a lesson that danger may overhang greatness and outward happiness. Hence the phrase “Damocles’s sword”.

38. **Damon and Pythias**—Two Greek youths whose names have become typical of friendship.

39. **Daphne**—A nymph who was changed into a laurel when being pursued by Apollo. The laurel thus became his favourite tree.

40. **Delphi**—Town in central Greece, famous for the temple and oracle of Apollo.

41. **Diana**—The Roman goddess, called Artemis by the Greeks, the sister of Apollo, and chaste virgin, goddess of hunting and of the moon.

42. **Dido**—The founder and queen of Carthage, who fell in love with Aeneas and killed herself when he deserted her.

43. **Diomedes**—A celebrated Greek warrior at the siege of Troy.

44. **Dionysius**—A Greek name of the god Bacchus.

45. **Echo**—A sportful nymph, who pined away for the love of Narcissus, until only her answering voice remained to perpetuate her name.

46. **Elysium**—The Greek name for a paradise for the blessed.

47. **Endymion**—A beautiful shepherd whom Diana lulled into a perpetual sleep on a mountain side and kissed him without knowledge.

48. **Eurydice**—The wife of Orpheus (*See Orpheus*).

49. **Furies or Eumenides**—Three hideous winged maidens who acted as avenging deities.

50. **Ganymede**—A beautiful Greek youth, who acted as Jupiter’s cup-bearer. The name is now facetiously used for a waiter or pot-boy.

51. **Golden Fleece**—The fleece of a famous ram hung in Colchis and guarded by a dragon. Jason carried it away. It is one of the most entrancing of Greek legends.

52. **Hades or Pluto**—The god of the underworld. ‘Hades’ is also the name of the infernal regions.

53. **Harpies**—Greedy monsters with female heads and long claws and wings, used by the gods for torturing mortals.

54. **Hebe**—The goddess of youth.

55. **Hecate**—The goddess of magic and witchcraft.

56. **Hector**—The noblest Trojan hero and warrior, described in the *Iliad*; slain by Achilles.

57. **Hecuba**—The wife of King Priam of Troy, and mother of Hector, Paris and Cassandra. After the fall of Troy and the death of her husband and sons, she was given to Ulysses as a slave. Some say she drowned herself in despair.

58. **Helen**—The wife of Menelaus, King of Sparta, the most beautiful woman of her time. She was carried off to Troy by Paris and thus caused the Trojan war.

59. **Hercules or Heracles**—The most famous Greek hero, a demi-god, son of Jupiter, celebrated for his twelve labours.

60. **Hermes**—Greek name for Mercury, the messenger of the gods, the inventor of the lyre, the god of commerce, and also of fraud and cunning.

61. **Hesperides**—Three nymphs who had charge of the tree which produced golden apples. Hercules fetched the apples by killing the dragon who guarded them.

62. **Hippocrene**—A fountain of the Muses in ancient Greece.

63. **Hyacinthus**—A beautiful youth, beloved by Appollo, by whom he was accidentally killed. From his blood sprang the flower hyacinth.

64. **Hydra**—A many-headed monster slain by Hercules.

65. **Hyperion**—One of the Titans; sometimes the name stands for the sun-god.

66. **Icarus**—He soared so high with his artificial wings that the sun melted them and he fell into the sea and was drowned.

67. **Ilium or Ilion**—A poetic name of Troy, whence the name of Homer’s epic *The Iliad*.

68. **Iris**—The goddess of the rainbow. (Eris is the goddess of jealousy).

69. **Janus**—A Roman god with two faces turning opposite ways.

70. **Jason**—The renowned Greek hero, the leader of the Argonauts who captured the Golden Fleece and married Medea.

71. **Juno**—The supreme Roman goddess and wife of Jupiter.

72. **Jupiter**—(Greek Zeus)—The Roman deity, king of the gods.

73. **Laocoön**—A Trojan priest who along with his two sons was killed by two enormous serpents, while opposing the entrance of the Greek wooden horse into Troy. The incident is represented in a very famous group of statuary.

74. **Leander**—A Greek youth of Abydos who used to swim the Hellespont to visit his beloved Hero, guided by a lamp which she hung out from a tower. The light being blown out one stormy night, Leander lost his way and was drowned, on discovering which Hero threw herself into the sea.

75. **Lethe**—A river of Hades, the waters of which the souls of the dead were required to taste in order to forget their past.

76. **Mars (Greek Ares)**—The Roman god of war.

77. **Medea**—The daughter of the King of Colchis, who fell in love with Jason and helped him to carry away the Golden Fleece.

78. **Menelaus**—The King of Sparta and husband of Helen who was carried away by Paris.

79. **Mercury**—(See Hermes).

80. **Midas**—The King of Phrygia, who obtained from the gods the gift of the golden touch and found it a curse. Apollo gave him an ass's ear's for deciding a musical contest against him.

81. **Minerva**—The goddess of wisdom, war and the liberal arts, was the daughter of Jupiter, from whose head she sprang full grown.

82. **Morpheus**—The Greek god of sleep and dreams. Hence the term 'morphia', a narcotic to deaden pain.

83. **Muses**—Nine goddesses presiding over the arts. The word museum is literally the home or seat of the Muses.

84. **Narcissus**—A Greek youth who fell in love with his own reflection in a fountain and pined away and died.

85. **Nemesis**—The Greek goddess of retribution or punishment.

86. **Neptune**—(Greek Poseidon)—The King of the sea, usually represented with a trident in his hand.

87. **Niobe**—A queen, whose fourteen children were all slain by Apollo and Diana and herself turned into stone, which in summer shed incessant tears. She is an accepted symbol of grief.

88. **Nymphs**—Female deities with whom the Greeks peopled the whole of nature.

89. **Oedipus**—The king of Thebes, who unknowingly killed his own father and married his mother, but on knowing his truth, put out his eyes and left Thebes as a poor wanderer. Hence the modern Freudian phrase "Oedipus complex."

90. **Olympus**—A mountain of ancient Greece, supposed to be the home of the gods.

91. **Orpheus**—A Greek musician who could charm beasts and make rocks and woods move to his songs. His wife Eurydice having died, he went to Hades, and his music so charmed Pluto that he allowed her to follow him, provided he did not look behind him till they had crossed the precincts of the nether world. But Orpheus was too impatient, looked behind and thus lost her for ever.

92. **Pan**—The god of shepherds, huntsmen and rural people.

93. **Pandora**—The first woman on earth, who, out of curiosity, opened a heavenly box and spread all kinds of troubles in the world.

94. **Paris**—The Trojan prince who carried away Helen.

95. **Parnassus**—A Greek mountain sacred to the Muses.

96. **Perseus**—Jupiter's son who cut off Medusa's head.

97. **Priam**—The King of Troy and husband of Hecuba. At the fall of Troy he was killed by the Greeks.

98. **Prometheus**—A Titan, who stole fire from heaven for men and taught them useful arts. For this he was tied to a rock, with an angle tearing at his ever-renewed liver, until Hercules came to his rescue.

99. **Proteus**—The old man of the sea and Neptune's servant, capable of assuming various shapes. Hence the term 'Protean' variable, versatile, full of shifts, disguises etc.

100. **Psyche**—An allegorical personification of the soul, a beautiful maiden loved by Cupid with whom she was united after a great many trials, owing to the jealousy of Cupid's mother Venus.

101. **Romulus**—The legendary founder and first king of Rome, the twin brother of Remus.

102. **Saturn**—The oldest divinity of Roman mythology. Said to have swallowed all his sons, except Jupiter, Pluto and Neptune, of whom the first overthrew him and became King of the heavens.

103. **Sibyls**—Women with the gift of prophecy ; now the term is used for any seductive and very old female fortuneteller.

104. **Sirens**—Sea nymphs who lured to death by their songs all who heard them.

105. **Sisyphus**—He was punished with having to roll uphill a huge rock, which as soon as it reached the top always rolled down again. Hence the phrase "Sisyphean labour" for an endless, heart-breaking toil.

106. **Styx**—The principal river of the Hades.

107. **Tantalus**—A son of Jupiter, who, for revealing the father's secrets was punished with a severe thirst and the water and fruits he saw close to his lips always receded from his grasp.

108. **Thisbe**—The maiden loved by Pyramus. Their secret love affair eventually ended in the tragic death of both.

109. **Titans**—A race of giants.

110. **Tithonus**—He was loved by Aurora, who secured him immortality but not eternal youth, so that in his old age he became a withered wretched figure. See Tennyson's beautiful poem on the subject.

111. **Ulysses of Odyssey**—The King of Ithaca, one of the Greek heroes of the Trojan war; husband of Penelope. His wanderings after the war form the subject of Homer's *Odyssey*.

112. **Venus**—(Greek Aphrodite)—The goddess of love and beauty.

113. **Vulcan**—The blacksmith of the gods.

114. **Zephyrus**—The West wind.

12. WHO WROTE THESE LINES ?

1. The One remains, the many change and pass ;
Heaven's light forever shines, Earth's shadows fly ;
Life, like a dome of many-coloured glass,
Stains the white radiance of Eternity.
2. If music be the food of love, play on ;
Give me excess of it, that, surfeiting,
The appetite may sicken, and so die.
3. Her eyes were deeper than the depth
Of waters stilled at even ;
She had three lilies in her hand
And the stars in her hair were seven.
4. Life is real ; Life is earnest ;
And the grave is not its goal ;
Dust thou art, to dust returnest,
Was not spoken of the soul.
5. When Britain first, at heaven's command,
Arose from out of the azure main,
This was charter of the land
And guardian angels sung this strain ;
“Rule, Britannia, rule the waves ;
“Britons never will be slaves”
6. I must down to the seas again, to the vagrant gypsy life,
To the gull's way and the whale's way.....

7. To be, or not to be : that is the question :
Whether 'tis nobler in the mind to suffer
The slings and arrows of outrageous fortune,
Or to take arms against a sea of troubles,
And by opposing end them ?.....
8. With malice toward none ; with charity for all ; with
firmness in the right, as God gives us to see the right.
9. Drive my dead thoughts over the universe
Like withered leaves to quicken a new birth .
If Winter comes, can Spring be far behind.
10. Some village Hampden, that with dauntless breast
The little tyrant of his fields withstood ;
Some mute inglorious Milton here may rest,
Some Cromwell guiltless of his country's blood.
11. I am the master of my fate
I am the Captain of my soul.
12. How sleep the brave, who sink to rest,
By all their country's wishes blest !
13. I expect that Woman will be the last thing civilized by
Man.
14. Sweet are the uses of adversity,
Which like the toad, ugly and venomous,
Wears yet a precious jewel in his head.
15. We look before and after,
And pine for what is not :
Our sincerest laughter
With some pain is fraught ;
Our sweetest songs are those that tell of saddest thought.
16. It is not growing like a tree,
In bulk, doth make men better be ;
17. The meanest flower that blows can give
Thoughts that do often lie too deep for tears.
18. Tiger ! Tiger ! burning bright
In the forests of the night
What immortal hand or eye
Could frame thy fearful symmetry ?
19. Ah, Love ! could thou and I with Fate conspire
To grasp this sorry scheme of things entire,
Would not we shatter it to bits and then
Remould it nearer to Heart's desire.
20. Here with a Loaf of Bread beneath the bough,
A Flask of Wine, a Book of Verse-and Thou
Beside me singing in the Wilderness—
And Wilderness is Paradise enow.

21. The old order changeth, yielding place to new,
And God fulfils himself in many ways,
Lest one good custom should corrupt the world.
22. There is a tide in the affairs of men,
Which taken at the flood, leads on to fortune ;
Omitted, all the voyage of their life
Is bound in shallows and in miseries.
23. My heart leaps up when I behold
A rainbow in the sky ;
24. We are such stuff
As dreams are made on, and our little life
Is rounded with a sleep.
25. Then none was for a party ;
Then all were for the state ;
26. Breathes there the man, with soul so dead,
Who never to himself hath said.
This is my own, my native land ?
27. 'What is truth?' said jesting Pilate; and would not stay
for an answer.
28. If you have tears, prepare to shed them now.
You all do know this mantle; I remember
The first time ever Caesar put it on ;
29. Ring out the old, ring in the new,
Ring, happy bells, across the snow ;
The year is going, let him go ;
Ring out the false, ring in the true.
30. Hope springs eternal in the human breast ;
Man never is, but always to be blessed.
The soul, uneasy, and confined from home,
Rests, and expatiates in a life to come,
31. Self-reverence, self-knowledge, self-control,
These three alone lead life to sovereign power.
32. The lunatic, the lover, and the poet,
Are of imagination all compact :
33. Others abide our questions. Thou art free.
We ask and ask : thou smilest and art still,
Out-topping knowledge.
34. Can the Ethiopean change his skin, or the leopard his
spots ?
35. Heard melodies are sweet, but those unheard
Are sweeter ; therefore, ye soft pipes, play on :
Not to the sensual ear, but, more endear'd,
Pipe to the spirit ditties of no tone.

36. And not by eastern windows only,
When daylight comes, comes in the light,
In front, the sun climbs slow, how slowly,
But westward, look, the land is bright.
37. I had ambition by which sin
The Angels fell.
38. April is the cruelest month, breeding
Lilacs out of dead land, mixing
Memory and desire, stirring
Dull roots with spring rain.
39. A thing of beauty is a joy for ever .
Its loveliness increases ; it will never :
Pass into nothingness.
40. "Beauty is truth, truth beauty, "that is all
Ye know on earth, and all ye need to know.
41. When I consider how my light is spent,
Ere half my days, in this dark world and wide.
42. Some books are to be tasted, others to be swallowed,
and some few to be chewed and digested -
43. Render therefore unto Caesar the things which are
Caesar's, and unto God the things that are God's.
44. That government of the people, by the people for the
people, shall not perish from the earth.
45. The world must be made safe for democracy.
46. Full many a flower is born to blush unseen,
And waste its sweetness on the desert air.
47. Here we may reign secure ; and in my choice
To reign is worth ambition, though in Hell ;
Better to reign in Hell, than serve in Heav'n.
48. To see a world in a grain of sand,
And a heaven in a wild flower,
To hold infinity in the palm of your hand,
And eternity in an hour.
49. We are the hollow men
We are the stuffed men
Leaning together:
Headpiece filled with straw.
50. Lead, Kindly Light, amid the encircling gloom,
Lead Thou me on ?
51. The quality of mercy is not strain'd ;
It droppeth as the gentle rain from heaven
Upon the place beneath ; it is twice blest ;
It blesseth him that gives and him that takes ;
52. The man that hath no music in himself,
Nor is not moved with concord of sweet sounds,
Is fit for treasons, stratagems and spoils.

53. Are God and Nature then at strife,
That nature lends such evil dreams
So careful of the type she seems,
So careless of the single life.
54. God's in His Heaven !
All's right with the world !
55. The curfew tolls the knell of parting day,
The lowing herd wind slowly o'er the lea,
The ploughman homeward plods his weary way,
And leaves the world to darkness and to me.
56. Theirs not to make reply,
Theirs not to reason why,
Theirs but to do and die.
57. Not a drum was heard, not a funeral note,
As his corpse to the rampart we hurried ;
58. Slowly and sadly we laid him down,
From the field of his fame fresh and glory ;
59. England expects every man to do his duty.
60. I have nothing to offer but blood and toil,
tears and sweat.
61. Something is rotten in the state of Denmark.
62. And the night went down, and the sun smiled out far
over the summer sea,
And the Spanish fleet with broken sides lay round us
all in a ring ;
63. Adversity's sweet milk philosophy.
64. Art is long and time is fleeting.
65. How far that little candle throws its beams,
So shines a good deed in a naughty world.
66. The proper study of mankind is man.
67. Poets are the unacknowledged legislators of the world.
68. And he gave it for his opinion, that whoever could make
two ears of corn, or two blades of grass, to grow upon
a spot of ground where only one grew before, would
deserve better of mankind, and do more essential service
to his country, than the whole race of politicians put
together.
69. Between two worlds—one dead,
The other powerless to be born.
70. They shall grow not old, as we that are left grow old ;
Age shall not weary them, nor the years condemn.
71. I was ever a fighter, so-one fight more,
The best and the last, Man !
72. Thou pendulum betwixt a smile and tear.

73. Man's love is of man's life a thing apart,
'This woman's whole existence.
74. I awoke one morning and found myself famous.
75. God made the country, and man made the town.
76. I am monarch of all I survey,
My right there is none to dispute.
77. O Solitude ! were are the charms
That sages have seen in thy face ?
78. Put your trust in God, my boys, and keep your power
dry
79. Annual income twenty pounds, annual expenditure
nineteen nineteen six, result happiness. Annual income
twenty pounds, annual expenditure twenty pound ought
and six, result misery.
80. To-morrow, and to-morrow, and to-morrow,
Creeps in this petty pace from day to day,
To the last syllable of recorded time ;
81. Hath not a Jew eyes ? hath not a Jew hands, organs
dimenstions, senses, affections, passions ?
82. The fault, dear Brutus, is not in our stars.
But in ourselves, that we are underlings.
83. What is this life if, full of care,
We have no time to stand and stare ?
84. If I should die, think only this of me :
That there's some corner of a foreign field
That is for ever England.
85. And the night has a thousand eyes,
And the day but one ;
Yet the light of the bright world dics,
With the dying sun.
86. All the world's a stage.
And all the men and women merely players :
87. Fame is the spur that the clear spirit doth raise
(That last infirmity of noble mind)
To scorn delights, and live laborious days.
88. To travel hopefully is a better thing than to arrive,
and the true success is to labour.
89. What a piece of work is a man !
90. Love looks not with the eyes, but with the mind,
And therefore is wing'd Cupid painted blind.
91. Dost thou think, because though art virtuous, there
shall be no more cakes and ale ?
92. There mark what ills the scholar's life assail,—
Toil, envy, want, the patron, and the jail.

93. Slow rises worth by poverty depress'd.
94. History, which is, indeed, little more than the register of the crimes, follies, and misfortunes of mankind.
95. Beware the Ides of March !
96. Give every man thine ear, but few thy voice ;
Take each man's censure, but reserve thy judgment.
97. Let me not to the marriage of true minds.
Admit impediments.
98. So may the lustre of your days
Outshine the deeds Firdusi sung,
Your name within a nation's prayer,
Your music on a nation's tongue.

ANSWERS

1. Percy Bysshe Shelley : *Adonais*.
2. William Shakespeare : *Twelfth Night*.
3. Dante Gabriel Rossetti : *The Blessed Damozel*.
4. Henry Wadsworth Longfellow : *A Psalm of Life*.
5. James Thomson : *Alfred : a Masque* 1740.
6. John Masefield : *Sea Fever*.
7. William Shakespeare : *Hamlet*.
8. Abraham Lincoln : *Second Inaugural Address*.
9. Percy Bysshe Shelley : *Ode to the West Wind*.
10. Thomas Gray : *Elegy Written in a Country Churchyard*.
11. Henry : *Unconquered*.
12. William Collins : *Ode Written in the Year 1756*.
13. George Meredith : *The Ordeal of Richard Feveral*.
14. William Shakespeare : *As You Like it*.
15. Percy Bysshe Shelley : *To a Skylark*.
16. Ben Jonson : *A Pindaric Ode on the Death of Sir H. Morrison*.
17. William Wordsworth : *Intimations of Immortality*.
18. William Blake : *The Tiger*
- 19 & 20. Omar Khayyam : *Rubaiyat*.
21. Alfred Tennyson . *The Passing of Arthur*.
22. William Shakespeare : *Julius Caesar*.
23. William Wordsworth : *My Heart Leaps Up*.
24. William Shakespeare : *The Tempest*.
25. Macaulay : *Lay of Ancient Rome* : *Horatius*.
26. Sir Walter Scott : *The Lay of the Last Minstrel*.

27. Francis Bacon : *Essays : Of Truth.*
28. William Shakespeare : *Julius Caesar.*
29. Alfred Tennyson : *In Memoriam.*
30. Alexander Pope : *An Essay on Man.*
31. Alfred Tennyson : *Oenone.*
32. William Shakespeare : *A Midsummer Night's Dream.*
33. M. Arnold : *Sonnet on Shakespeare.*
34. The Holy Bible : *Book of Isiah.*
35. John Keats : *Ode to a Grecian Urn.*
36. A. H. Clough : *Say Not The Struggle Naught Availeth.*
37. W. H. Davies : *Ambition.*
38. T. S. Eliot : *The Waste Land.*
39. Keats : *Endymion.*
40. Keats : *Ode to a Grecian Urn.*
41. Milton : *On His Blindness.*
42. Bacon : *Of Studies.*
43. Holy Bible : *Matthew, XXII.*
44. Lincoln : *Gettysburg Address.*
45. Woodrow Wilson : *Address to Congress, April, 1917.*
46. Gray : *Elegy Written in a Country Churchyard.*
47. Milton : *Paradise Lost.*
48. William Blake : *Auguries of Innocence.*
49. T. S. Eliot : *The Hollow Men.*
50. John Henry Newman : *Faith-Heavenly Leadings.*
51. Shakespeare : *The Merchant of Venice.*
52. Shakespeare : *The Merchant of Venice.*
53. Alfred Tennyson : *In Memoriam.*
54. Robert Browning : *Pippa Passes.*
55. Thomas Gray : *An Elegy written in a Churchyard.*
56. Lord Tennyson : *The Charge of the Light Brigade.*
- 57 & 58. C. Wolfe : *The Burial of Sir John Moore.*
59. Lord Nelson in his biography by Robert Southey.
60. Winston Churchill : *War speeches in 1940.*
61. Shakespeare : *Hamlet.*
62. Lord Tennyson : *Revenge.*
63. Shakespeare : *Romeo and Juliet.*
64. Longfellow : *The Psalm of Life.*
65. Shakespeare : *The Merchant of Venice.*
66. A. Pope : *The Essay on Man.*

67. P. B. Shelley : *Defence of Poetry.*
 68. J. Swift : *Gulliver's Travels, Part II.*
 69. M. Arnold : *Grande Chartreuse.*
 70. Laurence Binyon : *For the Fallen.*
 71. R. Browning : *Prospice.*
 72. Lord Byron : *Childe Harold, Canto III.*
 73. Lord Byron : *Don Juan, Canto I.*
 74. Lord Byron
 75. William Cowper : *The Task.*
 - 76 & 77. William Cowper : *Lines by Alexander Selkirk.*
 78. Oliver Cromwell
 79. Mr. Micawber's advice in C. Dickens's *David Copperfield.*
 80. Shakespeare : *Macbeth.*
 81. Shakespeare : *The Merchant of Venice.*
 82. Shakespeare : *Julius Caesar.*
 83. W. H. Davies : *Leisure.*
 84. Rupert Brooke : *The Soldier.*
 85. Francis William Bourdillon : *Light.*
 86. Shakespeare : *As you Like It.*
 87. John Milton : *Lycidas.*
 88. R. L. Stevenson : *El Dorado.*
 89. Shakespeare : *Hamlet.*
 90. Shakespeare : *A Midsummer Night's Dream.*
 91. Shakespeare : *Twelfth Night.*
 92. Dr. Johnson : *The Vanity of Human Wishes.*
 93. Dr. Johnson : *London.*
 94. Edward Gibbon : *The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire.*
 95. Shakespeare : *Julius Caesar.*
 96. Shakespeare : *Hamlet.*
 97. Shakespeare : *True Love.*
 98. Sarojini Naidu : *Ode to the Nizam.*
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13. FAMILIAR FOREIGN WORDS AND PHRASES.

ab initio, from the beginning. (L).

ad hoc, for a particular occasion or purpose. (L).

ad infinitum, to infinity. (L).

ad interim, for the time being. (L).

ad libitum, at will, freely. (L).

ad nauseam, to the point of disgust. (L).

adsum! I am present here! (L).

ad volorem, according to (its) value. (L).

ad verbum, word for word, literally.

alma mater (L), benign mother—applied by old students to their university.

alter ego, one's second self; a friend; a representative. (L.)

ancient regime, the old form of government (Fr. old rule)

annus mirabilis, the wonderful year. (L.).

ante meridiem, before mid-day. (L.).

a priori, (of a process of reasoning), from cause to effect.

ars est celare artem, art lies in concealing art. (L.).

an revoir, (Fr.) adieu until we meet again.

billet d'amour, (Fr.) love letter.

Blut und Eisen, n. the Bismarckian doctrine of Blood and Iron as the method of rule (Germ.).

bona fides, (L.), good faith.

bonne fortune; good luck, (Fr.)

bon voyage! (Fr.), a good journey to you!

carte blanche, n. unlimited authority (Fr. blank card).

coup d'état, a sudden or violent stroke of state policy.

de novo, afresh. (L.).

de Profundis, out of the depths (of sorrow) : an appeal made in great affliction.

de facto (L) from the fact : really : actual.

de jure (L). in law : by right : rightful.

divide et impera (L) divide (your opponents), and so rule them.

double entente (Fr.), double meaning, equivocal sense.

édition de luxe, a sumptuous edition (Fr.).

ein Volk, ein Reich, ein Führer, one people, one state, one leader (slogan of the third German Reich) (Germ.).

en bloc, wholesale, as one unit. (Fr. in a lump).

enfant terrible, a problem child, a badly behaved child. (Fr.)

en fete, in a state of public rejoicing. (Fr.).

en masse, all together. (Fr. in a mass).

en route, on the way (Fr.).

esprit & corps, loyalty of a unit to the whole.

ex gratia, as a matter of grace (not of right) (L.).

ex hypothesi, from the assumption made. (L.).

ex nihilo nihil fit, out of nothing, nothing comes. (L.).

et sequentia (L) and what follows.

et tu Brute : You too, Brutus ! Caesar's exclamation when he saw his much-loved Brutus amongst his murderers.

Eureka (Heureka) (Gr.). I have found it.

exempli Gratia (L) by way of example, for instance often abbreviated e. g.

- fait accompli*, an accomplished action. (Fr.)
fiat lux, let there be light. (L. let light be made).
fortuna favet fortibus, fortune favours the bold. (L.)
grande passion, a passionate infatuation. (Fr. great passion).
grand merci. (Fr.) many thanks.
honoris causa, as a mark of esteem. (L.).
homme de lettres, man of letters.
ibidem, in the same place, thing or case. (L.).
in absentia, in absence.
in articulo mortis, at the point of death.
in extenso, completely ;
in memoriam; in, to the memory of.
in statu quo, in the same position as before. (L.).
in toto, totally, as a whole.
initio, at the beginning. (L.).
inter alia, among other things. (L.).
ipso facto, by that very fact, automatically. (L.).
in camera (Late L) in a (judge's private) room.
in Domino (Late L), in the Lord.
in extremis (Late L), at the point of death.
juste milieu, the golden mean. (Fr. proper middle).
Kultur, culture (always ironically). (Germ).
laisser-faire, *laissez faire*, not interfering. esp. of the State
 in economic matters.
l'état, c'est moi! I am the State. (Fr.).
levée en masse, total conscription. (Fr.).
Lingua Franca (Kt.), the corrupt Italian once current in the
 Levant : the mixed language spoken by Europeans in the East :
 any like jargon. Now spoken of a common language.
locus standi (L), a place for standing : a right to intercere.
mariage de convenance, a marriage arranged on grounds of
 policy and suitability (as opposed to a love match) (Fr.)
meum et tuum, (L), mine and thine.
mot juste, the appropriate word or expression (Fr. correct
 word.)
materia medica (L), medicines, collectively : all substances
 used as remedies ; the science of their properties and use.
malinee (Fr.), a morning recital or performance.
melee (Fr.), a confused scuffle ; a hot debate.
memorabilia (L.), things to be remembered.
monsieur (Fr.) Sir, Mr. : *pl* messieurs
nota bene, note, note well (L.) — often N. B.
nulli secundus, second to none. (L.)
ne plus ultra (L.) nothing further : the uttermost point or
 extreme perfection of anything.
Notre-Dame (Fr.) Our Lady.
par excellence, pre-eminently. (Fr.)
per capita, counting by heads.

- per caput, per head.* (L.)
persona grata, an acceptable person. (L.)
post meridiem, after midday (until midnight.) (L.)
post mortem (L) after death.
prima facie, at first sight, judging by first impressions (L.)
pro bono publico, for the public good. (L.)
quo vadis? where art thou going? (L.)
quod erat demonstrandum (L) or Q. E. D., which was to be proved or demonstrated.
sartor resartus, the tailor retailored. (L.)
savoir faire, common sense. (Fr.)
sine die, indefinitely, without a day assigned. (L.)
summum bonum, the highest good, esp. in an ethical system.
(L.) *status quo* (L.) the state in which.
tour de force, a piece of virtuosity, a feat of strength or skill.
(Fr.) *ultima ratio*, the last argument, i.e. war. (L.)
ultima thule, the remotest boundary, the extreme limit. (L.)
ultra vires., outside one's legal powers. (L.)
veni, vidi, vici, I came, I saw, I conquered. (L.)
via media, a middle course in politics, etc. (L.)
virginibus puerisque, to or for girls and boys. (L.)
vis-a-vis, (Fr.) opposite, facing.
vivat rex, (L), long live the king ;
viva voce (L), by the living voice : by oral testimony.
vox populi (L) The voice of the people.
Zeitgeist, n. the spirit of the age (Germ.)
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14. FAMOUS PROVERBS

1. A bad workman quarrels with his tools.
2. A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush.
3. A blind man will not thank you for a looking-glass.
4. A burnt child dreads the fire.
5. A candle lights others and consumes itself.
6. A careless watch invites the vigilant foe.
7. A crooked stick will have a crooked shadow.
8. A drowning man will catch at a rush or straw.
9. A fool and his money are soon parted.
10. A friend in need is a friend indeed.
11. A friend's frown is better than a fool's smile.
12. A gift horse should not be looked in the mouth.
13. A good example is the best sermon.

14. A good Jack makes a good Jill.
15. A good stomach is the best sauce.
16. A great man's foolish sayings pass for wise ones.
17. A hungry man is an angry man.
18. A lie has no legs but a scandal has wings.
19. A light purse makes a heavy heart.
20. A little knowledge is a dangerous thing.
21. A little leak will sink a great ship.
22. A living dog is better than a dead lion.
23. A man forewarned is forearmed.
24. A man is known by the company he keeps.
25. A man may lead his horse to water, but cannot make him drink.
26. A man's best fortune or his worst is a wife.
27. A man's house is his castle.
28. A new broom sweeps clean.
29. A penny saved is a penny gained.
30. A pitcher that goes oft to the well, is broken at last.
31. A rolling stone gathers no moss.
32. A solitary man is either a brute or an angel.
33. A stitch in time saves nine.
34. A tree is known by its fruit.
35. A wise man changes his mind, a fool never.
36. A woman is no older than she looks.
37. After death, the doctor.
38. All are not hunters that blow the horn.
39. All fish are not caught with flies.
40. All is not gold that glitters.
41. All's well that ends well.
42. All men cannot be masters.
43. All work and no play makes Jack a dull boy.
44. Always put the saddle on the right horse.
45. An ass is the gravest beast, an owl the gravest bird.
46. An empty bag cannot stand upright.
47. An idle brain is the devil's workshop.
48. An old fox needs not to be taught tricks.
49. An ounce of wisdom is worth a pound of wit.
50. As good steal the horse as look over the hedge.
51. As well be hanged for a sheep as a lamb.

52. As you make your bed, so you must lie on it.
53. As you sow you shall reap.
54. Barking dogs seldom bite.
55. Beauty provoketh thieves sooner than gold.
56. Beggars must not be choosers.
57. Better a witty fool than a foolish wit.
58. Better be envied than pitied.
59. Better late than never.
60. Bind fast, find fast.
61. Birds of a feather flock together.
62. Blood's thicker than water.
63. Borrowed garments never sit well.
64. Brevity is the soul of wit.
65. Call no man happy till he dies.
66. Charity begins at home but should not end there.
67. Coming events cast their shadows before them.
68. Constant dropping wears the stone.
69. Count not your chickens before they be hatch'd.
70. Cut your coat according to your cloth.
71. Dead men tell no tales.
72. Do not make fish of one and flesh of another.
73. Don't buy a pig in a poke.
74. Don't cry herrings till they are in the net.
75. Don't measure other people's corn by your own bushel.
76. Dry bread at home is better than roast meet abroad.
77. Early to bed, early to rise makes a man healthy, wealthy and wise.
78. Eat to live but do not live to eat.
79. Empty vessels give the greatest sound.
80. Every body's business is no body's business.
81. Every cook praises his own broth.
82. Every dog hath its day and every man his hour.
83. Every reed will not make a pipe.
84. Example is better than precept.
85. Exchange is robbery.
86. Fair words butter no parsnips.
87. Familiarity breeds contempt.
88. First come, first served.
89. First deserve and then desire.

90. Fish and guests smell at three days old.
91. Fools make feasts, and wise man eats them.
92. Forbidden fruit is sweet.
93. Fortune favours fools.
94. Give a dog an ill name and you may as well hang him.
95. Give the devil his due.
96. Go to bed with the lamb, and rise with the lark.
97. God helps those who help themselves.
98. Good swimmers are oftenest drowned.
99. Handsome is that handsome does.
100. He giveth twice that gives in a trice.
101. He may hope for the best that's prepared for the worst.
102. He that goes a borrowing goes a sorrowing.
103. He's a friend to none that is a friend to all.
104. Home is home, be it never so homely.
105. Honesty is the best policy.
106. Hunger makes raw beans relish well.
107. If the cap fit wear it.
108. If the mountain will not go to Mohomet, let Mohomet go to the mountain.
109. If the sky fall, we shall catch larks.
110. If wishes were horses, beggars would ride.
111. If you give an inch he will take an ell.
112. In for a penny in for a pound.
113. It is a long lane that has no turning.
114. It is good to have two strings to one's bow.
115. It is hard to make a silk purse of a sow's ear.
116. It is never too late to mend.
117. It never rains but it pours.
118. It takes two to make a quarrel.
119. It's no use crying over spilt milk.
120. Jack of all trades and master of none.
121. Kill two birds with one stone.
122. Learn to creep before you run.
123. Least said is soonest mended.
124. Let bygones be bygones.
125. Let sleeping dogs lie.
126. Little pitchers have great ears.
127. Lock the stable door before the steed is stolen.

128. Look before you leap for snakes among sweet flowers do creep.
129. Love me little and love me long.
130. Love me love my dog.
131. Lovers ever run before the clock.
132. Make hay while the sun shines.
133. Make the best of a bad bargain.
134. Man proposes, God disposes.
135. Manners maketh man.
136. Many who wear rapiers are afraid of goose quills.
137. Marry in haste, and repent at leisure ; 'tis good to marry late or never.
138. Men are April when they woo, December when they wed.
139. Misery acquaints men with strange bed-fellows.
140. Misfortunes seldom come alone.
141. Money makes the mare to go.
142. Much cry and little wool.
143. Necessity is the mother of invention.
144. Never leave that till to-morrow which you can do to-day.
145. Nice tailors make a man.
146. No gains without pains.
147. No man is a hero to his valet.
148. No news is good news.
149. No rose without a thorn.
150. No smoke without some fire.
151. Nothing venture, nothing have.
152. Old birds are not caught with chaff.
153. Old friends and old wines are best.
154. Once bitten, twice shy.
155. One man's meat is another man's poison.
156. One swallow makes not a spring nor one woodcock a winter.
157. One's two few, three too many.
158. Out of sight out of mind.
159. Penny wise and pound foolish.
160. People who live in glass houses should never throw stones.
161. Poets are born, but orators are made.
162. Practice makes a man perfect.
163. Prevention is better than cure.

164. Pride will have a fall.
165. Procrastination is the thief of time.
166. Prosperity discovers vice and adversity virtue.
167. Prosperity makes friends, and adversity tries them.
168. Riches serve a wise man but command a fool.
169. Rome was not built in a day.
170. Sauce for the goose is sauce for the gander.
171. Self-praise is no recommendation.
172. So many men, so many minds.
173. Spare the rod, and spoil the child,
174. Standers-by see more than gamesters.
175. Still waters run deep.
176. Strike while the iron is hot.
177. Take time by the forelock.
178. The best-fish swim near the bottom.
179. The better part of valour is discretion.
180. The biter is some times bit.
181. The course of true love never did run smooth.
182. The devil is not black as he is painted.
183. The more the marrier; the fewer, the better cheer.
184. The proof of a pudding is in the eating.
185. The road to hell is paved with good intentions.
186. The sparrow builds in the martin's nest.
187. The weaker goes to the wall.
188. There is a silver lining to every cloud.
189. There is a special providence in the fall of a sparrow.
190. There is a time for all things.
191. There's many a slip 'twixt the cup and the lip.
192. Think much, speak little, and write less.
193. Time and tide tarry (or wait) for no man.
194. To be born with a silver spoon in his mouth.
195. To blow hot and cold with the same breath.
196. To build castles in the air.
197. To carry coals to New-castle.
198. To err is human ; to forgive, divine.
199. To give a Rowland for an Oliver.
200. To hold with the hare and run with the hound.
201. To leap over the hedge before you come at the stile.
202. To rob Peter to pay Paul.

203. To strain at a gnat and swallow a camel.
204. Too many cooks spoil the broth.
205. Travel makes a wise man better, but a fool worse.
206. Tread on a worm and it will turn.
207. Virtue is its own reward.
208. Walls have ears.
209. Well begun is half done.
210. What cannot be cured must be endured.
211. When all men say you are an ass, it is time to bray.
212. When the cat is away, the mice will play.
213. When the steed is stolen, you shut the stable door.
214. When the wine is in, the wit is out.
215. When you are at Rome, do as Rome does or as Romans do.
216. Where ignorance is bliss, 'tis folly to be wise.
217. Where there's a will, there is a way.
218. While there is life, there is hope.
219. You can't eat your cake, and have it too.
220. Youth and white paper take any impression.

15. A BIRD'S EYE-VIEW OF INDIAN LANGUAGES AND LITERATURE

INDIAN LANGUAGES.

The total number of languages and dialects in India is 225 but many of them are simply small tribal speeches by a very limited number of people. In fact 24 languages account for more than 96% of India's population.

The most widespread language is Hindustani (both Urdu and Hindi) and ranks as the world's third greatest language. After Hindustani, Bengali is spoken by the largest number of people, being the mother-tongue of 92% of the people of the two Bengals. It has also the richest modern literature. Other chief Indian languages are *Gujarati, Marathi, Maithili, Oriya, Kashmiri, Sindhi, Punjabi, Assamese, Telegu, Kanarese (or Kannada), Tamil and Malyayalm.*

(Some of the minor South Indian languages are *Tulu, Kodagu, Todda, Kota, Gond and Rajmahal*).

(a) SANSKRIT

Sanskrit is the mother of Indian languages and Sanskrit literature, one of the oldest literatures of the world, is the chief glory of our country. In it are enshrined our ancient culture, religion and philosophy. Moreover it has been the fountain head for all Indian literatures. A large part of this rich literature, however, has unfortunately been lost and destroyed and many of its masterpieces have come down to us in fragments. The bulk of the existing Sanskrit literature consists chiefly of dramas and poetry, usually of an epic cast. Some first rate lyric poetry, embodying the eternal theme of love, is also found. This literature is generally elevating and imbued with noble religious and moral sentiments.

Our knowledge of the creators of this great literature is rather meagre and uncertain. It is partly due to the lack of the art of history and historical sense in the people of the ancient times, and partly to the extraordinary humility of Sanskrit writers, who never wrote about their lives. Hence, the total absence of biographies, autobiographies or even scattered, direct or indirect references to their own selves in their works. Consequently, the dates of birth and death of writers, the time

of the creation of their masterpieces are all usually shrouded in a haze of mystery and doubt. In many cases even the century in which a writer lived and worked is a matter of controversy.

Curiously enough, Sanskrit literature has been studied with reverence and deep interest in the West, notably Germany, during the last half century or more. Several Western scholars like Max Muller, Macdonell, Keith, Keilhorn and Winternitz have produced histories and critical studies of inestimable value on the subject.

(i) OLD SANSKRIT LITERATURE

Poets.

1. **Amaruk** (700 A.D.).—Lyric poet; almost little or nothing, except that he was some king, is known about him ; exerted a considerable influence on the Hindi poet, Bihari. *Amarukasataku*—his masterpiece, occupies the foremost place in lyrical poetry. Its theme is love, treated with remarkable skill and musical appeal.

2. **Ashvaghosha** (159 A.D.).—Epic poet; born in Ayodhya ; occupies first place among Sanskrit poets who wrote about Lord Buddha ; said to have been the preceptor and court poet of king Kanishka. *Budha-Charitra*, an epic, said to be in 18 books but only 17 books are extant. Chinese and Tibetan translations of the entire poem are available. Its theme is the glorification of the life of Lord Buddha. *Saundarananda*, an epic in 18 parts dealing with the renunciation of Nand, Buddha's younger brother, for the sake of Buddhism.

It is claimed that Kalidas drew on the poetry of Ashvaghosha to a certain extent.

3. **Bana** (7th cent. A. D.).—Poet and writer of poetic prose. *Kadambri*, the best work in poetic prose ; a long narrative about the romance of Kadambri, the heroine, and her lover Chandradit; the hero especially notable for vivid characterization. *Harsha Charita*, the first historical work of its kind relating the story of Harshvardhan family.

4. **Bharavi** (634 A. D.)—Epic poet. *Kiral-arjuniya*, an epic, the theme of which is borrowed from the "Van parva" of the *Mahabharat*, relating the story of the exile of the Pandavas in "Duvet Van".

5. **Bhartrihari** (Later 6th cent. A. D.—*Niti-staka*, a poem giving instructions about man's conduct, notably the cultivation of virtues such as Knowledge, Valour, Friendship, Magnanimity etc ; theme borrowed from *Manusmiriti* and *Mahabharat*. *Sringara-sataka*, glorifies feminine charms ; *Vairagya-staka*, deals with the attitude of disillusionment and discontent with worldly life and pleasures.

6. **Bhatti** (End of the 6th and beginning of the 7th cent. A.D.)—Epic poet. *Bhatti-Kavya* or *Ravana Badh*, an epic poem relating the story of Rama from the point when he and Lakshman go with Rishi Vishwamitra to slay Tarka to the invasion of Lanka and death of Ravana. The poem also presents the subtleties of Sanskrit grammar on account of which it is sometimes called 'Shashtra-Kavya'.

7. **Bilhana** (Later half of the 11th cent. A. D.)—Lyric poet. *Chaurapanchasika*, a short Lyric poet of 50 stanzas. It is alleged that the poet, in the disguise of the hero, after whom the poet is named, expresses his own unfortunate passion for a princess for which he was sentenced to death. *Vikramankdev-Charitra*, an autobiographical poem.

8. **Dan Din** (Between 500 to 800 A.D.)—His masterpiece is *Dasakumara Charita* (in three parts), a long poetic prose narrative, giving an account of the strange experiences of ten princes in the course of their travels; may be called a romance of rogues, something akin to the picaresque story in English.

9. **Jagannath**.—His chief works are *Piyush-lahri*, or *Ganga-Lahri*, in honour of the sacred river Ganges; *Sudha-lahri*, prayer to the Sun god; *Karuna-lahri*, prayer to the God Vishnu, and *Amrit-lahri*, in glorification of the River Yamuna.

10. **Jaya Dev** (About 1100 A. D.).—Famous lyric poet. *Gitagovinda*, a great work, being a unique blending of pastoral drama and lyric poetry. It sings of the love of Radha and Krishna. The poem has remained unexcelled all these centuries and proved a source of inspiration to many succeeding writers. Bhartendu Harish Chandra translated it into Braj-Bhasha versc. No less than thirty-five commentaries exist on this great lyrical poem of "Bhakti".

11. **Kalhana**.—Epic poet. He was the son of Champak, minister to Vijai Singh, ruler of Kashmir. *Rajatarangini* (about 1148 to 1151 A. D.), a famous epic in 8 parts of great historical importance, presenting a vivid picture of the culture and politics of 1500 years of Kashmir. The Late Shri R. S. Pandit, brother-in-law to Pandit Jawahar Lal Nehru, brought out a translation of the epic a few years ago.

12. **Kalidas** (Between 300 to 450 A. D.).—The greatest epic poet; ranks among the foremost poets of the world. Works: *Raghuvansam*, an epic in 19 parts, a chronicle of the kings of Surya dynasty. The first nine books are devoted to the forefathers of Rama-Daleep, Aj, Raghu and Dashrath; books X to XV present the story of Rama himself and the rest deal with the successors of Rama. *Kumar sambhava*, an epic in 17 parts, deals with marriage of Shiva and Parvati, the birth of their son Kartikey and his death at the hands of Tarkasur. The underlying idea of the poem is that love cannot succeed without sacrifice,

Meghduta, a gem of "Geet Sahitya" (lyric poetry,) written in "Mand kranta chhand" 121 in number. The poem embodies the pangs of love of Yaksha, a supernatural being, native of Alkapuri, condemned to live at Ram-giri hill, from where he asks "Meghi (the rain god) to carry the message of his love-laden heart to his wife in Alkapuri. *Ritusamhara*; nature poetry describing the beauties of the six seasons.

13. **Kaviraja** (pseudonym of Madhav Bhatt) (12th cent. A.D.).—Court poet of Kadamb Raja Kamdev of Jaintipur (1182-97). *Raghavapondaviya*—an epic poem, each verse of which can be interpreted in two ways, so that it relates simultaneously the story of the *Ramayana* and the *Mahabharat*.

14. **Kumardas** (Between 650 and 750 A. D.).—His famous poem is *Janki-haran*, being a new treatment of the story of the *Ramayana*.

15. **Magha** (Late 7th cent. A. D.).—Epic poet. *Sisupalavadha or Magha-Kavya*.

16. **Ratnakar** (779 to 813 A. D.).—Kashmiri poet. *Harwijaya*, a heroic poem relating how Andhkasur is slain by Shiva.

17. **Sri-Harsha** (12th cent. A. D.).—Epic poet of the court of Jaichand of Kanauj (1169-1195).—*Naishadiya or Naishadiya-charita*, an epic about Nala and Damayanti.

18. **Subandhu** (About 625-650 A. D.).—His chief work is *Vasavadatta*, a long narrative in poetic prose giving an account of Prince Kandarpketu's quest of his prospective queen, whom he has seen in a dream.

19. **Valmiki**—Nothing is known about him with certainty, except the legends that have gathered around him; the author of the great epic the *Ramayana*, the oldest poem in Sanskrit.

20. **Vyas, Maharishi Krishna Duvepayan**—The traditional author of the great epic *The Mahabharat*, presumably written in parts and by more than one person.

Dramatists

1. **Ashvaghosh** (159 A. D.).—Dramatist of the second rank. *Shariputra*, deals with the greatness of Buddhism; *Probodhchandrodaya*, shows the significance of virtues such as wisdom, Patience, Strength of character.

2. **Bana** (about 700-750 A. D.). *Parvati-parinaya*.

3. **Bhasa** (about 4th or 5th cent. A. D.).—Wrote thirteen plays, of which six are based on plots borrowed from the *Mahabharat*. *Pratigayogandhnarayan*, a play about the mysterious love and marriage of Avanti Kumari and Udyana; *Swapnavasavdatta*, his masterpiece, relates how Avanti Kumari

gets burnt to death through the machinations of Yogandhnarayana, and Udyana is married to Padmavati, the princess of Magadh.

Bhatta, Narayan (About 800-1100 A. D.).—Only one of his plays, *Venisanghar*, has come down to us. The story is taken from the *Mahabharat* but the dramatist has introduced certain changes. It centres round the insults heaped upon Dropadi by Dushashan at the instance of Duryodhan and the tragic consequences which follow.

5. **Bhava Bhuti** (650-750 A. D.).—Great dramatist. *Mahaviru-Charitra*, his first great achievement based on the life story of Rama ; *Malti-Madhava* deals with the love and marriage of Malti and Madhav ; *Uttar-ram-charitra*, his masterpiece, relates the story of Rama after his return from the fourteen-year-exile.

6. **Chhemishawar** (about 900 A. D.)—*Naishadhananda*, based on the famous Nal Damayanti story ; *Chanda-kaushaka*, inspired by the heroic sufferings of Raja Harishchandra for the sake of truth.

7. **Damodar Misra** (A. D. C. II).—*Hanuman-Nataka*, the story borrowed from the *Ramayana*.

8. **Ding-Naga** (About 1000 A. D.).—*Kundmala*, its subject matter is taken from the *Ramayana*, notably the latter part which relates the return of Rama to Ayodhya leading to the bitter combat between Ram and Lav and Kush, followed by Rama's meeting with Sita in the Ashram.

9. **Jaidev** (About 1200 A. D.).—Native of Kundin Nagar in Vidharva. *Prasanaraghura* (in seven acts), the story borrowed from the *Ramayana*. The dramatist's command of the language is as great as that of Bhavabhuti.

10. **Kalidas** (Between 300 to 450 A. D.).—He is supposed to have belonged to Kashmir, Ujjain or Kanauj ; the greatest Sanskrit dramatist. *Malavikagni-Mitra*, his first play celebrating the romance of King Agnimitra and Malavika ; *Vikramorvasi* (in five acts based on the romance of King Puroorva and fairy Apsara. *Shakuntla*, his masterpiece ; one of the world's most famous dramas, based on the romance of Shakuntla and King Dushyant. The play is remarkable for vivid characterization, skilful plot-construction, insight into human emotions, command of language and beautiful nature descriptions, notably that of the Ashram of Rishi Kanya.

11. **King Sri Harsha** (631-695 A. D.).—Notable dramatist. *Ratnavali* (in four acts), a play of great poetic beauty and suited for the stage ; celebrates the romance of king Vatsrajudayna and Sagrika, who is no other than Ratnavali after whom the play is named. *Nagananda* (in five acts) ; based on the heroic self-denial and sacrifice of prince Jituvahan. It is a religious play and not very successful on the stage.

12. Krishna Misra. Author of *Probodha-chandrodaya* (1100 A. D.), an allegorical play, teaching Advaita philosophy by introducing personified virtues and vices such as Reason, Avarice, Knowledge, Wisdom, Hypocrisy, Faith etc. The play was imitated by Yashpal in *Mohprajaya* (13th Cent.), Benkatnath in *Sankalpasuryudaya* (14th Cent.) and Kavi Karnpur in *Chaitanya-chandrodaya*.

13. Murari-Anarghraghav (in 7 acts) ; plot borrowed from the *Ramayana*, relates the story of Rama from the killing of Tarka to his coronation.

14. Rajasekhara (About 900 A. D.).—Dramatist of the second rank. *Karpurmanjari*, based on the romance of Raja Chandpal and princess Karpurmanjari ; *Viddha-Salabhanjika* ; *Bala-Ramayana* ; *Bala-Bharata* (only a fragment of two acts has come down).

15. Shakti Bhadra (About the 9th cent. A. D.).—*Ashcharyachuramani*, deals with the story of Rama upto Sita's ordeal by fire.

16. Shudrak (3rd cent. B. C.).—Great dramatist. *Mrichha katika*, a great drama in ten acts, celebrating Ujjain's famous courtesan, Vasant Laina's love for Charudatt, the Brahmin. It is a unique play in as much as it combines love romance with statecraft ; also remarkable for characterization and for mirroring contemporary society. Its characters are drawn from all classes of society.

17. Vatsraj (1163-1203 A. D.).—Minister to the king of Kalanjar ; wrote six plays of various types. *Kiratarjuniya*, dealing with Arjunandkirat fight. It inspired Bharvi's famous poem on the subject. *Karpurcharit*, one-act farce with one character only. *Itasyachuramani*, one—act humorous play ; *Rukmaniharan* (in four acts) : *Tripurdaha*, has supernatural characters and deals with love and humour ; *Samundra manthan*.

18. Vishakha Datta (About 800 A. D.).—Great dramatist. *Mudra Rakshasa* (A. D. 800), a great historical drama about Chandra Gupta II and his heroic fights with the Huns ; also presents a vivid picture of the political intrigues of the time.

Fairy Tales and Fables

Gundaday : *Brihat katha*, the hero of the tale is Udayan's prince and his queen Madan-manjusha, carried away by Manasveg and rescued by Gomukh, the king's devoted and resourceful minister.

2. Kshemendra Vyasadus. *Brihat-katha-manjari* (A. D. 1037), a collection of tales in 7,500 slokas.

3. Shri Vikram Bhatt : Writer of "Champu Kavya" in which prose and verse are mixed. *Nala-Champu or Damayanti-katha* ; *Madalasa-Champu*.

4. **Somdev** : *Katha-sarit-sagara*, a collection of tales in 24,000 slokas.

Anonymous Collections of Tales

1. **Hitopadesa** —Alleged to have been written by Narain Pandit who enjoyed the patronage of King Dhawal Chandra of Bengal. It is the name of one version of the famous collection of tales, known in its earliest form as the *Panchatantra*, and in a letter form as the 'Fables of Bidpai' or 'Pilpay'. It dates from about the 13th cent. and was translated into English by Sir W. Jones.

2. **Panchatantra** (About 300 A. D.).—Alleged to have been written or compiled by Vishnu Sharma; a large part of the original has been lost. Its Syriac and Arabic versions are extant, the latter known as the Fable of Bidpai or Piplay or Kailash and Dimnah, is the source of much European folk-lore. The stories generally embody teachings to princes in statecraft.

3. **Sukasapati**. A collection of 70 stories related by a parrot to the queen of Madan Sen to beguile her tedium during her husband's absence.

4. **Simhasana-Dvatrimsika** (About 1018-1063 A.D.).—A series of tales related to King Bhoj of Dhar by 32 parrots, each of whom flies away after finishing his story.

5. **Vetala-Panchavinstika**. A collection of 25 stories related by a ghost to the King of Ujjain.

(ii) NEW SANSKRIT LITERATURE

The popular belief that Sanskrit is a dead language and that Sanskrit literature came to an end long before the beginning of this century is a very mistaken notion. Sanskrit literature is still living and growing in several ways. Apart from continuing as a source of inspiration for modern Indian literatures, new works in Sanskrit are being steadily produced. A good deal of research is being done as a result of which a large number of hitherto unknown and unstudied Sanskrit manuscripts have been unearthed, edited and annotated. A good account of such research is found in progress published by the Bhandarkar Oriental Research Institute in 1943.

Besides research productions, independent treatises on various subjects, such as philosophy, rhetoric, music, grammar, medicine etc. have been coming forth in large numbers. Purely literary works, poems, dramas, tales etc. are not lacking either. Moreover a series of literary journals have been of great service to the growth of Sanskrit.

Nevertheless, in the words of Dr.-R.N. Dandekar, Sanskrit literature, in modern times, remains a matter of curiosity. Too

much emphasis on research is detrimental to a literary cultivation of Sanskrit. Sanskrit writers still follow old worn out forms and themes. Sanskrit literature does not reflect the real life of to-day and it cannot claim to be the people's literature. At best, it is the literature of a coterie, the learned few.

Some Prominent modern Sanskrit Writers.

Narayana Shastri of Nadukaveri in Tanjore (1860-1911) was a very versatile and prolific writer. Wrote 92 Sanskrit dramas, of which ten have so far been published.

Appasastri Rashiwadekar. A first-rate writer; conducted the Sanskrit journals *Samskritacandrika* and *Sunrtuvadini*. Translated Bankim Chandra's Bengali romance *Lavanyamayi*.

Y. Mahalinga Shastri of Madras is a well-known modern Sanskrit dramatist. Pandit Ramavatara Sharma has written a short metrical history of India called *Bharatiyan Itivrittam*, which is supposed to compare favourably with Kalhana's *Rajatarangini*.

Other eminent writers are Mahesacandra Tarkacudamani of Rajarampur; Subratimanya Suri, a versatile author; Mudumbai Venkatarama Narasimbacharya (1832-1928), reputed to be the author of 114 works; Krishnamacharya of Kumbhakonam, master of Sanskrit prose; C. Ramashastri, author of *Megha-pratisamdesa*, a supplement to Kalidasa's *Meghaduta* and C. Venkataramanayya of Mysore, a versatile genius equally at home in the drama, the lyric, the narrative and metrics.

Women writers.

Sundaravalli of Mysore wrote *Ramayana-campu*. Jnana-sundari, a dancing girl of Kumbhakonam, is the author of *Halasya Campu*; Pandita Kshamabi Rao of Bombay writes with as much force in Sanskrit as in Marathi. Her works include *Miralaheri* and a topical kavya, describing the session of the All India Oriental Conference held at Trivandrum.

Literary Journals :—*Sanskrita-sahityaparisat-patrika* of Calcutta; *Patrika* of Mysore; *Udayana-patrika*; *Amrtavani* of Bangalore; *Madhuravani* of Belgaum; *Samskrt-Samjivanam* of Bihar, and *Samskritam* of Ayodhya whose aim is to make Sanskrit the national language of India during the course of the present century.

(i) HINDI, THE NATIONAL LANGUAGE.

Hindi, our national language, emerged from the *Saurseni Apabhransa* and took a definite shape about the 10th century A. D. Among its several dialects, *Braja Bhasha* and *Khari Boli* are the most noteworthy. The former is remarkable for its refreshing sweetness, the latter is direct and stern. *Braja*

Bhasha has its home in Muttra, Brindaban and the adjoining districts and it has romantic associations with Bhagwan Krishna and his *raslila*. It remained the chief medium of poetic expression down to the 18th century but the excessive, stereotyped 'Sringar' compositions deprived it of its vigour, and by the end of the 19th century it had become, [in the words of Dr. Ram Kumar Varma, "lustreless."

Khari Boli has now become the officially and popularly accepted *lingua franca* of the country. It is virile, pulsating with life and is developing into newer directions. A certain section of Hindi lovers, however, still espouse *Braja Bhasa* and look wistfully at its past splendours.

(i) **Veer Gatha Kal** (*The Age of Heroism and Chivalry*).
(1000-1320 A. D.)

This was the period of the advent of Muslim rule in India. Warfare between Muslim invaders and native Hindu princes was the order of the day. Poets sang of the heroic exploits of their royal Hindu patrons, with a view to arousing them to repulse the alien conquerors and preserve the freedom of the country. Naturally the poetry of the age took the form of panegyrics of Hindu warriors and the glory of the land. Poems were epic in character and inevitably pitched in a lofty key, sometimes verging on exaggeration. Here and there a poet occasionally struck a different note, the note of love and *Sringar*.

1. **Chand Bardai**—No authentic dates of his birth and death are available. Said to have been born and died on the same day as Prithvi Raj Chauhan, whose court poet and minister he was. *Prithvi Raj Raso*, a 2500 page-long poem, narrating the history of Chauhan dynasty till the death of Prithvi Raj. It is a mixture of history and legend. Moreover, as Changez and Timur are mentioned in the poem, it appears that subsequent writers introduced interpolations in it. The work, however entitles Chand Bardai to the first place among old Hindi poets.

2. **Dalpat Vijay** (About 10th cent. A. D.)—Author of *Khuman Raso* (found in three different versions), being an account of the fight between Khuman II of Chittor and Khalifa Almamum. The extant version of the poem deals with Chittor rulers up to Maharana Pratap. Hence the hand of subsequent writers can also be traced in the work. Some critics entirely deny Dalpat Vijay the authorship of this poem.

3. **Amir Khusro** (1253-1325 A.D.)—A Hindi and Persian poet, associated with the Court of Balban. Known for his "Pahelis."

4. **Bhatt Kedar** (Madhukar Kavi) (died 1187 A. D.)—Famous for *Jai Chand Prakash*, written in honour of Jaichand of Kanauj.

(ii) **Bhakti Kal** (**The Age of Devotion and Prayer**)
 (1320-1655).

During this period Muslim rule was established and consolidated over a large part of India. The attempt to chase the Muslim conquerors out of the country having proved a vain dream, Hindus, as a rule, saw no point in arousing the heroic sentiment against them. On the contrary, they came to look up on Muslims as their inescapable neighbours and countrymen. This consciousness at first gave rise to a feeling of despair and helplessness which was later on dispelled by taking refuge under religion. The rosary replaced the sword to a large extent and a number of Hindu preachers, notably Ramanand and Sankaracharya, strove to preserve and purify the Hindu religion. At the same time, another group of saints such as Kabir and Guru Nanak launched a crusade for Hindu-Muslim unity among the masses. Hence the bulk of the poetry of this age came to be steeped in *Bhakti rasa*, though the flame of heroic and love poetry was not entirely extinguished.

1. **Guru Nanak** (Born in 1470)—Born in Tilwandigram district of Lahore. Founder of the Sikh religion. His main work is *Guru Granth Sahib*. His language is a mixture of *Braja Bhasa*, *Punjabi* and *Khadi Boli*.

2. **Kabir** (1399-1519).—Belonged to the ‘Gyan Marg’ school; a disciple of Ramanand; strove to bring about Hindu Muslim unity. Famous for his songs, which were collected by his disciples in volumes entitled *Kabir Vachnamrit* and *Kabir Bijak*. His language is a mixture of several dialects.

3. **Keshav Das** (1555-1617).—Court poet of Indra Jit Singh, brother of Ramsingh, Raja of Orcha. A prolific writer. *Vigyan Gita*; *Ratan Bawani*; *Jehangir jas Chandrika*; *Rasik Priya*; *Kavi Priya*, and his best poem *Ram Chandrika*. There is a great element of ‘Sringar’ along with Bhakti in his poetry.

4. **Malik Mohammad Jaysi** (About 1500 A. D.)—First among Sufi poets. *Akhravat*; *Akhri Kalam*; *Padmavat* his masterpiece, ranks next to *Ram Charit Manas* of Tulsidas.

5. **Mira Bai** (1517-1573).—One of the most famous Hindi poetesses. Daughter of Ratansingh of Jodhpur married to Bhojraj, Prince of Udaipur; became a widow early in life; extremely devoted to Krishna, whom she looked upon as her husband. Wrote in Hindi as well as Gujarati. *Narsi ki Maira*; *Rag Sorath ke Pad*; *Rag Govind*; *Gitgovind ki Tika*.

6. **Rahim** (Born 1553).—Son of Bairamkhan, Akbar’s regent and minister. Knew Sanskrit, Arabic and Persian. Wrote in *Braja Bhasha* and *Avadhi*. *Shringar Sorath*, *Rahim Dohavali*, his best-known work.

7. **Raskhan.** (Dates about his life are not available). A Muslim poet who wrote about Krishna Bhakti in *Braja Bhasa*. *Premi Batika*; *Sujan Ras Khan*.

8. **Surdas** (1484-1564).—A great poet of Krishna Bhakti cult. Wrote only in *Braja Bhasa*. *Sahita Lahri*; and *Sur Sarawali*; *Sursagar*, his masterpiece and best-known work.

9. **Tulsi Das** (1532-1623).—One of the greatest and most representative of Hindi poets. Wrote in both *Braja Bhasha* and *Avadhi*. His numerous works include, *Ram Charita Manas*; *Kavita vali*; *Vinaya Patrika*; *Gitavali*; *Dohavali*; *Parvati Mangal*; *Janki Mangal* and *Krishna Gitavali*.

10. **Vidyapati** (14th cent.).—Belonged to Maithil. A Hindi and Bengali poet, sometimes under Veer Gatha Kal. Known as Maithil's nightingale for the sweetness and melody of his 'Padas', which are a series of songs glorifying Krishna *ras lila*, with greater evidence of 'Stringar' than Bhakti.

(iii) **Riti Kal** (The Age of amorous and erotic poetry.)
(1643-1843)

This was an age of comparative peace and prosperity. The Mughal rulers, having attained the height of power, had abandoned themselves to a life of ease and pleasure. Hindu princes also chose to tread the path of dalliance. Poets exercised their talents to pander to their patrons' thirst for indulgence. To quote Dr. Ram Kumar Varma, "The religious fervour and the spiritual love which characterised the poets of the Krishna cult degenerated into sensuality. Shri Krishna was not the divine lord but was a voluntary who beguiled his luxurious life with amorous cowherd maids. The symbolical and spiritual relations between Radha and Shri Krishna were lost in the desire of the poets to give a correct account of conjugal love in the *Ast Yama*, the daily routine of the Nayaka and Naiyaka. There was an unceasing effort at chiselling and polishing the words rather than at improving the matter..... His aim was to bring to perfection the sweetness of the dialect (*Braja Bhasa*) and so crowd as many figures of speech as possible into a single line. He indeed displayed the pomp of the tongue but his thoughts and emotions remained hidden. The same topics were touched again only to produce monotony and repulsion".

1. **Alam**—Brahmin by birth; embraced Islam after falling in love and marrying the wife of a Muslim dyer. *Alam Keli*, a collection of amorous poems.

2. **Bihari** (Born 1603)—One of the most celebrated poets of the period; enjoyed the patronage of Maharaja Jai Singh of Jaipur. *Bihari Salsai* (1662), the greatest Hindi poem next to *Tulsi Ramayana*. In portraying the pangs of 'Virah' (separa-

tion) and the bliss of union of lovers, the poems remain unexcelled in the annals of Hindi poetry.

3. **Bhushan** (1613-1715).—Unlike his contemporaries he wrote inspiring heroic poetry. Famous for singing the praise of Shivaji's valiant stand against Muslim rulers. *Shivraj Bhushan*; *Shiva Bawani Chhatrasaldasak* are his best works in *Braja Bhasa*.

4. **Din Dayal Giri** (Born 1802).—Belonged to Banaras; author of *Anoyakti Kalpadrum*.

5. **Ghanananda** (1689-1739).—Kayastha by caste; Mir Munshi of Mohammad Shah; skilled in music. *Sujan Sagar*; *Virah Lila*.

6. **Girdhar Das** (Born 1673).—Famous for his *Kundaliyan* six-lined poems.

7. **Lal Kavi** (Gorey Lal Purohit). Native of Mhow. Known for *Chhatra Prakash* (an incomplete work) being a versified account of Maharaja Chhatra sal.

8. **Padmakar** (1753-1833).—An outstanding poet. Born at Banda; enjoyed the patronage of several kings. In about 1800 he was awarded a lac of rupees, one elephant and ten villages by the ruler of Satara. *Jagat Vinod*, a panegyric of Jagat Singh, ruler of Jaipur; *Ganga Lahri*; *Padma Bharan*, his most famous work, dealing with both heroic and love sentiments.

(iv) Modern Hindi Literature.

i. 1843 to 1914.

The greatest pioneer of modern Hindi literature was **Bharatendu Harish Chandra** (1850-1884), father of Hindi prose, novel, story and essay. Popularised *Khari Boli*, though in his poetry he used a mixture of *Khari Boli* and *Braja Bhasa*. He has no less than 175 works to his credit. His services to Hindi literature were so great that the last fifty years of the 19th century are known as the Age of Bharatendu.

The 20th century brought *Khari Boli* into prominence. This was largely due to four factors viz. (i) English influence, establishment of the Fort William College and the subsequent recognition of *Khari Boli* as the medium of instruction; (ii) the contribution of Bhartendu Harish Chandra; (iii) the publication of various journals and magazines in that language, (iv) and the establishment of the Nagri Pracharni Sabha at Benaras and the founding of *Saraswati*.

The first decade of the 20th century was mainly dominated by *Saraswati* and its editor Mahavir Prasad Dwivedi (1870-1938), who advocated the cause of *Khari Boli* for poetic expression by bringing out in 1909 the *Kavita Kalap*, a collection of poems by himself and Shri Maithili Sharan Gupta, Nathuram Shankar Sharma, Rai Devi Prasad Purna, and Kamta Prasad Guru.

This was followed by an independent poetical work in Khari Boli, *Priya Pravas* by Ayodhya Singh Upadhyaya (1865-1947). The patriotic sentiment of the period found expression in Maithili Sharan Gupta's *Bharat Bharati*.

On the whole till the year 1914, modern Hindi literature lacked richness and variety.

2. 1914-1950.

With the advent of the Non-Co-operation movement (1920) Hindi literature took a definite turn towards nationalism. Munshi Prem Chand (1884-1936), began to write in Hindi and attained unprecedented fame.

The year 1925 was the richest in literary productions.*

Poetry.

Hindi poetry has passed through three phases: narrative, mystical and progressive. Mukut Dhar Pande is the most important name in the first category, while the mystical poets drew their inspiration on the one hand from Kabir, Jayasi and Mira and on the other from Tagore, Shelley, Keats and Wordsworth. Shri Jaya Shankar Prasad (1889-1937) was the most important poet of this group. His *Jharna* is an allegorical description of nature, but *Kumayani*, his masterpiece, is a complete study of human life in terms of Indian philosophy. The other mystical poets of a very high order are Nirala, Sumitra Nandan Pant and Shrimati Mahadevi Varma.

The most notable progressive poets are Nirala, Bhagwati Charan Varma, Ram Vilas Sharma and Shamsher Jung

Drama.

Bhartendu Harish Chandra is the founder of modern Hindi drama. He was followed by dramatists like Madhava Shukla, Badri Nath Bhatt, Govind Ballabh Pant, Makhan Lal Chaturvedi and Baldeo Prasad Misra. But the greatest modern dramatist was Jai Shankar Prasad, author of several brilliant historical dramas. His followers were Laxminarain Misra, Udaya Shankar Bhatt, Hari Krishna Premi and Seth Govind Das.

Among one-act playwrights, Bhogneshwar Misra, author of *Karvan*, Ganesh Prasad Dwivedi, Upendra Nath "Ashk," Ram Kumar Varma, Udai Shankar Bhatt, Seth Govind Das and Jagdish Chandra Mathur merit to be mentioned. Sumitra Nandan Pant's allegorical play, *Jyotsna*, is a unique creation in Hindi.

Fiction.

The novels of the 19th century writers like Deoki Nandan Khattri, author of *Chandra Kanta*, *Chandra Kanta Santati* and *Bhutnath*, and Kishori Lal Goswami (1865-1932) were mere thrillers and lacked insight into human psychology. Then

followed the period of translating Bengali and English novels. But the high priest of Hindi fiction was Prem Chand, whose *Godan* occupies the foremost place in Hindi novels. He was followed by Sudarshan, Chatursen Shastri, Jainendra Kumar, Bishambhar Nath Sharma, Kaushik, Bhagwati Charan Varma and others. Brindaban Lal Varma is the best historical novelist.

Among progressive novelists the most celebrated names are Yashpal Viplavi (*Dada Comrade and Divya*); Agcya (*Shekhar*); Upendra Nath "Ashak," Ilachandra Joshi (*Sanyasi*); Narottam Nagar (*Din ke Tare*); and Range Raghav (*Murdo ka Tila*).

Good short stories have been written by almost all prominent novelists, including Jai Shankar Prasad, and Prem Chand. Other well-known short story writers are Sudarshan, Bishambhar Nath Sharma, Chandra Shekhar Guleri (*Usne Kaha Tha*—one of the best short stories in Hindi), Jainendra Kumar, Ageya, Bhagwati Prasad Bajpai, Upendra Nath "Ashk," Bhagwati Prasad Varma and Chatursen Shastri. The younger writers are Yashpal, Ranghe Raghav, Ravi, Radha Krishna Prasad, Vishnu Prabhakar, Rajendra Yadav and Kamal Joshi.

Essays.

Pandit Mahavir Prasad Dwivedi was the first essayist in Hindi. He was followed by Madhava Prasad, Adyapak Puran Singh, Padayma Singh Sharma, Shyam Sundar Dass, Ram Chandra Shukla, Padama Lal Baxi, Hazari Prasad Dwivedi and Dhirendra Varma.

A great deal of literary criticism too has been produced, but its mention falls beyond the scope of the present survey.

Biography and autobiography have not been much developed in Hindi.

Some Prominent Contemporary Hindi Writers

1. **Ayodhya Singh Upadhyaya** (1865-1947).—Great poet. *Raskalash*, a remarkable poem in *Braja Bhasha*. Began to write in *Khari Boli* under the influence of Mahavir Prasad Dwivedi. *Priya Pravas*; *Chaukhe Chaupade*; *Chubhte Chaupade*; *Bol Chal*; *Vaidehi Banvas*; *Prajit-all* in *Khari Boli*, *Priya Pravas* is his best work.

2. **Bal Krishan Sharma** "Navin" (Born 1904)—A nationalist and revolutionary poet; has also written 'Srinagar' poetry. *Kumkum* and *Viplav Gan*.

3. **Bhagvaticharn Varma** (Born 1903).—An outstanding poet novelist and short story writer. His novel *Chitralekha* (modelled on Anatole France's *Thais*) was filmed and met with success. *Madhukon*; *Manab*; *Patan*; *Tin-Barsh*; *Do Banke*; *Terhe Merha Raste*.

4. **Chatusen Shastri** (Born 1891).—Novelist. *Hirdya ki Parakha ; Haridya ki Pyasa ; Amar Abhilasha.*

5. **Harbans Rai** “Bachchan” (Born 1901).—A progressive poet; inspired by Omar Khaiyam. *Tera-Hai ; Madhushala ; Madhubalas ; Madhukalas ; Sandhyageet.*

6. **Jai Shankar Prasad** (1889-1937).—One of the pillars of modern Hindi literature. Poet, dramatist, novelist and short story writer. Poems: *Kanan Kusum*; *Prem Pathik*; *Asu Jharna*; *Lahar*; *Karunalaya*; and *Kamayani* (his masterpiece). Plays: *Prayaschitya*; *Visakha*; *Skandugupta*; *Chandragupta*; *Ajat Satru*. Novels: *Kankul*; *Titli*. Short Stories: *Indu* (1911); *Akash Deep*, *Andhi*; *Pratidhahni*; and *Indrajal*.

7. **Jainendra Kumar** (Born 1905).—Novelist, short story writer, essayist and critic. Novels: *Sunita*; *Parak*; *Tyagpatra*; *Kalyani*; *Tapobhumi*.

8. **Mahadevi Verma** (Born 1905).—Famous mystical poetess. *Neehar*; *Rashim*; *Nirja*; *Sandhagit* all four published in one volume, *Yama*; *Deepshikha*. She is known as the Mira of the modern age.

9. **Maithilisarn Gupta** (Born 1886).—A very popular nationalist, outstanding poet. Awarded the Mangalaprasad Prize by Hindi Sahitya Sammelan for his *Saket*; also the recipient of an honorary D. Litt of Agra University. Translated Omar Khayyam and some Bengali poems. *Bharat-Bharati*; *Swadesh Sangeet*; *Panchavati*; *Gurukul*; *Meghnad-Badh*; *Yashodhra Virangna*; *Dwapar*; and several other volumes of verse.

10. **Makhan Lal Chaturvedi** (Born 1881).—A well known nationalist poet. *Him Kiritini*; *Him Tarangni*; ‘Balidan’, ‘Sipahi’ and ‘Ek Pusp ki Chah’ are very famous individual poems.

11. **Mohan Lal Mahto** (Born 1902).—Poet, short story writer and novelist, *Ek Tara*, *Nirmalya*; *Rekha*; *Kalpana*; *Rajkan*.

12. **Prem Chand** (1880-1937).—The greatest Hindi novelist and short story writer. *Seva Sadan*; *Rang Bhumi*; *Karma Bhumi*; *Kaya Kalap*; *Ghaban*; *Godan*; (his masterpiece). His novels have been translated into several languages. *Mansa-rowar*, collection of stories.

13. **Ramadhari Sinha**, “Dinkar” (Born 1908).—A great nationalist poet of Bihar. *Hunkar*; *Kurukshestra*; *Dwandwa Geet*; *Rasawanti*; *Renuka*; *Kalinga Vijay*.

14. **Sachidananda Hirananda Watsyayn** (Born 1911).—Famous poet and short story writer. Ex. Editor *Vishal Bharat*; *Bipathagan*; *Bhagna doot*, *Biswapriya*.

15. **Sudarsan** (Born 1896).—Poet, novelist, dramatist and short story writer; now engaged in movies. *Anjana*, a play;

Bhagwanti and *Parivartana*, novels. *Galpamanjori*; *Bhagya Chakra*; *Panghat*.

16. **Sumitranandan Pant** (Born 1900).—A celebrated poet of 'Rahasyawad' school. *Vina*; *Granthi*; *Gunjana*; *Pallava Gramaya*; *Ucchvas*.

17. **Surya Kant Tripathi "Nirala"** (Born 1896).—An outstanding poet, novelist, short story writer and essayist. *Poems*: *Parimal*; *Anamika*; *Gitika*; *Tulsidas*; *Anima*; *Bela*; and *Nai Patte*. *Novels*: *Alaka*; *Apsara*. He has also translated many Bengali works.

18. **Siyaramsaran Gupta** (Born 1895).—A famous poet, novelist and short story writer. *Nari*; *Mausi*; *Punna parba*; *Bapu*; *Bisad*.

19. **Uday Shankar Bhatt** (Born 1897).—A romantic poet and dramatist. *Poems*: *Takshashila*. *Plays*: *Vikramaditya*; *Amba*.

20. **Upendra Nath "Ashk"** (Born 1910).—A progressive novelist, short story writer and dramatist. *Nao-ratna*; *Asrat-ki-Fitrat*; *Dasi*; *Parajay*; *Sitaron ke Khel*; *Swarg ki Jhalak*; *Girti Deewaren*.

(ii) ASSAMESE.

In ancient times Assam was known as Prag-jyotisha or Kamrup, both names being used for it in classical Sanskrit literature. The modern designation Assam is derived from the Shan or Tai invaders who came to be referred to as Ahom in contemporary literature. In course of time Ahom was changed into Assam.

The language province is called Asamiya—Assamese being an Anglicised formation. It probably originated from Magadhi or Gauda Apabhramsa, but it has not yet been determined as to when exactly the Assamese language came into its own.

The Assamese script was derived from old Devanagri alphabets. Originally there were several Assamese scripts but later on all the scripts were merged into one. With the setting up of the printing-press at Serampur, near Calcutta, Assamese books came to be printed in the Bengali script, which has since then been adopted for Assamese with certain modifications.

The earliest Assamese literature comprises unwritten folk-songs known as Bihugits, pastoral ballads, marriage songs, nursery rhymes, Vachans, notably Dakar Vachans.

Recorded Assamese literature begins with the fourteenth century:

The first great Assamese poet was Madhav Kandali (14th cent.). Then came the production of Vaisnavite literature (1450-1650) under the patronage of Koch rulers. Sankar Deva

(1449-1569), the real founder of Assamese literature belongs to this period. His disciple Maha Dev (1489-1596) also made notable contributions, while Assamese prose was created by Bhattacharya (1558-1638). Then followed the Golden Age of Assamese literature (1650-1834) under the generous and enlightened patronage of Ahom rulers. The most notable production of the age was *Buranjis*, a sort of historical narratives, mostly in prose, mixed with fulsome praise of Ahom rulers.

The conquest of a large part of Assam by Muslim rulers and the policy of religious intolerance followed by some of the later Ahom rulers (who were followers of the Sakta cult) plunged the country into internal strife and a period of decadence set in, culminating in the occupation of the country by the British (1826), who replaced the Assamese language by Bengali in 1836. Assamese remained a neglected tongue for about fifty years to come.

(v) The Revival of Assamese Literature.

The revival of Assamese literature was largely brought about by contact with Western thought and literature, through Christian missionaries, and by the efforts of Anand Ram Dhekial Phookan, a great scholar and reformer, rightly called the Raja Ram Mohan Roy of Assam. The members of the Baptist mission established a printing press at Sibasagar, brought out an Assamese Grammar (1840), an Assamese Dictionary (1868), printed Bakul Kayastha's *Kitabab Manjari* (1845), established an Assamese magazine *Orunadai* (1846) and encouraged the native literature in several other ways. Finally in 1882 Assamese was restored in courts and schools, and with the founding of the *Jonuki* magazine (1889), the Assamese Renaissance may be said to have attained its height.

Modern Assamese Literature.

The English education, popularized by Christian missionaries and A. D. Phukan opened a new vista of thought and inspiration. Literature was liberated from the shackles of classicism and religion. It became secular and realistic. The influence was felt most in the sphere of poetry, which broke new ground in subject matter, technique and metre. The lyric replaced the epic and devotional poetry of the old. Varieties of poems, reflective, descriptive, historical, didactic and political began to be produced. Besides, dramas, fiction (both novels and short stories), and other varieties of prose also began to appear.

The high priests of the new literature were the famous 'Trio' of the *Jonuki* school—Lakhshminath Bez Baruah, Chandra Kumar and Hem Chandra Goswami.

Lakshminath Bez Baruah : a versatile genius; has written fiction, drama, sonnets, poems, satires, humorous sketches, above

all short stories. His song *Mor-des* (My country) has become the Assamese national anthem.

Chandra Kumar Agarwalla : The moving spirit behind the *Jonaki* school of thought; chiefly a romantic poet, a worshipper of Man and the Spirit behind Nature.

Hem Chandra Goswami : a life long devotee of Assamese language and literature; his contribution is immense, including lyrical poems, sonnets, and prose writings in chaste and elegant Assamese. Edited the *Hemkosh*, an etymological Dictionary; *Assamiya Sahitya Chaneki* (Typical selections from Assamese Literature), his monumental work.

Other Writers.

1. **Ambikagiri Roy Choudhury**—Poet; has written a number of political poems. *Songs of the Sea* (Translated into English).

2. **Chandraprova Saikiani**—an outstanding prose writer, espouses the cause of women. *Pitrivita; Sovicl Nari*.

3. **Dandinath Kalita**—a satirical poet, one of the leading writers. *Sadhuna; Phul; Ragar; Dipy; Satir Tej*.

4. **Dharanidhar**—an eminent post-war poet; writes intensely national and revolutionary poems. *Shikha*.

5. **Gunabhiram Barua**—a notable dramatist. *Ram Navami Natak*-a problem play on the theme of widow remarriage. Also a skilled prose writer.

6. **Hem Chandra Barua**—Dramatist and novelist. *Kaniyar Kirtan* (The Gospel of the Opium Eater) - a remarkable play on the evils of opium-eating. *Bahire rong song bhitar-koa-bhuturi* (All that glitters is not gold), a powerful satirical novel, exposing the hypocrisy and orthodoxy of Hinduism.

7. **Nilmonoy Phukon**—a writer of popular romances. *Manashi; Chintamani*.

8. **Raghunath Choudhury**—a romantic poet of Nature, esp. of birds, brooks, and flowers. Combines in himself the eye of a naturalist with the heart of a poet. *Dahikotara, Ketaki*.

9. **Rajani Kanta Bardoloi**—occupies a prominent place in modern Assamese fiction. *Miri-Jiyari* (1895) his first romantic novel. His later novels are historical. *Manomati; Rangili, Nirmal-bhakat*.

10. **Sailadhar Rajkhowa**—Belongs to the younger group of poets; writes about rivers, historical places and persons.

Women Writers.

Padmaavati Phukanani was the earliest woman writer of fiction; **Nalinibala Devi** is a mystic poetess, author of *Swapaner*

Sur; generally bracketed with Dharmeswari Devi, another mystic poetess; **Snehalata Bhattacharyya** and **Chandraprabha Shaikia** write novels and short stories.

(iii) BENGALI

The Bengali language, an offspring of Magadhi Prakrit, with a considerable admixture of Sanskrit words, took a definite shape about the 13th century, while Bengali literature may be said to have come into its own in the 14th century. This literature, in its early stages, was considerably influenced both by Brahminism and Buddhism. In modern times, it has developed into one of the richest of Indian literatures.

A. OLD BENGALI LITERATURE

(i) The Vaishnavite poets :

The poets of this school draw their inspiration from the eternal theme of the love of Radha and Krishna, whom they look upon more as companions than as deities. Love of man and woman, both in its material and spiritual aspects, is the theme of their poetry, which consists mostly of short lyrics set to music and intended to be sung. The work of these poets correspond to the poetry of 'Bhakti rasa' in Hindi. Saint Chaitanya is generally hailed as their patron and fountain-head. These poets belong to all classes of society, including women and Musalmans and they often lose their individuality and become the voice of the community as a whole.

Chandi Das (14th cent.).—The Father of Bengali literature ; a temple priest ; belonged to a Buddhist sect called Sahajia ; famous for his love for Rami, a washer-woman. *Padavali*, a collection of songs, remarkable for simplicity, sweetness and pathos, though inferior in craftsmanship to those of Jaydev and Vidyapati.

Vidyapati (14th cent.), a learned Brahmin of Mithila and court poet of Raja Siva Sinha in North Bihar ; supposed to have loved the Rani of Raja Siva. His songs lack the spiritual insight and emotional depth of Chandidas, but they are unsurpassed for command of metre and exquisite diction. Influenced Rabindra Nath Tagore.

(ii) The Sakta Poets.

These poets pay homage to and draw their inspiration from the Great Kali, the symbol of the various aspects of Nature. She is Sakti or Power, Durga or Chandi, the Protectress, Laksmi, the bringer of prosperity, Manasa, the queen of snakes, Saraswati the patron of knowledge and the arts, Sitala, the goddess of

small-pox, Shasti the bestower of many children. But she is above all the universal mother. "Bande Mataram" (I adore thee, Mother !), the famous national song by Bankim Chandra Chatterjee, is addressed to her. The Sakta poet sings of her various qualities and of the numerous legends associated with her. There is also a school of Siva poets, but curiously enough this great god has received scant attention in Bengal. His mighty consort has eclipsed him and he lives in the popular mind as hemp-intoxicated beggar, affectionately called "Pagla Baba" (Mad Daddy).

One of the most famous legends about Kali is the story of Chand Sadagar, better known as the Behula legend, which has found the best treatment in the hands of Vijaya Gupta (15th cent) and Ketaka Das (17th cent.)

Ram Prasad Sen (18th cent.), addressed her in his songs as the Divine Mother. Owing to their musical appeal, his poems have become as popular as "Kirtans" and are known as "Ramprasadi".

Kali's power and mercy are best illustrated in the tales of Kalketu the Hunter and Srimanta the Merchant which has been best done by Kavikankan Mukundaram Chakravarti (16th cent.), a great narrative poet. His *Chandi* is famous all over Bengal.

Bharat Chandra Roy (18th Cent.) is remembered for his *Vidya Sundar*, a long narrative poem about another celebrated Kali legend; the story of Prince Sundar's secret nocturnal love-making with Princess Vidya. The poem is remarkable for wisdom, grace, wit, and precision, but owing to a certain element of obscenity it is not so popular as Kavi Kankan's *Chandi*.

(iii) The Buddhist Poets

Buddhism was one of the earliest formative influences on Bengali literature. Most of the Buddhist poets wrote in a Bengali which is little understood today. The theme of their poetry comprises; (i) poetic legends associated with the Buddhist principle called 'Dharma': and (ii) ballads and stories connected with a semi-Buddhist cult, chiefly propagated by the saints Minanath and Gorakshanath. The literature of the first category came to be known as "Dharma Mangal", and its best representative was Ramai Pandit (11th or 12th cent.) an untouchable and author of *Sunya Puran*. The poetry of the other category found its best spokesmen in Ghanaram's (17th century) and Sahadev (18th cent.), who wrote chiefly ballads about the aforementioned saints. In course of time these saints inspired many minor writers, whose works bear the common name *Goraksha Vijay* i. e. the glorification of the saint's triumph over temptations. This literature, generally known as "Nath ballads", gained popularity outside Bengal also.

(iv) The Muslim Poets.

The Bengali Muslim poets did not suffer from provincial or religious bias: they wrote Vaishnava poetry, Sakta poetry and some even "Goraksha vijay" poems. The two greatest poets were Daulat Kazi and Alawal (both 17th cent.), attached to the Buddhist court of Roshang (modern Arakan in Burma,) patronized by a minister Magan Thakur, a Muslim.

Daulat Kazi: Died young; *Sati Mayna*, his unfinished masterpiece, relating the story of Mayna, whose husband Prince Lor loved another woman, Princess Chandrani.

Alawal: A pillar of Bengali literature; very learned; *Padmavati*, his masterpiece, a translation of Malik Muhammad Jaysi's famous Hindi poem *Padmavat*. Its language is Bengali, but it was written in Persian script. The poem is much more than a mere liberal translation of the original.

(v) The Translators of the great Indian Epics.

The Ramayana.

Krittibas Ojha (15th cent.)—The foremost Bengali Ramayana writer and founder of Bengali narrative verse. His *Ramayana* was published by European missionaries in the 19th cent.

Chandravati (16th cent.)—Poetess of Mymensingh district in East Bengal. Made a translation of the *Ramayana* and also wrote some ballads.

The Mahabharata.

This epic was translated before the 15th cent. for Nasrat Shah, a Muslim ruler, but the work is lost. Sanjaya (15th cent.) made the first extant translation of the *Mahabharata*, but the best rendering is by Kasiram Das (17th cent.), who gave it a Bengali touch.

Besides the epics *The Bhagavata* was translated by Brindabandas (16th cent.) and Krishnadas Kaviraj. (16th cent.), the latter's *Chaitanya Charitamrit* having become a classic of Bengali literature.

(vi) Folk Literature.

There is a great bulk of folk literature, consisting of tales, fables in verse, "chharas" (nursery rhymes), ballads, 'Baul' songs, "Bhawaias" (songs of professional singers in eastern Bengal dialects) "Vachans" etc. Unfortunately a large part of it remains uncollected and unpublished. The only important publication is a collection of folk tales by Dakshinaranjan Mitra Mojumdar.

B. NEW BENGALI LITERATURE

In the early and middle years of the 19th century Bengal experienced a great Renaissance in the field of thought and letters.

Raja Ram Mohan Roy stood at the head of the movement and soon a number of talented Bengalis took up his lead. In the realm of literature the great awakening showed itself in the emergence of prose, enrichment of poetry and rise of drama.

Michael Madhusudan Dutt (1824-73).—The founder of the new Bengali literature. Took to Bengali, after having produced some first rate English verse. His writings are of a heroic cast, grand and majestic. *Meghnad Badh* (written a few years after the Indian Mutiny) is an epic of enduring greatness, dealing with the famous story of the slaying of Meghnad, son of Ravana, by Lakshman and of the remarkable fidelity of his (Meghnad) wife. Also wrote devotional lyrics about Radha and Krishna, entitled *Brajangava*, and Petrarchan sonnets in Bengali.

Bankim Chandra Chatterjee (1838-1893).—The literary king of Bengal after Madhusudan and creator of the Bengali novel. Swayed by patriotic sentiments, he strove in his work to restore national pride and self-respect. Chose historical heroic themes for his novels, which occasionally suffer from a certain anti-Muslim bias. Gifted with powerful imagination and a delightful sense of humour. *Historical novels*; *Mrinalini*, presenting a vivid picture of Bengal, betrayed by her Quislings to the early Muslim invaders.

Durgeshnandni, *Kapala Kundala*; both have for their setting Bengal of Akbar's times; *Raj Singh* deals with Rajput chivalry in the time of Aurangzeb; *Sitaram* deals with Bengal under the Nawabs of Murshidabad; *Chandra Shekhar*, *Devichandhurani* and *Anandamath*, have for their setting the early period of the rise of the British in India.

Social novels: *Bishbriksha* and *Kishnakanter*—all deal with the problem of beautiful young widows. *Indira* is supposed to be his best work.

Other writers of the latter half of the 19th century.

Dinbandhu Mitra (real name was Gandharva Narayan) (1829-73)—A gifted dramatist, author of a number of fine comedies, bubbling with wit and humour, and dealing with social evils. His masterpiece, however, is a tragedy *Nil Darpan*, dealing with the cruelty of indigo planters. The play created an uproar in India and abroad and was instrumental in removing some of the malpractices of indigo planters. It was translated into English by Michael Madhusudan Dutt, and was also rendered into several other European languages. Great both as propaganda and a work of art.

Drama was developed by a number of other playwrights, notably Girish Chandra Ghosh, known as the Garrick of Bengal for his mastery of acting and stage craft. He wrote a large number of plays about Hindu mythology and Indian history, the chief of them being *Java*, *Bilavamangal* and *Pandav Gaurab*.

Poets.

Most of these poets were moved by humanitarianism and patriotism. Taking their cue from Michael Madhu Sudhan's *Megnadh Badh*, they were fired with the ambition of writing epics. The most memorable productions were *Vritra Samhar* by Hem Chandra Bannerjee and *Plasir Juddha* (the Battle of Plassey) by Nabin Chandra Sen. Bihari Lal Chakravarti standing apart from his contemporaries, was content to be a worshipper of beauty. His attitude and writings have left their stamp on Tagore.

Prose Writer.

Prose developed largely through the efforts of Iswar Chandra Vidyasagar, the great social reformer, Romesh Chandra Dutt, author of historical tales and social novels, Sanjib Chandra Chatterjee (brother of Bankim Chandra), a talented novelist, Trailokyanath Mukherjee, who wrote the children's tale *Kankavati*, Keshub Chandra Sen, editor of *Sulabh Samachar* and Mir Musharrraf Hussain whose *Bishad Sindhu* (Ocean of Sorrow) is almost a classic on the well-known theme of the Karbala tragedy.

The Twentieth Century.

Rabindra Nath Tagore (1861-1941)—The greatest Bengali writer ; enjoys international fame. Came of a talented and versatile family. Began verse-making at the age of three or four ; at thirteen his poems appeared in print and as an adult he was known all over Calcutta. A prolific and versatile genius ; produced in an endless stream poems, plays, stories, novels, essays, reviews, nursery rhymes, ballads, songs and paintings. Reflected every current and change in the Bengali social and literary scene, so that he became a national institution, the voice and conscience of his country. Poems : *Gitanjali* ; *Balka* ; *Sonar Tari* ; *Shishu Katha O Kahini* ; *Kheya* ; *Palataka* ; *Purabi*. Plays : *Bisarjan* ; *Natir Puja* ; *Raja O Rani* ; *Rakta Karavi*. Novels : *Gora* (his masterpiece) ; *Kumudni* ; *Ankh ki kirkiri* ; *Chare Baire*.

Devijendra Lal Ray (1864-1912)—An outstanding poet swayed by patriotic sentiment. Strove for Hindu Muslim unity ; wrote mostly on heroic and historical subjects. *Chandragupta* and *Shah Jehan* are his best plays. Also wrote some beautiful sonnets.

Sarat Chandra Chatterjee A great novelist. Unconventional in his moral and social outlook. His novels are full of a passionate sympathy for the oppressed and the weak. He generally depicts village folk and his women are well-drawn. Novels : *Srikanta* (best known) ; *Grihadah*, considered to be

his masterpiece ; *Charitrakin* (the Immoralists), the most discussed of his novels, presenting the tussle between rationality and conventional morality ; *Bari Didi* ; *Dev Das* ; *Len Den* ; *Vijaya*, *Dehati Samaj*.

Important Living Writers.

Achintya Sen Gupta (1903).—A pronounced Freudian and a leading figure of the Kallol group. His early novels *Bibaher Cheye Barho* and *Prachir o Prantar* were proscribed for pornographic touches. Now he depicts every day life of the lowest classes with a Marxist bias. Works : *Amabasya* ; *Priya O Prithvi* ; *Indrani* ; *Sanket mayee*.

Annada Shanker Ray (1904).—Began his literary career by writing verses, but is essentially a prose writer, producing novels and essays—all in a colloquial style tempered with a good deal of intellectualism. *Urki Dhaner Murkhi* ; *Nalun Radha* ; *Satyasatya* ; *Pathe-probase*.

Banaful (Balai Chand Mukherjee) (1899).—An ultramodernist, a great prose writer, with new experiments to his credit. Writes extremely short stories—often not more than half a page long. His novel *Jangam*, with about a thousand characters, is a fine specimen of plotless and heroless fiction. *Banafuler Kavita* ; *Banafuler Aro Galpa* ; *Vidyasagar* ; *Ratri* ; *Dana*.

Bishnu De (1909).—A distinguished poet with an ultra modern technique of poetry, which makes his poems often difficult and obscure. Has also produced a few remarkable prose works. *Sandwipper Char*.

Buddhadeva Bose (1908).—A Freudian and a leading member of the Kallol group. Outstanding critic, poet, novelist and personal essayist. Editor *Kavita*, a monthly. *Bandir Bandana* ; *Droupadir Sarni* ; *Sarha* ; *Kaler Putul* ; *Uttar Tiris*.

Jibanananda Das (1899).—A great romantic poet, with a considerable following ; fond of new technique and experiments. *Dhusar Pandulipi* ; *Maha Prithvi*.

Kazi Nazrul Islam (1899-).—A great poet—the spokesman of defiant nationalism ; appeals to the mass mind. His most popular work is *Vidrohi* (The Rebel). Some of his books were declared seditious and banned. He is at present a lunatic. *Agni Vina* ; *Bisher Banshi* ; *Nazrul Gitika*.

Manik Bannerjee (1908-).—An outstanding novelist, stressing the subtlety and complexity of human nature. His work tends to be enigmatical. *Putul Nacher Itikatha* ; *Shahartali* ; *Atasi Mami*.

Premendra Mitra (1904-).—One of the greatest modern poets ; associated with the Kallol group. Also a novelist and short story writer. *Prathama Samrat* ; *Michil* ; *Pank* ; *Kuasha*.

Sailajananda Mukherjee (1901-).—An ultra modernist of the Kallool group. Wrote short stories about mine-diggers, rustics and other working class people. Has now devoted himself to the production of films. *Narimedh; Nandini; Shahar Theke Dure.*

Tara Shankar Bannerjee (1898-).—One of the most modern popular writers ; a short story writer of the front rank. His theme is the decaying feudal society of Bengal. Some of his novels have been dramatised and filmed. *Kalindi; Dhatridevata; Kavi; Dui Purush.*

Literary activity in Bengal, during the past few years, has been very great and there are at least two dozen more popular and important living writers but in a brief survey like the present, there is no room for them.

(iv) GUJARATI.

Gujarati is spoken by about ten million people. Gujarat, Kathiawad and Cutch are the home of this language. Its origin is traced back to Puranic Sanskrit. Gujarati literature proper commences from about the 14th century.

Literature and religion are as inseparable in early Gujarati writings as in other Indian languages. Hence, a large bulk of Gujarati literature down to the 18th century is steeped in religious and devotional sentiment.

Though Gujarati is the mother-tongue of Hindus, Muslim and Parsees, the contribution of Muslims to its literature is practically nill, while the names of Parsi writers can be counted on one's finger ends. Again, though Gujarati remained under Muslim rule for several centuries, Gujarati writers seldom or never draw upon Arabic and Persian sources. Their source of inspiration is usually classical Sanskrit literature and Hindu scriptures.

(i) Prominent Writers of Old Gujarati

(The names are arranged in chronological order.)

Miran Bai (1403-1479).—Famous Bhakti poetess. Not a born Gujarati, but a Marwadi Rajasthani ; learnt the language after reaching Dwarka. Wrote about 250 devotional songs, which are extremely popular, especially among women folk. The songs are sweeter in language and chaster in sentiment than those of Narsingh.

2. **Narsingh Mehta** (1414-1481).—One of the pillars of early Gujarati poetry ; an ardent Krishna worshipper. His poems are both philosophical and devotional as well as full of ‘Sringar’ (erotic sentiment). Wrote 1½ lac ‘Padas’ (verses). His other works are *Sudama Charitra, Chatri, Har Mala, Chaturi Shodasi* and *Samaldasno Virah.*

3. **Bhalan** (1439-1539).—An outstanding poet. Translated ina Bhatt's *Kadambari* into Gujarati. His original works are *rabdsati*, *Nar Akhyan*, *Dashamskand* and *Ram Bal Lila Pad*, the last considered to be his masterpiece.

4. **Akho** (1615-1675).—He began a new epoch in Gujarati poetry by introducing a secular note. His poems are both philosophical and satirical. *Panchikaran*, *Akhe Gita*, *Guru Vissha Sambad*, *Shatpali*, are all treatises on Sankar's Vedanta philosophy, laying stress on 'Bhakti' (devotion). They are rather obscure and hence not very popular with the lay reader. He is 'Chappas' and 'Padas,' which expose worldly hypocrisy, and remarkable for his command of biting satire.

5. **Premanand** (1636-1734).—He occupies the foremost place among Gujarati poets. Loved the Gujarati language passionately and strove to raise its dignity; founded a literary club of about a hundred persons, including twelve women. He was a very popular Puran reciter (a sort of bard) for the higher classes and through his stories in verse imparted "Gyan" (knowledge). He wrote 36 works. *Nalakhana* (1685), the story of Nal; *Sudama Charit*; *Harischundra*; *Ushaharan*; *Ibhimanyu* (1671), the last two being very famous. Poems about Narsingh Mehta's son deal with domestic Gujarati life.

6. **Samal Bhatt** (1700-1766).—Enjoyed great recognition and popularity. Author of 24 works, some narrative, others religious and didactic. His best narrative poem is the long love romance *Madan Mohana*, while *Samal Ratnamala* is a good specimen of his didactic poetry. One of the special features of his stories is the use of riddles in the form of questions and answers.

7. **Vallabh Bhatt** (1700).—His 'Garbas' in honour of the goddess 'Amba' or 'Kali' are very famous. Some of his other poems expose the immorality and depression of his age.

8. **Pritam Das** (1718-1798).—A follower of Ramananda. Wrote in simple language. Translated the *Gita*, the *Ramayana* and eleven cantos of *Bhagwata*. *Pritam ki Vani* is his original work. His 'Pads' and 'Garbas' are very popular.

9. **Daya Ram** (1777-1852).—One of the three monarchs of Gujarati letters, the other two being Narsingh and Premanand. A very handsome man, who dressed himself as a dandy; remained a bachelor, but during the early part of his life he had many love affairs. Became a devout follower of Vallabhacharya in his later life. He had great mastery over music. A great scholar, who knew Hindi, Marathi, Sanskrit, Punjabi, Urdu and Telegu. A very prolific writer. 48 works in Gujarati, 41 in Braj, 7,000 'Padas' in Gujarati, 12,000 in Braj, 200 in Marathi, 40 in Punjabi, 15 in Sanskrit and 75 in Urdu. Very few of these are obtainable. His works are of three kinds, religious, ethical and erotic. The

most popular are his 'Garbas', *Rasik Ballabh*, *Pariksha Pradeep* and *Lochamanka Jhagra*.

(ii) Modern Gujarati Literature

Modern Gujarati began with 1850. Contact with the West and its literature brought about a literary renaissance in Gujarati.

The First Phase (1850-1885).-- During the first phase of the new age a number of literary societies were founded—the Gujarat Vernacular Society, the Puddhivardhak Sabha, the Jnanracharak Sabha and the Forbes Sabha. Under the impact of Western thought and culture a wave of social reform swept over Gujarat. The writers of the period, often sacrificed art for the sake of social regeneration.

Another feature of the period was the tendency to draw inspiration from the romantic literature of Victorian England. Shakespeare, Scott, Bulwer Lytton, Shelley and Keats exercised the greatest influence on the writers of this period.

Dalpat Ram (1820-1898).-- He serves as a link between the old and new Gujarati literature, Poet and dramatist. *Veena Charitra* is his best work. Edited *Buddhiprakash*, the first literary magazine in the language.

Narmada Shankar (1833-1886).-- The founder of Modern Gujarati and of the Buddhivardhak Sabha in Bombay. Introduced revolutionary changes in the form and diction of poetry. Wrote on love and patriotism. His *Atmalakshi Kavya* is the first attempt in subjective poetry in Gujarati. Also the father of modern Gujarati dictionary (1873).

The other writers of the period were Navalram, founder of the modern school of literary criticism ; Mahipatram, author of *Vanraj Chavdo*, a great historical novel ; Nand Shankar (1835-1905), whose *Karan Chelo*, (1868) a historical novel, modelled on Scott's works, is found in every Gujarati family ; Ichha Ram Surya Ram Desai, author of *Vrihita Kavyadahan*, an extremely popular series of songs ; Ranchhbodhai, known for his society to appreciate Shakespeare ; Mansukhram, Talyarkhan, Bholanath Sarbhai, Hargovind Das and a few Parsi writers.

The Second Phase (1885-1914) and The Third Phase (1914-1951).-- The second phase may be called the period of Sanskritic revival. A number of Gujarati scholars appeared on the scene. During the third phase, the World War exercised a great influence. Writers became realistic and unconventional. Communism appeared on the scene.

i. **Govardhanram (1855-1907).**-- His *Saraswatichandra* (1887) is hailed as the best work of the age. It is a novel of real life in four parts, inspired by Bana and Magha, Wordsworth

and Lytton. It presents a picture of the fusion of the ancient Aryan culture and new western influences.

2. **Manilal Nabhu Bhai Dwivedi** (1858-1898).—A great prose writer and philosopher. He developed the essay and interpreted the Vedanta to Gujarat.

3. **Narsinha Rao** (1859-1937).—After 1887, he remained, for 40 years, in the front rank in Gujarati literature as a poet, critic, essayist and above all a philologist. *Kusumamala* (1887), a collection of romantic poems, lyrics, odes. *Hridayavina* and *Nupurajhankara*—collections of poems. *Smarana Sanhita*—an elegy on the death of his son, recalling Tennyson's *In Memoriam*.

4. **D. B. Keshav Lal Dhruv** (1859-1937).—A great scholar known for his translations of *Gitagovinda*, *Amarasataka*, *Vikramorvasiya*, *Mudrarakshasa* and the plays of Bhasa.

5. **D. B. Krishna Lal Jhaveri** (1868).—A veteran critic. Author of *Milestone in Gujarati Literature*, Vols. I to III.

6. **Sir Ramanbhai** (1868).—An outstanding literary critic and humorous writer. *Kavta ane Sahitya*, a collection of critical essays; *Bhadram Bhadra*, a famous satirical work, reminding the reader of Dickens's *Pickwick Papers*; *Raino Parvata*, a high class literary drama.

7. **Manishankar Bhatt** (Kant) (died 1923).—Wrote little poetry, but whatever he wrote is excellent. *Purvalapa*, lyrics of great beauty, perfect in form and technique. *Khanda Kavya*, a short descriptive poem.

8. **Thakor of Lathi, Sursinhji** (Kalapi) (1874-1900).—A sort of Gujarati Keats. Wrote intensively subjective poetry, often of a sentimental character.

9. **Dr. Anandshankar Dhruva** (1869-1942).—A great philosopher and scholar of Sanskrit and Pro-Vice-Chancellor of the Banaras Hindu University. Regarded as a high priest and referee of Gujarati literature.

10. **Prof. Balwant Rai Thakore** (1869).—A versatile writer—poet, dramatist, essayist, historian and critic. He has inspired the whole group of new poets, especially in evolving new poetic technique.

11. **Khabardar** (1882).—Parsi poet, who has written, in chaste Gujarati, a number of poems, songs, Garbis prayers, and patriotic songs of modern Gujrat.

12. **Kavi Nanalal** (1877-1946).—The greatest modern Gujarati poet. Wrote for sometime under the pen name of "Prem Bhakti". Describes conjugal love with rare and pure idealism; has recreated old folk-songs and written extremely musical and appealing lyrics and Garbis, coined new forceful and expressive words,

and revived words from old Gujarati and Kathiawadi ; created his own rhythmic prose which he called Apadyagadya.

13. **Kanaiya Lal Maneck Lal Munshi** (:887-).—The most outstanding figure in modern Gujarati literature. He has written historical and social novels, Puranic and social dramas, short stories and works on criticism, essays, addresses, biographies and autobiographies. His work is characterised by fiery idealism, joy of life and unconventionality. Came into prominence with his novel *Patan ka Prabhu* (1911) which was followed by *Gujarat no Nath* (1918-19) and *Prithi Vallabh* (1920-22). His historical novels give a romantic picture of ancient Gujarat. *Verni-Vasulat* is his best social novel. In English he wrote *Gujarata and Its Literature* and a *History of Imperial Gujjars*. He has in all about forty-five works to his credit. *Jai Somnath* is his most popular novel these days.

14. **Mahatma Gandhi** (1869-1948).—His contribution lies in his autobiography, letters and articles on various subjects which are characterised by intense sincerity, and couched in chaste, direct and clear language. He has a host of followers, notably Kaka Kalekar, a Maharashtrian but with a superb command over Gujarati, and Kishori Lal Mashruwala, who has interpreted the philosophical side of Gandhism.

15. **Raman Lal Desai** (1882-).—Dramatist and novelist. His play *Shankita Hridaya* became very popular. *Divya Chakshu*, his best novel, depicting the Satyagraha movement, Gandhiji's gospel, untouchability and the heroism of Gujarat.

16. **Gaurishankar Joshi or Dhumaketu** (1892-).—Author of good short stories, collected under the title *Tankha*, and of historical novels after the manner of K. M. Munshi.

17. **Jhaverchand Meghani** (1897-).—He has sung gloriously of the Gandhi age. Has made the *charani* bardic literature available to Gujarat; composed folk-songs, heroic poems, *Halardans* and rasas.

Women Writers.

Mirabai was the greatest poetess of Western India in the 16th century. In subsequent centuries Diwalibai, Radhabai, Krishnabai, Gauribai and others followed her tradition. In modern times, the famous writers are Sumati Trivedi (d. 1911), Vijaya Lakshmi Trivedi (d. 1913) Dipakba Desai (all three known for their poems); Hansa Mehta, author of three plays and translator of Shakespeare's *Hamlet*; Priyamati or Jyotsna Shukla, a poetess; and Lila Vati Munshi (wife of K. M. Munshi), who jointly edited *Gujarat* for some years with her husband and wrote *Rekha Chitro* and *Bija Laekho* (Sketches and other Writings), Kumaradevi, a play, *Jivanmanthi Jadeli*, a collection

of plays, *Vadhu Rekha Chitro* (Further Sketches) and short stories.

Literary journals *Vasant*; *Prasthan*; *Gujarat*, *Kaumudi*, *Sahitya*; *Urmī*; *Kumar*; *Navjivan*; *Gujarati* and *Prajabandhu*.

(v) MAITHILI

Maithili is the mother-tongue of the present North Bihar, once the kingdom of the great Janaka. In olden days it was also the mother-tongue and court language of Nepal.

Like all other Indian literatures Maithili faced a period of neglect and decay during the 18th and early 19th centuries. During the last hundred years vigorous efforts have been made to rehabilitate it, but it is not yet so well developed as the other North Indian languages such as Bengali, Hindi, Marathi or Gujarati.

NEW MAITHILI LITERATURE

Maithili shared the great Renaissance which followed in the wake of India's impact with Western thought and literature during the middle of the last century. Maharaja Lakshminswara Sinha, who ruled over Mithila from 1880 to 1898, first encouraged English education in his country, thus infusing fresh energy into the social, cultural and literary life of the people. The scholarly atmosphere of his court attracted all manner of writers and contributions began to enrich Maithili literature. Some well-known writers of the 20th Century—Canda Jha, Raghunandanadasa, Dr. Sir Ganganatha Jha and his brothers, Vindhyanatha Jha and Gananatha Jha, started their careers during this period.

Centres of New Literature.

A number of literary centres, inside and outside the province, were founded. The most important centre was the school of Benaras, under the guidance of Mm. Muralidhara Jha, who, among other things, started a monthly journal *Mithilamoda* (1906). After his death (1929), the activities of this centre were shifted to the Benaras Hindu University, which, in course of time, recognized Maithili as an independent subject for its examinations.

The next centre was set up at Darbhanga, under the patronage of the Maharaja, with Mm. Parameshwara Jha, Canda Jha, Vidhyanatha Jha, Sitanatha Jha and Sir Ganganatha Jha as its pioneer workers. It started a paper *Mithila-Mihira* (1907-8), but owing to the indifference of the Patna University, the work of this centre was greatly impeded.

Other notable centres were established at Jaipur and Ajmer, while in Calcutta, the late Sir Ashutosh Mukerjee proved a

great patron of Maithili. Other eminent Bengalis also championed its cause, so that a chair for Maithili was founded in the University of Calcutta in 1917, and in 1919 the University recognized Maithili as an independent language for the M. A. examination. The Bengalees also evolved a new type of Maithili script and published a few works in Maithili, the most important being the *Varnanaratnakara*, the oldest Maithili prose classic of Jyotirishwara Thakura.

In recent times, the Darbhanga School of Maithili has come into its own, largely through the efforts of Maharajadhiraja Sir Kameshwara Sinha Bahadur. The Patna University has also recognized the language and the atmosphere in the province has become more favourable, a number of new centres having sprung up in the principal provincial towns. Maithili script has received new life through the diligent care of Shrinath Misra and Jivanath Raya.

Writers of the 20th Century.

Poets.

1. **Canda Jha** (1830-1907).—A great poet, a musician and a Sanskritist—an institution in himself. *Mithilabhasa-Ramayana*, his masterpiece, popular for the sweetness of its language and style. *Mahesavanis*, a series or more than a thousand devotional poems in praise of Siva, is enjoyed in every family of Mithila and in every temple of Siva. As a Bhakti poet he ranks with Vidyapati and Govindadasa.

2. **Munshi Raghusundaranadasa** (1860-). A grand old writer. *Subhadra-harana*, an epic, his masterpiece and one of the greatest contributions to modern Maithili literature.

3. **Laladasa**—A Karnakayastha of Khadua, a prolific writer. Aims to popularise the Puranic stories among semi-illiterates and women, with a view to teaching them lessons on duty. *Pativratacara*; *Janakiramayana*; *Ganesakhanda* and *Savitrisatyavanakatha*.

Among the older poets of the present century, the other notable names are Vidyanatha Jha and Gananatha Jha (both elder brothers of the late Sir Ganganatha Jha), Pulakitalaladass, Yadunatha Jha, author of a charming work *Koiliduti*, and Gangadhara Misra of Bhagalpore, a sincere writer, who has to his credit such well-known poems as *Sukanyopakhyana* and *Naradamoha*.

Contemporary poets.

1. **Acyutanandadatta**, author of stories from the *Mahabharata* and translator of the poems of Kalidas; died young.

2. **Badrinatha Jha** (1892-).—A scholar and poet of a very high order. *Ekavaliparinaya*, an epic in 22 cantos, a great contribution to Maithili literature.

3. **Bhuvaneshwara Sinha** (1908-45).—A prominent unconventional and progressive writer. *Asadha*, his most representative poem. Conducted a useful Maithili monthly Journal *Vibhuti*; has some translations and critical writings to his credit.

4. **Sitarama Jha of Darbhanga**.—The most popular of living poets. *Suktisudha*, *Lokalaksana*; *Sikasudha*.

Dramatists.

1. **Jivana Jha**.—The first dramatist to introduce a change both in technique and style. Writes in pure and simple Maithili, rejecting the old tradition of mixing Sanskrit and Prakrit with Maithili, depicts the social life of Mithila. *Sundarasamyoga*, *Samavti Punarjanmi* and *Narmadasattaka* are his best plays.

2. **Munshi Raghunandanadasa**.—A popular playwright. *Mithila-nataka*-a very popular drama, depicting the evils of the present-day Mithila. *Dutangadavyayoga*, a small play of a heroic cast, more successful than his first drama.

3. **Ishanatha Jha** a versatile writer. His *Cini-ka-laddu*, a tragi-comedy, is very successful and interesting.

One-act plays have also become very popular and there are some good specimens of biographical plays too.

Novelists and short story writers.

The novel proper is of recent growth in Maithili. *Rameshwara* of Jivacha Mishra, the *Urmila* of Chedi Jha, the *Mithiladarpana* of Punyananda Jha are earlier attempts. The *Agilahi* (Agile Girl) of Kumara Gangananda Simha of Banaili is undoubtedly the best Maithili novel, remarkable for originality of plot and delineation of character. The *Navratna* of Kali-charna Jha is another interesting and original piece of literature. But the most popular novels of the day are *Kanyadana* and *Dviragamana* by Harimohana Jha, both dealing with the problem of the education of girls. *Bhalamanusa* by Yogananda Jha is a tragic novel, ridiculing the evils of *Kulinism* (pride of social status).

The short story has come to Maithili through Bengali and Hindi and also bears the impress of Western literature. There are several prominent story writers. Mention may, however, be made only of Harimohan Jha whose *Pranamyadevata* is a collection of eleven popular satirical tales.

(vi) MARATHI

Marathi, an offspring of Sanskrit, is the mother tongue of about 2 crores of Indians, living in Maharashtra which extends from Narbada to Tungbhadrā and from the Western coast to Bhandra in Madhya Bharat. It became a written language

in the 8th or 9th century. Well-written literature appeared in it in the 12th century.

A. EARLY MARATHI LITERATURE

(Names arranged in chronological order).

1. **Swami Mukund Raj** (b. 1114).—A contemporary of Chand Bardai and Marathi's first great poet. *Viveksindhu*, a philosophical poem, said to have been written for Jaitpal, ruler of Khadla (Patul).
2. **Sant Gyaneshwar** (1275-1296).—The father of Marathi poetry. His *Gyaneshwari*, a commentary on the *Bhagwad-Gita* is regarded as the greatest work in Marathi ; its rank being similar to that of the *Ramayana* in Hindi *Amritanubhav*, another work.
3. **Namdev** (b. 1270).—An outstanding Bhakti poet. Famous for his 'Padas', 2500 of which were recently published in Poona. Travelled widely ; preached Hindu-Muslim unity. Some of his 'Padas' are found in *Granth Sahib*. Had a host of disciples and followers.
4. **Narsingh Saraswati** (1378-1458).—One of the great 'Acharyas' of Marathi ; author of *Guru-Charitra*, dealing with the philosophy of Yoga and Karma. Also wrote some songs for Hindu-Muslim unity after the manner of Kabir.
5. **Eknath Swami** (1532-1599).—One of the greatest and most famous Sani poets, almost as highly respected as Gyanshwar : a contemporary of Tulsidas. A prolific writer. *Nath Bhagwat* (1570-1583) ; *Bhawarth Ramayana*, his biggest work, comprising 40,000 'Padas' ; and *Rukmani Swayamvar*, his most popular book.
6. **Daso Pant** (1551-1615).—A foremost poet, with about a hundred works to his credit. *Gitarav*, comprising 1½ lac of 'Padas', being an exposition of the philosophy of the *Gita* ; *Granthraj*, a treatise on Anvaitya philosophy.
7. **Muktashwer** (17th cent.)—Son of Eknath's elder daughter ; a born poet. *Sankhchipt Ramayana* ; *Mahabharat*, a great poem.
8. **Tukaram** (1608-1659)—One of the greatest Bhakti poets of Maharashtra; Kunbi by caste. Renounced worldly life in 1630. Maharaj Shivaji visited him during 1645-49. His 'Padas,' which have immortalised him are compared by Alexander Grant to the Psalms of David. Had a number of disciples, including Bahin Bai and Nilowa.
9. **Samarth Swami Ram Das** (1608-1681)—A towering and celebrated Bhakti poet ; the spiritual preceptor of Shivaji ; a contemporary of the famous Hindi poet, Bhushan. *Karunashik*,

hymns steeped in devotional fervour ; *Dasbodh*, dealing with statecraft.

10. **Shridhar Swami** (1678-1729)—Famous poet ; very popular with all classes of people for his *Hari Vijay* and *Ram Vijay*.

11. **Moropant** (b. 1729)—A gifted poet and ‘ Acharya’ ; a prolific writer, with 108 *Ramayans* and numerous other works to his credit. *Krishna Vijay* ; *Aryabharat* (1772-1782), his best work ; and *Bhagwatmantra Muktimanimāla*, a very popular collection of poems.

B. MODERN MARATHI LITERATURE.

Early in the 19th century the British became the masters of Maharashtra. Then the Marathi language came into close contact with English and the period of modern Marathi may be said to have begun. From 1830-70 several classical Sanskrit works were translated into Marathi and in 1874, the founding of a new monthly journal, *Nibandhmalā* by Vishnu Shastri Chiplunkar (1850-1882) gave rise to a new literary movement. Chiplunkar was followed by Tilak and Agarkar who edited respectively the *Kesari*, a Marathi weekly, and the *Maharatta*, an English weekly. Tilak followed in the footsteps of Chiplunkar and thus belonged to the old orthodox school, but Agarkar, who was progressive and liberal, gave up editing the *Kesari* (which Tilak took up) and started the *Sudharak* (The Reformer). Marathi writers rallied round either of these two great men.

Prominent Modern Marathi Writers.

1. **B. P. Kirloskar**—Famous dramatist. His best-known plays are *Vikram Charitra* and *Soubhadra*.

2. **Gobind Ballal Deval**—The greatest dramatist, with seven plays to his credit. *Sharda*, a social play which created a sensation at the time of its appearance. Dominated the field of drama from 1886 to 1895.

3. **Hari Narayan Apte** (Died 1919)—The greatest novelist. *Ushal Kal* (1897), deals with Shivaji ; *Suryagarahna*; *Rup Nagar ki Raj Kanya* ; *Gad Alapan Sinh Gela*, his masterpiece ; *Mysore ka Bagh*—all are historical novels.

4. **Keshavsuta** (Died 1905)—Father of modern Marathi poetry.

5. **K. P. Khadilkar**—Famous dramatist. Wrote his first play in 1893. Other plays include *Kānchan Gadhi ki Mohna* ; *Kichakbadh*, and *Prem Dhwaj*. Dominated the stage from 1906 to 1915.

6¹. **N. C. Kelkar**—One of the senior and highly respected Marathi writers, particularly known as dramatist.

7. **Ram Ganesh Gadkari or Govindagraj (1885-1919)**—A brilliant poet and dramatist of the older school, drawing inspiration from Shakespeare for his plays. *Prem Sambandh*; *Fanya Prabhav*; *Bhav Bandhan*, etc.

8. **S. M. Paranjpe**—Famous essayist and journalist—Wrote for his journal *Kal*, and for sometime even surpassed Tilak in popularity.

9. **V. M. Joshi** (Died 1943)—Famous novelist. *Rajini*; *Nalini*; and *Sushila ka Dev*.

Among recent writers, mention should be made of V. B. Warerkar, dramatist and novelist; P. K. Atre (b. 1898), dramatist inspired by Ibsen and Shaw; P. K. Kolhatkar, dramatist; Y. G. Joshi, Phadke, Khandekar (all three good short story writers); Mr. Gupte ("Bee") a contemplative poet; V. D. Savarkar, the veteran Hindu Maha Sabha leader and author of powerful patriotic poetry; Anant Kanekar; M. T. Patwardhan and many others.

(vii) ORIYA.

Orissa possesses a rich legacy of old literature. *Vaidehisha Vilas* (The love of Vaidehi or Sita) by Upendra Bhanji, *Kishore-Chandranan Champoo* (Love of Krishna and Radha) by Kavisurya Baldev Rath, *Bidagdha Chintamani* an epic on Radha Krishna by Abhimanyu Samanta Sinhar, *Rasa Kallola* (current of love) by Dinakrishna Das, and *Mathura Mangala* of Bhaktacharan are some of the priceless gems of old Oriya poetry.

NEW ORIYA LITERATURE.

Orissa came under the British in 1803 and under the influence of English, Oriya literature began to experience a great change towards the latter half of the 19th century. Oriya prose was born and occupied a dominant position. Both in prose and poetry the conspicuous feature was intense nationalism, hitherto unknown in Oriya literature. Thus literature came closer to the real life of the people. Moreover, writers preferred a simple, easy, intelligible style to the old and crowded similes and metaphors, alliteration and imagery.

Modern Writers.

1. **Radhanath Rai**—A great poet of Nature. His epic on Chilka Lake is a great work. *Durbar*, deals with Orissa kings and Orissa aristocracy; treats the Durbaries with biting sarcasm. *Mahayatra*, or the "Journey's End" of the Pandavas is his masterpiece.

2. **Madhusudan Rao**—A Brahmo Samajist, popularly known as the Bhakta Kavi; his devotional songs and lyrics are steeped in mysticism. *Rusi Prane Devataram*—his masterpiece,

a long poem written in the vein of the vedic hymns and describing the divine inspiration of Rusa at the sight of Usha.

3. Fakir Mohan Senapati—The father of Oriya fiction and Oriya prose. Wrote in the language of the common man. His novels and stories deal with ordinary men and women. *Manu*, *Prayashitta* and *Lachhma* are his notable contributions.

In the sphere of drama, the notable writers are the late Ram Shankar Rai, Rai Bahadur Bhikari Charan Pattanaick, the late Radha Mohan Rajendra Dev of Chikiti and the late Kamapal Misra, whose *Sita Vivaha* or "Marriage of Sita" is a valuable contribution to modern Oriya dramatic literature. Sri Aswini Kumar Ghosh, with a large number of plays to his credit, promises to be in the forefront of living dramatists.

Some other Prominent Writers

The late Nand Kishore Bal made a bold departure from the Radhanath group and like Wordsworth chose to write poetry on common themes in the simplest possible language. The late Pandit Gopabandhu was a gifted poet. His *Kara Kavita* and *Dharmapada* are remarkable for inspiring patriotism and the spirit of sacrifice. Sri Padma Charan, equally good in prose and poetry, composed such high class poems as *Dhauri Pahar and Charan*. Lakshmikanta, better-known as Kanta Kavai has written some of the best national, devotional and love songs in Oriya. He is also unsurpassed as a parodist and writer of humorous sketches. He edits *Dagaro*, the *Punch* of Orissa. Sri Nilakantha Das shot into fame with his free translation of Tennyson's *Enoch Arden* and *The Princess*. Sri Godavarish, poet, dramatist and prose writer, is chiefly known for his famous historical plays *Pursottam Dev* and *Mukunda Dev*.

In prose the prominent writers are the late Biswanath Kar known for his essay collection *Bibidha Prabandha*; Gopal Chandra Praharaj, author of *Bhagabat Tungire Sandhya* (Evening in the Village Club); Jalandhar Dev, a septuagenarian and most original writer; Sashibhusan Rai (son of the late poet Radhanath), a prolific writer and the late Divyasingha Panigrahi, successor of Fakir Mohan as a novelist and short story writer. Panigrahi's novel *Tu Mu Ma* (You Are My Mother) is an approved text book and *Amrut Kankan*, a collection of short stories, has won wide-spread recognition.

Some very Recent Writers

Sri Baikunthanath is a living poet of the 'Sabuj' group of writers, who have turned away from the traditional modes of literary creation. His poems, afame with love and sacrifice, are perfect in rhythm and diction. Dr. Mazadhar Mansingh

is the author of some popular sensuous love-poems entitled *Dhupa*.

Among contemporary successful dramatists mention should be made of Sri Harish Chandra Baral, author of *Deshara Duka*; Sir Ramaranjan Mahanty, author of *Gauda Vijeta*; Sri Laxmidhar Nayak, author of *Dharma-Putni* and Sri Charan Pattanaik, who is also the manager of his own stage.

Sri Kanhu Charan is the most outstanding novelist, whose *Ha Anna*, a picture of scarcity and hunger has been much appreciated.

Women Writers

The late Kuntala Kumari Devi (who died at the age of 38) occupies the first place in both prose and poetry. *Raghu Arakshita*, a novel, and *Prerna Chintamani*, a book of poems, are her masterpieces. Her *Ahwana* was proscribed by the Government for intense patriotic sentiments.

(viii) PUNJABI.

It is often supposed that there is no such thing as Punjabi literature. This is a mistaken notion. Punjab has its own distinct literature, though it is far less developed than other Indian literatures. It has, it must be admitted, no standard classics like those of Bengali, Hindi or Marathi, and it is still in a formative stage. During the past fifty years or more, some sincere attempts have been made to give Punjabi literature a definite shape, but the process is not yet complete.

Several factors have been responsible for the slow progress of this literature. Of these, geography and history have played the most significant role. From time immemorial, the Land of the Five Rivers has had to bear the brunt of foreign invasions, which compelled its people to concentrate their energies on warfare. Lack of internal peace and social stability prevented the growth of a uniform indigenous culture and literature.

Punjab is inhabited by three major communities—Hindus, Sikhs and Musalmans. The spoken language of them all is more or less the same, subject to variations of local dialects. But in regard to the written language, there are curious and unfortunate differences. In the first place, Punjabi has no uniform script : it is written in the Persian script as well as the Gurmukhi script. The Sikhs almost universally use the Gurmukhi script, but Musalmans and a large majority of the Punjabi Hindus prefer the Persian script. Moreover, the educated section among the Musalmans and Hindus study Urdu, which is considered to be the standard literary language. A certain percentage of Hindus, especially their women-folk, largely under the influence of Arya Samaj, have for the past twenty-five years adopted

Hindi as their chief tongue for study and writing purposes. Thus the educated Punjabi is, as a rule, indifferent to the native tongue. There is no dearth of literary talent among the Punjabis but they have, generally chosen Urdu, Hindi and in many cases English as the medium for their literary compositions. Eminent writers like Dr. Iqbal, Mulk Raj Anand, Krishna Chander, Rajendra Singh Bedi, Ashk, Rashed, Hafeez Jallandari, A. S. Bokhari, Gurdial Malik, Dharam Prakash, Anand and Manto, have all served the cause of Urdu, English or Hindi, neglecting their mother-tongue.

Old Punjabi literature flowed along two main channels—the literature of religious contemplation in the Gurumukhi script and the compositions of Sufi poets and love epics in Persian script. The latter type of literature, consisting of tales like *Hir Ranjha*, *Sohni Mahiwal*, *Sassi Punnun*, *Shirin Faryad* and *Yusuf Zulaikha*, has been popular with the middle class and the masses.

MODERN PUNJABI LITERATURE.

With the beginning of the present century, Punjabi literature awoke from its long slumber, though the awakening was not so great as in the rest of the country. The first phase of the new literary activity consisted of the collection of manuscripts and their classification, and translations from classical Sanskrit literature and modern European and Russian literatures. Then came the compilation of the first Punjabi dictionary by Bishen N. D. Puri, and the production of the monumental *Gur Shabad Ratnakar* an encyclopaedia of Sikh literature, by S. B. Kahan Singh. Sardar G. B. Singh also wrote two books on the *Adi Granth Sahib*, and several works on the saint-poets of the Punjab. The late B. Budh Singh, apart from his novels, compiled three excellent volumes on pre-modern Punjabi literature and wrote an excellent history of Punjabi literature, entitled *Prem Kahani*. Another history of Punjabi literature was written by Dr. Mohan Singh.

A number of Sikh writers, including S. Karam Singh, Kartar Singh and Kishan Singh Arif, wrote tales and other books glorifying the exploits of Maharaja Ranjit Singh and other Sikh heroes who fought the armies of Moghul viceregents. Pandit Man Singh, a writer of outstanding merit versified the ancient historical tales of *Rup Basant* and the lives of *Puran Bhagat* and *Haqiqat Rai*.

But the greatest writer of the age is *Bhai Vir Singh*, remarkable both for the quantity and quality of his work. He has popularised Punjabi among the masses and added a very large number of words to it. He is the author of a number of novels, dramas, and reflective and philosophical essays. His outlook is religious and spiritual. His greatest work is *Rana Surat Singh*

(1905), which is looked upon as a very sacred book by the Sikhs. *Lahran de Har*, *Matak Hulare* and *Trel Tupke*—are his famous lyrical poems.

Dhani Ram Chatrak and Puran Singh introduced the secular note in modern Punjabi literature. Chatrak, the best Punjabi secular poet of the day, is known chiefly for his poems *Chandanwari* and *Kesar Kari*. Puran Singh has given fine poetic prose essays in his *Khule Maidan* and *Khule Ghund*.

Charan Singh handles light prose with conspicuous success, and has created the funny fictitious character of Baba Variam Singh. Lately, Ishar Singh of Rawalpindi has created Variam Singh's successor in Bhaiā, a sort of Jeeves of Wodehouse.

From about 1925 onwards some writers have made serious attempts to bring Punjabi literature closer to the real life of the people. J. C. Nanda's dramas mirror the life of the present day Punjab. *Lili de Vilah* or *Var Ghar*, *Dulhan* and *Subhadra* are his best plays.

In the field of modern Punjabi poetry, the same new realistic tendencies are in evidence. The noble writers are Mohan Singh, a poet, and Amrita Pritam, a poetess.

Nanak Singh is the only successful modern novelist. *Repentances*; *Noble Sinner*, *Pale Shadows*, *Garland of Tears*, *Graduate* are some of his famous novels.

The short story has been successfully handled by Nanak Singh, Joshua Fazal Din and Gurbux Singh, the last of them, showing marked traces of the influence of the new psychology of Freud, Jung and Adler. But there is no obscenity in his stories.

Balwant Singh, Satyarthi, Bedi, Sant Singh Sekhon, Kartar Singh Duggal and Amrit Pritam are some of the outstanding younger writers.

(ix) SINDHI.

As in the case of other Indian literatures, the growing impact of Western thought and culture, during the latter half of the 19th century, Sindhi literature, broke away from its old moorings and followed new paths both in regard to form and content. A considerable body of abiding literature was produced in modern times, but the tragedy of the partition of the country has obviously dealt a very sever blow to Sindhi literature, which shall take some time to take shape again.

REPRESENTATIVE MODERN WRITERS.

(i) The Older Group.

1. **Kalich Beg**—A born poet as well as prose writer; contributed much to Sindhi literature, and evolved an easy, clear

and agreeable prosé style. *Zinat* and *Dil Aram*, two original novels in Sindhi. Adapted in Sindhi Shakespeare's plays, *The Merchant of Venice*, *King Lear*, *The Gentlemen of Verona* and *Cymbeline*. His *Feroz Dil Afroz*, is a play adapted from Lytton's *Morning and Night*; his *Neki Badi* and *Shakuntla* are taken respectively from Urdu and Sanskrit. His poems are *Saudai Kham*, *Chandan Har*, *Amulh Manik* and *Rubaiyat-i-Kham*.

Kouromal Chandanmal—Ranks next to Kalich Beg. A versatile genius. *Pako Pah*, *Phul Malha* and *Lilawati*, his early works in simple and easy style. His later writings are marred by heavy diction, owing to an excessive use of Sanskrit.

Parmanand Mewaram—Writer of essays and short stories. He made journalism an art, and evolved a prose style of a very high order, easy and effective.

Nirmaldas Fateh Chand—Poet and prose writer, with a heavy but picturesque style. *Sarojini*, *Drupadi*, *Kaikus*, and *Dalurai-ji-Nagree* are his well-known works.

Shamsuddin Bulbul and **Md. Hashim Mukhlis** are masters of fun and frolic, irony and satire, wit and humour. Their writings in a lighter vein, though occasionally marred by lack of decency, have been very popular.

Tolaram Balani—Died by drowning. Full of enthusiasm and sharp intellect. He was the pioneer of fearless political journalism in Sindhi.

(ii) The Younger Group

The writers take a sober view of life, eschewing flights of romantic imagination. Poetry, for instance, was formerly burdened with the deep subtleties of Sufistic philosophy and mysticism, but now it is more realistic and congenial. New forms—blank verse, prose—poems and sonnets—have come into being.

Poets.

Kishinchand Bewas—Poet. *Garib-ki-Jhupri* and *Porhyat* are socialistic poems.

Hyder Baksh Jatoi—A front-rank poet whose writings are permeated with communistic philosophy. He is a great champion of the under dog. *Shikwah*, a great poem, remarkable for its outspokenness and revolutionary ideas. *Daryab Shah*, a magnificent poem, addressed to the Indus, a happy blending of the lullaby and the panegyric.

Prose writers.

Bherumal Mahirchand—Prolific prose writer and poet. Engaged in producing a Standard Sindhi Dictionary.

Wadhumal Gangaram—A racy prose writer, possessing a purely homely style.

Jethmal Parsram—Uses prose or expressing his philosophical speculations. *Om-ji-Akhani* a remarkable philosophical work in prose. His writings on the seamy side of life contributed to *Hind Wasi*, *Bhart Wasi* and other papers caused a great sensation.

Other writers are Dwarka Prasad; Narain Malkani, an author of outstanding merit, translated Gandhiji's *Autobiography* into Sindhi; Mohammed Saleh Bhati, who wrote a remarkable religio-historical novel, *Urus-i-karbala*; and Tirith Vasant, a young writer, who has established his reputation with *Chingun* and the translation of Jawaharlal's *Autobiography*.

Nadir Beg Mirza (*Mohni*); Awarlal Hingorani (*Ado Abdul Rahman*). O. H. Ansari (*Punj*) and Lal Chand A. Jagtiani (*Nau Varni Jo Khun*) are the best short story writers.

The prominent writers of essay are O. H. Ansari, Lekhraj Aziz, Lalsing Ajwani, Tirith Vasant, Gobind Bhatra and Lal Chand A. Jagtiani.

H. M. Gurbaxani is the most successful literary critic, whose *Mugadmen-i-Latif*, an introduction to the study of Shah, is a unique work of literary criticism.

In the realm of drama, M. U. Malkani, Ahmed Chagla, Lekhraj Aziz, Mohammed Ismail Ursani, Dhanchand Daryani, and L. A. Jagtiani have done splendid work, the plays of the last two being particularly popular.

Women Writers.

Nanki Man Gidwani's writings are facile, spontaneous, original and sincere. Guli Saodera Angani has written two novels—*Ithad* and *Gora*, the former original attempt, the latter a translation of Tagore's novel of the same name.

Sindhi literature has not made much headway in biography and literary journalism.

(x) URDU

It is a mistaken notion that Urdu* is an offspring of Persian, having come into existence in the camps of the Muslim invaders and the capitals of Muslim rulers in India. In his History of Urdu literature, Dr. Ram Babu Saksena observes, "Urdu by origin, is a dialect of the Western Hindi spoken for centuries in the neighbourhood of Delhi and Meerut and is directly descended from *Saur Senic Prakrit*." *Khari Boli* and not *Braja Bhasha* is responsible for the birth of Urdu. But Urdu has a great admixture of Arabic and Persian words, and it has also drawn upon European languages, especially English and Portuguese. Owing to its composite character, it is sometime known as "Rekhta".

*Urdu is a Turkish word meaning camp or army with its followers.

Urdu might be said to have come into its own about the 14th century.

Urdu poetry, the earliest form of Urdu literature, flourished chiefly under royal patronage. Amir Khusru (13th cent.) was the earliest Urdu poet, who enjoyed the patronage of Balban, but for the next three centuries there was no progress in poetry. It was towards the end of the 16th century that a great school of Urdu poetry flourished at Bijapur and Golconda, whose rulers were both enthusiastic patrons and poets. After about a century, the centre of poetic activity shifted to the court of the decadent Moghul Emperors at Delhi. Wali (1668-1744) was the father of Urdu poetry in Northern India. He was followed by the glorious age of Mir and Sauda. At the same time a Lucknow school of poetry sprang up under the patronage of Oudh Nawabs, and for a time there was a lively rivalry between the Delhi and Lucknow poets. The Mutiny of 1857, which brought about the crash of both Delhi and Lucknow rulers, proved a great blow to Urdu poetry. The centre of influence shifted to Rampur and Hyderabad. With the founding of the Muslim College at Aligarh by Sir Syed Ahmed Khan in 1875 a new literary centre came into being. Meanwhile the establishment of Fort William College of Calcutta and the encouragement given to Urdu prose by John Gilchrist proved another landmark in the history of Urdu literature.

Urdu, which had already replaced Persian as the Court language in 1832, took great strides under British patronage in the last decades of the 19th century and the first three decades of the present century. The greatest solid work in Urdu in the present age has been done at Osmania University, Hyderabad.

With the partition of the country, Urdu has become the national language of Pakistan, but in India it has consequently lost its predominance.

Prominent Writers of the Past.

1. **Ahmed, Sir Syed** (1817-1898).—A powerful journalist and prose writer; social reformer; founder of the Aligarh College (1875), which has developed into the Aligarh Muslim University; enjoys the honour of first bringing his co-religionists into contact with Western thought and culture.

2. **Akbar, Allahabadi** (1846-1921).—An outstanding poet, satirist, humorist, critic and letter writer. Ridiculed Westernism and sounded a patriotic note in his poetry. *Gandhi Namah*—a versified history of the Non-Co-operation Movement.

3. **Amman, Mir, Dalkhi**—One of the pioneers of modern Urdu prose. *Bago-O-Bahar* (1801) and *Ganjina-i-Khubi* (1802),

4. **Amir Minai** (1828-1900).—A famous and prolific poet and scholar of Lucknow school. *Mirat-ul-Ghalib* and *Sanam Khana-i-Ishaq*, a collection of love poems.

5. **Anees, Mir Babar Ali** (1802-1874).—Flourished at Lucknow; regarded by some as the best of Urdu poets. Famous for his *Marsias* (elegies); also wrote odes, quatrains and 'qitas.' Introduced the epic element in Urdu poetry; often wrote in praise of horses and swords.

6. **Atish, Khwaja Haider Ali** (died 1846).—Belonged to the Lucknow school. A great poet, known for his Ghazals, which are full of sincere emotion and written in chaste, standard Urdu idiom.

7. **Azad, Mohammed Hussain** (1831-1910).—One of the most dominant figures in modern Urdu Literature; prose writer and poet; introduced new elements in Urdu poetry by liberating it from hyperbole and insincere love. *Prose Works: Ab-i-Hayat; Nairangi-Khyal; Darbar Akbari, Sakhundan Faris.*

8. **Barq, Jwala Prasad** (1863-1911).—A Kashmiri Brahmin and gifted writer. Known for his translations of Bankim Chandra Chatterjee's novels and Shakespeare's plays.

9. **Betab, Delhvi, Pandit Narain Prasad**.—Dramatist. His *Mahabharat*, acted in 1913 at Delhi, created a sensation.

10. **Chakbast, Brij Narain** (1882-1926).—Poet, prose writer and critic of a high order.

11. **Dabir, Mirza Salamat Ali** (1803-1875).—Belonged to Lucknow school. Ranks, as a great masia-writer, usually compared and contrasted with Anees.

12. **Dagh, Nawab Mirza** (1831-1905).—An eminent poet of Delhi, disciple of Zauq, migrated to Rampur after the Mutiny, and in his later life lived at Hyderabad, enjoying unprecedented honour and prosperity. Pre-eminently a poet of love lyrics. *Gulzar Dagh; Afstab Dagh; Mahtab Dagh; and Yadgar Dagh.* His poetry is often marred by coarse passion and sensuality.

13. **Dard, Khwaja Mir** (1719-1785).—A great poet of Delhi. Influenced by Sufism, he sings of spiritual love. *Diwan-i-Urdu*, a gem of Urdu poetry.

14. **Ghalib, Mirza Asad Ullah Khan** (1796-1869).—One of the greatest of Urdu poets and prose writers. Belonged to Delhi, a victim to chronic poverty and hardships. His poems and letters (in simple, unaffected prose) are very famous. Also an accomplished Persian Poet and prose writer.

15. **Hali, Khwaja Altaf Hussain** (1837-1914).—Along with Azad he shares the credit of inaugurating the new movement in Urdu poetry. Reformed the 'Ghazal' and 'Qasida' and demonstrated the value of 'Musuddas; bewailed the fall of the Muslims; introduced political themes in his verses. *Works: Musnavis; The Musuddas-i-Hali, an epoch-making book; Shikwai-i-Hind; Marsias. (On Ghalib and Sir Syed Ahmed); Chup-ki-Dad; Diwan-i-Hali.*

16. **Mir, Taqi Mir** (About 1793 to 1810).—An outstanding poet. Left Delhi for Lucknow; in chronic poverty. A voluminous writer. His fame rests on his 'Ghazals' and *Masnavis*. Called 'Khuda-i-Sakhun' (God of poetry) by subsequent poets like Ghalib and Nasikh.

17. **Momin, Momin Khan of Delhi** (1800-1851).—A poet of eminence, being the head of a school of poetry of which Naseem and Hasrat are prominent representatives. Has left a *Diwan* and six 'Masnavis' and other poems.

18. **Nasikh, Sheikh Imam Baksh** (died 1838).—Occupies a very high place in Urdu poetry; belonged to the Lucknow school. His verses are a triumph of conventionality and artifice. *Daftari-i-Pareshan*; *Nazm-i-Siraj*.

19. **Nasseem, Pandit Daya Shankar Kaul** (1811-1843).—A distinguished disciple of Atish, author of the celebrated 'Masnavis' *Gulzar-i-Naseem*.

20. **Nazir Akbarabadi**.—(Born about the time of Nadir Shah's invasion; died 1830).—Belonged to no school of poetry, a class by himself. The true harbinger of the national and natural poetry brought into being by Azad, Hali and Sarur. His early poems suffer from licentiousness and obscenity, but the later work is steeped in Sufism.

21. **Sauda, Mirza Mohammad Rafi** (1713-1781).—Considered to be the greatest of Urdu poets. Belonged to Delhi but migrated to Lucknow in 1772. *Diwan* or Urdu Ghazals; 'Masnavis'; *Diwan* of 'Qasidas'. His influence was considerable and far-reaching.

22. **Sarur, Munshi Durga Sahai** (1873-1910).—One of the best exponents of the new movement in Urdu poetry. Wrote patriotic poem (*Khak-i-Watan*; *Yad-i-Watan*; *Madar-i-Hind*), historical and religious poems. Master of the sad, the pathetic and the tragic *Khumkhana-i-Sarur*; *Jam-i-Sarur*.

23. **Sarur, Mirza Rajjab Ali Beg** (died 1867).—The greatest writer of prose in Lucknow. *Fisana-i-Ajaib* (1824) *Shagufa-i-Muhabbat*; *Gulzar-i-Sarur*; *Shabistan-i-Sarur*.

24. **Sarshar Pandit Ratan Nath Dar** (died 1902).—Famous poet and prose writer; wrote for periodicals such as *Marasala-i-Kashmiri*, *Oudh Punch* and others. *Fisana-i-Azad* (1880) created a sensation and proved a best-seller. Wrote several novels, including *Kadam Dham*, *Bichhdi Dulhan*.

25. **Shibli Naomani** (1857-1914).—A versatile genius—historian, journalist, educationist, poet and literary critic. Stayed and worked at Aligarh, Lucknow and Hyderabad. Has more than 25 works to his credit.

26. **Zafar, Mohammed Bahadur Shah** (1775-1862).—The last Moghul Emperor, died in exile in Burma. Both a poet and

patron of poets. Among his other writings, his *Thumries* are very popular.

27. **Zauq, Sheikh Ibrahim** (1789-1854).—A notable poet of Delhi school. Many of his poems have been lost. His great contribution to Urdu literature is the polishing of the language. He is considered to be one of the greatest and sweetest lyric poets.

Some Recent Writers.

1. **Firaq Gorakhpuri**—Poet and critic; influenced by Sanskrit literature *Rup*; *Shola-i-Saj*.

2. **Iqbal, Sir Mohammad Iqbal** (1875-1938).—One of the greatest luminaries of modern Urdu literature. Wrote both poetry and prose. His themes are nationalism and Islam. *Bang-i-Dara*; *Armughan-i-Hiyaz*; *Bal-i-Jabreel*.

3. **Ismat Chughtai**—She is a realistic writer; prosecuted for her short story *Lehaf* for its alleged obscenity. *Terdhi Lakir*; *Kaliyan*; *Dhani Banke*.

4. **Josh Malihabadi**—The Indian Byron; known as a revolutionary poet. *Kaif-o-Nishat*; *Shola-o-Shabnam*. In his latest writings he evinces a leftist tendency.

5. **Kishenchand**—An outstanding progressive modern writer. *Shekast*; *Sarai-ke-Bahār*; *Tute Huea tare*; *Ham Wahashi Hai*, *Subah Hoti hai*.

6. **Majnu Gorakhpuri**—A successful tragic short story writer. *Khab-o-Kheyal*; *Adab-Am-Zindigi*; *Samanposh Gardish*.

7. **Maulana Hasrat Mohani of Kanpur** (B. 1875). A celebrated nationalist poet.

8. **Neyaz Fatehpuri**—An outstanding scholar, critic, novelist and short story writer. Edited *Nigar* (Lucknow). *Jamalistan*; *Nigaristan*; *Sahir-ka-Aujam*.

9. **Prem Chand** (1880-1936).—Eminent short story writer and novelist. *Prem Pachisi*; *Prem Battisi*; *Bazar-i-Husn*; *Karbala*, *Karam Bhumi*, *Rang Bhumi*, *Godan*.

10. **Seemab Akbarabadi** (1880-).—A great poet of the Old Delhi School. *Alam-e-Ashob*; *Kalim-e-Ajam*.

11. **Sudarshan**—A Punjabi writer of very successful short stories. *Muhabbat ka Intqam*; *Chandan*; *Baharistan* etc.

12. **Sukhdeo Prasad Bismil**—A poet of Dagh School; introduced Vedanta into Urdu poetry. Popular for his 'Rubaiyats' on Hasti.

13. **Saghar Nizami**—An eminent poet of the sentimental School; associated with the A. I. R. at present.

14. **Zutshi, Pandit Manohar Lal** (Born 1876-)..-Prose writer and critic of a high order. Author of *Guldasta-i-Adab* and articles on Ghalib and Chakbast.

Besides there are many progressive, realistic and leftist writers. The prominent ones among them are Ibrahim Jalil, Ihtasham Hossain, Kazi Abdul Gaffar, Qazi Rampuri, Saadat Hussain (whose *Dhuan* was banned for obscenity) and Sardar Jafri.

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PRINCIPAL SOUTH INDIAN LANGUAGES

(i) KANNADA

Kannada is the mother-tongue of a large section of South Indians who are scattered in Mysore, Madras, Karnatak and Hyderabad and the southern parts of Bombay province. The Kannada-speaking people form one linguistic unit.

Kannada literature, under the spell of western thought and culture, experienced a renaissance towards the close of the 19th century. The notable productions which helped this revival were *The Epigraphica Carnatica*, *Kavicharita*, a chronological survey of Kannada literature, Kittel's Kannada—English dictionary, and the *Kavya Kalanidhi* publications. The best original work of the period was Muddana's *Rameshwamedha*, a "novel" epic. B. Venkatachar, V. T. Galaganath and Kerur were other important pioneers in the field.

With the founding of the Kannada Literary Academy in 1914, the renaissance of Kannada literature was in full bloom. Poetry.

Modern Kannada poetry came into its own about 1920.

1. **B. M. Srikantia**—An outstanding poet. *English Geetagalu*—an excellent collection of poems, translated from Golden Treasury Lyrics. The volume is a treasure-house of new metres. He is a master of the Ode and his *The Kannada Flag*, *The vision of the Kannada Mother* and *Shukra Geeta* are sublime poems.

2. **D V. Gundappa**—A famous poet. *Song of Manku Timma*, a philosophic poem, his best work.

3. **D. R. Bendre**—Known as the "wizard of modern Kannada poetry". Remarkable for the melody of his songs. *Gari* (Feathers); *Sakhi Geeta* (Song for the Beloved); *The Bird of Time*; *The Dance Eternal*; *Thirty-three Crores and Man-Sacrifice*, both national poems; and *The Bag of a Morsel*, a socialistic poem.

4. **Govind Pai**—A neo-classical poet. His *Nanda Deepa* (Light Perpetual), and *Golgotha* compare well with *In Memoriam* and *Sohrab and Rustam* respectively.

5. **Masti**—An outstanding and original poet. *Aruna* (Dawn); *Binnaha* (Solicitation) and *The Lotus* are collections of fine lyrics and songs. His lyrical ballads *Gaudarā Malli* and

Rama Navami remind one of Coleridge's *Ancient Mariner*. In his narrative poems he has introduced blank verse.

6. **Panje Mangesh Rao**—Known for his remarkable lyrics *South Wind* and the *Songs the Kodagas*.

7. **R. R. Diwakar**—His *Antaranga* is a volume of genuine devotional lyrics in prose.

8. **Sali**—Celebrated for his *Chitra Srushi* (Picture-World), a charming collection of lyrics and narrative poems.

About 1930 there was an extraordinary outburst of lyrical poetry in Kannada.

Lyrical Poets.

1. **Kadengodlu**—*The Funeral Pyre of Madri*, his masterpiece.

2. **K. V. Puttappa**—A prolific poet, remarkable for spontaneity and rare command of diction. At his best in poems of Nature and Art. *Flute* and *Panchajanya*—his best collection of poems.

3. **Madhura Chenna**—The Blake of modern Kannada poetry. *My Lover*, *Madhura Geeta*, and *O Mother Earth Rise*, are well-known poems.

4. **Mugali**—*Basiga* (Garland), a fine collection of lyrics. *Chataka*; *Bombay*; *Sahyadri*; *The Peacock of the New Age*; and *Every Soul* are some of his excellent individual lyrics.

5. **P.T. Narasimhachar**—His poems offer a happy combination of East and West,—of Kalidasa and Wordsworth. *Dawn*; *The Mango Foliage*.

6. **Rajaratnam**.—A versatile poet, notable for novelty of form, diction and a certain spectacular element. *Songs of Ratna*.

7. **V. K. Gokak**.—*Kalopasaka*, a collection of long poems, lyrical in texture and narrative or dramatic in form. *Payana*; *Sea-songs*; *Akasha* (The Milky Way), reminiscent of Wordsworth's *Prelude*; and *In Life's Temple*, resembling Chaucer's *Prologue* and Browning's *Men and Women*.

8. **V. Sitaramiah**.—A gifted and melodious poet. *Songs*; *Light and Shadows*; *Lights*.

Then there are many younger poets, including a group of young "progressive" writers with *Rasarishi*, a collection of poems, to their credit.

Novels.

The output of fiction in its various branches is very large. *Historical novels*—by Galaganath; Kerur, and P. B. Desai; *Realistic novels* by M. S. Puttama (*As you Sow, So you Reap*); *Social novels* by Kerur (Indira) and V.M. Tatti (*Guru Prasada*); the *Novel of Character* by A. N. Krishna Rao (*Sandhya Raga*);

Regional novel by K. V. Puttappa (*Kanura Subhama*) ; *Psychological novel* by Devadu (*Antaranga—Heart's Core*) ; *Period novel* by Karanth (*Maruli Mannige—Back to the Soil*) ; *Problem novel* by Mugali (*Baluri—Life's Fire*) and the “*Stream of Consciousness*” novel by R.V. Jagirdar (*Vishwamitra Srushii—Topsyturvy World*).

Short Stories.

It is the most fruitful branch of modern Kannada literature and there is a whole galaxy of brilliant short story writers.

Masti is the first and best short story writer. Some of his well-known stories are *Back from Hemakuta*, *The Last Days of the Poet*, *Wife of the Master*, *The Last Days of Sari Putra* and *Rani of Nijagal*. He has translated his stories into English in four volumes.

Among other writers of stories Kattimani (Caravan) and L. Bendre call for special attention.

Peacock Plumes and *Rainbow* are famous collections of stories.

Drama.

In this branch also the output is very great.

The outstanding dramatists are Masti (*Talikote*, a powerful tragedy on Shakspearian lines, dealing with the fall of the Vijayanagara Empire) ; Samsa (*Vigada Vikrama Raya*, a first rate play) ; T.P. Kailasam, a dramatic genius (*Tollu Gatti*) ; *Poli Kittti* and many other social plays). Gokak (*Jananayaka*) ; B.M. Srikanthia *Aswathaman* a Greek type of tragedy) and Puttappa (known for his adaptations of *The Tempest* and *Hamlet*.)

R. V. Jagirdar (Sri Ranga) is the modern leading dramatist, inclined to satirise social evils. *Horiganjwar Vaidya Raja* and *Daridra Narayan* are all powerful satirical plays. His one-act plays are perfect as works of art.

Biography and autobiography.

The famous biographies are D. V. Gundappa's *Gokhule*, R. V. Jagirdar's *Kemal Pasha*, Puttappa's *Vivekananda* and C.K. Venkata Ramayya's lives of the Prophet Mohammad and the late Maharaja of Mysore.

Autobiography is represented by Alur's *Reminiscences* and *From Behind the Prison Bars* by R. R. Diwakar.

Women Writers.

They are mostly short story writers. The prominent names are the late Mrs. Gouramma, Kalyanamma, Shyamala, Mrs. Karnath and Mrs. Jaya Laxmi.

Literary Journals.

Vishwa-Karnataka ; *Samyukta Karnataka* and *Rashtara Bandhu*.

(ii) MALAYALAM

Malayalam is the mother-tongue of the People of Malabar, Travancore and Cochin. It is not so old as Tamil. Malayalam has, in course of time, been influenced by Tamil, Kannada, Persian and lastly by English which has almost metamorphosed it. But at bottom Malayalam has always remained a direct and true progeny of Sanskrit.

MODERN MALAYALAM LITERATURE

Poetry.

Modern Malayalam poetry may be said to have begun in 1914, the year of the death of Kerala Varma Valia Koil Thampuran, the leading poet of the classical school which lasted roughly from 1825 to the first decade of the present century.

A great change came over Malayalam poetry after about 1914. Formerly Sanskrit poetry dominated the scene but the award of the Nobel Prize to Tagore brought his *Gitanjali* and other poems within the ken of the people of Malabar. Another great moulding factor was the nationalist movement which swept all over the country. Poetry, which had so far been the luxury of the royalty and aristocracy shifted to the camps of the nationalistic agitators and was meant for the common people. Poetry ceased to be a source of mere imaginative pleasure : it must have a mission, a purpose—in this case the purpose arousing the patriotic sentiment in the people.

1. **Vallathol** was the leader and high priest of the new movement in poetry, and the modern age will be remembered as the Age of Vallathol. He wrote soul-stirring nationalist poems but without sacrificing his art. His best poetry, however, is non-political. His *Magdalana Mariam* is an acknowledged masterpiece, a grand epic. His *Sishyanum Makanaum* (Disciple and Son), *Acchanum Makalaum* (Father and daughter), *Kochu Sita* (Little Sita), *Oru Chitram* (A Picture) are some of his best non-political shorter poems. He has also translated many Sanskrit dramas.

2. **Ullur S. Parameshwara Aiyar**, a classical poet of the pre-1914 period is known for his epic *Umakerala* and other poems including *Pingala*, *Chitrasala*, *Karnabhushana*, and *Manimanjusha*. He is untouched by the nationalist movement.

3. **K. M. Pannikar** (Born 1895).—The greatest literary luminary of modern Malabar. A great admirer of Vallathol, he is essentially classical, yet modern. He pays great attention to form, style, language and music in poetry and prefers Sanskrit metres to Malayalam ones. His *Pankiparinayarayam* (Panki's Wedding) is unexcelled in Malayalam poetry. Ambassador to China since April 1948).

4. Nalpat Narayana Menon—A classical poet, not much influenced by the nationalist movement. *Sulocana*; *Kannunirulli* (Tear-Drops), an elegy on the death of his wife; and translation of Edwin Arnold's *Light of Asia*, a great contribution to Malayalam literature.

5. Kumaran Asan, a great social reformer, is one of the greatest poets of recent times; known for his *Karuna*; *Chandala*, *Bhiskhuki*; *Duravastha*; and *Nalini*.

Other modern popular poets are G. Shankara Kurup, C. Krishna Pillai and Balamani Amma, a niece of Nalpat Narain Menon.

Drama.

Dramas began in Malayalam in the last century with translations and imitations of Sanskrit plays. A few original Malayalam dramas, modelled on Sanskrit, were also written. But it is K. M. Pannikkar who originated a new form of drama. He retained the classical form but discarded many elements, like the opening prologue etc. He thus harmonised classicism with modernity. His masterpieces, which will stand the test of time, are *Mundodari*, *Bhishma* and *Dhruvasvamini*.

Short prose dramas with a social bias, modelled on the plays of Bernard Shaw and Oscar Wilde, are the rage now-a-days. Though popular on the stage, they are not great works of art. The dramas of Ibsen, Maeterlinck, Tagore and other Bengali writers have been translated into Malayalam.

Some of the notable playwrights are C. V. Raman Pillai, E. V. Krishna Pillai, Rama Varma Appan Thampuran, Chellappan Nair and Kesava Pillai, but K. M. Pannikkar is head and shoulders above them all.

Novels.

The novel was introduced into Malayalam by the study of English literature. The novels of many continental writers have been translated as also the works of Bankim Chandra Chatterjee, Sarat Chandra Chatterjee and R.C. Datt.

Novels in Malayalam are usually historical. The celebrated novelists are T.M. Appu Nadungadi (*Kundalata*), O. Chandu Menon (*Indulekha* and *Sarada*), C. V. Raman Pillai (*Ramaraja Bahadur* and *Dharmaraja*), Rama Varma Appan Thampuran (*Bhutarayar*) and K. M. Panikkar (*Paranki Patayali*; *Kalyanamal*; *Punarkottu Svaroopam* and *Keralasimham*).

Short Story.

Malayalis have attained greater success in the short story than in the novel. The important writers of this literary form are E.V. Krishna Pillai, Takazhi Sankara Pillai, Lalitambika Antarjanam and Saraswathi Amma, (the last two being ladies).

Literary Journals.

Vidyavinodini ; *Rasikaranjani* ; *Bhashaposhini* and *Malayalam Manorama*.

(iii) TAMIL.

Tamil, spoken over a large part of South India, is a language almost as old as Sanskrit. Madura is the oldest centre of Tamil learning.

MODERN TAMIL LITERATURE.

(i) The Era of Origin.

This period ranges from the inception of Madras University (1852) till the rise of Lokamanya Tilak on the Indian political scene in 1916. During this period religion played a prominent role. The first prose writer was Arumuga Navalar of Jaffua, while Vedanayagam Pillai wrote the first romance *Pratapa Mudaliar Charitram*. A more famous work was *Manumarai Kanda Vachakan* by Ramalinga Swamigal, presenting the life of Cholamanu who had sentenced his own son to death for having accidentally run his chariot over a calf. Prof. P. Sundaram Pillai's dramatic work *Monomaniam*, Rajam Iyer's *Kamalambal Charitram*, a novel, are other notable contributions to early modern Tamil literature.

The establishment of the Tamil daily *Swadesamitran* by G. Subramania Iyer was an epoch-making event of this period.

(ii) The Era of Bharathi.

Religion now yielded place to politics and literature became permeated with the spirit of fiery nationalism and self-assertion.

Subramania Bharathi—A towering personality who dominated the period. In his poem on “Fearlessness” he taught the Tamils to stand erect and march ahead. His *Panchali Sapatham* or “The Vow of Draupadi” proved a clarion call to the Tamil for steadfast and bold action. He translated the Gita into Tamil and wrote a number of books in prose.

Among other writers of the period, V. V. S. Iyer (*Bala Bharathi*) and K. Subramanniam Pillay (*Lives of Saiva Saints*) deserves to be mentioned.

(iii) The Era of Gandhiji.

The rise of Gandhiji, the Non-Co-operation movement, the propagation of Hindi in South India, the Civil Disobedience movements, the “Quit India,” movement opened a new chapter in the history of Tamil literature. There was an unprecedented output of books.

Shri Ramalingam of Namakkal (1888-).—A unique poet and painter. For his portrait of George V he was awarded a gold medal and a lunch with the King Emperor at the Delhi Durbar, but for his verses on the Satyagarah of Gandhiji he was clapped behind prison bars. His poem on the Spinning-wheel stirred the Tamil Nad. His autobiography, poems and his romance *Madhava Kamalan* are extremely popular and he is greatly honoured in the South. A great devotee of Gandhiji, he may be called a Gandhi poet, breathing the message of freedom in all his writings.

The other notable writers are Shri Yogi Shuddanandha Bharathi (1897-) whose *Bharatha Sakthi*, modelled on Homer and Dante, is one of the great epics of the day ; V. Swaminatha Sarma and "Va Ra", who is unexcelled in descriptive writings, and whose biography of Subramania Bharathi is the greatest contribution to Tamil prose.

Translations.

There is no central organisation in South India for undertaking the translation of modern books. What little is done is the work of individual scholars and patriots. There are no scientific books or standard histories of the world in Tamil. Some of the notable translations are : *Sama Veda*, *Yajur Veda* and *Atharva Veda*, the *Ramayana* and the *Mahabharat*, the *Koran*, the *Bible*, the *Sayings of Confucius*, the *Satyarthi Prakash*, *Rama Krishnamirtham*, Plato's *Republic*, Rousseau's *Social Contract* and Dr. Sunyat Sen's works. Communistic literature is being enthusiastically translated. Other translations are some novels of Victor Hugo, Alexander Dumas, Maupassant, the *Gulistan* of Sadi, Omar Khayyam, 13 books of Bankim Chandra Chatterjee, fourteen of Sarat Chandra's, Romesh Chandra Dutt's novels, Tagore's *Wreck*, *Gora*, *Autobiography*, short stories, Mahatma Gandhiji's *Autobiography*, Pt. Jawahar Lal's writings, Prem Chand's stories and novels, two of Mr. Khandekar's novels, a portion of Tilak's *Gitarahasya* and two Gujarati novels of Shri K. M. Munshi.

Dramas.

Dramas and play-acting are popular in Tamil Nad. Music predominates in Tamil drama. The most outstanding playwright is Shri P. Sambanda Mudaliar, who has written about a hundred original plays and translated several plays of Shakespeare. *Lilavati Sulochana*; *Kathalar Kangal*, *Two Friends* and *Harichander* are some of his noted writings.

Other dramatists are Madhaviah, V. K. Suryanarayan, F. Z. Natesa Iyer and S. K. Parthasarthy.

Fiction.

Fiction is in great demand. Several daily papers, weeklies and monthlies publish serial novels.

The well-known novelists are Rajam Iyer (*Kamalambal*), Arni Kuppuswami Mudaliar; Rangaraju (*Chandra Kantha, Mohan Sundaram* and *Vijayaranganam*); Vadavur Duraisami Iyengar (*Soundara Kokilam* and *Kumbakonam Vakil*), "S. V. V." (*Pundu Nattuppen, Vasantan, Sampath* and *Sundarammal*); R. Krishnamurthy known as 'Kalki' (*Parthipan Kanavi* and *Thyagabhumi*) and K. S. Venkataramani (*Kandan*).

Short Stories.

The outstanding writers are V. V. S. Iyer, T. N. Subramnian, "Va Ra", A.S.P. Ayyer, C. Rajagopalachariar (*Vyasar Voindhu*) and several others.

Women writers.

V. M. Kothanayagi Ammal, popular for her romantic novels; Shrimati Swarnambal Subramaniam; Mrs. Bharathi, biographer of her husband Subramaniam Bharathi; Ambujammal, daughter of the late Srinivasa Iyengar; Shrimati Ranganayagi, "Kumudhini" (*Nanduvin Poianda Nal, Devan Bahadur Magal*) and Shrimati Savithri Ammal (*Daiyvaihu Kwmel and Aparajitha*).

Literary journals.

The most important are the dailies *Dinasari* and *Dinamani*, *Ananda Vikatan*, a humorous weekly, and *Kalki*, a bright weekly journal.

(iv) TELEGU.

Telegu or Andhra is the mother-tongue of the Andhras, one of the most developed sub-nations of South India. Yuan Chuang, who visited the Andhra country in the 7th century A.D., wrote about a distinct Andhra language, but no Telegu literature before Nannaya (11th cent) is now available. In the subsequent centuries, the Andhras produced a vast body of literature of a very high order.

According to Yuan Chuang the Andhras used the Nagari script in the 7th century, but the modern Telegu script is derived, through the Sanskrit, from the Brahmi.

MODERN TELEGU LITERATURE (20th century)

The revival of Telegu literature in the modern age is largely due to Kandukuri Veeresalingam, a moderate scholar of Sanskrit and Telegu and with some knowledge of English, but a zealous social reformer, who embraced the Brahmo faith. A man of great character, perseverance and industry, he produced a great deal of literature on social reform, translated Sanskrit classics into Telegu, wrote poetry, drama, novels, biography, autobiography and treatises on grammar, prosody, poetics and modern sciences. Above all, he is the founder of modern Telegu prose, the creator of a simple style suited to every day life.

The next towering figure is Chilakamarti Lakshminarsimham, "the blind poet of Andhra", a great social reformer, orator, and father of the drama and the novel in Telegu. Apart from his great literary output he helped the spread of nationalism in Andhra.

A little later Tirupati (who died recently) and Venkata Kavi or Chellapilla, two of the most brilliant Telegu poets appeared on the scene, spreading the love of poetry and its creation throughout the Andhra land.

Meantime about 1912 a number of other factors helped the Telegu renaissance. They were the founding of the library movement and a separate Andhra University and Andhra Province, a central Telegu Academy and the revival of the Telegu stage. The greatest worker in these fields was Gidugu Ramamurti Pantulu, a profound scholar of English, Sanskrit, and latterly of Telegu and a great reformer. Among his numerous notable services, were the recognition and uplift of the Savara language (the mother-tongue of the Savaras, a hill and forest tribe of Ganjam district) and the establishment of the Navya Sahitya Parishad in 1933 at Berhampore. This indefatigable and selfless savant, and creator of the Modern Telegu language died at the age of 77 sometime back.

A friend of Gidugu, Guruzada Appa, is known for his Telegu social play, *Kanyasulkam*, an epoch-making work. The play created a sensation in the Telegu literary world and added "Girisam" to the array of literary characters in Telegu.

A little later modern Bengali literature found its echo in Andhra. The novels of Bankim Chandra were translated into Telegu and a number of younger poets, who visited Shantiniketan, delivered the message of Tagore to their countrymen. The most outstanding of these poets is Tallavajjhula Sivasankara Sastry, with a large number of works to his credit.

Important Recent Writers.

1. **R.U.M.G. Rama Rao Bahadur**, the talented Yuvraja of Pithapuram has established a great reputation with his poems, plays and prose writings.

2. **Puttaparti**—A young poet known for his *Penugonda Lakshmi* and *Shaji*.

3. **Gadiyaram Venkata Sesha Sastri** of Proddatur-author of *Siva Bharatamu*, a very great epic about Shivaji, ranks next to the Mahabharat.

Another almost equally great epical work is the *Rama Pratapasimha Charitram* (about Maharana Pratap of Chittor) by a brother poet of Sesha Sastri.

Some Other Writers.

1. **Chinta Diskshitulu** (Born 1898.)—Eminent short story writer and popular for children's literature. *Ekadasi; Bhairava Murli Kathalu*.

2. **(Sir) C. R. Reddy**—Poet and outstanding literary critic of the new School, influenced by the Western theories of literary art.

3. **Devulapalli Krishnashastry**—Popular and well-known lyrical poet. His *Krishnapaksham* is very popular.

4. **Duvvuri Rami Reddi**—A notable poet, most influenced by Tagore. His pastoral poem *Krshivaludu* (Cultivator) is the most popular and beautiful. *Panāsala* an excellent translation of Omar Khayam's *Rubaiyat*.

5. **Gudipati Venkatachalam**—A leading short story writer. His stories are brutally realistic, often verging on the indecent and the obscene. *Chitrangi; Savitri*.

6. **Munimanikyam Narasingha Rao** (born 1898).—A humorous writer. *Kantam Kathalu; Dorababu; Meri Kahani*.

7. **Visanatha Satyanarayana** (Born 1895).—A prolific and versatile writer. He has attempted all literary forms, novels, dramas, essays, songs, and short and long poems.

8. **Dr. Vikaramadeo Varma, Maharajah of Jeypore**—A scholar of Sanskrit, Telugu, and Oriya and has written poems in the three languages. A great patron of Andhra literature.

Women Poets.

Shrimatis T. Visvasundaramma, C. Bangaramma, Saudamini and B. Kanakamma are well known.

Literary Journals.

Sahiti; Sakhi; Sarada; Sujata; Jayanti; Bharati, Udayini; Pratibha.

16. THE FINE ARTS

(a) WORLD FAMOUS SCULPTORS

1. **Barnard, George Gray** (1863-1938). American. *The Two Natures, The Hewer, Great God Pan*.

2. **Cellini, Benvenuto** (1500-71). Italian. *Perseus with the Head of Medusa, Saltcellar, Leda and the Swan*.

3. **Donatello** (1386-1466). Italian, *David, St. George, Zuccone, Gattamelata, Singing Gallery*.

4. **Epstein, Jacob** (1880-). American. *Adam, Christ, Duchess of Hamilton, Oscar Wilde.*
5. **Ghiberti, Lorenzo** (1378-1455). Italian. *Doors of the Baptistry, Gates of Paradise.*
6. **Michelangelo, Buonarotti** (1475-1564). Italian. *Dawn, Twilight, Day, Night, David, Brutus, Moses, Bound Slave.* (He is one of the greatest sculptors of the world).
7. **Phidias (Fifth Century B. C.)**. Greek. *Athena, Lemnia, Athena of Parthenon, Zeus of Olympia.*
8. **Praxiteles** (c. 370-c. 340 B. C.). Greek. *Hermes with Infant Dionysus, Aphrodite of Chidus, Eros of Thespiae, Apollo.*
9. **Robbia, Luca Della** (1400-82). Italian. *Madonna.*
10. **Rodin, Auguste** (1840-1917). French. *The Hand of God, The Thinker, The Kiss, The Burghers of Calais.*
11. **Verrocchio, Andrea Del** (1435-88). Italian. *Bartolomeo Colleoni, Beheading of John the Baptist, Incredulity of St. Thomas.*

(b) WORLD FAMOUS PAINTERS.

1. **Angelico, Fra** (1387-1455). Italian. *Coronation of the Virgin, Adoration of Magi, The Crucifixion, The Last Judgment.*
2. **Bellini, Giovanni** (1430-1516). Italian. *The Transfiguration, Madonna and Saints, Christ's Agony in the Garden.*
3. **Bonheur, Rosa** (1822-99). French woman artist. *The Horse Fair, Returning to the Pasture.*
4. **Botticelli, Sandro** (c. 1447-1510). Italian. *Birth of Venus, Calumny, Madonna and Child, Nativity.*
5. **Cezanne, Paul** (1839-1906). French. Leader of post-impressionism. *The Card Players, Still Life, Self-Portrait, Mont Sainte Victoire, Man in Blue.*
6. **Cimabue** (c. 1240-1302). Italian. *Crucifixion, Madonna, Madonna and St. Francis.*
7. **Constable, John** (1776-1837). English. *Hay Wain, The Cornfield, Salisbury Cathedral.*
8. **Corot, Jean Camille** (1796-1875). French. *Evening Star, Dante and Virgil, Villa d' Avray.*
9. **Correggio, Antonio Allegri da** (1494-1534). Italian. *The Marriage of St. Catherine, The Assumption of the Virgin, Jupiter and Antiope.*
10. **David, Jacques Louis** (1749-1825). French. *Dancers Dressing, The Coronation; The Rape of the Sabines.*
11. **Durer, Albrecht** (1471-1528). German engraver and painter. *St. Jahn and St. Peter, Portrait of a Lady, The Worship of Trinity.*

12. **Eyck, Hubert Van** (c. 1366-1426). Flemish. *The Adoration of the Lamb.*
13. **Fragonard, Jean Honore** (1732-1806). French. *The Romance of Love, The Swing, The Billet Doux, L'Etude.*
14. **Gainsborough, Thomas** (1727-88). English. George III, Pitt, Sterne, Samuel Johnson, Mrs. Siddons, *The Morning Walk, Blue Boy.*
15. **Gauguin, Paul** (1848-1903). French. *The Yellow Christ, Maori Venus, Spirit of the Dead, Maori Women, Day of the God.*
16. **Ghirlandaio, Domenico** (1449-94). Italian. *Adoration of the Shepherds, Santa Maria Novella frescoes, Calling of Peter and Andrew.*
17. **Giotto, di Bordone** (c. 1266-c. 1336). Italian. *Arena Chapel frescoes, Obsequies of St. Francis, Pieta.*
18. **Gogh, Vincent van** (1853-90). Dutch. One of the leaders of Post-Impressionists. *Van Gogh's Bedroom, Woman of Arles, Sailing Boats on the Beach, Night Cafe, Fields at Anvers.*
19. **Goya Y Lucientes, Fransisco De** (1746-1828). Spanish. Charles III, Maria Lousia, *La Maya, Family of Charles IV, The Knife Grinder.*
20. **Hals, Frans** (1581-1666) Dutch. *The Laughing Cavalier, Companies of Archers, Youngman with a Slouch Hat.*
21. **Hogarth, William** (1697-1764) English. *The Rake's Progress. Marriage a la Mode.*
22. **Holbein, Hans** (1497-1543) German. Erasmus, Thomas Cromwell, *The Ambassadors, Catherine Howard: Sir Thomas More.*
23. **Ingres, Jead Dominique** (1780-1867) French. *Oedipus and the Sphinx, La Source, The Sleep of Ossion, Odalisque, Mme. Riviere.*
24. **Manet, Edouard**, (1832-83) French. The greatest exponent of the Impressionists School. *The Boy with the Sword, Guitar Player, In a Boat, The Balcony, Olympia.*
25. **Mantegna, Andrea** (1431-1506) Italian. *Gonzaga Family, St. Sebastian.*
26. **Matisse, Henri** French. *Toilet, The Sisters.* A leading Post-impressionists.
27. **Michelangelo Bounarroti** (1475-1564) Italian. Ceiling of the Sistine Chapel, *The Last Judgment.*
28. **Millet, Jean Francois** (1814-75) French. *The Gleaners, The Angelus, The Man with the Hoe, The Woodcutters.*
29. **Monet, Claude** (1840-1926) French. A painter of the open air, belonging to the Impressionist School. *Notre Dame, Ice Breaking Up, Waterloo Bridge, Water Lilies, The Poplar.*

30. **Murillo, Bartolome** (1617-87) Spanish. *The Young St. Thomas, Immaculate Conception, Head of Christ.*
31. **Picasso, Pablo** (1881-) Spanish. *The Young Ladies of Avignon, Still Life with Mendolin and Biscuit, Table before a Window, Mother and Child, Woman in White, Harlequin, Guernica.*
32. **Raphael, Sanzio** (1483-1520) Italian. The greatest and most versatile of painters. *The Granduca Madonna, The Sistine Madonna, The Ansidei Madonna, Castiglione, The Alba Madonna, Disputa, School of Athens.*
33. **Rembrandt Van Rijn** (1606-69) Dutch. *Woman Paring Her Nails, The Night Watch, The Syndics, The Visitation, Juno, The Supper at Emmaus, The Good Samaritan.*
34. **Reynolds, Joshua** (1723-92). English. *Samuel Johnson, Lady Cockburn and her Children, Mr. Siddons as the Tragic Muse.*
35. **Rubens, Peter Paul** (1577-1640). Flemish. *Christ bearing the Cross, Kermis, Self-portrait, A King, Return from the Flight into Egypt, The Judgment of Paris.*
36. **Ruysdael, Jacob Van** (1628-81). Dutch. Painted rural scenes around his home. *Bleaching fields at Haarlem, Wheatfields.*
37. **Sargent, John Singer** (1856-1925). American, settled in England. *Robert Louis Stevenson, Lily Rose, Carnation.*
38. **Tintoretto (Jacopo Robusti)** (1518-94). Italian. Ruskin ranked him among the five supreme painters. *The Last Supper, St. George and the Dragon.*
39. **Titian (Tiziano Vecelli)** (1477-1576). Italian. *Assumption of the Virgin, Bacchus and Ariadne, Concert, The Education of Cupid, The Entombment.*
40. **Turner, Joseph** (1775-1831). English landscape painter. *Battle of the Nile, Calais Pier, Grand Canal, Venice, Sunrising in the Mist, Bridge of Sighs.* "Turners" are found all over the world.
41. **Velasquez, Diego** (1599-1660). Spanish. *The Infanta Maria Teresa, St. Matthew, Self-portrait, The Tapestry Weavers, The Maids of Honor.*
42. **Vermeer, Jan** (1628-91). Dutch. Perfect in technique. *Lady with the Pearl Necklace, The Lace maker, Young Woman with a Water Jug, The Pianist.*
43. **Veronese, Paolo** (1528-88). Italian. *Feast in the House of Levi, Finding of Moses, Marriage at Cana.*
44. **Vinci, Leonardo Da** (1452-1519). Italian. *Adoration, The Last Supper, Madonna and Child, Madonna of the Rocks, Madonna with Saint Anne, Mona Lisa, the last being very*

famous, owing to the enigmatic smile that plays on the lips of the Lady.

45. **Watteau, Antoine** (1684-1721). French. A painter of pastoral scenes. *Judgment of Paris*, *The French Comedians*.

46. **Whistler, James Abbott Mcneill** (1834-1903). American. *The Golden Screen*, *Mother*, *Portrait of Miss Alexander*, *The Portrait of Carlyle*. He is a famous exponent of Impressionism.

(c) WORLD FAMOUS COMPOSERS & MUSICIANS

It may be noted here that of all European races, the Germans have produced the greatest musical geniuses.

1. **Bach, Johann Sebastian** (1685-1750). German. A musical prodigy. Called the "father of modern music". Attempted all forms except opera ; a master of contrapuntal style. His greatest works have a nobility seldom equalled by other composers.

2. **Beethoven, Ludwig van** (1770-1827). German. One of the greatest composers of the World. Wrote in all forms. His works are characterized by dramatic intensity, vigour, with great contrasts between the themes.

3. **Berlioz, Hector** (1803-69). French. Famous for brilliant orchestration and romantic style.

4. **Bizet, Georges** (1838-75). French. Composer of *Carmen* and other operas. Also wrote songs and instrumental works.

5. **Brahms, Johanes** (1833-97). German. Has been called a classicist in a romantic age. Wrote in almost all forms except opera.

6. **Byrd, William** (1540-1623). English. Wrote much religious music, and madrigals.

7. **Chopin, Frederic** (1810-49). Polish. Wrote almost exclusively for piano, giving the instrument a new individuality.

8. **Debussy, Claude** (1862-1918). French. Impressionist in style. Painted a variety of tones with orchestra. Wrote for orchestra, but chose such free form as the prelude, nocturne, and symphonic poem.

9. **Dvorak, Antonin** (1841-1904). Bohemian. A nationalist in music, he used the folk idiom of his people as the basis of his music.

10. **Franck, Cesar** (1822-90). Belgian. Characterized by vigorous style and a mastery of harmony. His only symphony, in D. Minor, is very popular.

11. **Gluck, Christoph Willibald von** (1714-87). German. A leading operatic composer of his day and an operatic reformer.

12. **Gounod, Charles** (1818-93). French. Wrote many melodious and popular operas, among them *Faust*, *Romeo and Juliet* (1867).

13. **Grieg, Edvard** (1843-1907). Norwegian. His best works are characterised by typically Scandinavian harmonies. Wrote songs, sonatas, and one piano concerto.

14. **Handel, George Friedrich** (1685-1759). One of the greatest English composers. A master of classic form. His best writing was for the voice, in the form of oratories.

15. **Haydn, Joseph** (1732-1809). Austrian. Called the "father of the symphony." Wrote over 100 symphonies as well as many other works for instrumental combinations. His work is characterized by grace and good humour.

16. **Lehar, Franz** (1870-1948).—Hungarian. Composer of many operettas, the most popular being *The Merry Widow*.

17. **Liszt, Franz** (1811-86).—Hungarian. First composer to use the symphonic poem. Composed much music to romantic literary ideas.

18. **Lully, Giovanni** (1633-87). French. Founder of the school of French opera that laid stress on the dramatic aspects of the story.

19. **Mendelssohn-Bartholdy, Felix** (1809-41). German. A master of the orchestra. His works are characterized by grace and vigour. His works for chorus are popular in England.

20. **Mozart, Wolfgang Amadeus** (1750-91). Austrian. One of the most gifted and prolific composers in musical history. Wrote operas, symphonies, songs and works in almost every other form. His work is remarkable for its sprightliness and humour, with touches of introspection in his later composition.

21. **Palestrina, Giovanni Pierluigi da** (1526-94). Italian. One of the great figures in the history of music. Wrote ecclesiastical music characterized by a simple, contrapuntal style.

22. **Puccini, Giacomo** (1858-1924). Italian. Writer of many melodious, popular operas, including *La Boheme* and *La Tosca*.

23. **Purcell, Henry** (1658-95). English. Regarded as England's greatest composer. Wrote masques, operas, and instrumental music.

24. **Rachmaninov, Sergei** (1873-1943). Russian. Composed songs, symphonies, concertos, and piano pieces in the nineteenth century romantic vein.

25. **Ravel, Maurice** (1875-1937). French. Modernist in style. An effective orchestral colourist. The *Bolero* is his most popular work.

26. **Rimsky-Korsakov, Nikolai** (1844-1908). Russian. A great orchestrator. His works are vivid and colourful.

27. **Rossini, Gioachino** (1792-1868). Italian. Specialised in writing operas, esp. comic operas like opera buffa. His works are sprightly and facile.

28. **Schubert, Franz** (1797-1828). Austrian. Romantic composer, famous for his beautiful melodies. Composed symphonies, chamber music, and much vocal music.

29. **Schumann, Robert** (1810-56). German. Romantic composer esp. for the piano. His music is characterized by joyous quality and depth of feeling.

30. **Sousa, John Philip** (1854-1932). American. Known as the "march king" for the many marches and military music that he wrote.

31. **Strauss, Johann** (1825-99). German. The "waltz king." Wrote many concert waltzes and other light music.

32. **Strauss, Richard** (1864) German. Master of orchestral tone and colour. Most of his compositions for orchestra have a plot or other literary meaning.

33. **Stravinsky, Igor** (1882) Russian. Writer in dissonant style. His most popular orchestral works were written for the ballet.

34. **Sullivan, Arthur** (1842-1900) English. In addition to the operas he wrote with W. S. Gilbert, he composed songs and oratories.

35. **Verdi, Giuseppe** (1813-1901). Italian. Regarded as the foremost Italian opera composer. Wrote almost exclusively for the stage. His operas are noted for melody and great dramatic intensity. Works include *Rigoletto*, *La Traviata*, *Aida*, *Otelio* and *Falstaff*.

36. **Wagner, Richard** (1813-83). German. An extraordinary musical genius. Revolutionized opera by insisting on the unity of all the parts, calling his works "music dramas". Drew heavily from Teutonic mythology for his subject matter. Works include *The Ring of the Nibelung*, and *Tristan and Isolde*.

(d) TRENDS IN MODERN ARTS.

A. PAINTING.

(i) Impressionism.

It originated in France in the later part of the 19th century. Its greatest exponents were Edouard Manet and Claude Manet. Pissarro, Degas, Renoir, and Sisley were the other prominent painters of this school. The Impressionists rejected old artistic traditions and conventional methods of lighting and composition. They strove to portray their impressions of nature by using pure colour and luminosity. They made use of pure primary colours

and obtained their effects by placing small spots of colour side by side. Thus painting was liberated from Victorian shackles.

In the twentieth century the famous exponents of this school have been Sargent, Sir William Orpen, William Strang and J. A. Whistler.

(ii) Post-Impressionism.

This school came into prominence about 1910. It consisted of French painters, the most notable among them being Cezanne, Gaugin, Van Gogh and Henri Matisse. The exhibition of their work created a great stir in art circles. Despite its apparent crudity the powerful colour work of these painters extracted praise and recognition.

(iii) Cubism.

It also emerged in France in the first decade of the present century. The members of this school stressed the aesthetic value of cubic forms, angles and solids generally. Besides depicting objects by a rectangular or geometrical treatment of forms, the cubist aims at realising, by a series of chaotically placed colours, the pictorial idea in the mind of the artist. Another name of Cubism is Futurism.

(iv) Surrealism.

This is the latest development of Cubism or Futurism. The Surrealists aim at eschewing imitation altogether, and stressing originality above everything else. They reject the tyranny of harmony and good taste and completely disregard the authority of art critics. They prize swiftness, pride, feverish activity and steely hardness.

In striving to portray on canvas a series of unconnected ideas Surrealism tends to be abstract and symbolic.

Painting has thus become more subjective, its function being interpretation rather than representation. Few artists have completely escaped the influence of Cubism and Surrealism.

The Paris school of painting to-day occupies the most prominent position in the modern world of art.

B. SCULPTURE.

Rodin revolutionized sculpture towards the end of the last century and the beginning of the present. His methods were rugged and forceful and he laid particular emphasis on idea. Thus he overthrew the supremacy of the smooth, artificial conventions of the Victorian artists.

The new trends in sculpture were taken up and developed by several English artists, including Epstein, Dobson, Eric Gill and Maurice Lambert. Barbara Hepworth and Alan Durst represent the latest phase.

Sculpture as a thing of sheer beauty has suffered on account of the rapid advance of science and the utilitarian outlook that follows in its wake.

C. ARCHITECTURE.

Science and emphasis on technique, utility and efficiency have stifled the growth of architecture as a thing of beauty and joy. Now-a-days utility rather than dignity or beauty is the guiding principle of architects. Steel, cement, concrete have taken the place of old building materials. Hence modern buildings are designed in a simple, austere, business like fashion, the aim being to provide only comfort, efficiency and utility. The buildings of to-day, therefore, take the shape of the skyscraper or a huge block of flat.

America dominates and leads the architectural designs of the present world.

D. MUSIC.

The Impressionist movement in painting produced a parallel school of music. Debussy (French) was the greatest exponent of Impressionism in music.

The modernist school in music claims complete freedom, harmonically, melodically and formally. The celebrated modern composers are Scriabin and Stravinsky (both Russian); Schonberg (Austrian); Bartok (died 1945) (Hungarian); Holst and William Walton (both English); Sergei Prokofiev (Russian), regarded by some as the world's greatest living composer.

Some Contemporary Artists.

Painters.

1. **Chirico, Giorgio de**.—Italian: Formerly a Surrealist, now strongly opposed to Surrealism; draws inspiration from the old masters.

2. **Ghika, K.**.—Greek. About 43 years old. An abstractionist, inspired by the French school. Portrait and landscape painter, remarkable for his original experiments with shapes and colours.

3. **Hopper, Edward**.—American. A realist in technique but unconventional in the choice of subjects. About 67 years of age.

4. **John, Augustus**.—English.—Age 72. England's leading painter; a disciple of Whistler; member of the Royal Academy.

5. **Koerner, Henry**.—American. Age 34. Has come into prominence in recent years. *Vanity Fair* is his best work.

6. **Matisse, Henri**.—French. Age 80. Leader of the school of Surrealism.

7. **Picasso, Pablo**—Spanish. Age 69. Leader of Surrealism ; considered by some to be the greatest living artist.

8. **Topolski, Feliks**—Polish-born, now lives in England. Made his name as a remarkable war artist. Excels in sketches, drawings and caricatures. Toured in India recently (1950), and his sketches of Indian life appeared in the *Hindustan Times* and other papers.

Pierri Bonnard, the great French Impressionist painter died at 79 in 1947, and Paul Nash the English artist passed away at 57 in 1948.

17. THE ARTS IN INDIA.

(a) FAMOUS MODERN INDIAN PAINTERS.

1. **Abanindranath Tagore**.—The greatest modern Indian artist. He brought about a revival of Indian Art by blending the Oriental and Occidental art with the Indian classical. Most of the modern great Indian artists draw their inspiration from him. Some of his best paintings are *Bharatmata* ; *Passing of Shah Jehan* and *Illustrations of Omar Khyyam*.

2. **Ashit Kumar Haldar** (Lucknow)—Principal of the Government School of Art at Lucknow. He is a disciple of Abanindranath. Has evolved a new technique in wood painting. Works include *Akbar as a builder* ; *Rama and Guha* ; *Krishna's Dance*.

3. **Deviprasad Roy Choudhury** (Madras)—A disciple of Abanindranath. Also a great sculptor, who has done the fine statue of the late Asutosh Mookerjee for the University of Calcutta. His paintings include *A Study in Green* and *Bhutia Maid*.

4. **Hemendranath Mazumdar** (1895-1948).—A famous portrait painter in European technique. Also well-known for his oil and water colour paintings. *Maharaja of Kashmir* ; *Kashmiri Study* and *Maid of Brindaban*.

5. **Jamini Roy** (Calcutta)—An outstanding artist. In his early work he showed traces of the influence of Whistler but later on shaped as an independent original artist of a very high order. *Krishna and Radha* ; *The Last Supper* ; *Wooden Toy Horse*.

6. **M. A. Rahman Chughtai** (Lahore)—A painter, following the Indo-Persian style. *Life* ; *The Poet* ; *The Hermit*.

7. **Nandalal Bose** (Santiniketan)—A very great and celebrated artist. Disciple of Abanindranath. Follows the classical

art of Ajanta in which he has surpassed all other modern Indian painters. *Shiva Mourning over Pārvati; Sati; Karna, Garuda.*

8. **Promode Kumar Chattopadhyay**—The most mystic of modern artists. Travelled extensively in the Himalaya and came under the spell of Tibetan art. At first he was a critic of the Tagore school of art but now he is its admirer and champion. *Lakshmi; Ambapūli—the Dancer; Chandrasekhara.*

9. **Subho Thakur**—A follower of the Cubist and Impressionist school of art. *Nartaki; Bharat; Bandini.*

10. **Venkatappa** (Mysore)—A follower of Abanindranath, who specialised in the technique of Rajput and Moghul paintings.

Ramkinkar Baije and Sreedhar Mahapatra are two of the most well-known Indian sculptors of to-day.

(b) FAMOUS MODERN INDIAN MUSICIANS AND DANCERS.

Among classical vocal singers the following are most noteworthy :—

Amir Khan (Delhi); Shreemati Damayanti Joshi (Bombay); Dilip Kumar Roy (Pondicherry); Shreemati Dipali Nag Chaudhary (Benares); Fayyaz Khan (Baroda); Hirabai Barodkar (Maharashtra); Narayan Rao Vyasa; Omkarnath Thakur (Bombay); Shreemati Shubalakshmi (Madras); and V. N. Patwardhan.

Dancers.

1. **Bala Saraswati**—Student of Kerala Kalamandiram. Noted for the revival of *Bharat Natyam*.

2. **Shreemati Menaka**—A very widely travelled dancer, the leader of the first Indian ballet troupe.

3. **Ram Gopal**—Famous dancer of South India; a disciple of the American dancer La Meri; influenced by Hollywood dance fashions.

4. **Shreemati Rukmini Devi**—Famous for her performances of *Bharat Natyam*.

5. **Shreemati Sadhna Bose**—Famous stage and screen dancer.

6. **Shreemati Santa**—A South Indian dancer; a disciple of the Malyayali poet Vallathol of Kerala Kalamandiram.

7. **Uday Shankar**—World famous Indian dancer. Has widely travelled and given performances of his art in foreign countries. His famous partners are Simki and Amla Nandy, the second of whom he married some time ago. His film *Kalpana* is full of

Indian dances and is considered to be one of the world's best pictures.

The most famous dancing centre is Kerala Kalamandiram (South Indian), noted for the development of classical Indian dance under the leadership of Vallathol, Narayan Menon and Sankaram Namboodry. Others are Manipur, and Santiniketan. Udyo Shankar founded an Art Centre, called Culture, at Almora but it has now closed down.

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18. FAMOUS ART GALLERIES AND MUSEUMS.

1. **The National Art Gallery, London**—Contains representative works of all well-known artists till 1800. The biggest collection in the country.

2. **The Tate Gallery, London**—Contains paintings and drawings in the country.

3. **The British Museum, London**—Contains masterpieces of painting, sculpture and also illuminated manuscripts.

4. **The Victoria and Albert Museum, London**—Contains chiefly miniatures, minor arts and historical relics.

5. **Louvre, Paris**—The most famous art collection in the world. Contains Greek, Roman, Egyptian and Oriental Masterpieces, including the celebrated statue *Venus de Milo* and Leonardo da Vinci's painting *Mona Lisa*.

6. **The Vatican Museum, Vatican City (Italy)**—Contains paintings, statues, huge frescoes by Raphael, and ancient manuscripts.

7. **The Uffizi Gallery, Florence (Italy)**—Contains some of the most celebrated Renaissance paintings of Raphael, Botticelli, Leonardo da Vinci and others.

8. **Kaiser Friedrich Museum, Berlin**—The Biggest Berlin Museum.

9. **Schloss Museum**—Berlin.

10. **Royal Museum of Fine Arts, Brussels, (Belgium)**.

11. **State Museum, Amsterdam (Holland)**.

12. **Museo del Prado, Madrid**—Contains Velasquez's famous *Las Meninas* (The Maids of Honour.)

13. **Tretyakov Gallery, Moscow**—Contains a fine collection of Russian art from the 11th century to the modern time.

14. **Museum of Modern Western Art, Moscow**—Contains French paintings of the 19th and early 20th centuries.

15. **Imperial Household Museum, Tokyo (Japan)**.

16. **National Gallery of Art, Washington**—Opened in 1941.
17. **Museum of Modern Art, New York**—Noted for contemporary paintings.
18. **The Whitney Museum of American Art, New York**—Contains only modern works of art.
19. **The National Gallery of Canada, Ottawa.**
20. **The Art Gallery of Toronto (Canada).**

INDIAN ART GALLERIES & COLLECTIONS.

1. Indian Museum (Calcutta). 2. Victoria Memorial (Calcutta)
3. Central Museum (Lahore). 4. Archaeological Museum (Delhi). 5. Bhuri Singh Museum (Chamba). 6. School of Arts (Madras). 7. Palace of Tanjore. 8. Palace of Pudukottah (South India)

PRIVATE COLLECTIONS.

- (1) H. H. The Maharaja of Burdwan. (2) H. H. The Maharaja of Benaras. (3) H. H. The Nawab of Rampur. (4) Kasturbhai Lalbai (Ahmedabad), (5) Prof. Rabindranath Tagore. (6) Ajit Ghosh. (7) Sir Akbar Hydari (8) Calcutta University Asutosh Collection. (9) Jaipur Pothikhana. (10) Rani Rajeshwar Bali. (Dariabad). (11) Mysore Durbar. (12) Puran Chand Nahar (Calcutta).
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THE PRESS AND NEWSPAPERS

INDIAN

Newspaper Organizations.

1. **Indian and Eastern Newspaper Society** : The Society was started in 1939, as the central organization of the Press in India, Burma and Ceylon. Its principal objects are to safeguard the business interests of members as affected by the acts of governmental and other public organizations, to collect and communicate essential information to members and to promote co-operation among them in matters of common interest by holding periodical conferences and framing rules of conduct on specified subjects. The society maintains a permanent secretariate in India, which keeps a watch over the interests of members and facilitates constant interchange of information and views.
2. **All-India Newspaper Editors' Conference** : The organization was started in 1940 in order to protest against the

restriction imposed on the press by the Defence of India Rules. As a result of the conference's representations, many of the restrictions were withdrawn and press advisory committees were created to advise the Central and Provincial Governments.

The Conference has now come to stay as the most representative organization of Indian newspapermen and works under a constitution with the following aims and objects :—

- (a) To preserve the high traditions and standards of journalism ;
 - (b) To serve and safeguard the interests of the Press in regard to the publication of news and fair comment ;
 - (c) To secure all facilities and privileges to the press for the due discharge of its responsibilities ;
 - (d) To represent the press in India in its relations with the public and public institutions and particularly in its relations to Government to set up Committees who would act as liaison between the Government and the Press as a whole ; and
 - (e) To establish and develop contacts with Associations with similar objects in other countries.
3. **Indian Languages Newspapers Association :** Although the Indian language newspapers are represented on the All India Newspaper Editor's Conference, this organization was started in 1941, specially to look after the welfare of this class of journals. It represents the interests of smaller newspapers, periodicals and magazines of Indian languages also.
4. **Press Trust of India :** This is the first national news agency of India. It was formed in 1948 and is co-operatively owned by the Indian newspapers as a nonprofit making trust. This has materialised as a result of a partnership agreement between the Reuters and the Indian and Eastern Newspaper Society. The Reuters and the Associated Press of India, previously owned by the Reuters World News Organization are now functioning under the Press Trust of India (P. T. I.) with effect from February 1. 1949.

The First Indian Newspaper

Hickey's Bengal Gazette : (English Weekly) published from Calcutta on Jan. 29, 1780.

Banaras Akhbar : (Hindi) Published in 1845 from Banaras with Govind Raghunath Thatte as editor.

Important Newspapers of Different Languages

ENGLISH

Dailies :—

Allahabad : Amrita Bazar Patrika ; The Leader.

Ambala Cantt : The Tribune.

Amritsar : Punjab Times.

Bangalore : Daily News ; Daily Post ; Deccan Herald.

Bombay : Bombay Chronicle; Bombay Sentinel ; Evening News of India ; Free Press Journal ; National Standard ; Times of India.

Calcutta : Advance; Hindustan Standard; Amrita Bazar Patrika; Nation ; Star of India ; Statesman ; Telegraph.

Cuttack : New Orissa.

Delhi : Times of India.

Gauhati : Assam Tribunc.

Kanpur : Telegraph.

Lucknow : National Herald ; Pioneer.

Madras : Free Press ; Hindu ; Indian Express ; Liberator ; Mail.

Nagpur : Hitavada ; Nagpur Times.

New Delhi : Hindustan Times ; Statesman, The Evening News.

Patna : Indian Nation ; Searchlight.

Weeklies : Shillong Times, (Shillong) ; Times of Assam (Dibrugarh), Bihar Herald (Patna) ; Bhart Jyoti, Blitz, Bombay Chronicle, Bombay Market, Commerce, Examiner, Forum, Free Hindustan, Illustrated Weekly of India, India, Indian Market, New Democrat, Peoples Age, Sporting Times and Sunday Standard (Bombay) ; Independent (Nagpur) ; Fauji Akhbar, Sports India, The People, Thought (Delhi) ; Eastern Economist, Commerce and Industry, Freeman, Indian Spectator, Janata, Liberator, Shankar's Weekly, Sports India (New Delhi) ; Commercial Progress, Free India, Madras Law Journal, Sport and Pastime, Sunday Herald, Sunday Observer, Sunday Times, Swatantra (Madras) ; Justicite (Erode) ; Premier (Bezwada) ; Wednesday Review (Trichinopoly) ; Progress (Cuttack) ; Allahabad Weekly Reporter (Allahabad) ; Frontier Mail-Bi-Weekly (Dehra Dun) ; Hindustan (Lucknow) ; Sunday Times (Meerut) ; Calcutta Municipal Gazette, Calcutta Weekly Notes, Capital, Dipali, Forward, Herald, Indian Finance, Orient, Whip, Sports and Screen (Calcutta) ; My India (Bangalore).

Fortnightlies : All India Weekly, Student (Bombay) ; Indian Listener (New Delhi) ; My Magazine of India, Madras

Information (Madras) ; Revenue Decision (Allahabad) ; Illustrated News, Joint Stock Company's Journal (Calcutta) ; St. Philomena Messenger (Mysore).

Monthlies : Hindustan Review (Patna) ; Eastern Rotary Wheel, Filmindia, General Letter, Indian Concrete Journal, Indian Reader's Digest, Onlooker, Sound, The Aryan Path, United Asia, War Cry (Bombay) ; All India Reporter (Nagpur) ; Indian Farming (Delhi) ; Caravan, India Quarterly (New Delhi) ; Antiseptic, Indian Medical Journal, India Review, Medical Service, Yearly Digest of Indian and English Cases (Madras) ; Theosophist (Adyar) ; Allahabad University Magazine—Thrice a year (Allahabad) ; Globe (Agra) ; Roshni (Lucknow) ; Banaras Hindu University Journal—quarterly (Banaras) ; Calcutta Medical Review, Indian and Eastern Engineer, Indian Aviation, Indian Medical Record, Indian Railway Gazette, Journal of Indian Medical Association, Modern Review, Prabuddha Bharat (Calcutta) ; Indian Export Trade Bulletin (Baroda) ; Treasure Chest (Mysore) ; Union Law Journal (Delhi).

HINDI

Dailies : Amar Bharat, Nav Bharat, Vir Arjun (Delhi) ; Hindustan, Hindi Milap ; Netaji (New Delhi) ; Vishwamitra (published simultaneously from Calcutta, Bombay, New Delhi, Kanpur and Patna) ; Nav Jyoti (Ajmer) ; Aryavarta, Navarashtra, Navin Bharat, Pradeep, Rashtravani and Azad Hind (Patna) ; Lokmanya (Bombay) ; Jai Hind (Jubbulpore) ; Lokmat, Nav Bharat (Nagpur) Adhikar, Navajivan, Swatantra Bharat (Lucknow), Bharat (Allahabad) ; Aj, Sanmarg, Sansar (Banaras) ; Daily Jagaran, Partap, Vartaman (Kanpur) ; Sainik, Sandesh, Ujala (Agra), Jagriti (Howrah) ; Lokmanya (Calcutta) ; Janata (Indore) ; Jagrit, Lokvani (Jaipur) ; Dainik Lokmat (Jodhpur).

Weeklies : Miran, Tyag Bhoomi, Darbar (Ajmer)—Hunkar, Mazdoor Sansar, Nava Shakti, Yogi (Patna) ; Monghyr Samachar, Prabhakar (Monghyr) ; Narad (Chhapara) ; Tirhut Samachar (Muzaffarpur) ; Avaj, Jana Yug, Shri Venkateshwar Samachar (Bombay) ; Agradoot (Rajpur) ; Karmavir, Swarajya (Khandwa) ; Savadhan-Bi-Weekly (Nagpur) ; Shubh Chintak-Bi-Weekly (Jubbulpore) ; Fauji Akhbar, Gram Udyog, Nav Yug, Vir Arjun (Delhi) ; Abhyudaya, Bharat, Desh Doot, Sangam (Allahabad) ; Arun (Moradabad) ; Pratap (Kanpur) ; Sainik (Agra) ; Swatantra (Jhansi) ; Jagriti, Lokmanya, Poonji, Vishwabandhu, Vishwamitra, Hindu (Calcutta) ; Harijan Sevak (Ahmedabad) ; Jiwan (Lashkar), Dharamyug (Bombay).

Monthlies : Krishak (Nagpur) ; Rashtrabhasha (Wardha) ; Jiwan Sahitya, Ajkal, Vishwa Darshan (Delhi) ; Sarita,

Sarang—fortnightly (New Delhi) ; Bekar Sakha (Shikohabad); Braj Bharati (Mathura) Dhanwantri, Sangeet (Aligarh) ; Madhuri, Manohar Kahanian, Maya, Sarswati, Shiksha—Quarterly, and Vishwa Vani (Allahabad) ; Hans, Nagari Pracharini Patrika (Banaras) ; Rajput (Agra) ; Swasthya (Mathura) ; Vishwa Bharati (Lucknow) ; Vishal Bharat (Calcutta).

URDU

Dailies : Sada-e-Am (Patna) ; Ajmal, Hilal-e-Nau, Hindustan, Inquilab-e-Jadid, Iqbal, Muslim, Roznama-e-Khilafat (Bombay) ; Anjam, Bande Mataram, Hind, Tej (Delhi) ; Milap, Pratap, (New Delhi) ; Prabhat (Amritsar) ; Ajit ; Jai Hind, Hind Samachar (Jullundur) ; Haq, Qaumi Avaz (Lucknow) ; Al-Haq, Asre-Jadid, Rozana Hind (Calcutta) ; Mussalman (Madras) ; Al-Kalam (Bangalore) ; Navyug (Srinagar).

Weeklies : Al-Faruque (Kamptee, Nagpur) ; Ajmal, Naya Zamana (Bombay) ; Chitra, Din Dunia, Fauji Akhbar, National Congress, Panth, Riyasat, Sher-e-Punjab (Delhi) ; Jadeed Dilchasp (Madras) ; Azad, Momin Gazette (Kanpur) ; Bedar (Gorkhpur) ; Chanchal (Meerut) ; Madina-Nazara, Oudh Akhbar (Lucknow).

Monthlies : Nadim (Patna), Awaz—fortnightly (New Delhi) ; Kakhshan, Maulvi, Shuaen, Ajkal (Delhi) ; Nigar (Lucknow) ; Zamana (Kanpur) ; Afkar (Bhopal),

BENGALI

Dailies : Anand Bazar Patrika, Basumatı, Hindusthan, Ittehad, Jugantar, Matribhumi, Navayug, Paschim Banga Patrika, Pratyaha, Svaraj and Svadhinata — all published from Calcutta.

Weeklies : Abhijan (Maulvi Bazar Town—Assam) ; Medinipur Hitaishi (Midnapore) ; Avtar, Bangla, Basumatı, Begum, Des, Dipali, Hindusthan, Mohammadi, Sachitrā Bharat, Sisir, Svades and Vangadoot (Calcutta).

Monthlies : Banagadarshan, Banlar Shiksak, Bhandar, Bharat-varsa, Byabosha O Banijya, Homiopathy, Paricharak, Mandira, Pravasi, Sanibarer Chithi, Saogat. Svasthya Samachar, Vartaman and Visva Bharati Patrika (Calcutta),

TAMIL

Dailies : Bharat Devi, Dinamani, Dinasari, Muslim, Nava India, Swadesamitran, Tamil Mani, Tamil Olagam and Velli Mani (Madras) ; and Thennappu (Ambur—North Arcot).

Weeklies : Ananda Vikatan, Hanuman, Hindustan, Kalki, Naradar, Padu Olagam, Saiful Islam, Swadesamitran, Tamil Olagam and Velli Mani (Madras) ; India Thai (Madura) ;

Kudi Arasu (Erode) ; **Samathuvam** (Salem) and **Thennadu** (Ambur).

Fortnightlies : **Chandothayam**, Madras Information Malathi, Navayuvan, Prachanta Vikatan and Thyagi (Madras).

Monthlies : **Ananda Bodhini**, Grihamani, Jaganmohini, Kalaimagal, Pesam Padam, Senguntha Mitran and Vinothan (Madras) ; **Pappa** (Puddukkottai) Vanoli (Trichinopoly); **Nalvashi** (Poona) and **Poresatham** (Trivandrum).

MARATHI

Dailies : **Dnyon Prakash**, Lokamanya, Lokasatta, Lokashahi, Nava Bharat, Nava Kal, Nava Shakti, Prabhat and Sandhya Kal (Bombay) ; **Dnyan Prakash**, Kal, Prabhat and Sakal (Poona) ; Maharashtra and Tarun Bharat (Nagpur) ; Pudhari (Kolhapur).

Weeklies : Dhanurdhari, Kamgar Khabar, Loka Yug, Mouj, Nava Kal, Nava Yug, Vivid Vritta (Bombay) ; Kesari-bi-weekly, Sunday Sakal and Zankar (Poona) ; Tarun Bharat (Belgaum) ; Bhavitavya, Chavata, Inquilab, Srmadhan, Surajya (Nagpur) ; Hindustan and Udhaya-bi-weekly (Amraoti) ; Matribhumi-bi-weekly (Akola) ; Satyavadi (Kolhapur).

Monthlies . **Girni Samachar** (Bombay) ; **Chitra Maya Jagat** (Poona) ; Kirloskar, Manohar and Stree (Kirloskarvadi) ; Purushartha (Aundh), Udyam (Nagpur) ; and **Samachar-Fortnightly** (Miraj).

TELUGU

Dailies : Andhra Patrika, Andhra Prabha (Madras) and Janmabhumi (Bezwada).

Weeklies : Anandavanti, Prajabandhu (Madras) ; Krishna Patrika (Masulipatam) ; Prajamitra (Bezwada) ; Yashoda (Bajahndry) ; and Zamin Ryot (Nellore).

Monthlies : Dhanka, Rupvani, Vinothini, Yudda Dwani, Chitragupta-fortnightly—(Madras) ; Jyoti-fortnightly (Tenali) ; Mulukola-thrice a month (Bezwada).

GUJARATI.

Dailies : **Bombay Samachar**, Hindustan, Janmabhumi, Muslim-Times, Nutun Gujrat, Vande Matram, Vatan (Bombay) ; **Gujrat Samachar**, Prabhat, Sandesh, Sevak (Ahmedabad) ; **Gujrat** (Surat R.S.) ; **Jai Gujrat** (Baroda).

Weeklies : Beghadi Moj, **Bombay Samachar**, Chitrapat, Gujrati, Jam-e-Jamshed, Janmabhumi, Pravasi, Jaybharat, Moj Majah, Raviwar, Yugantar (Bombay) ; Aram, Gujrati Punch, Hindu, Nava Saurashtra, Praja Bandhu (Ahmedabad) ; Muslim

Gujrat, Stree Shakti (Surat) ; Bahurupi, Phul Chhab ; (Rampur-Ahmedabad) : Jai Saurashtra. Lohana Hitechhu Rajkot).

Fortnightly : Majur Sandesh (Ahmedabad).

PUNJABI.

Dailies : Akali Patrika, Khalsa Sewak and Vartman (Amritsar).

KANNADA.

Dailies : Deshbandhu, Janavani, Mothrubhumi, Tai Nadu (Bangalore) ; Mysore Patrika (Mysore).

Weeklies : Anantharanga, Navayuga (Udipi) ; Kanteerava-bi weekly, Rashttra Bandhu, Swatanthra Bharatha (Mangal-Kannadanudi), Prajamato, Suggiya (Mysore), Vishwakarnata, Vokkaligara Patrika (Bangalore).

Monthlies : Kathegarr, Koravanji (Bangalore) ; Madras Information-fortnightly (Madras).

ORIYA

Dailies : Asha, Prajatantra, Samaj (Cuttack).

Periodicals : Samaj (weekly) and Utkal Prasanga (fortnightly) from Bhadrak.

MALAYALAM

Dailies : Malayala Rajyam, Prabhatam (Quilon) ; Malayala Manorama (Kottayam).

Weeklies : Prabhatam (Quilon) ; Yudha Sabdam (Trivandrum).

Monthlies : Naradar, Rasikan (Trivandrum) ; Viyayabhanu (Alleppey).

ANGLO-MALAYALAM

Dailies : Deepam, Malabar Mail (Ernakulam) ; Express, Gomathi (Trichur) ; Bharatha Chandrika (Thiruvella) ; Bharathi, Kerala Kaumudi, Shri Chitrayugam (Trivandrum) ; Deepika, Kerala Bhooshanam, Powradhwani, Powraprabha Kottayam).

Weeklies : Sathia Deepam (Ernakulam) ; Dakshina Bharathi (Eraniel).

Monthlies : Sacred Heart (Kottayam) ; Vanitha (Thiruvella).

SINDHI

Daily : Sansar Samachar (Bombay).

ASSAMESE

Daily : Dainik Assamiya (Gauhati).

INDIAN NEWS AGENCIES.

1. United Press of India (U. P. I.).
2. Reuter-Press Trust of India (Reuter-P. T. I.).
3. Indian Press Features.

FOREIGN NEWSPAPERS

BRITAIN

Dailies : Birmingham Post ; Daily Express ; Daily Graphic ; Daily Herald ; Daily Mail ; Daily Mirror ; Daily Worker ; Evening News ; Evening Standard ; Manchester Guardian ; News Chronical ; Times, The Yorkshire Post ; Star (Evening) ; Western Mail ; Liverpool Daily Post ; Daily Despatch (Manchester) ; Western Morning News (Plymouth) ; Sheffield Telegraph's ; Scotsman (Edinburgh) ; Glasgow Harold.

Sunday Newspapers : News of the World ; The Observer ; The People ; Reynolds News ; Sunday Chronicle ; Sunday Despatch ; Sunday Express ; Sunday Graphic, Sunday Mail ; Sunday Pictorial ; Sunday Times.

Periodicals : Economist ; Illustrated London ; New Statesman and Nation ; Punch ; Listener ; Spectator ; Time and Tide ; Times weekly ; Contemporary Review ; Fortnightly ; Great Britain and the East ; National Review ; The World Today ; World View ; Economic Journal ; International Affairs ; Political Quarterly ; Quarterly Review ; The Round Table Post.

U. S. A.

Dailies : Times (Los Angeles) ; Examiner (San Francisco) ; Post (Washington) ; Star (Washington) ; Daily News (Chicago) ; Sun Times (Chicago) ; Tribune (Chicago) ; Sun (Baltimore) ; Globe (Boston) ; Herald (Boston) ; Post (Boston) ; Free Press (Detroit) ; News (Detroit) ; Star (Kansas City) ; Herald Tribune (New York City) ; Times (New York City) ; World Telegram and The Sun (New York City) ; Bulletin (Philadelphia) ; Inquirer (Philadelphia) ;

Newspaper Groups : Hearst Newspapers, Scripps Howard Newspapers.

Newspaper Agencies : Associated Press ; United Press, International News Service and Universal News Service.

Periodicals.

From New York City : Business week ; Commonwealth ; Foreign Affairs ; Fortune ; Geographical Review ; Harpeo's Magazine ; Life ; Nation ; New Republic ; Newsweek ; Political Service Quarterly ; Social Research ; Time ; United Nations World.

From Washington : Federal Reserve Bulletin ; Foreign Commerce Weekly ; U. S. News and World Report ; Survey of Current Business.

Other Papers : The Atlantic (Boston) ; Current History (Philadelphia) ; Journal of Political Economy (Chicago).

FRANCE

L'Aurore-France Libre ; Le Figaro ; L'Humanite ; Le Parisien Libre ; Ce Soir ; France Soir ; La Croix ; Le Monde ; Ouest France ; Le Progres ; Sud Quest ; Voix du Nord.

Periodicals : Action ; Carrefour ; Figaro Litteraire ; Letters Francaises.

GREECE

Acropolis ; Dimokratikos ; Eleftheria ; Embros ; Ethnikos Kyrix ; Ethnos, Estia ; Mersager d' Athenes ; Ta Nea, To Vina ; To Phos.

ISRAEL

Cherut ; Davar ; Haaretz ; Haboker ; Hador ; Al Hamisbmar ; Kal Haam ; Maariv.

ITALY

Avanli Il Gironale d'Italia ; Il Globo ; Il Messaggero ; Il Momento, Il Paese ; Il Popolo ; Il Popolo di Roma ; Il Quotidiano, Il Tempo ; L' Unita, Renascita.

JAPAN

Asahi Shimbun ; Mainichi Shimbun; Yomiuri Shimbun ; Tokyo Shimbun ; Chubu Nippon ; Nishi Nippon ; Nippon Times.

U. S. S. R.

Pravada ; Izvestia ; Gudok ; Bolshevik.

TURKEY

Cumhuriyet ; En Son Dakika ; Hergun ; Hurriyet ; Istanbul ; Son Posta Son Saat ; Son Talgraf ; Tan ; Vatan ; Vakit ; Zaman.

PAKISTAN

Dawn (Karachi) ; Sind Observer (Karachi) ; Civil and Military Gazette (Lahore and Karachi) ; Morning News (Dacca) ; Pakistan Observer (Dacca).

AUSTRALIA

Advertiser (Adelaide) ; Herold (Melbourne) ; Sun News Pictorial (Melbourne) ; New Castle Morning Herald (New

Castle) ; Daily Mirror (Sydney) ; Daily Telegraph (Sydney) : Sunday Sun (Sydney) ; Age (Melbourne) ; West Australia (Perth) ; Sunday Telegraph (Sydney).

BELGIUM

Le Soir ; La Libre Belgique ; La Derniere Heure ; La Nation Belge ; Le Drapeau Rouge ; La Cite ; Le Peuple ; Het Laatste Nieuws ; De Standaard ; Het Volk ; Vooruit.

Periodicals : Face a Main ; Volonte ; Temps ; Nouveaux ; Lloyd Anversois.

CANADA

Globe ; Star ; Telegram ; (all three from Toronto) ; Citizens and Journal (from Ottawa) ; Sun (Vancouver) ; La Presse and Star (Montreal) and Le Solcile (Quebec).

Weekly and Monthlies etc. : Canadian Home Journal ; Canadian Business ; Culture ; Dalhousie Review ; Financial Post ; Financial Times.

CHINA

Chung Yang Tih Pao ; Shin Shergo Pao ; Kung Lun Pao (all from Formosa, Kuomintang papers) ; Chieh Fang Jih Pao from Shanghai ; Nan Fang Jih Pao from Canton ; Hsin ; Min Pao from Peiking, Nanking and Shanghai simultaneously ; Jen Min Jih Pao are all communist papers.

EGYPT

Al Ahram ; Akhbar el Yom ; Al Assas ; Al Bassir ; Al Kotta ; Al Misr ; Al Misri ; Al Mokattam,

FOREIGN NEWS SERVICES

The Associated Press, The United Press, International News Services (American) ; Reuters, Globe (British) ; The Tass (Russian) ; Antara (Indonesian) ; Allied Information Services (W. Zone, Germany) ; Chinese Bureau of Information (K. M. T. China) ; Agence France Presse (France) ; Kyodo News Agency, Jiji News Agencies (Japan).

THE NOBEL PRIZES

The Nobel prizes are awarded from the income of a fund bequeathed to trustees by Dr. Alfred Nobel, the Swedish inventor of dynamite (1833-1896) who left £1,750,000. The trustees have their office Nobel-Stiftelsens Sytrelse, at Sturegaten 13, Stockholm, Sweden.

The prizes are awarded to persons who have made the greatest contributions to the progress and welfare of the world in different fields of activity.

The first prizes were awarded on 10th December 1901. Each prize is of the value of about £8,000 and is awarded for prominent services in Physics, Chemistry, Medicine or Physiology, Literature, and the cause of international peace.

The Swedish Academy of Science makes the Physics and Chemistry awards. The Stockholm Faculty of Medicine makes the awards for Medicine or Physiology, the awards for literature are made by the Swedish Academy of literature, whereas the awards for Peace are made by a Committee of four members elected by the Norwegian Legislature.

NOBEL PRIZE WINNERS, 1901—

Year	Physics	Chemistry	Medicine or Physiology
1901	W. K. Roentgen (Germany)	J. H. Van't Hoff (Holland)	E Adolf von Behring (Germany)
1902	H. A. Lorentz, & P. Zeeman (Denmark)	Emil Fisher (Germany)	Sir Ronald Ross (England)
1903	A. H. Becquerel Pierre Curie and Marie Curie (France)	S. A. Arrhenius (Sweden)	N. R. Finsen (Denmark)
1904	Lord Rayleigh (England)	Sir W. Ramsay (England)	I. P. Pavlov (Russia)
1905	Phillipp Lenard (Germany)	A. von Baeyer (Germany)	Robert Koch (Germany)
1906	J. J. Thomson (England)	Prof. Henri Moissan (France)	Profs. Ramony Cajal (Spain) and Camillo Golgi (Italy)

1907	A. A. Michelson (America)	E. Buchner (Germany)	C. L. A. Laveran (France)
1908	G. Lippmann (France)	Prof. Ernest Rutherford	Dr. Paul Ehrlich (Germany) and Prof. E. Metchnikoff (France)
1909	G. Marconi (Italy) & F. Braun (Germany)	Prof. Wilhelm Ostwald (Germany)	Th. Kocher (Switzerland)
1910	J. D. Van der- Waals (Holland)	Otto Wallach (Germany)	Dr. A. Kossel (Germany)
1911	Prof. W. Wien (Germany)	Marie S. Curie (France)	A. Gullstrand (Sweden)
1912	Gustaf Dalen (Sweden)	Prof. Grignard and Prof. Paul Sabatier (France)	Dr. A. Carrel (America)

Literature	International peace.
R. F. A. Sully-Prudhomme (France)	Henri Dunant (Switzerland) and Frederick Passy (France)
T. Mommsen (Germany)	Elie Ducommun and A. Gobat Switzerland)
B. Bjornstjern Bjornson (Norway)	W. R. Cremer (England)
F. Mistral (France) and Jose Echegaray (Spain) H. Sienkiewicz (Poland)	The Institut De Droit International Ghent (Belgium)
Prof. Carducci (Italy)	Baroness B. von Suttner (Austria)
	T. Roosevelt (America)

GENERAL KNOWLEDGE ENCYCLOPAEDIA

R. Kipling (England)	E. T. Moneta (Italy) and Louis Renault (France)
Prof. R. Eucken (Germany)	K. P. Arnoldson (Sweden) and F. Bajer (Denmark)
Selma Lagerlof (Sweden)	Baron de Constant (France) and A.M.F. Beernaert (Belgium)
Paul Von Heyse (Germany)	International Permanent Peace Bureau (Switzerland)
M. Maeterlinck (Belgium)	Prof. T. M. C. Asser (Holland) and A. H. Fried (Austria)
G. Hauptmann (Germany)	Elihu Root (America)

THE NOBEL PRIZES

Year	Physics	Chemistry	Medicine or Physiology
1913	Prof. H. Kamerling-Onnes (Denmark)	Alfred Werner (Switzerland)	C. Richet (France)
1914	Prof. M. von Laue (Germany)	T. W. Richards (America)	Dr. R. Barany (Austria)
1915	Prof. W. H. Bragg and W. L. Bragg (England)	R. Willstatter (Germany)	No award
1916	No award.	No award	„
1917	C. G. Barkla (England)	„	„
1918	M. Planck (Germany)	F. Haber (Germany)	No award
1919	J. Stark (Germany)	No award	J. Bordet (Belgium)

1920	Ch. E. Guillaume (Switzerland)	W. Nernst (Germany)	A. Krogh (Denmark)
1921	Albert Einstein (Germany)	F. Soddy (England)	No award
1922	Niels Bohr (Denmark)	F. W. Aston (England)	A. V. Hill (England) O. Meyerhoff (Germany)
1923	R. A. Millikan (America)	F. Pregl (Austria)	F. G. Banting and J. J. R. MacLeod (Canada)
1924	K. M. G. Siegbahn (Sweden)	No award	W. Einthoven (Holland)
1925	J. Frank & G. Hertz (Germany)	R. Zsigmondy (Germany)	No award
1926	Jean Perrin (France)	T. Svedberg (Sweden)	J. Fibiger (Denmark)
1927	A. H. Compton (America) C. T. R. Wilson (England)	H. Wieland (Germany)	J. Wagner-Jauregg (Austria)

Literature	International peace
Rabindranath Tagore (India)	H. La Fontaine (Belgium)
No award	No award
Romain Rolland (France)	"
V. Heidenstam (Sweden)	"
K. Gjellerup & H. Pontoppidan (Denmark)	Comite international de la Croix Rouge
No award	No award
C. Spitteler (Switzerland)	Woodrow Wilson (America)

Knut Hamsun (Norway)	Leon Bourgeois (France)
Anatole France (France)	K. H. Branting (Sweden and C. L. Lange (Norway)
J. Benavente (Spain)	F. Nansen (Norway)
W. B. Yeats (Ireland)	No award
W. Reymont (Poland)	No award
G. B. Shaw (England)	A. Chamberlain (England) G. Dawes (America)
Grazia Deledda (Italy)	A. Briand (France) & G. Stressemann (Germany)
Henri-Bergson (France)	Ferdinand Buisson (France) and Ludwig Quidde (Germany)

Year	Physics	Chemistry	Medicine or Physiology
1928	O. W. Richardson (England)	A. Windaus (Germany)	Charles Nicolle (France)
1929	Victor-de-Broglie (France)	A. Harden (England) Prof. Von Euler Chelpin (Sweden)	Sir F. G. Hopkins (England) Prof. Chr. Eijkman (Holland)
1930	Sir C. V. Raman (India)	Prof. H. Fischer (Germany)	Dr. Karl. Landsteiner (America)
1931	No award	Prof. K. Bosch Prof. Bergius (Germany)	Prof. Otto Warburg (Germany)
1932	Prof. W. Heisenberg (Germany)	Irving Lang-Muir (America)	Sir Charles S. Sherrington (England) Prof. E. D. Adrian (England)

1933	Prof. P. A. M. Dirac. (England) & Prof. Erwin Schrodinger (Austria)	No award	Prof. Thomas H. Morgan (America)
1934	No award	Prof. H.C. Urey (America)	G. Minot & W. P. Murphy & G. H. Whipple (America)
1935	Prof. J. Chadwick (England)	F. Joliot & Mme. I. Curie Joliot (France)	Dr. Hans Speemann (Germany)
1936	Prof. Victor F. Hess (Austria), & Dr. C. D. Anderson (America)	Prof. Peter J. W. Debye (Germany)	Prof. Sir Henry H. Dale (England) & Prof. Otto Loewi (Austria)
1937	C. J. Davisson (America) & G. P. Thomson (England)	W. N. Haworth (England)	Prof. Albert Szent Gyorgyi von. Nagyrapolt (Hungary)
1938	Enrico Fermi (Italy)	Prof. Kuhn (Germany)	Prof. C. Heymans (Belgium)

Literature	International peace.
Sigrid Undset (Norway)	No award
Thomas Mann (Germany)	F. B. Kellogg (Americans)
Sinclair Lewis (America)	Archbishop Lars O.J. Soderblom (Sweden)
Erik Axel Karlfeldt (Sweden)	Jane Addams, and N. M. Butler (both Americans)
J. Galsworthy (England)	No award

Ivan G. Bunin (Russia)	Sir Norman Angel (England)
Luigi Piran- dello (Italy)	A. Henderson (England)
No award	Carl von Ossietzky (Germany)
Eugene O'Neill (America)	Dr. Carlos de Saavedra Lamas (Argentina)
R. M. du Gard (France)	Viscount Cecil (England)
Pearl Buck (America)	The Nansen Office (Geneva)

Year.	Physics
1939	Prof. Ernest Orlando Lawrence (America)
1940-	No award
1942	
1943	Prof. Otto Stern (U. S. A.)
1944	Prof. Issac Rabi (U. S. A.)
1945	Dr. W. Pauli (Switzerland)
1946	Percy W. Bridgman (America)
1947	Sir Edward Appleton (England)
1948	Prof. P. M. S. Blackett (English)
1949	Dr. Hideki Yukawa (Japan)
1950	Prof. Cecil F. Powell (England)
1951	Sir John Cockcroft & Dr. E. T. S. Walton (England)

Chemistry	Medicine or Physiology	Literature	International Peace
Prof. A. F. J. Butenandt (Germany) and Prof. L. Ruzicka (Switzerland)	Prof. G. Domagk (Germany)	F. Eemil Sillanpaa (Finland)	No award
No award	No award	No award	No award
Prof. George Hevesy De Heves (Sweden)	Prof. Henrik Dam (Copenhagen) and Prof. E. A. Doisy (U. S. A.)	"	"
Otto Hahn, (Germany)	Prof. Joseph Erlanger (U. S. A.) and Prof. H. Gasser (U. S. A.)	Dr. J. V. Jensen (Danish)	International Red Cross
Prof. Artturi Virtanen (Finland)	Sir. A. Fleming, Sir Howard Florey & Dr. E. B. Chain (England)	Gabriela Mistral (Chile)	Cordell Hull (U. S. A.)

J. H. Northrop, J. B. Sumner & W. Stanley (Americans)	Herman J. Muller (America)	Hermann Hess (Switzerland)	Emily Greene Balch & John R. Mott (Americans)
Sir Robert Robinson (England)	Carl F. and Gerty Cori (Americans) and Bernardo A. Houssay (Argentina)	Andre Gide (France)	American Friends Service Committee (American) and Service Council (England)
Prof. Arne Tiselius (Swedish)	Dr. Paul Mueller (Swiss)	Dr. Thomas S. Elliot (American born British poet)	No award
Prof. W. Giruque (America)	Dr. Rudolf Hess (Swiss) & Prof. Egas Moniz (Portugal)		Lord Boyd Orr (England)
Prof. E.O. Biel & Kurt Alder (Both German)	Dr. Edward C. Kendall, Dr. Philip Hench (U. S. A.) & Dr. Reichstein (Switzerland)	Bertrand Russell (England)	Dr. Ralf Bunch American Negro)
	Dr. Max Theilert (U. S. A.)	Paer F. Lagerkvist (Swedish)	Leon Jorhaux (French)

SCIENTIFIC INVENTIONS AND DISCOVERIES.

(Source : Encyclopaedia Britannica)

DISCOVERIES AND INVENTIONS IN CHEMISTRY

- 1766—*Cavendish*. Discovery of “Inflammable air” (hydrogen) as distinct substance. Also demonstration (1781) that it burned to form water.
- 1774—*Priestley*. Discovery of oxygen.
- 1783—*Lavoisier*. First quantitative synthesis of water.
- 1803—*Dalton*. Atomic theory ; laws of chemical combination.
- 1809—*Gay Lussac*. Laws of gases.
- 1811—*Avogadro*. Molecular hypothesis.
- 1828—*Wohler, Liebig*. Synthesis of urea ; foundation of organic chemistry.
- 1841—*Faraday*. Induction of electric current.
- 1860—*Bunsen, Kirchhoff*. Invention of the spectroscope.
- 1868—*Lockyer*. Discovery of helium on the sun by use of spectroscope.
- 1869—*Mendeleev*. Periodic table of elements, established families of elements.
- 1887—*Arrhenius*. Ionic theory of dissociation of solution.
- 1896—*Becquerel*. Radioactivity of uranium.
- 1899—*Curie*. Discovery of radium.
- 1908—*Onnes*. (Kamerlingh) Liquefaction of helium.
- 1912—*Laue, Bragg*. X-Ray structure of crystals.
- 1913—*Moseley*. Atomic numbers.
- 1919—*Aston*. Mass spectroscope for separation of isotopes.
- 1932—*Urey*. Discovery of deuterium.
- 1934—*Joliot, Curie*. Artificial radioactivity.

DISCOVERIES IN PHYSIOLOGY AND MEDICINE

- 1628—*Harvey*. Circulation of blood and function of the heart.
- 1665—*Hooke*. Observation and naming of “cells”
- 1675—*Leeuwenhoek*. Observation of bacteria by microscope.
- 1688—*Redi*. All life comes from life.
- 1737—*Linnaeus*. System for classifying plants and animals.
- 1768—*Spallanzani*. Disproved spontaneous generation.
- 1796—*Jenner*. Vaccination for smallpox.
- 1819—*Laennec*. Invention of stethoscope.
- 1839—*Schwann*. All living matter composed of cells.
- 1842—*Long*. First to use ether as anesthetic in surgery (Jackson, Morton, and Long disputed first use of ether).

- 1859—*Darwin*. Evolution and theory of natural selection.
 1865—*Mendel*. Laws of heredity.
 1867—*Lister*. Antiseptic Surgery.
 1882—*Metchnikov*. Function of white blood corpuscles discovered.
 1882—*Pasteur*. Rabies preventive.
 1882—*Koch*. Tuberculosis bacteria discovered.
 1892—*Weismann*. Developed theory of germ plasm in heredity.
 1894—*Kitazato*. Discovery of bacillus of plague.
 1894—*Roux*. Perfection of diphtheria antitoxin.
 1897—*Eijkman*. Cause of beriberi, vitamin deficiency.
 1900—*Reed*. Cause of yellow fever.
 1900—*De Vries*. Nature of mutations and their role in heredity.
 1901—*Takamine*. Isolation of adrenaline, first hormone isolated.
 1905—*Binet*. Intelligence tests.
 1906—*Wassermann*, et al. Test for syphilis.
 1907—*Shull*. Development of hybrid corn.
 1907—*Willstatter*. Constitution of chlorophyll.
 1908—*Freud*. Doctrine of psycho-analysis.
 1909—*Morgan*. Theory of the gene and detailed mechanics of heredity.
 1910—*Parlov*. Mechanism of the conditioned reflex.
 1912—*Cushing*. Relation of pituitary gland to growth.
 1912—*Ehrlich*. Salvarsan.
 1913—*Goldberger*. Cause and control of pellagra.
 1913—*Schick*. Test of susceptibility to diphtheria.
 1913—*McCollum*. Isolation of vitamin A.
 1922—*Bantin, Macleod*. Insuline for treatment of diabetes.
 1924—*Tenenbock*. Production of vitamin by ultraviolet radiation.
 1926—*Minot Whipple and Murphy*. Liver treatment of anemia.
 1932—*Domagk*. Sulfa drugs as bactericides.
 1936—*Stanley*. Molecular nature of viruses.
 1946—*Du Vigneaud*. Synthetic penicillin.

DISCOVERIES AND INVENTIONS IN PHYSICS.

- 1687—*Newton*. Law of gravity.
 1785—*Coulomb*. Fundamental laws of electrical attraction.
 1798—*Thompson*. (Baron Rumford). Mechanical theory of heat.
 1815—*Fresnel*. Diffraction of light.
 1840—*Joule*. Measurements of electric current.
 1847—*Helmholtz*. Law of conservation of energy.
 1873—*Maxwell*. Electromagnetic theory of light.
 1896—*Bequerel*. Discovery of radioactivity.
 1897—*Wilson*. Development of cloud chamber to detect subatomic particles.
 1897—*Thomson*. Discovery of electrons.
 1901—*Planck*. Quantum theory.
 1902—*Michelson*. Velocity of light.

- 1905—*Einstein.* Special theory of relativity.
 1911—*Rutherford.* Theory of atomic nucleus.
 1913—*Bohr.* Electron theory.
 1924—*De Broglie.* Wave nature of the electrons.
 1931—*Lawrence.* Invention of the cyclotron.
 1932—*Chadwick.* Discovery of the neutron.
 1932—*Anderson.* Discovery of the positron.
 1934—*Fermi.* Use of slow neutrons in atom smashing.
 1938—*Hahn.* Discovery of uranium fission.
 1941—*Fermi.* et al. Atomic pile for generation of power.

DISCOVERIES AND INVENTIONS IN ELECTRICITY

- 1745—*Von Kleist.* Leyden jar condenser.
 1752—*Franklin.* Lightning rod and the nature of lightning.
 1791—*Galvani.* Theory of animal electricity.
 1800—*Volta.* Current electricity and electric battery.
 1826—*Ohm.* Laws of electrical resistance.
 1828—*Henry.* Electro magnetism and induction.
 1831—*Faraday.* Electromagnetic induction.
 1832—*Morse.* Electric telegraph perfected.
 1832—*Gauss.* System of absolute electric measurement.
 1838—*Page.* Induction coil.
 1870—*Gramme.* First industrial dynamo.
 1876—*Bell.* Telephone.
 1878—*Crookes.* Discovery of cathode ray.
 1878—*Edison.* First electric incandescent lamp.
 1885—*Stanley.* Electric transformer.
 1892—*Tesla.* Alternating current motor.
 1892—*Steinmetz.* Laws of alternating current.
 1895—*Roentgen.* Discovery of X-rays.
 1896—*Marconi.* Practical wireless.
 1897—*Thomson.* Isolation of the electron.
 1904—*Fleming.* First diode radio tube.
 1907—*De Forest.* Triode radio tube.
 1914—*Collidge.* Tungsten filament lamp.
 1925—*Baird.* Televisor, precursor of television.
 1945—*Atom Bomb.*

INVENTIONS AND DISCOVERIES IN APPLIED CHEMISTRY

- 1650—*Glauber.* Manufacture of hydrochloric acid.
 1839—*Goodyear.* Process for vulcanizing rubber.
 1846—*Schonbein.* Invention of guncotton.
 1856—*Bessemer.* Air blast converter for manufacture of steel.
 1858—*Hofmann.* Discovered aniline in coal-tar ; aniline dyes.
 1861—*Solvay.* Manufacture of soda from salt.
 1862—*Nobel.* Invention of dynamite.
 1873—*Linde.* Introduced ammonia refrigeration.

- 1886—*Hall*. Manufacture of aluminum by electrolytic action.
1891—*Frasch*. Method for mining sulphur.
1908—*Baekeland*. Phenol formaldehyde resins (Bakelite)
1913—*Haber*. Synthesis of Ammonia from nitrogen and hydrogen.
1915—*Langmuir*. Tungsten filaments.
1923—*Midgley*. Tetraethyl lead gasoline.
1930—*Carothers*. Nylon plastic.
1930—*Ipatieff*. High-octane gasoline.
1930—*Carothers and Collins*. Neoprene, synthetic rubber.

MECHANICAL INVENTIONS AND DISCOVERIES

- 1440—*Gutenberg*. Movable-type printing.
1657—*Huygens*. Pendulum clock.
1769—*Watt*. Steam engine patented
1776—*Bushnell*. Submarine.
1783—*Montgolfier*. Hot-air balloon.
1785—*Cartwright*. Power loom.
1787—*Fitch*. Steamboat.
1793—*Whitney*. Cotton gin; mass production of Interchangeable gun parts. 1798.
1807—*Fulton*. First successful steamboat.
1810—*Appert*. Food preservation.
1816—*Davy*. Miner's safety lamp.
1829—*Stephenson*. First successful steam railroad.
1832—*Thimonnee*. Sewing machine.
1833—*McCormick*. Reaper.
1835—*Colt*. Revolver.
1836—*Moore*. Harvester.
1837—*Ericsson*. Screw propeller.
1842—*MacMillan*. Bicycle.
1846—*Hoe*. Rotary printing press.
1846—*Howe*. Sewing machine.
1848—*Johnson*. Portland cement.
1851—*Vail*. Electric Engine.
1852—*Otis*. Improved power elevator.
1858—*Field*. Successful Atlantic cable.
1861—*Gatling*. Machine gun.
1864—*Metterboffer*. Typewriter.
1868—*Sholes, Glidden*. Typewriter.
1869—*Westinghouse*. Air brake for rail roads.
1877—*Edison*. Phonograph.
1885—*Mergenlbaler*. Linotype.
1888—*Dunlop*. Pneumatic tyre.
1888—*Burroughs*. Adding Machine.
1891—*Harvey*. Steel alloy.
1892—*Duryea*. Gasoline Automobile.

- 1893—*Edison.* Motion pictures.
1895—*Preece.* Wireless Telegraph.
1897—*Diesel.* First successful heavy oil engine.
1902—*Poulsen & Fessenden.* Radio Telephone.
1903—*Wright Brothers.* Airplane.
1905—*Sperry.* Gyrocompass.
1909—*Breguet.* Helicopter.
1914—*Alexanderson.* Radio transmitter.
1922—*Taylor.* Discovery of Radio echoes leading to Radar.
1930—*Canotheos.* Nylon.
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**IMPORTANT DATES
IN
WORLD HISTORY**

IMPORTANT DATES

World History

B. C.

- 4241—Egyptian Calendar established: “earliest dated event in history.”
4000-2900—Sumerian City Kingdoms.
3000—Pyramid of Gizeh.
2870—First known settlement of Troy in Asia Minor.
1913—Jerusalem emerges as a Hebrew city.
1600-1500—Cretan Civilization.
1500-1200—Shang or Yin Kingdom in China.
1273—Assyrian empire founded.
1250-1183—Age of Homeric heroes and the Trojan war.
1100—Chow dynasty founded in China.
1055—David King of Israel
1012—First temple built in Jerusalem by Solomon.
1000—Era of Zoroaster, founder of Persian religion.
876—First Assyrian empire ends.
850—Homer flourished about this time.
826—Carthage founded.
776—First Olympiad in Greece.
753—Rome founded by Romulus.
605—Zoroaster flourished in Persia about this time.
551—Confucius born in China.
492—First Persian expedition against Greece.
490—Battle of Marathon.
485—Xerxes becomes king of Persia.
480—Battle of Thermopylae.
461-431—Golden age of Pericles, Phidias and Sophocles.
431-404—Peloponnesian War.
429—Death of Pericles.
385—Demosthenes born.
384—Aristotle born.
399—Trial and death of Socrates.
399-347—Period of Plato and Aristotle.
336-323—Alexander, king of Macedon conquers Persians and invades India.
331—Battle of Arbela and conquest of Persia by Alexander.
264—The First Punic War begins.
214—Great wall of China completed.
58-51—Julius Caesar invades Gaul and Britain.
55—Julius Caesar invades Britain.
44—Julius Caesar assassinated.

- 27—Roman empire established.
 4—Generally accepted date of birth of Jesus of Nazareth.
A. D.
 33—Jesus of Nazareth crucified.
 61—Queen Boadicea leads Britains against Romans.
 64—Burning of Rome and persecution of Christians under Nero.
 79—Pompeii and Herculaneum destroyed by eruption of Mount Vesuvius.
 121—Hadrian wall built in England.
 220—End of Han Dynasty in China.
 324—Constantinople founded.
 375—The Huns invade Europe.
 410—Alaric sacks Rome.
 449—England invaded by the Jutes under Hengist and Horsa.
 527—Justinian become Roman Emperor.
 570—Birth of Prophet Mohammad.
 618—Tang Dynasty begins in China.
 762—Bagdad founded.
 768-814—Reign of Charlemagne.
 878—Alfred defeats the Danes at Ethandune.
 962—Otto I crowned Holy Roman emperor.
 1066—Battle of Hastings.
 1096—The first crusade.
 1147—The second crusade.
 1200—Founding of universities of Oxford and Paris.
 1206-27—Rise of Mongols under Genghis Khan.
 1215—Magna Charta granted to barons by King John.
 1271—Marco Polo starts from Venice on his travels.
 1295—First regular English Parliament, composed of clergy, barons and knights.
 1302—Mariner's compass invented by an Italian, Flavio Gioja.
 1314—Battle of Bannockburn.
 1331—Cloth weaving was introduced at Norwich.
 1346—Battle of Crecy.
 1348—The Black Death—plague in Europe.
 1356—Battle of Poictiers, English defeat French.
 1385—Period of Chaucer.
 1415—Battle of Agincourt.
 1431—Joan of Arc burnt at the age of 19.
 1440—Printing was first invented.
 1453—Siege and Capture of Constantinople by Mohd. II.
 1455-85—Wars of Roses in England.
 1492—Columbus discovered America.
 1499—Switzerland becomes independent republic.
 1513—Discovery of the Pacific by Balboa.
 1513—Battle of Flodden. Scots defeated.
 1532—Beginning of the Reformation in England.
 1558-1603—Reign of Elizabeth in England.
 1564—Birth of Shakespeare (April 23).

- 1566—Needle was first introduced.
- 1577—Drake's first voyage round the world.
- 1588—Defeat of Spanish Armada.
- 1605—Gunpowder plot.
- 1618—Thirty Years' War begins in Europe.
- 1642-1715—Reign of Louis in France.
- 1644—Manchus and Ming dynasty in China.
- 1648—Treaty of Westphalia ends Thirty Year's War.
- 1649—Charles 1st executed.
- 1649-53—Commonwealth established by Oliver Cromwell in England.
- 1660—Restoration of monarchy in England.
- 1688—Glorious Revolution.
- 1689—Discovery of Law of Gravitation by Newton.
- 1691—First post office organized in United States.
- 1696-1725—Reign of Peter the Great in Russia.
- 1701-14—War of Spanish Succession.
- 1740-86—Reign of Frederick the Great, king of Prussia.
- 1752—Benjamin Franklin discovers electricity.
- 1755—Samuel Johnson publishes his English dictionary.
- 1762—Accession of Catherine the Great of Russia.
- 1763—Treaty of Paris.
- 1772—First partition of Poland.
- 1774—First continental Congress in session in Philadelphia.
- 1776—The declaration of American Independence (July 4).
- 1780—First newspaper was published.
- 1789—Washington elected first President of U. S. A.
- 1789-1799—The era of the French Revolution.
- 1796—Vaccination discovered by Jenner.
- 1805—Battle of Trafalgar ; death of Nelson.
- 1806—Dissolution of Holy Roman Empire.
- 1815—Battle of Waterloo and defeat of Napolean ; Congress of Vienna.
- 1822—Brazil and Greece become independent.
- 1823—Monroe Doctrine proclaimed.
- 1825—Trade Unions allowed in England.
- 1827—Kingdom of Greece founded.
- 1833—British Parliament outlaws slavery in the Empire.
- 1837—Queen Victoria ascended the Throne.
- 1855—Crimean War.
- 1866—Ku Klux Movement in America against Negro Voters.
- 1870—Declaration of French Republic (September 4).
- 1877—Edison invented phonograph.
- 1883—Triple Alliance of Germany, Austria and Italy.
- 1885—General Gordon slain.
- 1896—Marconi invented Wireless Telegraphy.
- 1899—Boer War.
- 1901—Queen Victoria dies.
- 1905—Battle of sea of Japan. Russian navy defeated.

- 1909—The North Pole was discovered by Commander Peary.
1912—The Republic was established in China.
1914-18—First World War.
1918—President Wilson formulates his Fourteen Points of Peace.
A socialist revolution occurs in Russia.
1919—Treaty of Versailles signed (June 28) ; Third Internationale organized in Russia.
1920—First meeting of the League of Nations in Geneva (January 16).
1923—Proclamation of Turkish Republic with Kemal Pasha as the first President.
1924—First Labour Government in Britain ; Death of Lenin and assumption of power by Stalin in Russia.
1925—Locarno Conference and treaties.
1928—Kellogg Pact signed ; First talking picture shown in New York City.
1929—Abdication of King Amanullah of Afghanistan.
1931—Spain becomes republic ; the great economic depression sets in ; Britain suspends gold standard.
1932—Ottawa Conference begins (November 15), Franklin D. Roosevelt elected U. S. President ; Turkey admitted to the League of Nations.
1933—Hitler becomes Chancellor of Germany.
1934—Hitler's "blood purge" of Nazi leaders in Germany ; Civil War in Austria.
1935—Italy invades Ethiopia, the declaration of the Saar Plebiscite.
1936—Formation of Rome-Berlin axis ; Russia adopts new constitution ; Edward VIII of England abdicates ; Civil War breaks out in Spain ; Ethiopia is annexed by Mussolini.
1937—Coronation of George VI.
1938—Munich Conference (September 30) ; Germany invades and annexes Austria ; Anglo-Italian Pact (April 17) ; International Air Conference at the Hague.
1939—Britain and France declare War on Germany (September 3) ; Germany invades Poland ; Italy annexes Albania.
1941—Germany declares War against Russia ; Lend-lease policy goes into effect ; Atlantic charter proclaimed ; Japan declares War against United States, Great Britain, Australia, Canada, New Zealand and South Africa ; United States enters War after Japanese bombing of Pearl Harbour ; Germany and Italy declare War against U. S.
1943—Allied armies drive Germany out of Africa, conquer Sicily and invade Italy ; Russian counter-offensive against Germany starts, Teheran Conference between Roosevelt, Churchill and Stalin, Mussolini resigns (July 26) ; Italy declares war on Germany.

- 1944—Quebec Conference between Roosevelt and Churchill ; Bretton Woods International Monetary Conference ; Dumbarton Oaks Conference in Washington ; President Roosevelt elected for the fourth time ; full-fledged allied offensive in Europe.
- 1945—Yalta Conference ; San Francisco Conference ; Death of President Roosevelt ; Germany surrenders unconditionally (May 7) ; Potsdam Conference on the future of Germany ; British Labour Party's victory in general elections ; First Atom Bomb dropped at Hiroshima and Nagasaki, unconditional surrender of Japan and the end of second World War.
- 1946—First session of the General Assembly of the United Nations meets in London ; Civil War breaks out in China between the Nationalists and Communists ; The Philippines become independent ; France adopts a new constitution ; Twelve Nazi leaders sentenced to death at the Nuremberg Trials.
- 1947—Peace treaties with Italy, Rumania, Bulgaria, Hungary and Finland signed ; Big Four Foreign Ministers meet in Moscow and Paris ; "Marshall Plan" for Europe promulgated ; Asian Relations Conference held in India.
- 1948—Burma becomes independent ; Jewish State of Israel is proclaimed in Palestine ; Truman elected U. S. President.
- 1949—Signing of North Atlantic Pact ; Asian Conference on Indonesia held at New Delhi ; Commonwealth Premiers Conference in London.
- 1950—North Korea declares War on the South Koreans ; Death of Field Marshall Smuts ; South Korean forces cross the 38th Parallel ; George Bernard Shaw dead ; Civil war starts in Nepal.
- 1951—Liaquat Ali, Prime Minister of Pakistan murdered ; Labour defeated in Britain and Churchill forms a Conservative Ministry ; 58 nations make peace treaty with Japan ; Libya becomes an independent country.

**IMPORTANT DATES
IN
INDIAN HISTORY**

INDIAN HISTORY

B. C.

- 3000—(about) Pre-Aryan Civilization of Mahenjo-Daro.
- 1600—First Aryan settlement of the Gangetic Plain.
- 1000-500—The age of the Vedas.
- 800-500—The Upanishads.
- 599-527—Mahavira—The founder of Jainism.
- 563-483—Gautama Buddha.
- 325—Alexander's invasion.
- 322-298—Chandragupta Maurya.
- 269—Asoka—accession.
- 58—Beginning of Vikrama era.

A. D.

- 120—Kanishika, The Kushan King.
- 320-530—Gupta Era. The golden age of Indian art and literature.
- 375—Chandragupta ; Kalidas.
- 405-11—Fa Hien's travels in the Gupta Empire.
- 606-648—Harshavardhan.
- 643—Hieun Tsang visits India.
- 712—Arab Invasion of Sind.
- 750—Rise of Pallavas.
- 820—Death of Sankaracharya.
- 900—Rise of Chola Kingdom.
- 1008—First invasion of Mahmud of Ghazni.
- 1192—Battle of Thaneswar—Prithviraj and Ghori.
- 1206-1526—Sultanate of Delhi.
- 1336—Foundation of Vijainagar.
- 1347—Foundation of Bahmni Kingdom in the Deccan.
- 1398—Taimur's invasion.
- 1469—Birth of Guru Nanak, founder of Sikhism.
- 1498—Vasco da Gama discovered the sea route to India.
- 1526—First Battle of Panipat and establishment of Moghul rule in India.
- 1545—Death of Sher Shah Suri.
- 1556-1605—Akbar the Great.
- 1556—Second Battle of Panipat.
- 1600—Foundation of East India Company.
- 1628-58—Shah Jahan.
- 1630—Birth of Shivaji.
- 1632-55—Building of Tajmahal at Agra.
- 1661—English get Bombay.
- 1690—Calcutta founded by the English.

- 1707—Death of Aurangzeb.
 1793—Nadir Shah's invasion.
 1757—Battle of Plassey.
 1761—Third Battle of Panipat (End of French and Maratha power).
 1765—Grant of Diwani to the East India Company.
 1773—The Regulating Act was passed.
 1774—Warren Hastings becomes first Governor-General.
 1780—Hickey's Bengal Gazette—first English newspaper started from Calcutta.
 1784—Pitt's India Act passed.
 1790—Third Mysore war.
 1793—Permanent Settlement of Bengal.
 1828—Raja Rammohan Roy founds Brahmo Samaj.
 1832—Macaulay's minute on English education.
 1839—Death of Maharaja Ranjit Singh.
 1853—First Railway opened in India.
 1854—Electric Telegraph introduced.
 1854—First Legislative Council met in India.
 1857—The great rebellion known as Sepoy Mutiny.
 1857—Calcutta University founded (June 24).
 1858—The East India Company dissolved and the Government of India taken over by the British Crown.
 1862—Indian Councils Act, Indian High Courts Act and I. C. S. Act passed by Parliament.
 1869—Birth of Mahatma Gandhi.
 1875—Arya Samaj founded by Swami Dayanand.
 1885—Indian National Congress founded (December 28).
 1905—Partition of Bengal—rise of militant nationalism in India.
 1912—Transfer of Government of India from Calcutta to Delhi.
 1916—Home Rule League formed ; Lucknow Pact.
 1917—Declaration of Secretary of State promising responsible government to India.
 1918—Montague-Chelmsford Report.
 1919—Rowlatt Act passed ; Massacre of Jalianwallabagh.
 1920—Hunter Commission Report—Inauguration of Non Co-operation movement by Mahatma Gandhi.
 1922—Chauri-Chaura Outrage, Gandhiji's conviction for 6 years.
 1924—Swarajist Party enters Legislatures.
 1928—Visit of Simon Commission.
 1929—Independence Resolution at Lahore Congress.
 1930—Civil Disobedience movement by Congress ; First Session of The Round Table conference in London.
 1931—Gandhi-Irwin Pact ; Congress participation in R. T. C.
 1932—Suppression of congress, Gandhiji's fast against Communal Award—Poona Pact.
 1933—Round Table Conference concluded.
 1934—Inauguration of Royal Indian Navy ; Reserve Bank Act passed.

- 1935—Government of India Act passed.
- 1937—Provincial autonomy inaugurated—Congress takes office in seven provinces.
- 1939—Congress ministries resign in protest against British government's declaration of India as a belligerent without India's consent.
- 1940—Congress demands complete independence and prepares for a struggle.
- 1942—Congress rejects Cripps proposals and launches on The "Quit India" movement.
- 1944—Mahatma Gandhi released ; Gandhi-Jinnah Talks, Formation of the Indian National Army under Netaji Subhas Bose at Singapore.
- 1945—The I. N. A. Trials at Red Fort, Delhi.
- 1946—Visit of British Cabinet Delegation and the formation of the Interim Government at the centre.
- 1947—India becomes Independent on August 15, National flag is adopted by the Constituent Assembly on July 22. Communal riots follow the partition of the country.
- 1948—Assassination of Mahatma Gandhi (January 30) ; Last British troops leave India ; fast integration of Indian States ; Military Actions in Kashmir and Hyderabad.
- 1949—India decides to remain in the Commonwealth as a sovereign independent Republic.
- 1950—India becomes a Sovereign Republic, Nehru-Liyaqat Peace Pact signed, Death of Sri Aurobindo Ghosh, Death of Sardar Patel.
- 1951—January 26, First Republic Day celebrations, First census of Free India, India accepts Pak Rupee Par value, Somnath Idol installed, Indo-Burmese trade-pact signed, Press Bill passed into Law, Sir H. J. Kania, dead ; Interim Constitution comes into force in Kashmir, Dr. Abinindra Nath Tagore dead, World thinkers meet at a symposium at Delhi.
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THE CONSTITUTION OF THE REPUBLIC OF INDIA, THAT IS, BHARAT

The following is the text of the Proclamation announcing the birth of the Indian Republic which was read by Mr. C. Rajagopalachari, the last outgoing Governor General of the British Government.

"Whereas the people of India, having solemnly resolved to constitute India into a Sovereign Democratic Republic, adopted, enacted and gave to themselves on November 26, 1949, in their Constituent Assembly the Constitution of India.

"And whereas it has been declared by the said Constitution that India, that is, 'Bharat', shall be a Union of States comprising within the Union the territories which were hitherto the Governors' provinces, the Indian States and the Chief Commissioners' provinces ;

"And whereas this day, January 26, 1950, has been fixed for the commencement of the Constitution ;

"Now therefore, it is hereby proclaimed that on and from this day, January 26, 1950, India, that is, 'Bharat' shall be a Sovereign Democratic Republic, and the Union and its component units, the States, shall exercise all powers and functions of Government and Administration in accordance with the provisions of the said Constitution."

The Constitution of India consists of 395 articles and 8 schedules. It starts with a preamble and runs into the following 22 parts :

- Part I.** The Union, and its territory (articles 1 to 4).
- II.** Citizenship (5—11).
- III.** Fundamental Rights—Right to equality ; Right to Freedom, Right against exploitation ; Right to Freedom of religion ; Cultural and educational Rights ; Right to property ; Right to Constitutional remedies. (12-35).
- IV.** Directive principles of State Policy. (36-51).
- V.** (1) The Union Executive—The President and Vice President, Council of Ministers ; The Attorney-General for India ; Conduct of Government business. (2) The Parliament ; Officers of Parliament ; Conduct of business, Disqualifications of members ; Powers, Privileges and Immunities of Parliament and its members, Legisla-

tive Procedure, Procedure in Financial matters, Procedure Generally ; Legislative Powers of the President ; The Union Judiciary, Comptroller and Auditor General of India. (52-151).

- VI.** (A) The States in Part 'A' of the First Schedule (Governor's States)—(a) General (b) **The Executive** ; The Governor ; Council of Ministers ; The Advocate-General for the State ; Conduct of Govt. Business, (c) The State Legislature (i) General (ii) Officers of the State Legislature (iii) Conduct of Business, (iv) Disqualifications of Members, (v) Powers, Privileges, and Immunities of State Legislatures and their Members (vi) Legislative Procedure (vii) Procedure in Financial Matters (viii) Procedure Generally (ix) Legislative Powers of the Governor. (152-213).
- VI.** (B) *The High Courts in the States* ; Subordinate Courts. (214-237).
- VII.** The States in Part B of the First Schedule. (238).
- VIII.** The States in Part C of the First Schedule. (239-242).
- IX.** Territories in Part D of First Schedule and those unspecified. (243).
- X.** The Schedule and Tribal Areas. (244).
- XI.** Relation between the Union and the States (1) Legislative Relations ;—Distribution of Legislative Powers ; Administrative Relations in General ; Disputes Relating to Waters. Co-ordination between States. (245-265).
- XII.** Finance, Property, Contracts, and Suits. (264-300).
- XIII.** Trade, Commerce and Intercourse within Indian Territory. (301-307).
- XIV.** **Services under the Union and States.** (1) Services (2) Public Service Commissions. (308-323).
- XV.** Elections. (324-329).
- XVI.** Special Provisions relating to certain classes. (330-342).
- XVII.** **Official language** (i) **Language of the Union**, (ii) Regional languages (iii) Language of the Supreme Court, High Courts etc., and special directives (343-351).
- XVIII.** Emergency Provisions. (352-360).
- XIX.** Miscellaneous. (361-367).
(Protection of President, Governors, Rajpramukhs of States etc).
- XX.** Amendment of The Constitution. (368).
- XXI.** Temporary and Transitional Provisions. (369-392).
- XXII.** Short Title, Commencement and Repeals. (393-395).

SCHEDULES.

1. The States and the territories of India.
2. Provisions as to President, Governors, Ministers and Speakers, Judges of the Supreme Court and High Courts and the Comptroller and Auditor General of India.
3. Forms of Oaths or Affirmations.
4. Allocation of seats in the Council of States.
5. Provisions as to the Administration and Control of Scheduled Areas and Tribes.
6. Provisions as to the Administration of Tribal Areas in Assam.
7. Lists—Union, State and Concurrent.
8. Languages.

Salient Features of the Constitution.

1. The Preamble to the Constitution resolves to constitute India into a Sovereign Democratic Republic in which the ultimate sovereignty, both in the Union and the units, rests with the people. This principle has been very explicitly incorporated in the preamble of the Constitution. It reads :

WE, THE PEOPLE OF INDIA, having solemnly resolved to constitute India into a SOVEREIGN DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC and to secure to 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 ;

IN OUR CONSTITUENT ASSEMBLY this twenty-sixth day of November, 1949, do HEREBY ADOPT, ENACT & GIVE TO OURSELVES THIS CONSTITUTION.

2. To achieve these ends, the Constitution lays down not only the form of political democracy but also the ideal of economic democracy making "Directive Principles of State Policy" an integral part of the Constitution.

3. The Constitution embodies a comprehensive list of Fundamental Rights and guarantees them to the citizen irrespective of caste, colour or creed by making them justiciable.

4. The Constitution expressly lays down that "The State shall not discriminate against any citizen on grounds only of religion, race, caste, sex, place of birth or any of them." It thus clearly declares Bharat a secular State.

5. The Constitution provides for a federal Union of States, whose sphere of authority, as well as that of the Centre is clearly defined and gives it a parliamentary system of executive like that of Britain ; for the Executive of India is responsible to the Legislature in respect of all its decisions and actions. The executive is harnessed to the service of the people by their representatives chosen in the legislature on adult franchise. This the latter do by their power (1) to enact laws, (2) to control the purse, (3) to interpellate, (4) to criticise the executive on the floor of the House. Special provision has also been made for the proper administration of tribal and scheduled areas. The Constitution has also laid down in details the distribution of revenue as between the States and the Union and has provided for the offices of Comptroller, Attorney General, the Supreme Court of the Union, and Auditor-General and Union Public Service Commission, which shall recruit officers to public service on merit, so that there will be little scope for jobbery.

6. The Union of India is to have an elected President, who besides being the constitutional head of a Parliamentary democracy, is also vested with a few executive powers similar to those of federal Presidents.

7. Although the Constitution is federal in structure, it provides for a single instead of dual citizenship.

8. The Constitution provides for a strong centre by giving to the national Parliament exclusive right to legislate on 97 matters and vesting residuary powers in the centre.

9. A unique feature of the Constitution is the provision that in an emergency the federal state can be changed into a unitary state by a proclamation to that effect by the Union President.

10. The Constitution avoids the usual rigidity and legality of most federal constitutions by providing for easy and safe methods of amendment to the Constitution.

11. It provides for an independent judiciary and clothes it with sufficient powers to act as the guardian of the Constitution.

12. A clear provision regarding the State language is another important feature of the Constitution, not to be found elsewhere. India being a multilingual country, it was absolutely essential for administrative convenience, and for creating a feeling of national solidarity to have a single State language. This has been done by providing in the Constitution itself that Hindi in Devnagari script with the Indian numerals in international form shall be the official language of the Union.

MACHINERY OF GOVERNMENT OF THE UNION

The Executive

The constitution provides for a parliamentary executive which consists of a nominal head with a Council of Ministers, which has the reality of power. In recommending a parliamentary system of executive, the Constitution has preferred more responsibility to more stability.

President: There is placed at the head of the Indian Union a functionary called the President of the Union. The President is elected for a term of five years by an electoral college consisting of members of both houses of Union Parliament and elected members of the legislatures of the State. The President must be a citizen of India and of not less than 35 years of age. He should also be qualified for election as member of the House of the People in the Union Parliament.

Powers of the President.

All the executive powers of the Union are formally vested in the President including the supreme command of the defence forces. But under the Constitution, the President is no more than a Constitutional figure-head and occupies the same position as the King under the English Constitution. He is the head of the state but not of the Executive. Still the powers he commands are vast and varied. Thus all important appointments shall be made by him, including those of governors, judges of the Supreme and High Courts, diplomats, the Chairman and members of the Federal Public Service Commission, the Attorney General; as well as the Comptroller and Auditor General of India. It will be he who will appoint the Election and Finance Commissions and certain other Commissions which will report on the administration of the scheduled areas and socially and educationally backward classes.

The President is vested with the ultimate powers to grant pardon, to remit punishment and commute sentences passed in the courts of India. He is thus the fountain-head of justice and mercy.

He is the person who will dissolve the House of the People, address or send messages to both the Houses of Parliament and can send bills to Parliament for reconsideration. All bills passed by the legislature are presented to him for his assent.

In times of emergency caused by war, aggression or internal disturbance – or emergency caused by the failure of the constitutional machinery, or emergency caused by financial instability, and during the recess of Parliament, he can issue ordinances and assume the control of the country in his person. During this

period the federal structure of the state legislature get suspended. All the Fundamental Rights also remain suspended during this period.

Finally, no money can be granted, or money bills introduced in the Parliament or passed unless it has the assent of the President. He is thus the supreme regulator of all legislative measures, moves, enactment or proposals.

Thus, for example, relying on Article 117 (3) of the Constitution, which clearly lays down that no Bill shall be passed by either House of Parliament, which would involve expenditure from the Consolidated Fund unless the President has recommended consideration of the Bill. The President refused to recommend consideration of the Training and Employment Bill introduced by Dr. Deshmukh and referred to him (President) in April, 1951.

Election of President.

Following are the clauses in the Constitution relating to the Election of the President, the manner of his election, the term of his office, his qualifications etc.

There shall be a President of India.

The President shall be elected by the members of an electoral college consisting of—

- (a) the elected members of both Houses of Parliament ;
- (b) the elected members of the Legislative Assemblies of the States.

As far as practicable, there shall be uniformity in the scale of representation of the different states at the election of the President.

The election of the President shall be held in accordance with the system of proportional representation by means of the single transferable vote and the voting at such election shall be by secret ballot.

Terms of the office of President.

The President shall hold office for a term of five years from the day on which he enters upon his office ;

Provided that—

- (a) the President may, by writing under his hand addressed to the Vice-President, resign his office ;
- (b) the President may, for violation of the Constitution, be removed from office by impeachment.
- (c) the President shall, notwithstanding the expiration of his term, continue to hold office until his successor enters upon his office.

Any resignation addressed to the Vice-President under clause (a) of the proviso to clause (1) shall forthwith be communicated by him to the Speaker of the House of the People.

Eligibility for re-election.

A person who holds, or who has held, office as President shall, subject to the other provisions of the Constitution, be eligible for re-election to that office.

Qualifications for elections as President.

(1) No person shall be eligible for election as President unless he—

- (a) is a citizen of India
- (b) has completed the age of thirty-five years, and
- (c) is qualified for election as a member of the House of the People.

(2) A person shall not be eligible for election as President if he holds any office of profit under the Government of India or the Government of any State or under any local or other authority subject to the control of any of the said Governments.

Protections for the President.

The President in the exercise of the powers and duties of his office is not answerable to any Court in the Federation, except when he is impeached; nor any criminal proceeding can be instituted against him during his tenure of office, nor also any civil proceedings in which relief is sought from him before two month's written notice is given for the purpose.

Allowances and Privileges.

The President gets an official Residence and draws a salary of Rs. 10,000 per month, which cannot be reduced during his term of office. He is also to get such allowances as were payable to the Governor General of the Dominion of India before the commencement of the Constitution, and is entitled to the same privileges to which the Governor General was entitled before the commencement of the Constitution.

How a President can be Impeached.

When a President is to be impeached for violation of the Constitution, the charge shall be preferred by either House of Parliament.

(2) No such charge shall be preferred unless—

- (a) the proposal to prefer such charge is contained in a resolution which has been moved after at least fourteen days' notice in writing signed by not less than one-fourth of the total number of members of

the House has given its intention to move the resolution, and

(b) such resolution has been passed by a majority of not less than two-thirds of the total membership of the House.

(3) When a charge has been preferred by either House of Parliament, the other House shall cause the charge to be investigated, and the President shall have the right to appear and to be represented at such investigation.

(4) If as a result of the investigation a resolution is passed by a majority of not less than two-thirds of the total membership of the House by which the charge was investigated or caused to be investigated, declaring that the charge preferred against the President has been sustained, such resolution shall have the effect of removing the President from his office as from the date on which the resolution is so passed.

Election to fill vacancy in the office of President.

(1) An election to fill a vacancy caused by the expiration of the term of office of President shall be completed before the expiration of the term.

(2) An election to fill a vacancy in the office of President occurring by reason of his death, resignation or removal, or otherwise shall be held as soon as possible after, and in no case later than six months from the date of occurrence of the vacancy; and the person elected to fill the vacancy shall, subject to the provisions of article 58, be entitled to hold office for the full term of five years from the date on which he enters upon his office.

Vice President.

There is also provision for a Vice President who is elected by members of both Houses of the Union Parliament assembled at a joint sitting and voting in accordance with a system of proportional representation by means of the single transferable vote and the voting at such elections shall be by secret ballot.

The Vice President is the ex-officio Chairman of the Upper House—the Council of States and shall discharge the functions of the President in the event of the occurrence of any vacancy in the office of the President by reason of his death, resignation or removal, or otherwise act as President until the date on which a new President is elected in accordance with the provision of the Constitution to fill such a vacancy.

No person is eligible for election as a Vice-President unless he is a citizen of India, has completed his age of thirty five years and is qualified for election as a member of the Council

of States. Like the President he is to hold the office for a term of five years. He can resign by a letter addressed to the President, or he may be removed from his office by a resolution in the Council of States passed by a majority of all the then members of the Council, and agreed to by the House of the People. At the time of entering upon his office, he must, like the President, take an oath to bear true faith and allegiance to the Constitution of India and that he would faithfully discharge the duty upon which he was entering.

Council of Ministers.

The Council of Ministers is modelled on the Cabinet in Great Britain and is the real executive of the Union. There is at the head of the Council a Prime Minister, who is the leader of the majority party in the House of the People. The ministers hold office during the pleasure of the President. The Prime Minister is appointed by the President. Other ministers are also appointed by the President, but only on the advice of the Prime Minister.

The Council of Ministers is jointly responsible to the House of the People and holds office only as long as it commands a majority in that House. Governed by the principle of collective responsibility, the ministers come into office as well as go out of office together.

There are, however, certain provisions in the Constitution, which do not strictly accord with a parliamentary system of executive. Article 86, (2) empowers the President to send messages to either House of Parliament whether with respect to a Bill then pending in Parliament or otherwise; and a House to which such a message is sent, is required to take it into consideration with all convenient despatch. It is felt that such a provision can suit only the American system, where the President is the real head of the Executive. In a parliamentary system like that of the Constitution of India, this might lead to a conflict between the real and the nominal executive and might hinder the smooth working of the Constitution.

The Legislature

The Union Legislature is called Parliament. It is to consist of two houses—the Council of States and the House of the People. Both the Houses have got equal powers except that the money bills can be introduced only in the House of the People and can be passed even without the concurrence of the former. In cases of disagreement between the two Houses, provision is made for a joint sitting to be summoned by the President. The President is also empowered to issue Ordinances having the force of law when Parliament is not in session and when immediate action is considered necessary by him.

The Council of States : The Council is supposed to represent the States as units of the Union and thus maintain the federal character of the Constitution. It has 250 members, 12 of whom are to be nominated by the President for their special knowledge or practical experience in various walks of life. Of the remaining 238 members, the Constitution lays down that the representatives of each State shall be elected by the elected members of the Legislative Assembly of the States in accordance with the system of proportional representation by means of the single transferable vote. There will be one member for every 750,000 of the population and not more than one member for 500,000 of the population.

The Council is a permanent body, one third of its members retiring every two years. No person is qualified to fill a seat in Parliament unless he is ; (1) a citizen of India, (2) is not less than thirty years of age.

The House of the People : The House of the People is to consist of not more than 500 members chosen directly by the people on basis of adult franchise. The life of the House of the People is five years unless dissolved sooner. This can be extended in times of emergency. The representation in the House of People of the territories comprised within the territory of India, but not included within any State shall be such as Parliament may by law provide. No body below the age of 25 is to be a member of the House of the People.

All the Ministers and the Attorney-General of India have right to speak in either House of Parliament but shall not be entitled to vote. Each House is free to make its own rules of procedure and conduct of business. The Constitution contains the usual provisions regarding the election of the Speaker and the Deputy Speaker and the procedure to be followed with regard to the annual financial statement and the budget estimates of the Union.

Functions of Parliament

The main business of Parliament is to make laws, all bills, official or non-official are first laid on the floor of Parliament, which, after due discussion, has the choice to accept or reject them. All bills, except money bills can originate in either House. Money Bills and other financial Bills can only originate in the House of the People.

All the ministers are collectively responsible to the House of the People. Although the method of enforcing responsibility are not specified in the Constitution, it may be presumed that the responsibility may be enforced by the member's right ; (i) of putting questions, (ii) of passing a vote of censure, (iii) of

passing a vote of no confidence against a particular minister, or the entire council of ministers (iv) of rejecting a bill sponsored by a minister or putting in it such amendments as are unacceptable to the minister, (v) of reducing or rejecting any demand for grant or proposal of taxation.

Again, Parliament as the nation's representative shall control the finances of the Union. It shall also act as a judicial body in case of impeachment of the President when he violates the Constitution.

The Union Judiciary.

The Constitution provides for the setting up of a Supreme Court of India consisting of a Chief Justice of India and seven other judges until Parliament prescribes a larger number.

The judges are to be appointed by the President in Consultation with the Chief Justice of India and such other judges of the Supreme Court and the High Courts in the states as may be necessary for the purpose. The appointments to the Supreme Court are to be made from among judges and advocates of the High Courts. Eminent jurists have also been made eligible for appointment as judges of the Supreme Court. The retiring age of a judge has been fixed at 65 years.

The Supreme Court has original as well as appellate jurisdiction. Its original jurisdiction extends to disputes between the Union and a State or between two States in so far as the dispute involves any question whether of law or fact on which the existence or extent of a legal right depends.

The appellate jurisdiction of the Supreme Court extends to cases involving the interpretation of the Constitution and to all other cases from which an appeal lay to the Federal Court or to the Privy Council. It is open to the Parliament to enlarge the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court to any of the matters in the Union list. The law declared by the Supreme Court is binding on all courts within the territory of India. The President is empowered to obtain at his discretion the opinion of the Court upon any question of law or fact which is of public importance.

The Services

While providing for a single judiciary and uniformity in fundamental laws with a view to maintaining the basic unity of the country, the Constitution also establishes a common All-India Civil Service to man important posts. While the Constitution leaves the details of recruitment and conditions of service etc. of the proposed service to the appropriate legislature, it contains detailed provisions regarding Public Service Commissions. It makes it obligatory for the Union as well as

the States to have their Public Service Commission. It is, however, open for two or more States to have a common Commission to serve its needs.

Like the Judiciary, the Public Service Commissions are expected to be independent of the Executive and the legislature and to discharge their function impartially. The Chairman and other members of the Commission are to be appointed by the President in the case of the Union Commission and by the Governor in the case of a State Commission.

The main function of the Union and State Public Service Commission is to recommend candidates for appointment in the various services, after conducting competitive examinations, interviewing them and personally examining them for their suitability for the various posts.

THE STATES MACHINERY OF STATE GOVERNMENTS.

The States which constitute the Union of India, fall under two categories—the former Governors' States and the Indian States forming viable administrative units. These numbers are liable to change in view of the possible linguistic division of a number of multi-lingual provinces and the grouping and merger of states if and when this takes place. The Constitution provides for all these future contingencies.

While recommending machinery for the governance of states, the Constitution has followed the pattern of the Union.

The machinery suggested for the States is on the following lines :

The Executive.

Like the Union Executive, the State Executive is also Parliamentary in character. The Governor is the nominal head, while the real authority vests in the Council of Ministers.

Governor: The Governor of a State shall be appointed by the President by warrant under his hand and seal and shall hold office during the pleasure of the President. Only a citizen of India, who has completed the age of 35 years and is qualified by the membership of the Legislative Assembly of the State, is eligible for election or appointment as Governor. When he is appointed, the seat he had been occupying will be deemed to have been vacated, if he was a member of any legislature at the time of his appointment. He need not be a resident of that state in order to secure this eligibility. The Governor holds office for a term of 5 years. He can be removed from office for violation of the Constitution by impeachment.

The Powers of the Governor.

As the head of the State the executive power of the state is vested in the Governor which he is to exercise either directly or through officers subordinate to him in accordance with the Constitution and this authority extends to only such matters for which the State Legislature has power to make laws.

It is the Governor who is to make rules for the convenient transaction of Governmental business and for the allocation of such business among his ministers. He shall appoint the chief minister of the State, and on the latter's advice, the Council of Ministers, who will hold office as long as they retain his confidence. He is also the chief appointing and dismissing authority in the State. He shall also have the power to grant pardons, reprieves, respites or remissions of punishments, or to suspend, remit or commute the sentence of any person convicted of any offence against any law relating to a matter to which the executive power of the State extends. The Governor has also legislative powers. He is at all times potentially a participant in the law making process. He may initiate legislation and promote it, by his right to send messages to the Houses of the Legislature. Every bill, after being passed by the legislature, shall need the Governor's assent, though the final passing of every bill, rests with the legislature.

The Governor is also empowered to issue and promulgate ordinances in a state of emergency.

Council of Ministers : The Constitution says that there shall be a Council of Ministers to aid and advise the Governor in the exercise of his functions, except in so far as he is by or under the Constitution required to exercise his functions or any of them in his "discretion." The decision of the Governor in his discretion shall be final and the validity of anything done by the governor shall not be questioned. The Ministers are appointed by the Governor and hold office during his pleasure. They are responsible to the Legislature and are not to work on the principle of joint responsibility.

The State Legislatures.

For every State there shall be a Legislature which shall consist of the Governor, and

(a) In the States of Bihar, Bombay, Madras, Punjab, and Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal, there shall be two Houses.

(b) in other States, only one House.

Where there are two Houses of the Legislature of a State, the upper one shall be known as the Legislative Council and the lower one as Legislative Assembly, and where there is only one House, it shall be known as the Legislative Assembly.

No Legislative Assembly is to consist of less than 60 or more than 500 members on a scale of one representative for every seventy-five thousand of population. (It is expected that the new States Assemblies will range from 150 to 350 members). Elections to the Assembly are direct on the basis of adult suffrage and territorial constituencies. The term of the Assembly is five years unless dissolved earlier.

The strength of a Legislative Council is not to exceed twenty five percent of the total number of members in the Legislative Assembly. But the least number of members shall be 40.

Of the total number of members of the Legislative Council of a State—

- (a) “as nearly as may be, one-third shall be elected by electorate consisting of members of municipalities, district boards and such other local authorities in the State as Parliament may by law specify ;
- (b) as nearly as may be, one-twelfth shall be elected by electorates consisting of persons residing in the States who have been for atleast three years graduates of any university in the territory of India or have been for atleast three years in possession of qualifications prescribed by or under any law made by Parliament as equivalent to that of a graduate of any such university ;
- (c) as nearly as may be, one twelfth shall be elected by electorates consisting of persons who have been for atleast three years engaged in teaching in such educational institutions within the State, not lower in standard than that of a secondary school, as may be prescribed by or under any law made by Parliament ;
- (d) as nearly may be, one-third shall be elected by the members of the Legislative Assembly of the State from amongst persons who are not members of the Assembly ;
- (e) the remainder shall be nominated by the Governor in accordance with the provisions of clause (5).”

The Constitution prescribes 25 and 30 as the qualifying ages for election or selection to the Legislative Assembly and the Legislative Council respectively.

The State Judiciary.

The States are to have their own high courts. Every High Court is to consist of a Chief Justice and such other judges as the President of the Union may fix. All judges are appointed by the President after consultation with the Chief Justice of India, the Governor of the State concerned and the Chief Justice

of the High Court of the State. The retiring age of a High Court Judge is fixed at 60.

One notable point about the High Courts is that though they are a part of the machinery of State Governments and their expenses are chargeable to the revenues of the State concerned, considerable amount of control is exercised upon them by the Union authorities. This is with a view to ensuring the utmost possible independence to the High Courts in the discharge of their onerous duties as guardians of individual liberty and public rights.

EMERGENCY PROVISIONS.

Part XVIII of the Constitution deals with a set of emergency provisions, which can at once change the federal structure of the government into a unitary one. These are meant to be applied in times of grave emergency created by a war or by domestic violence. If the President is satisfied that the security of India is threatened by the existence of such an emergency, he can by proclamation ; (a) give directions to the constituent States as to how their authority is to be exercised, (b) suspend from operation several articles of the Constitution under which the Union is under an obligation to make financial contributions to the States, and (c) suspend the fundamental rights relating to the freedom of the individual. The proclamation of emergency gives the Union Parliament the power to make laws on any matter included in the State list. The President can issue a proclamation of emergency even before the actual occurrence of war or violence threatens the security of the country.

Some critics have described these provisions as highly sweeping and drastic. They fear that there is great scope for misuse of these powers, by ambitious and unscrupulous persons if such of them happen to occupy the Presidential chair. They recall the analogy of a similar provision (Section 48) of the Weimar Constitution of Germany, which provided Hitler with a convenient loophole to become the Dictator of Germany and yet proclaim to the world to have acted constitutionally.

A similar emergency provision is made for the states also. Article 356 of the Constitution empowers the President on receipt of a report from the Governor, or Rajpramukh of a State to decide in his discretion to issue a proclamation that a state of grave emergency exists and then suspend the normal working of the Constitution and assume the responsibility of administration himself. It is only with regard to the High Court that he is forbidden to interfere, otherwise he can become a virtual dictator.

FINANCIAL PROVISIONS

The Constitution expressly lays down that no taxes shall be levied or collected except by authority of law.

Subject to certain provisions, all revenues received by the Government of India, all loans raised by that Government by the issue of treasury bills, loans or ways and means advances and all moneys received by that Government shall form one consolidated fund to be entitled "the Consolidated Fund of India," and similarly all revenues received by the Government of a state, all loans raised by that Government by the issue of treasury bills, loans or ways and means advances and all moneys received by that Government repayment of loans shall form one consolidated fund to be entitled "the Consolidated Fund of the State."

The Constitution lays down certain provisions governing the imposition of taxes etc., which are to be levied by the Government of India and the States, and local bodies like municipalities, district boards or other local authorities. Except for certain minor changes, majority of the existing arrangements by which the existing Government of India, the States and local bodies, derive their revenues and spend them will remain, but the Constitution explicitly lays down that the President shall, within two years from the commencement of the Constitution and there-after at the expiration of every fifth year or at such earlier time as he considers necessary, by order constitute a Finance Commission which shall consist of a Chairman and four other members to be appointed by the President.

It shall be the duty of the Commission to make recommendations to the President as to—

- (a) the distribution between the Union and the States of the net proceeds of taxes which are to be, or may be, divided between them and the allocation between the States of the respective shares of such proceeds ;
- (b) the principles which should govern the grants-in-aid of the revenues of the States out of the Consolidated Fund of India ;
- (c) the continuance or modification of the terms of any agreement entered into by the Government of any State.
- (d) any other matter referred to the Commission by the President in the interests of sound finance.

The Commission shall determine their procedure and shall have such powers in the performance of their functions as Parliament may by law confer on them.

The President shall cause every recommendation made by the Finance Commission under the provisions of this Constitution together with an explanatory memorandum as to the action taken thereon to be laid before each House of Parliament.

Citizenship

Article 5 of the Constitution lays down that at the commencement of this Constitution, every person who has his domicile in the territory of India and—

- (a) who was born in the territory of India ; or
- (b) either of whose parents was born in the territory of India ; or
- (c) who has been ordinarily resident in the territory of India for not less than five years immediately preceding such commencement,

shall be a citizen of India.

Also that a person who has migrated to the territory of India from the territory now included in Pakistan shall be deemed to be a citizen of India at the commencement of this Constitution if—

- (a) he or either of his parents or any of his grand parents was born in India as defined in the Govt of India Act, 1935 (as originally enacted) ; and
- (b) (i) in the case where such person has so migrated before the nineteenth day of July, 1948, he has been ordinarily resident in the territory of India since the date of his migration, or
- (ii) in the case where such person has so migrated on or after the nineteenth day of July, 1948, he has been registered as a citizen of India by an officer appointed in that behalf by the Government of Dominion of India on an application made by him to such officer before the commencement of this Constitution in the form and manner prescribed by the Government ;

Provided that no person shall be so registered unless he has been resident in the territory of India for at least six months immediately preceding the date of his application.

A person who has after the first day of March, 1947, migrated from the territory of India to the territory now included in Pakistan shall not be deemed to be a citizen of India.

But if a person who, after having so migrated to the territory now included in Pakistan, has returned to the territory of India under a permit for resettlement or permanent return issued by or under the authority of any law he shall be deemed to have migrated to the territory of India after the nineteenth day of July, 1948 and shall be regarded as a citizen of India.

No person shall be a citizen of India or to be deemed to be a citizen of India, if he has voluntarily acquired the citizenship of any foreign State.

A notable feature of the Constitution is that although in conformity with the federal ideal it provides for a dual polity, it retains a single citizenship for the whole of India. Every Indian has the same rights of citizenship, no matter in what State he resides.

Official Language of the Union

The official language of the Union shall be Hindi in Devanagari script.

The form of numerals to be used for the official purposes of the Union shall be the international form of Indian numerals.

However, for a period of fifteen years from the commencement of the Constitution, the English language shall continue to be used for all the official purposes of the Union for which it was being used immediately before such commencement :

The President may, during the said period, by order authorise the use of the Hindi language in addition to the English language and of the Devanagari form the numerals in addition to the international form of Indian numerals for any of the official purposes of the Union.

The language of the Supreme Court and of the High Courts in all proceedings, as also

- (i) of all bills to be introduced or amendments thereto to be moved in either House of Parliament or in the House or either House of the Legislature of a State,
- (ii) of all Acts passed by Parliament or the Legislature of a State and of all Ordinances promulgated by the President or the Governor or Rajpramukh of a State, and
- (iii) of all orders, rules, regulations and bye laws issued under the Constitution or under any law made by Parliament or the Legislature of a State,

shall be in the English language.

Elections

The Constitution lays down that the superintendence, direction and control of the preparation of the electoral rolls for, and the conduct of all elections to Parliament and to the Legislature of every State and of elections to the offices of President and Vice-President held under the Constitution, including the appointment of election tribunals for the decision of doubts and disputes arising out of or in connection with elections to Parliament and to the Legislatures of States shall be vested in a Commission called the Election Commission.

The Election Commission shall consist of the Chief Election Commissioner and such number of other Election Commissioners,

if any, as the President may from time to time fix and the appointment of the chief Election Commissioners and other Election Commissioners shall, subject to the provisions of any law made in that behalf by Parliament, be made by the President.

When any other Election Commission is so appointed the Chief Election Commissioner shall act as the Chairman of the Election Commission.

The election to the House of the People and to the Legislative Assembly of every State shall be on the basis of adult suffrage ; that is to say, every person who is a citizen of India and who is not less than twenty-one year of age on such date as may be fixed in that behalf by or under any law made by the appropriate Legislature and is not otherwise disqualified under the Constitution or any law made by the appropriate Legislature on the ground of non-residence, unsoundness of mind, crime or corrupt or illegal practice, shall be entitled to be registered as a voter at any such election.

Minorities

Articles 330 to 342 deal with special provisions relating to minorities. These provide reservation for Scheduled Castes, and Scheduled Tribes and Anglo Indians. Similar provisions are made for the representation of these communities in the States.

On May 26, 1949, the Constituent Assembly decided by an overwhelming majority to abolish reservation of seats for all minorities except the Scheduled Castes and Tribes and the Anglo Indians for whom too the concession will be limited to 10 years. In taking this revolutionary step, which would alter the very character of Indian polity, the Constituent Assembly had not imposed something of its own on the minorities, but had only embodied in the Constitution the unanimous decision of the Minorities Advisory Committee, composed of representatives of minorities themselves.

Fundamental Rights

Contrary to all previous conceptions of policy in India, the Constitution has created a non-communal, secular state in the country. The fundamental rights included in part III of the Constitution are intended to be the principal instrument for achieving the end. It has been laid down that "the state shall not discriminate against any citizen on grounds of religion, race, caste, sex, or any of them" ; that "there shall be equality of opportunity for all citizens in matters of employment under the State" ; that "untouchability is abolished and its practice in any form is forbidden". Thus such social customs and disabilities of classes called the untouchables, as their being not allowed to

use certain public wells, or streets, or schools or go to places of worship have been declared illegal. It is clearly laid down in the Constitution that no citizen shall, on grounds only of religion, race, caste, sex, place of birth or any of them, be subject to any disability, liability, restriction or condition with regards to—

- (a) access to shops, public restaurants, hotels and places of entertainment, or
- (b) the use of wells, tanks, bathing ghats, roads and places of public resort maintained wholly or partly out of State funds or dedicated to the use of the general public.

So also “no person shall be deprived of his life or personal liberty except according to procedure established by law, nor shall any person be denied equality before the law or the equal protection of the laws within the territory of India.” Other provisions include prohibition of traffic in human beings or any other form of forced labour, guarantee of freedom of conscience and the right freely to profess, practise and propagate religion and full protection to the cultural and educational interests of the minorities

These rights are justiciable and can be enforced by a competent court of law.

Directive Principles of the State Policy

In the Constitution, the fundamental rights are followed by the “Directive principles”—a novel feature in a constitution framed for parliamentary democracy. The only other parliamentary constitution embodying similar provisions is that of the Irish Free State.

Although the principles embodied in this part (IV) of the Constitution are not enforceable by law, they are nevertheless “fundamental in the governance of the country and it shall be the duty of the state to apply these principles in making laws.” In other words, directive principles are in the nature of some sort of ‘instrument of instructions’, issued to the legislature similar to those given to the governors of provinces under the Government of India Act, 1935.

The directive principles set before the Indian Union a high ideal of economic democracy for the realization of which “The State shall strive to promote the welfare of the people by securing and protecting as effectively as it may be by a social order in which justice, social, economic and political, shall inform all the institutions of the national life.” The state shall provide all citizens adequate means of livelihood, equal pay for equal work, assistance in the case of unemployment,

old age, sickness, disablement and other cases of undeserved want; just and humane conditions of work, free and compulsory primary education and a decent standard of living. The State is also enjoined to guard against concentration of wealth in the hands of a few and to secure a fair distribution of the country's resources among the common people.

The directive also incorporates many other important subjects which people had been demanding for bettering the conditions of the masses and for allowing as much freedom to small communities and remote villages to look after their own interest, free, as much as possible, from official control. Thus some of these are: (1) Organization of village panchayat. (2) Promotion of industries on an individual or co-operative basis in rural areas. (3) Uniform Civil Code for all citizens (4) Prohibition (5) Prohibition of slaughter of useful cattle, specially milch and draught cattle and their young one. (6) Protection, preservation and maintenance of monuments and places and objects of national and historical importance. (7) Organization of agriculture and animal husbandry, and (8) separation of the judiciary from the executive that it may work independently without being influenced in any way or depending upon the favours, or subject to arbitrary removal of the Executive. (9) Promotion, with special care, of the educational and economic interest of the weaker section of the people, and in particular, of the Scheduled castes and the Scheduled Tribes, and protecting them from social injustice and all forms of exploitation (10) And lastly it shall endeavour to—promote international peace and security, maintain just and honourable relations between nations; foster respect for International law and treaty obligations in the dealings of organized peoples with one another and encourage settlement of international disputes by arbitration.

Statutory bodies under the Constitution.

For the dispensation of justice, for control and audit of public accounts and for recruitment to Public Services, the Constitution has set up certain permanent statutory bodies which are the following :

- (a) The Union and State judiciary.
- (b) Comptroller and Auditor General of India.
- (c) Public Service Commissions.

Both the Union and State judiciary have been dealt with under the headings "Machinery of Government of the Union," and "Machinery of State Governments."

For the accounts of the Union and of the States, the Constitution by articles 148-151 expressly lays down that there shall be a Comptroller and Auditor General of India who shall

be appointed by the President by warrant under his hand and seal and shall perform such duties and exercise such powers in relation to the accounts of the Union and of the States as were conferred on or exercisable by the Auditor-General of India immediately before the commencement of the Constitution in relation to the accounts of the Dominion of India and of the States respectively. Thus there is to be continuity in his functions, as that of the accounts branch of the Government of India, as of the States.

To secure impartiality in the recruitment to Public Services, and for the efficient discharge of duties, civil or military throughout the Union, as well as in the interest of purity of administration, and purity of justice, the Constitution expressly lays down that there shall be a Public Service Commission for the Union and a Public Service Commission for each State whose duty will be to conduct examinations, for appointments to the services of the State respectively. Also, on request being made to it by two or more States, the Commission will assist these States in framing and operating schemes of joint recruitment for any services for which candidates possessing special qualifications are required.

The Service Commissions are to be consulted on :—

- (i) Methods of recruitment to Civil services and for civil posts.
- (ii) Appointments, promotions, and transfer of Civil Service officials.
- (iii) Disciplinary matters affecting a person serving in a civil capacity including memorials or petitions relating to such matters.
- (iv) Claim by or in respect of a person serving the Centre or a State in defending legal proceedings instituted against him in respect of acts done or purporting to be done in the discharge of his duty.
- (v) Claims for award of a pension in respect of injuries sustained in discharge of his duty in a civil capacity.

Amendment of the Constitution

Article 368 of the Constitution lays down the procedure for amendment of the Constitution. An amendment of the Constitution may be initiated by the introduction of a Bill for the purpose in either House of Parliament and when the Bill is passed in each House by a majority of the total membership of that House and by a majority of not less than two-thirds of the members of that House present and voting, it shall be presented to the President for his assent and upon such assent being given

to the Bill, the Constitution shall stand amended in accordance with the terms of Bill.

The Constitution has eliminated the elaborate and difficult procedures such as a decision by a convention or a referendum. The ratification of state legislatures is required only if the amendment seeks to make any change in ; (i) any of the List in Schedule 7, (ii) the representation of states in Parliament ; (iii) the powers of the Supreme Court.

Similarly amendments seeking to make changes in the method of choosing a Governor or the number of Houses in the Legislature of a State may be initiated by the Legislative Assembly of the State. Such an amendment has also to be submitted for the ratification of the Union Parliament and the assent of the Union President.

DIPLOMATIC PERSONNEL

1952

India's Representatives Abroad

<i>Country</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>Rank</i>
Afghanistan	Wing Commander Rup Chand	Ambassador
Argentina	Nawab Ali Yaveer Jang	Ambassador
Austria	N. Raghavan	Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Pleni- potentiary
Australia	Prince Duleep Singh	High Commissioner
Batavia	S. K. Alagapan	Consul General
Belgium	P. A. Menon	Ambassador
Burma	Dr. M. A. Rauf	Ambassador
Brazil	His Highness Raja Joginder Sain of Mandi	Ambassador
British West Indies & Br. Guinea	Prof. Satya Charan	Commissioner
British East Africa	Appa Sahib B. Pant	Commissioner
Canada	R. R. Saxena	High Commissioner
Ceylon	K. P. Keshava Menon	High Commissioner
Czechoslovakia	N. Raghavan	Ambassador
Eire	V. K. Krishna Menon	Ambassador
Egypt	B. R. Sen	Ambassador
Ethiopia	Sardar Sant Singh	Ambassador

<i>Country</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>Rank</i>
Europe	Mr. Raghavan Pillai	Commissioner General for Economic Affairs in Europe.
	Mr. K. R. F. Khilmani	Economic Advisor to Indias' Commissioner General in Europe.
Fiji	S. A. Waiz	Commissioner
Finland and Denmark	M. J. Desai	Envoy Extra Ordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary.
France	Sardar H. S. Malik	Ambassador
French India & Portuguese India	Mirza Rashid Ali Beg	Consul General
Hague	Dr. M. S. Mehta	Ambassador
Indonesia	Bhagwat Dayal	Ambassador
Iran	Dr. Tara Chand	Ambassador
Iraq	Mohd. Yunus	Charge d' Affairs
Italy	N. Khosla	Charge d' Affairs
Japan	D. G. Mulhakar	Head of the Indian Liaison Mission Tokyo.
Germany	Major General Prem Kishen	Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary.
Kashgar (Sinkiang China)	Capt. R. D. Sathe	Consul General
Luxemburg	P. A. Menon	Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary
Malaya	Mr. Gopala Menon	Representative
Mauritius	A. M. Sahay	Commissioner
Nepal	Shri Chandreshwar Prasad Narayan Singh	Ambassador
Netherlands	B. N. Chakravarty	Ambassador
Netherlands East Indies	S. C. Alagappan	Envoy
Norway	Sardar Hardit Singh Malik	Minister
Pakistan (Lahore)	Mohan Singh Mehta	High Commissioner
(Dacca)	B. K. Acharya	Deputy High Commissioner

<i>Country</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>Rank</i>
Peking (Central People Com-munist Govt. of China)	Sardar K. M. Pannikar	Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary.
Philippines	D. G. Mulherkar	Consul General
Portugal	P. A. Menon	Minister
Sikkim	Major I. S. Chopra	Political Officer
Spain	Mr. Raymon Panikar	Consul
Sweden	M. J. Desai	Minister
Thailand	M. K. Kriplani	Ambassador
Turkey	C. S. Jha	Ambassador
United Nations	H. S. Malik	Permanent Representative
United Kingdom	V. K. Krishna Menon	High Commissioner
U. S. A.	B. R. Sen	Ambassador
U. S. S. R.	Sir Radha Krishnan	India's Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary
Vatican	N. Raghvan	Ambassador
Tibet	S. L. Dewan	Liaison Officer

It should be noted that besides the embassies mentioned above, India maintains high commissions, 16 legations, 14 consulates, 5 commissions and 10 missions and agencies.

FOREIGN REPRESENTATIVES IN INDIA

1952

<i>Country</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>Rank</i>
Afghanistan	Sardar Najibulla Khan	Ambassador
Argentina	Col. Rafel Lascalea	Ambassador
Austria	Dr. Kurt Enderl	Charge d' Affairs
Australia	H. R. Gollan	High Commissoner
Belgium	M Stephan Hallot	Ambassador
Burma	Maha Thnay Sitter U. Kyen	Ambassador
Brazil	Senor Caio de Mellu Franco	Ambassador
Canada	Mr. Warwick Fielding Chipman	High Commissioner
	Mr. Richard Grew	Acting High Commissioner

<i>Country</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>Rank</i>
Ceylon	C. Comaraswamy	High Commissioner
China (Communist)	Gen Yuang Chung hsing	Ambassador
Czechoslovakia	M. D. Rokony	Charge d' Affairs
Egypt	Ismail Kamal Beg	Ambassador
Ethiopia	Auto Emmanuel Abraham	Ambassador
Finland	M. Valvanne	Envoy
France	Count Mavie	Ambassador
Germany (West)	Stanislas Ostrorog Prof. Ernst Whelm Mayers	Minister
Hungary	Mon Karoly Szarka	Charge d' Affairs
Indonesia	Dr. Soedorsono	Ambassador and Minister Plenipo- tentary
Iraq	Mohd. Salim al-Radhi	Minister
Iran	Mussa Noury Esfandiary	Ambassador
Italy	Count Renze d' Carrabio	Charge d' Affairs
Mexico	M. Emillo Portes Gil	Ambassador
Nepal	Major Gen. Vijay Shamsher Jang Bahadur Rana	Ambassador
Netherlands	A. M. L. Winkelman	Ambassador
Norway	M. P. C. Proitz	Charge d' Affairs
Pakistan	Mohammed Ismail	High Commissioner
Sweden	M. Wijkman	Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary
Switzerland	Armin Daeniker	Ambassador
Syria	Mr. Kandala	Charge d'. Affairs
Thailand	Luang Phinit Akson	Minister
Turkey	Aali Turkgeldi	Ambassador
United Kingdom	Mr. Gauva	Deputy High Commissioner
U. S. A.	Mr. Chester Bowles	Ambassador
U. S. S. R.	K. V. Navikov & Mme Erzive	Ambassador Cultural Attaché
Vatican	Most Rev. Dr. Kierkels	Representative
Yugoslavia	Anto Topali	Charge d' Affairs ad Interim

INTEGRATION OF INDIAN STATES

The political unity that India enjoys today is something unique and unprecedented in the history of the country. A dream which could not be realized by great rulers like Chandragupta, Asoka and Akbar throughout the centuries, was achieved in the incredibly short span of less than two years. Although a number of powerful factors that were released as a result of India's attainment of independence, were generally responsible for this quick transformation, the main credit for this signal achievement must go to the late Sardar Vallabhbhai Patel, who was the Home and State Minister of India.

The plan of June 3, 1947, dealt almost exclusively with the problem of transferring power to British India. Not only was it mysteriously silent about the position of the Indian States in the new constitutional set up, but it complicated the problem by declaring that paramountcy will lapse with the transfer of power in British India and that Indian States will become fully sovereign and independent. This created a feeling of great apprehension regarding the integrity of the future Indian Dominion.

On July 5, 1947, the Government of India announced the formation of a Ministry of States to take over the functions of the old Political Department, through which the paramountcy of the crown was exercised hitherto. Sardar Patel, who assumed the charge of this new ministry made a historic statement of policy with regard to the states and called upon the princes to play their role in shaping the destiny of future India. While expressing his great satisfaction at the termination of the hated system of paramountcy, he pointed out that even outside the sphere of paramountcy, there existed a wide sphere of common interests between the States and British India, in which relations can be regulated by a spirit of mutual and enlightened co-operation.

An instrument of accession was drawn up which was easily acceptable to both the parties. By August 15, 1947, with the notable exceptions of Junagadh and Hyderabad, as many as 136 Salute and fully jurisdictional States acceded to the Indian Union. A large number of semi-jurisdictional States also acceded to the Union on the basis of a separately designed instrument of Accession, in which the Ruler had to "further declare that the Dominion of India may through such agency or agencies and in such manner as it thinks fit, exercise in relation to the

administration of civil and criminal justice in these states all such power, authority and jurisdiction as were at any time exercisable by His Majesty's representative for the exercise of the functions of the Crown in its relation with Indian States." In addition to these, the Dominion Government also took over the large body of wholly non-jurisdictional Talukas, Thanas and Estates which had direct relations with the Governments before.

The first phase of the Indian States problem being over with these large scale accessions, the second and the most difficult phase of integrating the states, territories and democratizing their administrations began. This has been done under a four-fold process ; (i) recognition of premier states as viable units ; (ii) the taking over of administration by the Centre ; (iii) merging states with the provinces ; and (iv) integrating a number of smaller states with the contiguous territories into Union of States.

In the first the procedure is but "a half-way house between complete separateness and full integration". In the second, the responsibility of the Government of India in the Ministry of States is direct for three small border states and Chief Commissioners are assisted in others by recently set up state legislatures. In the third, smaller states have merged with the neighbouring states, losing all their independent identity and become part and parcel of those states. These states now number 61, covering an area of 63,704 square miles with a population of 6'925 millions. They have been formed into seven centrally administered areas. Except the small border states, Parliament has passed resolution to grant them legislatures. In the fourth one, the part of the States Ministry is one of careful watch and constant guidance during the unavoidable transitional period between the disappearance of the old order and the emergence of the new. The Rajpramukhs act in the same constitutional way as the governors in Part A states, and these states have the same set up of machinery of government, as those of the 'A' States.

Thus the democratization of the States has been almost complete with their popular ministries. Even in Hyderabad too, popular government with elected legislature is going to function. The model constitution for the Unions and the separate States, drafted by the Rau Committee, follows with some modifications the provincial pattern, while the Krishnamachari Report on the Fiscal Integration of the States envisages a uniform system of federal finance throughout India. Ticklish questions like the fixing of the privy purse and the settlement of the private property of the rulers have been amicably disposed of. The Indian States Forces have become an integral part of the union forces for the defence of India. It is well to remember that under the new Constitution the status of the Unions will be on a footing of

equality with the provinces (now called States) and that the former (Mysore included) under their constitutional rulers, like the latter under the governments, will have adequate opportunities to make an effective, if distinct contribution to the political evolution of India as an independent sovereign republic.

It was on January 1, 1948, that the first momentous step was taken when the administration of Orissa and Chattisgarh States, numbering 39, and between them covering an area of about 56,00 sq. miles, with a revenue of Rs. 2 crores and population of 7 million was made over to the Governments of Orissa and the C. P. (Subsequently on administrative grounds two of the 25 States which merged with Orissa—Seraikella and Kharaswan—were transferred to the Government of Bihar—May 1948). Other States with limited resources sought a similar remedy. All the Deccan States, including Kolhapur, covering an area of 7,654 sq. miles with a population of about 17 lakhs and a revenue of about Rs. 1,42,00,000 merged with the province of Bombay (February 19, 1948). Another group of States that merged with Bombay Province (June 10, 1948) were the Gujarat States. The total area covered by these States, and estates, etc.—157 in all—is nearly 19,300 sq. miles, with a population of about 27 lakhs and a total revenue of Rs. 1,65,00,000. Minor developments included the merger of Banganapalla and Pudukkottai in Madras province on February 18, and 29 respectively, and Loharu, Dujana and Pataudi in East Punjab on February 17, March 3 and March 18, 1948, respectively.

Then came into being a new state (on April 15, 1948) comprising the territories of 21 Hill States of East Punjab with an area of 10,600 sq. miles, a population of about 9½ lakhs and a revenue of about Rs. 85 lakhs. Another important State that merged in the Dominion of India is Kutch which has an area of 8,461 sq. miles with a population of about 5 lakhs and a total annual revenue of nearly Rs. 80 lakhs.

Another aspect of the integration of States was the forging of sizable and viable units out of several groups of States and transfer of power from the Rulers to the people. This form of consolidation began with Kathiawar States (comprising 217 States and estates). Only Junagadh could not be included in the United States of Kathiawar, which in the name of Saurashtra (covering an area of 31,881, sq. miles with a population of over 35,00,000 and a revenue of Rs. 8 crores) was inaugurated by Sardar Patel on February 15, 1948.

Saurashtra has since been the model for similar unions in sister regions—Matsya, consisting of the States of Alwar, Bharatpur, Dholpur and Karauli (area : 7536 sq. miles ; population, 1837,994 ; revenue Rs. 1,83,06,221) came into being on March 18, 1948. Vindhya Pradesh, comprising 35 Bundelkhand

and Bagelkhand States (area 24,610 sq. miles ; population 35,69,455 ; revenue, about Rs. 2½ crores) on April 4, 1948, Rajasthan originally formed by the smaller Rajputana, Kishengarh, Kotah, Partapgarh, Shapure and Tonk—(areas 16,807 sq. miles ; population, 23,34,220 ; revenue, Rs. 1,91,39,00) on March 25 1948, and subsequently reconstituted with Udaipur included, and inaugurated by Pandit Nehru on April 18, 1948, the United States of Gwalior, Indore and Malwa comprising 20 States in Central India, (area 46,273 sq. miles ; population of over 71 lakhs ; revenue Rs. 8 crores) inaugurated in the name of Madhya-bharat on May 28, 1948 and finally, P. E. P. S. U.—Patiala and East Punjab States Union (area, 10,119 sq. miles ; population, 34,24,060 ; revenue about Rs. 5 crores) on July, 15, 1948. And new instruments by the Rajpramukhs were excuted to ensure constitutional uniformity between the various Unions and Provinces “in so far as Central legislative authority is concerned except in respect of the taxing power of the Centre.”

According to the White Paper issued by the Government of India in July 1948, three diffetent processes were at work in relation to the integration of the States, each being applied on the merits of the case- (1) The first is the merger of the States in the adjacent provinces, affecting 219 States, (2) the consolidation of States into Centrally-administered areas, affecting 22 States, and (3) the integration of the territories of States to create new viable units, affecting 294 States. The States recognized as viable units and which continued as separate entities, constituted a separate group.

Since the issue of White Paper in July, 1948, there have been some more important changes. On October 1, 1948, Bilaspur State (area, 433 sq. miles population, 11 lakhs) was taken over as a centrally administered unit, and on November 6, 1948, Datia was merged with the State of Bombay.

The year 1949 witnessed yet more rapid developments. On the New Year's day, Orissa took over Mayurbhanj, exactly two months later, (i. e.) on March 1, 1949, the administration of Kolhapur, in the Deccan (area, 3,219 sq. miles ; population over 1 million) was made over to the Government of Bombay. Ere the month ended, on March 30, the United States of Rajasthan, transformed into Greater Rajasthan and comprising the covenanting States of Jaipur, Jodhpur, Bikaner and Jaisalmer, was inaugurated by Sardar Patel while in Western India, the State of Baroda was merged with Bombay Province on May 1, 1949. A month later, on June 1, Bhopal, the heart of Malwa, (area, 7,000 miles ; population about 8,00,000—the seventh of biggest Muslim States which for some time proved to be a hard nut to crack, was taken over by the Centre in accordance with the wishes of the people and its ruler. Cooch Behar has also been taken over by the Centre.

The frontier States of Tripura, Manipur and Khasi Hill States are under the direct control of the Centre.

No mention has been so far made of Sikkim. This State of strategic importance, bounded by Tibet, Bhutan, Nepal and the district of Darjeeling, and with an area of 2,813 sq. miles, and a population of about 121,500 (mostly Buddhist) was, due to unrest, taken over by the Government of India.

Reference is due to Junagadh where the story of India's integration had taken a peculiar turn, due to the unwisdom of its ruler, irrespective of the wishes of majority of the population. The Government of India could not possibly recognise Junagadh's accession to Pakistan as arbitrarily decided by the Nawab who had ultimately left the State for Pakistan. On November 9, 1947, Junagadh was taken over by the Government of India—and India's stand was vindicated by the result of the referendum which was held in Junagadh and the adjoining small states in February; the administration of the Junagadh State was taken over by the Saurashtra Government on January 20, 1949.

The final position as it stands today is as follows :—

UNION OF STATES.

1. Saurashtra : This was the first Union of States to be formed by bringing together of as many as 449 units covering a total area of nearly 31885 sq. miles, with a population of about 4 millions and annual revenue of about Rs. 8 crores. This comprised about the whole of the Kathiawar Peninsula and included 13 salute states, 107 limited jurisdictional States and Talukas. The State of Junagadh which could not join the Union then, joined it on January 20, 1949. Jam Saheb of Nawanagar is the Rajpramukh and Shri U. N. Dheber is the Prime Minister of the United States of Saurashtra.

The state revenue during 1950-51 and 1951-52 has been Rs. 80322000 and 80754000 respectively and expenditure Rs. 79118000 and 80540000 respectively.

2. Greater Rajasthan : Greater Rajasthan, the biggest Union of States comprising an area of 120,868 sq. miles, with a population of over 12 millions and an annual revenue of about Rs. 16 crores. (It was 16.05 crores for 1951-52 budget) was inaugurated by Sardar Patel on March 30, 1948. Recently the Union of Matsya, consisting of the four States of Bharatpur, Alwar, Dholpur and Karauli, has also been merged with Greater Rajasthan.

The Union of Greater Rajasthan embraces about 17 States of Rajasthan and is considered to be the realization of the dreams of Maharana Pratap. Some of the premier states in this group

are Jaipur, Bikaner, Jaisalmer, Udaipur, Dungarpur, Jhalawar, Bundi and Kotah.

Maharajpramukh — Maharana of Udaipur
Rajpramukh — Maharaja of Jaipur

The revenue and expenditure of Rajasthan during 1950-51 and 1951-1952 have been the following :—

Year.	Revenue.	Expenditure.
1950-51	Rs. 83695000	Rs. 80979002
1951-52 (Budget)	Rs. 160900000	Rs. 160900000

3. Madhya Bharat or Malwa Union : It is one of the biggest Unions of the states comprising an area of 46,273 sq. miles with a population of 71 lakhs and an annual revenue of Rs. 8 crores. Madhya Bharat includes about 20 Central India states, which at one time formed the Maratha Empire. Some of the premier states in the group are Gwalior, Indore, Dhar, Devas and Khilchipur. The Union was inaugurated on 15th June 1949 and has since made considerable progress in the economic and administrative spheres. There is a proposal to accord Madhya Bharat the status of a state as far as the financial arrangements are concerned.

Rajpramukh — Maharaja of Gwalior.
Uprajpramukh — Maharaja of Indore.
 Prime Minister — Mr. Takhatmal Jain.

The Revenue and expenditure of Madhya Bharat during 1950-51 and 1951-52 have been the following :—

Year	Revenue	Expenditure.
1950-51	Rs. 108062000	Rs. 118362000
1951-52 (Budget)	Rs. 113100000	Rs. 113600000

There are 99 seats of the State Legislative Assembly and 11 seats of the House of the People.

4. Patiala and East Punjab States Union : It comprises of eight East Punjab States and has a total area of about 10,119 sq. miles, a population of 34 lakhs and an average annual revenue of Rs. 5 crores. The Union was inaugurated on July 15, 1948 and has a Council of Rulers of which the Maharaja of Patiala is the first elected President. The states comprising the Union are Patiala, Kapurthala, Nabha, Faridkot, Jind, Malerkotla, Nalagare and Kalsia.

Rajpramukh — Maharaja of Patiala.
Uprajpramukh — Maharaja of Kapurthala.

The revenue and expenditure of P. E. P. S. U. has been the following :—

Year	Revenue	Expenditure
1950-51	Rs. 55587000	Rs. 49621000
1951-52 (Budget)	Rs. 49150000	Rs. 48984000

5. **Travancore Cochin Union** : The Union of Travancore and Cochin was inaugurated on July 2, 1949. It is the second largest States Union from the point of view of revenue. It has an area of 9,150 sq. miles and a population of seven and a half millions. The covenant signed by the two Maharajas contains some special features not found in the covenant of others States Unions. A contribution of Rs. 50 lakh per year has to be made from the general revenues of Travancore towards the temple fund, the administration of which will be under the direct control and supervision of the Maharaja. The Maharaja of Travancore who has become the Rajpramukh of the Union for life, has been given powers similar to those of the governors of states under the new constitution. The covenant does not provide for an Uprajpramukh, possibly in deference to the contention that Travancore is ruled in the name of Lord Padmanabha, the god of the ruling family.

The revenue and expenditure of Travancore-Cochin state are of the following order :—

Year	Revenue	Expenditure
1950-51	Rs. 143231000	Rs. 140546000
1951-52 (Budget)	Rs. 148722000	Rs. 149133000

VIABLE STATES

(Or states which can stand on their own feet)

Hyderabad : Although reluctant in the beginning, the Nizam of Hyderabad entered into a standstill agreement with the Government of India on November 20, 1947. In spite of this agreement, relations with Hyderabad continued to be strained and ultimately resulted in the police action of September 13, 1948, and the subsequent taking over of the State's administration by India's Military Governor.

Hyderabad is the second largest State of India with an area of 82,313 square miles and an annual revenue of Rs. 27 crores. The Nizam has been made the Rajpramukh.

In exact figures the revenue and expenditure of the state have been of the following order.

Year	Revenue	Expenditure
1950-51	Rs. 262188000	Rs. 261868000
1951-52 (Budget)	Rs. 275793000	Rs. 277356000

Jammu and Kashmir: Having a strategic position and a common boundary both with India and Pakistan Kashmir did not accede to either of the Dominion in the beginning. But when in October, 1947, frontier tribesmen helped by Pakistan Government raided the Valley of Kashmir and were within a few miles of Srinagar, the Maharaja of Kashmir acceded to the Dominion of India and asked for military help. Pressed also by the people of Kashmir represented by the National Conference, the Government of India accepted the accession and sent their forces to defend the state.

Today, there is a temporary truce in Kashmir and U.N.O. is trying to evolve a formula for permanent truce and then for a plebiscite to decide whether Kashmir will accede to India or Pakistan.

Subject to final ratification by a plebiscite of Kashmir people, the State of Jammu and Kashmir is a part of India.

From the point of area Kashmir is the largest State of India. To-day, the State is making strides towards economic and social prosperity under a popular administration headed by Sheikh Muhammad Abdullah as Prime Minister.

Sir Owen Dixon was appointed as a mediator, by the U. N. to make possible an amicable settlement of the differences between India and Pakistan over Kashmir and make plebiscite possible. He failed in his attempt and suggested that U. N. O. should wash its hands off the Kashmir affair and let India and Pakistan decide the matter between themselves. Next came Dr. Frank Graham to work out a scheme for the demilitarization of the occupied regions. It is yet to be seen what will come out of the report he has submitted.

The revenue and expenditure of the state during these two years have been the following :—

Year	Revenue	Expenditure
1950-51	Rs. 135884000	Rs. 134226000
1951-52 (Budget)	Rs. 138069000	Rs. 141823000

Mysore is one of the most progressive States of India. It has an area of 29,453 square miles and an annual revenue of over Rs. 13 crores. For the present, the State is continuing as an independent unit, but it may ultimately be affected by the linguistic division of the states of Madras and Bombay, if and when it comes.

MERGER WITH PROVINCES

- Eastern States (Orissa):** The process of integration of small states started in Orissa, when the rulers of 23 Eastern

States occupying 24,000 sq. miles with a population of 40 lakhs and annual revenue of Rs. 99 lakhs merged their states with the province of Orissa on December 15, 1947.

2. **Mayurbhanj (Orissa):** The state had an area of 3,671 sq. miles and a revenue of about Rs. 33 lakhs. It was merged with Orissa on January 2, 1949.
3. **Seraikella and Kharwan (Bihar):** These two states belonged to the groups of Eastern states and were first merged with Orissa. Subsequently they were integrated with Bihar on May 18, 1948 according to the findings of a tribunal appointed by the Government of India.
4. **Chhattisgarh States (M.P.):** These comprised of 14 States covering an area of 32,000 sq. miles. They were merged with C. P. and Bihar on Jan. 1, 1948.
5. **Makrai (M.P.):** A state of Central India with an area of 151 sq. miles, merged with M. P., and Berar on February 1, 1949.
6. **Rampur.** This state was merged with U. P. on Nov. 10, 1949. It was being administered as a Chief Commissioner's State.

Rampur will be the seventh district of the Bareilly Division and the 52nd district of U. P. which thus becomes the largest State in India with an area of 112,523 square miles and a population of just over 56 million.

Rampur's area is 894 square miles with a population of about 500,000 and a revenue of about Rs. one crore. This will be the third state to be merged in the Province, the other two being Tehri Garhwal and Banaras.

7. **Banaras.** On Oct. 15, 1949—The merger of Banaras State with the U. P. marked the completion of the process of integration and "unionization" of States.

The area of the territory is 875 square miles and the population over 5 lakhs.

8. **Baganapalle and Paddu kottai (Madras):** These were merged with Madras in February—March, 1948.
9. **Loharu, Pataudi and Dujana (East Punjab):** Loharu (226 sq. m.) ; Pataudi (53 sq. m.) and Dujana were merged with East Punjab.
10. **Deccan States (Bombay):** Sixteen states (Sangli Miraj—Senior and Junior, Jath, Savnur, Mudhol, Jamkhandi, Ram Durg, Kurundwad—Senior and Junior, Aundh, Phaltan, Bhor, Swantwadi, Akalkot and Wadi) comprising an area of 7,651 sq. miles, with a population of 17 lakhs and revenue of more than Rs. 142 lakhs merged with the State of Bombay.
11. **Eighteen Gujarat States (Bombay):** Eighteen jurisdictional states of Gujarat and a number of petty principalities

comprising a territory of over 10,000 sq. miles with a revenue of Rs. 165 lakhs were merged with Bombay.

12. **Sirohi (Bombay)** : A small state, south-west of Udaipur covering an area of 2,000 sq. miles, merged with Bombay.
13. **Kolhapur (Bombay)** : The historic state of Shivaji, with an area of 3,219 sq. miles, a population of 10 lakhs and an annual revenue of Rs. 130 lakhs was merged with the Presidency of Bombay in April, 1949.
14. **Baroda (Bombay)** : This premier state of the Gaekwars with an area of 8,235 sq. miles, a population of over 28 lakhs and an annual revenue of Rs. 434 lakhs was merged with the state of Bombay on May 1, 1949.
15. **Tehri Garhwal** : The merger of the picturesque hill State on August 1, 1949 followed the agreement between the Governor-General of India and the Maharaja of Tehri-Garhwal.

Bordering on Tibet and lying in the bosom of the Himalayas Tehri-Garhwal is the source of the two famous rivers—the Ganga and the Yamuna—and one of the sacred shrines of Hindus, Badrinath, which is visited by thousands of pilgrims from all parts of India every summer, is situated in the State.

With a total population of 400,000 and an area of 4,415 square miles, Tehri-Garhwal is the 50th district of the Uttar Pradesh after the merger and the administration was taken over by Mr. Jyoti Prashad, (who was Chief Minister of the State), as the District Magistrate of the District of the Tehri-Garhwal.

16. **Cooch Bihar** : The State of Cooch Bihar has a common boundary both with Assam and West Bengal. The majority of its population is Bengali-speaking. The State has an area of 1,318 sq. miles and a revenue of Re. 1 crore and a population of 640842. It was merged with West Bengal on 1st January 1950. It is the last State in the merger scheme.

STATES GOVERNED BY THE CENTRE

1. **Himachal Pradesh** : This centrally administered State consists of 24 Hill States of East Punjab. It covers an area of about 11,000 sq. miles and has a population of nearly one million. The State is being administered by a Chief Commissioner since April 15, 1948.

In the new House of the People it will send three elected members.

2. **Bilaspur** : This state, although falling under the group of Hill States, has been placed under a separate administration

on account of its importance in connection with the Bhakra Dam Project. It has an area of 453 sq. miles and a revenue of 6½ lakhs. It elects one member for the House of the People in Parliament.

3. **Cutch :** By an agreement signed on May, 4, 1948, the Ruler of Cutch ceded full and exclusive authority in relation to the administration of the State to the Government of India. The State has an area of 8,461 sq. miles and an annual revenue of Rs. 80 lakhs. It has a common frontier with West Pakistan and hence is considered to be of strategic importance from the point of view of national defence.
4. **Vindhya Pradesh :** Vindhya Pradesh, which comprises of 35 States of Bundelkhand and Baghelkhand, was first inaugurated as a self-governing Union of States on April 18, 1948. But due to maladministration, the state was taken over by the Government of India on Jan. 1st, 1950 and is now being governed as a Chief Commissioner's State. The rulers of the States comprising the Union have signed an agreement ceding to the Government of India full and exclusive jurisdiction and authority in and over the territories constituting Vindhya Pradesh. Maharaja of Rewa is the Rajpramukh of the Union. The Union covers an area of 24,610 sq. miles and has an annual revenue about Rs. 2½ crores.
5. **Bhopal :** Although Bhopal was recognised as a viable unit there have since the very beginning been agitation for its merger either with Madhya Bharat or with the State of Madhya Pradesh. The Nawab of Bhopal, however, handed over the administration of the state to the Government of India. Since June 1, 1949, the state is being administered by a Chief Commissioner. Since some of C Part States have now a popular legislature, Bhopal will have a legislature of 30 members and two seats for the House of the People.

The state has an area of 6,921 sq. miles, a population of about 8 lakhs and an annual revenue of about Rs. 80 lakhs. Under the new legislative act passed in Parliament, Bhopal will have a legislature which, as stated above, will consist of 30 members of whom five will be members of the Scheduled castes and two of the scheduled tribes.

OTHER STATES

1. **Tripura :** As regards the merger of Tripura, popular opinion in the State is in favour of Assam. One difficulty that is causing some trouble is that the State is locked inside East Pakistan territory and has no direct communication with any part of the Indian Union. This difficulty being removed

the future of Tripura is linked up with Assam. Capt. V. Nanjappa is the Chief Commissioner of the State. (Appointed Sept. 1951).

2. **Manipur** : Manipur is the biggest State in north eastern India and occupies perhaps the most strategic position in view of its situation bordering on Burma. The State has a population of more than half a million and an area of 8,620 sq. miles. Public opinion in the State has not yet crystallized as to whether it should merge with Assam or remain under Central administration. The latter seems to be a better solution in view of the State's importance from the defence angle. The State has already a Dewan appointed in consultation with the Government of India.
 3. **Khasi Hill States** : They comprise of 15 States covering an area of 3 788 sq. miles and with a population of over 5 lakhs. Although situated as they are, their place lies in Assam, there seems to be no move to merge them in the near future. The majority of these states is inhabited by the tribal people and that perhaps is the reason to accord them a special treatment.
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**RACTS, CONFERENCES, CHARTERS,
PARTIES, MOVEMENTS ETC.**

FACTS, ACTS, TREATIES AND ALLIANCES.

A. B. C. D. Powers : A war-time combination of America, Britain, China and Dutch East Indies in the Far East against Japan.

Anglo-German Naval Pact : Signed between Britain and Germany on June 18, 1935. It fixed the future proportion of German and British Navies at 35 to 100.

Anglo-Russian Agreement : Entered into by the British and Soviet Governments on July 12, 1941. The two Governments undertook to render each other assistance and support of all kinds in the war against 'Hitlerite Germany' and not to make peace except by mutual agreement. A further Treaty of Alliance was signed on May 26, 1942. This not only reaffirmed the earlier agreement, but bound the two States, when peace was re-established, to work together for the organization of security and economic prosperity in Europe.

Anglo-Turkish Alliance : Entered into by the British and Turkish Governments on May 12, 1939. It stipulated that in the event of an act of aggression leading to war in the Mediterranean area the two Governments would co-operate effectively and lend each other all the aid and assistance in their power.

Anti-Comintern Pact : Agreement signed between Germany and Japan on November 25, 1936, opposing communism as a menace to peace and order. The pact received the adhesion of Italy in 1937, and of Hungary, Spain and Manchukuo in 1939. It was nullified by the defeat of Germany and her allies in 1945.

Axis, Rome-Berlin : A term denoting the political collaboration of Germany and Italy, initiated during the Abyssinian conflict in 1936, strengthened by Italy's accession to the Anti-Comintern Pact in 1937 and developed into a full political and military alliance in 1939.

Balkan Entente : A regional pact between Greece, Turkey, Yugoslavia and Rumania, concluded February 9, 1934, providing for a mutual guarantee of all their Balkan frontiers, with consultation and pledge to abstain from independent action towards any non-signatory Balkan Power. This is also known as the 'Balkan Pact.'

Baltic Pact, The : A treaty of agreement and collaboration between Lithuania, Estonia and Latvia signed September

12, 1934. The signatories undertook to act in concert on questions of foreign policy, afford mutual political and diplomatic assistance and to settle their differences by amicable consultation.

Brest-Litovsk, the Treaty of: Two treaties between the Governments of Russia and of the Ukraine respectively and the Central Powers (Germany, Austria, Bulgaria and Turkey) signed at the beginning of 1918. Russia, just in the turmoil of the communist revolution, sought peace at any price and Germany dictated the terms. Russia had to renounce sovereignty in favour of Germany and Austria over Russian Poland, Lithuania, Latvia and Estonia and certain islands in the Baltic sea. Russia had also to pay about 45 crores of rupees as reparations. The treaty was, however, abrogated in the armistice agreement of November 11, 1918, by which the war, so far as those powers were concerned, was ended. Rumania had to cede Dobrudja to Bulgaria and Hungary and also to concede valuable economic rights to the Central powers.

Central Powers: Stands for the combination of Germany, Austria, Turkey and Bulgaria during the World War of 1914-18.

Compact, The Family: Formed between France, Spain and Naples in 1761, to the effect that the opponent of either be regarded as a common enemy.

Cominform: Abbreviation for the Communist Information Bureau, set up in October, 1947 at a conference in Warsaw of representatives of the communist parties of the Soviet Union, Poland, Bulgaria, Rumania, Yugoslavia, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Italy and France. The establishment of the Cominform has been called the revival of communist International which was officially dissolved in Moscow on May 22, 1943. Belgrade (Yugoslavia) is the headquarters of the Cominform.

Comintern: Abbreviation of Communist International. (See International.)

Co-Prosperity Sphere, East Asia: This was the Japanese plan of a 'Greater Asia,' with Tokyo as the nucleus. The whole Eastern Asia including the islands of Melanesia were to be organized as a political and economic region—an arrangement in which Japan was to be the supreme power. This represented the Japanese 'New Order'.

Council of Europe: The first conference of ten European powers (Great Britain, France, Belgium, the Netherlands, Sweden, Denmark, Italy, Eire, Luxemburg and Norway) met in London on March 28, 1949, for exploratory discussions on the proposed organization.

Entente Cordiale : The cordial understanding reached in 1904 between Britain and France, when France recognised Britain's "Special interests" in Egypt, while Britain professed herself disinterested in Morocco.

Franco-British Union : An offer suddenly made by Mr. Churchill to the French Government in June, 1940, then on the point of capitulating to the Germans, of a complete union between the British and French States, with a common citizenship, joint organs for defence and foreign, financial and economic policies. The French Government made no response.

Franco-Soviet Pact : Signed on May 2. 1935 between France and Russia. It provided for joint measures in the event of an attack or threat of attack on either power.

Greco-Yugoslav Union : An agreement made between the Governments of Greece and Yugoslavia (Jan. 15, 1942) providing for a common general staff for the two armies and joint political, economic and financial organs. The two powers envisaged the adherence of other Balkan States to the Union.

Group Areas Bill : A bill passed in June 1950, by the South African Government, under the leadership of Dr. Malan, which seeks to segregate the different communities living in the South African Union. Though the bill is described as providing the same conditions for all communities, its clear aim is to crush the Indian community economically and squeeze it out of the country by adopting methods of social persecution not very different from Hitler's.

Indo-Pakistan Pact on Minorities or the Nehru-Liaquat Pact : A treaty of bilateral guarantees for minorities and human rights between India and Pakistan early in April 1950, by which the two countries agreed to (1) give protection to the minorities in their respective countries with regard to their persons, their properties and their religious worship. (2) That the minorities in both countries will be regarded as their citizens and as such would share all the privileges enjoyed by the majority communities. (3) That atmosphere and conditions would be created in both the countries by which all rancour and feeling of ill-will are removed for the minorities. (4) That those who wish to migrate would be allowed to do so without let or hinderance and that all harassments at custom barriers would be removed (5) That there would be appointed ministers by both the countries who would see to the implementation of the agreement arrived at between the two countries, tour the affected areas in both the countries and make reports of their observations etc.

Indo-Pakistan Trade Agreement : As a corollary to the agreement on minorities a trade agreement was made by the two countries towards the end of April 1950 by which ; (1) 40,00,000 maunds of Jute were to be delivered by the Government of Pakistan to the Chairman of Indian Jute Mill Association. (2) The Government of India were to supply 20,000 tons of Jute Manufacture (3) The two governments were to facilitate the purchase of goods through normal trade channels. (4) The Government of Pakistan were to supply 150,000 tons of wheat to India etc. etc. It expired on Sept. 1950 and has not been revived.

Internationals : Name given to a number of international bodies set up by socialist and labour organizations to co-ordinate their policies. The first International was founded by Marx in 1864 and the second in 1889 with less revolutionary tendencies. The 3rd. (Communist) International or the 'Comintern' was founded at Moscow in 1919. A loose association of small radical groups under Trotsky, formed in 1936, claimed to be the 'Fourth International'.

Kellogg Pact : A declaration signed in Paris in 1928 by the leading powers of the world condemning war as an instrument of settling international disputes and undertaking to settle such disputes by peaceful methods. The pact is also known as the 'Kellogg-Briand Pact' (Kellogg and Briand were the then foreign Secretaries of U. S. A. and France respectively and were the chief initiators of the move).

Lateran Treaty : A treaty between the governments of Italy and the Vatican (made in 1929) ending the old hostility enduring between the two since 1870.

Lausanne Agreement : Agreement reached among European Powers (June, 1932) with regard to the question of war debts, specially Germany's failure to pay reparations. It put an end to reparations payments in lieu of Germany's undertaking to contribute £ 150 millions towards the reconstruction of Europe.

Lausanne, Treaty of : Signed in 1923 between the Allies and Turkey. Turkey's sovereignty over all Anatolia, Constantinople and Eastern Thrace was fully recognized and Turkey's final boundaries fixed.

Little Entente, The : An alliance formed after the World War (1914-18) between Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia and Rumania for the purpose of resisting any attempt to restore the Hapsburg family to the Hungarian throne. The alliance was renewed in 1929 and further strengthened and transformed into a unified international body by the Pact of Organization signed on February 16, 1933. The seizure

of Czechoslovakia by Germany in 1939, meant the end of the Little Entente.

Locarno, Treaty of : Also known as Pact of Locarno, concluded on November, 16, 1925, between Great Britain, France, Germany, Italy and Belgium. This was the first occasion when any of the great Powers surrendered the right to make war by providing for mutual guarantees against aggression, specially in the Rhineland. Other documents signed at the same time were :

(i) Arbitration conventions between Germany on the one side and France, Belgium, Poland and Czechoslovakia on the other ; and

(ii) treaties of guarantee by France of the independence and security of Poland and Czechoslovakia. Germany suddenly denounced the Pact in 1936 and sent forces to Rhineland contrary to the terms of the treaty. Belgium withdrew from the treaty in 1937 and thus the Pact came to an end.

Montoire Agreement : Agreement between Marshall Petain, the head of the French Government, and Herr Hitler at Montoire in France on October, 24th, 1940 to collaborate in the problems that lay before them.

Moscow Agreement, The : The decisions taken at the Moscow Conference (December, 1945) by the Foreign Ministers of United States of America, Britain and Russia. Its chief features were ; (i) procedure agreed for the drawing up of peace treaties with the former German satellites ; (ii) creation of a Far Eastern Commission, (iii) an Allied Council for Japan ; (iv) a provisional Korean democratic Government to be set up ; (v) need for a unified and democratic China ; (vi) broadening of the then Government of Rumania and Bulgaria ; and (vii) establishment of a U. N. Atomic Energy Commission.

Munich Pact : Agreement between Britain, France, Germany and Italy signed at Munich on September 29, 1938, whereby the Sudeten-German districts of Czechoslovakia were ceded to Germany without a plebiscite.

Naval Treaty of London : Concluded on March 25, 1936 between Great Britain, the U. S. A. and France with a view to limiting naval armaments for qualitative limitations, particularly for a maximum tonnage of 35,000 for capital ship, for mutual information on construction programmes, and in certain cases also for quantitative limitations.

Nine Power Agreement : An international treaty regarding China, concluded in 1923 at Washington between Great Britain, U. S. A., Japan, China, France, Italy, Portugal, Belgium and the Netherlands guaranteeing the Sovereignty,

independence and territorial integrity of China. It also introduced the principle of "Open Door", forbidding Powers to seek special privileges in China.

North Atlantic Pact : A treaty of regional alliance by 12 North Atlantic nations (U. S. A., Canada, Great Britain, France, Belgium, Netherlands, Denmark, Sweden, Norway, Luxembourg, Italy and Portugal), signed at Washington on April 4, 1949. The Agreement pledges the signatories to recognise 'attack on one as an attack on all,' to consult together when their territorial integrity, political independence or security is threatened in any part of the world, to do everything to strengthen their free institutions and to eliminate conflict between themselves in the economic field. The pact consists of 13 clauses and is valid in the first instance for 10 years, after which it can be renewed for another 10 years. Although the pact is supposed to function within the Charter of the United Nations, its very conclusion is an indication of the ineffectiveness of U. N. O. While Russia has described the Pact as "aggressive", President Truman has called it a "shield against aggression and the fear of aggression" and Mr. Bevin hailed it as "the greatest step towards peace" bringing the signatories under a "wider roof of security".

Ottawa Pact : Signed at Ottawa (Canada) in 1932 at the Imperial Economic Conference between Britain and the Dominions, India and South Rhodesia. It embodies the principles of Imperial Preference by which each empire unit undertook to give preference to the goods of the United Kingdom and of each other.

The Pacific Pact : A tripartite defence pact between the U.S A., Australia and Newzealand signed on 1st September 1951, directed to regional security in the Pacific and fashioned within the framework of the Charter. The treaty committed the three signatories to a policy of settling international disputes by peaceful means, of developing jointly and separately their power to resist attack and consulting together in the event of an aggressive threat.

Provision is made for setting up a Pacific council of their Foreign Ministers or their deputies to meet any time.

Rapallo, Treaty of : Concluded by Russia and Germany at Rapallo, on April, 16, 1922, renouncing all financial claims arising out of the war and resuming diplomatic and consular relations.

Russo-Japanese Agreement : Four secret treaties signed in 1907, 1910, 1912 and 1916 respectively between Russia and Japan for the division of Manchuria and Mongolia into spheres of influence. They were all cancelled by the Bolshevik Government in 1918.

Russo-Japanese Pact : Concluded between Russia and Japan on April 13, 1905, by which the two Powers undertook to respect one another's territorial integrity and to observe neutrality in the event of either party being involved in war. The pact was suddenly denounced by Russia in May, 1945, and declaration of war and invasion followed.

Saadabad Pact, The : Signed on July 8, 1937 by the Governments of Persia, Turkey, Iraq and Afghanistan, providing for non-interference and non-aggression, consultation and a mutual guarantee of common frontiers. Also known as the "Middle East Pact", or the "Asiatic Pact".

St. Germain, Treaty of : Between Allied and Associated Powers on the one hand and the Republic of Austria on the other, signed at St. Germain-en-Lay on September 10, 1919. It detached all the non-German parts of the former Austrian Empire, deprived it of about a third of its German speaking subjects, prohibited Austria from uniting with Germany, disarmed her and forced huge reparations on her,

St. Jean De Maurinne, Treaty of : A secret agreement made between Britain, France, Russia and Italy in April 1917, whereby the Smyrna district of Turkey, in Asia was promised to Italy in compensation for the distribution of other parts of the Ottoman Empire among other parties to the treaty.

Severes, Treaty of : Between the Allied Powers and the Government of Turkey, signed on August 10, 1920. It ceded to the Allied Powers practically the whole of Ottoman Empire and Asia Minor besides a large region centring round Smyrna and Armenia.

Soviet-Polish Agreement : Signed in London on July 30, 1941, restoring diplomatic relations between the two Governments and promising close collaboration in the war against Hitler as well as in peace time.

Soviet-Polish Pact : A pact of mutual assistance between Russia and Provisional Polish Government signed in July 1944 and later on supplemented by another agreement on August 17, 1945 delimiting the new Soviet-Polish frontier along the Curzon Line.

Sykes-Picot Treaty : A "secret agreement made on May 16, 1916 between Sir Mark Sykes on behalf of the British Foreign Office and Mons. George Picot of the French, to which the Russian Government later acceded, whereby a part of the Ottoman territory was divided between the two powers. Also the two agreed to recognize and uphold an independent Arab State or Confederation of States, provided the two had special rights in their respective parts.

Trianon, Treaty of : Treaty of peace signed between Hungary and the Allied and Associated Powers on June 4, 1920 in

the Trianon Palace, Versailles. By this treaty the dominions of the Hungarian Crown were reduced by a half and Hungary was cut off completely from the sea.

Tripartite Pact : Signed by the Governments of Germany, Italy and Japan at Berlin on September 27, 1940 and later acceded to by Hungary, Rumania, Slovakia, Bulgaria and Croatia. The signatories undertook to co-operate with one another 'in Greater East Asia and the regions of Europe respectively wherein it is their prime purpose to establish and maintain a new order of things calculated to promote the mutual prosperity and welfare of the peoples concerned'.

United Nations : A name applied to the Allies of the 1939-45 World War. The number of such nations reached about 50 by the end of the War. The only notable exceptions were Germany, Japan and Spain.

U. S. A.—Japanese Defence Treaty : This Treaty was signed between the U. S. A. and Japan immediately after the signing of Peace Treaty with Japan by 49 nations, ending the State of War with Japan.

It was felt that on the coming into force of that treaty, Japan will not have the effective means to exercise its inherent right of self-defence, because irresponsible militarism has not yet been driven from the world.

Therefore, Japan deserved a security treaty with the U. S. A. to come into force simultaneously with the treaty of peace between Japan and the U. S. A.

The peace treaty recognizes that Japan as a sovereign nation has the right to enter into collective security arrangements, and that the Charter of the U. N. recognizes that all nations possess an inherent right of individual and collective self-defence.

In exercise of these rights, Japan desired as a provisional arrangement for its defence that the U. S. A. should maintain armed forces of its own in and about Japan so as to deter armed attack upon Japan.

The U. S. A., in the interest of peace and security and to deter any would-be aggressor to pounce upon undefended Japan, or to create internal troubles, as the Communists have done in Indo-China, Malaya and other neighbouring countries, was willing to maintain certain of its armed forces in and about Japan in the expectation, however, that Japan will itself assume responsibility for its own defence against direct and indirect aggression, always avoiding any armament which could be an offensive threat or serve other than to promote peace and security in accordance with the purposes and principles of the U. N. Charter.

Terms of Treaty :—

The following were the clauses on which the two countries agreed.

Article 1. Japan grants and the U. S. A. accepts the right upon the coming into force of the treaty of peace and of this treaty to disperse U. S. land, air and sea forces in and about Japan.

Such forces may be utilized to contribute to the maintenance of international peace and security in the Far East and to the security of Japan against armed attack from without, including assistance given at the express request of the Japanese Government to put down large-scale internal riot and disturbances in Japan caused through instigation and intervention by an outside Power or Powers.

Article 2. During the exercise of the right referred to in Article 1 Japan will not grant without the prior consent of the U. S. A. any bases or any rights, powers or authority whatsoever in or relating to bases or the right of garrison or of manoeuvre or transit of ground, air or naval forces to any third Power.

Article 3. The conditions which shall govern the disposition of armed forces of the U. S. A. in and about Japan shall be determined by the administration agreement between the two Governments.

Article 4. This treaty shall expire whenever in the opinion of the Governments of the U. S. A. and Japan there shall have come into force such U. N. arrangements or such alternative individual or collective security in the Japan area.

Article 5. This treaty shall be ratified by the U. S. A. and Japan and will come into force when instruments of ratification thereof have been exchanged by them at Washington.

It was ratified in November 1951 by the Japanese Emperor.

Versailles, Treaty of : The treaty of peace concluded after 1914-18 World War at Versailles on June 28, 1919 between the Allied and Associated Powers on the one hand and Germany on the other. In the forefront of the treaty were the clauses establishing the League of Nations. Germany had to cede Alsace-Lorrain to France, large areas to Poland, and smaller ones to Czechoslovakia, Lithuania, Belgium and Denmark; and had to disarm and reduce her land and naval forces. The Rhineland was to be occupied by the Allies for 15 years; the Saar Territory and the German rivers were to be internationalized and the German colonies to be

administered by the Allies under League Mandates. Germany was to recognise her sole "War Guilt" and to pay heavy reparations.

The reparations were gradually reduced and entirely abrogated in 1932 and the Rhineland was prematurely evacuated in 1930. Although these alterations were attained by negotiation, the rest of the treaty was abolished by Hitler by unilateral action.

Washington, Pact of : Twenty six allied countries at war with Axis Powers signed a joint declaration at Washington on January 1, 1942. They pledged themselves to employ their full resources to defeat the enemy and not to conclude a separate peace or armistice. Other allied Powers signed the pact subsequently.

Western Union : An organisation of the 16 Western European States receiving Marshall Aid. In order to obtain the maximum possible effect of increased production, the uniting states agreed to plan all their production after taking into account the economic needs of the group as a whole. The plan included industry, agriculture, fuel and power and trade and production for a period of four years. Exchange of commodities and services formed an important part of the Union's constitution. Relaxation of restrictions on trade was envisaged as one of the principal inspirations to joint action.

CONFERENCES AND CONVENTIONS

Asian Relations Conference : An unofficial and non-political conference of academic, cultural and other organisations of Asian countries interested in the study and promotion of international relations held at New Delhi in 1947. The conference was organized by the Indian Council of World Affairs, itself an unofficial and nonpartisan body. Observers and visitors from interested non-Asian institutions were also invited to attend the Conference. Great importance was attached to the representation of women, a special request for whose inclusion in the delegations of invited countries was made.

The primary purpose of the conference was to discuss economic, social and cultural problems common to all Asian countries, controversial political issues being excluded from its agenda. The subjects discussed at the Conference were ; (1) National movements for Freedom in Asia ; (2) Racial Problems and Conflicts ; (3) Inter-Asian Migration ; (4) Transition from Colonial to National Economy ; (5) Agricultural and Industrial Development ; (6) Labour Problems and

Social Services ; (7) Cultural Problems, and (8) Status and movements of Women in Asia.

The formation of a permanent 'Asian Relations Organisation' was announced in the concluding session of the Conference on April 2, 1947, which has since been functioning at New Delhi as its headquarters.

That the conference attracted world-wide notice as the first move towards Asian unity and independence, can well be judged by the following remarks of the Rev. Garland Envas Hopkins, observer from the World Council of Churchs, U. S. A.

"The Conference has been successful far beyond my expectations. I go back to America to say to my people, "*Asia is not awakening : She is awake*".

Asian Conference on Indonesia : A regional conference sponsored by India of 19 Asian nations (including Australia, New Zealand, Egypt and Ethiopia) held from Jan. 20 to 23, 1949 at New Delhi, called specially to consider the situation created by the Dutch "Police Action" in Indonesia. The first Inter-Governmental Conference of Asian Nations, representing nearly "half the circumference of the globe and the far greater part of its population", held on the political level. The conference viewed the Dutch aggression in Indonesia as "the dying colonialism of a past age raising its head again and challenging the newly awakened Asia" and warned the West that Asia would no longer brook any interference in her freedom.

The conference made a realistic approach to the problem by confining itself strictly to the agenda and declaring that its aim was to strengthen the hands of the Security Council and not to bypass it. To that end, it unanimously submitted an eight-point recommendation to the Council urging the immediate release of Republican leaders, restoration of Republican authority as before the Dutch Military Action, Dutch withdrawl to be completed and an interim federal government for the proposed United States of Indonesia installed by March 15, 49, elections for a Constituent Assembly to be completed by Oct. 1, 49 and final transfer of power to the United States of Indonesia to be made on January 1, 1950.

Most of these recommendations have since been incorporated in the latest resolutions of the Security Council on Indonesia.

The conference also evoked world-attention and was variously described as the "Revolt of Asia", "India's bid to capture Asian leadership" and a move to form an "Asian

Block" etc. But one thing which the Conference made clear beyond all doubts was that Asia was now able to assert her rights and could meet the challenge of imperialism in this part of the world.

Bern Convention : The Bern Copyright Convention was signed in 1886. It secured the fullest national and international protection for authors of literary and artistic works in all countries, parties to this Convention.

Bretton Woods Conference : A conference of 44 Governments held at Bretton Woods (U.S. A.) in July, 1944. It considered the monetary proposals previously put forward by the Governments of Britain and U. S. A. To promote international monetary co-operation, to facilitate the expansion and balanced growth of international trade, to promote stability, to assist in the establishment of a multilateral system of payments and to help countries adjust balance of payments were the main objectives of the Conference. To attain these objectives, the Conference recommended the institution of an International Monetary Fund and the establishment of an International Bank for Reconstruction and Development.

Casablanca Conference : A conference held at Casablanca, French Morocco, in January, 1943, where President Roosevelt and Mr. Churchill planned the invasion of Sicily and attack Italy.

Colombo Conferences. Conferences held at Colombo (Ceylon) since January 1950 in which Commonwealth countries represented by India, Pakistan, Australia, Great Britain, Canada, New Zealand and Ceylon have participated. Their main object is to take steps to raise the standard of living and promote social welfare among people of South and South East Asia, and particularly to face the growing threat to their existence from Communist countries with military and economic aid and prevent the penetration of the Communists from outside. The last conference was held in the middle of Feb. 1951 and items of discussion were announced to be the following :—

(1) A review of the technical co-operation scheme under the Plan.

(2) An organization for continuing consultations between the participating countries.

(3) Obtaining financial aid for the scheme.

Most important of the countries to be so aided are Indonesia, Thailand, Burma, and Indo-China.

The leading parties to the conference have not sat still, but later on evolved a six year plan involving an expenditure of £ 1868 million for the development of the under-

developed countries as a co-operative enterprise. To this, for the present, India, Ceylon, Pakistan; British Borneo and Malaya are to contribute according to their abilities, while Canada, the U. K., the U. S. A. and Australia are to contribute as outside helpers, to the sum of £ 1084 million. India will contribute £ 1,379 million, Ceylon £ 102 million, Malaya and British Borneo £ 107 million and Pakistan £ 280 million.

Canada has offered to contribute £ 25 million, while Australia has offered scholarships and fellowships under this scheme.

Commonwealth Finance Ministers' Conference. A Conference held in January 1952 in which the Commonwealth Finance Ministers and representatives of British Colonies and Empire territories held secret meetings on the sterling areas' financial policy and the best ways and means to strengthen the pound sterling and halt its excessive drain. The countries represented were : India, Pakistan, Ceylon, the U. K., Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, Southern Rhodesia and the British Colonies and Empire territories. Necessary action, as well as the decisions to be arrived at were yet to be taken when these pages went to the press.

Commonwealth Prime Ministers' Conference. A conference held in the 1st week of 1951 in London of the prime ministers of the Commonwealth to discuss the international situation and particularly the Far Eastern Crisis, specially "with a view to the maintenance," as Prime Minister Nehru, declared in his speech in Parliament Feb. 12 (1951) "of peace in this afflicted world of ours." The conference also discussed the question of re-armament of West Germany, and repercussion of such a decision on neighbouring countries and its involving of breach of treaties and engagements.

As the international situation is so very fluid and all important decisions can only be taken by the U. N. and the contending parties to the struggle in Korea and elsewhere, the Conference ended only in consultations and pious wishes. No definite decisions were taken.

Disarmament Conference : An international conference which met at Geneva on February 2, 1932, with a view to effecting reduction in armaments.

Dumbarton Oaks Conference . A conference of representatives of the Governments of Britain, U. S. A., Russia and China held at Dumbarton Oaks from August 21 to Oct. 7, 1944, on the means of maintaining international peace and security on the conclusion of the World War then raging. These representatives had no power to take final decision. Their purpose was to formulate proposals and then submit a joint

report to their respective government. The conference recommended the creation of 'The United Nations' to replace the old League of Nations. The conference also defined the purpose of this organization and outlined its proposed organs, viz. the General Assembly, the Security Council, International Court of Justice and the secretariat. These proposals were subsequently considered at the San Francisco Conference.

Geneva Convention : An international treaty regulating the treatment of the wounded in war. It was first adopted in 1864, revised in 1868 and finally replaced by the existing agreement of July 6, 1906.

Hague Conventions : Agreement adopted by the principal Powers at the Hague in 1899 and 1907. Conventions adopted at the earlier conference were; (i) for the Pacific settlement of international disputes, (ii) relating to the laws and customs of war by land, and (iii) for the adaptation to maritime warfare of the Geneva Convention of 1864. The second Conference adopted fourteen conventions regulating the conversion of merchant ships into warships, laying of submarines, bombardment of naval forces, and the rights and duties of neutral Powers in maritime warfare etc.

Havana Charter : The Havana Charter is the International Convention which considered in three world conferences since 1947, means of regulating International Trade. Over 50 countries including India, were participants in the Convention.

Hot Springs Conference : A Conference of the Allied States at Hot Springs, U. S. A. in 1943, to make effective one of the ideals of the Atlantic Charter, viz. freedom from hunger. The F. A. O. (Food and Agricultural Organisation) was set up on the recommendations of this Conference.

Imperial Conference : A meeting of Prime Ministers and other representatives of Britain and the Dominions to discuss questions of common interest. The Dominion Prime Ministers' Conferences held in October, 1948 and April, 1949 were the most recent examples.

Indian Council of Cultural Relations : A council set up by the Government of India for promoting cultural contacts between various countries and to work for a better and right type of understanding between the peoples of the world so as to pave the way for a greater measures of friendship and co-operation among them. Two sections of the cultural council have been set up for the present, one a Middle-East and Turkey section, and the other the South and South East Asian section. The first section is establishing closer relations with all countries of the Middle East, Turkey, Afghanistan and Pakistan, and the second with Burma, Ceylon, the

Republic of Indonesia etc. Its first meeting was held on 9th April 1950 in Council Hall, New Delhi.

Lima Conference : A conference of the Pan-American Union held at Lima in 1938.

London Naval Conference : Naval disarmament Conference held in April, 1930.

Montreux Straits Convention, The : A convention signed on July 20, 1936 regulating the question of the Bosphorus and the Dardanelles and replacing that of July 24, 1923, which was in effect an addendum to the treaty of Lausanne.

Mozambique Convention, The : A convention signed between the Governments of Transvaal and Portugal, first in 1909 and then in 1928, with a view to regulating their trade relations.

Muslim Conference : The World Muslim Conference held in Karachi, in the 2nd week of Feb. 1951, with the purpose of bringing about unity and a sort of loose federation among Muslim Countries of the World, and to promote Muslim culture, the Arabic language and a common front against any would be aggressor on Muslim countries. One of its resolution declared that "an act of aggression against any Muslim country shall be considered an act of aggression against all Muslim countries." (An echo of the declaration of the Atlantic Pact countries).

The Conference also adopted a resolution declaring "its firm and unshakable belief that the State of Jammu and Kashmir is economically, culturally, linguistically, geographically and ethically part and parcel of the Muslim State of Pakistan and no power on earth can break the ties which bind the people of Pakistan and Kashmir".

The Conference urged the Security Council to take effective steps to implement the resolutions of the U.N. Commission on India and Pakistan regarding a free and fair plebiscite in Kashmir. It resolved that Governments of Muslim countries should be urged to direct their representatives at the United Nations to "support the cause of the people of Kashmir".

Nyon Conference : Held at Nyon (Switzerland) in Sept., 1937, to deal drastically with the 'piracy' exercised by submarines in the interest of the Spanish rebels in the course of the Civil War. Nine Mediterranean and Black Sea Powers participated in this Conference.

Oslo Convention : An agreement concluded at Oslo in 1937 between Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Finland, Holland, Belgium and Luxemburg with a view to stressing a liberal trade policy and facilitating the signatories' mutual trade.

The signatories are sometimes referred to as the "Oslo Powers."

Pan-American Conference. The annual conference of the 21 American republics forming the Pan-American Union with headquarters at Washington.

Paris Congress: The peace Conference held in January, 1919 following the termination of the first Great War. It dealt with the punishment of the enemy, the new map of the world and the schemes of Collective Security through a world Parliament.

Potsdam Conference: Conference between President Truman, Marshall Stalin and Mr. Churchill (later replaced by his successor, Mr. Attlee) held at Potsdam, Germany in July, 1945. The Principal decisions of the conference were. (1) Supreme authority in Germany to vest in the Allied Control Council in Berlin ; (2) Germany to be completely disarmed, and demilitarised and German Industries to be eliminated or controlled ; (3) No Central Government for sometime ; (4) Political parties to be allowed but electoral system to be developed gradually ; (5) Industrial monopolies to go and joint economic control by the Allies to be introduced ; (6) reparation claims to be met by industrial removals ; (7) peace not to be made with Germany until a Central German Government is established ; and (8) Governments that were neutral during the war, were made eligible to join the U.N.O.

San Francisco Conference: A conference of the representatives of the United Nations, held in accordance with the decisions reached at the Yalta Conference from April 25 to June 26, 1945. Its purpose was to fill in the gaps and to supply the details to the principles of the Dumbarton Oaks Plan (establishment of 'The United Nations'). The functions of the organisation whose constitution was drawn up by the Conference, to be known as the 'United Nations Organization,' were primarily two : (i) to maintain international peace and security, and (ii) to achieve international co-operation in economic, social, cultural and humanitarian problems. Organizational and procedural details of the proposed organization were also finalized at this conference.

Stressa Conference: The first Stressa Conference of sixteen Governments was held in September, 1932 under the auspices of the League of Nations, with a view to finding ways and means to assist the Central and Eastern European States in their economic difficulties.

The second conference was held in April, 1935 and was attended by Italy, France and Britain. It resulted in an agreement on the collective maintenance of peace within the framework of the League and a desire to protest against German violations of the treaty of Versailles.

Washington Conference : International conference on limitation of armaments held at Washington in 1921, at which it was agreed that Britain, the U. S. A, and Japan should build capital ships according to a 5-5-3 ration. The conference also declared the intention of the participating powers to respect the sovereignty, and territorial integrity of China, to provide full opportunity to China to develop a stable government etc. The treaty signed at the conference came to be known as the "Nine Power Treaty".

Washington Conference : A conference held between Mr. Attlee, British Prime Minister, and Harry Truman, U. S. A. President in Dec. 1950, to clarify the Korean issue, and the propriety of the use of the Atom Bomb and about military strategy. It was announced ; (1) That there would be no appeasement of any aggressor and recognition of his gains as *fait accompli*, (2) That the Korean debate would be tried to be solved by peaceful negotiations with the Peking Government, (3) That they would do their utmost to promote peace and economic prosperity throughout the world (barring of course countries under the Communists) and would see to it that there was an equitable distribution of essential materials among nations, (4) and that there would be an increased production of arms and ammunitions to their maximum capacity and the North Atlantic treaty nations will be specially helped to meet any threat to their security by the Communists.

Yalta Conference : A conference between President Roosevelt, Mr. Churchill and Marshall Stalin held at Yalta in the Crimea in February, 1945. Apart from an agreement on military plans for the immediate future, the three heads took a number of important decisions on the occupation and administration of defeated Germany, future of countries liberated from the yoke of Germany and Italy, the future set-up of Polish administration and the proposal for a conference at Washington to thrash out the details of the proposed permanent machinery of consultation on (U. N. O.). Later on, it transpired that the Yalta Agreement had a secret clause also, by which Russia, in return for declaring war on Japan, was to receive certain territorial concessions at the expense of Japan. The terms of the agreement reached at Yalta have been a subject of frequent controversy with regard to their import and interpretation.

The Conference is also known as 'The Crimea Conference'.

CHARTERS AND DECLARATIONS

Atlantic Charter : Declaration issued by Mr. Churchill, wartime Prime Minister of Britain and President Roosevelt of America following meetings somewhere in the Atlantic on August 14, 1941. It contains eight points. The countries declare that they seek :

1. No aggrandisement, territorial or other ;
2. No territorial change without the wishes of the peoples concerned ;
3. The restoration of sovereign rights and self government to those peoples who have been deprived of them, and respect for the right of all peoples to choose their own forms of government ;
4. To further access to trade and raw materials by all peoples ;
5. To improve labour standard, social security and economic advancement ;
6. To establish a peace in which men may live out their lives in freedom from fear and want ;
7. To enable all men to traverse the high seas and oceans without hindrance ; and
8. To disarm the aggressor nations pending the establishment of a wider and permanent system of general security and at the same time to aid and encourage all other practicable measures for lightening the burden of armaments.

In subsequent declarations, Mr. Churchill indicated that the Charter was to apply to the white peoples only, and should be accepted as 'a guide and not a rule,' whereas President Roosevelt was said to have had a wider conception of the charter. It also transpired in course of time that the charter was an informal document, perhaps merely an expression of opinion, since it had never been signed, presumably to avoid submission to United States Senate. The United Nations have since subscribed to the principles of the charter.

Balfour Declaration : Letter written on November 2, 1917 by A. J. Balfour, then British Foreign Secretary to Lord Rothschild, Chairman of the British Zionist Federation, stating that His Majesty's Government view with favour the establishment in Palestine of a national home for the Jewish

people, and will use their best endeavours to facilitate the achievement of the object, it being clearly understood that nothing shall be done which may prejudice the civil and religious rights of existing non-Jewish communities in Palestine, or the rights and political status enjoyed by Jews in any other country.

Four Freedoms, The ; President Roosevelt in his address to Congress on January 6, 1941 defined the "four essential human freedoms" ; as, (i) freedom of speech and expression, (ii) freedom of every person to worship God in his own way, (iii) freedom from want and (iv) freedom from fear.

Fourteen Points, The The terms proposed by President Wilson of the United States of America in his address to Congress on January 8, 1918, as the basis of a post-war settlement. They were :

- (1) Open diplomacy ;
- (2) freedom of the seas ;
- (3) removal of economic barriers ;
- (4) international disarmament ;
- (5) adjustment of colonial claims ;
- (6) The evacuation of all Russian Territory, with full freedom to Russia to develop on her own lines and to join the family of free nations of her own choosing ;
- (7) Belgium to be evacuated and restored ;
- (8) the restoration of Alsace-Lorrain to France ;
- (9) readjustment of the frontiers of Italy along clearly recognizable lines of nationality ;
- (10) autonomy for the Austro-Hungarian peoples ;
- (11) Rumania; Serbia and Montenegro to be evacuated, occupied territories to be restored, Serbia to be given free access to the sea ;
- (12) autonomy to those under Turkish rule ;
- (13) an independent Poland to be created ; and
- (14) a general association of nations to be formed under specific covenants for the purpose of affording mutual guarantees of political independence and territorial integrity to great and small states alike.

Havana Declaration : A declaration made at the Havana Conference (1928) of the Pan-American Union to the effect that the American States would adopt 'obligatory arbitration as the means...for the pacific solution of their difference of a juridical character.'

Lima, Declaration Of : Declaration adopted at the Lima Conference of the Pan-American Union in 1938. This stated

that in the event of the peace, security or territorial integrity of any American republic being threatened, such threat would be the common concern of all the member states of the Union and that they would take such steps as the circumstances warranted, without prejudice to their individual sovereignty.

Magna Carta : "The Great Charter," extorted from King John by the barons of England on June 15, 1215, that guaranteed various rights and privileges to the subjects of the realm, and established the supremacy of the law over the will of the sovereign. The charter has ever since been looked upon as the foundation-stone of English political liberties.

The Marshall Plan : Popularly known as the European Recovery Programme, was initiated by Gen. Marshall, U.S.A. Secretary of State with the object of rendering economic aid of every type to all those European countries, who would stand, under the leadership of U. S. A. as a bulwark against communism. The following countries agreed to accept the help : Austria, Belgium, Eire, Denmark, Greece, Iceland, Italy, Luxemburg, Norway, Portugal, Sweden, Turkey, Switzerland and the Netherlands, Britain and France.

Moscow Declarations, The : A four point declaration made by the foreign ministers of the U. S. A., Britain and Russia in Moscow in October 1943. The points were : (1) Closest possible collaboration in the prosecution of the war, co-operation among the signatories for the organisation and maintenance of peace and security after the conclusion of the war, recognition of the need to establish a general international organisation, need for joint consultation before employing military forces within the territories of other states and taking of steps to ensure future regulation of armaments ; (2) The establishment in London of a European Advisory Commission consisting of the three signatories ; (3) An Advisory Council on Italy to consider questions other than military, and (4) Provision for the trial of war criminals. The first point of the declaration was also signed by a representative of China.

Panama, Declaration Of : Joint declaration by the U. S. A. and 20 Latin-American States made at Panama on October 2, 1939. After emphasising American solidarity and neutrality, the declaration announced the establishment of a 'safety belt' extending to 300 miles from the coasts of America, within which all belligerent activities would be outlawed and all passenger ships would proceed on their courses in safety.

Philadelphia Charter, The : Adopted by the International Labour Organisation at the Philadelphia Conference held on May 10, 1944. It affirms the right of all human beings, irrespective of race, creed or sex, to pursue their material

well-being and their spiritual development in conditions of freedom and dignity, and of economic security and equal opportunity.

Polish-Czech Declaration: Joint declaration made by the Polish and Czechoslovakian Governments in exile on November 11, 1941, announcing their intention, after the conclusion of the war, 'to enter as independent and sovereign states into a close political and economic association, which would become the basis for a new order in Central Europe and a guarantee of its stability.'

Teheran Declaration, The: Made on December 1, 1943 by President Roosevelt, Mr. Winston Churchill and Marshall Stalin shortly after the joint Moscow declarations of three Foreign Ministers. The Teheran Declaration reiterated the determination of the North American, British and Russian nations to co-operate in the war and in the period of peace that will follow it, to make the peace an enduring one and commanding the goodwill 'of the overwhelming masses of the peoples of the world' so as to banish the scourge and terror of war for many generations. In furtherance of these objects, 'we shall seek the co-operation and the active participation of all nations, large and small, whose peoples in heart and mind are dedicated, as are our own peoples, to the elimination of tyranny and slavery, oppression and intolerance. We will welcome them as they may choose to come into a world family of democratic nations.'

Twelve Points, President Truman's: A foreign policy declaration made by President Truman on October 28, 1945. Its summary runs as follows:—

1. We seek no territorial expansion or selfish advantage. We have no objective which need clash with the peaceful aims of any other nation.
2. We believe in the eventual return of sovereign rights and self-government to all peoples who have been deprived of them by force.
3. We shall approve no territorial changes in any friendly part of the world unless they accord with the freely expressed wishes of the people concerned.
4. We believe that all peoples who are prepared for self-government should be permitted to choose their own form of government by their own freely expressed choice without interference from any foreign source. This is true in Europe, in Asia, and in Africa as well as the Western Hemisphere.
5. In co-operative action with our war allies we shall help the defeated enemy States to establish peaceful democratic governments of their own free choice, and we

- shall try to attain a world in which Nazism, Fascism and military aggression cannot exist.
6. We shall refuse to recognize any Government imposed on any nation by force of any foreign power.
 7. We believe that all nations should have the freedom of the seas and of rivers and waterways which pass through more than one country.
 8. We believe that all states which are accepted in the society of nations should have access to the trade and raw materials of the world.
 9. We believe that the sovereign states of the Western Hemisphere, without interference from outside the hemisphere, must work together as good neighbours in the solution of their common problems.
 10. We believe that full economic collaboration between all nations, great and small, is essential for the improvement of living conditions all over the world, and the establishment of freedom from fear and want.
 11. We shall continue to strive to promote freedom of expression and freedom of religion throughout the peace-loving areas of the world.
 12. We are convinced that the preservation of peace between the nations requires a United Nations Organization composed of all the peace loving nations of the world who are willing jointly to use force if necessary to ensure peace.
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POLITICAL PARTIES AND GROUPS

Abolitionists : Party in the United States of America organized in 1775 for the abolition of slavery.

Adullamites : A section of the British Liberal Party which opposed Gladstone's Reform Bill of 1866.

Africander Bond : Formed in 1881 with a view to securing larger political powers to the White Africanders of Cape Colony

Agrarian Parties : Political parties representing the interests of agriculturists, e. g. the Kisan Sabha of India.

Anti-Corn Law League : British party founded in 1838 by Cobden and Bright, with a view to organizing free trade movement.

Arab League, The : Formally constituted on March 22, 1945 with Egypt, Saudi-Arabia, Transjordan, Syria, The Lebanon, the Yemen and Iraq as original members. The aims of the

Arab League are 'to execute agreements reached between member states ; to organize periodical meetings to reaffirm their relations and co-ordinate their political programmes, with a view to effecting co-operation between them, so as to safeguard their independence and sovereignty against any aggression ; and to concern itself with the general interests of the Arab countries.

Aryans : Name given to a broad division of human race inhabiting the vast stretch of land from Central Asia to East Europe, speaking languages of the Indo-European Group. Thus the Aryan Nations are Iran, India and all European nations except those inhabited by Basques, Turks, Hungarians, Finns and Jews.

Benelux : Short name for the Belgium—Neatherlands—Luxemburg Customs Union established in 1947. It abolishes import duties within the Union and introduces uniform duties on imports from other countries.

Bolsheviki : The extreme Left wing of the Russian Social-Democratic Party, formed after the famous split at London Conference of the party in 1903. The party was then led by Lenin. The literal meaning of 'Bolshevik' is 'majority'.

Boston Tea Party, The : The party of Boston inhabitants, who as a protest against the unfair taxation policy of the British Government, emptied cargoes of tea valued at £ 18,000, into the sea in 1773.

Bourgeoisie : French word meaning 'middle class'. Used by the Socialists to mean all capitalists, employers and professional people (excluding the nobility and the landed aristocracy) as opposed to the Proletariat.

Boxers : An organization of extreme Chinese nationalists formed about 1900, with a view to driving foreigners out of China. They organised the famous Boxer Rising.

Brown Shirts : The storm troops of Nazi Germany.

Buccaneers : An association of piratical adventurers chiefly English and French, in the 16th and 17th centuries, operating against the Spaniards.

British Union of Fascists (B. U. F.) : British Fascist Party founded by Sir Oswald Mosley. In 1940, the party was declared illegal and its leaders interned. They have revived the B. U. F. as the Union Movement after the War.

Cabal : A clique of scheming politicians applied particularly to Charles II's ministry (1667-73).

Cavaliers : The Royalist partisans of Charles I in England in opposition to the parliamentary party (The Roundheads).

Clan-na-Gael: An Irish Finian organization founded at Philadelphia (U. S. A.) in 1881 to secure by violence the emancipation of Ireland from British Control, with headquarters at Chicago.

Cleargrists: Group of Canadian extremists advocating union of Canada with the U. S. A.

Cliveden Set: A private group of leading conservatives with sympathies for the German view-point (1939).

Communist Party: A party working on the Marxian principles of Communism and found in almost all the advanced countries of the world. Communist Parties are to-day the ruling parties in Russia, Ukraine, Poland, Finland, Rumania, Czechoslovakia, China, Hungary and other countries of the Russian Group. It is the largest, though not the majority party in France and commands considerable strength in other European, American and Asian countries. The recent declaration attributed to some of the European Communist Parties that in case of a conflict between Russia and Western democracies, they would welcome the Russian Communists as 'liberators' has created a very intricate situation affecting the nationalist character of communist parties all over the world.

Co-operative Party: Founded by the British Co-operative Movement in 1918 with a view to maintaining its interests and principles in Parliament and local bodies.

Conservative Party: One of the three principal political parties of Britain. A conservative in politics is one who favours the preservation of the existing policy and institutions of his state. This generally applies to the British Conservative Party also, which is just a new name given in 1830 to the old Tory Party.

Democratic Party: One of the two great political parties of the U. S. A. It tends to be the party of the "small man" as opposed to the Republicans, the party of "big business", but the distinction between the two is not very marked. The party has been in power since 1932, without a break.

Ever-Victorious Army: A Chinese disciplined force which suppressed the Taiping Rebellion in 1893.

Fabian Society: Socialist propagandist and research organization, founded in 1884. It believes in evolutionary methods and hopes to achieve socialism by gradual reforms. George Bernard Shaw and Sydney Webb were its one-time principal members.

Falangists: The Fascist party of Spain. After assuming leadership of the party in 1937, General Franco altered in name to Traditionalist Spanish Phalanx.

Fatherland Front: Austrian Political Party, so designated by Dr. Schuschnig in 1936.

Fenians: Irish-American revolutionary secret society (1858-1922) aiming at the establishment of an independent Irish Republic.

Fianna Fail: (Soldiers of Destiny) Irish Republican Party founded by De Valera in 1927 and in power in Eire from 1932 to 1948.

Fine Gael: (United Ireland) Irish Nationalist Party formed in 1933 under the leadership of W. J. Cosgrave. It stands for United Irish State within the British Commonwealth.

Free French: (Later Fighting French) Followers of General de Gaulle, who after the fall of France (June 1940), dissented from the policy of their government, organized a Free French army and fought on the side of the allies. They received their directions from the French National Committee seated in London.

Haganah. Zionist military organization in Palestine. It originated under Turkish rule as a force of armed watchmen protecting Jewish settlements. It is now the regular army of the State of Isreal. In 1948 its membership was estimated 60,000. It is opposed to the terrorist movements of the more violent minded Jews, who make up the 'Irgun Zvai Leumi' and the 'Stern Gang'.

Heimwhr: Austrian political organization created in 1917 and dissolved in 1936.

Hitler-Youth: A branch of the Nazi Party with a compulsory organization for all young Germans from 14 to 21 years. Its aim was to imbue the German Youth with the ideals of Nazism.

Ikhwan: ('brethren') An order of military Knights created about 1912 by Ibn Saud of Arabia, in order to propagate Wahhabism and stop raids, a recurring feature of those days.

Jingoes: (Noisy and bellicose patriots) Particularly used as a nickname of the war-party in England during the Russo-Turkish war of 1877-78.

Junkers: Name applied to a class of landed gentry in Prussia, given to reactionary views and policy.

Junto: Body of men joined or united for some secret intrigue; particularly used for a group of influential Whig politicians during the reigns of William III and Anne.

Ku Klux Klan: American Secret Society established in Tennessee in 1865. It stood for white supremacy in the Southern States and is anti-Negro and anti-Jewish in outlook.

Kuo Min Tang : (National People's Party). Nationalist party of China founded by Sun Yat-sen in 1894. The Party came to the forefront after the Revolution of 1912. Democratic Government, an improved standard of living for the people and the recovery of the rights enjoyed by foreigners at the expense of the Chinese, were the three principal items of a programme left behind by Sun Yat-sen in his will.

Labour Party : The party originated as a federation of trade unions and Socialist bodies in 1900. The most important political body affiliated is the Fabian Society. Policy is decided by the annual Conference of delegates from trade unions and constituency organizations. Nationalization of basic industries and public utilities is one of the main items of their Socialist programme.

Leftists : Term used in politics to denote more radical parties.

Liberal Party : Name adopted in 1828 to designate the British Political party until then known as the Whigs. Free trade and, in the past, Home Rule for Ireland, were its main planks. The rise of the Labour party destroyed it as an effective political force.

Maquis : A French guerilla organization formed to resist the Germans and sabotage their conquest in the World War II.

Mensheviks : Right-Wing Socialists in Russia as opposed to Bolsheviks. They formed the minority at the 1903 split in the Russian Social-Democratic Party. Its views are reformist rather than revolutionary.

Mountain, The : Name given to the extreme revolutionists of France in 1791, as they occupied upper seats in the Hall of Assembly.

National Labour Party : The group of followers of J. R. MacDonald, which seceded from the Labour Party in 1931 to support the National Government.

National Liberals : The section of the Liberal Party which continued to support the National Government when the main body went into opposition in 1932.

Nazi Party : The National Socialist Party of Germany, with Herr Hitler as the 'Leader'.

October Club : An English Club formed about 1710.

Orangemen : An Ulster Protestant society founded in 1795 to combat the United Irishmen and the peasant secret societies.

Peace Pledge Union: British radical-pacifist organization founded in 1934. The Union is the British section of the "War Resisters' International"

Politbureau: Contraction for the Political Bureau of the Communist Party in Russia, which lays down the general lines of party policy.

Primrose League: A political Conservative organization founded in 1883 in memory of Lord Beaconsfield.

Puritans: Name given to a body of English clergymen who refused to assent to the Act of Uniformity passed in the reign of Queen Elizabeth. Later applied to the whole body of Nonconformists in the 16th and 17th centuries.

Radcliff Award, The: An award given by Lord Radcliff, an eminent British Lawyer, who was appointed to fix boundaries between East and West Pakistan on the one hand and India on the other. It was agreed between the Muslim League demanding Pakistan and the Indian National Congress that the boundaries fixed between the two countries by Lord Radcliff were to be regarded as final and his decision irrevocable.

Red Cross Society, The: It is an international agency founded to assist the wounded and prisoners in wartime. It was founded in 1870 in England, and according to the Geneva Convention of 1864, there has been granted the safety of its Ambulances, Hospitals, Stores, and personnel distinguished by the emblem of the Red Geneva Cross on white ground. It also looks after refugees, and disabled, as well as sufferers of epidemics, floods, earthquakes and accidents etc.

Republican Party: One of the two leading political parties of the U.S.A. formed in 1854 from a coalition of all opposed to the extension of slavery. Traditionally the big-business party, it stands for a high tariff and *laissezfaire*. The party has been out of power since 1932.

Rexist: Belgian political party formed in 1936, under the leadership of Leon Degrelle.

Ribbonmen: Members of the secret societies in the South and West of Ireland (1808) in opposition to the Orangemen.

Social Credit Party: British party founded and led by J. G. Hargrave advocating the economic theory of Social Credit.

Social Democrats: Socialist Labour Parties in Germany Holland, Switzerland, Denmark, Sweden, Finland and Hungary.

Spartacus League: A German Socialist Organization founded by Liebnecht in 1916 to carry on anti-war activity, which in 1919 became the German Communist Party.

Stern Gang: A secretly organized military organization of the Jews of Palestine, working as an underground terrorist movement, with the aim of driving out both the English and the Arabs from Palestines.

Tory Party: The forerunner of the present Conservative Party of Britain. Of late, the name has been revived as an alternative to Conservative.

Viet Minh: The nationalist party, led by Dr. Ho Ch. Minh in Siam (Thailand) which is struggling hard to throw out the French and does not recognize the French sponsored puppet Government of Bao Dai, the ex-emperor of Siam.

Wafd: Egyptian nationalist party formed during the World War (1914-18) and led by Saad Zaghloul Pasha and since 1927 by Nahas Pasha. The party has been responsible for intensive agitation against British Control in Egypt.

Wahabis: A muslim sect founded by Mohammed Abdul Wahab about 1760 with the object of restoring puritanic Islamism. It has been revived in the present century under Ibn Saud, and used as a standard around which he has united many Arabian tribes.

Werewolf Organization: An underground group in Germany, which occassionally troubles the occupation forces of the allies.

Whigs: The predecessor of the present Liberal Party of Britain.

Whites: The counter-revolutionary party during the French Revolution.

White Russians: The royalists and other opponents of the Bolshevik regime which, with the active or passive support of the principal Allied Powers, fought unsuccessfully against the Government of Soviet Russia after the Revolution of 1918. 'White Army' is another name for this group.

INDIAN POLITICAL PARTIES

INDIAN NATIONAL CONGRESS

Founded in 1885 by Mr. Allan Octavian Hume, a retired member of the Indian Civil Service, the Indian National Congress started with a very modest object in view. The fusion into one national whole of all the different and discordant elements in India's population ; the gradual regeneration—mental, moral, social and political—of the nation thus evolved : and the consolidation of union between England and India by securing the modification of such of the conditions as may be unjust or

injurious to the latter country, were the fundamental principles of Congress policy then.

After an uneventful career of about two decades, the Congress had to face a split between its moderate and extremist elements at Surat in 1907. This led the moderates, who still controlled the Congress, to change the Congress objective to the 'attainment of Self-Government within the British Empire and through constitutional means.'

The appearance on the Indian scene of Mahatma Gandhi in 1920, gave an entirely new turn to the future policies and programmes of the Congress. With truth and non-violence as its guiding principles, the whole movement was raised to a high moral plane and attracted world-wide attention. The historic struggles of 1921, 1931 and the great 'Quit India' resolution of 1942-45 shook the very foundations of British authority in India and made the entire nation stand in revolt as one man, under one flag and one Leader.

Dominion status could no longer remain the ultimate aim of the new resurgent Congress 'Purna Swaraja' or complete independence who solemnly declared to be its new objective in 1929. The pledge of independence which was repeated every year, has now been fully redeemed after the transfer of power in August 1947 and the subsequent emergence of India as an independent, sovereign Republic.

To-day Congress is the ruling party of India. The east-wile platform of freedom fighter of all shades and opinions, is fast being adjusted to the new requirements of a democratic political party. The four-anna membership was abolished, and the active workers of the party alone could become its members, but now anyone paying Re. 1/- and subscribing to its creed and objective can become a member of the organization. The new constitution adopted in April 1948, defines the Congress objective as "the well-being and advancement of the people of India and the establishment in India by peaceful and legitimate means of a Co-operative Common-wealth based on equality of opportunities and of political, economic and social rights and aiming at world peace and fellowship."

This has been emphasised with equal strength in the draft election manifesto issued in July. This is the key to the character of the future economic and social organization of the country if the Congress continues to be in power. The objective, as well as the method is one of co-operation and the avoidance, as far as possible, of competition and conflict. The conception of the social organization has led the Congress to adopt the country's constitution on the basis of a secular state in which every individual has equal rights and opportunities and the barriers

which divide the people into opposing groups on the basis of caste, class or religion has been done away with.

The manifesto also lays stress on the progress of the rural areas and the people who live there, and the abolition of zamin-dari as the ultimate object of the Congress.

With regard to industry it will not follow a *laissez-faire* policy. All the basic industries would be owned or controlled by the state, but a large field for private enterprise will be left over. Thus under the Congress regime, the country's economy will have a public sector as well as a private sector. The whole economy of the country will ultimately be based on a planned economy in which the Economic Commission and its recommendations will play a great part.

There will be of course the old controls, but the Congress will make best efforts to complete its multipurpose projects as early as possible to supply the country with cheap power, to irrigate fallow lands, to give a drive to greater and greater production. What the Congress will do in the future can be guessed from what it has done in its five years of regime.

Congress Presidents Past and Present

<i>Year</i>	<i>Venue of the Session</i>	<i>President</i>
1885	... Bombay	W. C. Bannerji
1886	... Calcutta	Dadabhai Naoroji
1887	... Madras	Badruddin Tyabji
1888	... Allahabad	George Yule
1889	... Bombay	Sir W. Wedderburn
1890	... Calcutta	Sir Phirozeshah Mehta
1891	... Nagpur	P Ananda Charlu
1892	... Allahabad	W. C. Bannerji
1893	... Lahore	Dadabhai Naoroji
1894	... Madras	Alfred Webb
1895	... Poona	Surendra Nath Bannerji
1896	... Calcutta	R. M. Sayani
1897	... Amraoti	C. Sankaran Nair
1898	... Madras	Ananda Mohan Bose
1899	... Lucknow	Romesh C. Dutt
1900	... Lahore	N. G. Chandravarkar
1901	... Calcutta	D. E. Wacha
1902	... Allahabad	Surendra Nath Bannerji
1903	... Madras	Lalmohan Ghose

<i>Year</i>	<i>Venue of the Session</i>	<i>President</i>
1904	... Bombay	... Sir Henry Cotton
1905	... Benaras	... G. K. Gokhale
1906	... Calcutta	... Dadabhai Naoroji
1907	... Surat	... Rash Behari Ghose
1908	... Madras	... Rash Behari Ghose
1909	... Lahore	... Pt. Madan Mohan Malaviya
1910	... Allahabad	... Sir W. Wedderburn
1911	... Calcutta	... Bishen N. Dar
1912	... Patna	... R. N. Mudholkar
1913	... Karachi	... Nawab Saiyed Mahammad
1914	... Madras	... B. N. Bose
1915	... Bombay	... S. P. Sinha
1916	... Lucknow	... Ambica Ch. Majumder
1917	... Calcutta	... Dr. Annie Besant
1918	... Bombay Special	... Hassan Imam
1918	... Delhi	... Pt. Madan Mohan Malaviya
1919	... Amritsar	... Pt. Moti Lal Nehru
1920	... Calcutta (Special)	... Lala Lajpat Rai
1920	... Nagpur	... C. Vijaigaghavachariar
1921	... Ahmedabad	... Hakim Ajmal Khan
1922	... Gaya	... Deshbandhu C. R. Das
1923	... Delhi (Special)	... Abul Kalam Azad
1923	... Cocanada	... Mahomed Ali
1924	... Belgaum	... Mahatma Gandhi
1925	... Kanpur	... Sarojini Naidu
1926	... Gauhati	... Srinivasa Iyengar
1927	... Madras	... Dr. M. A. Ansari
1928	... Calcutta	... P. Moti Lal Nehru
1929	... Lahore	... Pt. Jawahar Lal Nehru
1931	... Karachi	... Sardar Vallabhai Patel
1932	... Delhi	... Seth Rancholal
1933	... Calcutta	... Nellie Sen Gupta
1934	... Bombay	... Rajendra Prasad
1935	... Lucknow	... Pt. Jawahar Lal Nehru
1937	... Faizpur	— Pt. Jawahar Lal Nehru
1938	... Haripura	... Subhas C. Bose
1939	... Tripuri	... Subhas C. Bose

<i>Year</i>	<i>Venue of the Session</i>	<i>President</i>
1940	... Ramgarh	... Abul Kalam Azad
1946	...	Pt. Jawahar Lal Nehru
1946	... Meerut	... J. B. Kripalani
1947	...	Rajendra Prasad
1948	... Jaipur	... Pattabhi Sitaramiyya
1950	... Nasik	... Parshotam Das Tandon
1951	... Delhi	... Jawahar Lal Nehru

Working Committee of the Congress : Since Sept. 1951.

President . Pt. Jawahar Lal Nehru.

General Secretaries of the A. I. C. C. Mr. Lal Bahadur Shastri and Mr. U. S. Malliah.

Members of the Committee are : Maulana Azad, Mr. Tandon, Pandit Pant, Mr. Morarji Desai, Mr. Kamraj Nadar, Mr. Shankrao Deo, Mr. N. Sanjiva Reddi, Mr. N. K. Chaudhuri, Mr. Pratap Singh Kairon, Mr. B. S. Hiray, Mr. Gulzarilal Nanda, Mr. Mankilal Varma, Mr. V. I. Munswami Pillay, Mr. Morarji Desai will be the treasurer.

SOCIALIST PARTY OF INDIA

Formerly the party was known as the 'Congress Socialist Party'. It was formed in 1934-35 as a left-wing organisation to function within the Congress fold. Ever since its inception, the party has tried to function as some sort of a progressive constitutional opposition within the Congress as far as internal matters were concerned. On questions of national importance, party used to render unflinching obedience to the parent body. It took a very prominent part in the August Movement of 1942.

After the attainment of independence, the party dropped the word 'Congress' from its name and completely broke away from the Congress in March 1948. The party now aims at the establishment of a Socialist Society, in which the individual, i. e. the worker, the trade unions and other voluntary organizations of working men are free to exercise their legitimate rights. There is no monopoly over the means of propaganda, and the economic power is held not exclusively by the state bureaucracy but shared by the trade unions and other representative bodies of working men.

In a more precise language the programme of the party may be stated thus :—

(1) A minimum living wage compatible with decent living will be assured to the workers, while the capitalist system of

unlimited earning by an individual or a group of individuals will be done away with. Nobody would be allowed to earn more than a certain amount, so that the difference between the minimum and maximum earnings does not intolerable proportions as at present.

(2) There would be fundamental redistribution of land to actual tillers of the soil who would be allotted economical holdings, say 30 acres each, and who would automatically become the owners of the soil. No compensation would be paid to those who own, say more than 100 acres, but proprietors owning land between 30—100 acres will be given an annuity by way of compensation for a term of ten years.

(3) Organization of "land army" and "land volunteers" to dig tanks, canals and the like to reclaim land and to bring it under cultivation ;

(4) Village panchayats composed of tillers of the soil with full administrative powers to be constituted all over the country, which would render all help and assistance to the farmers in all spheres.

Industry

5. In order to release productive power of the community, certain industries will be taken over by the State. Nationalization of banks and insurance companies will help capital formation ; social ownership of key industries like iron and steel, power, mines, chemical fertilizers and plantations is essential for planned economic development ; taking-over of the derelict textile, sugar, cement industries which have failed the consumers so utterly, will enable the State to satisfy the basic needs of the common man.

6. The rest of the industries will be in private hands. State control will be so devised as to remove all restrictions on production and to give an opportunity to *entrepreneurs*, to explore, experiment and expand.

7. Emphasis will be not on capital intensive but on labour intensive technique. Small machines will be fabricated for the purpose with the help of the world's best technical talent.

8. In the nationalized sector there will be autonomous public corporations competing among themselves and municipal enterprises which will avoid dangers of monopoly, centralization and bureaucratization.

9. Workers will be represented on these corporations through their works committees and production committees. In joint stock companies workers' participation in the management will be compulsory.

10. Village produce will be disposed of through multi-purpose co-operatives which will also satisfy the requirements of the village on a wholesale basis.

The rest of the trade will be in private hands. State control over it will ensure both traders and consumers' interests. In order to avoid corruption and blackmarket, instead of the present partial and ineffective controls, rational and integrated controls right from raw materials and capital goods will be devised. Democratic checks will be provided by associating consumers and workers at every stage of manufacture and distribution.

Public Finance

11. Measures of economic equality such as capital levy, ceiling on income etc., will change the character of public finance. Public revenue will be so distributed as to leave increasing resources to the organs of administration closest to the people. Public expenditure will seek to augment production and not merely maintain law and order.

Economic Equality

12. In order to reduce disparities in wealth the State will abolish all the privileges of Princes and their *Saliyanas*. Taxation measures and graduated capital levy will be used : (1) to curtail privilege and concentration of property ; and (2) to bring all income within the range of the floor of Rs. 100 and ceiling Rs. 1000. The floor and the ceiling will rise with increase in production.

Social Mobility

13. All barriers of caste will be pulled down. The Scheduled Castes and Tribes will be settled on reclaimed lands. A vast sum of Rs. 100 crores will be spent over a period of ten years to provide educational opportunities to them. In public services there will be reservation for them at least in proportion to their population. Corporate bodies like village panchayats, consumers' associations, co-operatives and the State will nurture talent wherever found so as to bring the backward sections to the level of the advanced ones.

Women

14. All disabilities imposed on women will be removed. They will get equal pay for equal work. A civil code granting equal rights will be framed and there will be reservation for them in such lines as teaching and nursing.

Minorities

15. Minorities will have the right to profess and practice their religions and to promote study of their languages, scripts literature and religions through their educational institutions and cultural associations.

Refugees

16. Refugee agriculturists will be settled in co-operative land reclamation schemes : refugee craftsmen will be fostered by the State.

Changes in Constitution.

17. Constitutional changes will be introduced directed at ; (1) restricting the property rights enjoyed by a microscopic minority which stand in the way of the community's advance, and (2) expanding the sphere of the people's freedom. States will be rearranged on a linguistic basis, the boundaries of which will be determined by a boundary commission. All states thus brought into being will have equal status.

Commonwealth

18. India shall withdraw from the Commonwealth and thus redeem the pledge of complete Independence.

Administrative Reforms

19. Administrative reforms will root out corruption, bribery, inefficiency and red tapism . (1) Justice will be made cheap and fact-finding and punitive functions will be separated ; (2) public opinion will be associated at each level of the executive ; (3) there will be periodical departmental meetings of the staff to improve efficiency and cut out of red tape ; (4) talent discovered in the ranks will be offered opportunity of special training and exercise of initiative ; (5) legislative standing committees will act as vigils ; (6) promotion and demotion will be based on fulfilment of targets and efficiency ; and (7) an anti-corruption authority will deal with all cases of bribery and corruption. Major offences will be dealt with by special courts.

Mr. Jai Prakash Narain is the General Secretary of the party. He is also the President of the All-India Railwaymen's Federation. The central organ of the party is the weekly '*Janata*' published from Bombay.

COMMUNIST PARTY IN INDIA

The Communist Party in India was founded in 1924, but was soon after made illegal. The result was that most of its workers carried on their activities under the Congress flag and on the Congress platform. Their attention was mainly devoted to the organisation of trade unions and student bodies. The fundamental difference of their outlook from that of the Congress became very marked in the August movement of 1942, when the coming of Russia to the side of Allies in the last war, suddenly made them declare the erstwhile imperialist war to be a people's war and advocate help to the British in their war effort. The

immediate effect of this change of policy was the lifting of the ban on the party in 1943. The Communists were officially expelled from the Congress under charges of disloyalty and active opposition to the Congress programme in 1945. Since then they are functioning as an independent body.

Now the Communist party of India, like Communist parties all over the world, is working with Russia as its focal point in national as well as international spheres.

The Bengal branch of the party has recently been declared illegal and its Central Organ 'The Peoples' Age' banned by the Government of Bombay.

The programme on which the Communist party would work in the future is indicated by the election manifesto issued by the party.

Among other things it would strive to :—

(a) Take the country out of the British Commonwealth, remove Britishers from the Armed Forces.

(b) Abolish landlordism and zamindari and distribute the land among peasants, without any compensation to the former.

(c) Repeal all repressive laws and release all political prisoners.

(d) 50 percent reduction of rent of tenants and moratorium on debts, a steeply graded land tax, reduction of taxes of the common people and increase in the taxes of the rich.

(e) Recognition of trade union rights.

(f) Regarding Kashmir, the party wants the issue should be withdrawn from the U. N. and a democratic movement should be started to settle the issue.

HINDU MAHASABHA

The party's origin dates back to the beginning of this century, almost simultaneously with the awakening of Muslim consciousness in 1906. During the first twenty-five years of its life, the party had to struggle for its existence against the stronger and better organised forces of nationalism represented by the Congress. But the aggressive growth of Muslim communalism during the thirties and onwards, gave the party an occasion to gain prominence as a counterpoise to the Muslim League. The cries of 'India for Hindus' and 'Akhand Hindustan,' belong to this very period. The recognition of the Mahasabha by the Viceroy for consultations in 1940 and after brought it to the limelight. But the provincial elections in 1946 gave the Mahasabha a great setback. The Partition of the country and the consequent

disappearance of the Muslim League from the Indian scene made the party recede into complete background.

After the assassination of Mahatma Gandhi, the Mahasabha Working Committee decided to close its political activities. But recently they have again decided to enter into politics with the objective of establishing 'Akhand Hindustan' and a democratic Hindu State in Hindustan of West European type.

The election manifesto issued by the Mahasabha in August 1951, gives out clearly and in an unambiguous language the programme and policies of the Mahasabha which it will follow in the future as a political party and as its political faith.

The main points of the manifesto are :—

(1) Re-establishment of Akhand Hindustan by constitutional means.

(2) Severance of Commonwealth relations.

(3) Ultimate ownership of the land by the State on behalf of the people.

(4) Recognition of the sanctity of private property and guarantee of its possession and inheritance to owners.

(5) India's foreign policy to be guided by the principle of self-interest and reciprocity. Policy of reciprocity towards Pakistan.

(6) Progressive decontrol.

(7) Key industries such as electricity, railway, coal and steel mines and industries dealing with war materials and weapons to be owned and controlled by the State.

Hindu 'Raj'

Explaining the ideological stand of the Mahasabha, the manifesto says, "the Hindu Mahasabha stands for the establishment of a Hindu Raj in Bharat with a form of Government in accordance with Hindu conception on policy and economy. The Mahasabha intends to develop Bharat as a national home for Hindu where the sublime qualities of Hindu ideology can find place for self-fulfilment."

The Mahasabha, the manifesto says would undertake the task of amending the Constitution so that it may be in consonance with the tradition and culture of the land.

Regarding the administrative set up of the State, the manifesto emphasizes "a well-knit homogeneous State with a strong Centre and not a loose combination of autonomous States."

The manifesto promises the formation of provinces on linguistic basis and readjustment of the boundaries of the existing provinces wherever necessary.

Economic Programme

Regarding the economic programme, the Mahasabha "recognizes the sanctity of private property" but it also stands for the ultimate ownership of land by the State on behalf of the people."

"Mere abolition of landlordism," says the manifesto, "will not confer any solid and permanent benefit on the tillers of the soil."

"The Mahasabha would interfere with the proprietary interests of landholders only when they neglect cultivation or allow useful land to remain fallow."

The manifesto lays stress on "equitable distribution of profits between workers and *entrepreneurs* without detriment to consumers' interests." It also guarantees to the workers security of employment and minimum wages.

Other points made in the manifesto include "fair treatment to minorities," free and compulsory primary education, and economy in administration by fixing minimum salaries, protection to cow and non-interference in religious matters.

The Mahasabha has also declared that in the matter of national planning, it will give "foremost importance" to military self-sufficiency.

It will repeal Arms Act, train the civil population in the use of arms and issue arms licences "extensively."

The Mahasabha will be opposed to the policy of neutrality in the event of a world war "Our foreign policy should be based on the frank recognition of the fact that the strategic position of Bharat renders its maintenance of neutrality in event of another world war impracticable and even undesirable."

Dr. Khare is the President of the Hindu Mahasabha. The Mahasabha, along with the Ram Rajya Parishad and Bharatiya Jan Sangh claims to be one of the only three parties which according to its declaration are pro-Bharat, as against other parties or groups which they say, are pro-Pakistani and opposed to "Akhand Bharat."

MUSLIM LEAGUE

Muslim League was the second major political party in India before the partition. It captured the majority of Muslim seats both in the Central and provincial legislatures in the election of 1946. The creation of a separate state of Muslim majority areas made the Muslim League 'the Government Party' in Pakistan, and an 'opposition party' in the provincial legislatures of India. In the United Provinces, where the party was

still in appreciable strength, it has dissolved itself and is now functioning as the 'Janta Party' in the Legislature.

Under joint electorates as envisaged in the constitution of the Republic of India, there will hardly be place for a strictly communal organisation like the Muslim League to function as a political party. The party may have a future as a cultural and social organisation.

FORWARD BLOCK

The Forward Bloc was organised by Netaji Subhas after the Tripuri session of the Congress. It was to work as a left bloc within the Congress and had as its aim the consolidation of forces against the right-wing compromise with British Imperialism. It formed itself into a part later on but was declared illegal in 1940. The ban was lifted in 1946, after which it severed its connection with the Congress altogether.

The party has now adopted as its objective the establishment of a 'Socialist State' in India with complete severance of relations from the British Commonwealth. Mr. R. S. Ruiker is the General Secretary of the party.

The forward Block suffers from lack of leaders of outstanding intellect and driving force, and has not made much impression on Indian Politics since the death of its great founder. Recently, however, it decided to fight the general elections on the basis of a programme which would "substantially liquidate the present-day social iniquities and remove the deadening frustration of the submerged masses and thus have the path for Socialism and real democracy in India."

The Manifesto of the party released by Mr. R. S. Ruiker was adopted by the Central Council of the Forward Bloc at Jamshedpur. It declared that the "only salvation" for the country lay "in freeing it from the grip of the Congress and establishing a Socialist State in India." The Forward Bloc, which was pledged to work out the ideals of Netaji, would utilize both parliamentary and mass fronts "to carry on its revolutionary struggle." The objective is "the unification of India and Pakistan on the solid foundation of national and cultural unity. This means the new State will be a union of Socialist republics, unifying all shapes of differences and autonomy in a federal government".

The seven point programme, which the party would work out to further its objectives, includes guarantee of the freedom of speech, thought and religion, free and compulsory primary education, confiscation of privy purses of Princes without compensation ; replacement of the Constitution by one permitting for the direct election of the President ; repeal of amendment's

restricting the freedom of the Press and reconstitution of provinces on a linguistic basis.

The party aims at a "planned Socialist economy to achieve sufficiency in the necessities of life and equitable distribution within a specified time." The economic programme includes nationalization of key and defence industries, mines, forests and transport and of industries owned and managed by foreign interests ; land to the tillers of the soil and abolition of zamindari without compensation ; full employment ; reduction of salaries in top rank services ; urban housing, price control and rehabilitation of refugees within one year.

The foreign policy would be primarily to safeguard the interests and well-being of the Indian masses and to further the cause of world peace. It would include withdrawal from the Commonwealth and neutrality as between the two Power Blocs in case of war and friendly relations with China and the U. S. S. R.

KISAN-MAZDOOR-PRAJA PARTY (K. M. P. P.)

This is a new party formed by Acharya Kriplani with no better clear cut aim than as a protest against the Congress for its many shortcomings and failing to carry on the programme of Mahatma Gandhi. It has thus no new or revolutionary ideology, except to serve the masses with more zeal, purer aims and make efforts to eradicate evil practices and black-markets.

THE RASHTRIYA SWAYAM SEVAK SANGH (R.S.S.)

It is an organisation of the Hindus of extreme communal-cum Nationalist views, whose headquarter is at Nagpur and whose chief head is Mr. Golwalker. Its chief aim is to revive the old culture of the Hindus, to build the Hindu youths by regular exercises of a semi-military nature, to make them extremely religious conscious and though it has no clear cut or open politics, it clearly aims at establishing a Hindu State in India, instead of a secular, which the Congress has made efforts to establish through the New Constitution and by its programme of work.

THE BHARTIYA JAN SANGH

The Bhartiya Jan Sangh is the latest all India political party whose inauguration was announced at the end of October 1951 at a convention in New Delhi with Dr. S. P. Mukherjee as its president.

It is an off shoot of the R. S. S., as the chief workers in the party are all R. S. S. men, though its highest leaders have kept aloof not wanting to be associated with and drawn into the

vortex of politics. The party may grow up to be the real opposition to the Congress.

Objectives

Defining the objectives of the Sangh Dr. Mookerjee said : "We believe in the goal of a reunited Bharat. We would like it to be achieved through peaceful means and through the realization by the people of both countries (India and Pakistan) that such reunion will be of benefit to the masses and will make the country a real bulwark of peace and freedom."

Sangh Politics

Pakistan : The partition of Bharat was a tragic folly. So long as Pakistan continues we would urge a policy of strict reciprocity. The present policy of appeasement followed by the Congress has weakened India and affected her honour and prestige. The Sangh lays great stress on the need for a satisfactory solution of the problem of the Hindu minority in Pakistan and of the evacuee property dispute.

Kashmir : The case should be withdrawn from the U. N. and there should be no further question of plebiscite. Kashmir is an integral part of India and should be treated as any other State. The party disapproves of Dr. Ambedkar's proposal for the partition of Kashmir.

Economic Programme : "We stand for a well-planned decentralized national economic plan. There is much in the Sarvodaya scheme of economic planning which could be fruitfully adopted in raising the standard of living of the common people, avoiding the harmful effects of large-scale industrial expansion."

Foreign Policy : The Sangh believes that country's foreign policy should be "more realistic." The primary consideration should be the advancement of the cause of India and maintenance of peace and good-will in the international sphere. So long as India's right to determine her own pattern is not interfered with, there is no reason why they should not maintain friendly relations with all other countries. Bharat's continuance in the British Commonwealth is a matter which has to be re-examined with great care. "We frankly recognize that we have gained very little by continuing to function within the Commonwealth. On the other hand, in our dealings with Pakistan we have been struck by a strange policy of partiality towards that country observed by Britain."

Reorientation of Educational System : "Our party firmly believes that the future of Bharat lies in the proper appreciation and application of *Bharatiya sanskriti* and *maryada*. This must be suitably reflected in our system of national education. While we, therefore, aim at establishing a *Dharma rajya*

(or a rule of law), we only abide by the highest traditions of *Bharatiya sanskriti.*"

Minorities: "While it will be dangerous to encourage the growth of political minorities based on caste and religion, it is obviously the duty of the vast majority of Bharat's population to assure all classes of people, who are truly loyal to their mother-land, that they will be entitled to full protection under the law and to complete equality of treatment in all matters, social, economic and political "

Party's future Programme

The party stands, according to its manifesto, for public ownership of industries, especially those catering to the essential defence needs of the country. As for other large-scale industries, State ownership had generally not worked effectively and economically in the country. Unlimited State capitalism might lead to totalitarianism.

The party would, therefore, encourage private enterprise to expand industry under the general control and regulation of the State in the interest of consumers and producers alike. Effective steps would be taken to put a check on profiteering and concentration of economic power in the hands of "the big few" through cartels and combines.

The party, stands for progressive rationalization and decentralization of industry. It believes in the equal rights of all citizens, irrespective of caste, creed or community. Minorities and majorities based on religion would not be recognized by the party. Special steps would be taken to promote the educational and economic advancement of backward sections of the people.

Food Production

To further increase in food production, at least 100 million acres of cultivable waste land in the country would be brought under the plough. The party would strive for the pooling of private and State resources to break and develop such lands and let them out to cultivating farmers on easy terms. If it was found essential in the interests of the economy of the country, the party would abolish jagirdari and zamindari with compensation and distribute the land to the tillers.

The party aims at the expansion of industry in all directions in the shortest possible time in order to make the country self-sufficient in capital and consumer goods and defence stores.

SCHEDULED CASTES FEDERATION

It was established by Dr. B. R. Ambedkar as a viliifying opposition to the Congress and caste Hindus. After the partition, and especially when their leader became the Law Minister

in the Cabinet, the party went to sleep. Recently as the elections drew near, it shook its lethargy and decided to fight the elections on its own.

The Federation's Manifesto.

At the outset the manifesto outlines a seven-point charter of principles of the Federation, which it says, will govern the party's attitude in public affairs. The principles are :

(1) It will treat all Indians not only as being equal before the law but as being entitled to equality and will accordingly foster equality where it does not exist and uphold it where it is denied.

(2) It will regard every Indian as an end in himself with a right to his own development in his own way and the State as only a means to that end.

(3) It will sustain the right of every Indian to freedom—religious, economic and political—subject to such limitation as may arise out of the need for the protection of the interests of other Indians or the State.

(4) It will uphold the right of every Indian to equality of opportunity subject to the provision that those who have had none in the past shall have priority over those who had.

(5) It will keep the State ever aware of its obligation to make every Indian free from want and free from fear.

(6) It will insist on the maintenance of liberty, equality and fraternity and will strive for redemption from oppression and exploitation of man by man, of class by class and of nation by nation.

(7) It will stand for the parliamentary system of government as being the best form of government both in the interest of public and in the interest of the individual.

The policy of the party, the manifesto explained, was not tied to any particular dogma or ideology. Topmost priority would be given to the problem of raising the backward classes, both in the matter of education and services. "Neither delay nor want of funds will be allowed to stand in the way of carrying this part of the programme into effect."

For controlling population, the Federation would advocate an intensive propaganda in favour of birth-control. "It will advocate the opening of birth-control clinics in different parts of the country."

In its plan of increasing industrial production, it would make one reservation, namely, that there should be no exploitation of the working class. For increasing agricultural production the State should supply all the mechanized equipment to the farmer

on hire and at a rental to be recovered along with the land revenue. The problem of replacing small holdings by large-scale farms must be solved either by introducing co-operative farms or collecting farms.

As regards the large number of landless labourers, it could not be beyond modern science to reclaim the vast areas of cultivable wasteland and make it available for cultivation.

The creation of linguistic States, it believed, was the only means of ensuring social peace among the various linguistic units and of working the Constitution on purely political considerations.

"In the foreign policy" the manifesto said, "we have not been able to make a distinction between capitalism and parliamentary democracy. The dislike of capitalism is understandable. But we should take care that we do not weaken parliamentary democracy and help dictatorship to grow. It would be like throwing the baby out of the bath-tub in emptying it of dirty water."

On Kashmir, the manifesto advocated partitioning—the Muslim predominant areas to go to Pakistan, subject to the Kashmiris living in the Valley, and the non-Muslim areas consisting of Jammu and Ladakh to come to India.

In the view of the Federation, the pattern of industry can not be the primary or the paramount consideration for increasing industrial production. The remedy for poverty lies in more production and not the pattern of industry.

"Where national undertaking of an industry is possible and essential, the Scheduled Castes Federation will support national undertaking. Where private enterprise is possible and national undertaking not essential, private enterprise will be allowed."

In the agricultural field which is bound to remain the foundation of India's economy, it recommended a plan of mechanization, replacement of small holdings by large-scale farms, manuring and supply of healthy seeds.

In the administrative sphere the Federation pressed for the creation of linguistic provinces, stern action against corrupt officers and Ministers and black-marketers and for immediate solution of the problem of inflation.

For resources to put its programme into effect, the manifesto suggested measures for raising finances which include reduction of expenditure over the army, re-levy of the salt tax, abolition of prohibition which it described as "sheer madness" and nationalization of insurance.

The manifesto said the Federation would have no election alliance with communalist or Communist parties. It, however, stood for creation of federal party, like the British Labour Party, which would lead to a two-party system of government and for

that purpose ally with parties whose policies and programmes did not conflict with its own.

SHIA POLITICAL CONFERENCE

It is a party representing the Shia sect of Muslims. It has a nationalist outlook. It has been one of the most important minority parties which have supported the Congress.

OTHER PARTIES

National Liberal Federation ; Ahrar party ; Akali party ; All-India Muslim Majlis ; Jamiat-ul-ulema-Momin Ansar Conference ; The revolutionary Socialist Party of India ; The Revolutionary Communist Party of India ; Democratic Vanguard ; Bolshevik party ; Ramraj Prashid ; Krishankar party ; The Justice party ; Radical Democratic party ; Socialist Republican party.

IDEOLOGIES AND MOVEMENTS

Absolutism : System of government in which all the power is concentrated in the hands of one or few at the top. The governed have no representation, vote or share in the administration.

Activism . A term used by political groups who want to distinguish themselves as taking active steps towards the proposed aim from those who merely proclaim it as a programme.

Anarchism : (From Greek *anarchia* meaning *non-rule*). A term in political theory standing for the abolition of every organised authority and state machinery and the creation of a stateless society instead. According to anarchists, every form of government tantamounts to tyranny. They, however, do not advocate a Society "without order". They want to substitute government by a free association of individuals and groups based on voluntarily respected mutual treaties.

Anti-semitism : Opposition to the Jews as a race. Formerly the movement started with a religious bias, but now it has developed its social, economic and also political aspects. Economic anti-semitism is largely the result of failure in commercial competition between Jews and non-Jews. Political anti-semitism, which manifested itself at its worst in Hitlerite Germany, was completely artificial and was used as a stunt to grab political power.

Bolshevism : (From Russian ‘*bolshinstvo*’ meaning *majority*).

It embodies the doctrines professed by the extreme left wing of the Russian Social-Democratic Party—*Bolsheviki*, which effected the Russian Revolution of 1917. Ideologically, it can be said to be an alternative name for communism, drawing its inspiration from Karl Marx. But the real founder of Bolshevism, was Lenin, who advocated revolution leading to dictatorship of the proletariat.

Capitalism : Name given to the economic system in which the principal means of production, distribution and exchange are in the possession of private owners, who run them at their discretion. The “profit motive” contributes the prime stimulus to productive exertion and the “price mechanism determines what things shall be made, in what quantity and under what conditions.” Capitalism is marked by the existence of a proletariat which depends on the sale of its labour-power. The whole thing, being left to private enterprise, lacks planning and has little relation with the actual needs of the community as a whole. The rival system is socialism, or communism, in which the state is the dominant factor.

Chauvinism : Exaggerated nationalism or, more broadly, exaggerated devotion to any cause. The word springs from Nicholas Chauvin, an over-fervent adherent of Napoleon I.

Civil Disobedience Movement : Name given to the Indian Nationalist Movement inaugurated and led by Mahatma Gandhi, Truth and Non-violence were its two cardinal principles and the movement aimed at peaceful withdrawal of British authority from India. No-tax campaign of Bardoli (1928) and the Salt satyagraha of 1930-31 can be cited as examples.

Clericalism : A Catholic political movement.

Collectivism : Political and economic system based on central planning, absence of competition and co-operation etc. Socialism, with its emphasis on nationalization and state-control of industries, can be said to be a kind of collectivism.

Communism : The revolutionary Socialist movement basing its theory and practice on the teachings of Karl Marx. The “Communist Manifesto” issued by Marx and Engels in 1848 forms the basis of all Communist theory. An essential feature of social evolution and a violent overthrow of the capitalist system, which according to Marxists is running through its period of decline, are some of the main bases of communist philosophy. The establishment of a classless society, where there will be no private property, no exploitation of one class by the other and where human relations will be governed by the high principle of “from each according to his ability and to each according to his needs,” is the ultimate aim of Communism.

Dialectical Materialism : It is the philosophical basis of Marxism. The conception was first developed by Hegel, a German Philosopher, who saw history as the reflection of a dialectical process in the development of certain ideas. Marx reversed the dialectical principle denying the dominant role of ideas in history as claimed by Hegel and declared that matter preceded mind and the actual development in nature and history, takes the dialectical process of a "Thesis" and "Anti-Thesis", following each other until they are resolved into a "synthesis". Marx used Dialectical Materialism as a method of social criticism and analysis. He propounded the theory of "historical materialism", according to which every phase of human society, while moved by material forces, develops as a dialectical process, producing within itself its own opposite. Thus Capitalist society creates the proletarian class which is of necessity opposed to it and bound eventually to overthrow it.

Fascism : Derived from the Latin word "*Fascio*" meaning bundle or bunch. The emphasis is on the close binding together of its adherents. Fascism has no doctrinal basis. It is wholly empirical and practical. It is opposed both to socialism and parliamentary democracy. The fascist programme is nationalistic, authoritarian and anti-communistic. The Social system aimed at by fascism is the Corporate State, wherein the individual has no right. The "Leader" occupies very glorified position in a fascist polity ; he is not identified with the state, but is even assigned a higher place, for he gives to the state the form which it has. Fascists maintain capital and private property, but under state regulation, lest they be used against the state. Class struggle is rejected and industrial disputes are forbidden. Fascist rule is described as "the rule of the wise." In place of equality, liberty and fraternity, it emphasises responsibility, discipline and hierarchy.

Federalism : System of Government in which several states unite for certain matters of common interest but retain complete autonomy in internal affairs. It is opposed to unitarianism, wherein all powers are concentrated in the Central authority. The division of power between the federal government and the federating states is laid down in the constitution and may vary between one another.

Feudalism : The rule of the landed aristocracy, characterised by a medieval economy in which property was concentrated in the hands of big feudal lords. The land was divided into feuds or fiefs and held on condition that certain military duties were performed. In default of this, the land reverted to the superior lords. It was the general political and economic system in Europe till the French Revolution in 1789.

Flemish Movement : A Belgian movement sponsored by the Flemings—one of the two dominant sections of Belgium's population. Originally a cultural movement, it took the form of a political agitation on the question of Flemish language being recognised as the national language. This has since been achieved.

Gandhism : Life to Mahatma Gandhi was a constant process of creation and no philosophy of life according to him could be compressed within the wooden framework of any system of thought. He did not believe that mere reason was adequate to give us a complete understanding of life. Faith formed an equally important part of his approach. It is, therefore, difficult to treat Gandhism as a rigid system of thought like Marxism or Communism.

Gandhiji regarded himself as an humble seeker of Truth and identified himself completely with all aspects and expressions of life in order to get a glimpse of that Truth. This although makes Gandhism a complete philosophy of life, it does not, however, claim to be perfect, because an endless and perpetual seeking after truth still remains an inevitable feature of it. From this point of view, Gandhism is neither a philosophy nor a dogma of life, but a *Sadhana* (striving) for it. And the speciality which distinguishes this *Sadhana* from similar religious approaches, is the successful attempt at a wholesome synthesis of the apparently opposing concepts of *Sanyas* (renunciation) and *Karma Yoga*-(action) in the evolution of a new religion of humanity. Added to these, Gandhiji's attempt to solve all the problems of human life through non-violence represents the highest urge of this age.

Gandhiji also aims at a classless society, but unlike Marx he exists the utmost purity of means along with ends. While Marx stresses on the power of the outward social institutions to mould the mind of man in a particular manner, Gandhiji's emphasis is on the power of the human mind itself. Himself a social revolutionary, Gandhiji did not believe in the destruction of the existing institutions. He felt that since social institutions are man's creation they can be destroyed only by bringing about a revolution in the human mind.

Geopolitics. A German School of political doctrine explaining political tendencies and developments by the laws of Geography. According to this school, necessities dictated by geographical conditions prove more effective in the long run than ethnical or ideological factors.

Guild Socialism : It is the British form of Syndicalism. The movement emerged in 1906 and advocated a restoration of the medieval guild system along modern lines, Guild

Socialists aim at the abolition of the wage system and the establishment of the worker's self-government in industry through a democratic system of national guilds working in conjunction with other democratic functional organisations.

Home Rule Movement : An Irish movement for self-government started about 1870.

Idealism : Political idealism originated with the Greek thought that "State is a self-sufficing entity identical with Society as a whole, and that man is social and political animal, who can attain his realization only as a member of the state." Modern idealism owes its development to the philosophy of Hegel preceded by the contributions of Kant and Fichte and followed by those of Green, Bradley and Bosanquet. According to Hegel, the state is "a self-actualizing individual" and has a personality and a will. The will of the state is the "general will"—the sum total of the best in the individual wills. The theory is purely abstract and metaphysical and lacks practical application.

Imperialism : The lust or passion for the extension of the dominions of a state, and thus the creation of an empire and the advocacy of a policy that would lead to such an enlargement. Modern Imperialism began in the eighties and the clash of rival imperialism was responsible for the two world wars. Marxist theory as developed by Lenin, described imperialism as the work of a number of powerful capitalists and financiers who compete in securing foreign markets and sources of raw materials and send their peoples to war for the profits they hope to derive from their economic empires.

Individualism : The principle exponents of the 19th century individualism were Bentham, Mill and Spenser. Their main contention was that there is an antithesis between the individuals and the state and the less the interference from the state, the better it will be for the fullest realization of the individual. They advocated free play to the laws of competition in the economic-field.

The 20th century individualism modified the earlier extreme view and recognised the group rather than the individual as the unit for political purposes. It affirmed that parallel to the state, groups like the Trade Union and the church guild also possessed a personality. The state was to be regarded only as a little more than a federation of groups.

Irredentism : From *Italia irredenta*—unredeemed Italy. Originally an Italian movement, which arose towards the end of the nineteenth century, for the attachment to Italy of the neighbouring Italian speaking regions in Austria and France. The term has since been employed to denote the movement

for annexation to any state of lands inhabited by people of a related origin or language.

Isolationism: The body of political opinion in the United States of America advocating non-interference in European affairs. Its strength has now considerably declined and the signing by U. S. A. of the North Atlantic Pact on April 4, 1949 has dealt the final death blow to this doctrine.

Jingoism: Provocative Patriotism.

King never, dies The: "The King is dead, long live the King". The implication is that the King may die as a person, but he never dies as an institution. The theory that the accession of the new monarch takes effect from the very moment of his predecessor's death, also explains the dictum.

Lapua Movement: A bourgeoisie movement organised in Finland in 1930 for the suppression of Communism. Adoption of violence by the Lapuists antagonised popular opinion and the movement did not survive long.

Laissez Faire: The theory that the State should refrain from all intervention in economic affairs. The phrase originated with the 18th century French economists, the Physiocrats, whose maxim was "let go and let pass" i.e. "leave the individual alone and let commodities circulate freely."

Leninism: A term used as an alternative for Communism as applied in practice in Russia under the direction of Vladimir Lenin.

Liberalism: The political and social theory associated with the Liberal Party in Britain, and similar parties elsewhere. In politics, it stands for parliamentary democracy, freedom of the press, speech and worship and the abolition of class privileges. Economically, the theory has been associated with *Laissez faire* and international free trade. The classical statement of Liberal principles is found in "On Liberty" and other works of J. S. Mill.

Marxism: The Socialist doctrine following the theories of Karl Marx. The theory is influenced by German philosophy, particularly the dialectical materialism of Hegel. It looks upon economic conditions as the basis of life, political and ideological system being merely the "super structure" above them. Its principal tenets are :

- (1) History is a series of class struggles ;
- (2) All value is product of labour ;
- (3) Capitalists pay the workers less and keep the "surplus value" for themselves ;
- (4) This exploitation leads to the creation of a starving proletariat, who rise in revolution and establish the "dictatorship of the proletariat" ;

- (5) Abolition of all private property and inequality of opportunity.
- (6) Establishment of a classless and stateless society whose guiding principle will be "from every body according to his capacity and to everybody according to his needs." Marxism is a complete and consistent philosophy which has influenced almost every branch of political and economic thought during the last 70 years.

Monroe Doctrine : Doctrine enshrined in a message sent to the United States Congress on December 2, 1823 by President James Monroe, declaring "that the American Continents, by the free and independent condition which they have assumed and maintained, are henceforth not to be considered as subjects of future colonisation by any European Powers". The doctrine is not, however, popular in the Latin-American States which suspect it of being an instrument of U. S. hegemony and economic penetration.

Nationalism : A general term for movements aiming at the strengthening of national feeling and tradition and particularly at the unification of a nation or its liberation from foreign rule. Nationalism has been a strong force in Asian Countries like India, China, Indonesia and Arab States during the last 50 years.

National Socialism : German nationalist movement led by Hitler. It professed extreme nationalism and practised racialism on the basis of the "Aryan" principle. The spirit and organisation of the party were militaristic. Democracy was denounced, while war, force and blood were exalted. A somewhat vague confession of "National Community" and the commonplace principle "Common interest before self interest" represented the Socialist proportion of the party creed, otherwise aggressive nationalism both in home and foreign affairs was its principal key-note. Nationalization of trusts and combines, elimination of whole-sale trade profits, strict control of the press and a strong central power in Germany were some of the important features of a 25-point programme that the National Socialists had set before them.

Nazism : The same as National Socialism. Derived from Nazi, a popular contraction for the German National Socialists.

Nihilism : An intellectual current in Russia in the reign of Alexander II (1855-82), which recognized no authority, doubted every general principle and value and stood for the freedom of the sovereign individual. Although Nihilism paved the way for revolutionary thought, it was a philosophical and literary school without any political action of its own.

Non-Co-operation Movement : Started in India by Mahatma Gandhi in 1920-22. The causes of the movement lay in the unsatisfactory character of the Montague-Chelmsford Reforms of 1919, in the passing of the Rowlatt Act which armed the authorities with exceptional powers for dealing with political offences and above all in the massacre of Jallianwalla Bagh at Amritsar. The main phases of the Campaign were boycott of Government institutions like schools, colleges and law courts, abandonment of British goods etc. The movement lasted for about two years, when it was suddenly suspended on account of the violence committed in the United Provinces.

Oxford Group Movement : A religious movement started by Dr. F. N. D. Buchman, an American revivalist. In 1928, the movement spread into England and came to be known as the Oxford Group Movement. It preached moral rearmament, and was suspected to be anti-communist and pro-Hitler before the outbreak of the last war.

Pacifism : The belief that violence should never be resorted to as a means of settling disputes. It advocates international peace at almost any price. The movement has staunch adherents in England and America.

Pan-Africanism : A state or community including all South Africans of Dutch ancestry.

Pan-Americanism : The idea of a political union between all the states of North and South America.

Pan-Arabic Movement : The movement striving for an all-Arab State or federation. It is founded on national feelings, but is hampered by the still strong tribal and regional feeling of the Arabs and by the rivalries of the various Arab States and rulers.

Pan Europe : A movement started by Count Nicholas Condehove Kalegi at Vienna in 1926. It aimed at the establishment of a European Federation with the exclusion of Russia. The movement ebbed out after initial successes.

Pan-Germanism : The aim of uniting all German-speaking people in a common empire. The movement started before the World war of 1914-18, which was later on taken up by Herr Hitler, and partially fulfilled by the annexation of Austria and Sudetenland. The movement also had Alsace-Lorraine, Luxemburg and German speaking Switzerland under its perview.

Pan-Islamism : A movement striving for close political co-operation among all Islamic peoples and in the end the establishment of an All-Islamic Empire or Federation.

Pan-Slavism : The idea of a common policy or even union of all slav peoples. Russia has been taking a leading part in

the movement since 1860, but is suspected of using it as an instrument of Russian imperialism.

Popular Front : A suggestion for political collaboration of Communists, Socialists and other democratic parties against Fascism, put forward by the Communist International in 1935. Popular Front Governments were set up in Spain and France but could not last long.

Real-Politik : The policy of placing the greatness and material success of one's own nation above every other consideration.

Salvation Army : An international Christian Organisation run on semi-military lines. It was established in 1877 under the inspiration of William Booth. Its social services include maternity homes, children's homes, industrial homes, slum posts and food depots. Particular attention is paid to the reclamation of "down-and-out", criminals and discharged prisoners, prostitutes and unmarried mothers etc. At present the army is active in 88 countries and the number of its full-time officers exceeds 14,000.

Sarvodaya Samaj : A Gandhian fellowship on an international scale started after the assassination of Mahatma Gandhi. It is not an organisation, but a voluntary brotherhood of constructive workers who have faith in the Gandhian ideals of truth and non-violence. The central idea of the way of *Sarvodaya* life is its basic creed, namely insistence on the purity of means in the same way as of ends. The Samaj maintains a register of Sevaks, i. e. persons who believe in the Gandhian ideals and want to take part in realizing them. Khadi, Harijan uplift, service of the Adibasis, leprosy relief work and promotion of communal harmony form part of their activities.

Shanti Seva Dal is its active organ engaged in restoring communal harmony. Another allied organisation is the *Sarva Seva Sangh*, whose function is to bring about a federation of the various institutions engaged in Gandhiji's constructive work.

Satyagraha : The name given to Mahatma Gandhi's movements of non-co-operation and non-violent civil disobedience. Truth and Ahimsa are the two cardinal principles of Satyagraha.

Shintoism : Japanese religion or national faith. This is a mixture of nature-worship and loyalty to the reigning dynasty as descendants of the Sun-goddess. Shintoism has played a great part in fanning the imperialist and militarist policies of Japan during the last war and before.

Socialism : 'A theory or policy of social organisation which aims at or advocates the ownership and control of the means

of production, capital, land, property, etc., by the community as a whole, and their administration or distribution in the interest of all'. (*Oxford English Dictionary*). The term is used both to cover all movements with this aim e. g. Communism, Anarchism, Syndicalism etc. and more narrowly for Evolutionary Socialism or Social Democracy. Principal thinkers on Socialist philosophy are Robert Owen, Karl Marx and George Bernard Shaw.

Syndicalism : Revolutionary labour movement advocating the ownership and control of each industry by the workers, organised in syndicates. It rejects parliamentary activity in favour of "direct action" by means of strikes, culminating in revolution. The syndicalist society will be based on a system of "pluralistic authority" and "functional economic organisation". The chief exponents of the syndicalist theory are Bakunin and Sorel.

Totalitarianism : A polity in which everything—material, mental, spiritual—is considered as belonging to, or owing complete allegiance to the state, and individual liberty is permitted only after all the uncontrolled demands of the state have been satisfied.

Trotskyism : School of Bolshevism named after Leon Trotsky (1877-1940), which put world revolution and the propagation of communism in other countries in the forefront, in contradistinction to the communism of Stalin, which concentrates on the socialist development of Russia.

Utilitarianism : A system of ethics which maintains that utility—the greatest good of the greatest number, as Bentham puts it—should be the guiding principle of the legislature.

Utopianism : A school of thinkers describing ideal human societies in books. The Utopians hoped to reach their aims not by revolution but by persistent propaganda of their ideas. Utopianism of the early 19th century can be said to be the starting point of modern socialism. Sir Thomas More was the first Utopian writer.

Zionism : A Jewish movement aiming at the establishment in Palestine of a Jewish State with its capital in Jerusalem, "The city of Zion.". The Zionist organization was established at Basle in 1897. In 1948, when Britain handed back the Palestinian mandate to U. N. O., the Jews in Palestine proclaimed the State of Israel, and realised their long cherished ambition.

NAMES OF WORLD'S PARLIAMENTS

Austria	... Raichsrath.	Egypt	... Barlamani.
Bulgaria	... Sobranje.	Eire	... Dail Eireann.
Denmark	... Rigsdag.	England	... Parliament.

France	... Chamber	Poland	... Sejm.
Germany	... Richstag.	Spain	... Cortes.
Iceland	... Althing.	Switzerland	... Federal Assembly.
Isle of Man	... Tynwald.	Turkey	... Grand Nation- al Assembly.
Italy	... Senate	U. S. A:	... Congress.
Japan	... Diet.	Yugo-Slavia	... Skupchina.
Netherlands	... States-General.		
Norway	... Storting		
Persia	... Majlis.		

THE UNITED NATIONS

Two big world wars within the life time of the present generation, each fiercer and more destructive than the other, and the second finishing with the entry in warfare of the awful atomic bomb, which if used in conjunction with equally destructive weapons in the next Third World War would certainly destroy major portion of the civilised world, brought home to all nations that unless an effective organisation was set up to combine all peace loving nations and by its effective voice and force deter any would-be aggressor to act like Hitler and Mussolini, and other such ambitious world conquerors, there would be no respite to mankind from this scourge of the world. Accordingly, while the Second World War was being fought, a tentative agreement was made by Churchill and Roosevelt on need for such an international collaboration when they met in mid Atlantic in 1941 and announced the Atlantic Charter. When the Moscow conference took place in 1943 the United Kingdom, U.S.A., U. S. S. R. and China made an open declaration to establish such an international organisation for maintaining world peace and security. The first draft of the United Nations Charter was drawn up by the United Kingdom, U. S. A., U. S. S. R. and China in 1944 in the Dumbarton Oaks. In 1945 the famous Yalta Conference took place in the Crimea, where a more definite shape was given to the Charter and the principle of the Veto was accepted by the big five; U. S. A., the United Kingdom, U. S. S. R., China and France. The announcement of the clauses of the Charter and the Veto was published during the San Francisco Conference, which was held at San Francisco, U. S. A., the same year and was agreed to there. Thus before the War ended, the United Nations Organization had come into being. The first general meeting of the Federal Assembly of the United Nations was held in January—February 1946 in London.

The first great challenge that tested the ability of the great organization as an effective force in world politics was flaunted

at its face by North Korean Red armies, which suddenly pounced upon the South towards the end of June, 1950, and inspite of the U.N. call to the North Koreans to stop fighting dashed forward to over-power the South in one big push and let the U.N. make in-effective protests, as Mussolini had flouted the League of Nations when attacking Abyssinia. But the U.N. is more vigorous than its predecessor, and its most leading members, like the U.S. and the U.K. would not now allow an aggressor nation to have its way and disturb the peace of the world and enjoy its spoils unchallenged. The U.N. wasted no time to ask the U.S. to rush its force, to meet the advancing Reds and meanwhile called upon its member nations to render whatever help they could in the common cause. The U.K., Australia, and Newzealand placed their warships at the disposal of the U.N.'s Supreme Commander, while Turkey and the U.K. sent whatever force they could spare, and India sent a batch of trained doctors and medical supplies and so also other nations fell in line with the U.N. The Chinese intervention in the conflict has created a difficult situation for the U.N. A resolution sponsored by 13 Asian and Middle East nations in the U.N. General Assembly's Political Committee, and introduced by Mr. B. N. Rau came up before the General Assembly requesting the President of the Assembly to constitute a group of three persons including himself who may call upon the combatants to cease hostility and immediately arrange for a cease fire line. Nothing came of it. Soon Mr. Vyshinsky suggested a truce between the opponents on certain conditions, which was readily accepted. Parleys have taken place with the Communists and a cease-fire is being arranged. Should this be peacefully brought about, it will be the first and the greatest triumph in the history of the U.N. and it will have vindicated its honour and prestige.

Chief Organs of the United Nations

1. The General Assembly
2. The Security Council.
3. Economic and Social Council.
4. Trusteeship Council.
5. International court of Justice.
6. Secretariat of the U.N.

Functions of the Chief Organs of the United Nations

1. The General Assembly

The General Assembly consists of all the members of the organization. It meets annually in September and can also be called into special session by the Secretary General at the request of the Security Council or a majority of the members of the United Nations.

Its Functions and Powers

The General Assembly may discuss any question or any matter within the scope of the U.N. Charter or relating to the

maintenance of international peace and security brought before it by any Member of the United Nations, or by the Security Council, or even by a State which is not a Member of the United Nations. It may make recommendations with regard to any such questions to the State or States concerned or to the Security Council or to both.

The General Assembly may call the attention of the Security Council to situations which are likely to endanger international peace and security.

It is to promote international co-operation in the economic, social, cultural, educational, and health fields, and assisting in the realisation of human rights and fundamental freedoms for all without distinction as to race, sex, language or religion.

It may recommend measures for the peaceful adjustment of any situation, regardless of origin, which it deems likely to impair the general welfare or friendly relations among nations, including situations resulting from a violation of the provision of the Charter.

Its total membership is 60, the Republic of Indonesia being the last to be chosen in September 1950.

2. The Security Council.

The primary responsibility with which this Council is entrusted is the maintaining of peace and security. The sixty members are bound to respect its decision, for if any member dares or tries to flout it, he tries to defeat the very purpose for which the U. N. has been brought into being.

It consists of five permanent members, who are (i) United Kingdom (ii) U. S. A. (iii) U. S. S. R. (iv) France and (v) China and six members elected by the General Assembly for a term of two years.

The present elected members are the following :—

(i) Ecuador (elected, Oct. 20, 1949), India (elected, October 29, 1949) Yugoslavia (elected, October, 20, 1949) Brazil (elected, Sept. 1950), Netherlands (elected, Sept. 1950) and Turkey (elected, Oct. 1950).

It is to be noted that the President of the Security Council holds his office only for one month and the next takes his place by alphabetical rotation of the name of his country.

It is to the Security Council that any aggrieved party to a dispute takes its case for redress. The council then determines whether it is a petty frivolous case, or, whether there is existence of threat to peace, or a breach of the peace or an act of real aggression has been done. It then decides what measures it should take to maintain or restore international peace or security.

If a party to a dispute does not bow to its decisions or its directions, it may call on its members (who are practically all the major countries of the world) to apply economic sanctions against the refractory party and break off diplomatic relations with it. In the last resort it may sanction such drastic actions as may involve actions by air, land or sea forces and thus restore international peace and security.

Economic and Social Council.

This is one of the most important organs of the U. N. as it was specially designed to remove the causes which lead to international unrest and dispute—the economic and social inequalities in different countries. Through it the U. N. tries to achieve International Co-operation by solving international problems of an economic, social, cultural or humanitarian character, and by promoting and encouraging respect for human rights and for fundamental freedom for all without distinction as to race, sex, language or religion.

The Council consists of 18 members of the United Nations elected by the General Assembly and meets four times a year. The members are elected for a term of three years.

Trusteeship Council.

When the affairs of the League of Nations were wound up and the U. N. came into existence, all the territories which were administered before the Second World War under the mandate system of the League of Nations were handed over under a new designation as "trusteeship" to U. N. which let them be administered by the same powers which were administering them under the mandate of the League of Nations. The only two exceptions have been, Nauru and the Pacific Islands which were previously under the Japanese mandate. Nauru is now under the joint administration of Australia, Newzealand and United Kingdom, while the U. S. A. has taken care of the Pacific Islands. The objectives of the Council are "to promote the political, economic, social and educational advancement of the inhabitants of the trust territories and their progressive development towards self-government or independence."

The following are the territories under the trusteeship system.

1. Cameroons (British), 2. Cameroons (French), 3. Nauru,
4. New Guinea, 5. Pacific Islands, 6. Ruanda Urundi,
7. Tanganyika, 8. British Togoland, 9. French Togoland,
- and 10. Western Samoa. They are under the trust respectively of 1. England 2. France 3. Australia etc. 4. Australia 5. U. S. A. 6. Belgium and 7. United Kingdom 8. France and 9. Newzealand.

Though in practice scant regard is paid to the high principles on which the U. N. wishes the Trust territories to be administered, still it expects those powers to whom the Trust Territories have handed over :—

To promote the political, economic, social and educational advancement of the inhabitants of the trust territories, and their progressive development towards self-government or independence as may be appropriate to the particular circumstances of each territory and its people and the freely expressed wishes of the people concerned, and as may be provided by the terms of each trusteeship agreement ;

To encourage respect for human rights and for fundamental freedoms for all without distinction as to race, sex, language or religion, and to encourage recognition of the interdependence of the peoples of the world : and

To ensure equal treatment in social, economic, and commercial matters for all Members of the United Nations and their nationals, and also equal treatment for the latter in the administration of justice, without prejudice to the attainment of the foregoing objectives.

International Court of Justice.

The International Court of Justice has been brought into existence to serve as the judicial organ of the U. N. All members have to be parties to the statute of the Court and bind themselves to comply with its decision in those cases to which they are parties.

The Court can take two kinds of actions. It may either deliver judgment in any contentious case between member states or it may simply give advisory opinion on legal questions.

The court consists of fifteen independent judges elected for nine years terms. In order to ensure a system of rotation, five judges were elected for nine years in 1946, when the first election took place, five for six years and five for three years. Official languages used are English and French. Questions are decided by a majority of the judges present. A decision has no binding force except between the parties and in respect of a particular case. There is no appeal against the decision of the court.

The Secretariat of the U. N.

The Secretariat comprises a Secretary General and staff to carry on the work of the various organs of the U. N. This staff has totalled nearly 5646. The Secretary General (at present Mr. Trygve Lie) has been reappointed by the General Assembly upon the recommendation of the Security Council. He is the chief administrative Officer of the U. N. Organization. His

salary is \$ 20,000 or (£ 5000) per year and he receives an allowance of an additional \$ 20,000 a year.

The Secretary General recruits officers for the administrative service of the Secretariat and is responsible for carrying on the decision of the General Assembly, the Security Council, and other organs of U. N. He acts as secretary at the meetings of its main organs.

The Secretary General is given the discretion to bring to the attention of the Security Council any matter which in his opinion may threaten the maintenance of international peace and security.

Various Subsidiary Agencies of the U. N.

GENERAL ASSEMBLY

A

1. Administrative and Budgetary Committee.
2. Advisory Committee for Administrative and Budgetary Questions.
3. Committee on Contributions.
4. Credentials Committee.
5. Economic and Financial Committee.
6. General Committee.
7. Interim Committee.
8. Legal Committee.
9. Political and Security Committee.
10. Social, Cultural, and Humanitarian Committee.
11. Trusteeship Committee.

SECURITY COUNCIL

B

1. Atomic Energy Commission.
2. Commission for Conventional Armaments.
3. Committee on Admission of New Members.
4. Committee of Experts.
5. Military Staff Committee.

ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COUNCIL

C

1. Agenda Committee.
2. Co-ordination Committee for Specialised Agencies.
3. Committee on Negotiations with Non-Governmental Agencies.
4. Committee on Negotiations with Specialised Agencies.
5. Committee on Organisation of the Council.
6. Economic and Employment Commission.
7. Economic Commission for Europe.
8. Economic Commission for Latin America.
9. Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East.
10. Fiscal Commission.
11. Human Rights Commission.
12. Narcotic Drugs Commission.
13. Population Commission.
14. Social Commission.
15. Statistical Commission.
16. Transport and Communication Commission.

D
TRUSTEESHIP COUNCIL
E
INTERNATIONAL COURT OF JUSTICE
F
SECRETARIAT

MEMBER STATES OF THE U. N.

Afghanistan, Argentina, Australia, Belgium, Bolivia, Brazil, Byelorussian, S.S.R., Canada, Chile, Nationalist China, Columbia, Costa Rica, Cuba, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Dominican, Ecuador, Egypt, El Salvador, Ethiopia, France, Greece, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Iceland, India, Pakistan, Iran, Iraq, Lebanon, Libya, Luxembourg, Mexico, Netherlands, Newzealand, Nicagua, Norway, Panama, Paraguva, Peru, Philippines, Poland, Saudi Arabia, Siam, Sweden, Syria, Turkey, Ukrainian S. S. R., Union of South Africa, Union of Soviet Social Republics, United Kingdom, United States of America, Uruguay, Venezuela, Yemen, Yugoslavia, Israel and the Republic of Indonesia.

Flag of the U. N. O. A wreathed globe on a light blue ground.

THE WORLD DRAMA

1. THE BATTLE SLOGANS

The Cold War.

What is the difference between 1950 and 1951? What were the developments that separated these years as distinctly as two eras? Many observers think that changes which marked the break between 1951 that has ended and 1952 that has opened, were as follows :—

- (1) The American monopoly of atomic bomb seems to have come to an end. It is now confirmed that Russia also has some types of atomic weapons.
- (2) The entire Chinese mainland is now firmly under the Communist control, under the powerful leadership of Mao Tse Tung.
- (3) The British and the Dutch empires have disappeared from South-East Asia, India, Pakistan, Indonesia, Burma, Ceylon and the Philippines and Israel have consolidated their independence and are rapidly becoming important factors to be reckoned with.
- (4) The colonial areas like Indo-China and Malaya still remain unsettled.
- (5) The entire Western Asia has become restless owing to the conflict with the British Power and the Arabs' desire to get rid completely of British influence from that area.
- (6) The Soviet Union seems to be losing its grip on the Central European States under its domination and Titoism seems to be spreading all over that area.
- (7) European re-armament has made steady progress so as to tip the balance in favour of the Western Powers. Rapid recovery of Germany and the probable revival of the German Army has considerably strengthened the bargaining power of the Western Powers.
- (8) The stalemate in the Korean War has greatly reduced the Soviet Power of offensive and there seems to be second thoughts among the Soviet leaders regarding the East-West Conflict.

Six Post-War Years.

The six years that followed World War II have been unlike any other six-year period in the history of the World. These six years have seen more countries emerge as free nations than any other comparable span before. Especially in Asia, the once

backward peoples, took their seat at the feast of man as equals. Conversely, these six years have brought new slavery to more nations than any other six years in recorded history. This retrogression is especially to be noticed in East Europe and on the fringes of that vast Eurasian land mass known as Russia. Opinions may differ as to what constitutes real freedom and what spells slavery. Opinions may differ also as to whether the right to vote freely and secretly is more important than bread. But freedom as defined according to the 19th century Liberalism spread to many parts of Asia, while it evaporated from many parts of Europe. This is the great change in the world balance that the thinking people cannot ignore.

If we forget the previous five years and concentrate on 1951, another change stands out in bold relief 1951 saw Europe and North Africa tormented by conflicts—Berlin, Yugoslavia, Egypt, Tunisia etc. On the other hand, 1951 brought open outbreaks of violence to large segments of Asia—China, Malaya, Burma, Indo-China, Korea and Tibet. But there was one big difference. In Europe, Russia and America came face to face and any fighting there, meant a battle between the two titans. In Asia, on the other hand, especially in Korea, America and her Allies were directly involved. But on the opposite side in actual combat were Russia's Allies and not Russia itself. The Asian soil thus suited Russia and placed the West at a disadvantage. This was the reason why America decided to fight "limited wars" in Korea, Formosa, and Indo-China. The West was fearful lest it bogged down in the far crevices of Asia. It wanted to keep its main forces intact in case war came to Europe. Both the sides still regard Europe as the Valley of Decision.

The Struggle for Power.

The modern man's point of view as the year 1952 opened was inevitably governed by what happened on Monday August 6, 1945, when the first atom-bomb fell on Hiroshima. In one moment this ancient race of ours had added a thousand years more to its age. Thus 1945 was the year of atomic fission. 1947 saw the geographic fission of nations. The process continued to the closing weeks of 1951. The changes were so rapid that a map plotted yesterday became outmoded today. What is more, this period also produced a fission of human hearts.

Humanity seemed marching backwards. Why? The Harvard Sociologist Sorokin says that we are in the midst of "the crisis of our age" of which 1951 is the latest landmark. What is the meaning of this crisis? The Chicago Sociologist Augburn has evolved the theory of "the cultural lag". Man has progressed far and wide physically but almost stayed out mentally. The progress in the field of tools and techniques (which Professor R. M. MacIver describes as "civilisation") has

outdistanced the snail-like progress in the field of value-enlargement (which MacIver calls "culture"). Our means are mightier than our ends. Modern technology has focussed the majesty of the earth which our minds can comprehend, but to which our hearts cannot respond. We are prepared intellectually but unprepared emotionally. The world has become one, but humanity is more divided. This is the cultural lag which has introduced the sickness of civilisation.

The opening of the fateful year 1952 requires loyalty to humanity. The brave new world must be founded on a firm sense of world citizenship. This is the dream that lies behind the United Nations. And yet, as our physical world becomes larger, our loyalties are becoming smaller. Leaving aside even the United Nations, even nations, united until yesterday, are disintegrating. There were parallel Governments in no less than seven countries as the year 1952 opened.

Two Worlds.

This increasing insularity of man reflected itself in the ever widening gulf between America and Russia as the year 1951 came to a close. Taking into account what was happening in Korea, Indo-China, Germany, etc., it became clear that there existed two worlds where there ought to be only one. Two nations were actually pitted against each other and they became the focal points around which rival and hostile blocs formed. The supreme conundrum of our time, according to the West, is : What is Russia up to ? On the other hand, the East asked: How and when America is going to use the atom bomb ?

That raised a basic question among the political scientists : can the two ideologies live together in this one world ? To use an Indian figure of speech "Can two swords remain in one sheath?" Can capitalistic democracy co-exist with Communist totalitarianism? Doubting Thomases said, "No", and cited chapter and verse from Lenin : "It is inconceivable that the Soviet Republic should continue to exist for a long period, side by side, with Imperialist States .. ultimately one or the other must conquer". The Commintern was based upon this historic determinism. Ideological loyalty was to transcend national loyalty, and the workers of the world were to be united to destroy national States and to consummate world revolution.

For a brief period during the Second World War, Stalin modified Lenin. He asserted that "capitalism and communism can co-exist". He co-operated with Roosevelt and dissolved the Commintern. That this alliance did not last long was not entirely Stalin's fault. However, 1947 saw him organising Cominform. To the West that looked like old wines into new bottles. A process of disillusionment for the West started, with the COUP D' ETAT in Czechoslovakia in 1948. The process

of disillusionment for the Eastern Bloc started with America's unwillingness to part with atomic secrets.

It is not a simple question of ideology that separates the U. S. S. R. from the U. S. A. It is a cultural conflict. Western democratic culture is an outcome of historic growth. So is the culture of India. The Bolshevik culture, on the other hand, is rationally arbitrary. The Bolshevik culture is neither Eastern like that of India nor Western like that of Britain. It is a blueprint culture with no historic fountainheads.

This cultural conflict percolates down to a semantic conflict. When the Western man talks about democracy, he means, among other things, equality before law. When a communist talks about democracy, he means, among other things, economic equality. Both cherish different values, and even when they cherish the same values in common, their systems of priorities are different. It is a question of emphasis. It is Liberalism versus totalitarianism, free will versus determinism, individualism versus collectivism, and Parliamentarianism versus Kremlinism.

Here a consideration of ends and means should be introduced. The revolutionary ideology of communism justifies all means if the end is worthy. Democracy believes, on the other hand, in fair play, and although they do not go as far as Mahatma Gandhi in placing greater emphasis upon the purity of means than upon ends, they do believe that means should be legal and constitutional. It is ballots versus bullets. There are two ethical systems now prevailing in the world. Neither is inferior to the other, as there are no time-honoured and universally accepted values. It is a question of choice.

Eurasian Heartland.

One of the ways of looking at the world struggle for power is in the light of what Sir Halford J. MacKinder said so prophetically some years ago. His theory of the Heartland might provide a pair of good glasses through which to view the world in turmoil. For indeed, the world is in turmoil ; cold war is going on in Greece, in Berlin, in Turkey, Iran and Malaya while Indo-China and Korea are in the grip of real fighting. It may be that these areas do not border on the Heartland ; in fact they are on the coast line and in between them and the Eurasian Heartland, there runs a band.

MacKinder's three prophetic propositions were :—

1. Who rules East Europe commands the Heartland.
2. Who rules the Heartland commands the World Islands.
3. Who rules the World Islands commands the World.

The politico-geographic concept of the Heartland concentrated either round Russia or China, but now both are the same, and

the existing real Heartland far exceeds that land mass that MacKinder had envisaged. There is no doubt that Russia now commands East Europe. It has incorporated within itself the Baltic States, part of Finland, East Prussia, East Poland, and Bessarabia. Its influence spreads over Finland, Poland, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Rumania, Bulgaria, Albania and parts of Germany and Austria. On the Asian side, even Tibet has now come under control of Red China. The only thing that remains out of the Heartland are Persia and Afghanistan. They too are feeling the pressure of what is described as the "invulnerable hugeness of Russia."

Thus it is clear that Russia commands East Europe and is in possession of the Heartland. But modern technology has negatived the third proposition of MacKinder that whoever rules the World Islands commands the world. That still is an open question.

Ideas are Weapons

The mere fact of possessing a huge and disciplined army does not seem to lead to durable success even for any great power. Hitler and the Nazis possessed both. Nevertheless, Hitler was neither successful in winning people to his ideology nor was he able to keep the people down for a long time under threat of military occupation. This was because of universal mass education and partly owing to the growing popular interest in the affairs of the State among the common people. It is becoming increasingly difficult for politicians to make people accept ideas which they do not seem to think to be right. Although the machinery of the State has become more complicated than before and although the means of controlling public opinion seems to have made remarkable progress, yet it seems that hold to their beliefs even more strongly than they did before. That is probably the reason why the Communist strategy all over the world has been to influence people's minds and to capture their imagination by attractive proposals. This has led to a crisis in public relations which is having its repercussion all over the world. People seem to be divided into two opposite camps and hold hard fast to their political beliefs as unshakable religious dogmas. There is no desire to give and take and no intention of compromising on the fundamental objectives of the two hostile political conceptions. Politics is no longer based on parliamentary practice of looking at things more as a sport than as a "*weltanschauung*." This has complicated the task of the statesmen all over the world, for everybody believes that he and his party or his country, as the case may be, are absolutely right. Owing to this irreconcilable view on politics and society the conflict which is rising all over the world has assumed such dangerous proportions.

Yet another way of looking at the crisis of our age is to view it as a contest between local parliamentary governments on the one hand and Communist dictatorships centrally controlled from the Kremlin, on the other. So far as Russia is concerned, political and military measures are interchangeable. There can be a peace offensive in Moscow. There can be a cultural conference in Warsaw. There can be a strike in France. In Czechoslovakia there can be an armed insurrection. In Greece and Korea, there can be outright invasions. Guerrilla operations might pervade the Philippines, Malaya and Burma. There can be a second hand occupation of Tibet. War of nerves might tear Turkey and Iran. Yugoslavia can be treated as a PARIAH. Afghanistan can become a centre of intrigue. Last but not least, there can be a revolution in China. All these are different weapons utilized to wage the same war directed from the Kremlin.

On the other hand, America too employed military measures that are half-political. Until now, America tried to ally itself with nationalism in Asia in order to contain Communism. This resulted in America supporting some archaic and reactionary regimes. Now, America realises that unless it also sponsors "reform" it has slight chance of catching the imagination of the backward races in Asia. America has decided, it seems, to take a leaf from the Communist text book. The Communists believe in concentrating on the peasant mass of the villages and at the same time in concentrating on intellectual youths of the cities. Thus America is now on the eve of providing aid not only to Governments in Asia but also to non-Governmental individuals and agencies. Individual Americans aligning themselves with local social movements in the far corners of the earth, is in the American tradition. They are supposed to rally round them local talents who have mass contacts.

The strategy of both sides conforms to the military philosophy of the German Clausewitz, who said "War is to be regarded not as an independent thing but as a political instrument."

Communism vs. Welfare State.

The enemy, whether real or imagined, always affects one's way of life. While fighting Hitler, democracies developed certain Hitlerian overtones; such is the tragedy of conflict. The same holds true of the battle between capitalism and communism. The challenge of a class-less society has sent democracies rethinking. The "myth" of economic equality had to be countered by the "myth" of a Welfare State. More concretely, capitalist democracies had to rethink the problem of labour-capital management-States relations. Even America is forced to do so inspite of the miracles that the system of free enterprise

has wrought there; it now supports a population 27 times as large as in 1850 and at a standard of living ten times as high.

Unless the labourer stops being a machine, repeating the same movement some 10,000 times a day and thus losing the creative delight that comes out of responsibility, he will not be an enlightened human being, and as such he will remain an easy prey to the Communist ideology. So he must have a hand in the management also, and he must have the securities that only a Welfare State could provide. Even India's Nehru in his speech at the Delhi Congress committed his Government to the idea of a Welfare State.

Not only that. All over the world the challenge thrown by Marxism seems to have revolutionised peoples' minds to an extent never known before. The success of the Communist Party in China and the revolt of the masses in South-East Asia against the miserable conditions under which they live have made people realise that the doctrines of Karl Marx have an appeal to a larger number of people than the old theoretician had ever believed. Even in Western Europe where 1951 saw a swing towards the Right, it was clear that some of the objectives for which Communism stood were now included even in the political programmes of Liberal and Conservative Parties. In England, during the Elections of October 1951, the Conservative Party led by Mr. Churchill had to assure the British people that the Conservatives would in no way interfere with the social benefits which the labour Government had secured for them. On the other hand, Titoism has in some remarkable way made it obvious to the capitalist countries that there are forms of Communism which are capable of co-existing with the capitalist type of society. The U.S. and the Western European countries had agreed to help the Yugoslavia Government although neither Marshall Tito nor the ruling classes in Yugoslavia have renounced their belief in Communism. Thus it seems that the effect of the existence of the largest Communist State in the world, namely, Soviet Union, will be far-reaching. Besides, a revolution like the Bolshevik Revolution which has survived for more than 30 years has within it certain forces which cannot be totally ignored. In other words, it has become a respectable revolution. The French Revolution which had transformed feudal society had received greater opposition within a shorter time than the Bolshevik Revolution. The defeat of Napoleon had in the 19th century put a stop to the revolutionary ardour of the French Jacobins at least for a while. Inspite of the defeat of revolutionary France, some of the ideas for which the French revolutionaries stood, came to be slowly incorporated in the social framework of the 19th century.

Similarly, it appears that even a total defeat of Communism would not defeat some of the ideas which the Communists

have propagated all over the world. The only way to forestall communism seems to accept some of the causes which lead to communism and to remove them. The conception of the Welfare State springs from this belief. Pandit Nehru in India, Mr. Attlee in England and many other far-sighted politicians all over the world think that a head-on-collision between capitalism and communism will serve no useful purpose. Hence we see the growing desire all over the world to improve the social conditions of the workers and the peasants.

The Grey Report.

America's world strategy, mainly based on reconstruction in Europe and construction in Asia, was far from successful as the Marshal Aid Plan to Europe began to wind up in several countries of Europe during the closing months of 1951.

Gorden Grey, President Truman's chief adviser on foreign economic policy said that the newly established non-Communist Governments were on trial before their own people and they would stand or fall by their economic policies.

All through the period of Marshal Aid, Asia was relatively neglected. Some countries did get certain token sums and then there was the Point Four Programme of Technical Aid to Backward Areas. But even the terms of the technical aid were not settled until the last months of 1950. According to Gordon Grey, recovery was slow in South East Asia, because of the "dislocations and damage caused by World War II, difficulties associated with subsequent transitions from dependent to independent status, wars and civil disturbances and the continued menace of Soviet aggression."

On the point of India, Gorden Grey had this to say. "India has the most difficult problem, both short and long-term; drawing on Sterling Balance of \$ 1600 millions and a \$ 100 million loan from the International Monetary Fund, supplemented by the first drawing on International Bank loans, covered current account deficits from 1945 to 1949. This did not permit any appreciable rise in consumption standard or net addition to the existing capital; indeed it is doubtful that capital has been maintained".

So far as the Grey Report is concerned, it recommends dealing with the Sterling Area as a whole. Urging the encouragement of the convertibility of Sterling, the report states: "When and if Britain has met the conditions essential to convertibility, other than accumulation of adequate gold and dollar reserves, it may be in the interest of the U. S. A. to assist Britain in proceeding the rest of the way by making available financial assistance such as stabilization credit, sufficient to supplement Britain's own gold and dollar reserves".

Colombo Plan.

The mention of possible dollar aid directly to India was deleted at the eleventh hour from the Grey Report on the ground that any such aid should be contingent on a reduction of India's Sterling Balances. Perhaps the gap was also intended to be filled by the Colombo Plan for Co-operative Economic development in South and South East Asia, presented to the Indian Parliament on 28th November, 1950. India is to contribute a sum up to rupees 1 crore in the next three years. All in all, the Colombo Plan envisages the investment of more than £ 2000 millions within six years, beginning July 1951, and aims at increased food production and improvement of communications. The main expenditure will be in India—around £ 13,000 million in the next six years, nearly 1½ times the size of the original U. S. loan to Britain in 1945. India will provide just over half of itself. That is in the snag. That snag pervades the whole Plan. Besides the contributed money by the benefitting States, the question of raising £ 1,100 million will remain. Coveting eyes are once more cast on U. S. A. The Colombo Plan is aimed at the following results :

Firstly, to increase cultivated land by 13,000,000 acres, an increase of 2½ per cent.

Secondly, to increase irrigated land by 13,000,000 acres an increase of 17 per cent.

Thirdly, to increase by 6,000,000 tons the production of food grains, an increase of 10 per cent.

Fourthly, to increase by 1·1 million kilowatts electrical generating capacity, an increase of 67 per cent.

A sum of £1,686,000,000 will be spent thus :—34 per cent — transportation and communications.

32 per cent—agriculture, including river valley developments schemes :

·8 per cent—housing, health and education ;

10 per cent—industry and mining excluding coal ;

6 per cent—fuel and power.

Will the Colombo Plan remain a paper Plan ? This was being asked actively in all the countries of South East Asia. The whole thing seems to have bogged down to inaction. The Report itself said :

"And speed is necessary. In a world racked by schism and confusion it is doubtful whether men can long afford to leave undeveloped and imprisoned in poverty the human resources of the countries of South and South-East Asia which could help so greatly to restore the world's prosperity, but also to redress its confusion and enrich the lives of all men everywhere."

The lives of all men everywhere! That is what is at stake. Will the more prosperous nations pay any heed to this warning?

Asian Psychology.

The raging conflict between the East and the West is often confused with the traditional meanings of the terms. Before 1944, the East meant Asia (sometimes including Africa) which was under the Imperialistic heels of West-European countries and of the United States. The latter countries were lumped together with the term "West".

Although the conflict between the Russian bloc and the American bloc overshadowed everything else, and although the vanishing Empires in Asia largely removed the traditional cause of grievance, certain limited conflicts of culture, ideas and interests continued between Asia and the Western World. Asia's grievances as catalogued by some experts at the Lucknow Conference of the Institute of Pacific Relations included, continued, although milder, attitudes of racial superiority, especially in Africa; Western support given to reactionary groups in Asia; the expectation that Asia should play an economic role complementary to Western industries; America's greater interest in the Welfare of Europeans than in the welfare of Asians; domination coming under the new guise of economic aid.

As Robert North, an American wit, put it: "If the West gives aid, it will be feared for its Imperialism; if it withholds it, it will be denounced for its indifference. In other words, we are damned if we do and damned if we don't". Perhaps the fault lies in both the camps. Asia, newly important, is still oversensitive. The West newly converted, is under the impression that it need not explain its conversion and that suspicions should have died long ago.

That the West should do much more than merely "contain Communism" in Asia was realised by no less a person than Lester B. Pearson, who described the Asian situation as more than a military problem. The LIFE magazine wrote: "But machines still cannot talk to people, not as we must learn—and learn very soon—to talk to the people of Asia."

Standard of Living.

The idea of economic equality that Russia spreads has often proved mightier than actual Dollars distributed by America. For actual relief invariably falls short of expectations, while a promise remains ever rosy. This is the reason why a revolutionary ideology moves more men than a reform movement. Galvanised by the picture of the promised land, masses have little inclination to make even a statistical comparison to prove to their own disillusionment that the world's leading Socialist State has a lower standard of living than the world's leading capitalist

State. What is more, there are other countries besides America which provide more goods and services to their peoples than does the Soviet Union. According to the Statistic Office of United Nations, the following is the estimate of per capita income in industrialised and semi-industrialised nations :—

<i>Country</i>	<i>Per Capita Income</i>
U. S. A.	.. \$ 1453
Canada	.. \$ 870
Great Britain	.. \$ 773
U. S. S. R.	.. \$ 308

II. AMERICAN STRATEGY

An incontrovertible fact emerged out of the World War II, the fact of American power. This fact was so gigantic that America singlehanded equalled to the rest of the world. American production both during the War and its aftermath surpassed the combined production of the world left out. America could maintain its extremely high standard of living and at the same time clothe, feed and finance many countries of Europe and Asia. America's production, both actual and potential, reached a peak unimaginable a few years back. Added to this was the Atom Bomb, though there were reports that Russia had perfected its atomic manufacturing plant. America is a young country. It has the generosity of the youth and also youth's cruelty. Americans display a youthful swagger. It is a country of 141 millions optimists who regard the sky as the limit. It is a nation which regards that the future lies in front of you and not behind.

America was Promises

America was dreams. It was an idea-society, consciously planned. It was for centuries the promised-land where the oppressed of the world found a refuge and opportunity. America's home-front was so large that it looked endless. There grew the legend of the "social-ladder". Everybody could improve his status through hard work and pluck. Each American was a potential millionaire. Each American mother thought that her son was a potential President of the United States. This legend was sustained by such conspicuous examples as that of Abraham Lincoln. Lincoln was born in a long-cabin but he landed in the White House.

The great depression of thirties exploded this myth. It made American people realise with a start that America's frontier was exhausted. The era of new millionaires and multi-millionaires was over. For centuries the dream that was America

had inspired the rest of the world. Now the American idea lost its power to inspire foreign folks.

America acquired world power through internal growth and not through external conquest. In this respect America was unlike Rome, Britain, France or Portugal. America's greatness was organic and not acquired. American power is a fact, not a fabrication.

Because of all this, there grew a feeling of self-sufficiency. Americans could grow and produce practically everything at home and sell practically everything at home. There was no need to look beyond the frontier. In consequence, there was no American Policy outside the Monroe Doctrine. If there was at all a foreign policy, it was summed up in the famous phrase of George Washington "no entanglements abroad."

At the end of the 2nd World War, a giant awoke. America experienced self-realisation. It became conscious of its preponderant power. There was a new recognition that America is the mightiest nation in the world. This amounted to believing that America was the world; that events everywhere in the world affected the interests of the United States. Thus America became susceptible to injury from any adverse developments anywhere on earth.

America found itself. America also found at the conclusion of the War that it was challenged by Russia. America was confronted with a World Revolution; the Russian Plan. In reply, America engineered another World Revolution; the American Plan. Now that the American dream was lost and the Communist myth was rampant, America used dollars. It tried to confront ideology with technology. It tried to supplant ideas with weapons. It started a world wide good-will campaign. It opened schools and hospitals and libraries and charity funds in countries less advanced and less fortunate. It offered scholarships to foreign students. It opened publicity centres on all the continents. The beams of the American ratio encircled the globe. There was Hollywood to boot.

The Truman Doctrine.

A four-pronged Foreign Policy was enunciated by President Truman in the course of his inaugural address of January 22nd, 1949. The first point enunciated by President Truman indicated the evolution of the Atlantic Pact. The Second point touched the Marshall Plan. The 16 Marshall Plan nations needed 5 billion dollars between July 1949 and 1950. American financial aid to foreign countries, including unpaid balances on World War First loans, totalled around 92,169 million dollars. The Lend-Lease programme alone had cost America around 16 billion dollars. The third point in the President's programme

was the American support to the United Nations. The fourth and the final point interested countries like India most. It related to the development of backward countries. Said President Truman "We must embark on a new bold programme for the improvement of under developed areas." Here was an Asian Plan in embryo. But the Truman Doctrine, fired by Dean Acheson, was more effective in Greece and Turkey.

The Atlantic Powers.

The culmination of America's post-war Foreign Policy is to be found in the Atlantic Pact. Russia had by this time erected its "Iron Curtain." America sought to counteract the Russian Iron Curtain with its own "Steel Frame" of the Atlantic Pact. The analogy of the Maginot Line versus the Siegfried Line comes to mind. Here was the birth of the New Atlantis. A new community came into existence. The community owed its origin to dual influence, geographical and ideological. The birth of the Atlantic Pact was the single greatest event since the birth of the United Nations.

On March 5, 1946, at Foulton, Missouri, Winston Churchill had proposed in the presence of President Truman a "fraternal association" between America and Britain, backed by a military alliance. At that time, people's faith in the United Nations was running high and even the Anglo-Saxon jingoists criticised Churchill for proposing something that would detract from the world organisation. But by January 20th 1949, when President Truman made his inaugural speech, this faith in the United Nations had been dissipated to a large measure. The mightiest of the world were pinning their faith upon their own intrinsic strength and upon alliances which they could conclude with friendly nations. There was an armament race and in this repeat the immediate aftermath of the Second World War differed from the immediate aftermath of the First World War. President Truman proposed "collective defence arrangement to strengthen the North Atlantic area." The time was ripe and Western Europe and the Western Hemisphere acclaimed the idea.

Washington was the seat of negotiations and the American State Department the convenor. The parleys started on December 19, 1948. No time was lost in preparing tentative drafts as the Pan-American Defence Pact of 1947 was accepted as a model. The main feature of the pact was that an attack upon one American country was to be interpreted as an attack upon all. This was to be the cardinal principle which would distinguish the Atlantic Pact.

The framers of the Atlantic Pact were conscious of a certain contradiction. They had gathered together because to a certain extent they had lost hope in the United Nations. At

the same time, they could not openly disavow their support of the United Nations. They, therefore, sought refuge under Article 52 of the United Nations Charter which provides that "nothing precludes the existence of regional arrangement of agencies for dealing with such matters relating to the maintenance of international peace and security as are appropriate for regional action."

The preamble to the Atlantic Pact affirmed that the parties to the treaty had banded together to promote stability and well-being in the North Atlantic area. They were uniting their efforts for collective defence and for peace and security. The crux of the North Atlantic Treaty is to be found in Article 5 which reads : "The Parties agree that an armed attack against one or more of them in Europe or North America shall be considered as an attack against all and consequently they agree that if such an armed attack occurs, each of them, in exercise of the right of individual or collective self-defence recognised by Article 51 of the Charter of the United Nations, will assist the party or parties so attacked by taking forthwith, individually and in concert with the other parties, such action as it deems necessary, including the use of armed force, to restore and maintain the security of the North Atlantic Area."

Article 6 of the North Atlantic treaty defined the North Atlantic Area on grounds other than purely geographical. It reads : "For the purpose of Article 5 armed attack on one or more of the parties is deemed to include an armed attack on the territory of any of the parties in Europe or North America, on the Algerian Department of France, on the Occupation Forces of any party in Europe, on the Icelands under the jurisdiction of any party in the North Atlantic area, North of the Tropic of Cancer, or on the vessels or aircraft in this area of any of the parties." This comprehensive definition of the New Atlantis signified that it was the West that was uniting and not merely a geographic or oceanic area. As 1952 opened General Eisenhower remained the Supreme Commander of a new kind of Army, the like of which the world has never seen before. He, an American, had Command over Frenchmen, Englishmen, Belgians, and Dutch and probably also the Germans who had fought, Eisenhower's Army only a few years ago. From the suburbs of Paris orders go to all parts of Europe and America and men who had been bitter enemies in the last century or even in this, obey these orders. This is the miracle of the Atlantic Pact :

N.A.T.O in Action.

The first thing that strikes about Atlantic Pact is that its preamble recognises the supremacy of the United Nations Charter, and yet it is because of the admitted impotence of the World Organisation that the North Atlantic Military Community is born To that extent, the United Nations is weakened.

The second thing that strikes is the constitutional somersault taken by America. Traditionally, America avoided entanglements during peace-time. Now America has invited entanglements during peace-time. Yet this fundamental change in American Policy is counter-balanced by the fact that the right of declaring war is still retained by the U. S. Congress.

The third thing that strikes is the top priority given to the Treaty in Article 8. The North Atlantic Treaty supersedes all previous undertakings of individual signatories.

The fourth thing to be noted is that some 250 million people of seven different countries possessing a major part of world's industrial capacity are directly involved in the pact to start with. America emerges as the centre and also as the repository of the instrument of accession. But Article 10 leaves the door open only for European countries. Presumably no American country save Canada and the United States is to be considered Atlantic. This is perhaps to avoid complications with the existing Pan-American Union. A clear definition of "Attack" is given in Article 6, to the extent that internal revolution is distinguished from an attack from outside. This reserves the people's right to revolt against their own Government as granted in the American constitution.

The Sixth Article which calls for propagation of democratic principles contains the germ of a Western counterpart of the Eastern Cominform. The idea was growing to support not only governments, but private groups and individuals also. Americans in foreign countries are to participate in local social movements.

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III. ENGLAND AT THE SIDE

The bloc confronting the Russian bloc is more often described as "Anglo-American" than purely as an "American." It is a great achievement for a nation playing a supporting role.

No other country in the world could have staged so startling a come-back which Great Britain did after the ravages of the Second World War. Out of the total British casualties of 7,55,429 some 2,64,443 youngmen were killed. The War completely disrupted the British economy and deprived England of the flowers of its youth. And yet, at the end of the War, the British people were ready to go through even greater hardships so that their country would continue to enjoy a pre-eminence it had enjoyed for centuries. The British people were grateful to Churchill whom they regarded as the main factor in winning the war. And yet, their political maturity, told them

that Churchill was no man of peace. Churchill was unhorsed while Attlee mounted. But as years went on and the British recovery was slow, they decided to try Churchill again and one does not know for how long.

Greater than the physical damages were the psychological scars. Britannia, which for centuries ruled the waves, was reduced to the status of a second rate power from the point of view of its actual strength. This demanded of the British people a great psychological adjustment. Once the rulers of the world, they had to reconcile themselves to changed time and, in the end, by the sheer force of their morale and perseverance, they kept their country in the front rank of nations.

The British Isles, which are some 93,591 sq. miles, are perhaps the most densely populated areas in the World; there being some 47,755,000 people. The density per sq. mile is 508.1.

The Export Drive.

Four approaches have enabled England to retain its position as the third greatest power on earth, even though its actual physical strength is much less. First of all, by organising the Western Union, with its eventual incorporation in the Atlantic Pact, Britain has solidified not only Europe, but its own position. Secondly, by a super-human production drive, coupled with severe austerity measures, Britain has turned its deficit budget into a surplus budget; the Cripps budget of 1949 astounded the world by its large surpluses. Yet there was very little of the loosening of controls; ration system continued for many necessities of life. The austere people were urged to further tighten their belts and there was no relief in taxation. The export drive of Great Britain brought about the anomaly where the British manufactured goods were cheaper outside England than at home. Britain also exercised the "Debtor's right"; it paid its creditor only to the extent that could be borne by its economy. According to the 19th century standard, this could have been condemned as shameless, but in the 20th century it is thought fashionable.

The third measure for maintaining Britain's pre-eminence, pertains to the Empire. Britain's vast holdings in Asia had mostly gone by 1950. A few colonies that remained in Asia were as much of liabilities as assets. They too were on the eve of emancipation. But by turning their attention to Africa, Britain strove to make up its losses in Asia. The vast development plans that Britain had for Africa cost the British people a great deal of money.

Socialism vs. Communism.

In spite of these changes, in spite of the problems of demobilisation and food rationing and export drive, the Socialist

Government of England had the time and the aptitude to bring a revolution through legislation. Inspite of all these perplexing preoccupations, the Labour Government went full speed ahead in the direction of nationalisation in order to consummate the Socialist Revolution and thus to offer to the world the spectacle of a successful non-violent revolution. Mines, railways, long distance road transport, gas, electricity and the Old Lady of Threadneedle Street (the Bank of England) were placed under national ownership. So went steel. Extremists like Aneurin Bevan had their eye on the chemical industry, the industrial insurance companies, merchant shipping and agriculture. The first post-war elections dwindled Labour majority to a trembling six, and the talks for a coalition continued; but Attlee and his men went about nationalisation as if nothing had happened. It happened, though, in October 1951. The British electors voted Churchill to power.

Marx used the terms "socialism" and "communism" in almost identical sense. Even now, both the words are used interchangeably especially in Russian writing. But more and more "socialism" has come to mean a "mixed economy", while "communism" still denotes complete State ownership and management of resources, means of production, and distribution. A mixed economy combines both private and public enterprises. In fact, such mixed economies have existed in many countries of the world for quite a while, but the Labour Party went a step ahead in its official publication entitled "Labour believes in Britain". The pamphlet asserted that instead of taking over whole industries, it would be good for private and public enterprises to compete fairly with each other. A competitive public enterprise can be set up if a ring or a cartel refuses to reform. A competitive public enterprise might be justified to maintain employment in a "development" area. The same governmental stimulant can be given if private enterprise hesitates to manufacture new products of social value.

From the point of view of classical economics, this doctrine is revolutionary. Even during the hey day of the New Deal in America, the State-subsidized products were not allowed to compete with the produce of private enterprises. England has once more led the way, and offered another barrier against communism in the form of a mixed economy-socialism. By allowing such industrial guerrilla operations, socialism strives to become as vital a movement as communism.

In favour of private enterprise, is its superior efficiency. In favour of public enterprise, is the State patronage. The State is more than likely to favour its own enterprise in placing orders and obtaining raw materials. The State, moreover, has no fear of bankruptcy, nor the nightmare of the shareholders. The condition of competition between private and public enterprise,

therefore, must needs be clearly defined in order to perfect socialism as an alternative to communism.

The New Commonwealth.

The fourth movement through which Britain strove to survive as a first rate power in the changed world of post-war era was by revolutionising the nature of the British Commonwealth of Nations. The Dominions grew out of early Colonies. As soon as a country colonised by the Anglo-Saxon stock from the mother country came of age, Britain accepted it as a full Dominion. The statute of Westminster of 1931 gave a greater equality to the Dominions with the Mother country. The Balfour formula of 1926, prepared for the Imperial Conference, was incorporated and expanded later in the Statute of Westminster. The Balfour formula was as follows :—

“Dominions are autonomous communities within the British Empire, in no way subordinate one to another in any respect 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.” The Statute of Westminster went further by removing all restrictions on the legislative autonomy of the Dominions.

The Commonwealth was like an octopus. It has its tentacles on the Continent. This worldwide organisation is partly European, partly Asiatic (India, Pakistan and Ceylon), partly Pacific (Australia and New Zealand), partly African and partly American (Canada). It is thus a union based upon ideology rather than on geographic contiguity. Perhaps in the air-age, this Association does not sound as logical as it used to during maritime centuries. Britain’s power depended on its control of the areas and all those Dominions sprung up as the outposts of England’s sealance.

The concept of the Commonwealth was that of an organic unit. The idea was of a family under a common King. This was enhanced by the element of kingship. All the Dominions were dominated by Anglo-Saxons who looked to the Mother country for inspiration and guidance. They had their language and literature and history in common, and even the descendants of the original rabble had always a soft corner for the Ruling house of Great Britain. The idea of the Crown as the symbol of common allegiance is a mystical formula. The magic involved was based upon blood-brotherhood and common traditions—a magic which began to break around 1947 when India and Pakistan became Dominions. The Crown imparted unity to diversity.

By the middle of 1949, the British Commonwealth underwent fundamental changes. It was entering a fourth stage in the development of the Commonwealth. Historians have pointed

out three distinct stages in the development of that Island community which replaced the Romans.

The first stage ended in 1776 when America became independent and started a career which was to result in the child becoming mightier than the "mother". The second stage ended with the first World War which exposed England's invincibility to a certain extent and made it relatively dependent on the Dominions. The third and the Empire stage ended around 1926 when the Imperial Conference laid the foundation-stone for the Statute of Westminster.

Britain is now going through the fourth stage. The fundamental change, this time, was induced by the break up of Anglo-Saxon exclusiveness. New Dominions had come into existence and they were neither Anglo-Saxon nor dominated by the Anglo-Saxon stock. India, Pakistan and Ceylon are racially different from the British; their religions too, are different. They have no history in common except for two centuries which invoke bitter memories. Shakespeare is not their national poet nor is the Western music their music. Thus the organic structure of the British Commonwealth was disappearing. Until now, no written constitution existed and the Commonwealth functioned on the basis of precedents. Thus the fourth stage is distinctly non-British.

The English are a proud nation. And yet they have shown remarkable elasticity in making psychological adjustments. The Roman Empire declined and fell, according to Gibbon, because on the one hand it went on absorbing alien peoples but on the other, failed to modify its own institutions to accommodate the new-comers. The British are avoiding this mistake and proving to be better politicians than the Romans were. Also they were avoiding the mistakes they committed in connection with the North American Colonies.

The alternative to the organic structure was a functional association which could include both Dominions and Republic. It would be a Union of like-minded nations, accustomed to each other, working on terms of equality for the common purpose of peace and prosperity. But Monarchies and Republic cannot exist in the same unit except on the basis of written declarations. And when India was not willing to recognise the Crown as the symbol of common allegiance nor was India prepared to have a military alliance, which would mean that a declaration of war by His Majesty would automatically mean a declaration of war by India. India was also opposed to the idea of joining one bloc or the other. India wanted to retain its independent judgment on international issues. It wanted to vote on the intrinsic merit of an issue and not according to the bloc voting system.

All this led to a looser business association than even a functional unit; and yet when the announcement of April 28, 1949 came, it astounded the World because it proved that the Commonwealth would continue to be what it was “(an organic whole)” for a majority of the members; but at the same time it would be a mere functional association so far as India was concerned. Thus the concept of Commonwealth was cut across by functional as well as organic elements. The declaration of April 28, said :

“The Governments of United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, India, Pakistan, and Ceylon whose countries are united as members of the British Commonwealth of Nations and owe a common allegiance to the Crown, which is also the symbol of constitutional changes in India.

“The Government of India have informed the other Governments of the Commonwealth, of the intention of the Indian people that under the new Constitution which is about to be adopted, India shall become a sovereign independent Republic. The Government of India have however, 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 the free association of its independent member nations and as such the head of the Commonwealth.

“The Government of the other countries of the Commonwealth, the basis of whose membership of the Commonwealth is not hereby changed, accept and recognise this in accordance with the term of the declaration.

“Accordingly, the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, India, Pakistan and Ceylon hereby declare that they remain united as free and equal members of Commonwealth of Nations, freely co-operating in the pursuit of peace, liberty and progress”.

By a stroke of pen, as it were, the whole nature of the Commonwealth was changed. It was regarded as a singular victory for India’s political idealism. It was also regarded as an act of statesmanship on the part of other Dominions. It was further regarded as a guarantee for the continuation of Great Britain’s pre-eminence in the comity of nations. According to it, India could have its Republican cake and eat the Commonwealth one too. India was given by all the Dominions the commercial and citizenship rights (somewhere between “nationality” and “foreignness”) that were given to Eire only by Britain. Gone was the prefix “British”. Also the term “Dominion” was dropped. India was not to recognise the King except in inter-Commonwealth matters. The Commonwealth is not to be a Super State but only an association of like-minded nations. India avoided a void which would

inevitably have followed a sudden break with the Commonwealth. The *status quo* in commerce and to some extent in defence, was maintained.

Britain has survived as a power once again mainly because its people are endowed with what is known as empirical way of thinking. That is to say, the British adapt themselves to changing conditions without worrying too much about the principles which they might have sacrificed in the process. This has stood them in good stead in their relation with foreign countries as well as with the members of the British Commonwealth. But it seems that the post-Second-World-War-World is very different from what the World was like after the first. Politics and specially international politics is not what it used to be in leisurely period of Queen Victoria. With the rapid growth of mass education and technological developments, people everywhere today are conscious of their own rights in the society in which they live. They are also able, in many cases, to understand the implications of the political moves of their rulers and it is no longer possible to conduct the affairs of a country assuming that the majority of the people will abide by the decisions which a government takes at a given time. On the other hand, large areas, specially in Asia, where the people were indifferent to their governments, there has grown in recent times strong sentiments for national pride and national greatness. All this has vastly complicated the task of maintaining state powers in the traditional manner. Global problems of politics, finance, and strategy affect to-day the countries which had nothing to do with them a few decades ago. As a result, the alignment and the loyalties are also changing--also within the British Commonwealth of Nations itself. That is why, one does not know what is exactly the future of the British Commonwealth which has survived so well the shock of the Second World War. It is doubtful that it will survive the shock of the third, if it ever takes place. However, looking at it in an objective manner one cannot but be convinced of the remarkable vitality of a system of government which owed its long existence to elasticity of political thinking. Some people have called it opportunism and others have called it hypocrisy, but on the whole the British system, though on trial, may prove still to be the way out of present difficulties.



IV. RUSSIAN STRATEGY

It is when we place Russia in juxtaposition to America that we begin to perceive the real depth of the world revolution. These are the two sides of the medal, but both belong to the

same medal. These are the two expressions of humanity's great malady.

Henry Wallace said that this was the century of the common man. Every man is a King. Perhaps every man is not yet a King, but he knows that he can be, or that he should be. The little people of the world, like lion cubs, have tasted blood and they will not be satisfied until they equate their status with towering tall magnates. This importance of the average man, imagined or real, potential or present, has created a crisis which cannot be easily solved. Even a war cannot solve it. It took a series of wars to settle the issue between Feudalism and capitalism. The century of the common man cannot be consummated save through a hundred-year war, to put it dramatically. And these wars will cut across each other. These wars will be amalgams of wars and civil wars. Vertical wars will be cut across by horizontal wars. Explaining that socialist reforms won't do, Stalin said to H. G. Wells once : "The replacement of one social system by another social system is a complicated and protracted revolutionary process. It is not a merely spontaneous process. No, Revolution has always been a struggle, an excruciating and cruel struggle for life and death." Millions of Communists existed before the Russian revolution took place. These millions were swelled after the First and Second World Wars. Russia as an adversary from outside can be tackled by an Atlantic Pact but Communism is a movement from within, and, to combat it, it will require more imaginative methods than war.

Communism as a highly regimented world-wide movement of revolutionary Marxism existed, before the Czar was overthrown by Lenin. Now, of course, Moscow has become its centre of inspiration and direction with Washington as the main opposing fort. Unless we take into account the inevitability of world revolution, we cannot comprehend the Soviet outlook.

In the pre-war period, Commintern was led by M. George Dimitrov. In November, 1937, he said : "The historical dividing line between forces of Fasism, War and Capitalism on the one hand, and the forces of peace and democracy and socialism on the other is in fact becoming their attitude towards the Soviet Union."

The Russian Communist Party, like the Roman Church, claims to be SEMPER EADEM ; in other words, it claims to be infallible. And the revolutionary ideology has gone through three phases already. First there was the intellectual Marxism, secondly there was the Leninist revolution and thirdly, there is the Stalinist nationalism which may be better described as Russianism. Now-a-days, an appeal is made to local loyalties, and the strawmen of the counter movement are variously described as "Reactionaries," "Imperialists" or "Fascists."

A startling change has come over the world—a change that is perceived as yet by very few people. Now-a-days it is not so much a struggle between Communism and Capitalism ; it is more of a struggle between Communism and Socialism. This has been especially true ever since the Labour victory in Britain and the revolution through taxation brought about in America under the New Deal of Roosevelt.

The revolutionary strategy today is that of Dream versus Dollars. Man lives by hope. He has to have a picture of the “promised land” before his eyes. Whether he reaches the “promised land” or not, it is immaterial. But he must hitch his wagon to a star. George Sorel, the French Radical Syndicalist, explained this through his theory of “myth.” Every revolution must have a “myth.” It is a picture of the golden future. It is the picture that inspires loyalty and discipline and makes suffering endurable. Communism offers a “myth” of a classless society wherein all men will be equal. Thus Communism uses ideological weapons against the technological weapons of America.

Precisely this has proved to be communism's greatest danger. As long as communism was a myth, a dream, it had found all over the world, among all sections of the people, a large number of adherents. But the moment this was translated into political reality, the idealists, the enthusiasts and the theoreticians found that the state which communism had brought into being was not what they had dreamt of. In other words, communism's greatest enemy is the communist state itself. In Central Europe, where a large number of backward countries have glided into Soviet sphere there are probably to-day more opponents of communism than in any Western European and Capitalist countries. The reason is obvious. In ultimate analysis, all governments owe their success to men. If the men who are at the head of the State are not able, are not honest, are not sincere, they are likely to provoke opposition whatever might be the theory they stand for. Besides, the fundamental hankering of human beings for liberty, for family and for possession, is so great that the denial of these things in the name of a higher destiny—of the nation or of the people—does not make any form of government more attractive to the masses of people. After the first flush of liberation from Nazi domination, the Eastern European peasants and workers have realised that the change which has come to their countries is not exactly the change they had sighed for during those horrible years of war and occupation. And this story goes on repeating itself wherever the communists come into power. It is probably not their fault but they cannot alter human nature. But communism still flourishes amongst those communities which have not known yet a communist regime and as distance always lends charm to

things, the more distant and the more inaccessible the Soviet Union remains, the more attractive it seems to millions of people in under-developed and backward countries, where the life of the common man is shorn of all romance and all fulfilment.

Eastern Europe.

Half of Europe is hidden today behind the "Iron Curtain". The weapons in the armoury of Communism, so far as Eastern Europe is concerned, vary according to the need of the situation. There is the slogan, Pan-Slavism which has an appeal to the Slav World of Eastern Europe. The slogan of Pan-Slavism galvanised such countries as Yugoslavia, Bulgaria, Poland and Czechoslovakia wherein the Slavic elements are dominant. It has also an appeal to small Slav blocs in the United States, Canada and Latin America. The Czar of Russia used to be described as the "Sluggish". Stalin may be described as the "Sledge Hammer Slav". There is also the fascination for the minority groups in the form of cultural autonomy that Russia practises within its borders. Russia preaches and practises racial equality. And the travellers to U. S. S. R. will tell you that there is no country in Europe or America which is practising this doctrine with a greater naturalness than Russia. This element enchant^s and captivates the Negros all over the world, especially in America. Paul Robeson, the great Negro singer, sent his children for schooling to Russia because he found it to be the only Western country where real racial equality existed and where a Negro felt as good as a White man. And above all, is the appeal of the economic equality. It attracts the masses of the world.

Within six years of the War's end, the vacuum in Eastern Europe was thus filled by Sovietization. All Europe, east of a line drawn between Stettin and Trieste and in the north of Greece and Turkey fell within this orbit. Lithuania, Latvia, Estonia and Bessarabia are in the Soviet Union, while Bukovina is a part of the Soviet Ukraine. Parts of Poland and Finland and a part of Eastern Prussia are also annexed to Russia. In addition to this outright integration, Kremlin now dominates over Poland, Czechoslovakia, Rumania, Albania, Bulgaria, Finland and the Eastern Provinces of Germany and Austria. This has been brought about either through outright military occupation or through the establishment of "friendly regimes". The one common feature of these satellite countries is the one party system, or bogus coalitions.

The pattern of acquiring control over neighbouring nations is now well established. Disciplined Communist workers, often trained in the revolutionary school at Moscow infiltrate the army and police. The minority Communist party gets into Government and first acquires control of the Home Ministry which

gives it a hold over the police and the judiciary. Then there is the tactics of *Coup d'etat* through which minorities vanquish majorities.

But this method is becoming too common and oft-repeated and that is why it is loosing its effectiveness all over Eastern Europe. In spite of some social advantages which communism has conferred on a large number of peasants and workers, people are beginning to resent the regimentation of their lives which has become the common feature in these areas. On the other hand, the inherent racial and national conflict which has been for many decades the real difficulty in Eastern Europe is slowly raising its head. A communist, simply because of his belief in communism, does not cease to be overnight a Rumanian, a Hungarian or a Pole. Large number of disputed points which have vitiated the relationship of the Central European States in the past have not been solved inspite of the common pattern of the Communist States in these areas. The result is that the Czech-Rumanian or Polish-Czech quarrel about frontiers is making it difficult for these countries to arrive at an understanding on a common basis. Besides, the large number of people in these countries have had contacts with Western Europe in the past and many had been educated in the universities of Western Europe and they naturally find it extremely hard to accept wholly the Marxist theology without mental reservations. Their mind had been trained in the Western system of reasoning and they offer, therefore, a stout opposition to the attempt of the satellite States to make the thinking of people uniform and regimented.

Oder-Danube Canal.

There are projects to further consolidate the gains behind the "Iron Curtain". Eastern Europe is eventually to emerge as a monolithic unit, according to this plan. The plan has recently come to surface. A two-hundred mile long canal between the Oder and the Danube rivers is to link the Baltic with the Black Sea. The canal will cut across the heart of Central Europe and will thus save an average of 3,000 miles on the round-sea traffic between a Black Sea port and a Baltic Sea Port. The cost for this gigantic project will be mainly borne by Poland and Czechoslovakia who will also be the main beneficiaries. Polish engineers are all ready at work.

The plan had false-starts twice before. And twice it was stopped because of the outbreaks of the two Wars. However, Poland and Czechoslovakia will not be alone in bearing the burden. Austria, Hungary and Rumania are expected to participate. Historically, it has been a dream since the 14th century, but the dream has now come to closer realisation because of the bifurcation of Europe along the Iron Curtain.

Yugoslavia.

Sovietization of Albania, Bulgaria and other countries could be better understood through the Yugoslavian analogy. Yugoslavia holds a key to our understanding because of two reasons ; firstly, it has been in the vanguard of Sovietization of Eastern Europe, and secondly and lately, it has offered the first challenge to Kremlin's suzerainty. Considering that the Communist Party's strength is increasing in France and Italy and in the Russian occupied Germany, an analysis of the Yugoslavian affair will give a clue to things to come.

The present Communist regime in Yugoslavia resulted from the national and civil war waged in that country from 1941 to 1945 by the Partisans under the dynamic leadership of Marshal Tito against the Axis invaders and their local Quislings on the one hand, and against the conservative elements in the country itself on the other. The slogan that fired the imagination of the Yugoslav people and rallied them behind Tito's leadership, was the preaching of unity of Serbs and Croats and Slovaks and Macedonians. People there had been hoping for such a unity, and when Tito offered it, they rose like a man. When the War ended, the British and the Americans had some influence over Yugoslavian affair and they saw to it that certain moderate elements who had run out of the country during the War were brought back and taken into the new regime. By this time, Tito had established what he described as the "Peoples' Front" and these moderate elements were accommodated in it. But only for a short time. Eventually he succeeded in casting out these moderate elements or in suppressing them outright. At the end he was at the apex of a monolithic pyramid.

Titoism.

Tito is a Communist. He is more than a Communist. He is a man of colour and ambition. He committed the crime of Grandeesim, a crime that is deemed unpardonable by the Kremlin. Tito took every opportunity to show his own importance and his country's importance in the Communist World. He allowed himself to be "built up". Thus he was a jarring note in the Communistic harmony. Kremlin wants Satellites but not Allies.

The breach between Kremlin and Tito came to head when Cominform passed a resolution on June 28, 1948, denouncing Tito and Titoism. What was behind this fission ? Very few people have any clear idea about it. Although the Cominform philosophy regards Communism as a world revolution, representing the indigenous movements of various peoples on the earth, it believes the revolution has a hard core—Russia. The revolution was so shaky for a time that its leaders believed that unless the Citadel of Russia was saved and protected, it might back-fire. Said Stalin in his VOPROSY : "The goal is to consolidate the dictatorship of the proletariat in one country, using it as a base

for the overthrow of Imperialism in all countries. Revolution spreads beyond the limits of one country ; the epoch of world revolution has begun". Kremlin thus becomes the SANCTUM SANCTORIUM of the revolution. As a result, Kremlin must have paramountcy over Communist peoples and countries even outside the Russian borders.

The outcome of this line of thinking is the system of Soviet Satellites. Tito's rebellion is against this system, and in its place he has proposed a "Commonwealth of Communist Nations." It is the first defection in the Communist world. The Yugoslavia defection, or what is known as the "Belgrade Schism," has set up the first effective frontier against the expansion of Russian nationalism under the guise of a world revolution. It calls a "halt" to the peaceful absorption of neighbouring countries by Russia. According to Tito, the spirit of Communism became so identified with Russian expansion that it was high time to make a good and clear distinction. Titoism implies that Stalin is not only the head of Communist Revolution but also the advocate of Russian nationalism (Peter the Great in modern garb) seeking imperialistic expansion. The eventual Communist aim might be the consummation of world Communist State. But if the Russian hegemony over non-Russian Communist organisation is left unchallenged, then the Communist World State would be ruled from Kremlin. It would not be a Communist revolution brought about from below, but a Union system imposed from the top, by Kremlin. This fear lies at the bottom of Titoism.

The orthodox communist philosophers regard Titoism as Enemy No. 1. They are a little more concerned with the challenge of Titoism than they are with the challenge of Atlantic pact. If Titoism becomes a fashion, then the dream of Kremlin to have paramountcy over all Communist countries would vanish. The Cominform is licking its wounds and sharpening its claws. It has recently sent forth a slogan of united Macedonia (now divided among Yugoslavia, Bulgaria and Greece). The idea is to destroy the identity of Yugoslavia and to merge it into a Baltic Federation. Recently, Yugoslavia is promised aid and comfort from America. But one school thought that once a communist, always a communist ; while a man like Walter Lippman still asserts that Titoism would spread in Eastern Europe.

The danger which Titoism represents to communism is . the age-old danger of heresy in the same church. It reminds one of the schism in the Roman Catholic Church in the middle ages and one knows now that the weakening of the Catholic Church was brought more by the Christians themselves than by the non-Christians. Similarly, it seems today that the Communist hegemony of a large part of the world will either be weakened or challenged more successfully by one or the other communist

factions. That is why, Kremlin is more worried about Titoism than about the millions of words that are poured out daily in Western Europe and America denouncing its tactics. Kremlin has not forgotten how Trotsky nearly succeeded in upsetting the communist apple-cart. It is also within expectation that similar defections within the communist party itself will arise in other communist states sooner than one expects. Some sort of deviation from the original gospel of communism has already started in China, for instance. It may not be comparable to Titoism, but there is no doubt that Chinese communism will, in the end, vitally affect communist doctrine and its application to modern conditions.

V. CHINA TO THE SIDE

What Britain is to America, China is to Russia. When China went Red, it shook the world balance of power. But before we go into the causes behind the failure of the revolution started by Dr. Sun Yat Sen, let us cast a quick glance backward over Chinese Westernisation. Now that "Easternization" has begun in China, this historical throwback is helpful.

In the history of Asia's Westernisation, China has contributed the most unexpected chapter. A Westerner always felt closer to China than to India despite the fact that a major part of the Indian people comes from what is now loosely described as the White racial stock, while the Chinese are racially more like the Japanese. Moreover, Indians are closer to Europeans and Americans through their language, literature, religious and scientific thought. Nevertheless, the peculiar earthiness of the Chinese in contrast to the philosophic flights of the Hindu, endears him to the modern man. The modern Westerner has stronger instincts of mysticism than the Chinese, and it is only recently that he has begun to build up his terrestrial wealth under the influence of the 19th century utilitarianism and materialism ; he has, therefore, a secret admiration for the Chinese who has always been one century-long step-ahead in his this-worldliness.

And yet China is less Westernised than India and far less Westernised, on the surface at least, than Japan. Some thinkers have hinted that the Chinese pride in the superiority of their culture has kept them from change. Such pride is not given to the Chinese alone, and yet others have changed also. There was an era in Chinese history when China began to be Westernised ; but that was a totally different Westernisation. In those days, India was to China "The Western heaven—the land of Buddha's birth." In contrast to the pre-war Japan which stampeded itself into modernisation, China has ambled along ; there is a

distinct lag so glaring that catches the eye of any observer. Dr. Ho Shih the eminent Chinese scholar, has pointed to a factor that has been at work. To begin with, there has always been a ruling class in Japan which has provided the necessary leadership aiming at advancement, material as well as spiritual. Whenever a culture is forced into contact with an alien way of life, it develops uneasiness as well as reactionary tendencies. This prevents a natural form of development, of evolving changed patterns of life through mingling of old and new. The fusion of conflicting ideas can be thrown off only by accepted and effective leadership. Japan had that in its ruling class, but China's civilian bureaucracy was inadequate for the needs of its sprawling communities. While the Samurai of Japan succeeded in subduing the Shoguns, the Manchus were not as fortunate.

The successes of the republicanism of 1911, which gave an official blessing to China's renaissance, recalled the failure of the Boxer uprising in 1900, which had sought vainly to raise another Chinese Wall against the industrialised West. In the end the West prevailed and a protocol was signed in September 1901. This paved the way for Chinese Westernism both in technology and in thought so that eventually the "Chinese Civil Code" of 1930 included the following significant preface :

"It follows in its theoretical proportions the principles which the modern juridical science is spreading steadily over the world, and which are tending to constitute a sort of universal common law, and to remove discrepancies due to the dissimilarities of the various national legislations, thus facilitating the development of international relations."

This was the philosophic background of the Chinese revolution under Dr. Sun Yat Sen, the revolution which was carried on by Chiang Kai-Shek after the death of the Father of the Chinese Nation. Chiang failed to consummate Dr. Sun Yat Sen's revolution chiefly because he had first to contend with various war-lords, then with the Japanese, and finally with the Communists. By 1950, the history of Chinese nationalism had already receded into history and the chief concern was with the causes that brought about Chiang's down-fall.

Swan Song of Soongs.

One of the reasons given for the collapse of Nationalist China is that it is too big a country comprising some 4 million sq. miles. Another reason given is that it has too large a population with some 452 million Chinese. The third reason given is that there are too many local variations and too many local rivalries which are enhanced by poor transportation. The cultural explanation advanced touches upon the family ; a Chinese is primarily loyal to his family ; thus relatively speaking he is

indifferent to public welfare. This point is high-lighted in the history of three Soong Sisters.

A mighty dynasty fell. The Soongs went the way of earlier Mings and Tangs. There was a time when an awe-struck American correspondent recited the Song of Soongs. Now is the time for a Chinese Communist to recite the Swan Song of Soongs. It is a story of three head-strong and talented sisters and the numeral three has some historic significance when applied to sisters. The eldest of the Soong sisters married Dr. Kung, who claims to be a direct descendent of Master Kung alias Confucius. It was all according to the Chinese tradition when the eldest sister acquired the most potent say in the inner Cabinet of China composed of those three women and their husbands. Dr. Kung, a dyed in the wool reactionary, received the best opportunities to acquire wealth through advance government information. The second sister married Dr. Sun Yat Sen, father of the Chinese Nation. She is a sort of black sheep in the sense that she is not self-seeking. She has often spoken against her brother and brothers-in-law. She is now a vice-President under Communist Mao. The youngest and the most beautiful married Chiang Kai-Shek, who was then a mere War-Lord, but a promising war-lord.

The Soongs have been Christians, and it is said that the origin of their wealth has been through the sale of Bibles that Grandfather Soong got free from America. After three years of married life, Chiang Kai-Shek was converted to Christianity. The three sisters have a brother, Dr. T. V. Soong. Practically every member of the family, with the exception of Madam Sun Yat Sen, has made his or her pile, most of which is invested abroad.

There is a touch of the Greek tragedy in the fall of Chiang-Kai Shek. He has been a Spartan, leading a simple and hard life. He does not smoke, nor does he drink. He is tall and erect and his legs are too long. He is fearless. The leadership of Asia was in the hollow of his palm. But like Napoleon, he could not resist his weakness—the weaknesses of his relations. Napoleon appointed his worthless brothers as Kings of domains he had conquered by French blood and through the prowess of his Grand Marshalls, and these very brothers plotted against him, while Napoleon's great Generals became disenchanted. China was also ruined by Chiang's relatives.

The upheaval in China was not a domestic affair. Nothing happens these days in isolation. The Chinese change over had a world-wide significance. Chiang sits in Formosa, under the protection of America, while a new star has risen on the mainland of that country.

Red Star over China

A new man of Destiny has emerged out of the confusion in China. He is Mao Tse-Tung, the general of an army of 3 million well-disciplined and well armed Communists. Mao Tse-Tung is 57 years old. He went to study in Changsha and finally landed in Yan Normal School where he read in Chinese translations, Adam Smith, Darwin, Rousseau and Spenser. When he came across the beautiful Yang K'ai-hin, he discarded his village wife whom he had married at 14 and married this Communist co-worker. Since then he has been married and divorced several times.

Mao was a co-worker of Chiang during the Communist-Kuomintang alliance under Dr. Sun Yat Sen. In 1917, the Russian revolution shook China in general, and Mao in particular ; Mao read the "Communist Manifesto" for the first time in his life. Somehow or the other, he escaped Chiang's communist purge when the Communist-Kuomintang coalition was broken. When the Japanese were occupying the attention of Chiang Kai-Shek, Mao started the "long march" with his 80,000 followers. They marched some 6,000 miles, passed through 12 provinces, scaled 19 mountains and crossed 24 rivers.

In 1937 the Chinese Communist once more made an alliance with the Kuomintang in order to resist the Japanese aggression. Chiang in a reminiscent mood confessed that he had made the greatest mistake of his life when he allowed the Communists to work with the Kuomintang. It gave the Communists an opportunity to gain time and to consolidate their victories. When Japan was defeated in 1945, Mao, true to the Communist pattern, was quick in grabbing territories vacated by the Japanese. Russia took Manchuria and Mao took several parts of China. Since then, the tussle between the Communists and the Kuomintang continued, and by the middle of 1950 Mao presented World Communism the greatest victory since the Russian revolution.

But Mao's history is not victory of communism alone. It is probably something more, because in some respects, it is something less than communism. This is not quite a paradox because Mao has realised communism without taking resort to all the paraphernalia of communism dreaded by the whole world. He has not chopped off the heads of his opponents as very often War-lords in China and some communist revolutionaries in other countries did in the past. He has not abolished entirely the social structure which China has inherited from a past which one can never trace back. He has not abolished completely either the economic system of a rural population, however defective. In one word, he has behaved like a sober revolutionary who knows the shortcomings of the people whom

he has to carry with him. And above all, he knows his China. But there is no doubt that China is not quite Russia and the Chinese peasants were not the Moujekhas with whose aid Lenin had to bring about the Bolshevik revolution 30 years ago. Both China and the Chinese possess a hoary past and a tradition sanctified by the great achievements of thousands of years. But what Mao has done is to pour new and fresh wine into an old bottle which is quite an ordinary bottle, but a bottle solid and pleasing to the eye, like a Chinese vase. Thus, Chinese Revolution of 1950 though accomplished by the Chinese Communists, still looks like the revolution of the Jacobites in France in its intensity and in its love for justice. Mao has not bothered about the theoretical niceties of Communism. He has gone straight to the point and he has gone straight to the sources of Chinese decay. These sources according to Mao were two : First the unjust land system and secondly, the ruinous family system, an inheritance from Confucianism-with all its veneration for the ancestors and family worship. He has, therefore, radically changed the system of land tenure in China, and he has by abolishing ancestral worship, given Chinese men and women for the first time in known history, the opportunity to live their own lives. Mao believes that modernisation of China or its industrialisation will flow from these two vital changes. He has not bothered to introduce more radical reforms, for being a good Chinese, he knows that changes imposed from above do not lead to any fundamental transformation of the society. This might seem to many orthodox communists as a deviationist tactics but the leader of modern China has taken courage in both hands even to deviate from the sacrosanct dogma of Stalinist Communism. This commonsense approach to China's problem has given the Communists seizure of power, the appearance of a real agrarian revolution and hence the support which it has received from such an outstanding thinker as Jawaharlal Nehru. That this view of the Chinese Revolution is correct has been proved by the declaration made both in public and private by the Chinese Cultural Mission which toured India in the winter of 1951. The excellent impression which it left behind was due to the fact that the Indians, in their rural belief, understood immediately the implications of the changes wrought by the Chinese leaders, headed by Mao Tse Tung. It was also because of this appreciation of the Chinese Revolution that India had constantly insisted on the recognition by the Powers of the Chinese Peoples' Republic. This insistence of India arises also from another reason which many Western Powers seem to forget. The reason is that although India has adopted the modern parliamentary democracy as its own system of government yet India cannot forget that she is an Asian country. As an Asian country, India has to live in neighbourly friendship with all the other

Asian powers and specially China, the biggest of them all. India is, therefore, unable for the sake of appearing pro-West, to completely deny her Asian entity and she has followed the middle course, namely, that of remaining a democracy without renouncing her Asianness. India's attitude is thus likely to modify the course of events in China, just as the Chinese Revolution is bound to affect the processes of historical evolution, of all the countries of Asia either today or tomorrow. In fact, the Chinese Revolution of 1950 and the independence of India in 1947, can be considered to be the two landmarks in Asian history whose far-reaching influence can be compared to that of the French Revolution of 1793. From these historical events, results will follow all over Asia which will transform the continent in the same way as Europe was changed by the French Revolution, in the 19th Century.

Overflow Population.

At any rate, new China will have to face all the problems. But China is also a problem to Asia. This problem is created by the dynamics of the Chinese population problem. (India is also becoming a problem to Asia from the same reason, but not to the same extent). The problem that China has become to Asia can be grasped at a glance from the following table which narrates the distribution of 6,500,000 Chinese in the various countries of South-East Asia :

Thailand	2,500,000
Malaya	1,750,000
Indonesia	1,500,000
Indo-China	400,000
Burma	200,000
The Philippines	120,000
Total :	6,470,000

The existence of large sections of Chinese populations in the above countries has elicited resentment against the Chinese national. Chinese emigre generally enterprising, hardworking, economical, and there is no limit to his endurance. In many cases he has gained an upper hand over the "native" and thus earned the jealousy of his fellow Asiatics. These little Chinese all over South East Asia took down Chiang's portraits and hoisted Mao's pictures as soon as the Red Star rose over their home land. Although rich, they welcomed any government, even Communistic, at Peking. It is generally believed that these Chinese communities might become Mao's Cat's paw. It is also likely that the Chinese in South-East Asia will create problems for the local population whose magnitude cannot be envisaged. Already there is a deep conflict in all the countries of South-East

between the people of newly liberated countries and the Chinese population. This conflict may not become acute if the new regime in China recognises the systems of government which have come into existence in South East Asia. Judging from the Chinese attitude towards the war in Indo-China, it can be said that Mao's Government intends to go about this problem cautiously and without creating fresh problem for the still unstable government in China.

VI. AREAS OF CONFLICT

The uneasy equipoise in Korea was tattered to pieces on June 25, 1950 when North Korean armed forces launched a well-prepared and full scale attack against the Republic of Korea across the 38th Parallel. The 38th Parallel was established at the dividing line in 1945.

On that fateful afternoon, the Security Council met in an emergency meeting and resolved "that this action constitutes a breach of the peace." On June 27th the United Nations took a step that transformed the very nature of the world organisation. For the first time, it decided to become a fighting organisation which would use military might in order to preserve peace on earth. Until then it was merely an organisation that passed pious resolutions and that lacked military sanctions to enforce its decisions on the recalcitrant nations. The United States-sponsored resolution recommending, "that the Members of the United Nations furnish such assistance to the Republic of Korea as may be necessary to repel the armed attack and to restore International peace and security in the area" was adopted. A few hours before this resolution the American President, Truman, had announced that he had already "ordered United States air and sea forces to give the Korean Government troops cover and support". Thus, the war was already on when the Security Council passed the resolution. But the resolution turned the United States Army into a United Nations force to which later on other countries contributed according to their ability. Indeed, the United Nations had declared that all members providing military forces and other assistance.....make such forces and assistance available to a unified command under the United States."

The armies overran the 38th Parallel. First, the Communist North succeeded in over-running South Korea almost entirely. Then the United Nations forces pushed the Reds. When MacArthur's armies reached the 38th Parallel, there arose a dilemma. To cross or not to cross? Many a member of the United Nations, especially India, was against crossing the 38th Parallel. However, the Security Council decided to authorise

General MacArthur to cross the 38th Parallel and to reach the Manchurian border. The North Koreans, ably and voluminously aided by Mao's Chinese troops administered a staggering defeat to the United Nations. Yet the battle was not over; it was merely going back and forth as the year 1950 closed. But throughout 1951 this constant going back and forth was stopped by Cease Fire decision and negotiations between U. N. forces and the Communists at Kaseong. Although it has not yet led to the signing of an Armistice, yet it is evident that both the parties are tired of continuing the futile war which is only harming the poor Korean people. In fact it is not wrong to think that because of the trial of strength of the two contending powers in Korea, the desire of both the parties to start a hot war has sufficiently cooled down.

The 38th Parallel

The 38th Parallel represents approximately the line where the Americans and the Russians met following the Japanese defeat. The division was agreed upon provisionally, pending a permanent solution which would unify the whole of Korea under an indigenous Government. To this end the Council of Foreign Ministers which met in Moscow in December, 1945, established a Joint Commission, consisting of representative of the United States Command in South Korea and the Soviet Command in North Korea. Korean democratic parties were to be consulted.

The Commission went to Korea but within two months it became evident that conflicting interests of the two major powers had produced a deadlock. It retired SINE DIE.

From then on, both occupying forces began to establish interim Governments that were opposed to each other. The United States centered its hopes on Syngman Rhee. North of the 38th Parallel, the U. S. S. R. set up a provisional People's Committee with a cabinet headed by Kim Ir Sen, the revolutionary and the Communist leader who later became the Premier of the Democratic Peoples' Republic of North Korea. With the formation of these two regimes tension began to mount and border raids started.

In September 1947 the General Assembly adopted against the wishes of the U. S. S. R. a resolution which created a Korean Commission in order to conduct free elections in the whole of Korea. The Commission went to South Korea, but was not allowed even to set foot on North Korea. As a result, elections were held in South Korea. Nonetheless, the General Assembly decided that the Government so elected was the legal government of the republic in Korea. The situation remained fluid until the North Koreans started their march across the 38th Parallel on June 25, 1950.

As the United Nations reverses mounted in Korea, President Truman threatened to use the Atom Bomb; that meant World War. In a frantic effort to avert the spread of a conflict that had remained so far localized, Britain's Prime Minister, Attlee, flew to Washington. After protracted negotiations, the two leaders of the Anglo-Saxon World came to a 10-point Agreement. The agreement as it emerged from the published version indicated that the West will concentrate on Europe in order to avoid being bogged down in the far reaches of Asia. It would fight it out in Korea but would see to it that it remained a localized conflict.

Underlying the agreement were also a few disagreements. It appeared that the heads of the two Governments could not see eye to eye on the point of admitting China to the United Nations. Nor could they effect an outright agreement on the use of the Atom Bomb. Meanwhile, America had embarked upon a 1,250,000,000 dollar project to manufacture Hydrogen Bombs. It is believed that an H-Bomb would multiply a hundredfold the destructive capacity of A-Bomb. But the question continued to agitate the mind of Asia: Will the Atom Bomb be used on Asians for the third time in succession?

The last move of the United Nations in 1950 to restore peace in Korea was symbolized by the 13 Asian Nations, led by India, to appeal to the Chinese to exert their influence in favour of a cease-fire. Their previous request to stop the 38th Parallel had fallen on deaf ears. The subsequent appeal for the declaration of a cease-fire which would automatically create a buffer zone, was also rejected by the Chinese Communists on December 23, 1950, according to the Peking Radio. Earlier, Mr. Wy had described the effort as a 'trap' before he left Lake Success in a huff. Towards the end of 1951, it looked, however, as if a settlement was in sight.

Korea has about 30,000,000 people, some of whom live in modern brick-built towns, but most of whom are peasants, eager to get rid of landlords. An overwhelming majority of the people have a strong sense of nationality, bred under foreign occupation.

Indo-China

Although there are local variations, there is a sort of a common denominator running through all the seemingly separate conflicts from Manchuria to Malaya. Korea casts its shadows as far West as Burma. This immense area is in upheaval and its two points, Korea and Indo-China, actually embattled. In the Philippines and in Burma, guerilla warfare is rife.

Americans are fighting in Korea since June 26, 1950. The French are locked in battle in Indo-China since December 14,

1946. The Western view of the entire picture is that trouble throughout the whole area has emanated by the expansive drive of the Soviet Power to the Sea. Again, according to the Western interpretation, the Soviet strategy is to push its satellites ahead, march behind them, taking advantage at the same time of Asian nationalism, racialism and xenophobia.

The chain of action and reaction started after the Japanese capitulation. There was a vacuum; the western powers had previously been driven out and now the Japanese left the so called natives to their own devices. At the same time they left behind arms which merely added to the number of arms which the Allied had rained down from the sky to arm anti-Japanese resistance. As a result, the Annamite political agitator, Ho Chi Minh, flourished in Viet Minh and now it is difficult for Bao Dai to maintain himself without French aid. In this respect, he is like Syngman Rhee who too, cannot remain in power without American aid.

A decisive period in the struggle between Viet Nam and Viet Minh regimes opened in October, 1950. Viet Minh forces in North Tonkin showed new strength. It seems that they were using troops trained by Chinese Communists and also that some Chinese Communists were at their back. They also possessed some Chinese equipment. The Peking regime which has recognized Ho Chi Minh, had been training 40,000 Viet Minh men.

On the other hand, the French side was depending mainly upon American aid. There was material aid in abundance, but United States forces could not go to Indo-China until the Korean situation was established. This must be however, said to the American people that on the one hand, they had been aiding the French and Bao Dai, as the lesser of the two evils, while on the other, they were pressuring the French into moving out of Indo-China.

In the context of Formosa, Germany, Yugoslavia and Iran, Indo-China is the fifth critical place on earth where Russia and America might come face to face in battle. On Indo-China depends the future of Burma, Siam, Indonesia and even the Philippines.

In Indo-China, is to be found a complex of three struggles, a struggle between capitalism and communism; a struggle between an expanding China and a resisting West.

The United States is committed to \$23.5 million of civilian aid to the French and to Bao Dai. Saigon, on the other hand, expects United States to spend \$200 million for military aid. United States have also sent some technicians and military advisers and it stands ready to send troops and munitions, if this could be spared from Korea.

There was a time when everybody wanted India. Even Columbus started to find out India, but he hit upon America. The French wanted India, but eventually they were ejected by the British. The French has the consolation of having "India on the Pacific" Indo-China. Indo-China consisted of five original units, the Kingdoms of Annam and Cambodia, the Protectorate of Tonkin, the Colony of Cochin China, and Laos. Indo-China's 286,119 sq. miles give it 1½ times the size of France. It was estimated that out of the 27 million Indo-Chinese 21 million were Annamites.

For the first twelve centuries of the Christian era, the ancient Kingdom of Annam was ruled by Hindu Kings. The land is still studded with Sanskrit inscriptions and magnificent specimens of Hindu architecture. However, from 10th century onwards, cultural influences from China dominated the scene, and when the French came in the 19th century, they had to contend with an elaborate but inefficient Mardarinate on the Chinese model.

A new chapter opened after France fell in 1940. Vichy Government authorised the Japanese to enter Indo-China and the Nipponeese used the land as spring-board for an attack on Singapore. By 1945, Japanese occupation of the whole colony was complete. Annam and Cambodia took advantage of this situation and declared their independence. After the war, British Indian and Chinese troops, much against the wishes and aspirations of the "native" groups, occupied Indo-China and handed it over on a silver platter to the French on January 1, 1946. They made a gift of something that did not belong to them.

The Annamese element is predominant in Indo-China. They constitute 80% of the total population and are politically alert, and they have often echoed the trends of neighbouring India. In 1930, for example, they staged a military rebellion which synchronised with Gandhiji's Salt March. Viet Nam (Tonkin and Annam) is the habitat of the Annamese. Viet Nam was recognised as a republic on March 6, 1945 with Dr. Ho Chi Minh as its head. Vietnamese wanted also the inclusion of Cochin China, and the conflict continued. A round-table conference was called to decide the issue, but it failed. The French bombed the village of Bak Ninch while negotiations were going on. Later on, Emperor Bao Dai convinced the French of the wisdom of unification. The Cochin-China Territorial Assembly voted for Union with Annam and Tonkin in the middle of 1949. Now the struggle entered a new phase. The French wanted Bao Dai to be the Emperor of Viet-Nam, while the followers of Ho Chi Minh described the former as a "puppet" and a "traitor". The Annamese segments constitute a unit covering the sea-board. The Kingdom of Cambodia (in Sanskrit Camboi) constitutes the other natural unit.

Dr. Ho Chi Minh is believed to be a Marxist. He was trained in the Revolutionary School of Borodin in Moscow. He was with Borodin during the Chinese revolution. He started a revolution in Siam before he moved to Viet Nam. On March 28, 1949 Mr. Leon Pignon, French High Commissioner, charged "Ho Chi Minh had remained an agent of foreign ideologies whose aim is to ruin order and economy in South East Asia." This joint movement had clearly developed in Malaya, Burma and Siam.

A new element has entered the picture. Bao Dai ex-Emperor of Annam, arrived in Dalat, Annam, from France in April, 1949. The French wanted the plump, playboyish exile, who left his gilt and teakwood palace, to reclaim his right to the throne of the mountainous but thickly jungled Viet Nam (Land of the South). A contest between Bao Dai, backed by the French, and Ho Chi Minh, backed by the people, continues to rock the country.

In 1951 it seemed that the French with the help of the American equipment and Vietnamese manpower were getting the upper hand. The appointment of General de Lattre de Tassigny as the Supreme Commander of the French Forces in Indo-China brought new encouragement to the depressed French Troops in Indo-China and he has been able to carry the fight even to Viet-Minh territory. This he has succeeded in doing, because of all-out support of the United States. The State Department has finally been persuaded by the eloquent pleading of de Lattre de Tassigny to regard the war in Indo-China as of vital importance for continuing communism in Asia. This, of course, does not mean that one has seen the end of Indo-Chinese conflict. How it will end is still anybody's guess? One has also to reckon with in this matter the war weariness of the French people themselves, who think it is costing them too much both in money and human life. In spite of de Lattre de Tassigny's apparent successes the war in Indo-China is unpopular in France. That is why an all out campaign against Ho Chi Minh is not to be counted upon.

Tibet.

Buddhism went to Tibet in the seventh century and it went from India. Tibetan alphabet is based on Devnagari. In the eighth century the Chinese Government was forced to pay tributes to Tibet. Kublai Khan's conversion to Lamaism brought Mongolian influence to Tibet. It was a Mongolian prince who started the present line of Dalai Lamas in the 16th century. From 18th century to the Chinese Revolution of 1911, the Manchu's maintained officers at Lhasa, but their authority progressively dwindled to suzerainty. In 1911, the Chinese forces were ejected and they were granted safe conduct through India.

From 1792 to the 1904 and Younghusband Expedition.

Tibet's door was closed to India. This expedition forced the Tibetans to agree to British-Indian terms, which included trading rights and temporary occupation of the Chumbi Valley. In 1906 a Trade Agency was opened in Gyantse. Thus Younghusband became to Tibet what Admiral Parry was to Japan, the opener of a closed door. It should not be forgotten that it was around this time that a loose form of Chinese suzerainty was reimposed. Dalai Lama fled to India on account of the Chinese efforts to turn Tibet into a Province of China. The Chinese Revolution that broke out subsequently broke also the Chinese authority in Tibet.

The 1914, Simla Tripartite (British, Chinese, Tibetan) Conference, under the chairmanship of Henry McMahon recognised *inter alia*, the autonomy of Tibet proper (Outer Tibet) and constituted "Inner Tibet" as falling under Chinese authority. The Chinese agreed to all this, but could not accept the boundary between the Inner and the Outer Tibet, so they could not ratify the convention.

In 1922 Tibet's request to construct the telegraphic line to Lhasa was fulfilled by India. Direct contact were established between Tibet and India in 1936. Tibet's main export is wool, which has become progressively more valuable. In 1945 Tibetan imports via Sikkim were valued at approximately Rs. 80 lakhs, and exports at Rupees 35 lakhs Cotton piece goods and tea were the main items of imports.

The Red march on Tibet in the closing month of 1950 created for India several problems. We have just indicated India's trade and political interests. If India's frontier is on the other side of Nepal, as Prime Minister Nehru has claimed, that line borders on Tibet. The buffer of an isolationist Tibet between China and India had suited this country. Now that the buffer disappears, the Chinese Communists come to the Indian border. And China extends back to Russia. There are further frontier troubles. The 500-mile McMahon Line on which Pandit Nehru has staked India's claim was not ratified by China. The Chinese version comes up to the river Brahmaputra, and claims large chunks of Assam. Furthermore, the McMahon Line passes through some unsurveyed mountains.

India, under Nehru, has been the most consistant non-communist backer of Red China in the field of International relations. India risked being unpopular in the West by insisting on Peking's admission to U. N. India cried a halt, although to no avail, on the 38th Parallel. India repeated that the question of Korea and Formosa cannot be settled without the concurrence, or, at least "Acquiescence" of China. Underlying all these friendly acts was the fact that India shares with China 4,000-mile

frontier ; it is better to have a good neighbour across the street. But more than that, India's actions were conditioned by her belief that Chinese Communism amounts to an agrarian reform movement with minor ideological trimmings, and given time and sympathy, Mao might turn a Tito. This faith was somewhat jolted when Mao ordered his troops to "liberate" Tibet.

Racially, the Tibetans are also Mongoloid and yet they resent being classified as Chinese. Religion is the dominating thing in Tibet and in the Tibetan's eyes, Chinese are not orthodox enough. Culturally, Tibet has been influenced by both China and India. Tibetan architecture and frescos are deeply enriched by Indian influences. Although food habits and the way they dress their hair, shows Chinese influences, the Tibetan faith is of Indian origin, and so are their scriptures and alphabets. Partly nomad and partly agricultural, Tibet's economy is pastoral.

Near the Tibetan border, but actually in the Chinese territory there is a large group of Tibetans among whom lives the Panchan Lama. The Panchan Lama is next in importance to the Dalai Lama, although he wields no temporal power.

Tibetans are a gay, picturesque and pleasure-loving people. Gambling, horse-racing, picnics and folk-dance performances constitute their major pastimes. The Tibetan woman enjoys a higher status than most women in other neighbouring countries. Even officials consult their wives in their official work. They are physically strong and quite fair of complexion, unless they are tanned by exposure to the elements. They are fond of ornaments. They lay charm-boxes on their chest immediately below their throats. Both polygamy and polyandry prevail.

Pandit Nehru who had banked heavily upon Sino-Indian Partnership to build up new Asia, was more than shocked when the Red Chinese Armies marched on Tibet despite previous understanding that China would seek to solve the problem peacefully and amicably. Both America and the United Kingdom sided with India ; outside the Chinese approaches, there is no approach to Tibet save through the Indian territory. Although India had recognised a vague type of Chinese suzerainty over Tibet, it had conceded nothing more and when the Chinese Government asked India to withdraw troops stationed at Gyantse and Yatung, on the Indo-Tibetan trade route, the split was complete. Wrote Pandit Jawaharlal to the Foreign Minister of China on October 26, 1950 ; "We have been repeatedly assured of the desire of the Chinese Government to settle the Tibetan problem by peaceful means and negotiations. In view of these facts, the decision to order the advance of Chinese

troops into Tibet appears to us most surprising and most regrettable." The Chinese Foreign Minister replied on October 30, 1950, "The problem of Tibet is a domestic problem of the People's Republic of China and no foreign interference shall be tolerated ... Therefore, with regard to the view point of the Government of India on what it regards as deplorable, the Central People's Government of the People's Republic of China incline to consider it as having been affected by foreign influence hostile to China in Tibet."

Since then an agreement has been reached between the Panchan Lama and the Peking Government. The term of this agreement are not all known but what we know about it makes us wonder whether Tibet will be able to remain for a long time freed entirely from communist influence. Pandit Nehru has not naturally led the Tibetan issue stand in the way of India's friendship for China but the public opinion in India has not been quite satisfied with the Prime Minister's explanation in Parliament. All sorts of rumours are rife regarding the Communist penetration in Tibet but none of them has been substantiated. It is of course true that the Chinese will do their best to make Tibet a Satellite of theirs. What then? Can India remain indifferent to Tibet being dominated by another power however friendly it is at the present moment? In this respect, most Indian politicians have begun to take a more realistic view. They say that however friendly our feelings for modern China are they should not blind us to the fact that China is also in a stage of expansion. After every revolution in China, China wanted to expand. This seems almost the invariable factor in Chinese history. It is true that owing to barriers of natural frontier which India possesses, China has never invaded India. It may be equally true that China has no intention of invading India in the future. Nevertheless, many Indian statesmen think that it was not right to give away without a fight, the position of some sort of sovereignty which India had acquired over Tibet in course of more than a century. The faction in Tibet, which is opposed to Panchan Lama, that is the group led by Dalai Lama, has made the latter seek asylum in India. The fact, however, remains that India will have to remain vigilant with regard to Tibet. The main reason is that all Chinese Governments whether Communists, nationalists, or imperialists have always wanted to have control of Tibet, not quite for sentimental reasons. It is of course probable that the Indian and Chinese Governments will eventually come to an understanding about the real status of Tibet. There might even be a sort of condominium established by China jointly with India without affecting autonomy of Tibetan people. Such a happy solution seems still to be distant, but everyone in India hopes that it will be so.

Nepal

The cycle of swift events in Nepal started on November 6, 1950, when the "incarnation" of Vishnu, King Tribhuwan, accompanied by his family minus a 3-year old grandson, left his palace for a picnic, his tiffin baskets full of jewels that would fill 8 cases. The route passed by the Indian Embassy and in a split second, the party was inside the gates. For the first time in history, a Foreign Embassy gave asylum to a King on his own soil.

All throughout the crisis, there was an under-current of desire in India to save the ceiling, now that the "roof of the world" had blown away. The ruling Ranas have been traditional friends of India, and they have married among the Rajput families of this country. The Ranas being Ranas, they are bound to be even less friendly to an eventually Red Tibet and an already Red China, than to an India that has harboured the refugee King. From the beginning of the crisis, they showed readiness to change with the time. The only question was : would they change as rapidly and as fully as India desired ?

The valley of Khatmandu is 4500-feet above sea level ringed by mountains. It is an isolated place in that it has few communications with the outside world. Nepal is a buffer between India and the Communist controlled Tibet. Nepal is contiguous with India for 500 miles along Uttar Pradesh, Bihar and West Bengal.

Spreading along the Southern slopes of the Himalayas, Nepal is some 520 miles long ; its area is about 56,000 square miles. Its 6 million inhabitants are mostly Hindu. It is on the other side of Nepal (from the Indian angle) that the snow-capped mountains, including the 29,002 foot tall Mount Everest constitute the iron curtain of India.

It was in the 18th century that the Gurkhas acquired and consolidated the various principalities of Nepal. In 1846 the then head of the Rana family, Maharaj Jung Bahadur, obtained the perpetual right to Premiership for family by a *coup*. Slavery and *Sati* were abolished during the 32-year rule of Chandra Shumsher, who also opened a college for higher education in Khatmandu. Rice, wheat and maize are the main agricultural produce of Nepal. The revenue is about two crores of rupees per annum.

The Nepal War ended in 1816 and the Treaty of Sagauli was signed with India which gave this country indirect control over the affairs of Nepal. This Treaty was revised in 1923 which for the first time, gave Nepal an autonomous status.

Nepal can be divided into two distinct territories, The "terai" or cultivable level land lies closely to the southern border

and is contiguous to India. The mountainous tract, on the other hand, stretches northward towards Tibet. Its largest town is the capital city of Khatmandu. It is studded with white palaces, pagodas and temples. The second largest town, Birganj, is only 3 miles from Raxaul on the Indian frontier.

There are around 3,000 temples in Nepal, and the country is a treasure-house of Sanskrit manuscripts. The King of Nepal is obliged to learn the Devabhasha. The main crops besides rice, wheat, pulses and sugarcane are such money-crops as cotton, tobacco and indigo. Nepal has also a sizable business in pulp-wood because it abounds in sal and sisu trees.

Nepal is a land of sharp contrasts. A few families are fabulously rich, while others toil for their meagre wages. The average salary of a Nepalese soldier is Rs. 18/- per month. A few families have all the latest gadgets of the West, including the shiny Packards, while the rest use medieval instruments.

The constitutional head is the King, but till yesterday, he was a mere puppet according to the Nepalese customs. Tribhuvan Vir Bikram Shah Dev who made a dramatic escape to the Indian Embassy in Khatmandu and later to New Delhi, may go down in history as marking a turning point. In 1950, the Indian Prime Minister, Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru, declared that India would continue to recognise the King. To forestall any move on the part of the ruling Rana, to appoint a Council of Regency, in order to rule in the name of the Boy-King, Pandit Nehru declared in Parliament that no such move would be recognised by India. It was also disclosed that India had demanded the summoning of a Constituent Assembly, composed entirely of elected members. Ranas as Ranas cannot be members of such a Constituent Assembly unless they are directly elected by the people.

The Indian Prime Minister further disclosed that an interim step would be necessary. This would include the association of leaders of public opinion in the Cabinet with the Prime Minister as a reformed Executive Head. King Tribhuvan, who was then residing in the Hyderabad House in New Delhi, added his word to those of the Prime Minister of India.

The middle-aged King of Nepal is also a relation of the Prime Minister who sought to depose him. Three of his sisters are married to three of the Prime Minister's brothers; the Nepalese Ambassador to the Republic of India, for instance, is married to the second sister of the King. The King's Palace, which is heavily guarded and which has a wall enclosing the vast area, is a very luxurious building and it has grounds comprising some 15 acres. But the walls are twice as high as any Gurkha's.

The Premiership of Nepal was hereditary as the monarchy. The ruling Rana was not succeeded by his son, his brothers

succeeded him in order of seniority. It was only when the list of brothers was exhausted that the time came for the son which was very rare. For instance, the last Prime Minister had seven brothers. Thus General Mohan did not have to go out of the long list of his brothers to fill important and strategic posts. The Commander-in-Chief, the Senior Commanding General, Ambassadors to London and to New Delhi, were all his brothers. His son was in charge of Foreign Affairs. This seeming family solidarity was broken from time to time by those Ranas who had no hope ; sons of Gurkha women and not of Rajput women from India.

The King of Nepal is regarded as the incarnation of Vishnu. So he cannot visit a Vishnu temple. A God cannot go to pay respect to God. And yet the "incarnations", have suffered as much as mortal men. One Rana Bahadur Shah had to run away from Nepal. The Gurkhas fight under the King's banner, but they well know from where directly their pay comes.

Whatever strength the Nepal Congress insurgents possessed came from the innumerable bands of guerrillas operating in tractless hills, flow of Nepali students and businessmen from India, and the Gurkha volunteers. With their intellectual and financial base in India, the Nepali Congress movement also counted on the fear of Communism that the Ranas shared with them. The Koirala Brothers, D. R. Ragmi, and others, nonetheless, knew that the Ranas had a standing Army of 45,000 around 20,000 of which were fighting-fit at a moment's notice. And all that the insurgents had by the way of arms were rifles and ammunition that the Americans had left in India as disposal goods. But the real strength of the insurgents came from India, which on the one hand barred the use of the Indian territory as a base of operations and on the other, continued a war of nerves with the Ranas.

A similar previous struggle had produced some reforms. In 1948 some land reforms were incorporated in the Constitution prepared under the guidance of the Indian leader, Sri Prakasa. The two chambers that were envisaged in this Constitution were called the Bharadari Sabha and Rashtra Sabha. But in these two also, the Ranas were to predominate and the entire authority was to rest in the Prime Minister, aided by a so-called Council of Ministers.

Relations between Nepal and China have also been significant. For a time China's vague suzerainty was acknowledged even over Nepal. Nepal sent mission to China every five years bearing gifts, and this system continued until 1850. On one occasion Sino-Tibetan forces came down to the valley of Khatmandu and dictated peace terms in front of the Royal Palace. On another occasion, Nepal fought Tibet. Even at

present Nepal keeps a representative at Lhasa. Around the seventh century Buddhism went to Tibet via Nepal. Thus Nepal and Tibet are very close in many respects.

Whatever are Nepal's relations with Tibet, its relations with India have become of primordial importance. Nepal cannot survive without access to India. This much both the Ranas and the Nepalese know: They, therefore, readily agreed to the suggestions made by Pandit Nehru and established an interim government composed mainly of the leaders of the Nepali Congress but with some of the Ranas. This coalition government toppled over in November 1951. People's representatives did not like the way the Ranas wanted to run the affairs of Nepal. The result was that the Ranas had to retreat. A full-fledged people's cabinet has been formed in November 1951 with B. P. Koirala, a people's man, as Prime Minister. Thus Nepal has turned its back to the past and is going forward.

The election for a Constituent Assembly is also to be held soon. The expectation is that by peaceful means the last home of feudalism in the sub-Continent will be converted into a progressive state. India's advice and assistance have substantially led to this happy solution.

Persia and Greece.

After Korea and Formosa, Iran has become the most explosive point. For, whoever controls Iran to-day, controls a strategic point on the chess-board at which America and Russia are playing. Iran has oil. The Russian oil fields at Baku and Batum lie within striking distance from Iran. From the Russian point of view, Iran lies astride the lifeline to the sea.

From the end of 1946, when the U. S. S. R. withdrew its original support from the Azerbaijan regime, Iran has been largely under the control of Anglo-American powers. A succession of Iranian Governments has sought Anglo-American blessings and misused the subsidy. Although the national wealth has increased the per capita income has stayed out.

The fear of social and political reforms turning pro-Soviet, pushes Anglo-American Powers into a policy of backing reactionaries. The Tudeh Party is looked upon with suspicion not only because it offers opposition, but also because of its like-mindedness with the Azerbaijan Democratic Party.

But the position of the Tudeh Party became weakened as a result of Soviet-Persian disagreement regarding American influence in Persia. On 4th March 1949 Persian Foreign Office sent a note of protest to the Soviet Ambassador denying the charge of American military domination and rejected the Russian criticism that the Tudeh Party was being suppressed. Afterwards, the Shah himself in a statement to the press declared on 26th

May 1949 that the form of Government of Persia was and would remain on the democratic pattern of the Western European monarchy. This led to the withdrawal from both the countries of all Consulates. Later in December 1949 the Shah of Persia paid a six-week visit to the United States and the President announced that the United States Government was willing to give economic assistance to Persia and to provide military assistance to her if she needed. America also granted Persia's request for loans from the World Bank and for assistance under President Truman's Point-4 Programme. In 1950 an agreement was signed between Persia and the United States under the Mutual Defence Assistance Programme and this Agreement was similar to the Bilateral Agreement between the U.S.A. and the countries of North Atlantic Treaty Organisation. The Agreement stipulated among other things that the Persian Government would not transfer any of the equipment received under the Programme to any third Government without specific American sanction. Thus it seems, that when the trouble about the Anglo-Iranian Oil broke out in Persia American influence there was already, considerable. It may be wrong to suggest that the conflict over the Persian Oil was essentially an Anglo-American conflict. But judging from later events, specially Prime Minister Mossedeq's negotiations in America there seems to be certain amount of truth that the United States had been trying to consolidate its power in order to prevent Russian influence in the country. The subsequent failure of these negotiations and the disturbed state of Middle-East, makes one believe that Persia might become the theatre of a still greater conflict in the near future. In other words, Persian trouble seen from the global problem, seems to be only at its beginning.

Greece.

America spent one billion three hundred million dollars (1,300,000,000) on the rehabilitation of Greece since the end of World War II. Greece is the size of the New York State and its inhabitants number 7,800,000 people. But here is one spot where American dollar produced the desired result. It saved Greece from Civil War. And, as the year 1951 came to a close, the neighbouring Tito in Yugoslavia, who had begun to come under American obligations, showed eagerness to sign a non-aggression pact with Athens.

Only three years ago, Greece was in the grips of guerillas directed from the Kremlin. They held away practically everywhere except in the big towns. At that time, it was a 'touch and go' situation. The conflict might have spread into a World War. But as 1951 closed, Greece was stable and safe in the Western pocket.

It was to protect Turkey and Greece, two neighbours under pressure of expanding Russian Empire, that the Truman

Doctrine was formulated in March 1947. By 1948, some 450 officers and men belonging to the American Mission, supported by a heavy flow of American equipment were in Greece. They organised the Greek Army and put a new life into it and placed new weapons in its hands. Then followed the two decisive battles fought in August 1949. Greece was cleared of guerillas. Some of them fled by ship to Poland and Rumania. Some went overland to Albania and some went to Bulgaria. Over and above the American aid, it was the Yugoslav desertion, that turned the tables in Greece.

In 1951 inspite of the troubled political conditions in Greece, stability of the government was maintained largely owing to American presence in Greece. There have been undecisive elections. As a result of the latest one, Gen. Plastiras has been able to form a new government.

Palestine

By 1950, even India had recognized the infant State of Israel. India hesitated long because of its vast Muslim population. But when the Indian recognition came, it meant that the international comity of nations had come to realise that the State of Israel was a geographical as well as a political fact that could not be ignored. There was peace in Israel as well as round it except for minor skirmishes here and there.

In October, 1950, however, there was a minor upheaval within the State of Israel itself. Mr. David Ben-Gurion resigned as the Prime Minister and thus failed to form a new Government. Either the party differences had to be patched and new general elections had to be held. But to the surprise of all, Ben-Gurion finally succeeded in receiving a vote of confidence.

All was quiet in fighting fronts in Palestine for about a year when the General Assembly opened its session in September 1950. This was the result of the General Armistice Agreement negotiated during 1949 by the United Nations' acting mediator Ralph Bunche. Thus there was an armed peace between Israel and her four Arab neighbours. A permanent peace settlement has not yet been achieved. But by the end of 1950, several countries had recognised the infant State of Israel.

Palestine is the most dramatic issue before the United Nations, because in it are involved the susceptibilities of three of the great monotheistic religions of the world-Judaism, Christianity and Islam. Jerusalem, old and new, possesses sacred shrines for these three religions. The Christian interest in Jerusalem centres on the church of the Holy Sepulchre which is reported to be the tomb of Jesus Christ. The Dome of the Rock, where once stood the temple of Solomon, Islam's third holiest shrine. The Wailing wall, which is all that remains of

the Temple of Solomon, is the Jewish holy of holies. Here the Jews from all over the world come to pray and to weep. "By the rivers of Babylon, there we sat down, yea, we wept when we remembered Zion.....If I forget thee, O Jerusalem, let my right hand forget her cunning".

Let us have a quick resume of the 30 centuries of Jewish history. David, the Prince of Judah and the King of the Israelites, made Jerusalem, the Golden, his capital about 11th century B. C. Solomon the Wise built the Temple there between 970 and 920 B. C. After Solomon's death, 10 of the 12 tribes of Israel separated and formed the Kingdom of Israel in the north of what is now known as Palestine, while the tribes of Judah and Benjamin remained loyal to the throne of David in the South. In 721 B.C. the Northern Kingdom was conquered by the Syrians and the Jewish tribes there were carried into custody and enslaved. Their fate is a mystery to history. Two centuries later, Babylon conquered the Southern Kingdom.

The Egyptians, Turks and Romans succeeded Persians in ruling Palestine. It was during the Roman period that "B.C." turned into "A.D." after the crucification of Christ, which left a lasting stigma on the Jewish forehead, and which turned the tribes of Israel "into wandering Jews," and which made the Jewish race despised by succeeding generations. Soon after the death of Prophet Mohammed, the Arab invasion occurred in 634 A. D. Palestine was from then on, ruled by the Caliphs from Bagdad until the Crusades, which started in the 10th century. The nine Crusades left their indelible mark on Palestine. To whom did Jerusalem belong, was the question? It was a struggle between the Cross and the Crescent. In 1292, the Kingdom of Jerusalem began to be ruled by Egypt. This rule ended in 1517 when the Turks conquered it. It was Napoleon's plan to annex Palestine in 1799. But this plan was frustrated by the British. Exactly 400 year since 1517, as a consequence of World War I, Palestine became a British Mandate under the League of Nations. Then followed the 30 years of Mandate.

Between the two Wars, the fate of the Jews all over the world deteriorated. They were despised and persecuted in practically every Christian country, and their leaders felt that unless they had a homeland they could not live with honour and with dignity.

This was the beginning of the Zionist movement with Palestine as its goal. This was also the beginning of the three-cornered struggle over Palestine between the Arabs, Jews and the British.

On April 2, 1947, the British themselves referred the Palestine question to the General Assembly because by this

time they had washed their hands off and were ready to cast the burden off their shoulders to the shoulder of the world organisation.

The proposal made by the United Nations Sub-Committee on Palestine consisted of vivisecting Palestine into three zones.

There would be the City of Jerusalem under an International Trusteeship of the United Nations ; there would be an Arab State which would include Western Galilee, Samaria and Judea (excepting Jerusalem) and the coastal plain from Isdud to the Egyptian frontier. All these names invoke tremulous Biblical memories. The Jewish State is to consist of Eastern Galilee, Esdrael plain, most of the coastal plain, and the Beershaba sub-District including Negev.

Both the Arabs and the Jews were dissatisfied with the plan. The Jews indeed, welcomed the partition plan, but they wanted more territory than was given to them, while the Arabs were opposed to the partition of Palestine which they regarded as purely Muslim. Both sides took the law into their own hands and there was a long period of terrorism. Meanwhile on May 14, just before the British Mandate came to an end, the Jews proclaimed an independent State of Israel. The Arab States of Egypt, Trans-Jordan, Iraq, Syria and Lebanon, promptly reacted by sending their armies across the Palestine border. There was a head-long battle between the two forces. Count Bernadotte, President of the Swedish Red Cross, agreed to be the mediator for Palestine.

Very few Arabs have proved to be first-rate soldiers. The myth of the invincibility of the Arabs was very much exploded in early 1949. The Jews on the other hand, have astounded the world. Their previous reputation was that of a mild and pacifist people. They have proved to be redoubtable fighters. There were three groups, Hanganah or the military Arm of the Israel, Irgun Zvai Leumi and the Stern Gang. They outnumbered the Arab troops in Palestine by 3 to 1. Their army is the most democratic military organisation in the world. There are no "brass hats," nor have the soldiers to salute the officers. When fighting is over, officers and soldiers share the same billets. No officer has a personal orderly. It is a heterogeneous army composed of people who have suffered oppression in some dozen different countries. Each Jewish fighter regards the war as his personal battle. As a result of their prowess, the American Gentiles who secretly despised the Jews began to be proud of them.

By the middle of 1949, Count Bernadotte had gone the way of most peace-makers ; he was martyred. The Bible says : "Blessed are the peace-makers." In Bernadotte's shoes stepped in Bunche and by the middle of 1949 when he relinquished his

position he was able to bring about separate-truce-treaties between Palestine on the one hand, and the various Arab States on the other.

In 1951, Palestine maintained a precarious peace. But the assassination of Abdullah and the wish of the Western Powers to organise a Middle East Defence system, have shaken the Israeli state to its very roots. King Abdullah was the only Arab statesman with whom the Jews could talk. With his disappearance and the trouble in the Middle East the Jews do not know any more where they stand. Further, the Anglo-Americans want to placate the Arabs in order to strengthen their strategy in the Middle East. In this picture, where does Israel come in? Can Israel, collaborate with the Arab States in defending the Middle East against the Soviet Union? Besides, would the Arab States collaborate with Israel in this matter? No body knows. In the meantime Anglo-Egyptian quarrel over Sudan and the Suez has complicated matters. The English were not happy about the foundation of the Israeli State. The English are pro-Arab in some respects because of their vital interests in the Middle East. Would the English sacrifice Israel in order to establish their old position in the Middle East? That is a question which will be much debated in 1952.

South Africa

The Indian problem in South Africa is only a part of larger problem of the Coloured versus the White races in that land which is described to be "Behind God's back." In South Africa some 25 million Whites control the lives of 8 million African Negroes, a million Coloureds (half-cast) and a quarter million Asians. In an unabashed outbreak of racism, South African champions of White Supremacy started a new doctrine of Segregation called "Apartheid" (apartness). Nobody has posed the dilemma of the White race more poignantly and more tremulously than Alan Paton in his novel "Cry the Beloved Country." He said : "Who knows how we shall fashion a land of peace where Black outnumber White so greatly? We do not know. We shall live from day to day, and put more locks on the doors, and get a fine fierce dog when the fine fierce bitch next door has pups, and hold on to our handbags more tenaciously ; and the beauty of the trees by night, and the raptures of lovers under the stars, these things we shall forego. We shall forego coming drunk through the midnight streets We shall be careful, and knock that off our lives, and hedge ourselves about with safety and precaution. And our lives will shrink, but they shall be the lives of superior beings ; and we shall live with fear, but at least it will not be a fear of the unknown. And the conscience shall be thrust down ; the light of life shall not be extinguished, but be put under a bushel, to be preserved for a generation that will live by it again, in

some day not yet come ; and how it will come, and when it will come, we shall not think about at all."

The complaint of the Indian Government against the Union of South Africa that its expatriates were being discriminated against on racial grounds, was still pending at the Paris Session of the Assembly as the year 1952 opened. The Mexican-French resolution calling on India, Pakistan and South Africa to meet in a round-table conference was passed in 1949. But the round-table conference never took place. Meanwhile Dr. Malan replaced General Smuts and the South African attitude became even more truculent. He defied the authority and the advice of the United Nations three times and persisted in his policy of apartheid. South Africa looked like one of those issues on which the United Nations could not make any progress.

An allied conflict raged over the future of the former Mandate of South-West Africa. The General Assembly referred the case to the International Court of Justice for an advisory opinion. South-West Africa is the only territory formerly under the League Mandate system which has not come under the Trusteeship of the United Nations. Neither has it become an independent territory. The repeated requests of the United Nations to the South Africa under the U. N. Trusteeship system have invoked only negative response. The representatives of the Union argued that "there is no legal obligation", and "no moral obligation". The International Court announced its advisory opinion on July 11, 1950. The Court decided by 12 votes to 2 that the Union continued to have international obligations under Article 22 of the League of Nations Covenant and the Mandate Agreement. However, the Court decided unanimously that the Union cannot, acting alone, change the international status of the territory. The competence to do this rests with the Union acting with the consent of the United Nations.

And yet the Union of South Africa went ahead with its plan of incorporating South-West Africa in the orbit of South Africa.

To go back to the Indian question in South Africa, a background summary would help understanding. The Indian problem in South African problems in India, (it all depends on one's view point) began when the first group of indentured labourers landed at Port Natal on November 16, 1860. The English who had settled in Natal and who had obtained land concessions from the local Zulus by every conceivable means, needed cheap labour to work their plantations. Slavery had been abolished by then. Nor could the "natives" be coaxed into working ; the Zulu was accustomed to an easy life. The English settlers in Natal approached the English rulers of India and invented a new form of slavery. It differed from the old

in so far as it was not life-long but was year-marked. The Indian Government agreed to supply cheap labour under terms of indenture to the Dark Continent which lies behind God's back. The Indians were brought over in lots, having been put into contract before they left India. At the end of five years of contract labour, the more aggressive and enterprising among them began to set up shops instead of returning home. Gradually they began to compete with the white trash, if not with the very people who had used their physical energies for five years. In their wake, came many educated Indians, free of indenture, to handle their affairs, particularly their retail business. Also came Indian lawyers and doctors. By 1894 there were approximately 60,000 indentured, 10,000 ex-indentured and 10,000 Indians in Natal alone in comparison with 4,00,000 Zulus and 40,000 Europeans. By 1916 Transvaal had 12,000 more. The European community reacted according to custom. Now that there was no particular use or need for such labour, the Whites sought to harass the Indians out of South Africa ; the expatriates were badgered, threatened and robbed.

Over and above these illegal persecutions of Indians, the Europeans began to prepare legal venues for their eviction. In 1906 the Government of Transvaal introduced a Bill in the legislature which, upon its passage, would require every Indian to be registered by finger prints. In this Bill the Indians saw a beginning of the end of Indian Colony in South Africa. It was at this time that Mahatma Gandhi gave them a leadership to fight against the White tyranny. He invented his famous instrument of *Satyagraha* in South Africa. Ever since, this struggle has continued, now on legal level, now through *Satyagrahic* tactics. But it was not until India became free that the authority of the world organisation was invoked on behalf of the Indian expatriates in South Africa.

In 1951, the problem was no less acute Mahatma Gandhi's son, who lives in South Africa defied the law which prevents an Asian even to sit on a bench reserved for the Europeans. The whole world wrote and talked about it. In India people were furious with this barbaric system. The subject is being debated in the General Assembly of the United Nations in Paris. The South Africans will again say that the question is an internal one and hence other countries cannot interfere. And the thing will go on. But for how long ?

VII. INDIAN VIEW OF THE WORLD.

It has been said that each man has his own conception of the world in which he lives. A Sanskrit proverb says that a frog conceives of the world as it sees it but that it consists of the well only. Similarly, a small town man's world view might be that of the town in which he lives. The larger the consciousness, the more extensive the experience, the more pervasive becomes the world view. It is fundamentally the question of training, education and awareness. But the unvarying factor is the place, the spot on which an individual stands at a given time. It is the spot that gives him the perspective. The spot is not merely spatial, it is also temporal. The mental horizon of a man may be small or large but the points at which he stands in time and space, largely determine his outlook on the universe around him. A man's view of the world and his view on the world is determined both by geography and culture but its extent depends entirely on his own personal development. Some Western thinkers have maintained that historic sense is peculiarly western. That is to say, the conception of man's relation to the time and space in which he lives is chronological to the Western mind whereas the Indian mind has looked upon space and time as one continuous whole. That is probably the reason why earliest histories of India were recorded by the Greeks, the Chinese and later by the Arabs. Even our classical writings were undated and often un-attributed to any particular author. Thus the method of surveying the world scene, world events, year by year is typically Western. There are many political surveys of the contemporary world and there are also surveys that are more inspired and display great deal of insight into the things which are happening before our own eyes. But there are hardly any surveys from the point of view of India and from the point of view of an Indian.

Besides, in India, because of our faulty trainings, we are accustomed to look at things even now, after our freedom, from the Western angles which in reality means British angles. Our yardsticks are British, even subject matter is often British. That is the reason why we often witness the curious spectacle of our scholars feeling more at ease studying the conditions of mill hands in Lancashire than of mill hands at Ahmedabad. The need is therefore great that a survey of the world affairs should be presented from Indian point of view. Here is an attempt at having a quick look at the world as it was in 1951, from peculiarly Indian angle.

First of all, it has to be said that India's estimate of the world is co-related with the foreign policy which free India is pursuing today. It is a truism to say that in international affairs a man is not alone; he is a part of the national State to which he belongs and hence an Indian's reaction to the events which have taken place during 1951 is bound to be influenced by the policy which has been pursued by the Indian Government since India became free. As we shall describe later in our chapter on India, there are several features which can be discerned in our foreign policy although it is still in its formative stage. These features owe their origin to the fact that India fought an arduous battle for freedom and during that struggle she acquired several intellectual emotional complexes. For instance, India is opposed to racial discrimination because Indians themselves were for long time subjected to the degrading practice. Secondly, India has only very recently emerged out of her colonial status. Thus India is wedded to the ideology of abolishing imperialistic domination and of feeling for the colonial people all over the world, specially in Asia. The third feature of India's foreign policy refers to the status of Asia as a whole. The past five centuries have been European centuries and Asia has been neglected consequently. Thus it has become India's pre-occupation to build up the morale of the Asian people, to increase their prestige and to equate Asia's status with that of the West. And finally, there is the principle of neutrality which India has adopted as the basis of her foreign policy. This neutrality is not passive and it does not consist in sitting on the fence. It is a kind of neutrality which endows a nation with an independent judgment on all vital issues which face the nations of the world. It certainly is neutrality between the two Power Blocks which have come to dominate the world stage since World War II.

But this much must be said that although India is neutral between the Soviet Union and the United States, between what is known as the conflict of the East and West, a large number of Indians feel more drawn to the American conception of democracy. India also aspires to industrialise the country as quickly as possible and in this respect, most Indians feel that they could not expect any aid from Russia but they could certainly get aid from America. Moreover, India has been accustomed to the parliamentary form of government for a considerable period of time and she has also developed some democratic institutions on the British model because of her long association with Great Britain. It should be remembered also that educated Indians are steeped in English language and literature while thought patterns of a large number of our national leaders are essentially Anglo-Saxon. All this naturally draws Indians closer to the West and yet Indians are not opposed to the East because of the fact that India is situated on the Asian Continent and

that Indian culture has more affinity with the culture of the Asian peoples than with the peoples of the West. Because of this crucial fact, India is well-placed to judge all political and international issues on their intrinsic merits rather than according to the policy of power blocks. Our present survey of world events reflects therefore these aspects of India's foreign policy.

Now we must add that there are three well-marked approaches to any survey of world affairs. The first is the temporal one, that is to say, chronological approach, a treatment of events year by year and day by day. The result of this approach often looks like a collection of newspaper headlines. Sometimes it appears like the index of the New York times. The second approach is spatial or geographical. When we adopt the second method of approach we do so, country by country. This method, however, is too worn out to appeal to readers who have left their schools behind sometime ago and this method often leads to that of a dry text book. The third approach is the vital approach. It concentrates on movements. It traces trends which cut across national boundaries. We have therefore subordinated the first method in this survey to the vital approach to history. The vital approach takes us away, as far away from the newspaper headlines as possible. Our aim is to provide background so that tomorrow's headline would be more intelligible.

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VIII. INDIA THE THIRD FORCE.

As far as India is concerned one knows where to start. The distinct landmark in modern history of India is August 15, 1947 for, it represented not only for India but also perhaps for the whole world the end of an era and the beginning of a new one. When India became free, the corner stone of the entire imperial system built up assiduously since the 17th century collapsed. In other words, the era of colonialism had practically ended although certain colonial powers continued to offer a last-ditch battle in order to hold on to possessions which they had acquired by doubtful means. For more than two centuries, India symbolised imperialism. For the power of the European nations to dominate other Asian and African countries was based on India because the strategy of defences was India-based. It was with the consent of the British power in India that the French and the Dutch were able to continue their domination over large areas in the Asian continent. After August 15, 1947, India began to symbolise a new freedom and a new hope for the millions of under-fed, ill-treated peoples of Asia.

The new Republic of India however, was not born without bloodshed and fire, for it was a forced birth. The withdrawal of

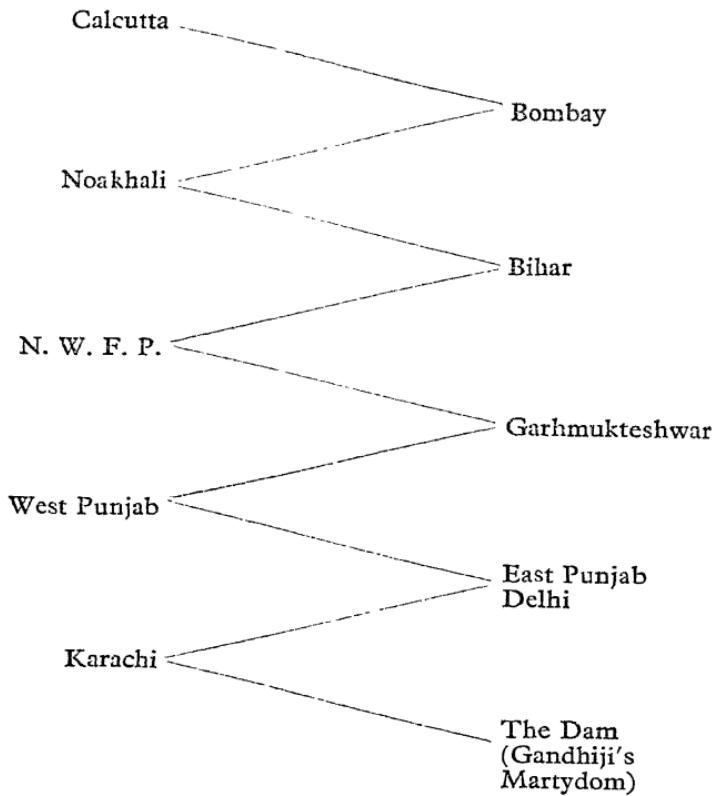
the British forces from India created new problems and the infant State appeared to be in imminent danger. The threat to the political life of free India came from three directions. First, there was the communal upheaval and secondly there was disruptive forces as represented by the Indian Princes and thirdly, there was the blood feud with Pakistan. All these threats had to be tackled immediately and it can be said that no new State at such an early stage of its life, underwent greater trial. The bitterness between the Hindus and the Sikhs on the one hand and the Muslims on the other, had resulted in the massacre of a million men, in destruction of property of much value and in looting, robbery and pillage. Counting both sides, it can be said that there were some 500,000 cases of conversions and 600,000 cases of abductions. In round figures some 8,000,000 Hindus and Sikhs left Pakistan and took the dusty, bloody and dreary trek to Hindustan while about 4,000,000 Muslims left India for Pakistan. This migration of people was considered to be the single largest movement of population in the history of the world. It taxed India's resources in both men and money and it created problems of housing, of feeding and employment for people uprooted from their ancestral homes which at a time seemed to be beyond the power of the new Government to organise.

The Chain Reaction.

Nevertheless, India came through this great ordeal in a remarkable manner. This miracle was due largely to the personnel of the Indian army, the Indian Police and the Indian Administrative Service. It is no exaggeration to say that the conduct of the Indian Army during this period was one of the most comforting features of the partition of India and it is no exaggeration to say that the Indian Army of today is perhaps the best organised and the best equipped military force in Asia, now that Japan is prostrate and China's military potential is still a matter of speculation. Similarly, the organisation of the Indian Police has proved its worth and its record shows that it is also perhaps the best police organisation in Asia. As regards Administrative service it speaks highly of the sense of patriotism and duty of the personnel of the service, who, trained by the British for quite a different kind of work, were able to rise to the occasion and demonstrate their ability to deal with this situation which was unique in the annals of India.

However, strong and disciplined and able these various organs of the former Government of India were, they were not always able to control the mass passion, the mob fury which grew in terrific intensity as a result of partition. Both in India and Pakistan, there was an unending chain of attack and revenge, starting in Calcutta with the Muslim attack on the Hindus. Had it not been broken by the martyrdom of Mahatma Gandhi, it is doubtful whether this ghastly blood feud would have come

to an end. The chain reaction which ended when the Mahatma died in the interest of communal harmony looks like this.



It seemed at that time that neither the military nor the spiritual resources of India were adequate enough to cope with the deadly conflict that had sprung up from the broken heart of a nation. To save Indian nation from this disgrace, Gandhiji

gave his life in order to prevent the further flow of blood and not to tarnish the fair name of our country. It was his great spiritual power, his final sacrifice of his own life which gave India a new lease of life, as if one man single-handed, saved the Nation from utter ruin.

The Gandhi-Legend

It is therefore no wonder that the Gandhi-Legend has grown. We all know that legendary Christ is more real in the hearts of men than the historical Christ. In the same way, a thousand years from now the legendary Gandhi will probably outshine the historical Gandhi. It has also been noticed in the course of human history that martyrdom has generally been followed by deification. Gandhi became a martyr for the cause of India on 30th January 1948 and within a week, many muslims called him a "Saheed" and thousands of Hindus began to look upon him as "Kalki", the tenth avatar who according to Hindu mythology, was to come to the world to save humanity from distress. Those however, who knew Mahatma Gandhi very well, were aware that these movements to endow Gandhiji today with a saintly halo and to canonize him after his death were very much against his expressed wishes. He always preferred to remain a man among men and a simple Indian among millions of his simple-minded countrymen, rather than become a son of God. But whether we like it or not, deification serves a deep human purpose and answers social needs which seems to be very difficult to be dispensed with. People cannot grow high unless they set up for themselves higher standards and prophets spring from the psychological urges of the people themselves.

The ashes and the remains of the Mahatma were immersed in all the holy rivers by the Hindus, while they were buried similarly by the Muslims near Jumma Masjid in Delhi. Memorials to Gandhi were not only planned in the remotest corners but also in such distant cities as London and Washington. At his prayer meetings, the Mahatma had always insisted that recitations from all the great religions should be included. According to his wish when his body was being cremated at Raj Ghat on the bank of the Jamna river, texts from the Bhagawat Gita, the Guru Granth Sahib, the Koran and the Bible were recited. Even in a country like India where for centuries, religious toleration had reached a high water-mark such a splendid religious ceremony had never taken place since the time of Guru Nanak Sahib. Later, requests came from London that the Mount Everest should be named Mount Gandhi in order to symbolize the Himalayan heights of the Mahatma among his fellow human beings. It seems that the Gandhi legend would grow all the more strong because the richness of his voice have been immortalised in the form of 150 records which the All India Radio

possess. It is said that if they are played continuously they will cover about sixty hours of broadcasting time. While in life, Gandhi was a man around whom many stories sprang up, in death also, gave rise to many interesting anecdotes. The author was told on the day Gandhi died by five people that they had strong premonitions about Gandhiji's assassination on that particular day.

It is certain that when people begin to quote a dead person on each occasion, one is sure that the person will assume one day proportions of a prophet. All over India, "Gandhiji would have said so," "Gandhiji would have wished so," "this would go against the spirit of Gandhi," have become fashionable arguments with many thousand of people. They no doubt hide fraud, dishonesty sometimes, but fraud and dishonesty among the followers is often the fate of a prophet. Because Gandhiji lived in an age famous for its facilities for communication and glare of publicity, it is sure that Gandhi Legend will resemble more and more the celestial Christ legend.

New Diplomacy.

In this connection it is important to know what exactly is meant by diplomacy. When one studies the history of diplomacy, one discerns five distinct stages. It can be said that although the first stage began at the beginning of the Christian era, in our country itself, the nations of diplomacy had reached an advanced stage at about that time. Kautilya, although not a contemporary of the Roman times, was able to evolve principles of State-craft which had proved to be not only wise but also realistic. In Rome it was the imperial stage of diplomacy and Rome was connected by conquests with most of the countries of the World known at that time. The Roman empire developed principles of State-craft in order to maintain its domination over its far-flung possessions and also to establish a system of law and order in the countries which had been dominated. We come then to the second stage of diplomacy which for the sake of convenience can be called the dynastic stage. During the dynastic stage, diplomacy remained the prerogative of the Crown and diplomatic dealing at this stage were between crowned heads of the various countries of the world. Diplomats were accredited to royal courts and their function was to represent the interests of their King or Emperor in the Courts of the country to which they were sent. But the dynastic stage in which diplomacy was used in order to maintain the continuation of the dynasties which happened to rule did not last for a very long time, because the Kings were soon forced to surrender some of their prerogatives to the peoples' representatives and we reach in this way the third stage which can be called the parliamentary stage. Herein we see for the first time the voice of the people influencing diplomatic activities though not very effectively but certainly

with considerable force. The diplomatic representatives sent abroad have to take into consideration the public feeling of the country they came from in their diplomatic transactions although they enjoy a great deal of freedom in negotiations and in arriving at political decisions. As a result of greater influence of public opinion on the administration of various countries, we see the emergence of the fourth stage in diplomacy which can be described as the community stage. On account of the development of science and as a result of the Industrial Revolution in West European countries, national communities began to overflow national States. People of different countries came to know each other over the heads of their governments and official representation and relations between peoples, between international and scientific culture institutions began to supplant relations between States. As a result of this new kind of relations between peoples, we saw the coming into existence of such an international institution as the Universal Postal Union. It signifies that whatever the governments did or thought, the peoples of advanced countries began to form opinion of each other in a special sort of way and came to know each other more intimately than it was possible a century earlier.

And thus we reach the contemporary and modern stage of diplomacy which can be described as essentially ideological. The ideological form of diplomacy is characterised by an alignment of States and Nations having the same political and social institutions even if they are separated from each other by long distances. In this form of diplomacy, the immediate economic or political interests of the countries do not seem to play the most important role and very many alliances are formed, not as in the middle ages, because of dynastic necessities or for commercial advantages, as in the 19th century, but for the pursuit of a common social goal. This development has also been possible largely on account of the dominant position which the press and the business communities have come to acquire in the affairs of States of various countries of the world. It often happens that the newspaper offices know about a particular development far in advance of the foreign office of the country concerned. This situation has further been complicated by the importance of trade unions and international fraternities which abound all the countries of the world today. In this connection, it is worthwhile mentioning that one of the striking characteristics of the ideological period of diplomacy is that civil wars are more frequent than wars.

The most striking feature of the 20th century however is the rapidity with which political decisions are taken on high levels on account of tremendous growth of quick communications. As a matter of fact, the facilities of communication have completely revolutionised diplomatic negotiations. Formerly diplomatic bags took months to reach their destinations and as a result,

the ambassadors held key to the situation. It had happened often that war or peace depended upon the ambassador who could not get in touch with his headquarters for weeks or months. But today there are direct wires, radio communications between the foreign offices and the various ambassadors today have almost been reduced to the status of messenger boys. All their activities are controlled by foreign offices of their countries because they keep hourly contacts with their various embassies and legations. This elimination of the time factor has also reduced the importance of diplomacy. In olden days, when communications were slow, the element of bluff played a very important role in the foreign policy and diplomacy of a country. But today owing to the various facets of diplomatic dealings being known and discussed by the newspapers and the public of all the countries of the world, the element of bluff has lost its potentialities in dealings between nations and nations. One could almost say that old world diplomacy is dead. Its place has been taken, one would say, by sheer naked power. Another factor which had changed the character of diplomatic dealings is the new ruling classes in almost every country of the world. The rulers in many countries of the world do not come any more from a certain privileged class or from certain privileged families but they are being drawn from the classes which had no say in the matter of administration at all, a century ago. Besides, dealings between countries and countries are no longer confined to mere exchanges of politeness but they have to take into consideration the various social and economic forces which dominate the patterns of governments that have come into existence. The result is that mere good manners or good breedings are no longer considered to be main qualifications of diplomats. They are expected to be acquainted with social and political forces of the countries to which they are accredited. As a result the British system of career diplomats seems to be already out of fashion. Instead, we have to-day more and more of the Russian and American types of politico-diplomats, hard-hitting and ruthless and unsparring to each other in calling names. And owing to the uncertain nature of the governmental system, the really effective and pliant ambassadors have also to be politicians with political backings at home. That is to say, diplomacy is no longer considered to be the mere formal relations between nations and nations but it has come to be regarded also as a part and parcel of the social system which prevails in the countries from which the diplomats come as well as in the countries to which they are accredited. Gone are the days when the diplomats enjoyed immunities of a kind which were not known to ordinary folks, for like all political activities diplomacy has also become a dangerous profession. As the World War II has shown, the diplomats of a country faithfully carrying out the instructions of their government can be held before a court of law and punished for the mistakes or

the misdeeds of their government. On the other hand, because of the complexities of relation between countries and countries the diplomatic profession is fast becoming a specialised profession and it is no longer possible for people with mere social background to deal with the various problems which arise from day to day dealings between one country and another. Indian diplomacy does not seem to be aware of this change yet. The Secretary-General of the Indian Ministry of External Affairs Shri Girja Shankar Bajpai maintains, however, that judging from the lackness of preparation, Indian diplomacy has done so far quite well. This statement he made in Poona at a public meeting and although there is as yet very few successes to the credit of the Indian Foreign office, yet there is certainly much diplomatic talent in our country. Many foreign observers, in dealing with Indian statesmen, are struck by their skill in negotiation and India has proved this skill also in many international conferences.

From 563 to a Single State

The new State of Free India had very soon to face another problem which was almost a problem of survival. When the British authority was removed, it was found that nearly 563 Princely States with various degrees of sovereignty and semi-sovereignty were scattered all over the sub-continent. They were also in various stages of development and their relationship with British India was neither uniform nor based on strictly legal principles. Although they were subservient to British India, the unity which British India and the Indian States represented was superficial and imposed only from above. It was feared when the independence of India was realised that the semi-independent States might finally disrupt the infant State of India. The States Ministry which came into being in order to bring about the integration of the Indian States was actually very nervous about the probable actions to be taken by some of the major Indian States. The final act of British withdrawal from India had left the choice of integration or independence to the Princely States themselves. It was not known for sometime whether this would lead to Balkanization of India. However, owing partly to a sense of patriotism of many of the Indian Princes and the sagacity and tactfulness of Sardar Patel India was saved from fragmentation into various components. It was also realised very soon that although the British had made out a great deal of the Indian States and had constantly repeated the argument that they were not able to grant India independence on account of the problem of the Indian States, the States themselves were in such a state of decomposition that they had no alternative but to integrate themselves into the greater body politic of India. Their decision and their integration was the work fundamentally of Sardar Patel who will go down in history as the Modern Wellesley. It was Lord Dalhousie as Governor-General of India who had negotiated the policy of annexation of

what was known as the Native States from 1848 to 1856. It was Lord Wellesley before him of course, who had realised the need of creating some sort of a united administration for the whole of India and Lord Dalhousie had merely carried out the policy chalked out by him. The significance of Dalhousie's policy lies in this that he ignored many contemporary difficulties and did boldly what he thought was necessary at that time. His policy was rudely terminated on account of what is known as the 'Sepoy Mutiny'. The British authorities at that time, as a result of the revolt of the Indian people in 1857, did not carry out the policy of annexation initiated by Lord Wellesley and carried out by Lord Dalhousie. It was to the great credit of Sardar Patel that what the British Government could not realise in nearly a century, he did it within a few months. He did it in a setting and atmosphere of freedom instead of imperialism. It is no wonder that the London Times described Sardar Patel's achievements as greater than those of Bismark who brought about German unity by bringing into the German State the various principalities which existed in Germany in semi-independent conditions throughout the 18th and 19th centuries. Sardar Patel was faced with a similar situation but he achieved Indian unity within a far shorter time than taken by the great German Statesman.

This change in the internal organisation of India has been brought about by two-fold integration. Firstly consolidation into sizeable administrative units and secondly, the growth of democratic institutions and responsible government in the former States ruled by the Indian Princes. Three different processes are known to have been adopted in relation to the integration of States. First of all, there was the merger of States into the adjacent provinces. According to this system, round about 240 States with a total area of 90,000 square miles and a population of 130 lakhs and a revenue of Rs. 600,00,000 had merged into major Provinces and have become administrative units in them. The second method was that of consolidation of States themselves into Centrally administered areas. Round about 25 States had thus been taken over by the Centre. Their administration by the Centre was decided because they were border lands and constituted vital frontiers of India. The third method adopted by the Central Government was the integration of States into viable Unions of States. Of these, the Greater Rajasthan Union which came into existence on March 30, 1949, is one of the largest administrative units in India. Its area is 125,000 square miles. The integration of the Indian Princely States into what was known formerly British India is bound to create a sort of cultural revolution. These States had remained outside the main stream of nationalistic revival in India and had remained practically untouched by modern ideas. Their contacts with more advanced social ideas of former

British India are likely to bring about changes which their former rulers had never dreamt of. On the other hand, some of the Princely States, specially the Rajput States, have been the last repository of India's old traditions. They have been rich in the tales of heroism, and special poetry of the Bards. In the Rajput States, there had also grown a special school of painting and there is also a distinctive type of architecture. Besides, some of the States were patrons of classical music and all this was due to the court tradition of Rajputana and these courts were held not only by the Maharajas but also by the Jagirdars and Talukdars who possessed 75 per cent of the lands in Rajputana. But as a result of their integration into more-go-ahead India, all these old traditions are bound to disappear. Feudalism has come to an end owing to the backward Princely states forming a part of the Indian Republic and however unwilling the Indian Princes were to part with power, they found themselves unable to stop the march of democracy. They are also unable to see their domains being ruled by people from outside their territory and as in the case of Rajasthan, ruled by non-Rajputs. This change will be most noticeable in more picturesque States in Rajputana, specially, where until recently, social order in existence was that which was in force hundreds of years ago.

Jagirdars and Zamindars

Allied to the question of Jagirdars, whose land-holding were scheduled to be nationalised is the question of Zamindars. The system known as Zamindari is mostly prevalent in U. P. and in Bengal, while in Madras, in Bihar and Orissa, it is popularly known as Estate-holding. Under the Land Tenure system which obtained in these parts, the peasant was represented by the middle man and he did not get the just returns of his labour. The free Indian Government has decided upon the abolition of these vestiges of feudalism but the question which still puzzle the Indian politicians is the question of compensation. The general opinion of the legislators of various States was that cash should be paid to these landlords and it should be spread over a period of thirty to forty years. In the first place, there is not enough in the State Treasury and consequently they cannot be paid off immediately. And secondly, printed money will only lead to inflation. A scheme which had succeeded specially in the United provinces envisages joint ownership of all the lands in the village, settlement of revenue of each village as a whole and the ownership and the joint management by the village community. Compensation is to be paid in the form of $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent interest bearing bonds redeemable after forty years. Rate of compensation range from two to 25 times the annual profits of each landlord. In Madras, one of the estimates is that some 23 crores of rupees will be necessary in order to pay landlords off as

compensation. It has been planned that the Government will acquire 2810 Zamindari estates, 3500 small estates, covering a total area of fourteen million acres. Of all the States of India, Bihar was the first to pass the Zamindari Bill and the Uttar Pradesh has followed suit. Bihar is known to have had the biggest landlord of them all viz., Maharajadhiraj Durbhangha, who is next to the Nizam in owning the largest area of land personally. Besides him, there are 127,000 other zamindars, who it had been estimated will be dispossessed of their landed property. In the matter of compensation, Bihar has fixed the ceiling as 25 lakhs of rupees to be paid to any single zamindar. One of the calculations is that some 150 crores of rupees will be needed by Bihar alone to pay zamindars off to restore that land to the tiller of the soil.

Foreign "Possessions".

The integration of India unfortunately cannot be complete until the French and Portuguese possessions on the Indian soil are also incorporated in the Indian Republic. As far as the Congress policy and the Government of India was concerned there was only one solution viz., accession by these territories controlled by France and Portugal to the Indian Republic and the end of the French and Portuguese titles to these areas. But India was faced with several other problems at the same time, so a peaceful and amicable settlement was tried. As a result of plebiscite, Chandranagore, a French possession since the 18th century was eventually merged into West Bengal. The question of Pondicherry, Karaikal, Mahe had led to charges and counter-charges by the Indian and the French Governments. The recent election held in the French possessions has been described as a complete fraud. Besides, India's hasty promise to agree to a plebiscite in the French possessions has been found to beset with many thorny problems. Impartial investigation has shown that the French maintained their rule in these parts of India by terrorism and all movements favourable to their merging into Indian Republic is ruthlessly suppressed. The Government of India has therefore hesitated to agree to a plebiscite because it fears that no fair and free expression of opinion will be possible as long as the French Police controlled these areas. Besides, the French have been able to secure some local support owing to the fact that a small number of Indians have come to acquire a stake in the French rule and owing to their vested interests would support the French. The same applies to the Portuguese possessions of Goa, Damon and Diu, where also the State Government is trying its utmost by terroristic methods to prevent the Indian population in the territories to freely express their desire for a merger with India. The Goa Indian National Congress however, is agitating for the Union of the Portuguese possessions

with India and inspite of the many arrests of pro-merger Indians in the Portuguese possessions, this movement is daily acquiring strength. Owing to various political and international reasons the Government of India has not precipitated the question of foreign possessions in India but the Prime Minister of India has officially declared that he and his Government consider these foreign possessions as an integral part of Indian Republic. This official declaration has caused some consternation specially in Portugal where Mr. Salazar, the head of the State Government, has in reply passed a legislation in the Portuguese Parliament declaring Portuguese possessions in India as a part and parcel of the metropolitan Portugal. The question has been further complicated by the acceptance of the North Atlantic Treaty Organisation of the principle that the countries which are signatories to the North Atlantic Treaty consider the defence of their overseas possessions as also involved in the terms of Treaty. That is to say, although the defence of West European countries was only meant in the North Atlantic Treaty, the European Colonial Powers have succeeded in making the other Powers recognise their overseas possessions as forming an essential part of their European territories.

Indo-Pakistan Relations

On August 15, 1947 Mother India gave birth, so to say, to twins. These were not the Siamese twins, to say the least, as we all know as far as the Siamese Twins, the life of one depends on the life of the other. So far as India and Pakistan were concerned, soon after their birth each sought survival at the cost of the other. Thus the problem of Pakistan became the third most important concern of the infant Republic of India next only to the physical survival and the integration of States. Although new India had immediately to face many problems in her international relations, India's foreign policy became dovetailed to its relations with Pakistan. While new India was looked upon with much esteem in all the countries of the world and while the post-war world expected that India would be able to make some definite contribution to the pacification of the war-divided communities, India's whole efforts had to be directed to the establishment of a workable relationship with a neighbour which did not exist before. Because of the great influence which Mahatma Gandhi had exercised on world opinion for over a decade, it was natural that many countries of the world should think that India by her Gandhian principles would be able to supply some solution to world problems as well as her immediate problem of relationship with the new State of Pakistan.

But as a result of the quarrel which developed between India and Pakistan over the question of Kashmir, relationship between the two countries became more and more bitter.

Being confident of the justness of India's title to Kashmir, India brought this dispute to the Security Council but to the great sorrow of her Statesmen it was found that the Indo-Pakistani dispute over the question of Kashmir was not being judged on its judicial merit but was being used for advancing the political ambitions of certain countries. The result was that inspite of India's efforts to come to a strictly legal solution of the problem of Kashmir, the dispute dragged on and the Pakistani politicians used the international forum for making propaganda against the Indian Republic. The relationship, however, became slightly eased as a result of the acceptance by both the countries of a Cease-fire Agreement which was signed on the New Year's Day 1950. Soon afterwards, however, it was found that Pakistan had accepted the Cease-fire Agreement in order only to gain time and when the United Nations Commission intervened and tried to bring both the countries together on an agreed policy, it simply did not work. India's original claim that Pakistan's act of aggression on Kashmir should be considered first, was ignored and it was on account of the failure of the United Nations Commission to see the Indian point of view that India gradually began to despair of a solution by the United Nations. Consequently, the Indian Parliament accepted the principle of Kashmir representation and some Kashmiri representatives were given seats in the Indian Parliament. On the other hand, the Government of Sheikh Abdulla in Kashmir made it known that an election for a constituent assembly would be held in September in order to finally frame a constitution for Jammu and Kashmir. As a result of this declaration the Pakistan Government started a violent propaganda against India and this propaganda move synchronized with presence of Dr. Graham who was sent out by the United Nations to submit a report on the situation in Kashmir. The Pakistani Prime Minister Mr. Liaquat Ali Khan flamboyantly announced the movement of "clenched fist" against India, and in Pakistan itself, inflammatory speeches were delivered by many Pakistani leaders against India. Preparations were made to build air-raid shelters in the principal towns of Pakistan and all over the country, it seemed there was a war hysteria. The Indian Prime Minister, Pandit Nehru however, pacified the situation by declaring both in public and in Parliament that India had not the slightest desire to make war upon Pakistan and that the movement of Indian troops had taken place only on account of war cry in Pakistan. With the departure of Dr. Graham from India and Pakistan, however, the excitement gradually came down and it seems that Indo-Pakistan relationship, though explosive, is gradually tending towards normalcy. One of the reasons why Pakistan's war cry or Jehad has suffered some modification is that Pakistan is facing some new trouble on its western border. More and more energies were being taxed as a

result of the growth of the movement for Pakhtoonistah, sponsored by Pakistan's neighbour, Afghanistan. The Pakhtoonistan movement is based on Afghanistan's claim for the tribal areas in the former North Western Frontier Province. The people and the government of Afghanistan claim that Durand Agreement of 1893 was forced by the British upon the weakened Afghanistan in order to keep Russia away from Kabul. This Agreement was arrived at after about half a century of warfare with Afghanistan, the first Afghan-British war having commenced in 1838. Now that the British Power has been removed from India, the Afghans demand that the whole question of the Durand line should be examined again and the Afghans living in Pakistani tribal areas should be given the choice to establish an autonomous State of their own. As a result of this movement there have been minor clashes between the Afghans in tribal areas and the Pakistani troops, leading to further alienation of the two countries. Owing however to the pressure on her western border, Pakistan is more and more likely to adopt a moderate policy towards her great neighbour, India, and although it is not known whether this attitude will be maintained for a long time, it is, however, expected that on account of the internal condition in Pakistan itself, the Government of Pakistan will find it necessary to have more cordial relations with India. Besides, as it was evident in the case of the conspiracy which was discovered in the Pakistan Army in the beginning of 1951, public opinion in Pakistan has begun to be tired of a hostile policy towards India. More realistic considerations of defence and economy are forcing Pakistan politicians to modify their attitude towards India especially as the national economy and the question of defence of both the countries are closely related. The Afghan question however, has assumed serious proportions on account of the fact that Afghanistan wants an outlet to the sea. The Afghans had been handicapped for centuries for lack of a port and Afghanistan's development has been hindered, on account of its essentially landlocked character. Enlightened Afghans are of the opinion that if Afghanistan could have a port of its own, social and political improvements would follow almost automatically. It was because, they claim, that the only access to outside world was through the tortuous routes of Khyber Pass that the Afghan people remained backward and unresponsive to new ideas which had transformed the whole world into progressive world of to-day. The Afghans had pressed forward their claim for an outlet to the sea with the British but without any success. Afghanistan has wanted the port of Las Bela in Kalat State which empties itself in the Sonmiani Bay and which is just west of Karachi. Her claim to this port is based on the argument that Afghanistan is being economically strangled by Pakistan. Moreover, as we have said before, Afghanistan looks upon the Pathan tribesmen east of the Durand

Line as their own kinsmen and the Afghans resent the way in which the Pakistan Government has treated the great Pathan leader Khan Abdul Gaffar Khan and a tribal chieftain, the Fakir of Ipi. This situation was further complicated by Persia's claim on parts of Baluchistan and although Persia and Pakistan have signed a treaty of friendship, there were some border incidents between these countries in early months of 1949.

Another factor which is likely to contribute to an improvement of Indo-Pakistan relationship is the disillusionment of the Pakistani leaders regarding the strength of the Arab world. In pre-partition days, the Muslims in India used to look upon the free Arab world as their ideal. By coming into closer contacts with Muslim States of the near East, the Pakistani leaders have discovered that the policy of the Arab countries is not determined by their affiliation to Islam. They have also realised that Islamic solidarity is merely an idea. The conflict of interests between Arab countries themselves has rudely shakened the belief of the Muslim leaders in Islamic brotherhood. Nevertheless, the situation remained still full of dangers as it was evidenced by the sudden flare-up of Hindu-Muslim troubles in March-April 1950. During that period a very large number of Hindus who still lived in East Pakistan were forced to migrate to West Bengal and the tension was aggravated by careless talks of war between the two countries. That grave situation was saved by the signing of the Indo-Pakistan Pact in April, 1950.

Indo-Pakistan Pact, 1950.

The pact was the result of bold statesmanship of the Prime Minister of India and the Prime Minister of Pakistan. Pandit Nehru in introducing the Pact in the Parliament said :

“During the past weeks and months, when the whole country, and more particularly Bengal, have faced tragedies and disorders and is not surprising that people's minds should have been excited and passion let loose. Yet the disorder that came and the tragedies that overwhelmed vast numbers of people appear to be a prelude to even a greater catastrophe.”

Later, when he visited Karachi on a courtesy call he confessed that India and Pakistan were on the verge of a war. It was to avoid this great calamity, that the Indo-Pakistan Agreement was signed. The essential features of the Agreement are these :

“The Government of India and Pakistan solemnly agree that each shall ensure to the minorities throughout their territories, complete equality of citizenship, irrespective of religion, a full sense of security in respect of life, culture, property and personal honour, freedom of movement within each country

and freedom of occupation, speech and worship, subject to law and morality."

"In respect of immigrants from East Bengal, West Bengal, Assam and Tripura, where communal disturbances have recently occurred, it is agreed between the two Governments :—

"(i) that there shall be freedom of movement and protection in transit."

"(ii) that there shall be freedom to remove as much of his moveable effects and household goods as an immigrant may wish to take with him."

The Agreement however, was not approved by many sections of the people in both the countries. In India such Bengali members of the Central Cabinet as Shyama Prasad Mukherjee and K. C. Neogy resigned in protest. They affirmed that Pakistan would never observe the terms of the Agreement and the best course for India would have been to rescue the Hindu population in Eastern Pakistan by applying force, if necessary. There is no doubt, however, that the Pact averted a great calamity and as such it served, even if it was for a while, stabilise the situation somewhat in both the countries. In order to implement the terms of the Agreement, the Government of India appointed Mr. C. C. Biswaas the Minister of Minorities and similarly in the Pakistan Government, Dr. A. M. Malik was appointed to deal with the question of minorities in Pakistan. There were several conferences between the two Ministers and the panic which had started in March-April 1950 largely subsided owing to efforts made by them to pacify the excitement caused by the tension of that period. It has been claimed that Pakistan was not fulfilling her part of the contract and that there is no feeling of security amongst the minority communities especially in East Pakistan. Occasional troubles which have very often been magnified have been dealt with courageously and although the minority communities in West and East Pakistan seem to suffer from genuine grievances, it is believed that more normal relations will be established on account of the political reasons we have enumerated above. Besides, the fact of economic interdependence of both the States is exerting greater moderation on the fanatics in both the countries and the splendid stand taken by Pandit Nehru has undoubtedly created an excellent mental climate for a future understanding and reconciliation.

Problem of Food and Population

The new Republic of India had to face, from the very outset, two very serious problems. They were ; (1) the problem of food ; and (2) the problem of growing population. On account of partition and the unavailability of rice from Burma and Siam, India's food problem began to be precarious from

1948 onwards. Never self-sufficient in food, India depended more for wheat and rice on countries which charged her sellers' prices. That was the reason why the new Government had immediately to take up the problem of growth of more food. India has cultivable area of 398 million acres, 61 percent of which is crop yielding, 16 percent fallow and 23 percent though cultivable but left waste. That is to say, about 138 million acres are either not available or not suitable for cultivation. Moreover, what is cultivated gives a very low yield and is becoming gradually exhausted by erosion or deforestation on account of India's primitive methods of farming. The agricultural situation, therefore, became far from satisfactory and during the period of 1948-49 of which detailed statistics are available there was a decline in both area and yield under major crops. This led to the imports of about 30 million tons foodgrains from abroad in 1948-49 valued at about 130 crores of rupees. Because of the smaller yields, estimated for 1948-49 season, the imports of foodgrains during 1949-50 were nearly 4 million tons. These changes became more serious on account of partition. The loss India suffered in her resources of raw jute and raw cotton was so great that it finally offset the relative improvement in India's industrial position. With only 70 percent of the pre-partition acreage under rice and 64 percent under wheat, India had to feed 78 percent of the population of undivided India after the partition. The problem of food supply is therefore, one of the most serious problems which the Government of India had to face in 1950 and it was accentuated by the failure of crops specially in Bihar where in early 1951 a serious danger of famine became quite evident. Although the Prime Minister of India had, a year ago, promised that India would become self-sufficient in food by 1951, it was realised early in 1951 that without imports of a substantial amount of food from abroad, the danger of famine could not be staved off. Consequently, India had to accept on long term credit, a considerable amount of food grains from the U. S. A.

This problem of food supply is again connected with the high rate of increase of India's population. The Prime Minister of India in the course of his address to the ECAFE at Ooty started a debate by referring to wide open spaces, meaning thereby, that the question of over-population was highly exaggerated. It seems, he had seen the wide open spaces from an aeroplane and some people, therefore, said that his views were necessarily airy and not of a man deeply conscious of realities of the situation. The fact of the matter, however, is that one in four children born into this world is either an Indian or a Pakistani and of this Indian and Pakistani children, one in five is supposed to be born in Bengal. The ratio will be much higher had it not been for the high rate of infant mortality in India. The question, therefore, arises how can

India feed this growing population, and secondly, what standard of living is India aiming at. That seems to be the crucial problem. If we think that the sub-human existance, which most of the Indian people live, is the standard which we want to maintain, then, of course, India could possibly sustain a few more millions ; but if India is aiming at a more decent standard of living which can be compared favourably to that of the advanced countries of the West, then it must be stated boldly that India must immediately introduce family planning. Several Indian specialists on population, including Professor Chandra-sekaran, have pointed out that the only real remedy against the constant danger of famine is the limitation of family. For, it has been calculated that atleast 2.5 acres per head are necessary to make people self-sufficient in food-grains. It will, therefore, be seen that even India's present population is far too much for India's size. Some have suggested that the problem can be solved by more industrialisation of the country. But there too, we have to admit our limitation. Although we have vast potential resources, but when it comes to high grade iron ores or to coal and petroleum, we find that India is substantially deficient in these vital materials. Besides, the home market is also very limited. There is no doubt that in the industrial field there has been an increase in the output of most industries such as cotton textiles, paper and paper-board, cement, castic soda and bicycles and the industrial disputes have also substantially decreased as compared with the preceding years, and it has been estimated that the number of working days was reduced by over 50 percent, but nonetheless, the pressure of population makes it very difficult for India to plan reasonably to maintain a tolerable standard of living. The recorded birth and death rate in 1949 were 27.6 and 16.4 respectively as compared to 38 and 34 for the first two decades of the present century. As pointed out by the Planning Commission ; that under present conditions "an increase in manpower resources does not strengthen Indian economy but in fact weakens it". The Planning Commission, therefore, recommend that in the present context unless measures are initiated to bring down birth and to reduce the rate of population growth "the continuously increasing amount of effort on the part of community will be used up only in maintaining the existing standards of consumption." And it therefore paints a gloomy picture for the future of India in the following words :—

"That all the effort that the first 5 year plan will represent, it will be possible barely to restore by 1955-56 the pre-war standards of consumption in regard to essentials like food and clothing. Increasing pressure of population on natural resources (which must inevitably be limited) retards economic

progress and limits seriously the rate of extension of social services so essential to civilized existence."

The Planning Commission, therefore, comes to the conclusion that the population policy is essential to any kind of planning. It seems then very important that India must adopt a policy of controlling population if India is to look forward to prosperity in the future. How serious the problem is shown by the fact that the population of India has more than doubled in a century. The estimate in 1851 was that India had a population of 150 million. In 1951 the provisional figure for partitioned India was 361,820,000 including Jammu and Kashmir and the tribal areas of Assam. This figure represents an increase of more than 42,060,000 or 13·4 percent over the figure of the last decennial census of 1941. This, as has been pointed out before, has become more acute on account of partition which has resulted in the grain growing areas going to Pakistan. As 1951 ends there seems to be no sign of improvement either in the food situation of the country or in the problem of reduction of population. Here and there attempts were made haphazardly to grow more food and the Government even organised with a great deal of fanfare, the movement called "Vanamahotsava," the idea being that the people should plant more trees so that more cultivable lands should be available to the people. All this, however, touched only the fringe of the real problem and nowhere it seemed that there was any serious realisation of the difficulties which India was going to face in the near future. As long as India was under foreign domination, it was convenient for the leaders of the nation to put all the blame on the foreign rulers and although some of the blames were highly deserved, yet the fact remains that in independent India the people are likely to clamour for more results from the statesmen who have come into power. As regards birth control, there has been no attempt to tackle the problem at all and as the question is very much mixed up with popular beliefs and customs, it seems there would be no measure adopted even in the distant future to control somehow the rapid growth of population which every year brings new problems to the new State.

National Income.

The new State of India had other problems also. The first task was naturally to tackle immediate issues. The project for creative construction had to be shelved for the time being. Meanwhile, production became low, prices rose and inflation became rampant. All the great plans for industrialisation made only slight progress up to the close of 1951. The task of raising the standard of living of India's millions had, for one reason or other, to be relegated to a secondary position while the Govern-

ment has to tackle first the problem of feeding and housing the people.

India's economic needs forced one reversal in its national policy. Formerly India was opposed to investment of foreign capital, but when it was found that India's resources were inadequate for large-scale industrialisation, the Government of India by a public statement re-assured the rest of the world that its investment in India would not be discriminated against. The Indian Prime Minister's statement to this effect was acclaimed everywhere. India was also fortunate in another respect. The International Monetary Fund, the World Bank and the American Government appeared ready to help India financially. This was partly due to the fact that since independence India had maintained a stable currency ; India's trade balances were satisfactory and India was the only sizeable stabilising factor in the Middle-East Asia. Owing also to the reverses of Chiang Kai Shek Government in China, American attention was diverted to India which was the only non-Communist country in South East Asia.

In order to have a more logical scheme of taxation and more suitable borrowing programme, the Government of India appointed a 4-man Commission to make a new estimate of the national income of India. This was very important because the national income of India has never been estimated correctly. The first man to compute the national income in India was Dadabhai Naoroji. In 1870 he estimated the average income of an Indian to be Rs. 20 per annum. Thirty years later, Lord Curzon's estimation raised the figure to Rs. 30/-. Another guess was made in 1914 and this came to Rs. 44/8. Methods of calculation and available figures had improved by early twenties and the figure was placed between 67 and 116. Sometime ago Sri K. C. Neogy placed the annual income of the average Indian at Rs. 204/-. The National Income Committee estimated that the per Capita national income worked out at Rs. 250/-. The Committee however maintained that owing to absence of proper statistics a more correct estimate could not be made. Besides, the distribution of National income between urban and rural sectors is of such importance for policy purposes that a balance has to be preserved between these two sectors if a sound programme of development is to be carried out. A further report will be submitted in 1952 and it is expected that a more correct estimate of national income will be available to the public then. This report has drawn attention to the appalling poverty of the Indian people, for, compared to the national income of all advanced countries, the Indian income indeed is very low. The problem now arises how quickly the average income of the people can be increased and better conditions of living introduced. This is the question on which, during elections, many political parties carried out campaigns in the country and the fact of

India's poor living conditions was very much brought to public notice.

Hindu Code Bill.

Side by side with the problem of economic betterment of India, the question of social progress also occupied the attention of the new Government. The outmoded structure of Hindu Society had to be altered not only for the survival of Hinduism itself but also for the sake of creating new social values and a progressive and modern society. The Hindu Code Bill therefore was presented before Parliament during the last Session and this fanned passions on both sides. There were meetings and demonstrations for and against the Bill all over the country and hot words were exchanged inside Parliament between the supporters of the Bill. Only a few Clauses of the Bill could be passed as the programme of work before Parliament was a heavy one and the Prime Minister of India in a very able speech defended the Bill by saying that it was one of the things on which he staked the reputation of his Government. One of the best speeches during the session was delivered by Mr. Gadgil who pointed out that the Bill had tried only to codify the existing anomalies of laws of inheritance of property and the purpose of the Bill was to make those laws uniform for the whole country. The significance of the Hindu Code Bill in the context of the new society which is going to evolve in India is great indeed. It can be described also as the welcome vengeance of the millennium, but considering the detachment of the man involved I would stick to my first description. When the innovations go into action, the principles of birth-right and the property rights by survivorship will be abolished. The daughter will almost receive an equal share with the son. The woman's limited estate would be converted into an absolute estate. Caste will no longer be recognised in marriage or adoption. Polygamy will be outlawed and divorce will be possible both in sacramental and civil marriages. In a nut-shell, the entire structure of the Hindu society will be revolutionised.

The man who was instrumental in shaking the foundations of the Hindu Society is an "untouchable" leader (I use the term only in order to dramatise the drama, and not because I believe in any such practice), Dr. Bhim Rao Ambedkar. He comes from a class victimised by the caste system. Dr. Ambedkar, earlier in his career, publicly burnt the Manu Smriti, the source of Hindu Law. Then he was able to destroy a copy of that book. When he piloted the Hindu Code Bill he was able to destroy the messages of the book itself. Thus it is the vengeance of the century, Manu was being streamlined by one of his own latter-day victims.

But the "delaying tactics" of the orthodoc has somewhat succeeded. For the fourth time, the code's consideration was

postponed, at the close of 1951. The argument was: such a fundamental bill should be left for the first Parliament elected on the basis of universal franchise.

But those who wanted speed also had a valid argument. The laws of the Hindu Code are scattered in the decisions of High Courts and the Privy Council and as such they engender unnecessary litigation. Moreover, certain aspects of the Hindu Law as we know it now are in contradiction with the fundamental rights guaranteed in the new Constitution. For instance, the new Constitution bars discrimination on the ground of sex ; while the Hindu Law to day often places woman at the mercy of man.

The New Constitution

Preoccupation with immediate problems did not prevent the infant State of India from concentrating on the framing of a new constitution. Delegates to the Constituent Assembly worked hard in order to evolve a Charter of Freedom, although there were many charges that the members of the Constituent Assembly were not moving as fast as they could. But the document was ready and India was proclaimed a Republic on 26th January, 1950.

Two considerations emerged as cardinal. One pertained to the past and the other to the future. Most of the recent miseries of Indian sprang from communal tension. The primary concern of the constitution-makers was to remove the communal cancer from the fundamental law of the land. The futuristic element pertained to the nature of the new State.

The Constituent Assembly decided to abolish the pernicious system of separate electorate and of reservation of seats, except in cases of Scheduled castes and tribes. This decision amounted to a death blow to communalism in India. Minorities are in the habit of developing a vested interest of separatism. By this single measure minorities are told, so to speak, that their interests as well as the interest of the nation lay in assimilation with the majority. A necessary exception, however, was made in the case of the Scheduled Castes and Tribes. Because they are backward and comparatively uneducated, they had to be given handicaps so that they could run the democratic race on equal footing.

The Muslims and Christians were in this manner brought into the democratic line. The sturdy Sikh community of East Punjab nevertheless, posed a perplexing problem. Eventually they were persuaded to give up their demand for reserved seats. Certain lower castes among the Sikhs were bracketed with the Scheduled Castes and they were given reserved seats. The Sikhs were prepared to accept this formula because they hoped to capture all the reserved Scheduled Caste seats in the East Punjab. However, they ran the risk of losing their own. In a

way, India received a slight respite from a further fragmentation of the country in the form of a Sikhistan in East Punjab.

1951 saw the functioning of the New Constitution and it can be said that a very high standard of discussion has been somehow maintained in Parliament and India has most certainly proved to the world that she favours a democratic system of government. There has been very little opposition to the Parliamentary system in the country and although many people in their impatience would like to see the Government and the Parliament speed up social legislation, there was, however, no desire to go back upon the Parliamentary method of government which India has inscribed in her Constitution. The only serious criticism made against the Constitution was that it had conformed too much to the British pattern. Some critics said that India ought to evolve her own Parliamentary procedure and practices. It was also maintained by some that the Constitution is defective in many respects. The Amendment to the Constitution passed by Parliament also evoked some severe criticism although it was held by the Supreme Court of India that the Parliament of India was fully entitled to do so.

An Independent Republic.

As early as the opening weeks of the Constituent Assembly the form of the Government of free India was a forecast in the Objectives Resolution. An Independent Republic was envisaged. By the beginning of 1949, the concern of the statesmen of India was about reconciling the objective of Republicanism with their desire to retain some sort of a link with the Commonwealth. At the London Conference of Commonwealth Prime Ministers in April 1949, a formula was evolved to accommodate the Republican ambitions of India. It was an amicable settlement, and Pandit Nehru received bouquets from most of the countries of the world, including his own. This did not mean complete lack of opposition in India. The Communists and the Socialists were vociferous in their denunciation of India's continued membership in the Commonwealth. There was no dearth of opposition from among the Congress ranks, yet Pandit Nehru vindicated his position as the representative of the dominant sentiment in India.

India got everything without giving much ; because of the London agreement, Indians would enjoy a status in all the Commonwealth countries somewhere between "nationals" and "foreigners." This would perpetuate the present financial and commercial relations among the Commonwealth countries. India is not to owe any allegiance to the Crown. Although the Crown was accepted as the symbolic head of the Commonwealth, it was at India's insistence that no machinery of intra-commonwealth secretariat was erected lest it led to the formation of a Super

State. The main argument that Pandit Nehru advanced was that India's adherence to the Commonwealth did not imply membership in any power bloc. Commonwealth solidarity on the other had was hailed as a step towards world peace.

During 1951 the Commonwealth solidarity survived many a critical situations, for it was felt in certain circles that the British Government was favouring Pakistan at the expense of India. The Colombo Plan initiated by the British Government was also well received and there had been some military discussions on General Staff level on the question of defence of the Commonwealth in which Indian military personnel had taken part. India maintained her independence in foreign policy by refusing to attend the San Francisco Conference although she was a signatory to the Treaty of Peace with Japan. And it seems that this action has not created any serious misunderstanding either with Great Britain or with any other Commonwealth country.

The Tower of Babel.

The physical integration of India is not half as important as the cultural integration of India. Besides innumerable dialects, there are around a dozen Provincial languages in the country. These belong to two broad groups ; Indo-Aryan and Dravidian. Three-fourths of India speak Indo-Aryan languages which flow from the same source, Sanskrit. Other languages are Dravidian in origin and pre-Aryan. An estimate of the relative use of the main modern languages of India would in round figures be as follows :

<i>Indo-Aryan languages</i>	<i>No. of people using the language</i>
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Hindustani	... 80,000,000
Bengali	... 45,000,000
Marathi	... 25,000,000
Punjabi	... 20,000,000
Gujerati	... 15,000,000
Oriya	... 12,000,000

<i>Dravidian languages</i>	<i>No. of people using the language</i>
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Telugu	... 30,000,000
Tamil	... 25,000,000
Kanarese	... 15,000,000

The Congress Party platform has sought to increase the importance of Provincial languages. The Congress has also sought to replace English by Hindi or Hindustani. After independence, many people saw the beginning of the end of the sway of the English language over upper-crust Indians. Many scholars, however, believe that the importance of English in India will increase apace with the importance of Hindi or Hindustani.

When the period of passion is over, the Provincial languages will become less and less important. When Indians were a subject nation, they had certain prejudices against English as the language of the Rulers. Now it is being realised that English is no more the language of the British People alone ; it is the language of the world. Moreover, certain phrases and concepts could not be expressed in a language unless analogous institutions become part of the culture. We are reminded here of the experiment conducted by the Osmania University of Hyderabad. They had decided to translate all text books in Urdu. As a consequence they had to invent around 20,000 new words. The result was that even Urdu speaking students had to learn a new Urdu in order to understand these text books.

The Linguistic problem has been further complicated by the movement to establish Linguistic Provinces in the country. The first man to suggest this was Mahatma Gandhi who at the Nagpur Session of the Congress undertook to reframe the constitution of the national organisation. Since then much water has passed under the Ganges and Jamuna and the top leadership of India has come to realise that the establishment of linguistic provinces would create stupendous administrative and economic embarrassments. Moreover, the creation of linguistic provinces would be a retrogressive act. India's genius seems to be anti separatism. The tendency is to draw smaller and smaller circles. In an age when we require larger loyalties to nationhood Linguistic Provinces would give a lead in the opposite direction by making Provincial minded Indians more Provincial.

The Constituent Assembly had instituted what came to be known as the Dhar Commission. It gave a verdict against Linguistic Provinces. Passions were so aroused that another High-Powered Committee was needed to give benediction to the Dhar Committee's findings. A three man tribunal consisting of Pandit Nehru, Sardar Patel and Dr. Pattabhi Sitaramayya was empowered to give a verdict on the Dhar verdict. This Committee also found that the time was not "opportune" for the formation of Linguistic Provinces. There could not have been a higher authority than this Committee of the Big Three.

Yet, the movement for the Linguistic Provinces continued, especially in Andhra and Maharashtra. The proposal to convert the cities of Bombay and Madras into separate, centrally administered Provinces, was calculated to be a deterrent to the Linguistic Provinces Movement. The question hung in the balance, but as 1952 opened, the movement toward linguistic provinces had lost most of its movement. On the other hand, the language question became clearer. Within 15 years of 26th January 1950, Hindi with Devanagiri Script and Arabic numerals is to replace English as the State Language. The dozes to be administered are left in the hands of the President.

Overseas Indians.

Indians have always been pioneers. They contacted the Far East and the Middle East long before European Nations pitched their tents in those countries. In fact, it was a BANIA from Gujerat who showed Vasco de Gama how to round the Cape of Good Hope in order to reach India. It was a supreme irony of history that another Gujerati-Bania, Mohandas Karamchand Gandhi, showed the Europeans the way out of India. I have before me a rare book called the STORY OF GEOGRAPHIC DISCOVERY, by Joseph Jacobs, and here is an interesting quotation. "In 1496 King Emmanuel commissioned Vasco de Gama, a gentleman of his court, to attempt the eastward route to India, with three vessels, carrying in all about 60 men - In every case he found the ports infested by fanatical Moors and it was not till he arrived at Melinda that he was enabled to obtain provisions and a pilot Maiemo Cana, an Indian of Gujerat who was familiar with the voyage to Calicut. Under his guidance Gama's fleet went from Melinda to Calicut in 23 days." Thus 464 years ago, a Gujerati showed to the Europeans a way to India and after 4½ centuries another Gujerati threw them out.

Indians had established commercial contacts with Mombasa, East Africa, Java and Sumatra in the 15th century. In fact there is a proverb that whoever went to Java came back a millionaire.

The overseas problem of Indian nationals was not created by these pioneering Indians. It was created after the Europeans established themselves in India. In 1813, slavery was abolished in the British Empire. The same step was taken in the French Empire in 1848. Thus the Negro slaves in the East Indies and the West Indies found themselves to be free men and they went back to their easy-going ways. The European planters were forced to seek cheap labour from other sources and a new slavery known as the Indenture system was created. India, along with China, was one of the main sources from which to draw this new type of slaves. As a consequence, "Little Indias" were established in East Africa, South Africa, Kenya, Fiji, West Indies, British Guiana, Trinidad, Ceylon, Malaya, and Burma. There are around 37,17,000 Indians who have made their homes away from their motherland. The main concentrations of Indians overseas are as follows :

Burma	...	10,17,825	(1931 estimate)
British Malaya	...	7,54,849	(1937 ,)
British Guiana	...	1,42,978	(1937 ,)
Ceylon	...	80,000	(1938 ,)
Fiji	...	89,333	(1937 ,)
Mauritius	...	2,69,701	(1937 ,)
Natal	...	1,83,649	(1936 ,)
Trinidad	...	1,54,080	(1937 ,)

One of the ironies of Indian Independence has been that the plight of Indians overseas has become more precarious after the country became free. At present Indian settlements in Malaya, Burma, and South Africa are under pressure. In Ceylon, the local Indian Congress has rejected both the Ceylon Citizenship Act and the Indian and Pakistani Resident Citizenship Act. They have demanded full citizenship rights upon the condition that the candidates should make a "declaration" to settle in the islands permanently to acquire Citizenship".

There are around 7 lakhs workers in Tea and Rubber plantation and they constitute 85% of all the Indians in Ceylon. Ceylon has a population of 7 million and the Indians there do not constitute more than 10%. In the first place, they went to Ceylon at the invitation of the rulers of Ceylon.

The present policy of the Government of India is to have an amicable settlement with Ceylon, and to honour Ceylon's complete independence. The realists in India, however, believe that from the defence point of view, Ceylon could never be completely independent of India. Ceylon's anxiety to remain a member of the Commonwealth springs from this apprehension about India.

All over the world, Indian settlements are under pressure. There is one shining exception. This is in Fiji, where only 80 Islands are populated. Suva is the Capital and the main port. The Fiji Islands are on the eve of becoming completely Indian. The present and rapidly increasing preponderance of Indian population in Fiji Islands is bound to have a profound effect on the future of the Colony.

The immigration of indentured labour from India started in 1879. By 1916, about 40,000 to 50,000 Indians were introduced in the Fiji Islands. At this point, organised migration was stopped. But by 1937 they had multiplied to 125 thousand, around 47% of total population. By 1945 Indian, outnumbered the Fijians. And their numerical superiority is improving each year. In the short space of seventy years, Indians have become a majority in the Islands. The reasons given are greater fertility, less mortality and higher proportion of girls among children.

The Foreign Office in New Delhi is torn between the horns of a dilemma. If India protects its expatriates abroad, those expatriates lose the citizenship rights of the countries they have settled in. If Indians abroad become the citizens of their adopted lands, they become foreigners to India and as such pass out of the circle of Indian responsibility.

During his trip to South East Asia in 1950, Pandit Nehru met "Little Indias" everywhere. To all of them he advised to be loyal to the lands of their adoption and to be citizens thereof.

India in Asia

Pandit Jawahar Lal Nehru has often stated that India wants to serve Asia and not to lead it. Yet by common consent, both in the East and the West, this country is regarded as the Leader of Asia. To some extent it has resulted from the glamour of Nehru's name. To some extent it has resulted from Chiang's collapse. And perhaps the main reason is India's financial solvency and military might, compared to other nations of Asia.

There is also a technical reason. India has become the holding-ground of International Conferences. Several such conferences have been held in India in the last five years. Three conferences directly contributed towards the legend. The first was the Asian Relations Conference of 1947: the second was the Asian Regional Conference on Indonesia in January 1949 and the third was Commonwealth Conference on Burma.

The Asian Relations Conference took a historian's mind back to the Congress of Verona which met in 1822 when the Western powers gathered together to consider "the Eastern Question" arising out of the impending dissolution of the "Turkish Empire." The conflict between the Cross and the Crescent, resulting in the Crusades, had prepared the European mind to regard Asia as the World away from the modern West; and yet it was at Verona in 1822 that what later became Kipling's "twain" was legally born.

In 1947, Eastern Nations met to consider the "Western Question" arising out of the impending dissolution of the British, French and Dutch Empires.

The Congress of Verona marked the rise of Europe.

"The Congress of Delhi" marked the rise of Asia after a long slumber. From the point of view of the alignment of World power, the Asian Relations Conference was the most significant event of the past 125 years. Verona gave expression to the growing leadership of Europe, Delhi gave expression to the leadership of Asia.

The exciting thing about the end of an era is that it is the beginning of another. As the curtain fell on Europe, it rose on Asia. The disintegration of Europe's imperialism resulted in Asia's emergence as a Community of free nations. The process was long in the making. Imperialism is one-part power and 10-parts bluff. So the rise of Asia has been in direct proportion to its ability to call off the bluff of the White Man's invincibility. What remained of the myth was finished off when the Saxon fell at Singapore in 1942 before the Japanese.

So far as the Regional Conference on Indonesia was concerned, Asia started with its best foot forward. The West

expected the Delhi session to turn outright into an Asian bloc. It did not. The shock of surprise is always greater than the impact of the realisation of one's fears. The East refused to imitate the West, at last for the time being, in forming a bloc.

The various delegates came to Delhi conscious of the importance of the occasion. The various delegates left Delhi conscious of their own potential strength. They were a bit surprised themselves at the amount of world curiosity they had invoked. They might have been small men individually, but collectively they were in grip of mighty forces. They met at a time when history was turning a new cycle.

The first enthusiasm for Asian Unity having been over, there has been in the last year, a lot of serious thinking about the actual relationship between the various Asian countries. The countries of Asia although they had belonged to the same continent, had strangely enough very little connection with one another. On account of European domination or European influence in practically all the countries of Asia, the Asian countries had oriented themselves towards those European countries with whom they had the longest contacts. For instance, an Indian and a Chinese or for the matter of that an Indian and an Indonesian had very little Asian affinity and an Indian felt more at home in English surroundings just as an Indonesian knew more about Holland and the Dutch than about India or the Indians. This initial disadvantage after the conquest of independence in many Asian countries is causing anxiety all over Asia. That is to say, the pattern of Asian Unity has not yet definitely evolved. On the other hand, the conversion of China into communism has brought about new political alignments which do not conform to an Asian pattern. The result is that an uniform Asian policy on International affairs is not yet in sight. India, however, because of her independent foreign policy has succeeded in keeping the balance by refusing to ally herself with any of the two blocs which are contending for power in the modern world. Her action in refusing to attend the San Francisco Conference was meant somehow to register an Asian opinion on the vital problems which concern essentially the Asian people. How it will shape in the future and how it will bring the Asian peoples closer to each other is not yet clear. The fact is that after the end of European domination in most countries, a new approach to Asian relationship will have to be evolved. Before the Second World War, the idea which united the Asian people was their hatred of the Western powers. They should now develop an understanding for each other and an appreciation of each others' difficulties and points of view. There is a lot of talk already of a Second Asian Relations Conference and many Indian statesmen think that the time is opportune for another meeting of Asia's statesmen in

order to adjust relationship of Asian countries in the light of new developments.

The Post-Patel India.

On 15th December 1950, India received a staggering blow. Sardar Patel, variously described as the "strong silent man" and "Bismarck" died. Pandit Nehru called him the "Consolidator of India".

From the point of view of this world, Gandhiji left a great void. But from the point of view of India's politics, Sardar Patel left a greater void; intensity increased because of the limited area. When Gandhiji died, there was the diarchy of Nehru and Patel to replace the "monarchy" of the Mahatma. Gandhi had united all the differing forces of India in a popular front against the common enemy. To some extent, the Dial of Nehru and Patel was able to continue this uneasy equilibrium; Nehru attracted the Left and Sardar attracted the Right, and that the Congress continued as a movement instead of a party. This arrangement was not possible after the passing away of Sardar Patel, and the Congress was destined to shrink to the size of a political party from the mighty dimensions of a movement.

The break was coming even during the last months of Sardar Patel's earthly existence. On September 15, on the eve of the Nasik session of the Congress, Pandit Nehru issued a statement that publicised the split that existed between the two schools of thinking. The springboard was the election of Babu Purshotamdas Tandon as the Congress President which was interpreted in certain quarters as a victory for the reactionaries and revivalists. Pandit Nehru made his own position clear and enunciated his own philosophy for which he received a lip mandate at Nasik. He stated *inter alia*.

"I am clearly of the opinion that we must aim at what has been given the name of Welfare State Any realistic approach to this problem must be well planned and this will naturally lead to a planned and more or less controlled economy..... What is still more distressing is the fact that the spread of communalism and revivalism has gradually invaded the Congress and some times, they even affect Government's policies..... We have repeatedly declared that ours is a secular state If we could have separated this election-running and Parliamentary activities of the Congress from its basic work, much of the trouble we have had, would not have occurred..... The work of selecting candidates for the general elections can be separated from the normal work of Congress Committees."

. It was never said in so many words, but Pandit Nehru's statement was directed against conservative forces of which Sardar Patel was the spearhead. Now that spearhead is gone, and the possibility of the Leftist coming back to the Congress and over-shadowing or electing the Rightists is not completely ruled out.

The Post-Patel Congress has undergone other changes. The machine-man has gone. The element of fear has been removed. It is quite likely that local bodies will assert themselves more pronouncedly than before and thus diminish the authority of the Central Parliamentary Board. The biggest changes have come in Gujarat and Saurashtra. These two areas had the good fortune of being under the guidance of two titans in succession Gandhiji and Sardar Patel. But a strong father rears a weak son. Now the Sardar Patel has been removed from the scene, it appears that only dwarfs are left in those areas.

The Sardar had crushed the Maharajas. And yet, the Maharajas will miss him dearly because it will be difficult for them, from now on, to hold what little was left in their hands by the Sardar. Similarly, the Civil Service of India has lost its greatest champion. They feel like orphans ; the Sardar had succeeded the British as their godfather. In a huge meeting they gathered and passed the following resolution : "We of the Civil Service owe a special debt to him for his confidence and support and for his keen and unfailing solicitude in our welfare. In grateful remembrance to his Service of India and his trust in us, we pledge our complete loyalty and remitting zeal and service to the land that he helped to liberate and strengthen".

It was this reiteration of "Loyalty" that raised some doubts in the minds of thinking Indians. The boast of the Civil Service is that it is always loyal to the State, no matter what be the Government of the day. The country comes before the individual, however great. They should be loyal to the land whether or not that land was liberated and strengthened by any particular individual.

New problems both of administration and finance have however arisen. It is felt all over the country that the main purpose of the Government of Free India could no longer be the maintenance of law and order and stability. Freedom has whetted the appetite of the people for better conditions and better living standards. They want results. But the administrative set up which Sardar Patel maintained had been trained for keeping the status quo. The people want that the State Administrations should initiate new programmes of construction which would lead to more employment and more production. Unfortunately, the administration is not up to such a big task.

The finances of the nation are also suffering from lack of imagination at high quarters. The orthodox economic principles clutter the minds of our financial leaders and they do not realise that a growing, developing country must take risks in a world of finance also. On the whole the picture of post-Patel India is a grim one. India seems to wait for the man who can release the latent forces of the nation to constructive efforts.

The Third Force.

India's Foreign Policy is mainly a one-man show. It reflects the poetic mind of Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru. The poet's mind has the sweep, inspiration, often the right intuition, and a tinge of idealism. Often enough it lacks hard-headedness and system. India's Foreign Policy had all the attributes of the versatile character of its Foreign Minister.

That it should be a one-man show was inevitable. India had no separate Foreign Policy during the British occupation. The Indian Foreign Policy was only an annex of the British foreign policy. The Political Department of the Government of India concentrated merely upon such bordering regions as Afghanistan and Iran. Therefore, there were no traditions in the field of Foreign Policy. Moreover, free India's aspirations were in many cases opposed to the policies that the British pursued while they were in the saddle. A new trial had to be blazed out and in this mighty adventure, the Chief Engineer was destined to leave his mark and also to make his mark.

Whatever pre-freedom traditions existed, existed in the form of the various resolutions of the Congress Party. The Indian people were fighting an up-hill battle. They were subjected to racial discrimination not only abroad, but in their own homeland. The Congress Party, in consequence, developed a stake in favour of racial equality. This became one positive factor in Foreign Policy when freedom came. One curious result of our advocacy of racial equality has been that even such remote a people as the American Negroes look to India for guidance and inspiration.

The Indian people under the Congress were also striving to leave behind the dark era of colonialism and to enter a bright morn of freedom. In that struggle, India derived inspiration from such suffering countries as China, Egypt and Turkey. India, in its own turn, provided a pattern of struggle to such colonial peoples as the Indonesians, Burmese and the Indo-Chinese. As an outcome of it all, there grew the consciousness for freedom. When India became free, the independence of the colonial peoples became the second positive plank of the country's foreign policy.

During freedom's battle India suffered also as an Asian country. Although possessor of a rich and ancient culture, India was looked down upon simply because it was the era of Western domination of Asia. This neglect of Asia made a dent on India's mind and so when India became free, the edification of Asia became the third positive item in India's Foreign Policy.

The Indian struggle was led by a unique personality : Mahatma Gandhi. He brought religion into politics. He tinged realism with idealism. He taught Indians not to make a distinction between ends and means. In fact, he taught Indians that means are more important than ends, because means are only ends in the making. Purity of the means, therefore, was the creed of Gandhism. When India became free, the habit of judging each and every issue dispassionately continued, even in the foreign field. Idealism in international Relations became the fourth guiding principle in India's infant Foreign Policy.

These four positive elements of Indian foreign policy, are born of the traditions established by the Congress Party. But when we see the fifth race of the contemporary Foreign Policy of India, we have to think of Pandit Nehru as the main spring of inspiration. Neutrality between the two mighty blocs has been the dominant note in his utterances and writings. In its negative aspect, this neutrality means that we do not support one bloc against the other. In its positive aspect, the doctrine of neutrality becomes dynamic. It begins to mean that we support whoever is right. It ceases to be a doctrine of sitting on the fence. Although it does not imply taking a side because that side has been taken by a bloc we like, it does mean, taking the side of truth and justice. The dynamism of the neutrality doctrine has led India to form the Third Force, although our countrymen are not aware of it, and although Pandit Nehru resents the term. The birth of the Third Force is a happy augury for the world. It is when various elements are reduced to two that a war is born. India's effort is in the direction of distributing difference among more groups than two. Multiplicity of differences makes for democratic existence, while the reduction of difference to the numeral two produces a clash.

Many people in India admire Nehru for charting out an independent course in the international field. Many people in the West have appreciated India's idealistic stand. There are however, pros and cons. In this aggressive world of ours, a bloc is apt to feel that those who are not for it are against it. As a result India has often sacrificed vital interests that might accrue from a working alignment with one bloc or the other.

The disadvantage of this policy became more clear during the San Francisco Conference. India's attitude was

misunderstood and misinterpreted in America. Indo-American relations as a result suffered considerably. Many Americans felt and said so, that India was following a dangerous path. They accused India of being the unauthorised spokesman of Communist China and did not understand why India should throw an opportunity of winning American friendship and of receiving American help. When it was pointed out that in the United Nations India sided with the U. S in about 70 percent of the issues, the Americans reported by pointing out that on the main issues of Communism and anti-Communism India sat on the fence. In India it was felt that the United States was favouring Pakistan for strategic reasons. It was also noticed with regret that Pakistan got more publicity in the States than India inspite of longer and closer relations between India and America. More progressive-minded Americans, however, supported India's stand and understood the reasons which make India suspicious of any international entanglements. They know that the United States had done the same thing in the pre-war years and that in the twenties and thirties, American reasoning for not belonging to the Nations, were more or less the same as that of India today. Non-involvement policy pursued by the United States Administration before the outbreak of the Second World War, is comparable to the policy which India is following today in her international relationship. It is difficult to make it clear to foreign friends of India and India needs peace and a very long period of peace for setting her house in order. Things which have not been done in India for more than a century have to be done at a speed which is unusual for the Indians to get accustomed to. Nevertheless, many thoughtful people specially in Western Europe consider India's attitude to be of paramount importance, for they see in India the only country which maintains its independence without trying to take advantage of the tension in the international field.

A further comment should be here added. Indians have long been familiar with the Anglo-Saxons law and institutions. India's Parliamentary forms are fashioned after the Mother of Parliaments. Educated India is steeped in English literature. Indians have a strong desire to increase the standard of living of the masses by industrialising the land rapidly. We need the technical know-how and the dollar. In other words, we will remain largely dependent upon America so long as we continue to have these ambitions. Great many groups in this country are for a more active cooperation with America even if it means a partial modification of neutrality. They argue that despite all denials on the part of Pandit Nehru the Russians regard India to be in the Anglo-American pocket any way. Then why lose all the advantages and have a bad name in the bargain? The logical conclusion is as follows :

India is neutral in the sense that she does not support one bloc against the other. Nevertheless, India is closer to the Anglo-American group, even though it is not opposed to Russia. Neutral? But Neutral against whom?

IX. SOUTH EAST ASIA

The independence of India had its most dynamic influence on the area known as South-East Asia. The pattern of power began to change there. South East Asia is entirely tropical region. It is blessed with a productive distribution of rainfall and it has rich and varied vegetation. The most important thing about it is its geographical location—it furnishes a two-way passage. It faces the Pacific Ocean on the one side and yet on the other side, it is able to keep track of the Indian Ocean. It is the hopping off point between the Australian and Asiatic Continents, but its peoples are more influenced by Asiatic trends than Australian forces. The Australians have failed to cross over these South Eastern Asiatic lands mainly because of the exclusive "White Australian" policy, and secondly, because it is the desert-like unpopulated expanse of their continent which is close at hand rather than the few large cities and populated areas that make up the Australia that counts.

Torn during its geographical past periods into a bewildering complex of islands and peninsulas, and spread out into arms of the seas and island coasts, the land becomes increasingly fragmentary as one goes South and West. In the middle of the areas is the Malayan Peninsula which in turn points towards the Malaya Archipelago. In the South West and east are the large islands of Sumatra, Borneo and Java of which Borneo alone is larger than Germany and Britain combined.

The area known as the South East Asia used to be known as "Further India". That shows the importance, strategic, cultural and economic, of India in this region. Burma, Thailand, Indo-China, Malaya and Indonesia are the bulwark of the South East Asia region which is over-shadowed by India. Until the 15th century, Hindu Kingdoms held their sway in many parts of this world. For South East Asia has always been dominated by the sea-power of India. It was only in the 15th century that the Arabs wrested sea-power from India and in the 16th century the Portuguese replaced the Arabs.

During the Napoleonic wars, British East India Company, which had its footing on India, took the East Indies from the Dutch and held it. Since then, the Dutch have held their sway in the Indies under the patronage of the British Navy. The Dutch are in Asia at the sufferance of the British. One of the most curious aspects of this area is that almost all

major powers of the world with the exception of Germany and Russia are directly involved in it. There is a common feature about this area. The whole of South East Asia has been a colonial region. Even Thailand, which was alone among Asiatic nations before the Second World War in its political independence, was economically colonial.

During the Second World War, no major part of this area remained unoccupied. When the Japanese realised that their number was up, they sought to achieve victory through defeat. If South East Asia was not going to be theirs, they would turn that region into such a chaotic condition as not to be a profitable proposition for the West. They saw to it that a "Bourbon Restoration" in South East Asia would be impossible.

Now that India is free, the rest of the South East Asian countries cannot long remain enslaved. India's slavery once cast its shadow over South East Asia. India's freedom will now cast its illuminating reflection upon South East Asia. India has a further stake in this region. The demographic necessity of India is mainly centred on South East Asia. India's surplus population has flowed in this region for a decade past. Likewise, it is mainly from this region that India makes up its deficit in food.

Imperialism is dying in South East Asia. The British have withdrawn willingly and even the Dutch and the French, unwilling as they appear, are fighting a losing battle. What next in South East Asia? Inspired by the Atlantic Pact, certain countries led by Australia were talking in 1949 in terms of a Pacific Pact. But as it has been pointed out, India's approach has been geographical rather ideological. India does not want to align itself either with the Eastern bloc or with the Western bloc. A pacific Pact would bring in the United States and England while it would exclude Russia. This is a proposition that is an anathema to the Nehru regime.

What is the alternative? At the Asian Regional Conference on Indonesia, the idea of an Asiatic bloc was mooted. The idea did not make much progress. The main reason was that the sense of Asian unity had not crystalized as yet into a dynamic policy. Secondly, the newly emancipated countries of South East Asia were faced with so many internal problems that it was not possible for them to chalk out a policy which would have a common appearance. And thirdly, the fear of a communism kept a large number of people in Asia with vested interests to go about it cautiously. That is to say, many Asians with interests to defend, found that they had something in common with non-Asian powers who were opposed to communism. The class division of the peoples of Asia has made it difficult to bring about a common Asian policy with regard to non-Asian

powers. Besides, the Western powers who had either been thrown out of Asia or who are interested in Asia for trade and commerce, were actively propagating the idea in these countries that the real interest of the Asian people lay in closer cooperation with the anti-Communist bloc of powers. This has resulted in some confusion and as India has preferred to sit on the fence, many newly liberated Asian countries did not know how they should evolve a common foreign policy, common with the other countries of Asia. India's persistent refusal to be some sort of a leader of the Asian nations had led them to believe that India prefers to be with Western powers. Nevertheless, after the San Francisco Conference there was discussion with the Prime Minister of Burma and Indonesian representatives in Delhi and although the discussion did not relate to the formulation of a common Asian policy, it was obvious that India was interested in supporting a policy of cooperation with the other powers in Asia.

Pandit Nehru's inclination towards such a policy has also been made obvious on many occasions. He had long discussions with the Indonesian Leader, Sultan Shariar, but one does not know what concrete results such meetings will ultimately give. The main difficulty is that the newly independent countries of Asia are still in need of technical and other help from the Western powers and they do not seem to be inclined to break off with them immediately. There is, of course, all over Asia a sense of new awakening but it does not presuppose that this renaissance will be necessarily anti-Western now that the Western powers do not have the whip-hand in Asia. Those who are acquainted with the Asian problems maintain that only in course of time, when the Asian nations have come to know each other more and have worked together on many of their mutual problems for a longer time, that a real Asian Unity will develop effectively.

Indonesia

Apart from India, which is on the perimeter, it is Indonesia which is the centre of South East Asia. It is wealthy enough in raw materials to be the envy of any nation. It provided until the Japanese occupation a third of the world's rubber supply ; it also furnished $\frac{1}{5}$ th of the tin output and $\frac{1}{19}$ th of its petroleum. It held the world monopoly over quinine and kapok. It is rich also in sugar, palm oil, tobacco, copra and tea. Above all, it is the spices land.

The Dutch had little of the colour and race consciousness of the Anglo-Saxon, except for certain half-hearted limitations of the British on whose tolerance they existed as a world power. They followed their genius and struck a new note in colonisation. As a result, there have been more inter-racial marriages in East

Indies than in any comparable areas in Asia, and there has grown up a pressure group of Europeans (some 140,000) and 100,000 Eurasians.

Although the struggle for national life in the Dutch East Indies had not reached the proportions of the movements in India or China before the war, it had become a formidable factor before the fall of Singapore. There were dozens of uprisings which called for strong oppressive measures. The dense population of Java was particularly ripe for upheaval. The period from December 1926 to February 1927 seethed with revolts and counter actions. There was also a comic-opera mutiny aboard the run-away armed Cruiser DE ZEVEN PROVINZIEN. The revolt against the Dutch which had as its background the revolt against enforced Westernisation, was first led by the "glorious endeavour" movement.

A new chapter began with Pearl Harbour. Within 40 days of the Japanese sneak attack on Pearl Harbour, the sons of the "Rising Sun", were on their way to Indonesia. The Dutch rulers offered only a token resistance and fled. By the 9th of March, the 350 years old Domination of Indonesia was completely obliterated.

Then followed the Japanese interlude which lasted 3½ years. Dr. Seokarno and Dr. Seotan Sajahariar joined the Japanese War Governments. Their move was a technical one. They wanted to obtain key positions through Japanese aid, so that when the time came, they could proclaim their country's independence.

Let us have a quick resume of events that followed. Within three days after the War's end, on the 17th August 1945, a Provisional Indonesian Republican Government was proclaimed and it was headed by Dr. Seokarno. Until then, the British had not yet discarded the Churchillian heritage. The British started to occupy Indonesia on the 29th August 1945 and it was under the shadow of British guns that the defeated Dutch re-entered the scene. Here is another important date. On February 11, 1946, the Security Council was urged by Manulysky to appoint a Commission of inquiry. Because of the international pressure, the Lingadjatti Agreement on the Indonesian Republic was signed on November 15, 1947.

The Dutch forces in Java and Sumatra commenced military action in contravention of the Lingadjatti Agreement. One more date. On the 18th of December 1948, the Dutch started their "Police Action". The whole thing culminated in the Asian Regional Conference of January 20, 1949 at New Delhi.

Then freedom came. The Dutch had given a Federal State but by the middle of 1950, the Indonesians were able to establish

a unitary form of Government. Their only outstanding issue is in connection with Irian, or the Dutch New Guinea. Here the Australians threatened to march in if the Dutch were ejected.

About the same time, the Masjumi Party replaced the National Party of Hatta. This does not mean pan-Islam, but it does mean a trend toward religious consciousness.

This religious consciousness has now found greater affirmation in the party known as Darul Islam. There has not grown yet a situation comparable to that of pre-independent India, but Islam is a vigorous religion and as Indonesia seems to be still in unsettled conditions, many people fear that something like the Indian Muslim League might come into existence in Indonesia. The Indonesian leaders who control the Indonesian Government have all progressive ideas. Nevertheless, independence has released many forces which were latent during the Dutch. The Indonesian leaders are trying their best to direct these forces into constructive channels. The latest events in Indonesia make one believe that the situation is under control. Inspite of many years of foreign domination, the people of Indonesia have adapted themselves quickly to the new situation created by their freedom. The leaders seem to be men of vision and courage and as they have preferred the path of moderation to adventures, it seems, if no serious international upheaval endanger their freedom in the immediate future, they will succeed in creating a stable government in Indonesia.

The area of Indonesia is some 735,268 sq. miles. Its population is 70,000,000. Indonesia comprise Java, Sumatra, Central and Southern Borneo, Celebes and 3,000 other islands. It is 57 times as large as Holland. Java is the richest and most densely populated of the Islands, accommodating some 50 million people. The very word Java indicates Hindu influence. It means, in Sanskrit, "Barley". In the islands of Bali, Hinduism still survives. In the rest of Indonesia, Islam is the dominant note since the 15th century.

Malaya

Malaya forms another blaze in the chain of Empires on fire. The supreme paradox of Malaya is that the aliens inhabiting that land outnumber the original owners of the Peninsula; "natives" are less numerous than the newcomers. Unless this anomaly is kept in mind, one can not understand the Malayan scene, nor can one predict the eventual outcome.

The national movement among the peoples of the British Malaya was weaker, before the war, than that among the people of Indonesia. Its weakness sprang from its peculiar ethnic heritage. The consciousness of race, a basis of nationalism, was still in its formative stage. The "native" Malaysans, moreover,

have been driven to the hinterland, while the more aggressive emigrants have taken over large cities and economically valuable areas.

Below is a recent estimate of relative populational strength of the various groups :

Total Population	...	4,902,678
Malayans	...	2,135,811
Chinese	...	1,882,874
Indians	...	534,148
Europeans	...	900,155

Thus the Malayans have only a tenuous majority over the Chinese. Economically speaking, most of the plantations are owned by Europeans. This constitutes the second problem of Malaya—the Malayan versus the Chinese question. It would become almost insoluble if the Crown Colony of Singapore is merged with the Malayan Federation. Singapore has a population of a million souls and most of these are Chinese. Its incorporation with Malaya would give the Chinese a majority over the "native" Malayans. (A similarly anomalous situation has risen in Fiji Islands where the Indian emigres outnumber the "natives".) A solution that does not propose a formula for the three races (Malaya, Chinese and Indians) to live harmoniously together, will not work.

There is a further complication. The White Man, who ruled Malaya with an iron fist, has lost face. Japan invaded Malaya in 1941. On February 16, 1942 the 40 million dollars "Naval Bastion" of Singapore fell and the Saxons fell with it. Kipling had advised the Empire rulers to send forth its best to the Colonies and to take up White Man's burden. At Singapore the poor showing made by the High Command, in contrast to the gallantry of the soldiers, revealed that the British had long neglected the poet's exhortation. The Japanese called the War in the Pacific, a War of the Races.

The Communists have added a further complication. They are mostly Chinese. The British authorities say that they are mostly Chinese "thugs" who have crossed the border. It is believed that there are only 5,000 Communists in Malaya. The "hard core" of the Communist forces is formed by 300 alien Chinese out of which 25 were trained in the Moscow School of Revolution. With China gone Communist, it is easier for these forces to receive reinforcement and ammunition across the border. Even the non-communist Chinese are now a problem. It is alleged that the Calcutta Conference of Communist Frontiers gave a signal for the insurrection which flared up in the middle of 1948. The blue-print is peculiarly Malayan. Small bands

of insurgents hide themselves in dense jungles and at opportune moments, descend upon isolated rich planters and just liquidate them. It is almost like the tactics of the "Red Indians" against White settlers in America during the pioneering days.

The finances of the colony leave much to be desired. The Government largely depends upon revenue from external trade and 42% of its expenses come from customs. Out of this 42%, 30% come from export duty on Tin and Rubber and 22% from import duty on various goods. In 1938, foreign trade exports amounted to 324,037,000 dollars, while the import trade amounted to 311,114,000 dollars. Rubber is the chief item of export which annually covers around 47·9% of all exports from Malaya.

The nine Native States of Malaya were brought under British control by the process of British Commercial contracts and of political expansion in the late 19th and early 20th centuries and by the Anglo-Siamese treaty of 1909. Sir Stamford Raffles had founded Singapore in 1819 and it eventually became the principal naval base in the Far East.

After the war, in 1946, the Straits Settlements, like the Federated Malaya, and the un-Federated Malaya States of British Malaya were organised into two political divisions, the one as the "Malaya Union" and the other as Singapore. Singapore was made a Crown colony. The Malayan Union included the Federated and Unfederated Malaya States and three of the former Straits Settlements, Penang, Labuan and Malacca.

There is a four-fold importance of Malaya to Britain. Firstly, it is on Singapore that Britain's defence system is based in South East Asia. Secondly, Malaya is the main source of tin and rubber. Thirdly, Malaya is the second largest dollar producer for Britain, next only to South Africa. Fourthly, it constitutes a foot-hold against Communism in Asia. So the British are unwilling to quit.

The cold-blooded murder of the Governor, Thomas Gurney has brought the Malayan problem once again into lime-light of the world opinion. Discontent seems to be widespread and all British efforts to crush the Communists seem to have led to no positive results. The Chinese factor is also causing the British a great deal of trouble. There have been rumours of constitutional reforms which the British are planning to introduce in Malaya but whether it will be too late or not it is difficult to say. Some Malayan leader who were until now in favour of association with Britain, have come out for complete independence. The financial situation of Malaya has much improved in 1951 and there seems to be a sort of boom in Singapore. Both foreign and internal trade seems to be flourishing there.

Experts believe that the British have a genuine desire to pull out of Malaya. But it appears that Britain will not be able

to pull out of Malaya short of 15 to 20 years. They do not believe in beating a hasty retreat so as to leave behind an open field for the Communists. Neither do they believe in getting out of Malaya until a workable solution for the collaboration between the Chinese and Malayans is established. For a civil war in Malaya would mean confusion and confusion would mean Communistic penetration.

Burma

By the middle of 1949, the independent state of Burma, became something that the freedom-fighters all over the world would like to forget. Burma became a reminder that freedom does not always pay, that in this aggressive world of ours, so many things have to come before freedom comes. Thus Burma broke the Empire system so far as it was concerned, but at the same time it gave an argument to the Imperialists: "We told you so."

The population of Burma is 15 million out of which 4,000,000 are Karen. A large number of Indians also inhabit Burma. Several Indians became redoubtable land-owners, while others were mere farmers. Until the Burmese Government decided to eject them out, there were around 2,500 Indians in the services of the Burmese administration. Thousands of industrial workers of Indian origin faced a similar fate. All told 700,000 Indians live in Burma. India has other vital interests in Burma. 52% of India's petroleum needs are answered by Burmese production. Burma can do this without batting its national eye and without taking an ounce from her own domestic needs.

Burma is rich in tungstein, tin, silver, lead and zinc. Before the war, Burma used to produce 40% of the total rice crop of the world. This single fact gave the Burmese a sense of pride that was their undoing. It is a country which is underpopulated and its well-fed people have food to spare for poorer neighbours. It is a race whose women are handsome and domineering. It is a race where men are indolent and lazy and gay.

Within one year of independence, the fussing and fissioning of Burma's amorphous politics started. Burma was going to pieces like a China plate which had hit a rock. A four-level civil war was raging in that beautiful and lush country, and although it was estimated that there are only 50 front-rank Communist organisers who control only a few Districts, they had become a potent force in Burma.

Let us take a bird's eye-view of different elements in the body politic of Burma. To start with, there are the Burmese. Then there are the Karen who want a separate Karen State. They are a militant people, mostly Christians and largely and traditionally pro-British and pro-American. They are a conservative people who have been disturbed by the radical policies of

the Socialist regime. Their women are described as "long necked" and beautiful. The third group is that of Shans who are akin to the Siamese. Then there are the Kachins of the North. In addition to these, are the mountain-dwelling Chins. This confusion of minority groups is further confounded by numerous petty royal states ruled by chiefs known as Saw Baws. The total picture of the country is that seven out of the seventeen millions of the people belong to minorities. Things had deteriorated fast ever since independence. The assassination of U Aung San and his colleagues shocked the world. But by the end of 1950, Thakin Nu had established order.

The Karens have been in revolt since January 1949. Since they are 1/6th of the population they are an important minority group. Thakin Nu has granted their demand of a separate state but he has hesitated to grant the right of secession. Once Karens were catalogued as "wild cattle of the Hills". There are several divisions among the Karens and they speak some 20 different dialects. Originally all of them were animists, Karens blacken their teeth. The Red Karens have a "rising Sun" tattooed on their backs. Over 219,000 Karens are Christian now. Eight out of every ten, Karens are still Buddhists. The 1930 rebellion under "Saya San" was crushed by the British with Karen help. The British received many recruits from among the Karens during World War II.

The Independent State of Karenny is to be in the Tenasserim Valley in lower Burma and it is to be found in alliance with the Mons, a major racial group in lower Burma. It is an area wealthy in rice crop, tin, rubber and forest products. Moulmein at the mouth of Salvin River is the chief city in this region. The minority Karens will be a minority even in the Karenny State because the Mons number two million. It is alleged that some White Flag Communists and some Indian Communists have joined hands with the Karen rebels.

Towards the middle of 1949, Australia and Britain were approached by the Socialist Government of Burma for military and material help. After the Commonwealth Prime Minister's Conference in London a declaration was made that the three Governments will help Thakin Nu's regime in restoring order.

Throughout the year 1951 Burma still remained torn by civil war. The Governmental forces made several attempts to crush the rebels but without much success. Financially also, Burma's position had worsened. It was much talked of in the capitals of the world that Burma had asked for money and help from Britain. At any rate, the Burmese Government had gone back upon their original plan of nationalising all foreign concerns and have agreed to let foreign companies operate in Burmese territory. Politically, Burma came closer to India and in all

major issues sided with our country. The Burmese Prime Minister visited Delhi in October 1951 and many problems of mutual interest were discussed. Both the Indian and Burmese Governments seemed to have reached agreement on all essential issues. Towards the end of 1951 some hope of an end of the civil war seems to have been entertained but generally speaking, independent Burma still remains somewhat of a casualty and Burma will have to go still a long way to establish a strong and stable government.

Thailand

In an era whose common pattern was colonialism before the Second War, the tiny state of Siam was the only exception ; it was free and independent. This uniqueness was largely due to the shrewdness of the Siamese dynasty. Siamese Emperors maintained the independence of their land by exploiting its position as a buffer state between two great powers, Britain and France. These Emperors were clever and benevolent but were also absolute.

An end to their absolutism was put by a coup in 1932. Liberalism and limited Monarchy replaced the dictatorship of the King. As has happened elsewhere in this world, the Liberal revolt was overwhelmed by the Army. Eventually, the Army clique under the leadership of Marshal Pibul Songram began to dominate the Siamese scene and when on December 8, 1941, Siam was invaded by Japan, this clique acquiesced after a few brief hours of token resistance. At the end of the war, he was in saddle again, and a favourite of America.

Siam has an area of 198,274 sq. miles and a 1940 estimate puts the population at 15,717,000. The Thai element constitutes 63% of the population, while 34% are Chinese and another 3% is formed by Indians and Malays.

Which way Siam ?— is the question as 1952 opens. This question remains unanswered but the Thais in their peculiar way staged a *coup de etat* which also ended in a melo-dramatic manner. Marshall Pibul Songram was kidnapped in the middle of 1951 but was eventually restored to his family and to the Government and it seems he did not mind his experience at all. Again in the traditional manner of the Thais, he very generously forgave his captors and went about his work as if nothing had happened. The Thais however have no enthusiasm for an Asian bloc and in their dealings with the Western powers they showed in 1951, both cautiousness and moderation. Their relation with the Asian and non-Asian countries were excellent during this period and without committing themselves to any bloc of politics, they continued to enjoy the confidence of both. It was reported that the Asian Cominform had built up a big centre for propaganda in Bangkok but there was no evidence to sustain this

theory. The level headedness and unhurriedness of Thais were specially noticeable in comparison with the disturbed state of affairs in the neighbouring countries.

X. THE ARAB WORLD

From the eastern arm of Asia we come to the western arm. The area dominated by the Arabs, and certain parts surrounding it, is alternately described as the Near East or Middle East. Lately, there has been a tendency to obliterate the designation Near East in favour of the Middle East. In the Middle East are included countries of the Eastern Mediterranean, the Red Sea and of the Persian Gulf. Also included are Turkey (but not Greece), Cyprus, the Sudan, Ethiopia, Eritrea and the Somalies and Tripolitania. However, this geographical expression remains merely geographic and it is because of this that we have preferred the designation of the Arab World to any other concept. Arabism has a greater vitality than any geographical fact in this region.

Arabia proper is around 922,800 sq. miles but it is mostly a desert land full of oases, poorly developed towns and oil derricks. The population is around 11 million. There is nothing of the middle class here. The handful of the ruling cliques are enormously wealthy while the poor are grindingly poor. While many parts of the world have gone through a process of evolution, in this part of Prophet Mohammed, enlightened people became political, economical, commercial and medicinal teachers of the world. Today in Arabia, the poor people are largely primitive.

Three distinct stages could be discerned in the development of political consciousness in the Middle East. The first stage consisted of the Turkish Leadership ; the second stage was when people thought the King Ibn Saud of Saudi Arabia would emerge as the spearhead of the Middle East. The contemporary third phase is dominated by Egypt. The changes in leadership came about because eventually, Turkey decided to become a European State (She even refused to attend the Asian Regional Conference on Indonesia in Delhi), and also because the commercial and populational might of Egypt superseded the religious appeal of the Arab League. After the Head Quarters were established in Cairo, Egypt's leadership was made more or less secure.

Ataturkism.

A brief historical note is clearly indicated. As Japan managed to attract, during World War II, the major part of world's attention in the Far East, so did Turkey in the Near

East during the World War I. These two represented the two geographic extremes of Asia, easternmost and westernmost. Although India and China can be thought of as the mainstay of Asia, there is no denying the fact that for a large part of recent times Japan has led the Far East, while Turkey the Near East.

These leaders of Eastern Asia and Western Asia, respectively, are warlike nations. Both have proved to be masters of surface Westernisation. Both have at various stages, succeeded in defeating the West. Japan and Turkey, furthermore, were two great Asiatic countries who managed to withstand encroachment of the West and to maintain their national independence until the end of the World War II.

Although it had been exposed to the West for more than a century, it was not until 1918, that a real change began in Turkey. It was at this point that Turkish reformers took courage from the example of Japan. Then ensued a period of interchange between the two adventures in Westernisation. It was this collaboration that cut down the distance between East Asia and West Asia which until then had been formidable. India maintained a firm and friendly relationship with Turkey despite the disappointment felt by Indian Muslims at Kamal's dissolution of the Caliphate.

The "new ideas" that made modern Europe, could be shared by all, even by non-Christians, without undergoing deep religious and traditional changes. This was the secret that Turkey grasped. The acceptance of these new ideas was imperative for the survival of the East with its distinctive life. Kamal himself gave characteristic expression to this feeling in his famous Six-Day-Speech of 1922 :

"Gentlemen, it was important to remove the Fez which sat on our heads as a symbol of ignorance, of fanaticism, of hatred against progress and civilisation and in its place to put the customary hat, head-dress of the entire civilised world and to show thereby, among other things, that no difference in manner of thought existed between the Turkish Nation and the great family of civilisation."

Turkey's technique of self-imposed Westernisation in certain outward behaviour in order to guard the political interests of Asia, was to some extent imitated by King Amanullah of Afghanistan ; but he failed when Islamic traditionalism turned against him in revolt headed by Bach-i-Saqao. Raza Shah Pahelvi in Iran and King Faisel in Iraq had greater success.

The Egyptian Wafdist, under Mustafa Nahas Pasha, kept in close touch with the Congress movement in India. A great majority of Egyptians have been more interested in Pan-Arabism than in Pan-Islamism ; so have the Iraqis, the Syrians and the peoples of Trans-Jordan, while Turkey has no linking at all

either for Pan-Islam or for Caliphate. Even Saudi Arabia, the home of Islamic Orthodoxy, has thrown itself on the side of Pan-Arabic movement. There are about 50 million Arabs who inhabit the area between the Indian Ocean and the Atlantic.

Ibn Saud, the six-foot tall typical desert Arab, is now 73. Ibn Saud was a man of few words and leader of the Mohammedan Puritans known as Wahabis. Although a Muslim can have only four wives at a time, Ibn Saud is known to have married some 150 times. He rules his people with an iron hand and makes them accept the Koran literally.

The Arab League

The growing Arabic consciousness reached a head over Palestine. It is a historic fact that a common fear is more potent in bringing about a sense of unity than even a consciousness of kind. When the Arabs felt that Palestine was threatened by Zionism, the various Arabic states coalesced together as never before. It is not that the Arab world is not divided by nationalistic rivalries, but these were partially overcome because of a common cause.

The Tories of Great Britain have always been pro-Arab, even pro-Muslim, as the speeches of Churchill on India would bear out. Britain backed Arabs also because of its various treaties with the Arab States. The seed of Arab consciousness were sown in the World War I, especially by the legendary Lawrence of Arabia. By the end of World War II, the Zionist problem and the Mandatory system became acute. The Arabs were on the move and the British were ready to help them. On May 29, 1941, the then British Foreign Secretary, Anthony Eden, declared "His Majesty's Government will give full support to any scheme that the Arabs may wish for a greater degree of unity than they now enjoy." It was a Tory blessing.

As the largest, richest and strongest country in the area, Egypt, then under Nahas Pasha, took the initiative and called a conference of Arab States in Cairo. The League of Arab States came into existence on March 22, 1945. The seven countries pledged themselves to safeguard each other's sovereignty and mutual help in case of common danger. These countries were Syria, Trans-Jordan, Iraq, Saudi Arabia, the Lebanon, Egypt and Yemen. The Muslim countries of Iran, Afghanistan and Turkey were either kept out or remained out, and their absence high-lighted a fact that it was not Pan-Islam but Pan-Arabism that moved the masses of the Middle East. The Lebanon, furthermore, was a Christian country, although an Arab country also. It was out of the Lebanese pressure that the right to secede from the Arab League was included in the Charter. The door was kept open for other countries to join

in when they become independent. Each member State was given one vote.

Palestine was adopted collectively as a ward by the Arab League. In an annex to the pact, "the independence of Palestine in the Legal sense" was proclaimed and thus the League appropriated the custodianship of Palestine. The Egyptian Azam Pasha was made the Permanent Secretary-General and Cairo was chosen as the Permanent Headquarter of the Secretariate.

The first action taken by the Arab League was in 1945 when the United Nation Conference was going on in San Francisco. A serious crisis developed between France and Syria. The Arab League proclaimed France to be the aggressor and voted for Syrian independence. The second action of Arab League was in June 1946. They met at Budhan in Syria to reject the Anglo-American plea that 100,000 Zoinists be permitted to enter Palestine.

Eventually all the Arab States went into battle against Israel. But they were stopped as much by better Jewish soldiers as by rivalries between Trans-Jordan and Egypt.

The outcome of the Arab-Israel conflict, though an independent Israeli State came into existence, remained undecided. The Arab world accepted the existence of the State of Israel with much rancour in their heart hoping for a situation which would enable them to drive the Jews out of the near-East. There were several attempts in 1951 to bring the Arab and Israeli leaders together. A conference was held in Switzerland where the Arab and Israeli leaders talked ceaselessly without coming to any workable solution. On the other hand, bitterness caused as a result of the setting up of the Jewish State against the wishes of the Arab people, left a legacy of anti-European and anti-American feeling in the entire Arab World. The problem of the Arab refugees from Palestine had become so acute that appeals were made all over the world to raise funds for their relief. The sum total of all this was that the Arabs came to regard the American and the British responsible for the detachment of Palestine from the Arab sphere of influence. Being militarily weak and ill-organised, they made no attempt until the middle of 1951 to show their great displeasure at the political intrigues which had created Israel ; but in September 1951, King Abdulla of Jordan, one of the stooges of the British, who had constantly refused to tie himself up with the rest of the Arab countries, was murdered in Amman by a group of Arab nationalists. One of the persons convicted for the murder was Dr. Musa Husseini, a well-known worker in the field of Arab nationalism and a nephew of the Grand Mukti of Jerusalem. The condemnation of the assassins of Abdulla created deep resentments in the Arab world and in all the Arab countries, people

suspected the British to be responsible for the perpetuation of Western influence in the near East. And when the Persian trouble broke out and when a Muslim State like Persia went to the length of forcing the British to quit Persia, its effect was felt like a thrill all over the near-East. Most Arab leaders came to the conclusion that the time had come for them to act in order to rid Arab countries of British influence which had remained supreme in their area for more than a century. One must not forget that the anti-British tradition of the near East is not of recent origin. Arab leaders were deceived after the First World War when inspite of promises made to them by responsible British politicians, Arab unity was torpedoed on account of the secret treaties which Britain had made with several powers during the First World War.

The Arabs never forgot this double crossing of the British and although the Arab revolt against the British Power was not as effective during the Second World War, as one had feared, yet there is no doubt that very few Arabs supported the cause of the Allies at that time. After the Armistice, Egypt tried by constitutional means to bring about a revision of the Treaty of 1936 which she thought was unjust and incompatible with her national aspirations. As the British went on putting off the question of revising the Treaty, the Egyptians took the drastic step of unilaterally abrogating the Treaty, in October 1951, and thus created an extra-ordinary situation all over the East and the Mediterranean areas. The Iraqis agitated similarly for the revision of the Treaty which had made Iraq give some of the bases to Britain under unfair conditions. All this seems to have flowed from the Persian conflict and the whole of the Middle-East seems to be afire and it is anybody's guess how the stability of the Middle-East will be restored in the near future. The British took military action in-so-far as they created a state of siege in the canal zone, to which the Egyptians replied by discriminating against the British nationals in that area and by declaring the King of Egypt also the King of Sudan. The situation has in a vital manner undermined, probably for good, the British position in the Muslim world. Its direct effect on Anglo-Pakistan relations is already being felt. Pakistan which tried to be the leading Muslim State cannot remain aloof from the main currents in the Islamic world which at the present moment, seems to be strongly anti-British. Or, Pakistan wants to maintain its connection with Britain and in fact wants to strengthen that connection in order to use this relationship against her neighbour, India, with whom she had many points of dispute. But the anti-British turmoil in the near East has created a situation which is neither to its liking nor to its advantage. One of the results of this situation might be that Pakistan might be forced to detach itself from the Middle-Eastern world and come closer to India, for the simple

fact that an unreasonable anti-British policy is not suitable at the present moment either for India or for Pakistan. In ultimate analysis, it may mean that the Arab world may have to develop its national and foreign policy without any reference to countries which are not in that region and thus its struggle with the British power might substantially be weakened. However, as the year 1951 comes to an end, it seems that with the Conservative Party in power in England, the struggle in the Middle East has entered a phase which to a large extent will determine, probably for good, the influence of the so-called Western Powers in the Middle-East. It will also effect vitally the cold-war between the Communist and non-Communist world, for there are reasons to believe that the Arabs might in desperation think of allying themselves with the Soviet Union. There is no doubt that the USA would take all necessary steps to prevent such an alignment.

This tension in the Middle East also reflects a change which has, slowly but steadily, been taking place in the Middle-East from the beginning of this century. In fact, though very few people realised it, there had been a renaissance in the Islamic world, the main emphasis of which was nationalism, of a kind which was the dominating feature of Europe in the 19th century. On account of dynastic troubles and on account of clashes of interests among the feudal elements in the near East, it has not been possible to bring about Arab unity in an effective manner but there is no doubt that a very great sense of national pride has grown in the Arab countries and it is doubtful whether its progress could be retarded either by British diplomacy or by British violence. The role which the US is playing in this region might of course be a determining factor and if the US counsels moderation to the British, this will certainly strengthen those nationalist forces which are clamouring for the expulsion of the British from these areas. At any rate, simultaneously with the nationalistic awakening throughout Asia, the middle-Eastern countries are going also through a nationalistic phase which, whatever happens, will ultimately strengthen the Asian struggle for freedom in the broadest sense of the term.

Oil.

What is happening in the middle East in general and in the Arab World in particular, cannot be grasped until the oil fields of that region are taken into consideration. Modern wars are impossible without petroleum. This area that produces oil is coveted by the mighties of the world. The Middle East is among the richest regions in the world in this respect.

An estimate points out that the total oil resources of the world are some 63,300,000,000 bbl. of which 28,900,000,000 bbl. are in the Western Hemisphere and 34,400,000,000 bbl. in

the Eastern Hemisphere. The Middle East, credited with 26,800,000,000 bbl. of oil reserves, overshadows even the great reserves of the United States.

The Arabs have the oil, but they do not have the technology to exploit this mineral wealth. As a result, they have to be partners either of the British or of the Dutch or of the French or of the Americans or of the Russians. This makes the Arab World cockpit of various conflicting interests. It is an area pressured in from all the sides.

The commercial petroleum production in the Middle East began first in Iran, then in Iraq in Baherein and finally in Saudi Arabia. The Anglo-Iranian Oil Company was the largest of all the petroleum combines and the British Government holds the controlling interests in it. In the Iraq Petroleum, the British, Dutch and the French have joined forces. The Arabian American Oil company in Saudi Arabia is an off-shoot of the Standard oil Company of California and is one of the mightiest concerns in the field. Although a private enterprise, it can exert as much power as many a minor state.

The challenge to the Western world here, as in many other fields, comes from Russia. Although Russia is the largest oil producer, next only to the United States, its 700,000 barrel a day producing in 1944 was still less than 1/16th of the American productive capacity. Russia was indifferent to oil concessions in the Middle East until 1946 when it forced Teheran to consent to the formation of Soviet Iranian Oil Company for the exploitation of Northern Iran.

Thus the Arab-dominated Middle East suffers from oil Imperialism of Western countries, especially from the American Russian rivalry in the field. The Americans parade Arab princes throughout the world and pay for their extravagance. The Russians largely rely upon their geographical proximity. In between, the Arabs struggle to maintain their independence ; but their path is made slippery by oil.

XI. EUROPE'S REVIVAL

The end of the Second World war saw the strange transformation of the relationship to Great Britain with her European neighbours. For several centuries England had maintained its power both on the Continent as also in the world by creating and sustaining a system of balance of power which did not allow any single Continental State to be too powerful. The unconditional surrender of Germany and the defeat of France by the German Wehrmacht in 1940, had finally destroyed the two

military powers on the Continent which could be of some military value in the modern world. Similarly, the crushing defeat of Italy at the hands of the Allies had brought an end to the second best military in Europe. The result was that the whole of Europe had become militarily indefensible and the colossal power of the Soviet Union stood poised on the Oder-Neisse frontier. It seemed that there was nothing to stop them marching to the Atlantic coast of Europe. That is to say, the Second World War had swept away the old system of equilibrium with which Britain had fought nearly two centuries to keep Europe divided and had succeeded in maintaining its world supremacy.

Because of this altered political condition, England was forced to revise its traditional policy towards the Continental powers for the simple reason that England had also, by the force of events, become a Continental power itself. It was felt in the British political circles that closer relation with the other European powers had become important for the very existence of the British Isles as an independent State. It was this instinct of survival which led Winston Churchill to advocate the formation of an European Union consisting of all the European States and specially those States which were outside the Iron Curtain. In course of a forceful speech in Zurich in Switzerland Churchill appealed to the European peoples to get rid of their differences and to create a sort of European Federation if they wanted to survive at all. His slogan became : "Either Europe should federate or perish." His speech and the activities of a Viennese noble man Baron Cudenhove-Kalergi eventually brought about a movement for European Union which culminated in the formation of the Council of Europe at Strasbourg. Although it does not represent finally the governments of the member States but the Council of Europe has a committee of Ministers which is supposed on principle to carry out resolutions passed by it. Together with the Council there is also grown recently a European University in the little town of Bruges in Belgium, the object of which is to teach the young men from all parts of Europe, the fundamental unity of European culture which had become distorted as a result of many centuries of interneceine warfare.

Although Winston Churchill had advocated the formation of a European Union, English opinion remained divided for a long time about the advisability of creating a European bloc. Besides, the Soviet Union went on offering incessant resistance to this suggestion, for it seemed to the Soviets that the European Union would be used as a bloc of powers against the Communist States of Eastern Europe and Soviet Russia. But as far as England was concerned, the main difficulty was that the British public somehow could not be persuaded to believe that British interests were indissolubly connected with a union of Continental powers.

Although England is near the continent, it has always felt aloof from the mainland of Europe simply because the British Channel separates and segregates the British Isles. Without identifying itself with the Continent, England has always remained a Continental power. The way England achieved this was by the historic method of divide and rule. For centuries, England kept Europe divided and opposed any move to consolidate the mainland. The British policy was to play one power against the other in order to have a balance of power, to support the second strongest nation against the stronger nation in Europe. It was because of this that Britain concentrated its all to defeat Napoleon. Napoleon dreamt of uniting the whole of Europe through the sword. It might have meant untold misery for one generation but it might have ensured the security of the succeeding ones. However, England saw to it that neither Napoleon nor his dream was victorious.

But this time England's position was quite different. The loss of many imperial possessions and the weakening of her financial strength had made England a European State instead of the centre of world empire. But the interesting thing, however, with regard to British opinion was that while Conservatives supported the idea of a Western Union, the Labourites went on consistently opposing it. Socialist point of view was that integration of England into an European Union would create a number of problems regarding the internal organisation of England, which according to them, was disastrous for the working class. They argued that the scales of wages were not the same in different European countries and an integration of British economy with that of the other countries of Europe would therefore bring down the standard of living of the British workers. They also maintained that socialist planning which has succeeded so well in England would be torpedoed if England had to get mixed up with the various types of social systems which obtain on the Continent. At the end, however, the Socialists gave a qualified support to the Western Union and as the question of surrender of sovereignty never arose, it was felt that no harm would be done if England participated in the discussions of the Council of Europe and its various technical organisations. As a matter of fact England's unwillingness to go the whole hog, has made her extremely unpopular on the Continent and the present Deputy Prime Minister of France Georges Bidault went as far as to say that the Europeans should unite even if England remained aloof.

Western Union

But something more than British survival is at stake in the eventual formation of the Western Union. It is as much of a European need as it is a British need. In a world divided between America and Russia, many European nations are hoping

to create a third grouping between these two Titans. Their vain hope seems to be to hold balance between these two giants.

The Western Union is based upon the logic of geography and of contiguity. It is regional and, so much more in tune with the provisions of the United Nations Charter than the Atlantic Pact is. Moreover, the Atlantic Pact relegates Europe to a secondary position. The formation of the Western Union would bring back to Europe its former pre-eminence. The Western Union will embrace some 250 million people who are skilled workers and who possess an advanced civilization. The Western Union will have tremendous resources and industrial capacity. Its population will be larger than either Russia's or America's. For centuries, Europe has been the centre of civilisation. By creating a military, political unit, the Europeans would be once more able to hold their heads high.

What are the countries which will comprise the Western Union? They are Britain, France, the three Benelux countries Belgium, the Netherlands and Luxemburg, and Italy, Austria and Western Germany. Later, the Scandinavian countries have also joined.

A great step in the direction of the Western Union was taken on March 17, 1948 when the Brussels Pact was signed. The five Benelux countries joined together for united defence, economic cooperation and cultural exchange. Within two months of the Brussels Pact, a permanent military group was organised under the leadership of Field Marshal Montgomery, which was later to be merged in the Atlantic Army. In quick succession, a promise came from America for the supply of needed arms. This American promise was officialised on April 8, 1949, when Dean Acheson secured the permission from the American Congress to provide military aid to the Brussels pact countries.

The concept of the United States of Europe is obviously much more inclusive than what is envisaged in the Brussels Pact. The Brussels Pact came at the initiative of England. So far as the Western Union is concerned, it is the Frenchmen who have taken a lead, and such names as Edward Herriot and Aristide Briand glitter in this connection. At present the United Europe movement is headed by Winston Churchill. He is the Chairman of the United Europe Committee which was established in January 1947. It held a conference on European unity at the Hague in May 1947. The resolution that the conference passed, envisaged a limited Federation of European countries. There would be a European Parliament to which each member State would cede a part of its sovereignty.

There is another organisation which is also working toward the Western Union. It is known as the Congress of the Europe Parliament Union. It represents twelve nations. Adding to

its strength is the World Federalist Group. The last two mentioned organisations are unofficial, while the Benelux Union is an official body.

As the year 1951 ended the realisation of Western Union remained as remote as ever. The discussions at Strasburg were no doubt of a high order. Well-known Parliamentarians and eminent scholars and writers made fine speeches showing how the fate of the European nations was bound up with their being able to unite. Nevertheless, there was no serious attempt on the part of governments nor was there any strong public opinion even in the Western European countries, for creating a really effective Union States of Europe. The reasons are not far to seek. The development of Europe has been entirely on different lines than that of the United States of America, for example. Even the tiniest State of Europe has long traditions of government behind it and the rise and growth of the European States were due to historic causes which have not totally disappeared. Besides, every European State has evolved, in course of time, its own method of administration, its currency and political system which cannot be completely changed overnight. And above all, the expression of the term Europe is of recent origin, for in historic time there had not been really European people as such. Only on account of the political problems which have arisen as a result of the Second World War that the people of various European countries want today to push back the Soviet power into and beyond the natural frontiers of Western Europe. How far they will succeed is still a doubtful question. The fact of the matter is that the Russian advance to Western Europe had been checked in the past century only on account of a strong Germany which had common frontier, so as to say with the Great Russian landmass. In other words, unless there is a strong European power like Germany in the heart of Europe, there is hardly any chance of curbing the power of Soviet Russia which has assumed gigantic proportions as a result of the World War. But as a strong Germany will be always the cause of fear in most of the European countries, one does not see how this riddle will be solved if it can be solved at all.

Marshall Plan

The Second World War left Europe prostrate. It had lost its young manhood, it had lost its capacity to grow food, it had lost its hopes, it had lost its courage. The economic plight of Europe was heart-rending. The economic condition in Europe varied from country to country. It was prosperous in Sweden and Switzerland. It was austere in Britain, Belgium and the Netherlands. It was strained in France and Italy and it was desperate in Germany and Austria. On the whole, Europe represented a void from which could be heard only anguished

cries. The prime necessity of Europe was economic recovery. Europe needed blood-transfusion.

The woes of Europe could be described in another fashion. There was the "Dollar deficit". Unproductive countries of Europe, of the Entire World, were unable to buy essentials of livelihood as well as of industry from the only supremely productive country in the world—the United States of America. However, this disequilibrium existed between Great Britain and the rest of the world. Great Britain had surplus manufacturing capacity. But the difference was this. The economies of other countries were complementary to the economy of England. England could supply machines and buy raw materials. England could sell finished products and buy food in exchange. The irony of the American Dollar is that America is almost self-sufficient. It produces almost every thing that it needs and yet it is able to have surplus to sell. Even in raw materials, it is near self-sufficient. All it can do is to sell, while it has little need to buy. This one-way process has produced the "Dollar crisis".

At the end of the war, America began to realise that happening in the remotest parts of the World has bearings upon her home front. America's post-war primary concern was with the economic plight of Europe. The decline in European production and consumption meant from the American point of view the end of democracy and personal freedom, especially in France and Italy and later in other countries. This would mean an invitation to Communism and to Russia. The way to save Europe from Communism, America felt, was to stop economic retrogression.

The assumptions behind the Marshall-Aid-Plan which aimed at giving a prop under the arm of Europe were as follows :

(i) Europe, if helped for sometime, can rapidly recover from the destruction and disorganisation of the War, and later on, maintain a prosperous level of production without further aid from America. Otherwise, Europe would become a fertile field for Communism.

(ii) The maintenance of democracy and individual freedom is essential to keep a country within American fold. This could be maintained only if such a country is prosperous. Under economic chaos, democracy and freedom are likely to be extinct.

Both these assumptions came true in England, so Marshall Aid Programme was ended there in December, 1950.

(iii) United States has the surplus capacity to help Europe to rebuild itself. The tax on American resources and consumption would be small. And the idea is to help Europe help itself.

. From 13 to 20 billion dollars for a period of four years were ear-marked. This was not too heavy a burden on American National Income.

The American people have already given huge amounts to the war-ravaged world. Between July 1945, and June 30, 1947, America had devoted some 20 billion dollars in various international assistance programme. Around four billion dollars went to the International Monetary Fund and to the International Bank to be gradually released as the need arises.

Various channels have been used by America to grant aids. First there was the UNRRA, then the Lend-Lease. There was the surplus property sales on credit. The Export-Import Bank gave loans. Then there are the direct loans authorized by the Congress. For a time, there was the Greek-Turkish aid.

The so-called Marshall Plan is a blueprint for the economic recovery of Europe through the joint efforts of the European countries themselves aided by the United States, whenever their own production powers are inadequate. The germ of the idea was contained in the Harvard Commencement Address given by the then Secretary of State, Marshall on June 5, 1947. He said 'Europe's requirements for the next 3 or 4 years of foreign food and other essential products-principally from America, are so much greater than her present ability to pay and that she must have substantial additional help or face economic, social and political deterioration of every grave character. Before the United States Government could proceed much further in its efforts to alleviate the situation and help start the European World on its way to recovery, there must be some agreement among the countries of Europe as to the requirements of the situation and the part these countries themselves will take, in order to give proper effect to whatever action might be undertaken by the Government. The initiative must come from Europe. The programme should be a joint one agreed to by a number, if not all of European nations.

The first concrete step to implement the Marshall Aid Programme was taken on April 3, 1948 when the Congress passed Foreign Assistance Act at the instance of President Truman. It sanctioned 5 million dollars for 1948 as the first instalment. The snowball was set in motion which acquired greater and greater proportions with the passage of time.

The effect of the Marshall Aid Programme is already evident. There were two shaky countries in Europe in 1948—France and Italy. In both of these Communism was rising. Through the Marshall Aid Programme they have effected a partial recovery and they have been able to "contain" Communism. The countries of Western Europe have acquired a new lease of life through the blood-transfusion received from America.

The same is true of Western Europe which is now a full member of the OEEC. Since Germany has been included in the European Recovery Plan, Germany's progress has been astounding. Her production has already reached the peak production of 1938 and she is already becoming a source of anxiety to the exporting countries like England and France. This rapid recovery of Germany has at the same time raised other problems of political nature which would require immediate solution. It seems difficult to treat a country which is contributing so much to the general recovery of Europe as an inferior country without political sovereignty. On the other hand, the granting of full sovereignty to Germany involves dangers which the U. S. cannot ignore. The general recovery of the European countries since introduction of the Marshall Plan has been such that it has become easier for the Western European countries to think of the Russian menace with a little less anxiety. In fact, the increase of armaments which resulted from the financial stability of most of the European countries has also simultaneously increased the bargaining power of the Atlantic nations vis-a-vis the Soviet Union.

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XII. THE UNITED NATIONS

In a world split into two, the United Nations remained the one common platform, the one unifying agency. With all its apparent failures and self-limitations, United Nations remained the last hope of humanity against a possible Third World War, which did not look to be very distant as the year 1952 opened. The shortcomings were of men and women of the world, of their elected or superimposed spokesmen, of nation-States. In other words, the limitations of the United Nations were not the limitations of the organisation itself, but of the peoples of the world that had failed to grow up to the consciousness of the world citizenship. When A and B and C criticise the United Nations, actually they are criticising A and B and C. For, the United Nations is the "little man" writ large.

Another general observation about the United Nations seems to be in order. People sometimes were unnecessarily alarmed because there was so much bickering and name-calling at the various meetings of the General Assembly and the Security Council. What people failed to realise was the revolutionized character of diplomacy. Shouting from the roof top has replaced secret diplomacy in the affairs of States. Formerly, statesmen called each other by the sweetest possible names, but at the same time knifed each other in the back, and a war came like sudden thunder storm. Now-a-days the corridors of international

Assemblies look very much like the Indian market-place. People are always shouting at each other and always about to come to blows. But, surprisingly enough, they seldom come to blows. In fact, the United Nations offer a safety valve to the pent-up hatreds and suspicions of Nations. Words that would have led to war only 30 years ago are uttered every day now at Lake Success, and yet the third World War has not broken out.

U. N. and the League of Nations.

Before we come to the actual description of the United Nations, let us have a study in comparison and contrast with the now defunct League of Nations of which the contemporary world organisation is a successor. One startling difference between the League of Nations and the United Nations pertains to the peace Treaties. The Covenant of the League of Nations was deliberately written into the Versailles Treaty of 1919, while the Charter of the United Nations has been deliberately kept separate from the second World War's peace settlements. The United Nations was born under less auspicious circumstances. The second contrast is this : The League of Nations sponsored the Mandate System while the United Nations has sponsored the Trusteeship Council. This shows an improvement over the League mentality. Subjugated peoples are better thought of these days than they were during the hey-day of the League of Nations. The crucial difference between the League of Nations and the United Nations is as follows : The United Nations has teeth in it while the League of Nations was bereft of really effective sanctions to enforce its decisions. The United Nations has been empowered by its Charter to drastically deal with actions that threaten international peace and security. It is a larger mandate than the one enjoyed by the League of Nations. This was proved in Korea. For the first time, an international army was embattled.

The League of Nations gave the veto power to each of its members, big or small, as it functioned on the basis of the organisation-wide unanimity. The United Nations, on the other hand, has restricted the veto power to the Big Five (United States, Soviet Union, Great Britain, France and China). Thus the United Nations is less unwieldy than the League of Nations was, but at the same time it is less democratic. From the point of view of political science, however, the United Nations concept of the veto is a step forward. By restricting the veto only to the five major powers, the United Nations have partially rejected the concept of sovereignty which has bedevilled the European history for the last two centuries. Obviously the Big Five have the veto not because they are sovereign but because they are World Powers.

The Moscow declaration had advertised "the sovereign quality of all peace-loving States". The veto assigned in the

Security Council to the five permanent members, along with the exclusive representation of the same powers on the Military Staff Committee of the Council, curtail the ancient prerogative of sovereignty. To the students of Political Science, it is quite obvious that naked power counts these days more than sovereignty.

One more contrast between the League of Nations and the United Nations should be pointed out here. The League of Nations was unwieldy from another point of view. In its search for universal unity it forgot the value of diversity. Regional approaches should supplement an overall approach in a world that is too large. During the League of Nations days, sometimes, the remote Poland sat in on questions that affected the far off Indonesia, without knowing much about the South East Asia region. The United Nations, on the other hand, recognized the importance of regional alignments, and sanctioned regional approaches to local problems. This point was pressed at San Francisco, especially because of the Act of Chapultepec of March 3, 1945.

Let us have a quick survey of special adversities among which the United Nations was born so that we might be able to defeat the tendency of blaming the organisation for everything that happens and is not to our liking. We have already mentioned the fact that Peace Treaties with Germany and Austria, which would legally terminate the late War, have not yet been signed, but a step forward has been taken by signing the Treaty with Japan. Because of the lack of Peace Treaties, there is a great conflict between the major powers, and this conflict paralyzes the international organisation. Another item : The United Nations is still going through the organizational period : In other words, it is still an infant, and as such suffers from the ailments of infancy. Then there are the failures caused by procedural delays. Many delegates still have the tendency to make long speeches and of playing up to the gallery. Other delegates, whose proposals are defeated in a Sub-Commission, are inclined to argue the same points at the same length at the Committee level as well as in the plenary session. Then there is the hurdle of translation. In the Security Council especially, each statement has to be translated into four languages after the original language in which it is made.

Actually it is not the United Nations which is divided into two blocs. It is the world which is divided into two blocs. This division reflects itself in the United Nations proceedings. 53 versus 7 has become the invariable formula of voting on any major issue. There are around 60 members of the organisation, seven of which are in the Soviet bloc. The voting consequently, is always 53 versus 7. There is another defect that stems from

the bloc voting system. Only 40 votes are necessary to constitute a 2/3 majority in Assembly of 60 members. The Latin American bloc alone has 20 votes. In alliance with other countries, it has thus been able to block the passage of any resolution it opposes. Let us point out a final difficulty. Although the United Nations is more powerful than was the League of Nations, it still does not possess a sizable army or police force of its own and is consequently unable to enforce its decision on unwilling countries, such as the Soviet Union or the Dutch regime, or the South African Government. This situation improved a bit when the Security Council authorised an international force to fight in Korea.

What can be done to improve the organisation and to increase its usefulness? The answer is that the United Nations should be turned into a World Government. There were not a few delegates at the San Francisco Conference who cherished large aims; but they were unable to prevail against nationalistic jealousies, fears and aspirations. Once we are able to establish a World Government, we would be able to place arbitrament of law above the appeal to force. Through the International Court of Justice we would be able to make international law sovereign as national law is sovereign now in individual states. The General Assembly should be turned into a World Parliament, its membership based upon populational considerations modified by the considerations of technological advancement. The General Assembly, which is at present purely advisory, should be turned into a legislative body. The Security Council, on the other hand, should be turned into a Military High Command of the World Government. It should have control over materials and production of atomic energy. It should also have the right to inspect any plans or mine or laboratory in any region of the world.

U. N's Birth Pangs.

Two important antecedents have to be taken into account in order to understand what happened at San Francisco. It was at Dumbarton Oaks, on October 7, 1944, that the first draft of the United Nations organisation was prepared. But the representatives of the World that assembled in Washington could not agree at the time upon a veto formula. The present formula was evolved at Yalta on February 11, 1945. These two basic documents were Great Power drafts and so they did not reflect the detachment of idealists and scholars. What was proposed amounted to a disguised form of international hegemony of the Great Powers.

The United Nations conference on International organisation opened at San Francisco on 25th April 1945, and it ended on 26th June, 1946. It opened before the German surrender and it ended before the Japanese surrender. Thus it was in

the heat of the war that the statesmen of the world had gathered. Unity of purpose was so easy then because all of them faced a common danger. This induced one of the major weakness of the world organisation—the belief is always so easy to get. The Charter of the United Nations provides for collective measures to be taken to maintain or to restore international peace, "in conformity with the principles of justice and international law." This qualification is really an improvement over Dumbarton Oakes draft agreement. Friendly relations are to be developed among nations "based on respect for the principles of equal rights and self-determination of peoples." The Charter also calls for "promoting and encouraging respect for human rights and for fundamental freedoms without distinction as to race, sex, language or religion." All these clauses indicate that the United Nations Charter recognizes the supremacy of established International Conventions.

There are two main organs of the United Nations. The supreme one is the Security Council which is entrusted with the "Primary responsibility" for peace. All other organisations of the United Nations are made subservient to the dictates of the Security Council. The Security Council consists of five permanent members with veto powers and six non-permanent members. It is supposed to be in perpetual sitting indicating that it is eternally vigilant for international peace. It has also Military Staff Committee.

The other important organ is the General Assembly. It is like a Town Meeting of the World, because it can "discuss any question or any matters within the scope of the Charter." The Secretariate of the United Nations, however, is over manned by Americans because the United States is the major contributor towards its expense. The organ that is not as important as the above two but which is potentially more important is the International Court of Justice. Efforts are being made to codify International Conventions into International Law and thus to give these "A real Mandate."

The Economic and Social Council, though lacking in political glamour, is perhaps as vital an organ of the United Nations as any, but more about it later. Then there is the Trusteeship Council. In the Charter of the United Nations it is provided that "the interest of the inhabitants of these territories are paramount." The potential Sovereignty of colonial peoples is recognised. The Trusteeship Council is empowered to make periodical inspection tours of the Colonial areas concerned. In Trusteeship, are to be placed all the Mandated territories resulting from the World War I. In Trusteeship are also to be placed all the territories detached from the enemy States as the result of the World War II. So far as the colonies of the Victors are concerned, they can

come under the jurisdiction of the Trusteeship Council only if the metropolitan countries agree to it voluntarily.

The Almighty Veto

The *enfant terrible* of the United Nations is the Veto. In a way it is the rock-bottom on which the world organisation rests. In a way, it is also the undoing of that organisation. The underlying assumption of the Veto is that of a continuous will to agree, existing between the five Powers which are ideologically poles apart, and which are further divided by their respective yearnings for spheres of influence. An assumption of a will to agree among such divergent nations is entirely self-deceptive. Obviously the success of the United Nations depends upon the will to agree, which is hoping against hope.

There are other philosophic assumptions behind the Veto. It is contended that only those who have the power to wage war can preserve peace. Unity among those who have the power to wage war is thus made a prerequisite of world peace. When the veto is countered, this unity is countered and this leads to war. Veto also means that onemany. Russia, which invariably finds itself into a minority, seeks to equate its "lone wolf" status with the rest of the world through the instrumentality of the Veto. A Veto-holding minority is an equal of majority. It was also assumed that no great power would be willing to submit its vital interest to any external will. This was put forward at San Francisco as vehemently by America and England as by Russia ; this is a personal testimony because I was there. Western democracies were early and eager advocates of the Veto although they now look veto-weary. They have come to realize that the fact of power is not incompatible with the rule of law. The powerful would be still dominating in the process of law-making although its right to exercise military power would be ruled out. Whatever their earlier assumptions, Western democracies felt as early as 1947 that Russia was paralysing the United Nations by a repeated use of the Veto, which was first exercised on the Azerbaijan issue. Since then, the veto has confounded action in Korea, in Greece and in many other places. Yet to single out Russia for the exercise of the Veto is unjust,—because one of the so-called Western democracies, France to be precise, has used Veto twice, once on the Spanish question in 1947, and again on Indonesia in 1947. So have others, including the Anglo-American powers. The most vicious implications of the Veto is in connection with amending the Charter, because any amendment can be blocked by a single permanent member of the Security Council, if it is opposed to the change. It is far more difficult to amend the Charter than it was to make it at San Francisco. There, only $\frac{2}{3}$ vote was necessary to place a law into the Statute Book. Now an adverse vote of one permanent member is sufficient to bar an amendment.

It is here that the Veto's capacity to "freeze" all action becomes all the more glaring.

Economic and Social Council

Of all the various organs of the United Nations the Economic and Social Council is more immediately constructive at non-political level. It is easier to agree on matters where politics is not touched. Yet, this Y.M.C.A. method cannot completely succeed until there is a broad understanding on political issues. The result has been that even in certain branches of economic and social endeavour, the Soviet Union has boycotted the Western efforts.

The Economic and Social Council has already held several sessions. By 1947 its organisational period was over and it was concentrating on certain specific and constructive projects. The most outstanding of these projects was that of codifying a Universal Bill of Rights completed in Paris in 1948. The commission on Human Rights capped its hard work of two years on December 10, 1948, in Paris when it was able to proclaim a Universal Bill of Rights containing some 30 items. The clause in the United Nations Charter "We, the people of the United Nations, are determined to reaffirm faith in fundamental human rights", was the motivating spirit behind the document. The Universal Bill of Rights was mainly based upon the American Bill of Rights and its main concern was with civil liberties. But since ideas as to civil liberties are not the same in the East and the West, there are numerous conflicts as to the precise phraseology. Among these rights are "Right to life, liberty and security of the person (the American Bill of Rights had here 'the pursuit of happiness') freedom from slavery, freedom from interference with privacy, liberty of movement, the right of asylum, right to nationality, equality before law, right to immediate judicial determination of legality of detention (*habeas corpus*), presumption of innocence, freedom from *ex-post facto* laws, freedom from discrimination, right to property, freedom of religion and assembly, and right to participation of government."

UNESCO

The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation is a sub-division of the Social and Economic Council. India is more immediately concerned with UNESCO than with almost any other organ of the United Nations. The UNESCO was formed in 1945 in London and its aim was "to contribute to peace and security by promoting collaboration among nations through education, science and culture in order to further universal respect for justice; for rule of law and for the human rights and fundamental freedom".

The preamble in the UNESCO objective says ; "Since wars begin in the minds of men, it is in the minds of men that the defences of peace must be constructed". To this purpose is assembled in the UNESCO, the cream of world's intelligentsia in Education, Science and Culture. Educationists, Scientists, humanists and writers put their shoulders together in order to prove that neither science nor culture nor education knows nationalistic boundaries. The UNESCO is a counterpart of the League of Nations Organisation for intellectual Co-operation. Three general sessions of the UNESCO have already taken place. The first one was in Paris, the second one in Mexico City and the third in Beirut. Around 600 people are on its staff. Its first Director General was Julian Huxley. The present Director-General is a Mexican, Jaime Bodet.

The UNESCO has a very interesting corollary. It advocates the establishment of a National Commission to implement and supplement the work of the Headquarters. The UNESCO is an inter-governmental organisation. The National Commissions can only function in advisory manner within the States concerned. UNESCO has 45 members and there are almost as many national Commissions already.

India's National Commission

In April 1949, the Indian National Commission for UNESCO met in Delhi. It was a singular success because it blazed new trails. Among other things it urges the UNESCO to concentrate on :

(1) fight against racialism : India's stake in racial equality is well known and the cause could be better served if taken up by the entire organisation :

(2) the study of the Gandhian method. Gandhism as an instrument to bring about social and political change without the use of violence is a distinctive contribution that India could make to the world. If this method is studied and adopted by the nations of the world, the supreme objective of the United Nations would be fulfilled :

(3) educational and scientific aid to the backward nations. India has always acted as the spearhead of the backward people.

(4) the status of Asia. Even a World Organisation like the United Nations is preoccupied with Europe. Asia is correspondingly neglected. If India does not take the leadership in equating Asia with the West, who will ?

(5) the raising of the standard of living of the backward people.

Even the UNESCO is sub-divided into regional groups. The Middle East group has already been established and a South

East Asia group is functioning in Bangkok. Another organisation that serves regional needs of Asia is the Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East which also has its headquarters in Bangkok. ECAFE's first session was held in June 1947. It studied the reports of the Work Group and chalked out a meeting of ECAFE which met at Ootacamund in June 1948. Its director is a distinguished Indian Economist—Dr. Loknathan.

Various Commissions and sub-Commissions of the United Nations concentrate on social and cultural activities. There are Sub-Commissions on : Status of women, Narcotic drugs ; Trade and Employment ; Maritime Arrangements ; Children's Fund.

Among the special agencies of the United Nations are the International Labour Organisation ; the Food and Agriculture Organisation ; the International Bank and Monetary Fund ; International Refugee Organisation and Civil Aviation Organisation

XIII. BALANCE SHEET

The survey of the 1951 world makes it difficult to give a designation to the period. It was a period of no peace and no war. The future was hanging in balance. Could this be described as a post-war period or pre-war period? Could this be described as the period following the Second World War or as the eve of the Third World War?

The past two centuries were dominated by the "National Movement". They exhibited the centrifugal force of decentralisation. But the present century has gone to the other extreme. It is experiencing an even more rapidly exhilarating centripetal activity in the internationalisms of capitalist and communist collectivities. The nations are being coalsced into blocs. In a way, the bloc system draws a larger circle than the "national movement" and yet that is the real fallacy. Because there are only two blocs and not three, or four, or twenty, the world is more divided today than ever before. The hackneyed phrase that it takes two to make a quarrel is true in more than one sense. The existence of more than two parties often averts the crisis.

In 1951, however, it seemed that the two-bloc system had considerably weakened. The revival of Western Europe not only as a stable financial unit but also as a military unit of some importance has slowly given rise to a third bloc which was needed for maintaining the desired balance of power. On the other hand, the growing importance of Asian countries like India has

tipped the balance in favour, if not of peace, at least of armed neutrality. The fact that a country like India with its vast potential and moral resources could not be swayed off its feet has made a substantial difference to the war-like preparations of both the blocs of power. At any rate, peace has been preserved in 1951 and however, precarious it seemed in 1950, the chances of a longer peace were bright at the end of 1951. It is worthwhile mentioning here that our country has made a definite contribution to this state of affairs. Had it not been for the cool judgment of our national leaders, India might have increased the tension by openly allying herself with one of the two blocs. The refusal of our leaders not to do so, has considerably stabilised the world situation and improved the chance of peace. This fact is borne out by the appreciation of our foreign policy which comes from many quarters of the globe and from very eminent men, who refuse to accept that the third world war is inevitable. India with her long traditions of non aggression has brought home to the great Continental powers that in international relations, as also in the relationship between individuals, the best workable method is that of the "golden mean" preached many centuries ago by a great Indian-Gautama Buddha.

The world of course is still far from being settled and very far from the conception of one world so ably advocated by Wendell Wilkie. He wrote his book while the war was on and while there was a unity of purpose between the East and the West. Stalin's analysis of history and of the contemporary scene has proved to be more realistic. In his VOPROSY Stalin wrote "Thus in the course of further development of international revolution two centres will form on a world scale ; a socialist centre binding to itself the countries that gravitate to socialism, and a capitalist centre, binding to itself the countries that gravitate to capitalism—the struggle between the two systems will fill up history—and will decide the fate of capitalism and communism in the whole world." Thus Stalin did not hesitate even to identify the two worlds. He further affirmed in VOPROSY that there are "Two directions of pull towards these centres throughout the world : Anglo-American and Soviet Union".

The little men of the world, by and large, regarded a clash as inevitable. The question was which system will survive ? Stalin says that "only that which is rising and developing is invincible". History is on his side. But by turning into a modern Peter the Great, Stalin himself has accepted a historic throwback and thus given the hope that rational man is capable of overcoming historic determinism. The same inference could be drawn from democracy's march toward a welfare state.

This issue will certainly not be settled soon but as 1951 comes to an end, mankind is filled with a little more hope than

it did a year ago. Somehow the clash which was to take place in 1951 has been averted. Wisdom of the statesmen of all countries of the world has prevailed over passion and hatred. It has not certainly removed the causes of conflict. In fact, there are at least regions of the world where actual hostilities are in progress. But the man in the street sighs with relief that these conflicts have not extended. The fact that ordinary men and women, in many parts of the world, still go about their jobs without being afraid of violence and warfare, is already a great deal in a world beset with fear and the fear of war. Ideal of one world is still far off, but even if two worlds remain at peace, for an ordinary man and woman it should be enough.

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REGIONAL GEOGRAPHY

ABYSSINIA (ETHIOPIA)

Area : 350,000 sq. m.

Religion : Coptic Christianity and Muslim.

Population : 7,000,000. *Monetary Unit* : Ethiopian dollar.

Capital : Addis Ababa. (p. 150,000).

Important Towns : Harar, Dire Dawa, Gondar, Debra Markos.

Ruler : Haile Selassi, I (1891—), Emperor or Negus, Negesti (King of Kings).

Language : Ambaric and Arabic.

Lying on the south western edge of the Red Sea, Abyssinia has great strategic importance. Its Lake Tsana controls the waters of the Nile, for in the lake lies the source of the Blue Nile. It is a mountainous country, receiving good monsoonal rains and considered suitable for white population. This obscure kingdom came into the lime light when it was attacked in 1935 by the forces of Mussolini who dreamt of reviving the Roman Empire. Inspite of heroic resistance by the Abyssinian forces and an appeal to the League of Nations to come to its aid, Italy showed a fist to the world and conquered it by the force of its superior arms, most specially by its air force which destroyed open cities and the unprotected native forces. It then formed part of Italian East Africa, till recently, but during World War II Abyssinia was re-occupied by King Haile Selassie with the help of British forces (May, 1941). On January, 31, 1942, an Agreement and Military Convention was signed between Abyssinia and Great Britain, recognizing the independence of the former, and providing technical and administrative advisers and financial help.

Abyssinia is inhabited by three main classes of people; the Amharas, the ruling class, are Coptic Christians who inhabit the central uplands; next to them are the people of Tigre, further north who are also Coptic Christians, and the third people are the Gallas, some of whom are Christians while others are Moslems and animists. They are farmers and cattle breeders of hamitic race and language and are extremely backward.

Europeans and Americans direct practically all the activities of government, as they have been specially employed to advise the government both in its civil and military administration and they are thus the chief bosses.

The chief exports are coffee, hides and skins, live stock, and grain, but rubber, sugar, bananas, and oranges grow easily and there is plenty of timber. A little gold is mined, and there are said to be valuable deposits of potash salts yet unexploited. Imports include cotton-piece goods, petrol, salt, sugar and manufactured articles. There are no manufactures.

Formerly, roads in Abyssinia were mere tracks and transport was effected by means of porters, mules, donkeys, pack horses, and camels. But the Italians built 4340 miles of new roads. A railway formerly under French management, runs from Jibuti to the capital.

AFGHANISTAN

Area : 250,000 sq. m.

Population : 10,000,000. Monetary Unit : Afghani.

Capital : Kabul, (p. 120,000).

Important Towns : Kandahar, Herat, Mazar-i-Sherif, Jelalabad.

Ruler : King Mohammad Zahir Shah (b. 1914).

Prime Minister : Marshall Shah Mahmood Khan Ghazi.

Languages : Persian, Pashtu, Turki.

Form of Government : Constitutional Monarchy.

Religion : Sunni Mohammedan.

Afghanistan is a buffer state between Russia and Pakistan, with its mountains standing as barriers between them. It comprises the eastern part of the Plateau of Iran and most of the country is over 4,000 feet high. Some of the peaks of the Hindu Kush on its north-east are 24,000 feet high. The main routes of Pakistan are passes through the mountains, the chief being the Kheyber from Kabul and the Bolan from Kandahar. The chief rivers are Amu, Daria, Murghab, Heri Rud, Helmund, and Kabul.

Although a good deal of the country is dry and rocky and the Afghans are chiefly nomads, counting their wealth by heads of the sheep and goats they possess, yet at places agriculture is possible with the aid of irrigation. Such places yield crops of fruits, vegetables and cereals. The spring crops consist of wheat, barley and lentils and the autumn harvest produces rice, millets, sorghum, tobacco, and corn. Cotton and fruits are other important products. The fat-tailed sheep is native to Afghanistan,

furnishing wool, skin and meat. The country is reputed to contain rich deposits of copper, petroleum (near Herat) silver and coal, all undeveloped. Chief items of export from India to Afghanistan are cotton goods, sugar, hardware, live animals, leather goods, tea, paper and cement. The imports into India include spices, fruits, skins, carpets and raw wool. Kabul has factories for small manufactures of matches, buttons, leather boots, marble ware and furniture.

Sulphur deposits are found in the province of Maimana and chromite deposits near Herat. There is only one rail road in the country. The Khyber and Bolan roads are fit for light traffic as far as Kabul and Kandahar; other motor traffic roads are Kandahar-Herat, Kandahar-Chaman, Khyber-Mazar-i-Sharif. There are telephones and telegraphic communications and also a wireless station, which connects Kabul with the outside world.

ALBANIA

Ruler : Formerly King Zog, then Victor Emmanuel III of Italy. Since 1946 Albania has a republican constitution and is in the Soviet sphere of influence.

President of the Republic : Dr. Omar Nishani elected, 13 Jan. 1946.

Area : 10,629 sq. m. *Language* : Albanian.

Population : 1,190,000. *Monetary Unit* : Albanian Franc.

Capital : Tirana.

Religion : Muslim (in majority) and Roman Catholic Christian.

Prime Minister : Enver Hodja elected on June 3rd, 1950.

A small mountainous State between Yugoslavia and Greece; in area roughly equal to the island of Sardinia. It is separated from Italy by the Adriatic Sea. It is the wildest country in Europe. Means of communication are scanty and the area is mostly a waste land inhabited by fierce hill tribes. In April, 1939, this state was brought under Italian control after a rapid invasion, but was liberated in 1944.

Albania is mainly an agricultural and pastoral country. The principal products are tobacco, timber, wool hides, furs, cheese, olive, fish, corn, cattle and bitumen etc.

There are vast forest resources. The mineral wealth except copper is untapped.

ALGERIA

Area : 847,500 sq. m. *Population* : 7,600,000, (of whom 1,000,000 are Frenchmen, the rest Arabs and Kabyles, both Muslim). *Capital* : Algiers (p. 25,000).

Monetary Unit : French franc.

Important Towns : Oran, Constantine, Bone, Philippeville, Sidi-bel-Abbs.

Governor-General : Marcel Nacgelen.

Language : Arabic and French. *Religion* : Muslim.

Algeria, a colony of French conquered in 1830—57 has a coastline on the Mediterranean and an extremely fertile coastal plain, known as the Tell. The plain is separated by Atlas Mts. from the southern rocky and desert region. To the south of the Tell lies the Plateau of Shoots or seasonal lakes which are covered with poor grass and is inhabited by nomadic shepherds. Further to the south lies the Sahara.

The highly fertile plains and valleys near its coasts are cultivated scientifically and profitable returns are obtained from vineyards, cereals, etc. The mountains in the northern part are better suited to grazing and forestry. The chief crops are wheat, barley, oats, maize, potatoes, beans, peas, etc. Flax and tobacco are also produced. Important products are wine and olive oil, while pomegranate, almond, fig, and many other fruits grow abundantly. Very large areas are covered with cork-oak tree. Algeria is important for fisheries and possesses good deposits of iron, zinc, lead, mercury, copper and antimony. Principal exports are : wine, cereals, sheep, olive oil, phosphates and esparto. The chief imports are textiles, machinery, petroleum, sugar etc.

The country has a railway system and many excellent roads.

ARABIA

Politically Arabia is not a homogenous country and falls into many divisions :—

- (1) The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, comprising the Hejaz-Nejd, and Asir. (The most Progressive Kingdom). Its form of government is Absolute Monarchy Ruler : King Abdul Aziz Ibn Abdul-Rehman-Al-Faisal Al Saud, born in 1880, proclaimed King of Hejaz January 8, 1926. King of Saudi Arabia by decree of September 22, 1932.
- (2) Yemen. An independent Kingdom. Area 75,000 sq. miles, population 3500,000.
- (3) Oman, and Muscat, a sultanate. Area 82,000 sq. miles. Population 550,000.
- (4) The State of Kuwait.
- (5) Various Shaikdoms, of which many are under British protection.

- (6) The state of Bahrain (famous for pearl fishery and oil wells operated by the Standard Oil Co., of California and the Texas Corporation).

Arabia is essentially a desert country inhabited mostly by nomadic Bedouin tribes. With Iraq and Transjordan in the north, it is enclosed on the other three sides by the sea—the Red Sea, the Arabian sea, the Persian Gulf. There is a mountain barrier which runs parallel to the Red Sea, on the west from which the land surface slowly slopes down to sea-level on the Persian Gulf, interrupted only by the Oman mountains. Arabia is mostly a barren country, with insignificant rain, comprising an area of 1,000,000 sq. m. and population of 10,000,000. It remained under the Turks upto 1918.

KINGDOM OF SAUDI ARABIA

Area : 600,000 sq. m. Population : 4,500,000.

Capital : Mecca (of Hejaz), Riyadh (of Nejd).

Important Towns : Hufuf, Mubarraz, Shaqra are in Nejd ; Medina, Jeddah, Yanbu are in the Hejaz. Jeddah is the sea port of Mecca, and Yanbu that of Medina.

Religion : Muslim. Language : Arabia.

Ruler : King Abd-el-Aziz.

The products are dates, wheat, fruit, hides, wool, sheep, camels, horses, donkeys, coffee, limes.

The export trade of Nejd and Hejaz both is insignificant. An important source of income is the royalties from oil wells which are controlled by American interests. There are 3 million barrels of proved reserves in the north east part of the country.

Most important imports are : sugar, rice, tea, cereals, cloth, motor vehicles, machinery, tobacco, glass etc.

There are no roads, properly speaking, in the country. A few routes for motor traffic exist. Land transport is by pack animals.

ARGENTINE

Area : 1,080,8000 sq. m. Population : 16,105,000.

Capital : Buenos Aires. (p. 2,408,900).

Religion : Roman Catholic. Monetary Unit : Peso.

Language : Spanish.

Important Towns : Rosario, Cordoba, Santa Fe, Tucuman, Mendoza, La Plata, Bahia Blanca.

• *President*: General Juan Domingo Peron. Elected February 24, 1946. Assumed office June 4, 1946 for a six year term.

The country is a most advanced Republic in South America. The president is elected for a term of six years, the upper chamber for nine years and the lower chamber for four years. The republic consists of 14 provinces, 9 territories and 1 federal district. Majority of the population is of Spanish origin, with a small minority of the Red Indians.

Argentine is the most important of the States of South America. It has a coastline on the Atlantic Ocean on the east and on the west is separated by the Andes from Chile. On its other boundaries are Paraguay, Uruguay, Bolivia and Brazil. The southern part is known as Patagonia which is a desert. The north-east has many fertile valleys and there are vast plains in the centre called Pampas. The country is mountainous, well-watered, and enjoys a temperate climate. Its chief rivers are La Plata, Parana, Uruguay and Rio Negro.

Agriculture is the country's main industry. A large section of the State has climate ideal for wheat, which has made it one of the granaries of the world. How immense is the production may be gauged from the fact that during 1948-49, the country produced 4,700,000 metric tons of wheat, 6,500,000 metric tons of maize and 600,000 metric tons of linseed and her exports in 1949, in metric tons were : wheat 1,837,000, maize 1,081,000, Barley 198,000 metric tons. Cotton, sugar, vine, tobacco, rice, potatoes and Paraguayan tea are also cultivated. Cattle are reared in immense numbers in the northern and eastern parts. According to the latest census she has 42,000,000 cattle, 10,000,000 horses, mules and asses, 5,000,000 goats and 51,000,000 sheep and 3,000,000 pigs. Mutton is chilled for exports ; also hides, wool, butter and wine are produced. Minerals include gold, coal, tin and copper, but are not important. Alalfa is Argentine's most successful crop for feeding cattle, while immense areas are occupied for wheat cultivation. Industries include meat freezing, flour milling, dairying etc. The principal industry is meat refrigeration, followed by flour-milling. Argentine stands foremost among countries in exporting food and raw materials, such as wheat, corn, linseed, oats, alalfa, wool, chilled meats, and hides. The imports consist of textiles, food-stuffs, iron, glass-ware, chemicals, and oil. Oilfields have recently been developed in Patagonia.

Communications are extensive : roads, railways, airways and wireless.

AUSTRALIA

(The never, never land)

Area : 2975000 sq. miles. Religion : Christianity.

Population : 8120000 (early in 1950). Language : English.

Capital : Canberra. Monetary Unit : Australian pound.

Sovereign : King George VI.

Governor General : William John McKell appointed January 31, 1947.

Prime Minister : Robert Gorden Menzies.

Principal Towns : Sydney, Brisbane, Adelaide, Melbourne and Perth. More than half the population lives in these cities.

Australia is a Dominion in the British Commonwealth of Nations. It is divided into three principal natural regions : (a) the great Western Plateau 600 to 1,500 ft. high, occupying more than half of the continent, (b) central lowland some of which are below sea level, and (c) the eastern mountains. The Tropic of Capricorn passes through the middle of Australia, and the northern half of Australia has much the same climate as India, the monsoon type. South Australia is in temperate zone and enjoys a Mediterranean type of climate.

In the desert region of the west are world famous goldfields of Kalgoorlie. Victoria (Eastern Australia) has the important goldfields of Ballarat and Bendigo. Copper is found in Queensland. Broken Hill in New South Wales has the richest silver-lead ore deposits in the world. Coal is found near Sydney in New South Wales and Brisbane in Queensland. Rich deposits of iron are also found but they are removed from coal deposits.

The vegetation of Australia has certain peculiarities. Eucliptic trees cover vast areas, and Karri and Jarrah forests are also of importance. More peculiar are the animals such as kangaroo, platypus and big running birds like the emu.

Geologically the oldest continent, but the newest part of the world to be settled. Australia presents many contrasts in characteristics and developments.

Although a great agricultural and pastoral country, more than 60 per cent of the population lives in the capital cities.

Despite a generally moderate climate and many natural advantages, shortage of water is the basic handicap which can be overcome only partially by conservation. The one great Australian river system, which looks impressive on a map, discharges only three per cent of the water of Mississippi. Only 15 per cent of the continent has a rainfall of 30 inches, and 68 percent has less than 20 inches.

Australia is a pastoral land and an agricultural country so that its *exports* in order of importance are wool, meat, flour, butter, wheat, hides and skins, sugar cane, milk cream fruits, and ores. Its *imports* are cotton goods, machinery, tobacco, tea, chemicals and drugs, silk and cotton yarn, and paper.

AUSTRIA

Area : 32,375 sq. m.

Monetary Unit : Schilling.

Language : German.

Religion : Roman Catholic.

Population : 7,000,000.

Capital : Vienna (p. 1,766,906).

Important Towns : Graz, Linz, Innshbruck, Salzburg.

Government : Republic, *President* : Dr. Theodore Koerner.

After World War I, the Central European Austro-Hungarian State was split up into small republics. Thus denuded, the Republic of Austria has an area slightly more than that of Mysore State and consists mostly of rocky country inhabited by a German speaking people. The most important part of the country is the valley of the Danube. There are some poor coal and good iron ore deposits and important forests. The metallurgical industries depend upon imported coal.

Although a mountainous country, 80 per cent of the land is productive and half of this is under cultivation but the country is primarily industrial and has to depend upon imported food-stuffs. The main crops are rye, oats, wheat, barley and potatoes. Manufactures include cotton and woolen goods, glass, paper, pottery, furniture, musical instruments.

BELGIUM

Area : 11,755 sq. m. *Monetary Unit* : Belgian Franc.

Population : 8,625,084. *Language* : Flemish.

Capital : Brussels. *Religion* : Roman Catholic.

King : Prince Baudouin after the abdication of his father King Leopold III.

Prime Minister : Joseph Pholens took office on 16th August 1950.

Principal cities : Antwerp, Malines, Charleroi, Liege, Ghent.

A typical buffer State, Belgium with no natural boundaries of her own, lies between two large and powerful countries—France and Germany. Northern Belgium consists of low hills with flat land near the coastline. In the centre lies a narrow strip of coalfield region. Southern Belgium or the Ardennes

is a plateau of hard rocks with pine forests and sheep pastures. The central zone is the manufacturing area of Belgium with many iron and steel works. To the south lies the tiny state of Luxembourg, rich in iron ores, ruled over by a Grand Duke.

Belgium has been aptly called the cockpit of Europe. In recent years inspite of solemn guarantees of neutrality, the Germans could not help the temptation of invading Belgium to reach France as quickly as possible. So in 1914 it was invaded by the Germans who kept it till 1918. It was again invaded in 1940 but was liberated by the Allies in 1944. Throughout occupation period, the Belgian Government, which had fled to England, was carried on by M. Herbet Pierlot with his headquarters in London.

BRAZIL

Area : 3,280,000 sq. m.

Population : 50,000,000.

Capital : Rio de Janeiro.

Language : Portuguese.

Monetary Unit : Cruzeiro.

Religion : Catholic.

Important Towns. Sao Paulo, Sao Salvador, Recife, Belem.

President of the Republic : Getulio Dornelles Vargas.

The largest country in South America (being larger than the Continental United States and almost as large as all Europe), Brazil has various tracts of land still unknown or unexplored. A major part of it is a typical equatorial region, through which flows the Amazon river with its numerous tributaries. This is generally unsuited for civilized settlement. But the country has an elevated area enjoying a healthy climate towards the east.

Brazil is an agricultural country though only a small portion of it is cultivated. The chief products are coffee and rubber, rice, castor beans, cotton, sugar, tobacco, and cocoa are important products. She ranks first in the production of coffee and castor beans, second in the production of cocoa and third in that of sugar and fifth as a tobacco growing country. Industry is now ahead of agriculture and textiles constitute the chief manufacture. A recent addition to products is in respect of oranges, which are produced as much as in any single country in the world, including the U. S. A. The mines and forests of Brazil are also important. According to Lord Brace and various geographical explorers, Brazil holds fabulous possibilities for future development. Steel manufacture and petroleum production have been started. Gold and monazite are found. She is the only country to produce high grade quality crystals, as well as industrial diamonds. She is third in producing zirconium, while she is fifth in the production of mica. By recent finds it has been estimated that Brazil has the richest deposits of iron ore in the world which amount to about 16 billion tons.

A network of roads, railways and aerial communications are a feature of the country, though inadequate, considering its large size.

BULGARIA

Area : 42,796 sq. m.

Population : 6,500,000.

Capital : Sofia (p. 901,300).

Monetary Unit : Lev.

Language : Bulgarian.

Religion : Greek Orthodox.

Bulgaria is a country peopled by the slavs. It was established as a kingdom near about 680 A. D. which was subjugated by the Byzantine Empire. It however, regained its independence after a hundred years, when towards the end of the 14th century the Turks overran it and made it a part of the empire of Turkey. It was freed from the Turks in 1878 after the War between Russia and Turkey.

During the first World War it became an ally of Germany, Austria and Hungary and when it was defeated it was forced to cede territory to Greece, Turkey and Serbia. In the 2nd World War Bulgaria again sided with the Axis powers when in 1944 it surrendered to the Allies.

As Bulgaria came directly under the influence of the Communist regime, specially due to the effort of Georgi Demitrov, the Communist leader of the Communist party, a communist regime has been established. It captured nearly 80% seats in the general elections that were held in 1949.

A republican constitution on the 'peoples' democracy pattern was adopted in December 1947 and is working since then.

It is a small and mountainous country lying to the north of Greece. Winters are severe while summers are warm. Chief occupation of the people is agriculture. Forests of oak and beech are found on mountain slopes, with grasslands here and there, so that sheep, goat and pigs are reared in large numbers. Important produce : wheat, maize, barley, tobacco, (which is the leading export), alfalfa, cotton, flax, etc. The southern valleys have extensive vineyards and rose gardens. Silk worms are reared.

BURMA

Area : 261,610 sq. miles.

Population : 17,000,000

Capital : Rangoon (p. 400,415).

Language : Burmese.

Monetary Unit : Burmese Rupee.

Religion : Buddhist.

Important Towns : Akyab, Mandalay, Moulmein,

Maymyo.

Prime Minister : Thakin Nu.

Burma was a part of India as a Governor's province till April 1, 1935 when it became a separate country under a governor assisted by a council on behalf of His Majesty.

On the east side of sub-continent of India, Burma extends from China in the north to Siam in the south, and is bounded on the east by China, Annam and Siam. It is bounded by the Arakan, Yoma and Patkoi hills on the west and plateau occupied by the Shan States on the east with the Irrawady basin in the middle. The Irrawady basin is the most important region on the east, the lower part of which is the teak reservoir of the land and grows abundant exportable rice, and the upper part has oil deposits.

Products of Burma include teak, tin, rice, petroleum, tungsten, oil seeds, cotton, tobacco, etc.

Communications are by road and railway, but the Irrawady is more important as a means of inland navigation. Recently a road joining Burma with war time Chinese capital Chungking was built and was considered of great strategic value.

CANADA

Area : 3,695,000 sq. m. Language : English and French.

Population : 12,883,000.

Capital : Ottawa. Monetary Unit : Canadian dollar.

Religion : Roman Catholic and Protestant.

Important Towns : Montreal, Vancouver, Winnipeg, Quebec, Toronto.

Governor General : Mr. Vincent Massey, assumed office Jan., 1952.

Prime Minister : Mr. Louis St. Laurent.

Canada forms the northern part of the continent of North America, separated from the U. S. A. by an artificial line drawn approximately along the 49th parallel of latitude, through the Great Lakes, and on to the sea. In the north the Dominion extends to the Arctic. Much of the country is a great plain, but in the west are vast mountain ranges, which include parts of the Rocky Mts. The Atlantic waters on its eastern fringes get frozen in winter.

Wheat and other cereals are grown in great abundance in the prairie provinces, which are also now turning out large outputs of dairy produce. The fisheries are important. There are vast reservoirs of coal, and a good deal of gold and silver are produced. Canada is the principal source of nickel in the world and new surveys indicate the existence of huge mineral deposits

of various kinds ; of special importance is the uranium ore mined in Northern Canada near the Great Bear Lake, one of the only two places so far known in the world (the other is in Belgian Congo) where this raw material of atomic energy can be mined in substantial quantities. The enormous forests provide pulp for paper-making and lumbering. Canada is developing water power on a huge scale. Principal exports are wheat, newsprint paper, gold, bullion, woodpulp, fish, meats, raw furs, and apples.

The Canadian National and the Canadian Pacific are the two continental railways of the country from coast to coast. More important, Canada has a system of canal, river and lake navigations, over 2700 miles in length, and vessels from the lake ports may reach the Atlantic without breaking bulk.

CEYLON

Area : 25,332 sq. m.

Religion : Buddhist.

Population : 7,193,000.

Capital : Colombo (p. 361,000).

Important Towns : Jaffna, Kandy, Trincomalee, Galle.

Prime Minister : D. S. Senanayaka.

Governor General : Rt. Hon. Lord Soulbury.

Generally considered a part of India, Ceylon has a separate political and geographical entity. A narrow strip of water, the Adam's Bridge, separates it from the Indian mainland. Within the map of the Empire, it has a distinct importance of its own, for it falls in the way of the imperial sea-route. Being open on three sides to sea influences, it is subject to the climatic fluctuation which sway the oceans.

Much of the island is covered by beautiful tropical vegetation. Agriculture is the chief industry. The production of rubber and tea reaches exportable proportion while cocoa is an expanding crop. Of minerals, monazite and zircon are of commercial importance. Principal exports are cocoa, cinnamon, coir, copra, coconut oil, tea and rubber. Principal imports constitute rice, coal, spirits, sugar, bullion.

A thousand miles of railway exist and several new lines are under construction.

CHILE

Area : 296,717 sq. miles

Population : 5,760,000

Capital : Santiago.

Monetary Unit : Peso

Ports : Valparaiso, Iquique.

Language : Spanish.

Religion : Roman Catholic.

President : Gabriel Gonzalez Videla assumed office on November 3, 1946, for six years term.

Chile occupies the west costal strip of South America between the crest of the Andes and the sea. The northern portion constitutes the Atacama Desert, rich in nitrates and other minerals such as ores of copper and silver. Central Chile enjoys Mediterranean type of climate and produces wheat, fruit, wine and pastoral products. The southern part of Chile is forest clad and the thick natural vegetation bars human population. Chile exports raw materials to, and imports manufactured goods from England, U. S. A., Germany and France.

CHINA

Area : 3,870,437.

Population : 461,000,000.

Monetary Unit : Chinese dollar.

Language : Chinese.

Religion : Confucianism, Buddhism, Taoism.

Capital : Chungking (from 1937-45) (p. 1,900,000) ; Nanking (1946-1949) ; (p. 755,300). Peking 1949.

Important Towns : Tientsin, Peiping, Hankow, Amoy, Canton, Shanghai.

The frontiers of China touch those of India, Russia and Japanese Possessions in Asia. Separated from Japan by the narrow Yellow Sea, China almost fell in the way of Japanese imperial exploitation. Its distance from Europe gives it an isolation and therefore insecurity before a strong Eastern power. It is largely a mountainous country but it has considerable level surface and beyond the coast, watered and fertilized by the Yangtse-Kiang, Hwang Ho, and Sikiang.

China is essentially an agricultural country. Principal products include cotton, tea, silk, wheat, millets, beans and rice. In point of coal, China is regarded as one of the first countries in the world, while iron, tin, antimony also abound. The Tayeh iron deposits, near Hankow, are among the richest in the world. *Exports* : animal products, raw cotton, raw silk, oils, ores and metals, spices, tea, chemicals, cereals. *Imports* : cotton piecegoods, woolens, oils, fats, soap etc. machinery, tobacco. etc.

China is traversed in all directions by numerous roads. There are also navigable rivers and canals. The principal railways are Peiping-Hankow, Canton-Hankow, Peiping-Mukden, Nanking Shanghai, Lung-Hoi-Yunnan, etc.

China now claims the island of Formosa ceded to Japan in 1895.

Note—Including Manchuria, Mongolia, Tibet and the new Dominion of Sinkiang, China has a total area of 5,445,980 sq. m. and a population of 475,000,000.

COLOMBIA

Area : 439,997 sq. m.

Capital : Bogota.

Language : Spanish.

Principal ports : Cartagena and Barraquilla.

President . Laureano Gomez (conservative) elected on Nov. 17, 1949 for a term of four years.

Colombia is a small state on the Northern tip of South American Continent. It was originally inhabited by Chibcha Indians and was conquered by the Spaniards in 1538. It remained a viceroyalty of Spain until 1832, when an independent republic was established by Simon Bolivar.

This South American State lies at the northern terminus of the Chain of Andes, and South of the Straits of Panama. Like Chile, it has three natural regions, the coastal strip, the highlands and the Montana region gradually sloping to the east. Climate is equatorial, with such products as sugar, cotton, cocoa and bananas. Rich oilfields have been discovered recently in the coastal strip.

CUBA

Area : 44,164 sq. m.

Capital : Havana (p. 568,913.)

Monetary Unit : Peso.

President : Dr. Prio Socarias elected in 1948 for the term of four years.

Cuba is an important island of the West Indies, and commands the Gulf of Mexico. Its climate is not very healthy but the island contains the most valuable sugar cane and tobacco plantations in the world. Cuba produces about one-third of the world's supply of cane sugar which is exported to America. Majority of the sugar mills of the island are American owned and the U. S. A. has much influence on the country in many other ways, specially on account of the nearby Panama Canal. Its cigars and tobacco are famous the world over.

CZECHOSLOVAKIA

Area : 49,371 sq. m.

Monetary Unit - Karuna.

Religion : mainly Roman Catholic.

Population : 11,015,210

Monetary Unit : Peso.

Religion : Roman Catholic.

Population : 4,800,500.

Language : Spanish.

Religion : Roman Catholic.

Population : 13,000,000.

Capital : Prague (p. 923,000).

Important Towns : Brunn, Ostrava, Bratislava, Pilsen.

President : M. Gottwal elected on June, 1948.

Premier : M. Zapotocky elected on June 15, 1948.

The Republic of Czechoslovakia was created in 1918 from five possessions of Austria-Hungary; Bohemia, Moravia, Silesia, Slovakia and Carpathian Ruthenia. In 1939 the Germans invaded western Czechoslovakia and a large portion of the country was taken by Germany, Hungary and Poland. Next year Hitler seized Prague and made Bohemia and Moravia, a protectorate of the Reich. The country was liberated by the Russians and the Americans in 1945.

It is now well sealed behind the Iron Curtain.

As stated above, the Republic of Czechoslovakia which was founded in 1918 consisted of Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia, Slovakia, and Ruthenia; its frontiers touched Germany, Austria, Hungary, Rumania and Poland. It has thus an extensive "surface of friction," which was one of the causes of its disruption. It was dismembered in 1938 for the benefit of Germany, Poland, and Hungary and its provinces Bohemia and Moravia were absorbed into Germany. Slovakia declared independence. Hungary occupied the remainder of Ruthenia, when Czechoslovakia was liberated by the Red Army and U. S. forces in 1944-1945 Subcarpathian Ruthenia was transferred to the Soviet Union by the Treaty of Moscow of 29 July, 1945.

The Czechoslovak territory is the richest in Europe, both as regards natural resources and industrial development. It ranks among the most richly wooded countries in Europe. The chief crops of the region are wheat, rye, barley, potato, sugar beet. Hops are grown and beer is made and exported. Large quantities of fruits are grown and largely exported. The mineral production comprises coal, iron, graphite, gold and silver. Deposits of uranium ore are found. *Exports* : woollen goods; cotton, coal, glass, sugar, iron, steel and leather.

Imports : fruits, cotton, fats and oils, machinery, chemicals.

Communication is carried by railways, roads and the waterway of the Danube, of which the chief port is Bratislava. The main ports on the Elbe are Anssig and Teschen. Air routes are increasingly important in the region.

DENMARK

Area ; 16,600 sq. m.

Monetary Unit : Krone.

Religion : Protestant.

Capital : Copenhagen. (p. 700,000).

Population : 4,600,000.

Language : Danish.

Important Towns : Aarhus Odense, Aalborg.

Sovereign : King Frederik IX ascended the throne on April 20, 1947.

Premier : Erik Eriksen.

utting out of the northern coast of Europe, Denmark consists of a peninsula and several islands, among them being Zealand, Funan, Falster and Borholm. In addition, Denmark owns Greenland and the Faroe Islands. The borders of Denmark are the sea, except where in the south it touches Germany. There are many lakes, ponds and short rivers, and much land is heather covered.

The land, which is fit for cultivation, is exceedingly fertile. Thanks to intensive methods of cultivation, barley, oats, rye, wheat, beetroot and potatoes are raised in large quantities. Dairy-farming on scientific lines and under co-operative methods is the most important industry. The refuse of the dairy produce is used extensively as food for cattle and pigs, which are reared in large numbers. *Exports* : butter, cheese, bacon, eggs, livestock. *Imports* : textiles, coal, cereals, manufactured goods.

The rivers of Denmark are unimportant. Canals and roads, however have been constructed. Railways exist on a small scale, while numerous ferries run between Jutland and the islands.

Denmark was occupied by German forces dramatically without the loss of a single life on April 9, 1940. There was no resistance. It was liberated by the Allies in 1945.

EGYPT

Area : 386,000 sq. m.

Monetary Unit : Millicm.

Population : 19,000,000.

Language : Arabic.

Capital : Cairo (p. 2,100,000).

Religion : Muslim.

Important Towns : Alexanderia, Port Said, Sucz, Tanta, Mansura, Ismailia.

Ruler : King Farouk I (1936—)

Premier : Aly Maher Pasha.

Egypt was originally part of the Turkish Empire. When the Suez canal was completed, the French and the British began to take increasing interest in Egyptian affairs. Finally British troops occupied Egypt in 1882 and British residential agents became its actual administrators, though it remained nominally under the Turkish sovereignty. On December 18, 1914 it became a British Protectorate. Pressure by Egyptian nationalists

forced Britain to declare Egypt an independent sovereign state, but as the country lay on the British Imperial route the British reserved their rights for protection of the Suez, and the defence of Egypt.

Although Egypt covers an area of about four lac sq. m., the cultivated and settled area of the Nile Valley occupies but about one thirtieth of the land. Its position on the Mediterranean, the Red Sea, and the Suez Canal gives it great strategic importance. The country has been developed agriculturally by extensive irrigation and scientific control. The Aswan Dam is a marvellous engineering feat.

Crops are grown all the year round. The principal products include cotton, sugarcane, rice, wheat, barley, maize and beans. There are few industries apart from cigarette manufacture and extraction of oil from cotton seeds. The fisheries are important.

Export : raw cotton, cotton seeds, onions, oil-seed cake, cigarettes.

Imports : cotton, coal, iron and steel manufactures, woollen goods.

Suez Canal is an important means of communication, while the river Nile is navigable from Khartoum north-ward. There are also railways and airways.

FINLAND

Area : 117,975 sq. m.

Population : 3,900,000.

Capital : Helsinki.

Monetary Unit : Markka.

Language : Finish and Swedish.

Religion : Protestant.

President of the Republic : Juho Passikivi assumed office on March 11, 1946. Re-elected for a further term of 6 years in Feb. 1950.

Premier : Muano Pekkala.

It was the largest of the republics formed after the Great War among the Baltic States. Most of the country is covered with valuable forests and timber; wood pulp and paper formed its chief exports. Agriculture is the chief occupation of the people although the cultivated area is only about 8 per cent. of the land. With German aggression in Central Europe, Finland became a theatre of war as a result of Russian invasion early in 1940. The Finns fought bravely, but superior numbers and better equipment ultimately won the day for Russia. Finland assigned to Russia the whole of the Karelian Isthmus, the whole of the shore of Lake Ladoga and the port of Viipuri.

When the Germans attacked Russia in June 1941, the Finns joined hands with them. All the territories ceded to Russia by the Treaty of March 12, 1940, were re-occupied. But Finland came to terms with Russia again in 1944, when Russian troops invaded Finland. The Petsamo area in the north was ceded to Russia and Porkkala headland with the adjoining land and sea was leased for 50 years for a military base and \$ 300,000,000 reparations to be paid in six years time. This was confirmed by the peace treaty of Paris in 1947.

FRANCE

Area : 212,700 sq. m.

Population : 50,518,884.

Capital : Paris (p. 2,829,746).

Monetary Unit : Franc.

Language : French. Religion : Predominantly Roman

President : Vincent Auriol. Catholic.

Important Towns : Marseilles, Lyons, Bordeaux, Nice, Toulouse, Lille, Nantes, Strasbourg.

France lies between Germany and Spain and stretches from the Mediterranean Sea to the Bay of Biscay and the English Channel. Most of the country is flat, but there are mountains and plateaus. In the centre is a plateau. The Jura, Pyrenees and the Alps separate it from Switzerland, Spain and Italy. The Rhine River flowing along its eastern boundary is of international importance. The coastline of France is not so irregular as that of Great Britain, hence a smaller number of ports.

With a soil generally fertile, France is a great agricultural country. Wheat and other cereals are grown and cattle, sheep and horses reared. A great quantity of wine is produced. There are many manufactures, the chief industrial centres being Paris, Lyons and the districts in the N. E. where there are coal mines. The manufacture of silk is peculiarly a French industry, while French articles of fashion are famous for their delicacy the world over. The rich Saar coalfields went to Germany in 1936. Iron is mined in Lorraine. French fisheries are important. *Exports* : chemical products, iron and steel, silk and cotton textiles, automobiles and wine. *Imports* : wine, wool, cereals, raw cotton, coal, coffee, oil seeds, sugar, petroleum, hides and skins.

Internal communications include rivers, railways and airways, and wireless.

GERMANY

	<i>Area (sq. m.)</i>	<i>Population</i>
American Zone	41,500	17,255,000
British	37,710	22,303,000
French	16,440	5,933,000
Russian	41,380	17,314,000
Berlin	340	3,200,000
<hr/>		
Total	137,370	66,005,000

The industrial region lies in the western zone, while the agricultural is under the heel of Russia.

Capital: Berlin (p. 4,332,242). *Monetary Unit*: Mark.

Language: German *Religion*: Protestant.

Important Towns: Hamburg, Cologne, Munich, Leipzig, Essen, Dresden, Breslau.

Frankfort-on-Main, Dusseldorf, Dortmund, Hanover, Stuttgart.

West Germany

Chancellor: Dr. Konrad Adenauer.

President: Theodore Heuss.

East Germany (Communist).

Chairman and East German Premier: Her Otto Grotewohl (re-elected Oct. 1950).

President: Her Wilhelm Pieck.

Germany occupies a central part in the Continent. Much of the country is a flat plane, forming part of the Great European plane, but in the south the land is mountainous, containing the black Forest and the Taurus Mts. The chief rivers are the Rhine, Elbe, Weser and Oder all of which are navigable and there are many important canals such as Dortmund-Ems, Mittel-land, etc. The fact that the great Rhine River flows into the sea through Holland, and not through Germany, is of considerable disadvantage to the latter.

A large part of Germany is well-farmed, producing wheat, rye, oats, barley, potatoes, and beets. Large areas are left to forests and forestry is conducted on scientific lines. The fisheries, especially in the North Sea, are important. Westphalia, Saar and Saxony contain coal mines, producing some of the finest coal in the world. They form two districts of Prussia which contain the bulk of the minerals raised in Germany. Manufactures are extensive. Textiles are largely manufactured in Westphalia and Saxony. The iron and steel, electrical and

chemical industries are of primary importance. The Ruhr valley is the most important industrial area. *Exports*: coal, silk and rayon, woollen goods, leather, paper, chemical products, glass. *Imports*: wheat, butter, coffee, fruit, raw cotton, wool, mineral oil, iron ore.

According to the terms of Germany's unconditional surrender, the frontiers of Germany reverted to those of Dec. 31, 1937. Thus Alsace and Lorraine were returned to France, and the district of Eupen Malmedy to Belgium. By a further agreement on Aug. 2, 1945, part of Eastern Germany was partitioned between Poland and the U. S. S. R. The Western boundary of Poland includes Swine Munde, running south along the Oder and the Niesse rivers. Poland received the free city of Danzig. Part of East Prussia lying to the north of a line drawn above Braunsberg and Goldap went to the Soviet Union, and the part below the line went to Poland.

GREAT BRITAIN

Area : 90,000 sq. m.

Population ; 48,800,000

Monetary Unit : Pound Sterling.

Religion : Protestant Episcopal. *Language* : English

Capital : London. (p. 8,203,942)

Important Towns : Birmingham, Liverpool, Hull, Bristol, Glasgow, Southampton, Cardiff, Edinburgh, Manchester, Oxford, Cambridge.

Ruler : King George VI (1936—)

Prime Minister ; Rt. Hon. Vincent Churchill (October 1951).

Great Britain is composed of England, Wales, and Scotland, the three together forming an island separated from the mainland of Europe by the English Channel. Great Britain combined with Northern Ireland is named United Kingdom. It has a very much indented coastline and no place within it is more than 100 miles from the sea and 70 miles from navigable water. The tempering influence of the sea thus reaches far inland. In every respect the Britons have responded to the natural advantages of their island home, being virile physically and sea-faring by instinct. The surface of the island is unmarked by any really high mountains and in only few parts does it rise above 2,000 feet. The lowlands contains rich agricultural land as well as coal fields which form the basis of her industries.

Great Britain offers numerous pursuits to its inhabitants in the domain of pastoral industries, arable farming, quarrying and mining, and manufactures. Cattle and sheep are reared

in large numbers, while wheat, potatoes, oats, barley, and sugar beet are cultivated. The hardier varieties of fruits, such as apples, plums, and cherries are found in abundance. Fisheries are important and provide a large proportion of the food of the people. But the vast supplies of coal, the geographical location, and the deficiency in agricultural resources, have combined to favour industrial development. The chief products are ships, machinery, metallic goods, iron, steel, textiles and leather goods.

Imports : Meat, grain and flour dairy produce, oilseeds and nuts, wood and timber.

Exports : Machinery, vehicles, iron and steel manufactures, cotton goods, chemicals, woollen goods.

A most efficient system of communication exists comprising road, rail, and aerial transport, while inland navigation by rivers and canals as also coast service are highly important.

GREECE

Area : 50,147 sq. m.

Population : 7,335,675.

Capital : Athens.

Monetary Unit : Drachma.

King : Paul I, (1947—).

Language : Greek & Turkish. *Religion* : Greek Orthodox.

Premier : Gen. Plastiras.

Occupying the southern part of the Balkan peninsula, Greece consists of three main divisions. The northern portion, from the Adriatic Sea across the Balkans to the Aegean Sea, the latter portion containing the planes of Macedonia and Thessaly, the southern peninsula with a very narrow isthmus at Corinth, and the island of Crete with other small islands. The country is mainly rocky, and the hills are dry and chalky, but some are forest covered. In the planes, wheat, barley, maize and rice are grown. Climate and vegetation are of the Mediterranean type but rainfall is scanty. Greece is famous for its fruits, such as olives, figs, oranges and lemons and particularly for currants. Principal industries are production of wine, olive oil, textiles, chemicals, and articles of food.

Coastline is indented, so there are good ports like *Salonika*, *Piraeus* and *Patras*. *Canea* is the principal town of Crete.

HUNGARY

Area : 35,902 sq. m.

Monetary Unit . Forint.

Population : 9,316,613

Language : Hungarian.

Capital : Budapest (p. 1,058,288 on Dec. 31, 1948).

Religion : Roman Catholic, Greek Catholic and Protestant.

Principal Towns : Szeged, Debrecen, Miskole.

President Sandor Ronai elected 8th May 1950.

Prime Minister : Istvan Dobi elected May 1950.

Hungary has a rich soil and agriculture is the main occupation of the people. Wheat, maize, rye, barley, oats and potatoes are the main products. A large part of Hungary is under forests. There are many coal mines and Hungary has large bauxite deposits. There are large fishery preserves in the Danube and Theiss and in Lake Balaton. The industries are milling, distilling, iron and steel works and sugar-manufacture. There are excellent road and railway systems and numerous airlines.

INDIA

(i) GENERAL : (DOMINION OF INDIA)

Population and Dimensions —

Longitude $66^{\circ} 21'$ to 97° E. Latitude 8° to 37° N

North to south—2,000 miles. East to west 1700 miles

8200 miles land frontier and 3500 miles sea frontier.

Population : 361·82 million (1951 census).

Area : 1,221,000 sq. miles.

Divisions —

Physically it can be divided into three regions, the Himalayas, the Gangetic plain and the Deccan. The Himalayas extend from Kashmir to Assam covering a distance of 1,500 miles with an average width of 200 miles. Mt. Everest 29,12 ft. Godwin Austin 28,250 ft., Kanchinjunga 28,146 ft. a chief peaks. Nanda Devi is the highest Himalayan peak India (25,645 ft.). Other Hills Kidarnath, Gangotri, Badrinath, Dhaulgiri, Gaurishankar etc., and Khasi, and Lushai in the east in Assam.

The great unbroken chain of the Himalayas in the north and their offshoots to the east afford impassable barriers to India. Burma is separated from India by Patkai, Naga and Lushai Hills and by Arakan Yoma, so that overland communication with India is scarcely resorted to though there are four major gaps—the Tuzu Gap, the Manipur Route, the An Pass and Taungup Pass. China is accessible from Burma by minor routes, the most important being the Taping Valley Route. The inaccessible heights of the Himalayas in the north have protected India from foreign invasions from that direction as well kept the fertile plains safe from the cold, bleak winds from

north. Again, Himalayan snows provide an inexhaustible reservoir for the great rivers of the plains which assure perennial water supply for agriculture. The Himalayas also cause the monsoon winds to shower lifegiving rain on the valleys and plains to their south. Only in their western branches are the Himalayas sufficiently broken so as to afford ingress to invading enemy hordes, and all the important invasions in the history of India have come through the passes on this side. The important passes are : Khyber (3,370 ft.), Gomal and Bolan. All the three passes, are now in Pakistan. There are cantonments at Pesha-war for Khyber, at Tonk and Dera Ismail Khan for Gomal and Quetta for Bolan. Quetta is beyond the Bolan Pass.

There exists a difficult road to Tibet from Srinagar, through the Loziza Pass to Leh and thence to Tibet. From Leh central Asia can be reached by the Karakoram Pass. From the Punjab The Shipki Pass, leads to Tibet but these roads are scarcely used. Thence for hundreds of miles the Himalayas are completely impassable till Darjeeling is reached, where there is an important route through Sikkim to Lhasa up the Chumbi Valley.

Other mountains in India are the Aravali Hills in Rajputana and the Vindhya, the Satpuras and the Mahadev Hills in the Central India ; the Western Ghats, on the western side of the Peninsulla ; the Nilgiris and Eastern Ghats in the Deccan.

The Gangetic plain is over 1800 miles in length and 150 to 200 miles in width. The principal tributaries of the Ganges are the Jumna, the Sone, the Gandak and the Brahmaputra. The plains are most fertile and alluvial and are thickly populated.

The upper reaches of the Ravi, Beas, and the Sutlej fall within the Indian Union Province of the East Punjab. The Deccan Plateau, a peninsula, from the Vindhya Mountains to Cape Comorin—is a tableland 1,000 to 3,000 ft. above sea level. Important rivers are Mahanadi, Godavari, Kistna, and Cauvery flowing into the Bay of Bengal and the Narbada and the Tapti flowing into the Arabian Sea.

Position.

Persia and Afghanistan border India on the west, Russian Turkistan and Tibet on the north and China, Indo-China and Siam on the east. With the countries on the west, India has been carrying on trade from ancient times through the Khyber, Gomal and Bolan passes, with Tibet through Laddak and with Turkistan through Gilgit. In modern times Suez Canal affords favourable opportunities for trade with the European countries, and Singapore is important to India for her trade with the Far East. India is also suitably situated for trade with Africa.

Climate.

India is a continent rather than a country so that we meet with great variations of climate as we move from one zone to the other. But generally speaking in the winter months the climate is cool, the temperature varying from 80° at Colombo (which is quite pleasant) to 35° at Amritsar (which is quite cold). Still farther north and on the highlands, the winter is more severe. In summer the land becomes very hot, but some ports near the sea, such as Bombay and Calcutta, are kept cool by the cool and moist sea breeze and the Monsoon. Madras, however, remains hot, for the wind here blows from land. Places far removed from the sea exhibit a wide daily range of temperature ; for instance, Delhi may show 110° in the day and 75° at night, thus giving a daily range of 35° . Places near the sea have very little variation.

Rainfall is determined by Monsoons. South-west Monsoons give 90 per cent of the total rainfall of India and last from June to October. The east coast of the Deccan gets most of its rain in the autumn from the retreating Monsoon and in winter from the North-east Monsoon which gets moist while passing over the Bay of Bengal.

Coast Line.

Compared with the size, India has a very short coast line, therefore places situated in the centre of the country are far removed from the sea and have extremes of climate. It lacks in indentations and has only four openings of importance into land : Rann of Cutch, the Gulf of Cambay, the Gulf of Mannar between India and Ceylon, and the head of the Bay of Bengal.

A result of non-indented coast line and the remoteness of the interior from the coast is that Indians, as a rule, are not a sea-faring people. Secondly, there is paucity of good, natural harbours. The west coast is rocky with mountains close to the sea. There are three good natural harbours at Bombay, Goa and Cochin ; the last being sand-blocked has now been cleared and improved. The east coast is less rocky but the sea here is shallow so that large ships cannot approach the coast. The only good harbour on this coast is artificial, Madras. Farther north, the only natural harbour along this coast at Vizagapatam, has been developed into a good modern harbour. It is situated at the head of a natural inlet of the sea and an artificial break water has been constructed in front of the entrance to give protection from storms. The mouth of Hooghly is another good harbour but impeded by sand bars, and here the port of Calcutta is situated.

The coast of Burma exhibits a strong contrast with the main coast line of India. It is considerably indented and has a large

number of small islands very near the coast. There are good natural harbours but as the land behind them is mountainous and undeveloped, few important ports have sprung up in this area. The most important port, Rangoon, is situated in a river delta. Besides this, there are the ports of Akyab, Moulmein and Tavoy.

Mountain Passes.

Bolan, Khyber, Gomal and Tochi across the north-west; Zojila Pass and Karakoram Pass leading to Tibet from Srinagar; Shipki Pass from the Punjab to Tibet.

The Tuzu Gap, the An and Taungup Passes in the eastern frontier of India; Bhor Ghat, Thal Ghat and Palghat in the Western Ghat.

(ii) (a) GEOLOGICAL STRUCTURE.

The oldest mountains of India are the Plateau and mountains of South India. These consist of crystalline igneous rocks which are covered by lava flows in the west. The great Himalaya Mountains were formed at a much later period by a thrust from the North, which being resisted by the Plateau caused huge folds (the Himalayas) with a great plain in between. The great plain consists of rich alluvium hundreds of feet thick, which is mixed in the Punjab plain with small, stony pieces of kankar or gravel.

(b) MINERALS

Coal-bearing sedimentary rocks occupy sunken tracts and river basins in the north-eastern parts of the plateau.

In the north-east occur the coal-fields of Raniganj and Jherria in the Damodar valley. Coal is also found in the Chindwara region and also in the Godawari valley in the Central Provinces. Coal is also found in the Korea State in the Central Provinces. In Orissa it is found in the Mahanadi valley in Talcher and in the Godavari valley in Hyderabad. In the crystalline rocks of South India we find gold at Kolar, Managanese in M. P., Mysore and near Vizagapatam, copper and iron in Bihar and Orissa. Mica in Madras and Hazaribagh district of Bihar, graphite and gem stones in Ceylon, one of the richest deposits in the world of silver-lead ore at Bawdwin in Burma, tin and wolfram near Tavoy and Mergui and rubies and other precious stones near Magok (Burma).

(iii) RAINFALL

To a predominantly agricultural country like India, rainfall is all-important. A season of draught spells lack of food for

ast tracts. As regards rainfall, we can divide India roughly into our parts.

1. Good rainfall tract comprising land with over 80" of annual rainfall. In this area are included Assam, Eastern Bengal, the Arakan coast, the Western ghats, and a small area near Madras. Hills in this region are covered with evergreen trees and plains are the most important rice-producing tracts in the country.

2. Moderate rainfall region, where rainfall averages between 40" to 80" a year, comprises Bihar, Orissa, Central Provinces, the Ganges-Jamuna Doab, a portion of Northern Sircars and South East Punjab. Hills in this region produce valuable timber, like teak and sal, while the plains grow important food crops and cotton.

3. Poor rainfall region, with rainfall between 20" and 40" comprises most of the Deccan Peninsula, Gujarat, Kathiawar, Central Punjab, South Kashmir and South-east half of Rajputana. Here irrigation is essential for cultivation. Rice, millets and wheat are grown in this region in the plains while hills are covered with scrub.

4. Desert and semi-desert region where rainfall is less than 20" a year consists of Baluchistan, Sind, Rajputana, West Punjab, Kashmir and N. W. F. P. Where facilities for irrigation exist, all crops can be grown as in the canal colonies in the West Punjab and in Sind. The hills are barren. Mention must be made of a region consisting of the extreme South-west of the Punjab and north of Sind, i.e., about fifty miles from either bank the Indus from Mithankot to Khairpur, where rainfall is very scanty, less than 5" a year. A similar region from Koppa in Hyderabad State to Chitaldrug in Mysore lies in South India. The reason for scanty rainfall is that the monsoons are exhausted before they reach these areas.

INDIA'S FORESTS

Forests are a great national asset of the Indian Union. The total area under forests in the Indian Union is 116,666 square miles which comes to about 15% of the total area of the country.

Areas under Forest in different states in square miles is the following :— Assam : 21393 ; Ajmer : 140 ; Bihar : 2292 ; Bombay : 13000 ; Coorg : 840 ; M. P. 19,413 ; Madras : 14,445 ; U. P. : 9950 ; Orissa : 6470 ; Punjab : 4760 ; West Bengal : 2649 ; Hyderabad : 9547 ; Rajasthan : 3738 ; Travancore Cochin : 3066 ; Andaman and Nicobar : 2189.

The Indian Union being a subcontinent, has a variety of climate, topography and nature of the soil. Accordingly there are many varieties of forests. The main types are as under :—

The natural vegetation of India may be divided into :—

Evergreen Forests existing in the hills in the good rainfall regions. These are of large hardwood trees useless for timber. Such forests exist on the Western Ghats, the Arakan coasts, the eastern Himalayas up to 5,000 feet, and Assam.

Monsoon Forests are found in the poor rainfall region. Wood of those forest is useful for timber. Teak flourishes in Burma and South India, while Sal grows in the lower Himalayas and north-east part of the Deccan Plateau.

Scrub forests are found in the poor rainfall region. Trees are thorny or mere shrubs ; such forests are met with in all drier parts of India.

Mountain forests are found on the South Indian hills above 5,000 feet and on the Himalayas above 3,000 feet. The climate at these altitudes is cooler, so that Temperate evergreen forests trees like oak, pine, deodar which are valuable timber trees, are found.

Alpine vegetation in the form of shrubs, bushes and small grass exist on the greater heights as it is too cold there for trees to grow. Above 18,000 feet, however, the Himalayas are ever-snow covered and nothing grows there.

Mangrove forests are found along the sea coast where land is flat and muddy. Such forests are found in the swampy parts of the Sunderbans (Ganges delta) and on the east and west coasts of Deccan.

Dry forests. These are found in East Punjab and Bikaner. They contain *Kikar*, *Jand*, *Karir*, *van* and *shisham*. Besides these plain forests there are hill forests also in the East Punjab. They consist of *deodar*, *partal*, *tun*, *sambal* and bamboo. They supply timber to whole of the state and the Punjab states. The trees are cut and floated down the rivers. The famous markets of timber in the East Punjab are Jagadhri, Doraha on the Sutlej and Pathankot on Ravi.

The forests have a great utility. The advantages derived by the country are direct as well as indirect. They are the source of timber required for the construction of houses, boats, ships, railways, carriages and furniture. They also supply fuel wood which is so very badly needed by India. India cannot produce enough of coal and therefore there is a chronic shortage of fuel wood. This shortage is made good by using cowdung

as fuel which destroys a good source of manure. The forests also provide raw materials for several industries like sports, matches, paper, lac, resin turpentine and tanning. They give employment to many people who are engaged in woodcutting, sawing and other industries. Besides they provide grazing and hunting grounds and some very useful medicinal herbs. They also serve as means of defence and source of revenues to the government.

Their indirect utility is by no means less important. The forests make the climate of the country healthier and help in bringing more rains. By sucking the excess of rain or river water, they help in preventing floods. Forest leaves can be used as manure and thus the fertility of the soil can be increased. They decrease the velocity of winds and protect the country from cold and dry winds.

Due to these advantages the forests have become an essential part of the Indian economy. They should therefore carefully be preserved. In the last century the government remained indifferent towards the utility of the forests and allowed a ceaseless and reckless destruction of them. This increased the floods resulting in soil erosion and sterilisation of the soil. The floods also damage roads, railway lines and buildings. In the East Punjab, for example, the unsucked water turned into *chos* which have rendered thousands of acres of fertile land in Hoshiarpur district barren. These *chos* bring tons of sand and stones and spread these over the fertile land making it unsuitable for cultivation. The government realised the importance of preserving forests although late. They changed their old policy of indifference. In 1864 the Forest department was set up which was later on broken up into Central and Provincial departments. The function is the preservation of forests. The forests are classified as reserved, protected and unclassed. The reserved forests are under the strict control of the government and are government property. The protected forests are the government property but they are used by individuals whose rights are recognised by the government. All other forests are designated as unclassed forests. The area under these different classes is shown by the following table.

Class	Area
Reserved forests	... 83,397 sq. miles
protected	... 142225 „ „
Unclassed „	... 19044 „ „

The Forest Research Institute has been set up at Dehra Dun which carries on research for the development of forest resources. Despite all this we are still dependent on foreign

countries for certain forest products as timber and paper. This means that the forests resources have not been properly exploited. For this more investment is needed. The government must forego immediate gain and adopt a more positive policy of exploiting this source of national wealth.

The chief Forest Products and their location is given below :

Major Forest Products

Timber and fuel woods : Sal, Teak, Deodar, Pine Fir, Sisso, Toon, Jarool, Rose wood, Oak, Bamboo, Sundri.

Sal. Sub Himalayas, North eastern part of the Peninsula.

Teak. South India, Western part of S. India in Travancore, Annamalai hills, North Canare, etc. and in the Chanda district of the Madhya Pradesh.

Deodar. Western Himalayas. *Pino & Fir* at higher levels of the Himalayas.

Sissoo. N. E. Peninsula.

Toon. „

Jarool. Assam, Bengal, Chota Nagpur.

Rosewood. Peninsula and Nepal.

Oak. Eastern Himalayas and Assam plateau.

Bamboo. All the Ever green and Monsoon forests.

Sundri. Deltic forest of Bengal and Orissa.

Sandal wood. Mysore and the adjoining parts of S. India.

Minor Forest Products

Essential oils, dyeing and tanning substances, gums and resins, lac, bees wax, honey, etc.

Lac. It is an important forest product. It is secreted by a tiny insect on the branches and twigs of certain trees such as Palas, Kusum, Bair, etc. in Chota Nagpur, M. P., Assam, Bengal, Sind and Gujarat. Lac is used in the manufacture of gramophone records, plastics, paints, and varnishes, etc.

Silk is also considered with forest products, since the silk worm thrives on the leaves of the mulberry trees in Bengal, Madras, Mysore and Kashmir. The Tasar silk worm is reared in Bihar and Orissa, the M. P. and the U. P. Endi silk is produced in Assam from worms which feed on the leaves of the castor oil plant.

Rubber was originally a forest product, but is now a plantation product, only 4% of the world production of rubber is from Indian forests. In India, rubber is produced in the

heavy rainfall regions of Travancore, Cochin, Coorg, Mysore, and the adjoining parts of Madras.

Palms. Coast-lines of India.

After Assam the M. P. and Berar have the largest area under forests in India and over 6 per cent of the area (98,258 sq. m.) in India was under the control of the Forest Department. Chief Forest areas are (1) the Himalayas, (2) Sundarbans of the Ganges Delta, (3) Rainy parts of the Western Ghats, (4) Terai Forests, (5) Assam.

Resin. Produced from the pines of the Himalayas and Assam hills is used for making turpentine oil, and as refined resin. Turpentine is used for paints and varnishes and for medicinal purpose, while resin is used for shellac adulteration, for the manufacture of paper and soap etc.

MINERAL RESOURCES

The Indian Union is neither very rich nor very poor in her mineral wealth. She does not possess unlimited resources as is supposed by some people. They go on drumming that India is very rich in all minerals, which is an overestimate. We should make a right estimate and find out where we are deficient. Indian mining industry is still in its infant stage. The following are the important minerals possessed by the Indian Union.

1. *Iron Ores* :—‘Next to U. S. A. and France, India has the world’s largest reserves of iron ore.’ The richest deposits occur in Bihar and Orissa. Central India, Madras, Mysore and Bombay also possess ores of good quality but they have not been so far worked as there is no coal and limestone in the neighbourhood. It has been estimated that India possesses 3000 million tons of iron. At present iron & steel are manufactured chiefly by Tata Iron & Steel Co. Ltd. Jamshedpur. The Bengal Iron Co. Ltd. Kutli and the Indian Iron & Steel Co. Ltd. Asansol. The total annual production of iron ore is about 3 million tons. We are fortunate in having iron & coal deposits near each other in Bihar & Bengal. This reduces the cost of production.

2. *Coal* :—It is the basic mineral on which the whole industrialisation depends but our position with respect to coal is not satisfactory. India requires coal for fuel, for industrialisation and for running railways. The quantity of coal in India is limited and the quality is poor. At the present rate of consumption this amount would not last for more than 200 years. We possess very little of petroleum and if we begin manufacturing synthetic petrol from coal it would not last even for that period. Therefore we must be very economical in its use. The distribution is uneven. Coal deposits are chiefly found in

Bengal, Bihar & Orissa, the important mines being in Jharia and Raniganj. Other important deposits are found in Central India, Assam & Hyderabad. Rajputana & Bikaner have very little. Madras & East Punjab have absolutely no coal. The total resources of coal in India are estimated at 60,000 million tons and the annual extraction is about 30 million tons.

3. *Petroleum* :—The Indian Union produces very little of petroleum. Due to separation of Burma and partition of the country we have lost important fields in Burma and Pakistan. We are left with only the Assam fields. In 1944 total production was 97.5 million gallons out of which Assam fields produced 82.3 million gallons and Pakistan produced 15.2 million gallons. This amount satisfies only 5% of our needs. We have, therefore, to depend upon imports of petroleum. The important centres producing petroleum in Assam are Digboi, Bappapung & Hansapung. The Indian Union will have to depend upon synthetic petrol manufactured from coal.

4. *Manganese* :—It occurs in M. P., Bombay, Mysore, Madras, Bihar, and Orissa. No deposits are found in Pakistan. It is required in several industries but chiefly in the steel industry. Next to Russia, India is the largest producer but most of it is exported because the industries in which it can be used are not fully developed. It has to be sold at a very low price. Attempts should, therefore, be made to utilise it locally.

5. *Copper* :—It occurs in Chota Nagpur, Singhbhum, Rajasthan, Kulu and Garhwal. Production from them is very small as the deposits are not profitably exploited.

6. *Salt* :—The Kheura mines have fallen to the share of Pakistan. We have to depend upon salt manufactured from sea and lakes. It is obtained from sea water in Bombay and Madras Presidency and from the Sambhar lake in Rajasthan. Salt is used in chemical industries and is demanded for human and cattle consumption. The Indian Union is not self sufficient in the production of salt.

7. *Mica* :—The Indian Union is very rich in the mica deposits which occur in Bihar, Ajmer and Rajasthan and Madras. She has practically the monopoly of mica deposits producing three-fourth of the world production is about 129000 cwts. Most of it is exported because of the absence of Electrical industries in India.

8. *Gold* :—Gold is produced from Kolar fields in Mysore, Anantpur fields in Madras and Huttı mines in Hyderabad. It is also obtained by washing the river sands. The total annual production is nearly 132000 oz. only.

9. *Silver* :—It is manufactured in Kolar mines, in small amount. A large amount of silver is imported every year.

10. *Lead* :—The lead deposits occur in Bihar, Madras, Rajasthan and the Himalayas but output is insignificant.

10. *Chromite* :—It is used in the manufacture of aeroplanes and motorcars. Since these industries have not developed in India most of it is exported. India is very rich in this mineral. Its deposits are found in Bombay, Madras and Mysore.

Besides the above minerals India has deposits of saltpetre, bauxite, building stones and cement making materials.

From the above survey it is clear that the Indian Union possesses most of the minerals that are urgently needed for developing industries e. g., iron, coal, mica, chromites, manganese etc. We can not call her self-sufficient because she is deficient in petroleum, tin, lead, zinc and nickel. The partition of the country has not affected much the mineral position. Pakistan has shared petroleum and chromite and has taken away all the salt deposits but she has none of the important minerals like iron, coal and manganese. Another grave defect is that most of the minerals are exploited for export only because the home industries are non-existent. This would deplete the country's resources without drawing any benefit of industrialization. The average annual value of the minerals exported is about Rs. 40 crores.

The whole picture of the mineral Products of India and their location is given below in a nutshell.

1. Coal, 2. Iron ore, 3. Manganese ore, 4. Gold, 5. Silver, 6. Petroleum, 7. Salt, 8. Mica, 9. Magnesite, 10. Copper, 11. Salt petre, 12. Chromite, 13. Diamonds, 14. Barytes, 15. Corundum, 16. Graphite, 17. Gypsum.

Coal. Raniganj in Bengal, Jherria, Giridih in Bihar. Pench Valley, Chanda and Mohpani in the Madhya Pradesh. Kotah State, Umaria in the Rewa State, Singarani in Hyderabad, Talcher in Orissa, 98% of the Indian coal is raised from the Gondwana coal fields and 2% from Assam and Rajasthan.

Gold. In the gold-fields of Kolar in Mysore.

Iron. Salem in Madras, Chanda and Ding districts in the Madhya Pradesh, Mysore State, Mayurbhanj State, Singhbhum district in Bihar.

Lime. Sutna in Rewa; Katni in M. P. and Sylhet.

Manganese. Vizagapatam in Madras, Mysore, Bhalaghat, Bhandara, Nagpur in M. P., and in Bombay Presidency.

Mica. Kodarma in Hazaribagh District, Nellore in Madras.

Petroleum. Lakhimpur in Assam.

Salt. Sambhar Lake in Rajasthan, Kathiawar coast, Madras.

Petroleum. Lakhimpur in Assam.

Saltpetre. U. P. and Bihar.

Silver. A little in the Kolar gold-field.

Chromite. Mysore, Singhbhum in Bihar.

Note. In 1940 there were, altogether, 1,877 mines registered under the Mines Act employing 413,458 persons on the average.

Hydro Electric Resources:—The position with regard to cheap motive power is not satisfactory in the Indian Union. The main sources of power are wood, coal petroleum, alcohol and water. We can not depend upon wood because fuel wood in the forest is not enough. Moreover the forests are inaccessible and the fuel wood is inconvenient for use in quantities. We can not depend entirely upon coal because its quantity is limited, quality is poor and the distribution is uneven. Some people think that India can manufacture enough of alcohol which can replace all other resources but this is only a conjecture. As regards petrol we have already seen that India is very heavily deficient in it. Naturally, therefore, we are left with only one source and that is the water. India possesses enough of waterfalls from which cheap hydro-electric power can be generated. The potential resources of water power in India are estimated at 27 million horse power. If the country is to be industrialised we must develop hydro-electric power.

We have dealt with this subject in details under the heading “India’s Multi purpose Projects”.

AGRICULTURE

The Indian Union possesses vast plains of rich and fertile soil quite fit for the production of all kinds of agricultural crops. It has plenty of rains and a number of rivers that serve as sources of irrigation. Despite all this we find that Indian agriculture is in a most back-ward state. India is unable to feed her population. The major cause of this is that the average landholding possessed or cultivated by a farmer is very small. Its cultivation has become very uneconomical.

The land factor is thus responsible to a great extent for the chronic shortage of food in the Indian Union. The size of the holding has been reduced to such an extent that Indian agriculture cannot be run on business lines. The extent of this evil can be judged from the following figures. These figures relate to the undivided Punjab. In the East Punjab the conditions are worse because large holdings were mostly found in the West Punjab.

No.	Unit of holding	Percentage of owners	Percentage of total area.
1.	Less than 1 acre	17.9	1.1
2.	, 1 to 5 acres	40.4	11.0
3.	5 to 15 ,,	2.62	26.6
4.	15 to 50 ,,	1.18	35.6
5.	More than 50 ,,	3.7	25.7

The unit of average holding of cultivation in other states is as follows :—

States	Average holding
Madras	4.9 acres
Bengal	3.1 ,,
Assam	3.0 ,,
U. P.	2.5 ,,

The conditions of fragmentation are more serious. Sometimes one individual owner has his holding scattered at as many as 25 different places.

The comparative evil is revealed by the following table ;

Name of the country	Size of average holding
U. S. A.	140.00 acres
Scotland	56.31 ,,
England	26.95 ,,
Germany	19.25 ,,
France	15.50 ,,
Belgium	5.70 ,,
Japan	2.50 ,,
Egypt	2.50 ,,

Other causes of agricultural backwardness in the country are :—

(1) Poor equipment of the agriculturists ; (2) Illiteracy ; (3) Poor physique both of the agriculturists and cattle ; (4) Lack of capital ; (5) Lack of good manure ; (6) Lack of good seed ; (7) Pests ; (8) wasting away of the soil and damaging of crop by floods. There is sometimes excessive and sometimes n rainfall.

DISTRIBUTION OF CROPS—INDIA AND THE WORLD

Rice. It grows in the regions where rainfall is plenty and abundance of canal water. The deltas of rivers and the alluvial tracts are very suitable for its cultivation. In Bengal, Assam, Orissa, Bombay and Madras it is the chief food of the people.

It grows all over the country but the chief growing states are Bengal, Madras, Bihar, U. P., Orissa, M. P., Assam and Bombay, and in the East Punjab Area under rice in the Indian Union was 58 million acres and the total production was 18 million tons.

With regard to the production in the whole of the world, India occupies a very important position. The main rice producing countries of the world are China, India, Japan, Burma, Indo-China, Siam, East Indies and Ceylon. So it is the principal food grain crop in Asia. China leads the world in the production of rice while India stands second in the list. India produces 36% of the total world output which is 900 million. Whole of the produce is consumed within the country. The country is not self-sufficient. In order to meet the deficit she has to import from Burma, China, Thailand etc.

Wheat :—It is the most important crop of the world and is grown in almost all the countries. Ninety percent of it is grown in the Northern hemisphere. In the Indian Union it is grown in October and November and is harvested in April and May. It is next to rice in importance because it is the staple food of the people in the Punjab and U.P.

It is chiefly grown in East Punjab, U. P., Bombay and M. P. Total area under wheat in the Indian Union was 24.4 million acres producing 6 million tons of wheat. About 10% of the sown area is generally under wheat. The yield per acre is low and the country cannot feed her citizens. The Indian Union has to import wheat to meet the deficit. During only the two months of November and December 1950, she got 1,89600 tons from Australia, 147,200 from Argentine, and 214,100 tons of millets from U.S A.

It is the most important crop over whole of the world. The important wheat producing regions are Southern Russia, U. S. A., Canada, North China, Australia, New Zealand, France, Italy, Spain, Germany, Hungary and Argentine. The United India stood third in the production, U. S. A. occupying the first position.

Millets :—The chief varieties of millets are *Jawar* and *Bajra*.

They are grown all over the country but more commonly in U. P., M. P., Madras, Hyderabad and Bombay. Area under millets in the Indian Union is about 66 million acres. Three fourth of the total production is consumed locally and the rest is exported.

Maize :—It is a food crop. The main producing areas are Bihar, U. P. and the Punjab. In the Indian Union in 1946,

8 million acres were under maize and the yield was 2 million tons. Almost whole of it is used for internal consumption.

The main maize producing countries are U.S. A., Argentine, China, Brazil, Rumania, Yugoslavia, Russia and Italy. U. S. A. alone produces 60% of the world's out put. Argentine and Rumania occupy the second and third position. India stands nowhere.

Sugar cane :—The chief cane producing States are U.P., Bihar and the Punjab. In the Indian Union the area under cane cultivation is about 31 million acres. Sugar industry has received a great stimulus due to the protection granted to it by the Government. So the crop is important from commercial point of view.

India is the biggest cane producing country, the other important being Java, Brazil, U. S. A. and Philippines. Sugar is being produced from cane as well as from beet root the latter contributing about one third of the total produce in Europe, Russia, France, Czechoslovakia, Poland. Italy and Spain are manufacturing sugar from the beet root. The total production of sugar from the cane in whole of the world is about 172 million quintals.

Pulses :—The chief pulses grown in the Indian Union are grams, mash, masur, mung and arhar.

The Chief producing centres in the country are the Punjab, U. P., M. P., Bengal and Bombay. In 1948-15 million acres were under grams in the Indian Union. The total yield was 31 million tons. Almost whole of the produce is consumed internally.

Barley :—In the Indian Union area under barley is about 6·2 million acres producing about 2 million tons. The main barley growing provinces are U. P., Bihar and East Punjab. U. P. alone produces two third of the whole produce. Exports are negligible. The chief barley producing countries are Russia, U. S. A., Austria, Germany, Hungary and China.

Tea :—It is extensively grown on the slopes because it requires plenty of rainfall and the water should not collect near its roots. Warm and temperate climate suits its growth. It is the most important plantation and commercial crop of India. It is mainly raised for sale but the home consumption is also rapidly growing.

Assam and Bengal are the chief tea producing areas in India, the other being U. P., Punjab, Madras and Travancore. The total area under tea is 745000 acres and the yield was 502901000 pounds. Three fourth of the output is exported.

In the world India occupies the second position, China being the biggest producer. The other tea producing countries are Ceylon, East Indies, Japan and Java. The total world production is about 5 million quintals.

Coffee :—There is no local consumption. It is therefore grown only for export. The chief customers are U. K., France, Belgium, Holland and Germany. The export is declining because of the competition offered by cheap Brazilian coffee. It is mostly grown in Mysore, Madras, Coorg, Cochin and Travancore. Area under coffee in the Indian Union is about 212000 acres producing 25 million pounds. The other chief coffee producing countries are Brazil, Colombia, Mexico, East Africa and East Indies. The total world production is about 20 million quintals. Brazil leads the world.

Tobacco :—Indian tobacco is coarse and dark, having a strong flavour. It is not, therefore, suitable for making cigarettes. It is mostly used for making *Biris* and smoking *Hukkas*. Almost whole of the produce is consumed in the country and very little is exported.

Tobacco is cultivated over whole of the country but Madras, Bengal, Orissa, Bombay, U. P. and the Punjab are the chief producers. Total area under tobacco in the Indian Union is 10.2 lakh acres producing 33 lakh tons. India is the third biggest tobacco producing country in the world.

Oil Seeds .—The important oil seeds grown in the Indian Union are rape and mustard, linseed, sesamum, groundnut, castor and coconut. Most of the quantity produced is exported to Europe. Whatever little is kept is used for the manufacture of oil, vegetable ghee and oil cakes. Some of them are used for making medicines, perfumes, varnishes and lubricants.

In the Indian Union the chief producing regions are shown by the following table :—

<i>Oil seeds</i>	<i>States</i>
Rape and Mustard	U. P., Punjab, Bihar, Bengal and Assam.
Groundnut	Madras, Bombay, M. P., Hyderabad and Assam.
Linseed	M. P., U. P., Bihar, Bengal, Bombay and Hyderabad.
Castor seed	Madras, Hyderabad, Bombay and M.P.
Sesamum	Madras, M.P., Bombay, U.P., Punjab, Bihar, Orissa, Hyderabad.

The Indian Union is the largest producer of oil seeds.

Cotton :—Bombay, the M. P., Bihar, Hyderabad, Central Indian states are the chief producers of cotton. The partition

has made the Indian Union importer of cotton. Area under cotton in the Indian Union is about 11.5 million acres. In the world U. S. A. is the biggest producer. The other important cotton producing countries are Egypt, Russia and China. Undivided India occupied second position.

To be free from dependence on imported cotton, India is making frantic efforts to increase the production of this essential commodity. Thus in the parliamentary debate on 16th Nov. 1950, Mr. K. M. Munshi, the food minister disclosed that the country would become self sufficient in East Indian varieties of cotton by 1951-52 as she would produce all the 40 lakh bales the country required.

Cotton production in 1950-51 is expected to be about 25 percent more than that of last year, according to the trade estimates made in Nov. 1950. According to Mr. K. M. Munshi's statement in Parliament, there was in 1950-51 an additional area of 14.75 lakh acres under cotton, of which 5.4 lakh acres were under improved varieties, and 3.4 lakh acres under long staple.

The preliminary estimates received from the cotton textile industry place the production for 1950-51 at 35.81 lakh bales, as compared with 28.85 lakh bales of the previous year, showing an increase of 6.96 lakh bales about 25 percent more. In terms of foreign exchange, the expected increase in the yield will mean a saving of nearly Rs. 35 crores.

Increase in production is reported to have occurred in most of the important cotton varieties produced in the country, including Khandesh, Comtah and Bijapur varieties in Bombay, desi varieties in the Punjab and P. E. P. S. U. and Uganda variety in Madras. Medium staple varieties of cotton are expected to record an increase of 4.7 lakh bales in yield, while in the long staple variety, the increase may amount to 1.2 lakh bales. A little over one lakh bales more are expected to be produced in respect of unspinable varieties.

Almost all the cotton growing areas in India have reported increase in production. Madhya Pradesh, Bombay, Madras, Hyderabad, Punjab and P. E. P. S. U. having contributed a large share.

Jute :—The cultivation of jute exhausts the soil more rapidly than any other crop. To grow it successfully every year the upper layers of the soil must be enriched. The Ganges-Brahmaputra delta is, therefore, most suitable for its cultivation. It is used for making cordage and bags. Undivided India had the monopoly of the production of jute but the partition has placed Pakistan in a more favourable position. East Bengal produces 73% of the quantity produced by undivided Bengal. All the factories are situated in West Bengal. Therefore the jute

industry of the Indian Union has to depend upon imports of raw jute from Pakistan.

Great efforts are being made to increase the production of jute in India. According to figures given in Parliament on Nov. 16, 1950, whereas the acreage under jute in 1949 was 1.16 million acres it was 1.47 million acres in 1950, and the jute production had increased by 2.34 lakh bales. The country would produce 61 percent of its jute by end of 1951.

The chief jute producing states are Bengal, Assam, Bihar and Orissa. Undivided Bengal alone produced 90% of the total output. Most of the raw as well as manufactured jute is exported. The chief customers are U. K., Germany, France, Spain, Japan, China, U. S. A., Italy, Belgium and Australia.

Rubber :—The chief rubber producing areas in India are Madras, Coorg, Mysore, Cochin and Travancore. The total area under rubber is about 141000 acres and the total yield was 35.94 million pounds. Most of the rubber produced is exported to U. K., Ceylon, Holland and Germany. The Indian Union produces only 2% of the total world output.

Relative Importance of different crops :—The following table will bring out the relative importance of various crops grown in India. The figures are the latest available.

CHIEF CROPS IN THE INDIAN UNION

Name of crop.	Area sown.	Yield (Tons.)
1. Rice (1946-47)	58110000	18400000
2. Wheat (1947-48)	20200000	5000000
3. Sugar cane (1945-46)	3,204000	4548000
4. Tea (1947-48)	725000	595000000 lbs.
5. Cotton (1947-48)	10900000	2100000 (bales of 400 lbs. each)
6. Jute (1945-46)	580000	1658000 tons
7. Linseed (1943-44)	3,553,000	381,000
8. Rape and Mustard	5,364,000	921,000
9. Sesam Seed	4,449,000	447,000
10. Castor seed	1,543,000	140,000
11. Ground-nut	9,808,000	3,823,000
12. Coffee (1946-47)	193,000	37,167,000 lbs.
13. Rubber	159,000	165,000 lbs.
14. Bajra (1947-48)	28,000,000	3,000,000 tons.

Barley. The Punjab, Utter Pradesh and Central Kashmir (Average production nearly 2 million tons).

Cinchona. Nilgiris, Mysore, Travancore and Darjeeling.

Coconut and Copra. Chiefly grown in Cochin, Madras, Mysore and Travancore, also to some extent in West Bengal, Assam, Bombay and Orissa.

Coffee. Travancore, Mysore, Cochin, Nilgiris and Coorg (Annual yield is about 3½ million pounds).

Cotton. Gujarat-Kathiawar Peninsula, plains of Bombay, the Central Provinces, U. P., Berar, Hyderabad Deccan, Madras, East Punjab, Baroda and Rajputana.

Indigo. Bihar (Patna), Madras, Uttar Pradesh, and the Punjab. (Crop is not important now owing to cheaper chemical dyes).

Jute. West Bengal, Assam, Orissa, Bihar, Cooch-Behar.

Maize. (Phulla Makai) U. P., Bihar and East Punjab.

Millets. (Jawar, Bajra, Ragi, Cholum) Rajputana, M.P., Bombay, the Punjab and Deccan.

Opium. Ghazipur and Banaras districts of the Uttar Pradesh, the East Punjab and Madras.

Oilseeds. (Linseed, rape, cotton-seed, castor seed, and ground-nuts). All over India, chiefly in West Bengal, Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, and the E. Punjab, M. P., Berar and Madras.

Pulses. All over the country.

Rice. The plains of West Bengal, Madras, the Uttar Pradesh, and the Deccan rivers. Also in Bihar, the Surma, and Brahmaputra valleys.

Sugarcane. East Punjab, the Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, West Bengal, Madras, Bombay and some Indian states.

Spices. Mostly in Malabar and Travancore.

Tea. Darjeeling, Assam, the Kangra district, Dehra Dun in the United Provinces, and the Nilgiris, as also in Ceylon.

Tobacco. Bengal, Bihar, Bombay, Madras, the Punjab, Orissa, Travancore, Malwa Plateau, and the Gulf of Cambay. Dindigul Cigars are known everywhere.

Vegetables. All over India.

Wheat. The Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Bombay, Gwalior, East Punjab and parts of Central States.

INDO-CHINA (VIET-NAM)

Area : 286,000 sq. m. *Population :* 25,853,500.

Capital : Hanoi. *Chief Towns :* Prom, Penh, Haiphong.

Languages : Annamese, Cambodian, French.

Religion : Buddhism.

Chief of State : Bao Dai.

Prime Minister : Tran Van Huu.

The State of Viet-Nam, consists of Annam, Tonking and Cochin-China.

The country at the South-East corner of Asia, came under the influence of France during the last half of the 19th century. When France fell in 1940, the Vichy Government allowed the Japanese to use it as a springboard against Singapore. And when the Japanese surrendered, the British and Chinese troops occupied Indo-China in the face of a fierce opposition from the Nationalists and restored order for the French, who assumed control of it officially in March, 1946.

Indo-China consists of three parts : Cambodia, Annam and Tonking. Cambodia is mostly a rich alluvial plain watered by a perennial river the Mekong. This is one of the richest rice growing plains of the world and over half of the produce is exported through Saigon, the important port of this area. Toulesap, a big lake in the heart of Cambodia, is a rich fishing field. Annam is a mountainous region producing cinnamon, sugar and tea. The Tonking region is a plain near the delta of the Red River and is a rich rice-growing district here, while in the high-lands there are rich mines of coal, tin, zinc and limestone. Portland cement is an important manufacture.

INDONESIA

Area : 735,268 sq. m.

Population : 60,730,000

Religion : Majority is Muslim, Mononuto, but there are also important minorities of Buddhists, Christians and Brahmins (living in Bali).

Form of Government : Republic.

President : Dr. Soekarno.

Premier : Soekiman Wirjo Sandjojo.

Indonesia comprises five chief islands :—Java, Sumatra, Borneo, Celebes and New Guinea (whose future is not yet settled) and a number of 15 minor islands like Timor Archipelago and Bali and Lombok. *Produce* : rubber, sugar, rice, tea, coffee, spices, corn, tobacco, fibres *Exports* : sugar, coffee, rubber, coconuts, tobacco, tapioca and cinchona. Java has some coal, tin, and important oil-fields.

IRAN (PERSIA)

Area : 628,000 sq. m.

Capital : Tehran.

Population : 15 millions

Religion : Majority Shia Muslim

Ruler : King Muhammad Riza Pahlvi ascended the throne in Sept. 1941.

Premier : Dr. Mossadeq.

Chief Towns : Tabriz, Isfahan, Shiraz, Resht, Yezd, Hamdam, Meshhed, Kermanshah.

Iran is a large country but it is sparsely populated having only 14 persons to the square mile. The northern lowland strip has a good soil and ample rain, producing rice, cotton, tobacco, and sugar. Most of the country is occupied by central plateau, having extremes of climate, with some little rain in winter. Population in this area is concentrated in the oases where grain, tobacco, cotton and opium are grown. On the highland slopes, sheep, goat, and horses are raised. The region near the Gulf Coast is dry and dusty with scanty vegetation, but recently important oil-fields have been discovered here. Production of oil in 1946 totalled 19,200,000 tons. Persia's chief products are wool, cotton, skins, castings, opium, fruits, gum, carpets, textiles, leather and oil. The last item totalled 17,928,000 tons in 1946-47. The chief exports are petroleum, carpets, food grains, fruits. Imports include food, textiles, skins and leather, machinery, etc.

IRAQ (MESOPOTAMIA)

Area : 116,600 sq. m. *Population* : 4,799,500.

Monetary Unit : Dinar. *Language* : Arabic and Kurdish.

Religion : Majority Shia Muslim. *Capital* : Baghadad.

Ruler : King Feisal II born in 1935, ascended the throne on April 4, 1939.

Premier : Nuri-Es-Said Pasha.

Iraq came to be an Arab kingdom under the influence of Great Britain after the Great War of 1914-18. The country comprises the flat river basins of Mesopotamia and a part of the Arabian desert in the west. Mesopotamia, watered by the Euphrates and the Tigris, was the seat of the ancient Babylonian and Assyrian civilizations.

Iraq has hot dry summers and cool winters, the rainfall being 5 to 10 inches in the latter season. Iraq has extremely fertile soil but vast areas await irrigational facilities. The chief crops are wheat and barley. Rice and millets are summer crops. The date crop is important, Iraq producing about 80% of the world's total output. Its chief winter crops are wheat and barley. Besides dates, wool and cotton are exported in

quantities, as also barley. There are several oil-fields, production in 1948 being 3,384,085 metric tons.

Baghdad is the capital and controls the confluence of the two rivers. It is an important air station. *Basra*, another air station, is also a good port. *Mosul* on the northern frontier controls the trade of Iraq with Syria and Turkey.

IRISH REPUBLIC (EIRE)

Area : 17,024,116 acres. *Population* : 2,989,700.

Capital : Dublin. *Monetary Unit* : Irish Pound.

Form of Government : Republic.

President of Eire : Mr. S. T. O. Kelly (1945—).

Prime Minister : De Valera.

Ireland was originally peopled by the Celtic tribes. It began to be meddled with by the English during the reign of Henry II and was completely conquered by Henry VIII. Violent revolutions occurred during the reign of Queen Elizabeth and in subsequent centuries. At last in 1907, the Irish Free State was established and the Northern part inhabited mainly by the English settlers became a separate division (called Ulster.)

Eire has an area nearly equal to that of Ceylon. The central plain or the Valley of the Shannon is low-lying and marshy where potato fields and pastures for cattle-raising exist. The mountainous parts are suitable for barley growing and cattle-raising. Ireland exports cattle and imports foodgrains and manufactures of various kinds; Great Britain having the largest share in her exports and imports.

The religion of the people is Roman Catholic. Language spoken in Gaelic.

ITALY

Area : 119,778 sq. m. *Population* : 45,646,000.

Capital : Rome (p. 1,155,000)

Monetary Unit : Lira.

Religion : Roman Catholic.

Important Towns : Naples, Genoa, Milan, Turin, Venice, Palermo (Sicily), Florence.

Form of Government : Republic.

Prime Minister : Signor Alcide De Gasperi.

The peninsula of Italy is projected long into the Mediterranean Sea, and this is one reason why it can have a predominant voice in the seas which surround it. It is on the whole a

mountainous country, with small rivers (like the Tiber, the Arno, etc.) possessing great historical associations. Italy includes Sicily and Sardinia.

Nearly 75 per cent of land in Italy is given over to agriculture. The chief food products are wheat, grapes, corn, tobacco, potatoes, beet, barley, olive and rice. Silk culture is carried on all over Italy but is specially important in the north. Mining is not important in Italy, there being a notable lack of coal. Italian marble is world famous. There are various industries of which the textile industry is the largest. *Exports* : silk, textiles, fruit, luxury goods, vehicles. *Imports* : cereals, cotton, wool, iron, minerals, skins.

Passes and tunnels play a great part in Italy's communications, giving access to railways and roads. Waterways are insignificant, but wireless telephony is important.

JAPAN

(Consisting of Honshu, Kyshyu, Hokaido, Shikaku).

Area ; (of the four main islands which make Japan proper.) 368,589 sq. m. *Population* : 80,216,897 (In 1948).

Monetary Unit : Yen.

Capital : Tokyo (p. 6,778, 804). *Language* : Japanese.

Religion : Buddhism and Shintoism.

National name : Nippon.

Important Towns . Osaka, Kyoto, Yokohama, Kobe.

Monarch : Emperor Hirohito, Born in 1901, ascended the throne on December 25, 1926.

Prime Minister : Mr. Shigeru Yoshida, (Feb. 1949).

Japan proper is composed of four principal islands of which Honshu is the biggest and forms the mainland. It is situated along a zone of weakness in the earth's crust and is subject to much volcanic activity. Earthquakes, typhoons and tidal waves frequently cause great damage. The indented coast of Japan provides excellent harbours and has made the Japanese a race of seamen. The proximity of Japan to the Asian mainland, and the absence of a rival power in the East, made Japan embark on imperial ventures first in Korea then in Manchuria, and again in China.

Agriculture is the chief occupation but only about a seventh of the land of Japan proper can be cultivated. Japan lacks sufficient quantities of its staple food, rice, to feed its teeming population. Other crops include wheat, barley, rye, tobacco and tea. Japan is an important producer of raw silk, the yield equalling that of the whole of Europe. The fishing industry is

important. Its minerals consist of coal, iron, and antimony, copper, sulphur, none of which suffices for its enormous manufactures. *Exports* : raw and manufactured silks, cotton goods, coal, pottery, glassware, machinery. *Imports* : raw cotton machinery, wool, petroleum, rubber and dyes.

Japan is well-supplied with all modern means of communication : roads, railways, airways, while the various islands are connected through steam navigation. The rivers of Japan are too rapid to form good waterways.

KOREA (CHOSEN)

(Land of morning calm)

Area : 85,225 sq. m. *Population* : 29,000,000.

Capital : South Korea ; Seoul ; North Korea ; Pyongyang.

Monetary Unit : Won.

Language : Korean, Chinese, and Japanese.

Religion : Buddhist, Taoist, and Confucianist.

The large mountainous peninsula of Korea lying on the south east of Manchuria and opposite the isles of Japan, of which the world used to take so little notice has suddenly sprung into the lime light and what is going on it, has, during the last few years, occupied front page news, because of the war fought between the North Korean armies which had made a sudden attack upon the Republic of South Korea and the U. N. armies now under the command of General Ridgeway, which rushed to the help of South Korea on an appeal made to it by the South Korean President Dr. Syngham Rhee to save it from the unprovoked attack of the North and save thereby the peace of the world.

Korea remained for many centuries a subject kingdom of China ; was occupied by Japan during the Russo-Japanese war of 1904-05 and was annexed by that country on 22 Aug. 1910. It remained under Japanese colonial administration for a period of 35 years.

When Japan collapsed in 1945, the American and Russian forces occupied Korea to enforce the surrender of the Japanese troops, and for mutual military convenience divided the country into two portions ; the 38th parallel of latitude was regarded as the dividing line.

The Russians on their part soon set up a 'Provisional Government', which in course of time evolved into the Supreme National Assembly, which on Sept. 12 1948, proclaimed the "Korean people's Republic" with Kim Ir Sen as the Prime

Minister and Kim Du-bong as the President, and Pyongyang as the capital of their portion of the country.

The South Koreans on their part held a general election on May, 10 1941 and voted for 200 members of a National Assembly. Lee Bum Suk became the first prime minister of the Republic, while Dr. Syngman Rhee became the first President and Seoul, which is only 38 miles from the frontier was declared the capital of the Republic.

Ever since the two republics came into being there had been going on an incessant clamour for unification of the two countries, as the Koreans are one of the most homogenous people on earth and it was but natural that they should long for unification under one native government.

But the methods adopted for this end by people and governments on both sides of the border were far from peaceful, and each wanted the other side to fall into its lap and not join together by any mutual understanding. The result was that the 38th parallel became the scene of constant frontier tension, inter-zonal rivalry and frequent border incidents, which ultimately ended in the present conflict.

THE FEDERATION OF MALAYA

Area : 50,680 sq. m.

Population : 4,870,000.

Principal Towns : Kuala Lumpur.

British High Commissioner : Gen. Gerald Templar.

The Federation of Malaya consists of the former Non-Federated and Federated Malaya States, (Perak, Selangor, Negeri, Sembilan, and Pahang), Johore, Kelantan, Trengganu, Kedah and Perlis, and the straits settlements (Penang and Malacca) except Singapore and Labuan. The central portion is traversed by mountain ranges surrounded by coastal plains. The climate is tropical. Hills are forest clad. Rich deposits of tin ore exist, Malaya producing a third of world's supply. Rubber is the most important produce, other being copra, rice and timber.
Imports : rice, tobacco, cotton, textiles, sugar, and petroleum.
Exports : Rubber, iron ore, copra, gums, spices, sago, tapioca, and timber.

MEXICO

Area : 768,944 sq. m.

Population : 23,876,343.

Monetary Unit : Peso.

Religion : Roman Catholic.

Capital : Mexico City (p. 1,972,351).

Language : Spanish,

Important Towns : Puebla, Monterrey, San Louis, Potosi, Principal port Tampico (oil port), Vera, Cruz (cotton manufacture), Guadalajara (port), Leon and Merida.

President : Miguel Aleman, Valdes, elected on July 7, 1946, for a term of six years.

The republic of Mexico is an unsettled country where revolutions are frequent. Upto 1822 it was a Spanish colony. The inhabitants are Spaniards of half breeds. Mexico has a belt of highland in the centre fringed on either side by lowland belts, which are hot and moist. The plateau sees extremes of climate. The Californian peninsula has an arid Mediterranean type of climate. *Produce* : In the lowlands : sugarcane, rubber, tobacco, vanilla, sisal hemp ; on the hill slopes maize and coffee ; on the plateau, cotton, wheat, maize and grasslands for cattle raising.

Minerals : Mexico is rich in minerals. It produces about 40 per cent of the world's supply of silver and large quantities of lead, zinc and copper. Iron and coal are also found on the Plateau. The flanks of the mountains contain oil-fields yielding 8 per cent of the world's supply (ten times the produce of India.)

THE NETHERLANDS

Area : 13,440 sq. m.

Population : 9,872,074.

Capital : Amsterdam.

Monetary Unit : Guilder.

Language : Dutch.

Important Towns : The Hague (seat of Government and the Royal Family), Rotterdam, Utrecht, Haarlem.

Religion : Protestant and Roman Catholic.

Ruler : Queen Juliana, (Succeeded to the throne, September 1948).

Prime Minister : Willem Drees.

The Netherlands is a very low-lying country, parts of it being actually below sea-level. The western area is protected against the sea by dykes, or artificial embankments. The sea has made one great inlet, the Zuyder Zee, which was closed off from the North Sea by a huge dam and the adjoining land have been reclaimed.

Agriculture is the chief occupation of the Dutch people. Products include sugar, beets, potatoes, oats, rye, wheat, and barley, while bulbs and dairy produce are highly important. Dutch butter and cheese are world famous. Diamond cutting is an important industry. *Exports* : dairy produce, vegetables, bulbs, flax, fish and sugar beet. *Imports* : textiles, flour, coal, mineral oil, iron and steel.

• Textiles are widely manufactured and ship building is an important industry.

The navigable Rhine has its outlet in Holland, a fact of great commercial importance. Holland relies for transport facilities largely on canals of which there is a vast network. There is an electrified railway system and a world broad-casting station.

In the present war Holland was occupied by Germans after a brief but fierce blitzkrieg in May 1940. Holland was liberated in 1945.

NEPAL

Area : 74,000 sq. m. Population : 7,000,000.

Religion : Orthodox Hindu.

Monetary Unit : Nepalese Rupee.

Capital : Khatmandu (p. 109000).

Ruler : Maharajadhiraja Tribhuvana Bir Bikram Jang Bahadur Shah.

Prime Minister : Mr. B. P. Koirala.

Nepal is a small independent kingdom in the Himalayas, about 500 miles in length and about 150 miles in breadth ; bounded on the north by Tibet, on the east by Sikkim and on the south and west by India.

It is the home of the brave Gurkhas, who are a race of Rajputs with fair admixture of the Mongolian stock and have therefore quite mongolian feature and comparatively small stature.

NEW ZEALAND

Area : 103,410 sq. m. Population . 1,793,225.

Capital : Wellington.

Important Towns : Auckland, Christchurch, Dundee.

Governor General : Lieutenant General Sir Bernard Freyberg assumed office on June 17, 1946.

Prime Minister : Mr. Sidney Holland.

New Zealand is composed of two large islands, the North islands, and in addition contains many small islands. The country is mountainous on the whole, with a coastline containing many inlets. There are numerous lakes and rivers, eminently suitable for the production of electricity. New Zealand has a healthy, temperate climate and is famous for its scenery.

Sheep raising is by far the most important industry of New Zealand. Dairy farming for the production of butter, cheese and condensed milk is of a growing importance. Wheat, oats and barley are grown for food. The actual tilling of soil is much less practised. There are great possibilities for fruit production. Coal and gold are mined, but the coal is not of a fine quality although large deposits of it are known to exist. *Exports* : wool, butter, frozen meat, cheese, hides, seeds, condensed milk, gold. *Imports* : machinery, cotton and linen goods, motor vehicles, drugs, chemicals, and sugar.

The roads and railway systems are extensive, and there are many ports, facilitating the use of coastal steamer service.

NORWAY

Area : 125,193 sq. m. *Population* : 3,198,000.

Language : Landsmål in the west and south, Riksmål in the east and the cities.

Capital : Oslo, *Principal Ports* : Bergen, Stavanger, Trondheim and Narvik.

Religion : Evangelical Lutheran.

Ruler : King Haakon VII.

Premier : Mr. Oscar Torp.

Constituting the western portion of the Scandinavian peninsula, Norway has a very indented coastline ; the inlets with vertical cliffs being termed *fords*. Barring a coastal strip in the south, is all highlands and mountains, having coniferous forests. Population is sparse, but brave, hardy and sea-faring. Forests and fisheries form the wealth of the country. Swift hill streams afford hydro-electric power for the wood pulp and paper industries. Fish canning and electro-chemical industries, and Dairy farming are important. *Exports* : timber, wood-pulp, paper, fish, fish oil and minerals.

PAKISTAN

Area : 361,218 sq. m. *Population* : 71,096,000.

Capital : Karachi. *Monetary unit* : Pakistani Rupee.

Religion : Preponderatingly Muslim with Hindu minority in East Pakistan.

Language : Urdu, Pushto and Bengali.

Important Towns : Lahore, Sialkot, Rawalpindi, Peshawar, Dacca.

- *Premier : Khwaja Nizam-ud-Din.*
- Governor General : Ghulam Mohd.*

The Dominion of Pakistan came into existence on August 15, 1947, by the partition of India. The predominantly Muslim inhabited areas of the northwest and the north-east were constituted into this separate Dominion. The province of the Punjab was divided into West Punjab which became a part of Pakistan and East Punjab which became a part of India, and similarly East Bengal was made a part of Pakistan and West Bengal a part of India. The Sylhet district of Assam excepting four thanas was transferred to East Bengal.

PALESTINE (Israel)

Area : 10,429 sq. m.

Population : 21,92,110

Monetary Unit : Palestine Pound.

Jeruselem is the chief city.

Important Towns : Haifa and Tel-Aviv (Jewish), Jaffa, Acre, and Gaza (Arab).

Language : Hebrew in the Jewish sector, Arabic in the Muslim sector.

Religion : Jewish in the Jewish sector, Muslim in the rest.

President : Chaim Weizmann.

Prime Minister : Ben-Gurion.

Palestine touches the frontier of Arabia and Syria and its situation on the eastern flank of the Mediterranean gives it great strategic importance. The country comprises four zones, a maritime plain, an inland plateau, a great valley, and Transjordan, which merges into the Arabian desert. A singular feature is the Dead Sea, which is about 1,300 feet below sea level, and is intensely salty.

Palestine is essentially an agricultural country, the chief crops being citrus fruits and olives. Other products include wheat, rice, tobacco and grapes, the last giving rise to wine industry. Industrial development is proceeding at a rapid pace under Jewish leadership in Haifa and Tel Aviv. Limestone is found all over the country. A feature of Palestine is the presence of medicinal springs. Potash and other salts are obtained in the Dead Sea area. *Exports : oranges, grape, fruit, laundry soap, lemons, wine.* *Imports : rice, wheat, cotton, silk, tissues, woollens.*

Road, rail and air communications exist. A through railway runs to Egypt. Palestine lies in the way of British Overseas air-route to the East.

Palestine was partitioned into separate Jewish and Arab States in May 1948, when the British Mandate ended and also following the recommendation by a committee of the U. N. The Jewish State known as Israel is situated in the south and the Arab State is in the north and a strip on the border of Egypt. This establishment of the State of Israel in 1948 may be regarded as 'one of the epic events of history.' It is a climax of 2000 years of history. According to the United Nations Partition plan, Israel's territory consists of North Palestine, the coastland, except Jaffa, the arid southern area known as the Negev, and a part of Jerusalem, which the Jews have reclaimed as their capital in fulfilment of their national aspirations. In April 1950, Jordan annexed the Arab portion of Palestine in the teeth of opposition of all the other member states of the Arab League.

PERU

Area : 482,133 sq. m.

Population : 7,853,953.

Capital : Lima.

Monetary Unit : Sol.

Language : Spanish.

Religion : Roman Catholic.

Principal Towns : Callao city, Arequipa, Cusco.

Provisional President : General Manuel A. Odria assumed office Nov. 1948.

Parliament : The parliament consists of two houses, the upper chamber of 48 members is called the Camara de Senadores, while the lower chamber of 148 members is called the Camara de Diputados. Both were elected in June 1945.

The Cabinet, headed by the prime minister is presidentially appointed, while the Supreme Judges are selected by the Congress from a presidential list.

Peru was originally inhabited by the Inca Indians. The whites first settled in it in 1532. It remained the viceroyalty of Spanish South America till it proclaimed, like so many other South American States, its independence in 1821:

Peru has three natural divisions ; the coast strip, the Sierra or Uplands and the wooded regions known as Montana. Agriculture is the main industry. The chief products are cotton, sugar, wool, hides and coffee. Some islands have rich guano deposits. Copper and petroleum are the chief mineral products.

REPUBLIC OF THE PHILIPPINES

Area : 114,400 sq. m.

Population : 19,964,000.

Capital : Manila.

Language : Tagalog.

Monetary Unit : Peso.

Religion : Roman Catholic.
Christianity.

Important Towns : Panay, Iloilo, Cebu, Zamboanga, Quezon.
President : Elpidio Quirino, 8 Nov. 1949.

Out of a group of 7,100 islands in the Pacific Ocean, Philippines have but four principal islands, viz. Luzon, Panay, Cebu and Mindanao. Two islands are mountainous, volcanic earthquakes and typhoons being of common occurrence. Much of the land has been cleared and developed under American supervision. Philippines are likely to play an important role in any future development in the Pacific area. They are of considerable strategic importance and proved a bone of contention between U.S.A. and Japan. In 1942 these islands were occupied by Japan.

The areas of uncultivated land are very considerable. The principal products are rice, Manila hemp, copra, sugar, corn and tobacco. The cultivation of rubber is on the increase as also the live stock industry. Gold is produced in commercial quantities. The Philippines are highly productive, and hold out great possibilities for the future.

Waterways and railways provide local means of communication, while the islands are connected by air with the U. S. A.

POLAND

Area : 119,703 sq. m.

Population : 25,225,000.

Capital : Warsaw.

Monetary Unit : Zloty.

Religion : Mainly Roman Catholic.

Language : Polish and German.

Principal Towns : Lodz, Lublin. (cotton manufacture), Krakow. (iron and salt), Lwow (oil and salt). Gdynia and Danzig are the chief ports.

President : Bolesaw Bierut, elected by the Parliament on February 5, 1947 for a term of seven years.

Premier : Josef Cyrankiewicz.

Parliament : It consists of 444 members and is unicameral.

Poland is mostly a plain, the northern portion, the plain of the Vistula, being part of the Great European Plain. The southern part is called Galicia and contains slopes of the Carpathians. It has extremes of climate with severe winters. *Principal crops* in the plains are : rye, potatoes, oats, barley, wheat, sugar beet and flax.

Manufactures : Iron steel, cotton textiles, leather, sugar and saw-milling. Galicia includes a portion of the Silesian coal and iron fields. There are important oil-fields and salt mines.

PORTUGAL

Area : 35,413 sq. m.

Population : 8,401,823.

Capital : Lisbon.

Monetary Unit : Escudo.

Important Town : Oporto.

Religion : Roman Catholic.

President : Gen Francisco Higono craveiro Lopes.

Language : Portuguese.

Prime Minister : Dr. Antonio De Oliveira Salazar (1939—)

The country has a healthy climate and fertile soil. The River Minho divides it from the Spanish province of Galicia. Another river is the Tagus, with considerable historical associations.

Portugal is not yet a fully developed country, nearly 50 per cent of its area being unproductive. A large portion of its productive area is covered with cork-oak ; forests support large number of pigs, while sheep and cattle are reared on the hills and lowlands. There is an abundance of minerals, mainly iron, copper, tin, salt and wolfram, but they are little worked. Grapes form the most important of its many Mediterranean fruits, giving rice to a large wine industry. Olive trees cover a large area. Fish specially sardines and tunny are canned for export. Textiles and fisheries are the chief industries.

Exports : wines, cork, sardines, resin, turpentine, wolfram.
Imports : raw cotton, wheat, coal, motor vehicles, rice, dried cod, sugar.

Steamers run to join the various coastal points in the country. Though railways exist transport system is generally poor ; being another instance of the country's backwardness.

RUMANIA

Area : 91,671 sq. m.

Population : 16,410,000

Capital : Bucharest.

Monetary Unit : Leu.

Religion : Mainly Eastern Orthodoxy type of Christianity with sprinkling of Jews.

President of the Presidium of the Republic : L. L. Parkon, elected 13 April 1948.

Important Towns : Cluj, Iasi, Timisoara, Ploesti.

Prime Minister : Dr. Petru Groza (1948—).

Rumania touches the western coast of the Black Sea, with its frontiers in contact with Ukraine, Poland, Hungary, Yugoslavia and Bulgaria. The country contains the mouth of the Danube River which empties into the Black Sea. It is mostly a level land, but there are hilly parts too. Rumania consists of Moldavia

and Wallachia, the original Rumania, to which in 1818-19 were added Bessarabia, Bukovina and Transylvania and the Banat. During 1940 Rumania was forced to restore Bessarabia and Northern Bukovina to Russia, and Southern Dobruja to Bulgaria. Rumania re-took Bessarabia and N. Bukovina during the German attack on Russia in 1941. In 1944 Rumania accepted the armistice terms offered by Russia. Bessarabia and N. Bukovina were returned to Russia.

Agriculture is the main occupation of the people in this very fertile land. Maize and wheat are grown and there are large forest areas. The country is rich in minerals particularly oil, natural gas, coal, lignite, salt, iron-ore, and copper. There are extensive supplies of petroleum. They lie along the foot-hills of the Carpathians, from where oil is conveyed in pipe lines to Constanza on the Black Sea, for export. *Exports*: wheat, maize, petroleum, timber, livestock. *Imports*: Iron and steel, machinery, metals, vehicles, textile materials.

The Danube is of considerable local importance, being easily navigable to the "Iron Gates", the gap between the Transylvanian Alps and the Balkans. There are railways and air communications.

SIAM (Thailand)

Area: 198,247 sq. m. *Population*: 17,676,000.

Capital: Bangkok. *Monetary Unit*: Baht also Tical.

Language: Siamese. *Religion*: Buddhist.

King: Phumiphon Aduldet. *Premier*: Pibul Songgram.

A kingdom lying between Burma and Indo-China with the Malaya States in the South. Siam is mostly a vast plain with a tropical monsoon climate. Rainfall is caused in the months of June to September by moist winds from the Gulf of Siam. It is the home of the white elephant. In the plain much rice is grown and exported. The hills on the north and in the peninsula are covered with valuable teak. Principal river is Menam. In the peninsula there are rich tin and wolfram mines. Rubber plantations are of increasing importance in Southern and Eastern Siam.

SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF

Area: 472,494 sq. m. *Population*: 11,259,000.

Language: English and Dutch. *European*: 2,33,5000.

Capitals: Cape Town and Pretoria. *Indian*: 283,000.

Other Important Towns: Johnnesburg, Durban, Port Elizabeth, etc,

Governor-General: Major the Rt. Hon. Gideon Brand Van Zyl, P. C. assumed office on January 1, 1946.

Prime Minister: Dr. Daniel Malan.

South Africa is mainly an agricultural country where the Europeans, British and Afrikanders of Dutch origin known also as Boers, own huge farms worked by the native Bantu population. The high tableland areas which have a healthy climate are exclusively owned by the Europeans. Agricultural products include wheat, barley, oats, corn, potatoes, tobacco, tea, sugar-cane, etc. Sheep-farming is encouraged and cotton-growing is now undertaken by many farmers. South Africa has valuable gold and diamond deposits. In 1940 gold output was 14,046,502 fine ozs., diamond 543,463 metric carats. South Africa imports food stuffs, cotton piece goods, electrical machinery, textiles, motor spirit and exports sugar, maize, hides and skins, coal, diamonds, oranges.

SPAIN

Area: 196,000 sq. m. *Population*: 27,552,448.

Capital: Madrid (p. 1,273,504).

Monetary Unit: Peseta. *Religion*: Roman Catholic.

Language: Mainly Spanish, but also Basque and Catalan.

Important Towns: Barcelona, Valencia, Seville, Malaga, Saragossa, Murcia, Bilbao.

Caudillo (Leader) Chief of the State: General F. Franco (1938-).

The greater part of Spain consists of a great plateau in the midst of which stands Madrid, the capital. It has a long coastline on the Mediterranean, is divided from France by the Pyreness Mountains and from Portugal by an artificial line. In a way, all its geographical frontiers contributed to the prolongation of the civil war of 1936-37 in the country, for they have facilitated outside interference.

Spain is an agricultural rather than an industrial country, although there are valuable iron, copper, coal and lead mines, all of which held out considerable temptation to the former Fascist powers—Italy and Germany. Wheat, barley, corn, rye, oats and rice are extensively grown and large areas are covered with vine yards, oranges, lemons, olives, and almonds. Fisheries are important. Silk culture, metals, minerals and stock raising are important. *Exports*: wine, olive oil, fruits, fish, cork. *Imports*: cotton, machinery, coal, coke, chemical products and fish.

Communications are hindered by the relief of the country. Rivers are rapid and flow through gorges. Principal means of communication are railways, which radiate from Madrid. Coastal services are important.

SWEDEN

Area : 173,347 sq. m.

Monetary Unit : Krona.

Religion : Protestant.

Capital : Stockholm, which is also a port and an industrial centre.

Towns : Goteborg (chief port), Malmo (sea port) Norkoping (manufacturing city).

Ruler : King Gustav VI (Oct. 30, 1950).

Premier : Tage Erlander.

Forming the eastern part of Scandinavia, Sweden is larger and more populated than Norway. About an eighth of the area (southern plains) is cultivated, while over half of Sweden (northern part) is covered with valuable timber. As cold is too severe, the principal crops are rye, oats and potatoes. Sweden is rich in iron ore, but most important industries are connected with forests. *Industries* : saw milling, matches, pulp and paper manufacture, pig-iron, electrical machinery. Power used is hydro-electric. Dairy farming is important. *Exports* : wood pulp, paper, timber, matches, metals (iron and others). *Communications* : railways run in the southern plain and along the entire east coast on to Finland. There are also numerous navigable canals.

SWITZERLAND

Area : 16,000, sq. m.

Capital : Berne.

Language : Mixed European.

Religion : Half Protestant and half Roman Catholic.

Principal Towns ; Zurich, Basel, Berne, Geneva, Lausanne, St. Gallen.

President : M. Kaul Kobelt for 1952.

Switzerland is a small republic lying in the central Alps. The southern half is occupied by the Alpine ranges. In the north is a portion of the Jura mountains and in between the two lies the Swiss plateau where most of the population is concentrated and where some cattle farming is carried on. Switzerland is a highly industrialized country. Small metal goods are

Population : 4,640,000.

Monetary Unit : Swiss Franc.

manufactured by water or hydro-electric power, there being no coal. Watches and clocks are made at Neuchatal and Geneva and in other small towns. Silk goods are manufactured at Zurich, Basel and Bern. Dairy farming is an important occupation.

Natural scenery is very enjoyable in Switzerland and the climate is bracing. A large number of tourists visit this country every year and spend much money, so that hotel-keeping is one of the important occupations. Swiss hotel keepers are spread in other European centres and even in Asiatic countries. As Switzerland is the meeting place of many routes, Geneva was the headquarters of the League of Nations. St. Moritz is famous as a centre for winter sports on the ice. *Exports* : fine silk and cotton goods, small manufactured articles, cheese, tinned milk. *Imports* : raw silk, cotton and wool, wheat, sugar, vegetables etc.

SYRIA

Area : 73,587 sq. m. *Population* : 3,721,000.

Form of Govt. Republic.

Monetary Unit : Pound (Syrian—Lebanese).

Language : Arabic. *Chief Towns* : Damascus, Aleppo.

Religion : Muslim.

Constituting the northern part of the Arabian Plateau, Syria lies to the north of Palestine and Mesopotamia. After the Great War, this territory was placed under the French as a mandated territory; but more recently Syria has been recognized as a republic, achieving complete independence in 1946. The climate is of the Mediterranean type with fruits as the chief produce ; wheat, barley sorghum, olives, tobacco, cotton, and grapes are also cultivated ; cattle, goats, sheep etc., are reared. Damascus is the capital and other towns are Aleppo, and Homs. Latakia is the only port.

TIBET

Area : 470,000 sq. m.

Population : Estimated to be about 3,000,000.

Capital : Lhasa (p. 50,000).

Important Towns : Chamdo, Gyantse.

Tibet lies between the Himalayas and the Kwenlun mountains. The country being bleak and mountainous and strangers having been jealously excluded, wide regions are still unexplored. It has an average elevation of 12,000 feet and is dotted with numerous lakes.

In some places agriculture is carried on, barley and pulse being grown. Some favoured regions produce fruits, even grapes. But the main pursuits are pastoral, the domestic animals being sheep and yak. The chief minerals worked are gold, borax, and salt. There is a large-scale trade with China and considerable traffic across the Indian frontier.

A telegraph line connects Lhasa with Gyantse. For trade between India and Tibet, beasts of burden are used. The most important route into Tibet from India is from Silguri (Darjeeling), across Sikkim to Gyantse and Yatung in Tibet. Other routes are from Almora (U. P.) and from Simla.

TURKEY (Republic)

Area : 296,185 sq. m.

Population : 19,500,000

Capital : Ankara (p. 226,713)

Language : Turkish.

Religion : Muslim.

Monetary Unit : Turkish pound.

Important Towns : Istanbul, Izmir, (Smyrna), Basra, Adana.

President : Mr. Celal Bayar, May, 1950 Democrat Party leader.

Premier : Mr. Adnan Menderes.

Turkey is a modern republic, which made marked advance towards modernization and westernization during the past 25 years under the impetus given by the national hero, the late Kemal Ataturk.

The territory of Turkey lies in Asia as well as in Europe, but the major part is in Asia, the area of division being the sea of Marmara. Mostly it is a high plateau region, containing among others, the famous Taurus Mountains of mythological fame. It is mostly a poor steppe-land, of which only the coastal areas are productive.

Agriculture in Turkey is backward, but is being improved and extended under the new regime. Products include wheat, barley, cotton, tobacco, nuts, figs, grapes, and other fruits. A large quantity of opium is grown limited to medicinal requirements. Fisheries are important. Wool and mohair are also objects of commerce. Turkey is rich in minerals, such as chrome, ore, zinc, silver, manganese, copper and antimony. *Exports:* cereals, cotton, raisins, figs, olive oil, tobacco, carpets and wool. *Imports :* cotton, iron, and steel manufacture, machinery, woolen, tea, chemicals.

Communications are being planned on modern lines, but still there are many unsurveyed tracks. Istanbul and Ankara are connected by air. There are railways and roads on a moderate scale.

URUGUAY

Area : 72,172 sq. m.

Population : 2,650,000.

Capital : Montevideo (p. 770,000).

Language : Spanish.

Religion : Roman Catholic.

Monetary Unit : Peso.

Principal Towns : Paysandu, Salto, Mercedes, Minas.

President of the Republic : Andres Martinez Trueba (March, 1951).

Uruguay is mainly a pastoral country, nearly 95 per cent of the exports are made up of animal products. The principal agricultural crops are wheat, maize linseed and oats. Grapes, peaches and oranges are also grown. There are a few silver, copper and coal mines. Industries are not highly developed.

THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

Area : 3,026,789 sq. m.

Population : 152,340,000.

Capital : Washington.

Language : Mainly English.

Religion : Christianity of all types.

Monetary Unit : The mighty Dollar.

Important Towns . New York, (7,455,000), Chicago, Philadelphia, Detroit, Los Angeles, Cleveland, Boston, San Francisco.

President : Harry S. Truman, succeeded to the Presidency 12 April 1945, upon the death of Franklin D. Roosevelt ; was elected President on November 2, 1948 for a term of four years.

Secretary of States : Dean Acheson.

The United States extends from the Pacific to the Atlantic ocean, with Canada in its north and Mexico in the south. The country contains a great variety of climate, but is entirely hospitable, and except in certain areas, very fertile. In it are parts of the Great Lakes, while on the east and west are two great mountain ranges the Appallacian Range on the east being famous for its minerals. The Mississippi-Missouri rivers are the longest in the world.

The United States is rich in mineral wealth of almost every kind. It has vast deposits of coal, iron and copper, and much of the world's oil and silver comes from this country. The U. S. A. makes a nearer approach than any other country in the world to being adequately supplied from its own resources for every need of human civilization. Rubber, silk, tea are three

of the exceptions not available in this vast territory. It is the greatest manufacturing country in the world. Exports include aircraft, vehicles and machinery of all kind, chemicals, metals, cotton and tobacco manufacture, dairy products, meat products etc. Imports include raw cotton, cocoa, coffee, fruits, hides and skins, rubber, raw silk, etc.

The U. S. A. has excellent waterways, roads and railways and most progressive system of air communications.

U. S. S. R.

(Union of Soviet Socialist Republics)

Area : 8,708,000 sq. miles. Population : 193,000,000

Monetary Unit : Rouble.

Religion : Christianity of Russian Orthodoxy type.

Important Towns : Leningrad, Kiev, Kharkov, Baku, Gorky Odessa, Rostov, Stalingrad, Tashkent.

The U. S. S. R. is a federal state composed of Russia, Azerbaijan, Armenian, Byelorussian, Georgian, Kazak, Kirghiz, Karelo-Finnish, Estonian, Latavian, Lithuanian, Moldavian Turkmenian, Ukrainian, Uzbek, Soviet Socialist, Republics.

President of the Praesidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U. S. S. R. is Nikolai Mikhailovich Shvernik elected by the Supreme Council on March 19, 1946.

President of Council of Ministers : Joseph Vissarionovich Stalin. Appointed by the Supreme Council on March 19, 1946, though he has been holding his present position unintermittently since 1922. V. M. Molotov is Vice-Premier since 1941. Vyshinsky is Foreign Minister.

The Union is a socialist state of workers and peasants whose political units are their councils of workers (called the Soviet).

The U. S. S. R. extends over an area lying in two continents, Europe and Asia. European Russia includes territory from the Arctic to Caucasus and from Poland to the Urals (now also Bessarabia, part of Poland, and of Finland and the Baltic republics of Latvia, Lithuania and Estonia). Asiatic Russia includes Siberia and a vast Russian land includes steppelands, mountainous areas arctic swamps, and experiences a great variety of climate.

Most people work on the land, Russia being a predominantly agricultural country. Manufactures, under the famous five-year plan are proceeding apace. Crops include wheat, maize, oats, cotton, flax, hemp, and sugar beet. Livestocks abound and there are forest lands. The Union is rich in coal, iron, manganese, copper, gold, silver, zinc,

and lead. In petroleum production, the country ranks second to the United States. The steel industry has greatly developed.

Exports : petroleum products, grain, lumber, textiles and furs.

Imports : Metals, machinery electrical and engineering products, foodstuffs and textiles.

Russia has extensive inland waterways, a continental railway in addition to many branch lines and aerial communications. The Central Asiatic Airways in some instance provide the only means of communication across the desert and the mountainous regions of the local republics.

YUGOSLAVIA

Area : 99,044 sq. m. *Population* : 16,700,000.

Capital : Belgrade (p. 388,246). *Monetary Unit* : Dinar.

Religion : Eastern type of Christian Orthodoxy and Roman Catholic.

Principal Towns : Zagreb, Subotica, Ljubljana, Sarajevo.

President : Dr. Ivan Ribar, President of the Presidium of the Yugoslav People's Assembly and head of the State.

Premier : Marshall Josip Broz (Tito) and minister of National Defence. Re-elected in the elections of April 1950.

Foreign Minister : M. Edward Kardelj.

This state was formed after the Great War of 1914-18 out of the old kingdoms of Serbia and Montenegro with portion of Hungarian territory and coastal strip along the Adriatic Sea thrown in. The northern portion is a plain watered by the Save, a tributary of the Danube, having hot summers and cold winters where wheat, maize, tobacco, and beet are grown. The coastal strip consists of barren ranges of lime stone, affording no good port. Forests and mineral deposits exist near the Alpine offshoots in the North. In the southern highlands forming part of Balkan peninsula, we find at some places forests and elsewhere grasslands where sheep and cattle are raised. In sheltered valleys, wheat, maize, tobacco, beet and Mediterranean fruits are grown.

Yugoslavia is poor in communications. It has only one railway line passing through the east portion and connecting Belgrade with Salonica, the Greek port in the south. Yugoslavia's trade passes through either this great port or the Italian port of Trieste in the North.

Italy had territorial claims on Yugoslavia. In 1941, Yugoslavia was overrun by Germany. But partisans under Marshal Tito liberated Yugoslavia (1942-45). It is now a Republic, a plebiscite having decided the abolition of the monarchy.

GAZETTEER OF THE WORLD

PLACES OF GEOGRAPHICAL, LITERARY, HISTORICAL OR MILITARY IMPORTANCE

Abu. An isolated granite peak of the Aravali range on the border between Bombay State (into which it has been incorporated) and Rajasthan. One of the most sacred centres of the Jain worship.

Adam's Bridge. A narrow strip of the sea between India and Ceylon.

Adis Ababa. Capital of Abyssinia.

Aden. On the Arabian coast at the southern entrance to the Red Sea : Fortified British sea-port and coaling station (p. 48,090).

Adowa. In Abyssinia. Here the Italians were crushingly defeated in 1896. Forty years later the Italians razed the town to the ground.

Adriatic Sea. A part of the Mediterranean between Italy and the Balkan Peninsula. "Italian Lake".

Adyar. Madras, India. Headquarters of the Theosophical Society.

Aegean Sea. A part of the Mediterranean between Greece and Asia Minor.

Aigincourt. In France, famed for battle between the English and the French in 1415.

Agra. City of Uttar Pradesh on the Jamuna, about 120 miles S. S. E. of Delhi. It contains the world renowned Taj Mahal built by Shah Jahan between 1630-1648 of pure white marble on a vast marble terrace, with a great dome in the centre.

Ahmedabad. Chief town of Gujerat, in Bombay State on the river Sabarmati, and one of the industrial centres of Western India, specially textile manufactures.

Ahemednagar or Daulatabad. 120 miles east of Bombay, a city with an old fort where Congress leaders were interned in 1942. Trade in cotton and silk goods.

Aix-la-Chapelle. City of Prussia (Germany) famous for its baths. Treaty ending War of Austrian Succession was signed here.

Ajaccio. Capital of Corsica. Birth-place of Napoleon Bonaparte.

Ajanta. In Hyderabad Deccan known for ancient caves and sculpture work.

Ajmer. In Central Rajputana. Capital of the small State of Ajmer—Merwara, contains Dargah Khwaja Sahib, tomb of the famous Muslim saint, Muin-ud-din Chisti. Seven miles from Ajmer is the sacred Pushkar Lake, nestled among the hills of the Aravalli range, sacred to Brahma, the creator.

Ajodhya. Ancient city of Oudh 77 miles east of Lucknow, sacred to the Hindus as the birth place of Shri Ram Chanderji. It is now in ruins, but has an annual fair attended by about 600,000 pilgrims.

Albert Nyanza. Lake of Africa. A great reservoir of the white Nile.

Alexandria. Chief port of Egypt. Founded by Alexander the great in 332 B. C. Once a great centre of culture.

Algiers. Seaport of Algeria, strongly fortified.

Alhambra. Famous Moorish palace and citadel of Spain, near Granada.

Alps. Highest mountains of Europe. The principal peak, Mont Blanc.

Altai. A mountain range of Central Asia. Southern boundary of Siberia.

Amazon. River, South America. Largest basin of any river of the world.

Amiens. Town, Northern France. Famous for its cathedral. First great offensive of 1914 was launched here by the Germans.

Amritsar. City of East Punjab on India's North Western Border, known for its Golden Temple, the most sacred shrine of the Sikhs. Big bullion, grain and textile centre.

Amsterdam. Capital of Holland. Built on 96 islands joined by bridges. Diamond cutting (p. 766,000).

Amu Daria. District of Russian Central Asia. Also applied to River Oxus.

Amur. River flowing along the northern boundary of Manchuria into the Pacific. Marks boundary between Russia and China.

Andamans. Islands in the Bay of Bengal. Penal settlement for Indian convicts. Converted into a colony of refugees from East Bengal.

Andes. Great mountain system of S. America.

Angora. Capital of Turkey on the Sakarta (p. 123,250).

Antioch. An ancient historical town and port of Syria.

Appeniness, Mt. In Italy, length 800 m.

Ararat, Mt. Turkey, supposed resting place of Noah's Ark described in the Bible.

Armenia. Between the Caucasus, the Caspian and Asia Minor. Now a republic of the U.S.S.R. (p. 1,281,599).

Asansol. Centre of the coal industry in Bengal.

Ascension. Island in the Atlantic Ocean. Belongs to Great Britain.

Assaye. Village, Hyderabad State (India). Wellington's victory over Marhattas, 1803.

Astrakhan. Town and river port of Russia, on the Volga and partly on an island in the river.

Atkens. City of Greece. Most renowned in antiquity. Centre of Greek art and learning.

Atlas. Great range of mountains in the north of Africa.

Auckland. Largest city of New Zealand. Seaport in North Island.

Austerlitz. Town in Moravia, Czechoslovakia. Here Napoleon gained a great victory over Russia and Austria, 1805.

Azov Sea of. In U.S.S.R., joins Black Sea by Kerchenski Strait.

Bab-el-Mandab. The strait uniting Arabian Sea with Red Sea. "Gate of Tears."

Babylon. Ancient city of Asia. Capital of the Babylonian Empire. Its great period was from 1800—500 B. C. Hill now occupies a part of its site, where excavation work is being done.

Baden. W. Germany, noted for its mineral springs and wood carving.

Baghdad. Famous city and capital of Iraq, situated on the Tigris. Formerly capital of the Saracenic Empire. Figured in the World War. On London—Karachi air-route. Occupied by the Allies in 1941.

Bahrein Isles. Group of Islands in the Persian Gulf under British Protection. Noted for pearl fisheries, and oil.

Bahia Blanca. Important seaport of Argentina.

Baikal. Siberian fresh water lake.

Baku. On Caspian Sea. Noted for petroleum.

Balaklava Port on Crimean coast. Famous for the charge of the Light Brigade, 1854.

Bali. Island east of Java. Area 2,240 sq. m. p. 1,802,683. It contains many famous ruins of ancient Hindu and Buddhist temples.

Balkash. Great salt water lake, U. S. S. R.

Balmoral. The residence of the British King in Scotland.

Baltic. Sea between Scandinavia and Russia.

Baltimore. A famous port on the east coast of North America.

Exports: grain, meat and cattle.

Banaras. Sacred city of the Hindus on the left bank of the river Ganga in Uttar Pradesh, 385 miles N. W. of Calcutta. It is a seat of Hindu learning and has the famous Hindu University. Saries, Brocades and brassware from Banaras are universally appreciated.

Bandar Abbas. Seaport of Persia. Controlled by the British during the Great War. Occupied by the British 1941-45.

Bangalore. Seat of the Government of the Mysore. State Silk factories.

Bangkok. Capital of Siam. Shipping industry. Good port.

Bannockburn. Scotland. Famous for victory of Robert Bruce over Edward II (1314).

Barrier Reef, Great. Coral reef N. E. from coast of Australia, extending for about 1,200 miles.

Basra. Port of Iraq. Noted for dates.

Basuto Land. In Africa, sometimes styled as the "Switzerland of South Africa."

Batavia. Seaport and city of Java. Sugar and rubber. Contains numerous temples and a fine museum of arts and sciences.

Batum. Port on the Black Sea. Exports oil.

Bear Lake, Great. (14,000 sq. m. (in Canada).

Bechuanaland. A British Protectorate in South Africa. *Area:* 275,000 sq. m.; p. 265,756.

Behring Strait. The narrow strip of water which separates Asia (Siberia) from North America (Alaska).

Belfast. Largest city in Northern Ireland. Famous for Linen manufacture. Also seaport.

Bengazi. Seaport of N. Africa, formerly under Italy. The starting point of the caravan route to Egypt. Captured by British forces in February 1941.

Bergen. Seaport and city of Norway, the most important commercial port in the kingdom.

Berlin. Former capital of Germany, on the River Spree. Beer, sugar.

Bermudas, British. A group of the 360 coral islands in North Atlantic. *Population:* 25,000.

Bernard Great St. On of the Alps in Switzerland, famous for the monastery of St. Bernard. There is a pass also of that name.

Berne. Seat of Swiss Government (p. 130,331).

Bessarabia. Province of Rumania. Fertile soil. Taken away from Russia in 1941. Re-occupied by Russia after German defeat in 1944.

Bethlehem. Town of Palestine. Birth-place of Christ. Modern Beit—Lahm.

Beyrout or Beirut. Seaport on Lebanon coast. Ancient and historic town, now a shipping centre.

Bezwada. Town of Madras on the Krishna. Irrigation headquarters. Silk borders.

Bhore Ghat. Pass on the Western Ghat between Bombay and Poona.

Bhubaneshwar. In Orissa ; contains the famous Mukteshwar, Lingaraj and Parasurameshwar Temples, as also of Parvati, Bhagwati, Ananta Vesudeva, Brahmeswar, Bhaskareswar etc.

Bhutan. In Eastern Himalayas. Independent state, but under Govt. of India's protection.

Bijapur. Once capital of a kingdom with the same name. Contains ancient monuments, chiefly Muslim.

Bilbao. Seaport of N. Spain, exporting much iron to the British Isles. Formerly famous for rapier making.

Birmingham. Capital of Midlands, England. Great manufacturing centre. Cutlery and machinery (p. 1,000,000.)

Bismarck Archipelago. Several islands off New Guinea, formerly German, now British.

Bitter Lakes. In the Isthmus of Suez. The Suez canal passes right through them.

Blackburn. English industrial town. Cotton spinning and Weaving.

Black Country. South Staffordshire so called because of coal mines and smoke.

Black Forest. Mountainous region of Germany, noted for its scenery and a favourite holiday resort.

Black Mountains. Range of hills in Wales, Great Britain.

Black Sea. Inland sea between Europe and Asia. Receives the Danube, reaches depths of 6,000 feet near the centre. Is important for Russian trade and strategic position.

Blenheim. On the Danube in Bavaria, Germany. Tiny village, famous for the battle fought here in 1704. Marlborough and Prince Eugene beat the French and Bavarians.

Blue Nile. River flowing from Abyssinia, and joining with the White Nile at Khartoum. Great fertiliser of Egypt.

Bohemia. Formerly part of Austria, then of Czechoslovakia and lastly from 1932 to May 1945, of Germany. Now a part of Czechoslovakia again.

Bokhara. Province and town of Russia. Once a great trade mart of Asia.

Bolan Pass. In mountains of N. E. Baluchistan from Lower Indus to Kandhar. Now traversed by a railway.

Bonn. University town in Germany. Now the capital of West German Republic.

Bordeaux. Port of France. Exports large quantities of wine.

Borneo. Largest island in the East Indies Archipelago. Three fifths belonged to the Dutch; now under the Indonesian Republic. Produce: timber, rubber, tobacco,

Bosphorus. Strait between the Black Sea and Sea of Marmora, separating Europe from Asia minor.

Bremen. German port on the North Sea coast (p. 366,500).

Breslau. Capital of Silesia, Prussia. Military establishment and important industries.

Brest-Litovsk. City of Poland. Formerly important fortress of Russian Poland. Scene of protracted peace negotiations between Central Europe, Soviet Russia and the Ukraine Republic. Occupied by Russia (1939).

Brindisi. City of Italy. Port. Falls on the air route and sea-route to the East. Important railway terminus.

British West Indies. Includes Bahamas, Barbados, Jamaica, Leeward Islands, Trinidad and Windward Islands.

Broken Hill. Isolated hill in New South Wales (Australia). Richest deposits of lead and silver ore in the world.

Brussels. Capital of Belgium. Music city and is of much industrial importance. (p. 950,000).

Bucharest. Capital of Rumania, Europe. One of the strongest fortresses in Europe, but has often suffered seige and capture. (564,000).

Budh Gaya. A small town, seven miles from Gaya in Bihar, holiest of the holies to the Buddhist as it was here that under a pipal tree Gautma meditated and attained enlightenment.

Budapest. Twin capital of Hungary, Buda on right bank and Pest on left bank on the Danube. (p. 1,421,300). *

Buenos Aires. Largest city in Southern Hemisphere. Federal capital of the Argentina Republic (p. 2,415,000).

Bulawayo. Chief town, railway station of southern Rhodesia on the Cape Town-Cairo air-route.

Bunker Hill. Hill near Boston. Scene of fierce battle between the Americans and the British (1775).

Buxar. Fortified town of Bengal. Scene of the battle between Mir Kasim and the English (1764).

Cadiz. City in S. Spain. Exports sherry and cork. One of the oldest seaports in the world.

Cairo. Capital of Egypt. Largest city in Africa, with a priceless collection of antiquities. (p. 1,307,400).

Calais. Seaport, France. Great embarkation point for travellers. Captured by Germans in 1940 after severe fighting. Freed in 1945.

Calgary. City of Alberta, Canada. Centre of agricultural produce and of ranching.

Calicut. Ancient port of Malabar. Vasco-da-gama landed there.

California. Most important of Pacific States, U.S.A. Beautiful scenery. Large minerals. Film industry, (at Hollywood). Southern California forms part of Mexico and grows excellent fruits.

Calvary. Hill outside Jerusalem, Palestine ; believed to be the scene of Christ's crucifixion.

Canary Islands. Spanish Archipelago in North Atlantic. Great fruit growing region.

Canberra. Capital of the Commonwealth of Australia. The federal territory is also called Canberra.

Canton. Chief city and seaport of China. Very important trade centre.

Cape Horn. Southern-most point of South America. A stormy region.

Cape of Good Hope. A headland in South Africa. 1,000 ft. high, discovered by Diaz in 1489.

Cape Trafalgar. In the coast of Spain, near Cadiz. Scene of Nelson's famous victory, 1805.

Cardiff. Seaport of Wales. Has a famous association football club.

Carpathian Mt. A mountain range separating Czechoslovakia and Hungary from Galicia.

Caribbean Sea. Sea between West Indies and Central America.

Carthage. N.E. Tunis, with ruins of ancient Carthage destroyed by the Romans, 146 B.C. Once Romans' great rival.

Casablanca. Seaport of Morocco.

Cathay. Old name for China and E. Tartary.

Caucasus. Lofty mountain range between Caspian and Black Seas. Many lofty passes and large glaciers. Natural boundary between Asia and Europe.

Celebes. One of the four great Sunda Islands in the Dutch East Indies.

Ceuta. Spanish seaport on the coast of Morocco opposite and 16 miles from Gibraltar. Figured in the Spanish Civil War as the naval base which Italy coveted.

Chad. Lake of Africa in S. Sahara partly British and partly French.

Chandernagore. Capital of once French possessions in India, in W. Bengal (p. 30,000).

Chandigarh. New capital of East Punjab under construction.

Channel Islands. Off the North coast of France. Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney and Sark, self-governing British Islands occupied by the Germans during World War II.

Cherrapunji. In Assam. Wettest place in the world (Annual rainfall, 426 inches).

Cheviot Hills. Between Scotland and Northumberland referred to in the ballad, "The Hunting of the Cheviot." Has other romantic associations.

Chicago. City of the U. S. A., near the southern end of lake Michigan. Greatest grain and meat market in the world, and the greatest of lake-port (p. 3,380,00).

Chillianwala. A village in the West Punjab (Pakistan) 85 miles N. W. of Lahore, the scene in 1849 of a bloody battle in the Second Sikh War, in which the Sikhs were defeated by General Hugh Gough.

Chitral. State in North West Frontier Province. The town of Chitral stands on the Kunar Rivér.

Chittaranjan. New town in the Burdwan district of West Bengal, about 20 miles from Asansol where the Indian Railway's Locomotive Manufacturing Workshops have been built.

Chitorgarh. Ancient capital of Udaipur, famous in Rajputana history. Has an old fortress and Mira Bai's temple.

Chunking. Important Chinese town on the Yangtse-kialing Wartime capital of the Chinese Republic (1939) (P. 700,000).

Cincinnati. Largest city of Ohio. U. S. A. "Queen City."

Cinque Ports. Five ancient English ports on the coast of Kent and Sussex,—Sandwich, Dover, Hythe, Romney and Hastings. Mr. Churchill is the Lord Warden of the Cinque Ports now.

Cologne. City and river port of Germany. Contains one of the finest Gothic buildings in the world. Manufacture: Eau-de-Cologne. Severely raided by British Bombers during World War II, (p. 756,000).

Colombo. Capital and chief port of Ceylon. Great coaling station and has much strategic importance. Exports : tea, rubber, coconuts. (p. 362,000.).

Colorado River. Off North America. Famous for the canyon, or gorges in its course, which have a total length of 12 miles, the chief being the Grand Canyon of Arizona.

Coolgradie. A gold mining town in West Australia.

Coorg. A tiny province in the Western Ghats : 1590 sq. m.

Congo. River in Africa with greatest drainage area length 3,000 m.

Constantinople. City of Turkey. Noted for St. Sofia mosque. Now *Istambol* (790,000).

Cordova. A Spanish city on R. Guadalquivir, formerly a centre of Moorish culture. Famous mosque.

Corinth. City in Greece, about 3 miles from the ancient city, famous in Greek legends.

Coromandel Coast. East coast of Madras Presidency.

Corsica. French Island in the Mediterranean (A. 3,367 sq. m.) birth place of Napoleon.

Coventry. English town, manufactures cars and bicycles. Heavily raided by the Germans during World War II.

Cracow. City of Poland. Strongly fortified. Iron and steel manufacture. Attacked by Russians, 1914.

Crecy. Battlefield in France where the Black Prince defeated the French (1346).

Crimea. A Republic of U. S. S. R. Crimean War (1854-55) between Russia and England, France and Turkey. Scene of fierce fighting in the last War.

Croatia. A part of Yugoslavia (area 17,405 sq. m.). It was a separate state during Italo-German occupation (1941-45).

Cronstadt. Forests on an island in the gulf of Finland. The chief Baltic port and naval base, U. S. S. R.

Croydon. Famous air-port of England near London.

Cuba. A West Indies island famous for cigars and sugar.

Cyprus. British isle in the Eastern Mediterranean. Has great strategic importance.

Dakar. Town of the Cape Verde (W. Africa). Has a dockyard and is a naval station.

Damascus. Capital of Syria, (p. 250,000) Occupied by the British in 1941.

Danzing. City port and former free state on the Baltic Sea. Now part of Poland.

Dardanelles. Strait between Europe and Turkey in Asia. Famous for the Darnanelles campaign of the Great War (1914-18).

Darjeeling. Hill station and summer capital of W. Bengal. Health resort and tea gardens (p. 22,000).

Darwin. Australian airport and seaport on the north coast.

Dayal Bagh. Near Agra, famous for being the colony of the Radhaswami faith. Contains mausoleum of the founder of the Radha Swami faith.

Dead Sea. Salt water lake in Palestine, 12292 feet below sea level.

Derby. In the suburbs of London. Associated with "Derby race."

Detroit. Chief city and port of Michigan U. S. A. Has the biggest and finest Masonic temples in the world. The city of Ford motor-cars. (p. 1,569,000).

Dhanbad. Town of Bihar, on the Jheria coalfield. School of Mines.

Dieppe. French port on English Channel. Occupied by Germans (1940). Freed in 1944.

Dindigul. City of Madras state, Cigar factories.

Dodecanese Islands. Barring the way to the Dardenelles. Heavily fortified by Italy. The islands include Rhodes, Leros, and Cos, and would be of strategic importance in case of conflict with Turkey. Transferred to Greece.

Dover. Seaport and market town. Great Britain. Nearest point of passage to France. Splendid natural harbour. Strongly fortified. (p. 50,000).

Drachenfels. Hill of Germany. Famous cave of legendary dragon.

Dublin. Capital of Eire (p. 467,000).

Dum Dum. Town and cantonment of West Bengal. Famous because it gives its name to a bullet first made at the Government ammunition factory here and also aerodrome.

Dundee. City and seaport of Great Britain. Centre of Jute and linen manufactures (p. 176,000).

Dunkirk. Port of France opposite Dover. From here the evacuees taken back to England after the defeat of the Allies in the Battle of Flanders. (1940)

Durand lines. Divided India from Afghanistan.

Dusseldorf. Town in the Ruhr Basin. Cotton textile (p. 498,000).

Edge Hill. A hill in the Midland. Scene of battle between Charles and Roundheads. (1642).

Edinburgh. Capital of Scotland. Rich in historic buildings. Famous for its university, (p. 440,000).

Elba. Island in the Mediterranean. Belongs to Italy. Here Napoleon lived in exile, May 1814 to February, 1815.

Elbe. Chief river of Germany (725 m.) falls into the North Sea.

Elburz. Mountains in North Persia. Peak Demavend (18,500).

El Dorado. Town in Arkansas, U.S.A. Originally an imaginary "city of gold" supposed to exist somewhere in central America by the early Spain explorers.

Elephanta. Island in Bombay Harbour. Wonderful cave sculptures.

Ellora. Town of Hyderabad, India. Noted for its sculptured cave temples.

Eritrea. Italian territory along the African coast of the Red Sea. Scene of warfare and Italian base for attacks on Sudan (1940). Occupied by the British in 1941.

Essen. Town of Prussia, Germany. Krupp's ordnance and engineering works. Heavily raided by Allied planes.

Eton. Town and urban district. Great Britain. Famous public school.

Fatehpur Sikri. A lone and deserted city, about twenty six miles from Agra. Built by Emperor Akbar in 1569 as a token of thanksgiving. Here lies the tomb of the Muslim Saint Salim Chisti who foretold the birth of a son to Akbar.

Fez. A muslim holy city in Morocco, North Africa. Chief residence of the Sultan. Has many fine mosques, and a University.

Flanders. A Belgian coastal territory near the German French border. Scene of severe fighting in (1914-18 and 1940).

Flodden. Village in Northumberland (England). Here in 1513 James IV of Scotland was defeated by the Earl of Surrey.

Florence. City of Italy. Wonderful buildings adorned with priceless works of art. One of the most interesting cities of the world. (p. 323,000).

Fontainebleau. A town of 35 m. from Paris, beautiful woodland and magnificent palace of old French kings.

Fontenoy. A village in Belgium. The English were defeated by the French here in 1745 during the War of Austrian Succession.

Formosa. Island off Chinese cost. Now the only last stronghold of the National Government.

Galilee. A division of Palestine where Christ preached.

Galipoli. Peninsula of South-east Europe. Part of the Turkish Republic. Figured in the Great War—"Gallipoli Campaign"—abortive attacks by the Allies with severe losses.

Geneva. City of Switzerland. In 1919 was the headquarter of the League of Nations (p. 124000.).

Gettysburg. Town of Pennsylvania, in U. S. A. Here in 1863, one of the decisive battles of the American Civil War was fought. Associated with Lincoln's famous speech.

Gibraltar. Fortress and town, situated on rock, extreme south of Spain. British naval base and fortifications. Great strategic value. "Key to the Mediterranean."

Gilgit. In Kashmir, commanding the passes of the Hindukush.

Glasgow. City and seaport of Scotland. Premier shipbuilding and manufacturing centre in Scotland (p. 1,088,000).

Gobi. Old name of the Steppes in Central Asia. A desert.

Godwin Austen. Highest peak (28,250 ft.) of the Karakoram Range. Also called K.

Golden Gate. Entrance to the bay of San Francisco, U. S. A.

Golden Horn. Peninsula on the Bosphorus, forming the harbour of Constantinople.

Gondwana. A vast undeveloped area in the Central Provinces, home of the Gond Kings in old days. Akbar reduced Gondwana after much trouble. Great deposits of coal.

Greenwich. Borough of London. Famous for its observatory from which standard time is reckoned. First meridian begins from here.

Gretna Green. Village on the Scottish border noted for runaway marriages.

Guadalcanal. Island of the Solomon Group in the Pacific, scene of American landing in 1942.

Guam. Island in the S. W. Pacific, U. S. A. naval base.

Hague, The. Capital city of Holland. Seat of International Court of Justice. Art galleries. (p. 450,000).

Haifa. Town and port in Palestine. Oil pipe line has been brought here from Iraq. (p. 120,000).

Haiti. A small Central American territory composed of two negro republics. Also called Hispanolia.

Hamburg. The largest port of Germany. Jute mills. (p. 1,072,000).

Hampi. is the site of the ruins of Vijayanagar, the ancient capital of the Vijayanagar Empire that fell to pieces on its defeat at Talikata in 1565—

Hanover. A town in South Germany. Jute milling (p. 434,000).

Harappa. Town in the Montgomery district., Pakistan Famous for its excavations.

Havana. Capital of Cuba, West Indies. Noted for its cigars. Columbus is buried here. (534,000),

Havre, Le. Seaport of France, at the mouth of River Seine. Immense trade (p. 165,000).

Hawaii. Islands in the centre of the Pacific. Call-place on the Japan-America sea route.

Hebrides. Group of Islands off the N. Coast of Scotland.

Helsingford. Capital and seaport of Finland. also called Helsinki. Subjected to severe bombardment by Russians in 1940, and again in 1943-44.

Herat. City of Afghanistan. Strongly fortified. Has been called the "Key of India."

Hiroshima. Seaport of Japan. First city to be destroyed by the atom bomb (Aug. 1945).

Hollywood. Town of California (U. S. A.). Chief centre of motion picture industry.

Hong Kong British Island off China and a piece of land on the opposite mainland called Kowloon. One of the largest ports of the world. Naval station strongly fortified. Air centre, under Japanese occupation during 1944-45.

Honolulu. Capital of Hawaiian Islands, Pacific Ocean. High strategic value. U. S. A. Possession.

Humpi. Contains the ruins of the Vijayanagar Kingdom.

Huron Lake. One of the five lakes of the Lawrence basin, between Canada and U. S. A. Great waterway.

Hwang Ho. A river of China subject to devastating floods. Called China's Sorrow. (Length 2,610 m.)

Hyde Park. A famous park of London with a garden, riding space, called "Rotten Row" and artificial lake for boating and bathing.

Imphal. A small town in the Manipur border state of India. It came into World News in the 2nd World War as the Japanese reached upto here from Burma.

Iron Gate. A great gorge in Rumania, through which the Danube Passes.

Ivory Coast. District of West Africa. Under France.

Jaffa. Seaport of Palestine. Captured from the Turks in 1917 by Australian and New Zealand troops.

Jamaica. A British Island in the West Indies, famous for its cane sugar and bananas. (4,207 sq. m.)

Jamshedpur. In the Singhbhum district of Bihar. Tata Iron and Steel Works.

Java. Islands of the Malaya Archipelago, Volcanic. Extremely fertile, rubber, sugar.

Jaxartes. On Syr Daria. Historic river of Asiatic Russia.

Jerusalem. City of Palestine. Holy city or City of Peace of Jews. Great historic associations. Scene of bloodshed in 1938 disturbances. (p. 164,440).

Jharia. A busy town in the coalfield of the same name in Bihar.

Jibuti. A port in French Somaliland, connected with Addis Ababa by railway.

Joginder Nagar. In Mandi State, Hydro-electric station.

Johannesburg. Town in Transvaal. South Africa. Gold mines (p. 258,000).

Jura. Mountain chain in France and Switzerland.

Jutland. Peninsula of Denmark. Infertile but now being extensively reclaimed. Scene of naval battle in May, 1916 which crippled the German navy.

Kalahari Desert. Great infertile scrub land of South Central Africa.

Kalgoorlie. A famous goldfield in Western Australia

Kamrup. A district in Assam, formerly an ancient Hindu Kingdom mentioned in the Mahabharat.

Kanchenjunga. World's third highest mountain situated in the Himalayas near the boundaries of Nepal and Sikkim. Highest peak, 28,150 feet.

Kandahar. City of Afghanistan. Commands a pass into Pakistan, a centre of the textile industries.

Kansas. City and state of U. S A. America's chief livestock centre.

Karakarams. Mountain chain along the northern part of Kashmir, north of the Indus.

Kasauli. Hill station in the Punjab, noted for its Pasteur Institute.

Khatmandu. Capital of Nepal State. A place of pilgrimage (p. 80,000).

Kensington. Suburb of London ; Kensington Place and Gardens.

Kerbela. In Iraq. A place of pilgrimage of the Shia Moslems.

Khaibar or Khyber. Famous Mountain pass between Pakistan and Afghanistan.

Khajuraho. About twenty six miles from the ancient town of Mahoba lies Khajuraho in Chhattarpur State, famous for its temple built between 950 and 1050 A. D.

Khartoum. Capital of Anglo-Egyptian Sudan, at union of White Nile and Blue Nile. Associated with General Gordon who died here and Lord Kitchener who conquered it in 1898.

Kiel. Town and seaport of Germany. Located at one end of the Kiel Canal. An important German waterway. Before

the Great War it was the Headquarter of the German fleet. Frequently bombed during the war (1939—45).

Kilima-Njaro. Highest volcanic mountain of Africa (19,600 ft.)

Kimberley. Town of South Africa. Centre of diamond mining District.

Kolar. Gold mining centre of Mysore State, India.

Konarak. A small town lying 20 miles North of Puri in Orissa along the sea coast, famed for its Black Pagoda dedicated to the Sun god.

Kuala Lumpur. Capital and chief town of the former Federated Malaya States.

Kurile Isles. A chain of small rocky islands in North Pacific belonging to Russia.

Kuro Siwo. A warm current of the Pacific, warming Japan.

Labrador. Peninsula in E. Canada. Fisheries.

Laccadives. Coral islands in the Arabian Sea, off Malabar coast.

Ladakh. Province of the Upper Indus, Kashmir, India. Great trading centre. The most elevated inhabited country of the world (Capital Leh.).

Ladoga. Largest Russian Lake.

Lake District. Mountainous district, (Cumberland and Westmoreland), noted for its beautiful scenery. Associated with "Lake School of Poets" (Wordsworth, Coleridge and Southey).

Land's End. Extreme South-west point of Cornwall England, on the Atlantic.

Lashio. Town in Burma. Rail-head of the famous Burma Road. Recaptured by the Chinese from the Japanese in 1944-45.

La Plata. River of Argentina, with a fine estuary.

Lausanne. City near Lake Geneva, Switzerland. Has a University and is a health resort.

Lebanon. A republic along the eastern Mediterranean. Beautiful mountain scenery.

Leeds. City in England noted for woollen manufacture. Has a university (p. 500,000).

Leghorn. Italian province and city on the Mediterranean, has university (p. 500,000).

Leipzig. Manufacturing town of Germany. Jute mills (p. 702,500).

Leningrad. City and seaport of Russia. Eventful history. Formerly called St. Petersburg. Successfully resisted German attacks throughout 1941, 1942 and 1943.

Lhasa. "Forbidden" city of Tibet, and its capital. The city of monasteries (p. 50,000).

Libya. A desert country in N. Africa. Formerly Tripoli. Recently formed into an independent monarchy.

Liege. A Belgian town on the Meuse. Coal, railway works (p. 162,000).

Lille. A French town on Belgian border. Centre of coal mining. Iron, steel, machinery and textile works.

Lisbon. Capital and seaport of Portugal. Pleasing climate. Financial centre of the Republic (p. 600,000).

Lithuania. Small Baltic state. Joined U. S. S. R. in July 1940. Occupied by the Germans in 1941. Re-occupied by the Russians in 1944.

Little Russia. A part of the Ukraine (80,216 sq. m.)

Liverpool. One of the busiest port of England. Exports cotton textiles (p. 855,500).

Locarno. Swiss resort near Italian frontier. Scene of International Conference, 1925.

Lombardy. District of Italy. Very fertile and with much beautiful scenery (9,190. sq. m.)

Long Island. Part of the New York State, thickly populated. Having many popular holiday resorts.

Los Angeles. City of California, U. S. A. World famous film producing centre. Rich oil deposits (p. 1,300,000).

Luxemburg. A small principality to the south of Belgium ruled over by a Duchess. Captured by Germany in 1940. Liberated in 1944.

Lyons. City of France. One of the greatest centres of silk industry. Strong fortification, (p. 608,700)

Madagascar. A big island of South Africa. Rubber hides and skins. Occupied by the Allies in 1942.

Madeira. Island (Portuguese) off the north-west coast of Africa.

Madrid. Capital of Spain. Remained under siege for 2½ years during the Spanish Civil War. Scene of bloody revolutions.

Maelstrom. A whirlpool off the N. W. coast of Norway.

Magellan, Strait of. Between Tierra del Fuego and south of South America.

Mahabaleswar. Town and health resort. Western Ghats, Bombay (alt. 4,500).

Malta. Island in the Mediterranean. Strongly fortified, arsenal, dockyard, military station. Great strategic importance.

Malacca, Strait of. Separates Sumatra from the Malaya Peninsula.
Maldivian Islands. Group of coral islands in the Indian ocean, 400 miles from Ceylon.

Manchester. City of Lancashire, England. One of the world's greatest manufacturing centres. Cotton goods.

Mandalay. City of Burma. Formerly capital of the Kingdom. Numerous Pagodas. Scene of heavy fighting in 1944-45.

Manila. Capital and seaport of the Philippine Islands. Fortified. Recaptured by the Americans in 1944.

Marathon. Plain of Greece. Famous for the battle fought here in 490 B. C. Greece victory over Persian hosts.

Marseilles. City and seaport of France. Halting place on the Suez route to Europe. International conferences.

Marshall Islands. A group of island in N. Pacific (150 sq. m.), scene of naval warfare between the Japanese and the Americans in 1943.

Mauna Loa. Famous volcano of the Hawaiian Islands in the Pacific Ocean.

Melbourne. Capital city of Victoria, Australia. Second largest city in the continent. Great industrial importance (p. 1,008,000).

Memel. Territory and seaport of Lithuania. Seized by Germany. March 1939.

Mersa Metruta. Town on the Mediterranean coast of Egypt. Formed base of British operations during General Wavell's campaign against the Italians at the close of 1940 and early in 1941.

Mesopotamia. Area irrigated by the Euphrates and the Tigris. Ancient Assyrian and Babylonian civilizations flourished here. Now forms part of Iraq.

Milan. Second largest city of Italy. Many artistic buildings, art galleries and cathedrals. Silk manufacturing centre (p. 1,116,000).

Missolonghi. Town in Greece on the Gulf of Patras, Byron died here in 1824.

Mohenjodaro. Site of excavations in Sind, Pakistan. Notable monuments of ancient Indian civilization.

Montreal. Largest city of Canada. Numerous cotton, leather and timber factories (p. 818,570),

Morocco. State of North Africa, now a French Protectorate. Noted for leather manufactures.

Mozambique. Portuguese colony of East Africa (297,700 sq. m.)

Mosul. City of Iraq, occupied by the British in 1918 and in 1941. Rich in oil.

Munich. City of Germany. Famous for lenses and picture galleries. The scene of Munich Pact (1939) which dismembered Czechoslovakia. Frequently raided by Allied bombers (p. 726,600).

Nalanda. In Bihar. Once a famous Buddhist University town that flourished from the fifth to the 12th century.

Nanga Parbat. One of the highest mountain peak of the Commonwealth. In Kashmir (alt. 26,620 ft.).

Nanking. Situated on the Yangtse river. China's cultural centre. Manufactures Silk goods, textiles and machinery. There is a University.

Nantes. A French town on the Loire. Historical associations. Shipbuilding industry. Occupied by Germans (1940). Liberated in 1944.

Naples. City and seaport of Italy. Beautiful scenery. Situated near the base of Vesuvius and the ruins of Pompeii. Occupied by the Allies 1943 (p. 865,000).

New York. Largest city in N. Y. State, U. S. A. and the Western hemisphere. Richest city in the world. Sky scrapers (p. 10,901,400).

Niagara Falls. Largest in the world. Partly in Canada and partly in the U. S. A. (167 ft.).

Nile River. The Longest river in Africa, flows through a longer stretch of basin than any other river in the world. Egypt is "Gift of the Nile" (length 4,000 m.)

Nilgiri Hills. Mountain range in Madras, India. Tea plantations.

Nineveh. Ancient capital city of Assyria, with great Biblical and historical associations. Its site was great modern Mosul.

Normandy. Province of France in English Channel. The Allies landed here in 1944.

Nuremberg. City of Bavaria. Scene of German Nazi rally in recent times (p. 410,700). Here was held the famous trial of the Nazi War criminals.

Nyassa. Lake of Africa. The largest in the continent (11,000 sq. m.)

Oceania. Name given to the islands of the Pacific; divided usually into Australia, Malaysia, Polynesia, Melanesia and Micronesia.

Odyessa. Seaport of the Ukraine on the Black Sea. Captured by the German forces in 1918, taken by the Bolsheviks in 1920. Wheat export. Seized by the Germans in 1941. Re-captured by Russians in April 1944.

Olives, Mount of. Hill near Jerusalem. Celebrated in the Bible.

Onega. Lake of Russia, largest in Europe except only Ladoga (area 3765 sq. m.).

Orange Free State. Province of the Union of South Africa.

Orinoco. An important river of South America flowing through Venezuela (1,480 m.).

Orkneys. Group of 67 Islands lying N. of the Scottish mainland.

Orleans. City on the Loure in France, trading centre for wine, brandy and woollen goods.

Oslo. Capital city of Norway. Picturesque situation. Danish name of Christiania was changed to Oslo in 1925 in deference to a national sentiment (p. 253,000).

Ostend. Seaport and watering place of Belgium. Passenger route between Britain and continent of Europe. Used by the Germans in 1914-18 as submarine base.

Ottawa. Capital of the Dominion of Canada. Large timber trade. Venue of Imperial Economic Conference, 1932 (p. 126,870).

Palitana. Capital of the state of Palitana Kathiawar, famous for the holy Satrunjaya hill, the most sacred of the five hills of the Jains. As many as 863 Jain temples stand on it.

Pamirs. A great plateau in Central Asia (alt. 13,600 ft.), called the "Roof of the World".

Pampas. Open grassy plain of South America.

Panama. Town of Central American Republic. Near the Pacific terminus of the famous Panama Canal.

Panth Piploda. In Madhya Pradesh, famous for old excavations.

Patagonia. A desert region in the south of Argentine Republic.

Pegu. A Burmese town and rice-collecting centre.

Peiping Peking. Former capital of China. Now the capital of the People's Republic of Communist China.

Plassey. Village on the Ganga in Bengal. Here Clive defeated Sirajud-daula, the Nawab of Bengal in 1757 and laid the foundation of the British Empire in India.

Plymouth. Seaport and dockyard town of South England. Shipbuilding, heavily bombed by the Germans during World War II (p. 208,100).

Pompeii. Ruined city of Italy at the foot of Vesuvius, 13 miles from Naples.

Popocatepetl. Active volcano in Mexico.

Porbundar. Port in Saurashtra, well known as the birth place of Mahatma Gandhi.

Port Arthur. Port of Kwang-tung Peninsula (Manchukuo).

Port Blair. Andaman Islands, Bay of Bengal. Former Penal settlement for Indian convicts.

Port Morseby. Small town and Govt. Headquarters in British New Guinea on the S. E. Coast. The Australian and Americans launched their offensive against the Japanese in 1942 from here.

Port Said. Seaport of Egypt at the end of the Suez Canal (p. 105,000).

Portsmouth. Seaport and naval station of England. Portsmouth dockyards extend over 500 acres (p. 250,000).

Potsdam. German Town. Furniture, sugar and chemical works.

Prague. Capital of Czechoslovakia. Extensive river traffic and industries. Gothic Cathedral (p. 480,000.)

Pretoria. Capital of Transvaal South Africa. Seat of the Govt. of the Union of South Africa.

Pyrenees. Range of Mountains in S.W. Europe dividing France from Spain.

Quebec. City and seaport of the province of Quebec, Canada. Fine harbour. Pulp manufacture. Associated with the memory of Wolfe (1759).

Queensland. State of N. E. Australia. Vast grassy plains. The "Never, never, land"

Rajghat. Samadhi of Mahatma Gandhi in Delhi on the bank of the Jamuna.

Rameshwaram. Holy Town built on an island in Palk Straits, contains one of the India's most venerated temples.

Rangoon. Capital and principal seaport of Burma. Contains the central shrines of Burmese religion—the Suay Dragon Pagoda. Exports rice. Freed from Japanese occupation in 1945 (p. 400,000).

Raniganj. Famous for coal mines in Bengal, India.

Rann, The. A low-lying stretch of land along the Gulf of Cutch subject to inroad by the sea.

Razmak. In N.W. frontier Province, near Bannu (Pakistan). A military station.

Red Sea. Arm of the sea joining the Arabian with the Mediterranean Sea through Suez Canal route to the East. High strategic importance.

Reims. Heart of French Agricultural region. Champagne manufacture. Scene of severe fighting in the Great War and devastating bombardment in 1940.

Rhine, River. One of the chief waterways of Europe. Forms a frontier between Germany and France. Crosses important manufacturing areas (800 m.)

Riga. Seaport and the capital of Latvia. Received set back after the economic collapse of the country following the War. Occupied by Germany 1917-19.

Rio de Janeiro. Capital of Brazil and seaport. Coffee plantations. Numerous industries (1,729,800.)

Rocky Mountains. Extensive chain in North America. Watershed of the American continent.

Roorkee. Town of Uttar Pradesh. Site of the Roorkee Engineering College now converted into a university.

Rostov. City on the Don, U.S.S.R. A great grain market and industrial centre. Re-occupied by Russians in 1943 after the German retreat.

Rotterdam. A large town and the largest port of Holland. Is nearest trade route between England and Germany. Freed from German occupation in 1945 (5,84,000.)

Rubicon. River in Central Italy crossed by Caesar before war with Pómpay. Crossing the Rubicon, now means that one is committed to an enterprise.

Rugby. Town in Warwickshire. Seat of famous English School.

Ruhr. River of Germany. Flows through a great industrial district (of the same name), containing many iron and steel manufacturing centre.

Runymede. Meadow on River Thames, England. Here King John was forced to sign Magna Carta in 1225.

Saar. River and name of a district in W. Germany. *Saar basin* is a name given to a coal basin along the river's course. It went to Germany in 1935, as a result of a plebiscite. Re-occupied by the French in 1945, but now a part of Germany.

Sabarmati. Near Ahmedabad and famous as the seat of the Ashram of Mahatma Gandhi.

Saigon. Capital of French Indo-China (p. 125,000).

St. Gotthard. A high pass (alt. 67,867) in the Switzerland Alps. A big railway tunnel joins Basle and Milan.

St. Helena. Island in the Atlantic Ocean. Napoleon was kept imprisoned here, 1815-21.

St. Lawrence. River and gulf of N. America. One of the world's greatest waterways. Closed by ice in winter. Length of the River 2,100 miles.

Salamis. Island of Greece. Here the famous Battle of Salamis was fought between Greeks and the Persians, 480 B.C.

Salisbury. City and county of England. Famous for its cathedral, built in 13th century, one of the finest Gothic buildings in existence.

Sanchi. A village in Bhopal State. Has the largest and best preserved Buddhist *stupa* in India (103 ft. in diameter and 42 ft. high).

Sandhurst. Site of a famous college for military training in England.

San Francisco. Seaport and city of California. Chief port of the U. S. A. on the Pacific coast. The way to it is called the "Golden Gate" (p. 635,000). In 1945 seat of a great International Conference.

Santa Fe. City and capital of New Mexico, U. S. A. Contains the oldest Christian edifice in the U.S.A.

Santiago. City and capital of Chile, Pacific terminus of the Transcontinental rail from Valparaiso.

Sarnath. Near Banaras known for Buddhist temples and remains.

Sargasso sea. Section of Atlantic Ocean. Distinguished by masses of brown sea-weed which are hindrance to navigation. For long had evil reputation.

Scapa Flow. A small almost land-locked sea in the Orkneys, in the north of Scotland. Scene of the surrender of the German fleet in 1919. Most important British Naval Base.

Scutari. On the Bosphorus facing Constantinople. Figured in the Crimean War (p. 130,000).

Sebastopol. Fortified sea-port in Crimea. Siege of Sebastopol 1855 during the Crimean War. Besieged by the Germans, 1942-43.

Senar Dam. A big dam across the Nile near Khartoum which irrigates vast areas to the south.

Seringapatam. City of Mysore, India. Famous for its shrine of Vishnu, fortress, and Hyder Ali's mausoleum.

Sevagram. A village near Wardha where Mahatma Gandhi lived.

Seville. City and province of Spain. Wonderful Moorish monuments. Its history dates back to Phoenician times about 2500 years back.

Shanghai. Largest sea-port of China, the most important of the Treaty Ports.

Shantiniketan. or "The Abode of Peace," contains the Viswa-bharati University founded by Rabindra Nath Tagore.

Sheffield. Industrial city in England, cutlery and steel manufacture (p. 512,000).

Shillong. Town of Assam. Gurkha cantonment. Health resort.

Shiraz. City of Persia. Birth-place of poets Sa'adi and Hafiz. Famed for wine (p. 120,000).

Sidi Barani. Egyptian town on the shore of the Mediterranean. Occupied by the Italians in September 1940. Re-captured by the British after heavy fighting in December 1940.

Sikandra. Place five miles from Agra containing the Tomb of Akbar, a five storied building constructed of red sandstone and white marble.

Si-Kiang. Chinese river near the mouth of which lie Canton and Hongkong. Great rice producing area.

Sikkim. State adjoining Tibet, Nepal and Bhutan. (2,745 sq. m.).

Simplon. Mountain of Switzerland. Contains the famous pass traversed by Napoleon. Big railway tunnel.

Sindri. Town situated about 18 miles west of Dhanbad in which the great Sindri Fertilizer factory—the biggest of its kind in Asia—has been set up.

Singapore. Island and seaport of the Straits Settlement. Naval station of greatest strategic importance. Here is a dockyard which is recently constructed. Captured by the Japanese in 1942 (p. 940,756).

Smyrna. An ancient city in Asia Minor, for some time under Greece. Occupied by Turkey in 1922, (p. 185,000).

Sparta. City in Greece, also the name of an ancient kingdom famous in ancient history.

Spitzbergen. A group of islands belonging to Norway in the Arctic Ocean.

Stalingrad. Manufacturing city on the Volga, U. S. S. R. Tractor works. Scene of heroic resistance during 2nd World War. The biggest German defeat with the loss of nearly 300,000 men in 1942.

Stockholm. Capital of Sweden. Venice of the North. Also "Queen of the Baltic" for the beautiful surroundings.

Stonehenge. A group of monuments in Wiltshire in England which used to be a place of worship of the ancient Druids. Described by Hardy in *Tess*.

Stratford-on-Avon. Town of England. Birthplace of Shakespeare.

Suez. Gulf at the northern end of the Red Sea between Egypt and Sinai peninsula. Town at the South entrance of the Suez Canal.

Sulaiman Mountains. Range between Baluchistan and W. Puniab.

Sunderbans. Part of Gangetic Delta in Bengal covered with forests and swamps on an area of about 150 miles. Home of the Bengal tiger.

Superior Lake. Largest fresh water lake in the world, between Canada and U. S. A.

Taxila. Town in N. W. Punjab. Famous for the excavations by Sir John Marshall. Old seat of Buddhist culture.

Tel-aviv. Manufacturing city in Palestine built up by Jewish enterprise (p. 200,000).

Texas. State of U. S. A. Largest cotton-producing region in the world.

Thar, The. A desert in India, part of which lies in Rajasthan, and part in Sind.

Thebes. Ancient town in Egypt. Was its first capital.

Thousands Isles. Lake between New York State and Canada.

Tobruk. The finest natural harbour on the North African coast in Libya, was captured by British forces in February, 1941.

Tokyo. Capital of Japan. Immense commercial centre (p. 6,274,000). Bombed by the Americans in 1942. Greatly damaged by Super-fortress raids.

Toronto. City in Ontario, Canada. Harbour and University (p. 676,887).

Toulon. A French port and naval base near Marseilles. Italian attack (1940).

Tripoli. A historical seaport famous for carpets, morocco leather etc.

Trivandrum. Capital of Travancore State, India. Wood carving.

Trondheim. Seaport on west coast of Norway. Exports timber and wood pulp. Theatre of war operations in April-May, 1940.

Tuticorin. The southernmost terminus of the South Indian Railway. Chief Madras port for Ceylon trade.

Ukraine. Republic of Russia. Great wheat growing district. Scene of many bloody battles between the Germans and Russians (1941-44).

Uri. A small village in Kashmir, on the road from Kohala to Baramula where the Pakistani forces face the Indian Union forces at the cease fire line.

Vulparaiso. City and seaport of South America. Most important port on the Pacific coast of the continent.

Vancouver. Island and port of British Columbia (Canada). Busy trans-Pacific Trade.

Verkhoyansk. The coldest place in the world. (Siberia).

Venice. Seaport of Italy. Numerous famous buildings. Here canals are the main thoroughfares (p. 170,830).

Versailles. French town. Famous for its royal palace. Here was signed the Treaty of Versailles. 1919.

Vesuvius. Famous active volcano of Southern Italy.

Victoria Falls. A big fall of the Zambezi river in Rhodesia (South Africa), 400 ft. in height.

Vienna. Capital of Austria, Germany. Art Galleries. Ringe Strasse supposed to be the most handsome street in the world (p. 1,667,438).

Vichy. Seat of Petain Government under German inspiration, of that portion of France which was not occupied by Germans (1940-44).

Vimy Ridge. A hillock north of Arras (France). In April 1917, the Canadians secured a splendid victory over the Germans after heroic fighting. A Vimy Ridge memorial was erected to the fallen Canadians in 1939.

Virginia. A U.S.A. State known for its tobacco and mineral waters.

Vladivostok. Chief port of U.S.S.R. and naval station on the Pacific. "Dagger into the heart of the Japanese Empire," (p. 206,000).

Volga. A Russian navigable river falling in the Caspian Sea.

Wardha. Town in M. P. Mahatma Gandhi usually resided here. The Wardha scheme of education.

Warsaw. Capital of Poland. Large Jewish colony. Important wool manufactures. Liberated from the Germans in 1944.

Waterloo. Village of Belgium. Here Napoleon was finally defeated, 1815.

Wei-hai-Wei. Former British naval station on the Shantung Peninsula, China.

Westminster. City and borough of London. Houses of Parliament, St. James and Buckingham Palaces.

Westphalia. The territory of Ruhr Basin in Germany. Rich coal-fields and industrial region.

Wimbledon. Borough of Surrey, England. Famous for its lawn tennis grounds where international matches are held.

Windsor. District of Great Britain. Gives its name to the Windsor Castle. The chief residence of the British Sovereign.

Winnipeg. Lake of Canada. Also the most important town in the heart of Canadian Prairies; wheat and cattle centre.

Witwatersrand. Gold-mining district of Transvaal, South Africa. Generally known as The Rand.

Yarkand. Principal town of Chinese province of Sin-Kiang.
Formerly capital of a Mohammedan State, Chinese Turkistan.

Yokohama. The largest port of Japan. Also a manufacturing town. Entirely destroyed by fire and earthquake in 1923.
Now again assuming importance (p. 661,000).

Ypres. Town of Belgium. There were three *Battles of Ypres* during the Great War (1914—18).

Zambesi. A South African river falling in the Indian Ocean (length 2,200 m.).

Zanzibar. Island and seaport of East Africa. Chief products are clove and other spices.

Zuider Zee. A shallow Bay near Holland. A greater dam has been constructed across its outlet for reclaiming it.

Zululand. British Protectorate in South East Africa.

Zurich. Most populous and important town of Switzerland (p. 333,829).

CLIMATIC REGIONS OF THE WORLD

1. Arctic or Cold Desert Regions

Comprise extreme parts of Asia, North America and Europe within the North frigid zone.

Frost prevails for about eight months in the year, and there is little snow but no rain.

Vegetation includes moss and lichen ; while during the short summer in some parts brilliant flowers burst into life. Animals are reindeer, white bear, seal, whale, dogs.

2. Cold Temperate Regions

Comprise areas in Canada, Scandinavia, Finland and Soviet Russia. Typical towns are *Ottawa* (Canada), *Yaktusk* (Siberia), *Verkhoyansk* (Siberia), *Trondheim* (Norway).

Precipitation is slight, rainfall below 20 inches and occurring in summer. Extremely low temperature is the rule.

Pine, fir, hemlock, and birch form the typical coniferous forests of this region. Lumbering is an important industry in Eastern Canada, Scandinavia and the Baltic States.

Fauna are wolf, stoat and fur-bearing animals e.g., ermine, and badger.

Hardier cereals are grown in Finland and North Russia.

3. Cool Temperate Regions

(i) *Western Margins* comprise N. W. Europe, Western Canada, Southern Chile, Tasmania, and South Island of New Zealand. Typical towns are *London*, *Hokitikai* (New Zealand), *Paris*, *Kamloops* (British Columbia).

Fairly good rainfall all the year round with cool summers and moderate winters, due to oceanic influences.

Wheat, barley, oat, potato, flax, pears, apples and strawberries form characteristic vegetable products. These are lands of deciduous forests, which shed leaves in winter, such as oak, elm, beech, birch, and maple.

Cattle, sheep, and goats constitute the chief animals.

The great prosperity of these regions is due to the existence of extensive minerals.

(ii) *Eastern Margins* comprise Eastern Canada, North Eastern U. S. A. and Eastern Siberia. Typical towns are *Vladivostok* (Siberia), *New York*, *Tokyo*, *Halifax* (Nova Scotia).

Rainfall is ample but not abundant. Winters are colder and summers warmer than western margins.

Oat and barley with sparse cultivation of wheat, and plenty of rice in East Asia are the chief crops. Natural vegetation is mixed coniferous and deciduous. Mixed farming, lumbering and fishing are important occupations. Considerable industrialisation has taken place in East Canada and Japan.

Fauna include cattle, sheep and goats.

(iii) *Interior Lowlands* comprise central regions of North America and Eurasia, Manchuria, and Mongolia. Important towns are *Winnipeg* (Canada), *Odessa* (Ukraine), *Barnaul* (West Siberia).

The region is marked by a low rainfall and extremes of temperature, winters being long and severe, summers very hot. It is the "continental" or temperate grassland" type of climate.

Flora include extensive grasslands. Fauna of the region are cattle, sheep, and goats. The regions form the granaries of the world.

4. Mediterranean (Winter Rain) Region

Comprises the lands round the Mediterranean, e. g., Spain, Portugal, Italy, Greece, Southern France, Western coasts of Asia Minor, Syria, Palestine, and Western parts of other continents, in similar latitudes, such as California, Central Chile, Cape Province, Southern parts of Australia, Victoria. Typical towns are *Algiers* (Algeria), *Rome*, *Naples*, *Marseilles*, *San-Francisco* (California), *Perth* (Western Australia), *Marseilles*.

The characteristic climate is hot, dry summers and warm, wet winters.

Vegetable products include grape, lemon, orange, olive, cork, mulberry, wheat, barley, tobacco.

Animals of the region are cattle and sheep.

5. Eastern Marginal Lands

Comprise China, Eastern U. S. A., New South Wales and Victoria (Australia), parts of Brazil (south east) and the River Plate region of South America. A few typical towns are *Sydney* (Australia), *Durban* (Natal), *Montevideo* (Uruguay), *Savanna* (U. S. A.) and *Shanghai* (China).

Climate is of the temperate monsoon type—rainfall in summer, mild winters, but extremes of temperature are greater. In north China snow falls nearest to the Equator.

Vegetable products include rice, cotton, tea, sugar, opium, tobacco, cinchona, camphor and trees as pine, sycamore, cypress, and mulberry.

Cattle and sheep are main fauna.

6. Monsoon (Summer Rain) Region

Comprises India, Burma, Siam, Indo-China, and Southern China, while West Indies, Madagascar, parts of Australia, and East Indies also experience monsoonal effects. Typical towns of the region include *Bombay*, *Calcutta*, *Patna*, *Mozambique* (East Africa), *Darwin* (Australia).

Climate is dry in spring, hot and wet in summer and cool in winter. Rain falls during summer, winters being comparatively dry excepting in a few notable cases like Madras and Northern India. Rainfall varies from 500 inches a year in the Assam hills to 20 inches in the Punjab.

Vegetable products include rice, cotton, tea, wheat, mulberry, teak ebony, tobacco.

The regions are densely populated except Burma, Siam and Indo-china.

Animals include elephant, lion, tiger, monkey, snake, cattle.

7. Hot Desert Region

Comprises Arabia, Iran, Thar, Sahara, Kalahari, Lower California, Atacama, Southern Peru and Northern Chile and Western Australia. Typical towns include *Mocha* (Arabia), *Iquique* (Chile), *Walfish Bay* (South West Africa), *Aswan* (Egypt).

Rainfall is practically negligible and range of temperature is exceptionally high, not only in the course of the year but also during 24 hours. Climate is very hot and dry.

Vegetation includes date palm, thorny bushes, acacia.

Irrigated rice, maize and millets are produced in some places.

Fauna include camel, ostrich, goat, donkey.

Nitrate deposits are found in Chile and gold in Western Australia.

8. Savannah Region

Comprises Venezuela, part of Brazil, Sudan, Tonganyika, Kenya Colony, Rhodesia, Queensland. Typical towns are *Kuka* (Nigeria), (*Khartoum*) (Sudan), *Tabora* (Tanganyika), *Bulawayo* (Rhodesia), *Rio de Janeiro* (Brazil) and *Daly Waters* (North Australia).

Climate is one of hot, wet summers, and warm, dry winters. Rainfall varies between the heavy precipitation of the equatorial regions and the rainlessness of deserts.

The natural vegetation is grass. The chief crops are millets, maize, sugarcane, cotton.

9. Equatorial Region

Comprises the Amazon Valley, the Congo Valley, Upper Guinea Coasts, the Malaya Peninsula and the East Indies. Typical towns are *Singapore* (Malaya), *Lagos* (West Africa), *Manaos* (Brazil), *Equatorville* (Belgian Congo), *Batavia* (East Indies).

Rainfall is heavy and constant, climate hot and damp throughout the year. Temperature is almost uniformly high.

Natural vegetation and cultivated crops include rubber, mahogany, teak, logwood, palm, coconut, banana, sugar-cane, rice, cocoa, sago, and general dense vegetable growth.

Animals are elephant, rhinoceros, monkey, snake, alligator, lizard.

INTERESTING GEOGRAPHICAL AND ASTRONOMICAL DATA.

1. The Solar System

The sun and the planets form the Solar System. The outermost limit of their system is about 5,000,000,000 miles from the sun. The sun gives light and heat to all planets which are more or less spherical bodies, revolving round the sun in elliptical orbits and possessing a movement in rotation. The planets are non-luminous but shine by the reflected light.

The Sun

The sun is a rotating, almost round body of fiery gaseous matter, nearly 333·422 times larger than the earth and is about 92·8 million miles far from the earth. It is 860,000 miles in diameter (about 109 times the earth's diameter). By the force of its gravitational attraction, the sun keeps the planets in their regular orbits and pulls them with it through space at the rate of 12 miles per second.

The light of the sun reaches the earth in about 499 seconds. The average solar temperature is about 12,000°F.

The Moon

It is 238,860 miles away from the earth and in surface it is 14,567,000 sq. miles. Its diameter is about 2159·9 miles.

It completes a circuit round the earth of which it is the only satellite in about 27 days and 7 hours and 43 minutes but on account of its motion in common with the earth round the sun, the duration of the lunar month is 29 days, 12 hours, 44 minutes. It shines by the reflected light of the sun. Along with the sun it causes ocean tides on the earth by the force of gravity.

The Planets

These are Mercury, Venus, Mars, Jupiter, Saturn, Uranus, Neptune, Pluto (discovered in 1930) and the Earth. Jupiter is the largest of the Planets and Mercury the smallest. Planets revolve round the sun. Besides the planets, there are a large number of minor planets called Asteroids which are invisible to the naked eye,

The Stars

The stars are luminous heavenly bodies, which, unlike the planets shine by their own light. They are so far distant from the solar system that the light from the nearest star takes about four years to reach the earth at the enormous speed of 186,000 miles per second. Popular notion is that only the planets move, and that the stars remain motionless where they are. This is a wrong notion, for they are all moving at speeds varying from 10 to 100 miles per second; some revolve around others, forming what are called double stars though they appear single to the naked eye. They are about one third to three times the mass of the sun, but the star called Betelgeuse is so big that it has a mass nearly a hundred times that of the sun.

Recent estimate is that there are about 1,600,000,000 stars out of which 7,000 stars are visible to the eye, and about 70,000,000 through the telescope.

	<i>Mean distance millions of miles from Sun.</i>	<i>Mean diameter in miles</i>	<i>Revolves round the sun in</i>
Sun		886,392	
Mercury	36.0	3,000	88 days.
Venus	67.0	7,600	224 ³ "
Earth	92.9	7,927	365 ¹ "
Mars	141.6	4,200	687 "
Jupiter	483.3	88,700	12 years
Saturn	886.0	75,100	29.5 "
Uranus	1,782.8	30,900	84 "
Neptune	2,793.5	33,000	164.8 "
Pluto	3,700.0	3,750	248 "
Asteroids ...	{ 193.0 to 394.0 }	485 and less	

Note. In one of the lectures delivered at Delhi University in January, 1947, Sir Harold Spencer Jones, Astronomer Royal of England said, "There are probably a thousand million separate universes each containing perhaps something like one hundred thousand stars and many more beyond our range of vision."

II. OTHER ASTRONOMICAL INFORMATION

Constellations

Groups of stars are known as constellations. There are as many as 85 constellations known to astronomers. Among them we may mention Great Bear (Ursa Major), the Little Bear (Ursa Minor), Orion, Cassiopeia, Andromeda, Gemini (the Twins), Perseus, Taurus (the Bull), Hercules, Bootes (the Plowman), Aries (the Ram), Cancer (the Crab), Leo (the Lion), Virgo (the Virgin), Libra (the Scales), Scorpio (the Scorpion), Aquarius (the Water Carrier), Sagittarius (the Archer), Capricornus (the Goat), and Pisces etc. etc.

The Milky Way

A long and luminous track consisting of gaseous matter with small stars seen on dark nights along the middle of the sky.

Nebulae

Luminous masses of gaseous matter seen through the telescope, either spiral or chaotic in form. Sir William Herschel and Laplace believe that the solar system was built by the condensation of nebulous matter into solid masses which became the sun and the planets. This is known as *The Nebular Theory of the Universe*. The Theory was elaborated and modified by the late Sir James Jeans.

Comets

Comets are luminous bodies moving round the Sun in highly eccentric orbits. Usually a Comet contains a nucleus, an enveloping haze and a long, thin tail. Some comets cover millions of miles. The appearance of those which move in elliptical orbits can be accurately predicted. The most famous of these is the Halley's comet, which was last seen in 1910 and will reappear in 1985.

Meteors

They are small pieces of solid matter usually containing iron, chromium, nickel and magnesium which shoot through the earth's atmosphere leaving a luminous trail behind. They are also known as 'shooting stars', although they are not really stars. Many fall on the earth.

Satellites

These are secondary celestial bodies which revolve round the planets just as the latter revolve round the Sun. Excepting Mercury and Venus all the other planets have their satellites. The Moon is the satellite of the Earth.

III. THE WORLD WE LIVE IN

The Earth we live in is believed by scientists to have been once a gaseous mass, which, in the course of countless centuries has cooled down into its present shape, which in shape may be likened to an orange, whose top and bottom, opposite to each other, are two poles. These poles, if the earth were viewed from a great distance are flatter than the rest of its body. The high mountains and the deep oceans are comparatively no more to the earth than are the depressions on an orange when we visualize the fact that the axis of the earth from its surface to its centre is nearly seven thousand miles in length. The earth rotates on its axis once every 24 hours and revolves round the sun once in 365 $\frac{1}{4}$ days. Nearly two third of the surface of the earth is covered by water, the other by land.

Surrounding the earth is the atmosphere, composed mainly of nitrogen and oxygen, which is believed to extend to about 150 miles, and is held by the force of gravity. Although the average temperature on the surface is about 39 degrees Fahrenheit, the centre of the earth is extremely hot, consisting as it does of molten lava and gaseous matter, which finds its vent through the volcanoes which dot the earth, and due to which also we have hot springs like those in Iceland etc.

Races of the World

1. *The Caucasian* (other than Semitic) or Indo-European Aryan Race (white to dark brown). It consists of the Afghans, Hindus, Persians, Europeans etc. It also includes the descendants of Europeans in America, Australia and South Africa. Peoples of this race have wavy hair, the section under microscope being oval. 725,000,000.

2. *The Mongolian* (yellow). Members of this race have straight hair with circular section under microscope, oblique eyes, high cheek bones. It consists of the Burmese, Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Siamese, and Tibetans, Laplanders, Finns, Magyars (Hungary) Tartars, Turks and many Russians. 680,000,000.

3. *The Malayan* or Indonesian, a variety of the Mongolian race. (Oblique eyes, high cheek bones, brown). Natives of Malaya, Polynesia, Philippines, Madagascar. 104,500,000.

4.	<i>The Negroes.</i> (Wooly hair and dark skin), Natives of Africa, South of the Sahara.	210,000,000.
5.	<i>The Semitic.</i> (Curly hair, hooked nose)—The Jews, Armenians, Arabs, etc.	100,000,000.
6.	<i>Red Indians</i> (Copper coloured). Natives of America.	30,000,000.

MANKIND

- Afrixi.* Asiatic Turks on the Indian frontier. Notorious for raids.
- Akka.* Pygmies of Central Africa. Large heads, with height between 4 and 5ft.
- Anthrophagi.* Cannibals round Caspian sea. Mentioned by ancient writers only.
- Bagirmi.* People South of Lake Tchad, Africa.
- Bantu.* Negroes of South Africa.
- Basque.* Race of Northern Spain, vigorous and extremely independent. Their autonomy was destroyed by General Franco in the last Spanish Civil War.
- Bedouin.* Nomadic tribe of Arabia. Found in Iraq as well as parts of Africa.
- Berber.* White race of North Africa. Mostly Muslims.
- Black Jews.* Found in Cochin, India.
- Boer.* The Dutch of South Africa.
- Brahui.* Inhabitants of Baluchistan.
- Cockney.* One born in London.
- Creoles.* Inhabitants of West Indies.
- Croats.* Inhabitants of Croatia, Yugoslavia.
- Deccani.* Residents of Southern India.
- Dravidian.* Non Aryan people in South India and Ceylon.
- Dyaks.* The Savages of Borneo. Noted for headhunting.
- Eskimos.* Indians of North America and North Siberia.
- Filippines.* Christianised natives of the Philippine Islands.
- Flemings.* Inhabitants of Belgium.
- Gurkhas.* Natives of Nepal, India. A martial race.
- Hottentots.* The primitives of South Africa.
- Hova.* Inhabitants of Madagascar.
- Kaffir.* African negroid peoples. Formidable fighters.
- Khingiz.* Central Asia.

Kurd. Inhabitants of Kurdistan, which is divided among Turkey, Persia, and Iraq.

Lapps. Natives of Lapland, which is in the North of Sweden, Norway, and Finland.

Magyars. People of Hungary.

Mahsuds. Tribesmen in the N.W.F. of Pakistan.

Maori. Natives of New Zealand. Nominally Christianised.

Marwaris. Inhabitants of Marwar, Rajputana (India). Wealthy class.

Mohawks. Natives of North America.

Moors. Inhabitants of Northern parts of North Africa of Arab race. Reputed for ancient architecture. Ruled Spain at one time.

Moplas. Inhabitants of Malabar district belonging to Arab race (Bombay).

Negrillo. Natives of Congo basin.

Purbias. Belonging to the Uttar Pradesh, India.

Red Indians. Native inhabitants of North America.

Somoyed. Natives of Tundra region of Asia.

Santhals. Aboriginal natives of Orissa, and Chota Nagpur.

Slovene. People of Slav origin found in Yugoslavia.

Toda. Aborigines of Nilgiris.

Tunys. Of Ural Mountain.

Wallon. Natives of Belgium.

Yankee. A resident of New England States.

Zulus. A branch of Kaffirs in South Africa.

Religions of the World

Christians (Roman Catholic)	331,500,000	Christians (Protestant)	206,900,000
Christians (Orthodox Catholic)	144,000,000	Coptic Christians	10,000,000
Confucians and Taoists	350,600,000	Muslims	203,020,000
Hindus	... 254,950,000	Shintoists	... 25,000,000
Buddhists	... 150,180,000	Animists	... 135,650,000
Jews	... 11,000,000	Unclassified	... 50,870,000

Languages of the World

Abyssinian (Ethiopian, Galla, Geez etc.)	... 5,000,000	Hungarian	... 8,688,000
Afghan	... 11,000,000	Italian	... 41,364,000
Albanian	... 1,004,000	Japanese	... 90,400,000
Arabic	... 29,021,000	Lithuanian	... 2,393,000
Bengali	... 60,000,000	Marathi	... 20,000,000
Bohemian	... 7,100,000	Nepali	... 6,000,000
Chinese	... 475,000,000	Norwegian	... 2,814,000
Czechoslovak	... 15,000,000	Persian	... 10,000,000
Danish	... 3,660,000	Polish	... 32,000,000
Dutch	... 15,653,000	Portuguese	... 47,000,000
English (including Americans)	... 225,000,000	Punjabi	... 34,000,000
Estonian	... 1,120,000	Rumanian	... 17,400,000
Finnish	... 3,022,000	Russian	... 170,000,000
Flemish	... 3,500,000	Serbian	... 11,000,000
French	... 62,410,000	Siamese	... 11,700,000
German	... 78,233,000	Slovenian	... 5,485,000
Greek	... 6,480,000	Spanish	... 80,189,000
Gujarati	... 10,682,000	Swedish	... 6,508,000
Hindi	... 216,000,000	Tamil	... 19,000,000
		Telegu	... 25,000,000
		Tibeto-Burmese	... 17,000,000

WONDERS OF THE OLD WORLD

1. The Pyramids of Egypt built between 3500 B. C. to 1800 B. C.
2. The Temple of Diana at Ephesus in Rome.
3. The Hanging Gardens of Babylon planted by King Nebuchadnezzar in 600 B. C.
4. Statue of Jupiter at Olympia (Greece).
5. The Tomb (Mausoleum) of Mausolus in Asia Minor. Built in 352 B. C. by Queen Artemisia, destroyed by earthquake between 12 and 15th cent. A. D.
6. Colossus of Rhodes, being the statue of the Greek Sun God Apollo destroyed in 224 B. C. by earthquake.
7. The Lighthouse on the island of Pharos, off Alexandria destroyed by earthquake in 1375 A. D.

Other Wonders

1. The Great Wall of China, 1,259 miles in length and 17' 6" thick and 16 ft. high on the northern frontier of the country, built about 3rd century.
2. Stonehenge about 90 miles to the south-west of London is an assemblage of huge stones in three circles, one within the other, 100' 75' and 40' in diameter. Remains of an ancient Druid temple.
3. The Alhambra in northern Spain built by the Moorish King Al Ahmar and his successors.
4. Taj Mahal at Agra built by Shah Jehan in 17th century.
5. Temple of Karnak in Egypt built over 3,500 years ago ; is in ruins now.
6. The Catacombs, the sepulchres of early Christians at Rome.
7. Angkor in Cambodia in French Indo-China is a ruined temple city.
8. The Porcelain Tower of Nanking.
9. Leaning Tower of Pisa (Italy).
10. The Mosque of St. Sophia at Constantinople erected by the emperor.
11. Coliseum or Colosseum at Rome.
12. The Circus Maximus. An amphi-theatre erected at Rome by Tarquin in 605 B.C.
13. The Vatican at Rome is the largest residence in the world containing thousands of rooms.
14. The Basilica of St. Peter is the largest church in the world completed in 126 years.

Modern World

1. Wireless Telegraphy and Telephony.
2. Radio Television and Talkies.
3. Aeroplane.
4. Discovery of X-ray and Ultra-violet Rays.
5. Spectrum Analysis.
6. Discovery of Radium.
7. Automobile and Locomotive.
8. Rocket-Propulsion.
9. Jet Propulsion.
10. Penicillin.
11. Radar.
12. Atomic Bomb.

IV. THE EARTH

Dimensions of the Earth

Area

<i>Classification</i>	<i>Square miles</i>	<i>Classification</i>	<i>Square miles</i>
<i>Superficial area</i>	196,950,000	<i>Oceania</i>	4,000,000
<i>Water</i>	139,440,000	<i>Fertile areas</i>	33,000,000

<i>Classification</i>	<i>Square miles</i>	<i>Classification</i>	<i>Square miles</i>
Land	57,510,000	Steppes	19,000,000
<i>Continents</i> —		<i>Lake and river</i>	
Asia	16,990,000	surface	1,000,000
Africa	11,500,000	Deserts	5,000,000
North America	8,500,000	Island areas	1,910,000
South America	6,814,000		
Polar regions	6,205,000		
Europe	3,872,000		
Australia	2,974,581		

Circumference

Equatorial (miles)	24,962	Average depth of	
Meridional (miles)	24,860	ocean below sea level	
Diameter at equator (miles)	7,926	(feet)	12,500
Diameter through poles (miles)	7,899	Ratio for earth's flat- tening at the poles, 1 part of	297
Average elevation of land above sea level (feet)	2,800	One degree of longitude : Along equator (miles)	692
Length of time for rota- tion through 1° Long (minutes)	4	One degree of latitude : At the equator (miles)	6,807

Weight of the earth = 6 sextillion 592 quintillion tons plus five quadrillion short tons of atmosphere.

Mean temperature of the earth is 39.5° F.

The Equator passes through the following countries :—

Malaya Archipelago Islands : Sumatra, Borneo, Celebes, and Moluccas.

Africa. French Equatorial Africa : Belgian Congo, Uganda, and Kenya.

S. America. Ecuador, Colombia and Brazil.

Length and Breadth of Continents

	<i>East to West</i>		<i>North to South</i>
Asia	... 6,000 miles		... 5,300 miles
Africa	... 4,500 „		... 5,000 „
Europe	... 3,300 „		... 2,400 „
S. America	... 3,200 „		... 4,600 „
N. America	... 4,000 „		... 4,900 „
Australia	... 2,500 „		... 2,000 „

Oceans

	<i>Area in Sq. Miles</i>		<i>Places of Greatest known depth</i>
Atlantic	... 41,000,000	30,246	off Puerto Rico
Pacific	... 63,801,700	35,400	off Mindanao.
Indian	... 28,356,300	22,968	off Sumatra-Java.
Arctic	... 5,440,200	15,910	off North Pole.
Antarctic	... 7,500,000		

Average depth of Ocean below sea-level is 12,500 ft.

Mean temperature of the sea is about 39.6 Centigrade.

Surface Areas of some well known seas

<i>Seas</i>	<i>Sq. Miles</i>	<i>Seas</i>	<i>Sq. Miles</i>
Andaman Sea	308,000	Hudson Bay	470,000
Bering Sea	875,800	Japan Sea	400,000
Baltic Sea	160,000	Mediterranean Sea	1,145,000
Black Sea	163,000	North Sea	220,000
Caribbean Sea	1,049,500	Red Sea	169,000
Coral Sea	2500,000	Sea of Okhotsk	589,800
Caspian Sea	169,400	South China Sea	895,400
East China Sea	480,000	Yellow Sea	480,000
Gulf of Mexico	720,000		

Biggest Lakes

NAME	COUNTRY	AREA (sq. m.)
Caspian	... Europe-Asian boundry	... 169,300
Superior	... North America	... 31,820
Sea of Aral	... Russia	... 26,233
Victoria Nyanza	... Africa	... 26,200
Huron	... North America	... 23,010
Michigan	... North America	... 22,400
Baikal	... Russia	... 13,300
Tanganyika	... Africa	... 12,700
Great Bear Lake	... Canada	... 11,650
Great Slave Lake	... Canada	... 11,170
Lake Nyasa	... Africa	... 11,000
Lake Eric	... N American	... 11,170

Some other well-known Lakes of the World

Lakes	Area in sq. miles	Lakes	Area in sq. miles
North America		Europe	
Lake Winnipeg	9450	Lake Ladoga	7000
Lake Ontario	7550	Lake Onega	3700

<i>Lakes</i>	<i>Area in sq. miles</i>	<i>Lakes</i>	<i>Area in sq. miles</i>
Lake Nicaragua	3000	Lake Vanern	2150
Lake Athabaska	3058	„ Vattern	733
Lake Reindeer	2400	Lake Balkash (U.S.S.R.)	8000
Lake of the Woods	1850	Dead Sea	350
Lake Manitoba	1800	Africa	
Lake Nipigon	1730	Lake Nyasa	11000
South America		Lake Rudolf	3500
Lake Maracaibo	4500	Lake Albert	1700
Lake Titicaca	3200	Lake Tana	1050

High Mountains (Continent-wise)

Europe	Mt. Blanc (15,760 ft.)
Asia (also world's)	Mount Everest (29,141 ft.)
Africa	Kilimanjaro (19,710 ft.)
North America	Mount McKinley (20,450 ft.)
South America	Aconcagua (23,075 ft.)
Antartic	Mt. Thorvald Nelson (15,400 ft.)
Australia	Mt. Kosciusco (7,328 ft.)

Other High Mountains

<i>Height in ft.</i>	<i>Name of Peak</i>	<i>Continent</i>
28250	K ₂	Asia
28140	Kunchinjunga	„
26800	Dhaulagiri	„
25250	Tirchmir in Hindu Kush	„
24900	Minya Konka	„
18500	Demavend	„

Chief Himalayan Peaks

<i>Name</i>	<i>Feet</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>Feet</i>
Everest	29,141	Makalu	27,790
K ₂ (Godwin Austen)	28,250	Dhaulagiri	26,800
Kanchanjunga	28,140	Nanga Parbat	25,620
		Nanda Devi	25,645

World's Other High Peaks

<i>Peaks</i>	<i>Height in ft.</i>	<i>Peaks</i>	<i>Height in ft.</i>
North America			
Mt. Logan	19550	Mt. Tocorpuri	22150
Orizaba Peak	18300	Mt. Chimborazo	20700
St. Elias	18000	Europe	
Popocatepetl	17800	Mt. Blanc	15760
Mt. Lucania	17150	Mt. Rosa	15212
Mt. Foraker	17000	Matterhorn	14710
Ixtaccihuatl	17338	Jungfrau	13670
Nevado de Toluca	15030	Pic d' Aneto	11170
Mt. Whitney	14500	Mt. Etna	10755
Mt. Rainier	14400	Africa	
Mt. Shasta	14160	Mt. Kenya	17045
Pike's Peak	14110	Tizi-n-Tamjurt	14750
South America		Australia	
Ojos del Salado	22470	Mt. Kosciusco	7328
Mt. Huas-caran	22180	Antarctica	
		Mt. Kirkpatrick	14600

Lowest Parts of the Earth below Sea-Level

Death Valley (California)	276	Lybian Desert	440
Caspian Sea, Russia	86	Lake Eyre	20
Dead Sea, Palestine	1,230	Desert of Sahara	150

Volcanoes

Sagama (Bolivia)	21,087	Mauna Loa 13,760 ft.	Hawai
Cotopaxi (Andes)	19,612	Mauna Kea 13,953 ft.	
Mt. Elias (Rokies)	19,500	Haulalai	
Popocateptl (Mexico)	17,785	Fujiyama in Japan.	
Vesuvius, Etna, Stromboli		Tomboro in Sunda Islands.	
Erebus, Terror (Australia)		Le Souffrier	West Indies
Hecla			
Skaptar Jokul			
Pico de Leide (12,192 ft.)	...	Canary Islands	
Mt. Cameroon (13,353 ft.)	...	British Cameroons	
Kilimanjaro (19,565 ft.)	...	Africa in Tanganyka Territory. Is now extinct.	
Kluchev (15,912)	...	Siberia	
Werangell (14,000 ft.)			
Kalmai (7,500 ft.)		Alaska	

Largest Deserts

	<i>sq. miles</i>		<i>sq. miles.</i>
Great American	1,050,000	Tibet (Asia)	230,000
Sahara	2,000,000	Tarim (Asia)	150,000
Gobi (Asia)	300,000		
Black Rock (North West Nevada)			<i>sq. miles</i>
Dast-i-Lut (Iran)			1,000
Dast-i-Kavir (Iran)			
Rub-al-Khali (Arabia. Portion of Nejd)			
Kalhari (Africa between Orange and Zembze rivers)			120,000
Kara Kum (South of Lake Aral)			110,000
Mohare (South East California U. S. A.)			150,000
Thar (Rajputana in India)			100,000
Liyban Desert (Africa, West of the Nile)			500,000

Well-known Earthquakes

	A.D.		A.D.
Pompeii	... 79	Japan (Tokyo and Yokohama)	
Lisbon	... 1531	Napier, N. Z.	... 1923
Do	... 1755	Bihar	... 1931
Nepolitan	... 1857	Formosa	... 1934
Krakatoa	... 1883	Quetta	... 1935
Martinique	... 1902	Chile	... 1935
San Francisco	... 1906	Anatolia (Turkey)	... 1949
Messina	... 1908	Assam	... 1940
North & Central Italy	1915		... 1950
Kansu (China)	... 1930		

Ten Largest Islands

	<i>Ocean</i>	<i>sq. miles.</i>
Australia	... Pacific	2,974,580
Greenland	... N. Atlantic	839,782
New Guinea	... Pacific	310,000
Borneo	... Pacific	306,906
Madagascar	... Indian	241,094
Baffin Land	... Arctic	201,600
Sumatra	... Indian	164,148
Philippine Island	... Pacific	114,400
New Zealand (N and S)	... "	103,954
England, Scotland, Wales	... Atlantic	88,745

Other well-known Islands

<i>Islands</i>	<i>Area.</i>	<i>Islands.</i>	<i>Area.</i>
Honshu (Sea of Japan)	91278	Solomon Islands (Pacific Ocean)	15800
Celebes (South-West Pacific)	69255	Formosa (opposite China)	13000
Java (Indian Ocean)	48504	Mainland	
New Newfoundland (North Atlantic)	43000	Hainan	13000
Luzon (Philippine Island)	40814	New Britain	13000
Iceland (North Atlantic)	40000	Sicily (Mediterranean)	9925
Mindanao, one of Philippine Islands)	37000	Sardinia	9300
Ireland (In the Atlantic West of Great Britain)	32000	Jamaica	4450
Hokkaido (Sea of Japan in the Pacific)	30000	Hawaii	4000
Nova Zembla	30003	Cyprus (Mediterranean)	3575
Sakhalin (North of Japan)	29000	Corsica (Mediterranean)	3370
Hispaniola (Caribbean Sea)	30075	Crete (Mediterranean)	3325
Tasmania (South of Australia)	26215	Guadalcanal	3000
Ceylon (Indian Ocean, South of India)	25000	Long Island	1680
Kyushu	15000	Isle of Man	220
		(South of Britain)	
		Melville (Arctic Ocean)	16164
		Southampton	16114
		(Hudson Bay)	
		Tierra Del Fuego	18500
		(Southern tip of	
		South America)	
		Devon Island	20480
		(Arctic Ocean)	
		Cuba (Caribbean Sea)	42350

World's Greatest Seaports

Alexandria	Egypt.	Marseilles	France
Amsterdam	Netherlands.	Montevideo	Uruguay.
Antwerp	Belgium.	Montreal.	Canada.
Bombay	India.	New Orleans	U. S. A.
Bristol	England.	New York	U. S. A.
Buenos	Argentina.	Newcastle	England.
Calcutta	India.	Rangoon	Burma.
Colombo	Ceylon.	Rio de Janeiro	Brazil.
Genoa	Italy.	Rotterdam	Netherlands.
Glasgow	Scotland.	San Francisco	U. S. A.
Hamburg	Germany.	Shanghai	China.
Hong Kong	China.	Singapore	F. M. S.
Kobe	Japan.	Southampton	England.
Liverpool	England.	Sydney	N.W.S.
London	England.		Australia
Manchester	England.	Yokohama	Japan.

World's Great Dams.

Name of Dam.	Storage capacity in million gallons	Year of completion.	Height.	River.
Mettur (South India)	200,000	1934	230	Cauvery
Krishnaraja-Sagara (S. I.)	43,935			
Aswan (Egypt)	1,732,000	1930	172	Nile
Nizamsagar (S. I.)	25,566			
Lloyd Dam (Sindh)	24,198			
Dnieprostroy Dam (U. S. S. R.)	968,000	1932	200	Dnieper
Hume (Australia)	4000,000	1936	180	Murray
Marathon (Greece)	224,100	1930	200	Haradra
Burrinjuck (Australia)	408,000	1927	247	Murrumbidgee
Cogoti (Chile)	1081,000	1932	248	Limari
Grand Coulee (U. S. A.)	3,131,428	1941	550	Columbia
Hoover (U. S. A.)	10,000,000	1936	727	Colorado

Longest Rivers

Name	Out-flow	Length in miles
Mississippi-Missouri	Gulf of Mexico (U. S. A.)	4,200
Nile	Mediterranean (Egypt)	3,700
Amazon	Atlantic (South America)	4,000
Ob	Arctic (Siberia)	3,200
Yangtse Kiang	Pacific (China)	3,100
Amur	Pacific (Siberia)	2,900
Congo	Atlantic (Africa)	2,900
Lena	Arctic (Siberia)	2,860
Yenisei	Arctic (Siberia)	2,860
Hwangho	Pacific (China)	2,700
Niger	Atlantic (Africa)	2,600

Some other well known rivers of the world

River	Length in Miles	River	Length, in miles
Mekong	2500	Yapura	1500
Murray	2310	Rio Negro	1400
La Plata	2300	Columbia	1400
Volga	2300	Ural	1400
Yukon	1800	Amu Dariya	1350
Arkansas	2100	Dnieper	1300
St. Lawrence	2000	Irawaddy	1200

River	Length in Miles	River	Length in miles
Indus	1850	Saskatchewan	1200
Danube	1800	Darling	1150
Brahmaputra	1750	Ohio	1150
Euphrates	1750	Tigris	1150
Salween	1750	Orange	1100
Colorado	1700	Don	1100
Zambezi	1600	Platte	1025
Orinoco	1550	Rhine	800
Ganga	1500	Hudson	350
Paragua	1500	Thames	215

Famous Mountain Passes

Pass	Location	Altitude (feet)
Alpina	Colorado	1,3550
Bolan	Baluchistan	5,880
Arenner	Austrian Alps	4,588
Khyber	Afghanistan	3,873
St. Bernard	Swiss Alps	8,100
St. Gotthard	" "	6,939
Simplon	" "	6,595

Some Largest Cities of the World

Name	Country	Approximate Population
London	England	8,800,000
New York	U. S. A.	7,986,000
Tokyo	Japan	6,930,000
Berlin	Germany	5,312,000
Moscow	Russia	4,137,000
Chicago	U. S. A.	3,376,300
Shanghai	China	3,565,000
Osaka	Japan	3,252,000
Leningrad	Russia	3,191,000
Paris	France	3,000,000
Calcutta	India	5,000,000
Buenos Aires	Argentine	2,364,000
Philadelphia	U. S. A.	1,950,000
Vienna	Austria	1,886,000
Delhi	India	1,744,072
Detroit	U. S. A.	1,568,000
Rio-de-Janeiro	Brazil	1,500,000

Five Longest Railway Platforms

Sonepur (B. N. W. R. India)	2,415 feet
Kharagpur (B. N. R. India)	2,360 ,

New Lucknow Station (E. I. R.) India	2,250	,
Bulawayo (Rhodesia Ry.)	2,202	,
Manchester Victoria Exchange (L. M. S. R.)	2,164	,

World's Longest Tunnels

Name	Location	Length in miles	Year of Completion
Benn Nevis	England	15	
Simplon	In the Alps links Italy with Switzerland	12.3	1905
Tanna	Japan	13½	
Appenine Mt.	Florence with Bolgona (Italy)	11¾	1934
St. Gotthard	Goschenen with Airolo in Switzerland	9.3	1882
Mt. Cenis	Joins France with Italy under Colde Fuejus	7.9	1871
Arlberg	In Switzerland. Through the Alps at Arl Mt.	6.3	1884
Connaught	Selkirk Mts. in British Columbia	5	1916
Severn	Monmouthshire to Gloucestershire (Eng.)	4.5	1886

Famous Water Falls

Name	Location	Height in ft.
Angel	Venezuela	3300
Kukenaam	British Guiana	2000
Sutherland	Newzealand	1904
Tugela	Natal	1800
Ribbon	California	1612
Kalambo	South Africa	705
Gavarnie	France	1385
Takkakaw	British Columbia	1200
Widow's Tears	California	1170
Staubbach	Switzerland	980
Grossoppa Fall	Mysore	950
King Edward VII	British Guiana	840
King George's Fall	South Africa	450
Guayra	Paraguay	374
Splendor of Sun	Japan	350
Victoria	Southern Rhodesia	343
Seven Falls	Colorado	266
Niagara	New York-Ontario	167

Longest Bridges

<i>Name</i>	<i>Length</i>
Lower Zambeze Bridge (East Africa)	over 2 miles
Storstrom (Denmark) Longest (in Europe)	,, 2 miles
Tay Bridge (Scotland)	,, 2 miles
Firth (Scotland)	,, $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles
Golden Gate (U. S. A.)	,, 8,940 ft.
Sydney Harbour, Australia (the great arch itself spans 1,650 ft.)	,, 3,776 ft.
Hardinge Bridge (Bengal)	,, 5,400 ft.

N. B.—There are several other bridges which are even longer, but are partly viaducts :—

<i>Name</i>	<i>Length</i>
San Francisco-Oakland (U. S. A.)	... $8\frac{1}{2}$ miles
Ganda Tampa Bay	... 6 miles
Littoria (Venice)	... $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles
Sone Bridge (India)	... 10,050 ft.

“ Biggest, Largest, Greatest, Longest.”

Greatest Desert	... Sahara (Africa)
Largest Palace	... Vatican (Rome)
Tallest Statue	... Statue of Liberty (New York) 151 ft. high
Biggest Ship	... Queen Elizabeth, 85,000 tons.
Tallest Church	... Ulm Cathedral (Germany) 529 ft. high
Largest Diamond	... The Cullinan (3,106½ carats).
Raniest Place	... The Cherrapunji (Assam) 569·50"
Biggest & Deepest Ocean	Pacific Ocean
Longest Corridor	... Rameswaram Temple Corridor, S. India, 4,000 ft. long
Largest Church	... Church of St. Peters (Rome)
Largest Pearl	... Beresford-Home Pearl, weighing 1820 grains
Longest Railway run	... Riga to Vladivostok (6,000 miles)
Largest Telescope	... At Pasadena, California, Diameter of reflector is 200 inches
Biggest Museum	... British Museum (London)
Largest River (in volume)	Amazon, S. America (flows 4,000 miles).
Longest River	... Mississippi-Missouri (4,200 m.).
Largest Rly. Station	... Grand Central Terminal (New York) 47 platforms.
Largest Dome	... Gol Gumbaz (Bijapur) 144 ft. in actual diameter.
Largest Building	... Pyramid at Gizeh, Egypt.
Largest Royal palace	... The Palace at Madrid.

Largest Dry Dock	... Dry Dock at Southampton (England). The huge structure is 1,200 ft. long 235 ft. wide at entrance.
Largest single Country	... Brazil 3,285,319 sq. miles.
Largest Fresh Water Lake	Lake Superior.
Largest Volcano	... Mauna Lao Hawaii, 13,760 ft. crater 12,400 ft. in diameter.
Longest Day	... June 22.
Shortest Day	... December 22.
No railway countries in Europe	... Iceland and Albania.
Country with Copper Currency	... Korea.
Biggest Army	... Red Army of Russia.
Largest Tree	... Giant Sequoia tree. California. Oldest living thing in the world ; 5000 year old, 304 ft. high with 101 ft. base circumference.
Largest Salt Water Lake	Caspian.
Longest Mountain Chain	The Andes.
Highest Mountain Peak	... Everest (Himalayas) alt. 29,141.
Biggest Dam	... The Lloyd Dam (U.S.A.) 726 ft. above bed rock.
Largest Cinema House	... Roxy, New York.
Longest Wall	... The Great Wall of China, over 1259 miles, built in 214 B.C.
Largest Peninsula	... India.
Largest Bell	... Bell of Moscow, cast in 1733, 12 ft. high, 21 ft diameter, weights 200 tons.
Largest Planetary Body	... Jupiter.
Biggest Railway	... Trans-Siberian Railway.
Biggest Park	... Yellowstone National Park (U.S.A.), 3,350 sq. miles.
Largest Single State	... U.S.S.R. (Russia).
Largest Archway	... Sydney Harbour Bridge, (Australia).
Largest Silver Producer	... Mexico.
Largest Artificial water way	... Grand Canal, China.
Largest Cotton Port	... New Orleans (U.S.A.)
Coldest Place	... Verkhoynsk, (U.S.S.R.) 95° below zero.
Coldest Part	... Belt between Arctic and North Pole.
Hottest Part	... Lake Tchad to Mecca and the Strait of Babal Mandeb.
Hottest Place (Pakistan)	(Jacobabad) 128°.
Driest Place	... Africa village (Chile), $\frac{1}{2}$ " yearly rainfall.
Smallest Continent	... Australia.
Deepest Lake	... Lake Baikal (C. Asia).
Fastest Planet	... Mercury (29 $\frac{3}{4}$ miles a second).

Nearest Planet	... Venus.
Oldest British Colony	... Newfoundland.
Highest Plateau	... Pamir, Tibet.
Greatest Pork Market	... Cincinnati.
Finest Harbour	... Sydney Harbour.
Richest Lowland Plain	... China's Great plain.
Smallest Planet	... Mercury.
Largest and most populous Continent	... Asia.
Most Populous Country	... China.
Highest Town	... Pasco (Peru), alt. 14,280 ft.
Biggest Library	... Bibliotheque Nationale in Paris (7,90,000 items). National Library
Most densely populated Island of the world	Malta 1842 persons a sq. miles.

IMPORTANT STRAITS

Bering Strait separates Asia from America.

Davis Strait separates Greenland from Baffin Island.

Florida Strait separates Cuba from Florida.

Macassar Strait separates Borneo from Celebes.

Malacca Strait separates Sumatra from the Malaya Peninsula.

Palk Strait separates India from Ceylon.

Strait of Bonifacio separates Corsica from Sardinia.

Strait of Bosphorous connects the Sea of Marmora with the Black Sea.

Strait of Dardanelles connects the Aegean Sea with the Sea of Marmora.

Strait of Dover connects the North Sea with the English Channel.

Strait of Gibraltar separates Spain from Africa.

Strait of Messina separates Italy from Sicily.

Strait of Babel Mandeb separates Aden from Africa.

Strait of Magellan separates Chile from Tierra del Fuego.

Sunda Strait separates Sumatra from Java.

WORLD'S IMPORTANT PLAINS

Indo-Gangetic Plain. Lies south of the Himalayan mountains and stretches from the Suleiman hills in the west to Garo and Lushai hills in the east. It is 100 to 300 miles in width and is a flat and alluvial plain rich in productive soil. It is one of the most densely populated plains of the world and is one of

the world's granaries of wheat. It has a net-work of rivers, canals, roads and railways.

Llanos. The most extensive plains or steppes in South America around the Orinoco basin. Remains desert in dry season and abounds in verdure in rainy season.

Lombardy plains. Are situated around the basin of river Po in Italy. These are rich in fruits, corns and mulberry trees on which silk-worms are reared.

Pampas. Large treeless grass plains of South America, south of the Amazon river. The largest pasture land in the world.

Parklands. Tropical grasslands with trees in Southern Sudan.

Prairies. A wide area of level, treeless grassy plains of central North America where cattle are raised. Now under extensive wheat cultivation.

Savannah. Open treeless level tracts of grassland in sub-tropical and tropical Africa.

Steppes. Broad, open, temperate, grasslands plains of Russia and Siberia. Very hot in summer and very cold in winter with no rainfall. Wheat lands.

Tundras. Barren plains in North Russia, constituting a frozen or partially frozen desert, which produces only mosses and lichens in the way of vegetation.

Veldt Plains. Are open, treeless, grassy plateaus in South Africa.

Important Explorations and Discoveries.

Date	Explorer or Discoverer	Event	Place
1272	Marco Polo Italian Traveller	Visited	China
1325	Odoric an Italian Monk	Visited	Tibet
1492	Christopher Columbus Italian Navigator	discovered	West Indies
1498	Vas-co da Gama, the Portuguese	rounded	Cape of Good Hope and visited India.
1498	Christopher Columbus the Italian Navigator	visited	South America.
1500	Cabral, the Portuguese Explorer	discovered	Brazil
1513	Balboa, the Spanish Explorer	discovered	The Pacific Ocean
1519-2	Magellans' ship	cicumnavigated	The Globe
1519	Cortez, the Spanish Adventurer	conquered	Mexico
1532	Pizarro, Spanish Explorer	conquered	Peru

<i>Date</i>	<i>Explorer Discoverer</i>	<i>Event</i>	<i>Place</i>
1541	Orellana, the Spanish Explorer	explored	River Amazon
1606	Janz, the Dutch Explorer	visited	Australia
1615	Schouten, the Dutch Explorer	discovered	Cape Horn
1642	Tasman the Dutch Navigator	discovered	Tasmania
1728	Bering, the Danish Explorer	discovered	Bering Strait.
1773	Bellingshausen, the Russian Navigator	discovered	Antartica
1891	Peary, the American Explorer	explored	Greenland
1909	Peary, the American Explorer	discovered	The North Pole
1911	Amundsen, the Norwegian Explorer	discovered	South Pole

WORLD'S IMPORTANT SHIP CANALS

Amesterdam. 16½ miles, 200 ft. wide and 23 ft. deep canal joining the North Sea to Zudar Zee opened in 1876.

Buckingham. The best navigable canal on the east coast of India.

Caledonian. (Scotland) 62 miles.

Cape Cod. Joins Buzzards Bay to Cape Cod Bay. Is 13 miles long and 25 ft. deep. opened in 1914.

Chesapeake and Delaware. Joins Chesapeake Bay to Delaware Bay. Is 19 miles long 27 feet deep, was opened in 1927.

Chicago. Joins the Lake Michigan to Illinois river. Has length 28 ft. and depth 22 feet, was opened in 1900.

Corinth. The canal joins the gulf of Corinth to the Aegean Sea. Is 4 miles long, 26 feet deep, opened in 1893.

Elbe and Trave. (Germany) 41 miles.

Eire canal. (New York) 340 miles.

Gota. (Sweden) 47 miles long, 23.6 ft. wide, 9.7 ft. deep opened in 1832.

Grand Canal.. 700 miles. It is largest artificial waterways in the world. Connects the Yangtse Kiang, Howang-Ho and Peiho.

Kiel Canal. An international canal 61 miles long and 40 feet deep. It connects the North Sea with the Baltic Sea. It shortens the sea route between London and the Baltic ports by 250 miles, opened in 1895.

Manchester. (England) 46.5 miles long, 28 ft. deep. Makes Manchester directly accessible to ships at Liverpool, opened in 1894.

Moscow—Volga. 80 miles long, 98 ft. wide, 18 feet deep, opened in 1937.

Panama Canal. It is 50.72 miles long, 110 feet wide and 40 to 45 feet deep. It joins the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans and was dug by the United States Governments, Colon on Atlantic side and Panama on Pacific side are important ports, opened in 1914.

The sea journey between New York and San Francisco has been shortened by about 9,000 miles; between London and San Francisco by about 6,000 miles; between New York and Japan by about 4,000 miles.

Sarda Canal. (U. P. India) 650 miles main canal and branches, 3600 miles distributaries. It irrigates about 1½ million acres. About 350 ft. wide.

Suez Canal. Connects the Red Sea with the Mediterranean Sea. Port Said is situated on the Mediterranean side and Suez on the Red Sea side. The canal is 104.5 miles long and about 197 ft. wide and 35 feet deep. The average time taken for the transit through the canal is 13 hours. The canal shortens the distance between London and Bombay by 5,000 miles. Opened in 1869.

Welland. (Canada) Joins Lake Erie to lake Ontario. Is 27 miles long, 80 ft. deep, opened in 1931.

POPULAR GEOGRAPHICAL EPITHETS

Gift of the Nile	.. Egypt
Dark Continent	.. Africa.
White Man's grave	.. Guinea Coast of Africa.
Yellow River	.. Hwang-Ho River.
Blue River	.. The Yangste Kiang, China.
Blue Mountain	— The Nilgiri Hills.
Land of the Midnight Sun	.. Hammerfest (Norway).
Playground of Europe	.. Switzerland.
River in the Sea	.. The Gulf Stream.
Never Never Land	.. Prairies of N. Australia.
City of Seven Hills	.. Rome.
Granite City	.. Aberdeen (Scotland).
Sorrow of China	.. The Hwang Ho.
Queen of the Adriatic	.. Venice.
Key to the Mediterranean	.. Gibraltar.
Roof of the World	.. The Pamirs.
Britain of the South	.. New Zealand.
Emerald Island	.. Ireland.
Land of the Rising Sun	.. Japan.
Land of Maple	.. Canada.
Levant	.. Coast of Asia minor.

Great Britain of the Pacific	... Japan.
Wilderness of Bamboo and Paper	... Tokyo.
Queen of the South	... Sydney.
The Sick man of Europe	... Turkey.
Human Equator of the Earth	... The Himalayas.
Garden of South India	... Tanjore
King of Indian Forests	... Teak
The Land of Five Rivers	... The Punjab (Now divided into E. Pb. and W. Pb.)
The City of Ghosts and Temples	... Banaras.
City of Magnificent Distances	... Madras.
Gate of Tears	... The Strait of Babel Mandeb.
Home of cotton plant	... Berar.
The Isle of Pearls	... Bahrein (Persian Gulf).
Forbidden Land	... Tibet.
The Eternal City	... Rome.
World's Loneliest Island	... Tristan De Cunha S. Atlantic.
Gibraltar of the Indian Ocean	... Aden
City of Motor Cars	... Detroit.
Key of India	... Herat.

CHANGED GEOGRAPHICAL NAMES

Old	New	Old	New
Angor	... Ankara.	Peping	... Peking.
Bangkok	... Phetchand.	Persia	... Iran
Christiana (Norway)	Oslo.	Petrograd	... Leningrad.
Constantinople	Istanbul.	Queenstown (Ireland)	... Cobb.
Formosa	... Taiwan	Russia	... Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (U. S. S. R.)
Irish Free State	... Eire	Siam	... Thailand.
Korea	... Chosen	Sandwich Islands	... Hawaiian Islands.
Manchuko	... Manchuria.		
Mesopotamia	Iraq		
Nijni Novgorad	... Gorky.		

NATIONAL NAMES OF COUNTRIES

Abyssinia	Ethiopia.	Holland	Netherlands.
Austria	Oesterreich	Hungary	Magyaroszag.
Belgium	La Belgique	India	Bharat.
China	Chung Kuo.	Irish Free State	Eire.
Egypt	Misr	Japan	Nippon
Finland	Soumi.	Norway	Norge.

Germany	Deutschland.	Persia	Iran.
Greece	Hellas.	Switzerland	Helveta.
Poland	Polaska.	Siam	Thailand.

NATIONAL EMBLEMS OF DIFFERENT COUNTRIES

Australia	... The Kangaroo	Japan	... The Chrysanthemum
Canada	... The Sugar Maple	Mexico	... The Cactus
China	... The Narcissus	Prussia	... The Linden
Denmark	... The Beech	Iran	... The Rose
England	... The Rose	Scotland	... The Thistle
France	... The Lily	South Africa	The Springbok
Germany	... The Corn flower	Spain	... The Pomegranate
India	... The Lotus	Switzerland	... The Edelwiss
Ireland	... The Shamrock	U. S. A.	... The Golden Rod
Italy	... The White Lily	Wales	... The Daffodil

TRADE NAMES AND THEIR ASSOCIATIONS

<i>Agfa</i>	... Photo goods.	<i>Faraday</i>	... Electricity.
<i>Allsopps</i>	... Beer.	<i>Firestone</i>	... Motor tyres.
<i>Alpha</i>	... Wollen Goods.	<i>Flex</i>	... Shoes.
<i>Bata</i>	... Shoes.	<i>Flit</i>	... Mosquito Killer.
<i>Bayer</i>	... Medicines.	<i>Ford</i>	... Motors.
<i>Beck's</i>	... Beer.	<i>Fry's</i>	... Cocoa ; Chocolates.
<i>Big Ben</i>	... Alarm time-piece.	<i>Gillette</i>	... Safety razor.
<i>Blackbird</i>	... Fountain pen.	<i>Glaxo</i>	... Baby food ; Biscuits : Glucose D.
<i>Blackstone</i>	... Oil engines.		
<i>Brook Bond</i>	... Tea.		
<i>B. S. A.</i>	... Bicycle ; Gun.	<i>Godrej</i>	... Soaps; Safes.
<i>Coates</i>	... Gin.	<i>Goodyear</i>	... Motor tyres.
<i>Chevrolet</i>	... Car.	<i>Haig &</i>	... Whisky.
<i>Colt</i>	... Revolvers.	<i>Buchanan</i>	... Wine.
<i>Crook's</i>	... Glass. goggles, spectacles.	<i>Hall's</i>	... Malted Milk.
<i>Davy</i>	... Saftey Lamp.	<i>Horlick's</i>	... Cotton textiles.
<i>Deterding</i>	... Petroleum, Steel.	<i>Horrackses</i>	
<i>Dhariwal</i>	... Textiles.	<i>Huntley and Palmer</i>	... Biscuits.
<i>Ditmar</i>	... Lantern.	<i>Java</i>	... Sugar.
<i>Dunlop</i>	... Tyre.	<i>Kelley</i>	... Directories.
<i>Dyalbagh</i>	... Leather ; Dairy.	<i>Kodak</i>	... Film and photographic goods.
<i>Edsu</i>	... Fabrics.	<i>Latinli</i>	... Woolen. Textiles.
<i>Exshaw</i>	.. Brandy.		

<i>Lever Brothers</i>	... Soap ... (Sunlight, Lux).	<i>Roll Royce</i>	... Cars.
<i>Lipton Mangharam</i>	... Tea. Biscuits, toffees, etc.	<i>Rowntrees Schering Scissors</i>	... Cocoa, toffee, chocolates. Medicines. Cigarettes.
<i>Merck Murree</i>	... Medicines. Beer.	<i>Serampur Shalimar</i>	... Paper. Paints.
<i>Oaches Park Davis</i>	... Cigars. Medicines.	<i>Sheffield Shell</i>	... Cutlery. Petrol.
<i>Parker Pears</i>	... Fountain pen. Soap ; Encyclopaedia	<i>Swan Tata</i>	... Ink. Iron and steel industry.
<i>Phillips Players Polson's</i>	... Radios, Bulbs etc. Cigarettes. Coffee ; Butter.	<i>Tennents Titagarh Thomas Cook Underwood Valet Waterman</i>	... Beer. Paper. Shipping. Typewriters. Safety razor. Fountain pen ; Ink.
<i>Ralli Brothers R. C. A.</i>	Cotton and wheat trade.	<i>White Horse Wills' Yule Zeal</i>	... Whisky. Cigarettes.
<i>Red Ensign Remington Robey and Lincoln Rodgers</i>	... Radio. Coffee ; tea. Typewriter. Oil	<i>Zeiss-Ikon Zig-Zag</i>	... Engineering. Thermometer. Lenses, Cameras. Cigarette paper.

Museums of the World

1. The British Museum, London.
2. Victoria Albert Museum, London.
3. National Gallery, London.
4. Tate Gallery, London.
5. Wallace Collections, London.
6. The Louvre Museum, Paris.
7. The Carnavelt Museum, Paris.
8. The Cluny Museum, Paris.
9. The Guimet Museum, Paris.
10. The Luxembourg Museum, Paris.
11. The Roden Museum, Paris.
12. The State Museum, Amsterdam.
13. Museo del Prado, Madrid.
14. The National Museum, Naples.
15. The Uffizi Gallery,
16. The Picture Gallery
17. The Academy of fine Arts,

} Florence.

18. The Tretyakov State Gallery, Moscow.
19. The Pushkin State Museum of Fine Arts, Moscow.
20. Hermitage State Museum, Moscow.
21. Tokyo Imperial Household Museum in Tokyo Japan.

Great Libraries of the World

<i>Name of Library</i>	<i>Location</i>	<i>Approximate Number of Volumes</i>
The Lenin Library	Moscow	11,000,000
The Saltykov-Shchedrin Public Library	Leningrad	6,000,000
The British Museum	London	5,000,000
The Bibliotheque Nationale	Paris	5,000,000
The New York Public Library	New York	5,000,000
Biblioteca Nazionale Centrale	Florence	3,400,000
Biblioteca Nazionale Centrale	Naples	1,330,000
The Deutsche Bucheri	Leipzig	2,000,000
The Nationalbibliothek	Vienna	1,600,000
Biblioteca National	Madrid	1,500,000
University Library	Amsterdam	1,500,000
Imperial University Library	Tokyo	1,000,000

TOWNS ASSOCIATED WITH INDUSTRIES

Ahmedabad (Bombay)	... Textiles.	Bombay (India)	... Textiles.
Amritsar (East Punjab)	... Woolen shawls, carpets.	Beuenos Aires (Argentine)	... Dairy produce.
Baku (Russia)	... Petroleum.	Cadiz (Portugal)	... Cork.
Bangalore (Mysore)	... Textiles, ... carpets, toys.	Calicut (Madras)	... Soap.
Bangkok (Siam)	... Shipping	Chicago	... Agricultural implements, grain and meat.
Bareilly (U. P.)	... Industry.	Cologne	... <i>Eau-de-Cologne</i> , (a scent).
Belfast (Ireland)	... Woodwork. ... Linen and ship-build-ing.	Dacca East Bengal	... Shell car-
Baranars (U. P.)	... Silk and brassware.		ving, Jute, buttons, sari and muslin.
Bethume (France)	... Coal field.	Darjeeling (Bengal)	... Tea and cinchona.
Bhagalpur (Bihar)	... Silk.		

Detroit (U. S. A.)	... Automobiles.	Lyons (France)	... Silk. industries.
Dhariwal (East Punjab).	... Woolen goods.	Madura (S. I.)	... Silk goods.
Dindigul (Madras)	... Cigar and tobacco	Mauritius (Indian Ocean)	... Sugar.
Dum Dum (Bengal)	... Ammuni- tions.	Melbourne (Australia)	... Chocolate manufac- ture..
Dundee (Scotland)	... Jute and Linen ma- nufacture.	Milan (Italy)	... Silk
Essen (Prussia)	... Engineering Works.	Mirzapur (U. P.)	... Carpets.
Glasgow (Scotland)	... Machinery and textiles.	Moradabad (U. P.)	... Utensils, Calico printing.
Gujranwala (West Punjab)	... Iron safes, almarahs, oranges & utensils.	Morocco (N. Africa)	... Leather.
Havana (Cuba)	... Tobacco and cigars.	Multan (West Punjab.)	... Pottery.
Hollywood (U. S. A.)	... Film industry.	Munich (Germany)	... Lenses.
Bombay	... Cotton and silk weaving.	New Orleans (U. S. A.)	... Cotton.
Jamshedpur (Bihar)	... Iron and steel industry.	Nottingham (England)	... Lace industry.
Johannssburg (S. Africa)	... Gold mines	Paris (France)	Fineries.
Kanpur (U. P.)	... Textiles, leather industry.	Pittsburg (U.S.A.)	... Iron, Steel.
Kansas (U.S.A.)	... Meat pack- ing.	Plymouth (England)	... Ship build- ing.
Katni (C. I.)	... Cement.	Raniganj (Bihar)	... Coal mines.
Kimberley (S. Africa)	... Diamond mining.	Saharanpur (U. P.)	... Mangoes.
Kolar (Mysore)	... Gold mines.	Sheffield (British Isles)	... Cutlery.
Leads (England)	... Woollen goods.	Sholapur (Bombay)	... Textiles.
Los Angeles (U.S.A.)	... Film produ- cing, oil mining.	Sialkot (West Punjab)	.. Sports goods.
Ludhiana (East Punjab)	... Hosiery.	Sukkur (Sind).	... Biscuits.
		Surat (Bombay)	... Silk brocade and em- broidery.

Srinagar (Kashmir)	... Wollen shawls, silk.	Venice (Italy)	... Glass manu- facture:
Sylhet (Assam)	... Tea, shell carving.	Vienna (Australia)	... Glass manu- facture.
Titagarh (Bengal)	... Paper and Jute.	Wazirabad (West Punjab).	... Cutlery.
Trichnopoly (Madras)	... Cotton, tobacco.	Wellington (England)	... Dairy pro- duce.
Trivandrum (Travancore)	... Wood carving, coir mat- ting.	Yenangyaung (Burma)	... Oil fields.
Tuticorn (Madras)	... Conch shell, fishery.	Zanzibar (E. Africa)	... Cloves.

WORLD PRODUCTION

1. Cereals

(a) *Wheat* : U. S. S. R., U. S. A., Canada, China, India, Pakistan, France, Argentine, Italy, Spain, Rumania.

Exporting centres	Importing Centre
New York } U. S. A.	London }
Duluth } U. S. A.	Liverpool }
Vancouver } Canada	Bristol }
Montreal } Canada	Genoa }
Buenos Aires : Argentine	Naples }
Odessa : Russia.	Hamburg : Germany
Karachi : Pakistan	Bombay : India.
Melbourne } Australia	
Adelaide } Australia	

Out of the average yield of 4,600 million bushels, U.S.S.R. produces 1,400, United State produces 870, Canada 420, India including Pakistan 334, China 300, France 276 and other countries 1,652.

[Note. Recent estimates place Soviet production at 1120 million bushels, although during the Russo-German conflict (1941-45) the production was much lower. The Chinese wheat crop is also estimated high now about 760 million bushels.

(b) *Rice* : Burma, China, India, Japan, Indo-China, Malaya, Java, Formosa, Siam, U. S. A., Korea, Philippines, Brazil, Nile Delta, Nigeria, Italy, Spain,

<i>Exporting Centres</i>	<i>Importing Centres</i>
Saigon } Indo China.	London : U. K.
Bangkok }	Hamburg : Germany.
Rangoon : Burma.	San Francisco : U. S. A.

China produces 44, India 43, Japan 11 and other countries 31. India and China, though world's largest producers, have no spare rice to export and have to import.

(c) *Maize* : U.S.A., Argentine, China, Yugoslavia, Hungary, Rumania, Brazil, U.S.S.R., Manchukuo, Italy, South Africa, Mexico, Indo-China.

<i>Exporting Centres</i>	<i>Importing Centres</i>
Chicago } U. S. A.	London } U. K.
New York }	Liverpool }
Buenos Aires : Argentine.	Hamburg : Germany.

2. Other Food Crops

(a) *Potatoes* : U.S.S.R., Germany, Poland, France, U.S.A., British Isles.

(b) *Sugar* : (i) *Cane Sugar*.—India, Cuba, Java, Hawaii, Brazil, Philippines, Formosa, Porto Rico, (Puerto Rico), Dominica, Australia, South Africa, Argentine, U. S. A., Mexico, Peru.

Out of 320 million cwts., Cuba produces 81, India 64, Java, 39, and other countries 136.

(ii) *Beet Sugar* : U. S. S. R., Germany, U. S. A., France, Poland, Czechoslovakia, Spain.

Out of 176 million cwts., Germany produces 33, Russia 26, Czechoslovakia 25 and other countries 92.

<i>Exporting Centres</i>	<i>Importing Centres</i>
Puerto Rico.	London
Havana : Cuba.	Liverpool } U. K.
Belize : British Honduras.	New York
Hawaiian Islands.	San Francisco } U.S.A.
Pernambuco : Brazil.	Lisbon : Portugal.
Tamatave : Madagascar.	Hamburg : Germany.
Batavia : Java.	(Cane Sugar.)
Hamburg : Germany (Beet Sugar.)	

3. Oils

Varieties of oil are : Olive, cotton-seed, mustard, rape, linseed, groundnut, palm, cocoanut.

- (a) *Olive Oil* : Italy, France, Tunis, Spain, Asia Minor.
- (b) *Cotton seed oil* : United States, India, China, Turkistan.
- (c) *Ground-nut oil* : India (Madras), Indo-China, West Indies, Africa, U.S.A., Mexico.
- (d) *Palm oil* : Upper Guinea, Congo, Indonesia.
- (e) *Cocoanut oil* : Malaya, Philippines, Ceylon, India, Indonesia, Fiji Islands, Africa, Cuba, Brazil, Panama Straits.
- (f) *Linseed* : Argentine, U.S.S.R., India, U.S.A.

4. Fruits.

- | | | | |
|-------------------|---|---|--|
| (a) <i>Apples</i> | } | British Columbia, California, Lake Penin- | |
| <i>Pears</i> | | | sula of Ontario, Nova Scotia, British |
| <i>Plums</i> | | | Isles, Western Europe, North-West India. |
| <i>Currants</i> | | | |
- Strawberries*
- (a) *Bananas* ; Canaries, Guatemala, Africa, Columbia, Formosa, Costa Rica, Panama, India.
 - (c) *Pineapple* : West Indies, Bermuda, Azores, Hawaii, Madeira, Canaries, Malaya States.
 - (d) *Dates* : Iran, Iraq, Oman, Syria, Egypt, Algeria, Morocco, Tunis, California, Florida, Spain.
 - (e) *Citrus Fruits* : Spain, Italy, Algeria, Sicily, West Indies, California, Florida, South Africa, South Australia, India.
 - (f) *Grapes* : Portugal, France, Italy, Spain, Hungary, Algeria, United States, North-West India.

5. Beverages, Narcotics etc.

- (a) *Tea* : China, India, Ceylon, Java, Japan.

Exporting Centres	Importing Centres.
Amoy	London . U.K.
Canton	Hamburg . Germany.
Shanghai	San Francisco } U.S.A. New York }

Calcutta : *India*.

Colombo : *Ceylon*.

Sourabaya : *Java*.

- (b) *Coffee* : Brazil, Colombia, Indonesia, Ecuador, Venezuela, Mexico, Guatemala, Salvador, Costa Rica in Central America, West Indies, Kenya, Arabia (Mocha Coffee).

Exporting Centres.

Para
Sao Paulo
Rio De Janeiro
Santos
Mocha : Arabia.
Batavia : Java.

Importing Centres.

New York
New Orleans
London : U.K.
Havre : France.
Trieste : Italy.

(c) *Tobacco* : U.S.A., China, India, U.S.S.R., Brazil, Indonesia, Japan, Greece, Italy., Philippines, Turkey.

Exporting Centres.

Havana : Cuba.
Bahia : Brazil.
New York : U.S.A.
Batavia : Java.
Alexandria : Egypt.

Importing Centres.

London
Liverpool.
Hamburg : Germany.
Calcutta
Bombay
Havre : France.

(d) *Wine* : France, Italy, Spain, Portugal, Germany, Canary Islands, West Indies, Algeria.

Exporting Centres.

Oporto
Lisbon
Paris : France.
Las Palamas : Canary Islands.
Funchal : Maderia Islands.
Algiers Algeria.
Jamaica : West Indies.

Importing Centres.

London : U.K.
Hamburg : Germany.
Bombay : India.
Calcutta :

(e) *Opium*, India, Egypt, Iran and Asia Minor. At one time India used to export large quantities of opium to China where the smoking of opium had become a widespread habit. By 1913, however, the export of opium to China stopped. By 1936 exports to all countries were prohibited except for medicinal purposes India is said to have lost an annual revenue of £6,000,000 as a result.

6. Spices.

(a) *Pepper* : Malaya Archipelago, Java, Dutch East Indies, Zanzibar.

(b) *Cloves* : Zanzibar, Indonesia, Palma Island.

(c) *Cardamom* : Travancore States (India).

(d) *Mustard* : East Indies, Asia Minor, Holland,

7. Clothing Fibres

(a) *Cotton* : U.S.A., India, China, Brazil, U.S.S.R., Egypt, Mexico, Peru, Turkey, Sudan, Argentine, Uganda.

<i>Exporting Centres</i>	<i>Importing Centres</i>
New Orleans	Glasgow
Galveston	} U.S.A. Liverpool
Bahia	} U.K. Hamburg : Germany.
Pernambuco	} Brazil. Trieste : Italy.
Karachi : Pakistan.	Osaka : Japan.
Bombay : India.	
Shanghai : China.	
Alexandria : Egypt.	

Of total world production of 100 million cwts., U. S. A. produces 55·3, India 21, Egypt 7·3, China 6·7 and other countries 9·7.

(b) *Wool* : Australia, Argentine, U.S.A., New Zealand, South Africa, U.S.S.R., China, Uruguay, U.K.

(c) *Jute* : Bengal, and very little in China, Ceylon, Egypt, Java.

<i>Exporting Centres</i>	<i>Importing Centres</i>
Calcutta	Dundee : U.K.
Chittagong	} India

Note. In 1951-52 India produced 4,677,541 bales of Jute.

(d) *Flax* : U.S.S.R., Poland, Latvia, Belgium, and Northern France, Ireland and Germany.

(e) *Silk* : China, Japan, Korea, India, Indo-China, Italy, Iran, Syria, Palestine, Turkey, France.

8. Minerals

(a) *Coal* : U.S.A., U.K., Germany, Poland, France, India, Japan, Belgium, South Africa, Czechoslovakia, Australia, Canada.

Exporting Centres.

New York	Bristol
Philadelphia	} U.S.A. New Castle
Hamburg : Germany.	} U.K. New Port
Durban : South Africa.	

(b) *Petroleum* : U.S.A., U.S.S.R., Venezuela, Iran, Mexico, Iraq, Rumania, Colombia, Argentine, Kuwait, Egypt.

Exporting Centres.

Boston	{	Baku	{	Caucasus Region
New York		Batum		Maracaibo : Venezuela.
Philadelphia		Maracaibo		
Vera Cruz : Mexico.		Batavia	:	Java.

(c) *Iron* : U.S.A., France, U.K., Germany, Spain, U.S.S.R., Sweden, Luxembourg, Canada.

(d) *Copper* : U.S.A., Algeria, Czechoslovakia, Chile, Canada, Northern Rhodesia, Belgium.

(e) *Aluminium* : U.S.A., Canada, Germany, France, Norway.

(f) *Tin* : Bolivia; Malaya, Indonesia, Belgium, Congo, Nigeria, China, Siam.

(g) *Manganese* : U.S.S.R., India.

(h) *Quicksilver* : Italy, Spain, U.S.A.

(i) *Platinum* : U.S.S.R., Columbia.

(j) *Gold* : South Africa, Australia, Canada, U.S.A., U.S.S.R., Mexico, Columbia, Chile, Korea, India.

(k) *Silver* : Mexico, U.S.A., Canada, Burma, Peru, Congo.

(l) *Asbestos* : Canada, Rhodesia.

(m) *Chromium* : Rhodesia, India, Cuba, New Caledonia, Portuguese East Africa.

(n) *Nickel* : Canada.

(o) *Lead* : U.S.A., Mexico, Australia, Canada, Belgium, Spain, Germany, Italy, Northern Rhodesia, Poland.

(p) *Uranium* (essential for the production of atomic energy) : Canada, Belgian Congo, India (Travancore), Antarctic regions.

9. Miscellaneous

(a) *Rubber* : Malaya, Indonesia, Ceylon, North Borneo, Siam, Indo China, India, Brazil.

Exporting Centres

Singapore : Malaya.

Batavia : Java.

Para : Brazil.

Lagos : Upper Guinea.

Boma : Lower Guinea.

Colombo : Ceylon.

Importing Centres

London } U.K.

Liverpool }

New York : U.S.A.

Yokohama : Japan.

Hamburg : Germany.

La Havre }

Marseilles } France

(b) **Timber** : (i) Pines
Firs
Birches
Spruce } Canada, Siberia, Northern Europe
(Finland, Sweden, Norway).

(ii) Rubber
Mahogany
Ebony
Palm } The Amazon basin, the Congo
basin, the Malaya Archipelago.

(iii) Teak : Burma, Siam.

Exporting Centres

Vancouver	}	Canada
Ottawa		
Montreal		
Seattle	}	U.S.A.
New Orleans		
Chicago		

Riga : Latvia.

Rangoon : *Burma.*

Batavia : Java

(c) *Cinchona* : The Himalayas, Nilgris, South America, Java, Ceylon.

(d) *Camphor* : Japan, Formosa Island.

(e) *Marble*: Italy, Rutland (U.S.A.), Central India.

(f) *Slate.* : Great Britain, U.S.A., France, Belgium.

(g) Glass : U.S.A., Germany, Great Britain, Belgium.

(h) Meat : U.S.A., Argentine, Australia, United Kingdom, Canada, Poland, Czechoslovakia, Germany, New Zealand.

Exporting Centres

Chicago
New York }
Cincinnati } U.S.A.

Buenos Aires Argentine.

Fray Bantos : Uruguay. Hamburg : Germany.

Melbourne } Australia

Sydney } Australia.

Timaru *New Zealand*

Importing Centres

London }
Glasgow }
Liverpool }

La Havre : France.

Hamburg : Germany.

(i) Milk : U.S.A., Canada, Germany, United Kingdom, Australia, Denmark, Sweden, Netherlands.

(j) Hides and Skins : India, Brazil, South Africa, Mediterranean lands, China, New Zealand.

Exporting Centres

Buenos Aires : Argentina.
 Santos : Brazil
 Durban } South Africa
 Cape Town }
 Madras } India
 Bombay }
 Karachi : Pakistan
 Timaru : New Zealand.

Importing Centres

London : U.K.
 Boston } U.S.A.
 Philadelphia }
 Hamburg : Germany.
 La Havre : France.

(k) *Motor Cars* : U.S.A., Germany, United Kingdom, France, U.S.S.R., Canada.

(l) *Merchant Vessels* : U.S.A., United Kingdom, Germany, Denmark, Sweden, Japan.

(m) *Steam and Motor Vessels*. United Kingdom, U. S. A., Germany, Sweden, Netherlands, Denmark.

CURRENCIES OF DIFFERENT COUNTRIES

*Country**Coin*

<i>Country</i>	<i>Coin</i>	<i>Country</i>	<i>Coin</i>
Abyssinia	... Talar	Gutemala	... Quetzal
Albania	... Lek	Haiti	... Gourde
Argentina	... Peso	Holland	... Florin
Austria	... Schilling	Honduras	... Lempira
Belgium	... Belgian Franc	Hungary	... Forint
Bolivia	... Boliviano	Iceland	... Krona
Brazil	... Cruzeiro	India	... Rupee
Britain	... Pound, Shilling	Indo-China	... Piaster
British Malaya	... Dollar	Indonesia	... Dutch guilder
Bulgaria	... Lev	Iraq	... Dinar
Canada	... Dollar	Israel	... Israeli pound
Chile	... Peso	Italy	... Lira (Paper)
China	... National Dollar	Japan	... Yen
Columbia	... Peso	Java	... Guilder
Costa Rica	... Colon	Korea (Chosen)	... Won
Cuba	... Peso	Lithuana	... Litas
Czechoslovakia	... Koruna	Mexico	... Peso
Denmark	... Krone	Netherlands	... Guilder
Dutch Indies	... Guilder	Nicaragua	... Cordoba
Ecuador	... Sucre	Norway	... Krone
Egypt	... Egyptian Pound	Panama	... Balboa
Estonia	... Kroon	Paraguay	... Guarani
Finland	... Markka	Persia (Iran)	... Rial
France	... Franc	Peru	... Sol
Germany	... Reichmark	Philippines	... Peso
Greece	... Drachma	Poland	... Zloty
		Rumania	... Leu
		Portugal	... Escudo

<i>Country</i>	<i>Coin</i>	<i>Country</i>	<i>Coin</i>
Salvador	... Colon	Union of South Africa	... Dollar
Siam	... Baht	United States	... Dollar
Spain	... Peseta	Uruguay	... Peso
Sweden	... Krona	U. S. S. R.	... Rouble
Switzerland	... Franc	Venezuela	... Bolivar
Turkey	... Pound	Yugoslavia	... Dinar

VI. THE FLORA AND FAUNA OF THE EARTH

Flora

Ajwan. A kind of spice grown in Bengal. Digestive.

Amber. The resin from certain extinct cone bearing trees obtained from the Baltic coast of Prussia, used for ornamental purposes.

Banksia. An Australian shrub with clustres of yellow flowers.

Benroe. Derived from the bark of a tree, Dryand, which grows in Indo-China and the Eastern Archipelago, used as incense.

Buckwheat. A grain crop, very nutritious, grown especially in the U. S. A.

Camphor. Derived from the species of cinnamon which grows in China and the Malaya Peninsula.

Cardamom. A spice of India grown in Travancore.

Cedar, Red. A wood specially used in pencil making. Found in Central America and West Indies.

Cinnamon. The dried bark of a tree which grows in Ceylon and other sub-tropical regions.

Cloves. Flower buds of Caryophyaus Aromaticus dried before opening.

Coca. A shrub whose leaves are chewed for power for enduring fatigue. Grows in Andes in Bolivia and Peru. It yields alkaloid cocaine.

Cummin. The seed of a plant native to Upper Nile regions.

Dragon's blood. A red resin which exudes from several trees of the tropics, used for colouring of varnishes and in making wood-polishes.

Ebony. Hard, black wood of various trees like Koe, a native of India.

Eucalyptus. Tree growing chiefly in Australia. Yields an aromatic oil.

Fustic. A dye wood obtained from a wood grown in Nicaragua.

Gamboge. The hardened sap of a tree belonging to Indo-China and the Eastern Archipelago.

Gum Arabic. Derived from various species of the acacia specially in the Sudan and the Deccan.

Guttapercha. Hardened juice of several tropical trees found in Malaya Peninsula, Dutch East Indies etc. It is used for many of the same purposes as rubber.

Indigo. A blue dye, from a shrub grown in tropical parts of South-Eastern Asia.

Jarrah and Kavri. Grown in Western Australia. Useful for making piles to be sunk in water.

Kauri Gum. The resin of New Zealand pine.

Kola Nuts. Derived from a tree in tropical Africa and contains caffeine.

Logwood. A dark red wood found in Mexico and West Indies.

Mace. The second coat of nutmeg ; kind of spice.

Mahogany. A valuable fine hard wood specially fit for high class polish, grown in tropical America.

Mangrove. Tree abounding in tropical coastal swamps.

Manjeeth. Indian madder—a dye stuff.

Mastic. The product of spicess of Pistacia. Grown in the Mediterranean region used in the making of varnishes and lacquer.

Mezquite. An American tree producing a sweet pod.

Myrrh. Gum resin of a tree grown in Arabia and Abyssinia.

Nutmeg. The kernel of a fruit tree native of Moluccas.

Poppy Seed. Exported from India. Its oil is used for cooking and mixing colours and in soap making.

Scarlet-grain. Scale-insect from which a red dye is made in Russia and Turkey.

Sarsaparilla. Climbing plant native to Central America. Contains a volatile oil.

Soya bean. Native of Manchuria. Its oil is used in soap making and for other purposes common with most vegetable oils. A nutritious food.

Star anise. The seeds of a tree belonging to Southern China.

Sultana. Raisin obtained as a result of drying a kind of white grapes. Found chiefly in Symrna, Turkey.

Teak. A tree whose wood is highly useful for ship building as it preserves iron by preventing rust on account of its oil. Specially found in Burma and Siam.

Turmeric. An extract from the underground stem of a plant belonging to Indo China, India and China used as yellow dye.

Upas Tree. Found in Java and tropical Africa. Its juice contains a poison.

Vanilla. The pod of a twining orchid belonging to Mexico and South America.

Yam. Tropical plant, native to East Indies largely cultivated in the West Indies and China.

FAUNA

Aardwolf. Resembles hyena, found in South Africa.

Addax. Kind of antelope found in the deserts of Arabia and Northern Africa.

Agouti. A rodent in south America and West Indies.

Albatross. A huge bird often found miles away from the land in the South Sea.

Alligator. Resembles crocodile ; found in the Mississippi.

Alpaca. A kind of woolly animal found in Bolivia and Peru. Resembles Llama.

Antelope. Found in Africa, Arabia, Syria and Asia.

Armadillo. A small mammal, its body covered with armour-like bony shell. Can roll itself into a ball. Found in South America.

Asp. A poisonous snake found in the Mediterranean.

Aye-Aye. Animal found only in Madagascar. It is about the size of a cat, and very little is known about it.

Babiroussa. Animal of the pig family found in Celebes.

Baboon. Kind of monkey. Native of Asia and Africa.

Badger. A carnivorous animal mostly found in Great Britain.

Bandicoot. Animal found in Australia. Resembles Kangaroo in being a marsupial, but is of the size of a rabbit.

Beluga. White whale found round Greenland and Gulf of St. Lawrence.

Bison. Animal of the ox family. Found in North America and Europe.

Borzoi. Russian wolf hound.

Canary. A song-bird, native of the Canary and Azores Islands.

Caypu. A South American water rodent, with valuable fur.

Caribou. Variety of reindeer found in Greenland and Canada.

Centipede. Animal resembling insect without wings, with a large number of legs.

Chamois. Animal found in Alps. A kind of antelope remarkable for its jumping powers.

Chimpanzee. African anthropoid ape, which more than any animal resembles man.

Chow Chow. Domestic dog. Native of China. At one time very popular in England.

Dodo. An extinct flightless bird of Mauritius.

Dolphin. An ocean mammal of the whale family generally found in the Mediterranean.

Duck-Bill. Egg-laying mammal peculiar to Tasmania and Australia.

Elephant, African. It differs from the Indian elephant by having larger ears and a straight back.

Elk. A deer found in Northern Europe, Siberia and America.

Emu. A bird found only in Australia and the neighbouring islands.

Ermine. A fur animal in Asia.

Gazelle. An antelope found in North Africa and Asia.

Gemsbok. A South-West African Antelope.

Gibbon. A kind of ape native to Indo-Malaya and found also in adjacent islands.

Giraffe. The tallest of all animals ; is a native of Africa south of the Sahara. It attains to a height of 18 or 19 feet.

Gnu. A large antelope of Africa. Head and horns of a buffalo, neck and mane of an ass and bushy tail.

Gorilla. Largest of the manlike apes, native of Equatorial Africa.

Hippopotamus. Large animal now found only in Tropical Africa.

Hyrax. A tailless animal about the size of a rabbit. Found in Africa and Asia.

Jaguar. Animal of the cat tribe found in North and South Americas.

Kangaroo. Mammal of Australia found also in the adjacent islands. Has a long, muscular tail, short fore-legs and a pouch for carrying the young.

King Cobra. A large, hooded, deadly snake, found in Chota Nagpur (India) and elsewhere, feeding on other snakes.

Kinkajou. A carnivorous animal of the Raccoon family found in America.

Kiwi. New Zealand bird.

Koodoo. An African antelope.

Lemur. Monkey-like mammal confined to Madagascar.

Llama. A South American ruminant, looking like a long-necked sheep with a deep cleft between the toes.

Lovebirds. Small parrot-like birds with handsome feathers

Lynx. A carnivorous animal of the cat family found in Europe, Asia and North America.

Macaw. A parrot of South America. ‘Incorrigible screamer.’

Magpie. A good pet of the crow family.

Mandril. Species of the baboon family, a native of West Africa.

Muskrat. A kind of beaver belonging to North America.

Mynah. An Indian talking bird.

Ocelot. Leopard cat found in America.

Okapi. A ruminant of Africa (Belgian Congo).

Organ-Utang. “Man of the woods.” A man-like ape of Borneo and Sumatra.

Ostrich. A flightless bird indigenous to Africa and S. W. Asia. The largest living bird. Runs with great speed and swallows almost everything. Hunted for its feathers.

Pangolin. A toothless mammal found in South Africa and Asia.

Panther. An Indian leopard.

Pelican. Large fish-eating water bird.

Pekin Robin. A delightful songster.

Penguin. Flightless sea-bird found in Antarctic regions.

Polecat. A carnivorous mammal, found in great Britain.

Puma. Large American cat called the American lion.

Python. A large snake that crushes its prey and then swallows it. Founded in Dutch East Indies, Burma and Eastern India.

Quagga. A kind of Zebra with irregular chocolate brown stripes and white under parts. Found in Africa.

Ratel. A carnivorous animal found in India and Africa.

Reindeer. Genus of deer found in snowfields of Siberia.

Rhea. A bird of ostrich family found in Pampas.

Rhinoceros. A mammal of Africa also found in Java, Sumatra and India. Has thick hides.

Sable. An animal of Russia and Siberia and North America known for rich fur.

Sea otter. Known for its fur and found in North America.

Skunk. An animal with a dark brown black and white furry coat, emitting a disgusting smell Native of North America.

Stoat. A fur animal of Europe.

Tse-Tse Fly. A fly of tropical Africa, resembling the house-fly.

Walrus. Large marine mammal of North Polar regions.

Wapiti. Large North American deer.

Wattle Bird. Found only in Australia.

Whydah. Beautiful birds of the weaver family with long tail native of Africa.

Wombat. Australian marsupial (carrying the young in a pouch like the Kangaroo).

Wryneck. Bird of woodpeck family.

Yak. Animal native of Tibet. A beast of burden, it is also kept for its milk and flesh.

Zebra. Striped animal of the horse type, and native of Africa.

Zebu. Animal of the ox family. Found in India and other parts of Asia.

VII. TRADES & INDUSTRIES OF THE WORLD

Sources of Industrial Commodities

Alcohol. Potatoes.

Alkali. Salt, carbonate of lime, coal and sulphuric acid.

Ambergris. Obtained from the intestines of spermwhale and used in perfumery.

Artificial Silk. Cotton waste or sawdust or wood pulp.

Alum. Obtained by several processes from clay or slate.

Aluminium. Sulphuric acid, alumina, and alkali water.

Bleaching Powder. Chlorine and lime.

Bone ash. Used in the manufacture of pottery and a good manure. Bones got from Brazil, Argentine and India.

Brazilian Wax. A glutinous powder in the leaves of a kind of palm tree. For making candles.

Camphor. Chips of camphor wood are distilled with water, and the camphor is condensed and purified.

Carbide. Lime and carbon.

Catgut. Consists of dried and twisted intestines of sheep and other animals for strings for musical instruments, racket cords, cords for clock makers, etc.

Celulose. A carbohydrate constituent of nearly all plants and vegetable structures. It occurs mostly in the fibres of linen and cotton.

Cement. Chalk and clay.

China. Clay, firewood or coal.

Cinchona. A tree from whose bark extracts are obtained, such as quinine. Native of the eastern slopes of the Andes. 3,000

to 10,000 ft. above sea level. Now grown also in Java, India and Ceylon. Java produces 90 per cent of the world's total production.

Coal tar. Coal.

Coir. The fibre of cocoanuts used for thick matting brooms, brushes, door mats, stair carpets, etc. Grown in tropical countries, specially Travancore.

Coke. Coal.

Coral. Is the name given to the skeleton of a whole group of marine animals. Red or pink coral is used in making trinkets and other ornaments. The industry is specially an Indian one.

Dugong. A fish of Queensland from which cod liver oil is obtained which is also used in cooking.

Feathers. Feathers are got from Iceland derived from the eider duck. Ostrich feathers for ornamental purposes are got from South Africa. Other bird feathers from other countries.

Felt. Wool, hair and fur.

Glass. Sand, potash and soda, and silica.

Glucose. A kind of sugar derived from the starch of maize and potatoes. For medical purposes, as a sweetener in jam-making, in brewing, etc.

Glue. Bones, hides, skins and boiling water.

Gutta Percha. A hardened juice of several tropical trees found in East Indies. Used as a substitute for rubber.

Honey. Specially found in Australia and New Zealand. Bees' wax is a bye-product.

Horns and Hoofs. From India. Used for making combs, knife handles, etc.

Horse Hair. From Russia, Siberia and Argentine. For stuffing in upholstery.

Human Hair. Marseilles is the chief trade centre.

Isinglass. The finest from the gelatine, used in confectionery and arts and in clarifying wine and beer. Obtained from the swim bladder of various kinds of fish specially got from India, Brazil, China, Russia and U.S.A.

Kapok. A silk cotton tree used for making life-jackets, grown in India and Eastern Archipelago.

Koumiss. The fermented milk of mares is a favourite drink among certain nomadic tribes in Central Asia. Made in Russia. Used as a remedy for consumption.

Lac. A kind of resin derived from the sap of the trees to which the insect attaches itself but modified in its properties by passing through the body of the insect itself. The twigs encrusted with the substance form the *stick lac*. When freed from the wood as repeatedly washed the substance appears in grain and is called *seed lac*. This is melted and is reconsolidated into thin flakes and is known as *shell lac*. The seed lac after being melted is allowed to drop into rounded pieces an inch or more in diameter and is known as *button lac*. When undergoing washings, a red substance originally formed in the body of the insect is separated from the insect and this being made into cakes and dried is called *lac-dye*.

Menhaden. A fish found off U. S. A. Eastern coast from which cod liver oil is obtained, chiefly used in leather dressing, rope making and painting.

Opium. The dried juice that oozes out of poppy plants.

Paper. Straw, rags, wood pulp, grass, bamboo, linen, China clay.

Parchment. Is the skin of sheep prepared for writing on.

Pearls and Mother of Pearl are derived from various shells specially of the oyster family. Obtained mostly from the Persian Gulf, Gulf of Manar (Ceylon) and Sulu Archipelago, Gulf of California, North-West coast of Australia.

Pig's Bristles. From Germany, Russia, China and India. For making brushes.

Piassava. The fibres of the leaves of screw pine, from the outside of the palm for manufacturing brushes and brooms. Found in Brazil.

Quinine. Bark of the Cinchona tree.

Rubber. A coagulated latex or juice derived from a variety of trees, all tropical. Grown in the Amazon Valley. Brazil, Peru, Bolivia, Burma, Malaya, Assam, Borneo, and Ceylon.

Rum. Molasses and alcohol.

Shellac. A resinous matter deposited on certain trees by a small insect.

Silk. Cocoons of silk worms fed on mulberry plants.

Soap. Soda or potash, or oils.

Soda water. Water and carbon dioxide gas.

Solder. Lead and tin.

Sponges. A horny internal skeleton of marine animals, whose living portion consists of a coating of slime, which is removed before the sponge is treated as a commercial article. Obtained from the Eastern half of the Mediterranean, Bahamas, Cuba, Florida.

Sulphate of Ammonia. Coal.

Sulphuric Acid. Nitrate of soda and sulphur or iron pyrites.

Train oil. From whales and seal fisheries of Greenland, Norway and Iceland. Oil used for various medicinal purposes, soap boiling and candle making.

Turpentine. From cuts made in the trunks of some trees belonging to the pine family.

Vegetable Ivory. The hard albumen of seeds of palm from Columbia. For making buttons and toys.

Vellum. The skin of calf prepared for writing on.

Vicua. Fibres of the leaves of the screw pine, a native of South Asia, Madagascar, for making combs.

Whalebone. From Greenland. A horny but flexible substance used as a stiffener for woman's corsets.

IMPORTANT BUILDINGS, STREETS AND SITES

Abu Simbel Temple. Great rock temple carved out of solid stone in Egypt. Built in the time of the XIX Dynasty about 1250 B. C.

Acropolis. A small hill overlooking the sea in Greece on which were built great temples by the ancient Greeks, e.g., the Parthenon, the Erechtheum and the Prapylae.

Advocate's Library. National Library of Scotland in Edinburgh.

Aintree (Outside Liverpool). Site for Grand National Steeple chase.

Alhambra. The palace of the Moorish Kings at Granada built in 13th century (1248-1354). A great masterpiece of Mohammedan architecture.

Alsatia. The precincts of white Friars in London. Once sanctuary for lawbreakers.

Arafa (Arafata). A Hill near Mecca, the scene of certain ceremonies in the course of the Muslim pilgrimage.

Anarkali. A business centre of Lahore (Pakistan).

Areopagus. The hill of Ares (Mars) near the Aerropolis at Athens, meeting place of the "upper council" highest judicial tribunal of the city, in old days.

Ashmolean building. A museum erected between 1670-1683 at Oxford for the reception of curiosities given by Elias Ashmole.

Abbotsford. Residence built by Sir Walter Scott on the South West of the Tweed.

Avenue of Sphinxes. A great avenue recently discovered which connects the temples of Luxor with Karnak (in Egypt).

Blair House. Private Residence in Washington of the President of the U. S. A.

Balmoral Castle. A royal residence in Aberdeenshire, (Scotland) for the king and queen of England.

Belvedere. Once the viceregal Home at Calcutta.

Bankside. Right bank of the Thames at Southwark noted for its theatres and disreputable haunts.

Bund, The. A great lake at Srinagar, Kashmir.

Bastille, The. State prison of Paris destroyed in 1789 at the outbreak of French Revolution.

Bethnal Green. An eastern suburb near London.

Big Ben. Clock in Westminster, on the tower of the Houses of Parliament.

Billingsgate. Fish Market established in the gate of this name in London. Hence foul language.

Birdcage walk. In St. James Park, London.

Bishops gate. Principal north gate of the ancient city of London.

Black Friar's Theatre, The. An apartment in the dissolved monastery of Black Friars where Shakespeare acted.

Blenheim Palace, The. The mansion near Woodstock Oxfordshire, erected after the victory of Blenheim (1704), by the Duke of Marlborough.

Bloomsbury Square. Near the British Museum in London, a lower middle class and artistic locality.

Bodleian Library. At Oxford.

Bond Street. In London famous for its drapery and cloth shops.

Bourse. The Stock Exchange of Paris.

Bow Street. In London, Garden in which the principal Metropolitan police court is situated.

Bread Street. Off Cheapside, at one time the chief bread market in London.

British Museum, The. Bloomsbury, London, at the site of Old Montague House.

Broadway. Main throughfare in New York. Home of theatres.

Blue Mosque. In Tabriz built in 1468 A. D.

Brown House. Former headquarters of the Nazis, in Berlin.

Buckingham Palace. A royal place in London built by the Duke of Buckingham.

- Burlington House.* In London, Headquarters of Royal Academy and various learned societies, including the British Academy.
- Capitol, The.* (1) The summit of the Capitoline hill in Ancient Rome.
(2) Seat of the National Congress in Washington.
- Carlton House.* Residence of the Prince of Wales in London.
- Carlton Club, The.* In Pall Mall, club for men of conservative opinions.
- Carlton House.* In London, Famous as the home of George IV when Prince of Wales.
- Champ'd Elysses.* A famous thoroughfare in Paris.
- Champ-de Mars* Open square in Paris.
- Charing Cross.* In London, the site of what was the hamlet of Charing in the time of Edward I A railway station.
- Chatham Home.* Headquarters of the London Institute of international affairs.
- Cleopatra's Needle.* An obelisk of 186 tons weight and 68½ ft. high brought from Alexandria to London by Sir Erasmus Wilson and erected on the Thames Embankment, London.
- Charter House, The.* Near Smithfield, London, one of the houses of the Carthusian Order in England.
- Cenotaph.* The memorial to the dead of the Great War in the Whitehall at London.
- Cheapside.* A busy market in Medieval London.
- Cheyne Row and Walk.* In Chelsee.
- Chequers, The.* Country residence of the Prime Minister of England.
- Christ's Hospital.* Also known as blue Coat School London. Coleridge and Lamb studied here.
- Christianborg Castle.* One of the centuries old slave fort on the coast line of Gold Coast of Africa, built in ages past to establish European supremacy in that part of Africa.
- Coliseum, The.* Flavian amphitheatre in Rome.
- Cornhill.* Corn Market in London.
- Covent Garden.* In London a flower and fruit market.
- Crosby Hall.* In Bishopsgate, London, a hostel for women students.
- Crystal Palace.* In Hyde Park London, where the Great Exhibition was held in 1851. Destroyed by fire, November, 1936.
- Dier-el-Bahari.* A very beautiful ancient temple of simple design, carved out of rock in Egypt.

Daventry. Empire Broadcasting station.

Doctor's Commons. Originally the common table and dining hall of the college of Doctors of civil law in London, now the name applied to the site where the building stood.

Daytona Beach. Motor racing place in Florida.

Dome of the Rock or the Mosque of Omar. In Jerusalem built in 691 A.D.

Dove Cottage. A short distance from the N. E. shore of Grasmere lake. Wordsworth lived here.

Durbarsahib. The famous Golden Temple at Amritsar.

Downing Street. Official residence of the Prime Minister (No. 10); of the Chancellor of Exchequer (No. 11), and of the Whip (No. 12).

Drury Lane. London, so called from the large house belonging to Drury family. Site of the famous Drury Lane Theatre.

Eton Hall. Residence of the Duke of Windsor.

Empire State Building. 1200 ft. high building in New York. Is perhaps the loftiest building in the world. Has 102 stories..

Ely Palace. A splendid place with a great garden in Holborn district of London belonging to the bishops of Ely, the site now called Hatton Garden.

Ermine Street or Ermington Street or Ermyn Street. A road corresponding in parts with the old Roman Road from London to Lincoln.

Exchange, The New. A Bazar on the south side of the Strand, London.

Eiffel Tower. Colossal iron structure wireless tower standing 984 ft. high above the earth and trying to kiss the very heavens, Paris.

Exeter Hall. A large hall in the Strand, London.

Elysees Palace. Residence of the French President.

Fingal's Cave. A vast natural cavern in Staffa island.

Escurial. One of the largest palaces in Spain.

Flaminian Way, The. The great Northern Road of ancient Roman Empire.

Fleet Prison. Stood in the neighbourhood of the Farrington Street, London, alongside the Fleet River.

Fleet Street. Headquarters of London Journalism.

Fosse Way, The. A Roman road running across England from Bath to Lincoln.

Gateway of India, At Bombay harbour,

Globe Theatre, The. A playhouse built in 1599 in Southwark where several of Shakespeare's plays were first produced.

Gray's inn. Holborn, one of the old inns of Court:

Gresvenor Gallery, The. Bond Street, London, for the exhibition of pictures of Modern School.

Gretna Green. A spot celebrated for runaway marriages, in Dumfriesshire, Scotland.

Groot Schuur. Residence of the Premier of South Africa.

Guild Hall. Headquarters of the City Corporation in London.

Gutter Lane. In the city of London formerly the street of goldsmiths.

Jallianwala Bag. A big enclosed lawn near Golden Temple, Amritsar, scene of indiscriminate shooting of Indians in a public meeting in the garden, by Indian soldiers under the command of General Dyer.

Hadrians wall. Wall between the Solway and the mouth of the Tyne built by the Roman Emperor Hadrian in England.

Hampton Court. On the Thames, twelve miles West of the centre of London.

Harley Street. In the West End of London inhabited mostly by medical specialists.

Haffkine Institute. Plague Research Institute at Bombay.

Holland House. In Kensington, where Joseph Addison died.

Hollywood. A suburb of Los Angeles, California, centre of cinematographic industry.

Hyde Park. In London, part of the property of Old Abbey of Westminster. A pleasant resort.

India House. London. Office of the High Commissioner for India.

Kaaba. Sacred shrine in the Great Mosque at Mecca.

Karnak Temple. Egypt, built over 3500 years ago, is in ruins now.

Kensington Palace. A former royal residence in London.

Kew Gardens. Chief Botanical gardens in England on the Thames nine miles west of London.

Khajuraho Temple. One of the most beautiful temples built during the Gupta period in Chhatarpur state. It is admired on account of its innumerable spires which cluster round the main spire and make one feel that he is looking at a mountain.

Konarak Temple. One of the finest old temples in Orissa, shaped as a chariot, and dedicated to the Sun god.

Kremlin. The seat of Soviet Government in Moscow. Formerly a citadel. Founded in 1485.

Lick. Observatory in California.

Lombard Street. London Banking and Commercial Headquarters.

Long Champs. Race Course of Paris, where Grand Prix is run.

Lord Cricket Ground. Headquarters of M.C.C. in London.

Louvre. The ancient palace of the kings of France in Paris.
Now a museum and art gallery.

Ludgate. One of the ancient gates of London; Gate house became a prison for debtors of better sort.

Lyceum Theatre, The. At first known as the English Opera House in London.

Mall, The. A walk sheltered by trees along the N. side of St. James Park London.

Mansion House. Official Residence of Lord Mayor of London.

Marlborough House. Residence for members of the Royal family in London.

Mistg Arrier. Foreign Office at Tokyo.

Mayfair. A district North of Piccadilly, London, so called from an annual fair held in May. Aristocratic families live here.

Mermaid Tavern. Stood in Bread Street, London, haunted by the wits of the Elizabethian Age.

Michael's Mount, St. Off the coast of Cornwall.

Mincing lane. In the City of London, chief centre of trade in tea, sugar, etc.

Mitra Tavern, The. Stood in Mitra Court, Fleet Street, London, frequented by Dr. Johnson.

Montmartre. A district in the North of Paris, centre of literary and artistic cabarets.

Notre Dame de Pairs. The cathedral Church of Paris. Begun in 1163 and completed in 1300 A.D. after about 150 years of un-interrupted work on it. It stands majestically on the river Seine. Great example of Gothic architecture.

The Old Baily. The central criminal court on the site of Newgate Gaol.

Old Vick, The. A theatre on the Waterloo Bridge Road, London.
Formerly Royal Victoria Hall.

Olympia. A small plain in Elis in the N. W. of Peloponnesus where the Olympic games were celebrated. Also a pleasure resort in London.

Oval, The Kensington. Cricket ground of the Surrey County Club in South London.

Oxford Street. Street in which the Marble Arc stands. Many large shops on it.

Pall Mall. A street in London.

Paternoster Row. In London adjoining St. Paul's Cathedral.
Paul's, St., Covent Garden. In London, destroyed by fire but rebuilt.

Parthenon. A temple of Minerva at Athens. Now in ruins.
Paul's Cathedral, St. In London. (1675-1710) Badly damaged in World War II.

Pasteur Institute. At Kasauli for treatment of persons bitten by rabid animals. Now a research institute.

Paul's walk. A walk in St. Pauls.

Pennsylvania Avenue. A great busy central street in Washington between the Blair House and the White House.

Pisa, The Leaning Tower. 179 ft. high leaning tower at Pisa, Italy, completed in 1350, swaying on one side over a dozen feet. Galilio conducted his famous experiments with falling weights in 1589.

Pushkar Lake. Holy lake, nestling among the hills of the Aravalli range about seven miles from Ajmer, dedicated to Bhrama, the creator.

Pyramids. Ancient monumental structures in Egypt.

Quai D' Orsay. French Foreign Office.

Ranelagh. At Chelsea, London, a place of Public amusement. It was closed in 1804.

Raisina. New Delhi.

Rashtrapati Bhavan. Government House Delhi, the official residence of the President of the Indian Union.

Ridge, The. Near Delhi. Site of the Coronation 1911.

Rockefeller Center. In New York U. S. A. completed in 1940. Is a remarkable example of American skyscraper architecture.

Roman Wall, The. Hadrian's Wall in England.

Rose Theatre, The. On Bank side, Southwark.

Rotten Row. A road in Hyde Park, London, reserved for horse riding.

Shantiniketan. University in Bengal (Bolpur) founded by Rabindra Nath Tagore.

St. James Palace. Royal Residence in London.

St. Peters. A Cathedral at Rome.

Sandringham. A Royal country seat in Norfolk near Wash.

Saviour's Church, St. In Southwark.

Scotland Yard. New Headquarters of Metropolitan Police in London.

Savoy, The. A large hotel between the Strand, London, and the river.

Sistine Chapel, The. A Chapel in Vatican at Rome.

Somerset House. In London, Office of Revenue Department etc.
Record office for birth certificates.

Star Chamber, The. An apartment in the Royal Palace of Westminster. Formerly a lawcourt.

Taj Mahal. Mausoleum of Mumtaz Mahal at Agra built by Shah Jehan.

Talbot Home. (Toc. H.) Soldier's club and hostel.

Tammany Hall. Headquarters of a political organization of New York.

Tate Gallery, The. Millbank, London, a Gallery of Modern Foreign Art and British Art from the 18th century to the present day.

Singing Tower. A tower standing majestically 250 ft. by the Mountain Lake in Florida (U.S.A.).

Valley of Kings. A valley in Egypt where kings were buried in ancient times. Here the Mummy of Tut-Ankh-Amen was dug out nearly 30 years ago by Mr. Howard Carter.

Tom Tower. Over the gate of Christ Church College in Oxford.

Tower Hill. Adjacent to the Tower of London.

Tower of London, The. The ancient fortress of London. Was used, at different times, as a royal residence and state prison.

Trafalgar Square. In London built to celebrate the victory of Trafalgar.

Traitor's Gate. The river gate of the Tower of London.

Trusty's Home. Headquarters of the Association of Seamen responsible for all pilotage around British coasts.

Vimy Ridge, The. Canadian War Memorial in France is erected here.

Victoria and Albert Museum. At South Kensington, London.

Vatican. Official residence of the Pope. The greatest palace of the world.

Wall Street. In lower New York, U. S. A., the stock Exchange. It contains most of the chief banks, insurance offices, shipping offices etc. and the stock exchange, metal exchange and other such institutions and is the hub of the American financial world.

Wardour Street. A Street in London. Home of antique furniture, etc.

Watling Street. One of the Great Roman roads of Britain running from Dover to Chester.

West Point. In New York State on the West bank of Hudson. An Army training centre.

Wailing Wall. Part of the Western Wall of the Temple of Court of Jerusalem.

Westminster Abbey. A monastery dedicated to St. Peter on the island of Thorney in the estuary of Thames. Many great men and kings of England are buried here. Is a fine example of the famed Gothic Architecture.

Westminster Hall. A part of old Westminster Palace.

White House, The Official residence of U. S. A. President in Washington.

Whitehall. British Government offices housed in Whitehall once known as York Palace.

White Tower. The largest building in the Tower of London containing fine collection of armour.

Windsor Castle. Royal Residence of the English royal family on the Thames

White Lodge. Birthplace of King Edward VIII.

York Home. Royal Residence in London forming a part of St. James Palace.

MISCELLANEOUS INFORMATION

High Buildings and Towers

	<i>Height in feet.</i>
Palace of the Soviet. Moscow (when completed)	... 1,300
Empire State Building (U. S. A.)	... 1,250
Chrysler Building (U. S. A.)	... 1,046
Eiffel Tower (at Paris, France)	... 985
Bank of the Manhattan Bldg. (U. S. A.)	... 927
Crane tower (U. S. A.)	... 880
R. C. A. Rockefeller Center	... 850
Woolworth Building (U. S. A.)	... 792
Farmer's Trust N. Y.	... 767
Terminal Tower (U. S. A.)	... 708
Metropolitan Life Bldg. (New York)	... 700
Lincoln Bldg. (New York)	... 673
Singer „ („)	... 612
Continental Bank Bldg. (New York)	... 562
Washington Monument, Washington (U. S. A.)	... 555
City Hall Tower Philadelphia (U. S. A.)	... 548
Ritz Tower (New York)	... 540
Bank of New York	... 513
Navarre Bldg. New York	... 513
Pyramid of Cheops, Egypt	... 450
St. Paul's Cathedral (London)	... 365

LARGEST TELESCOPES OF THE WORLD

'Refractor' Telescopes (gathering the rays together near the eye-piece, hence limited as to size).

<i>Name</i>	<i>Size in inches</i>
1. At Yerkes Observatory, University of Chicago (U.S.A.)	40 inches
2. At Lick Observatory, University of California (U.S.A.)	36 inches
3. At Meudon. (France) Observatory	$32\frac{1}{2}$,,
4. At Astrophysical Observatory (Potsdam, Germany).	$31\frac{1}{2}$,,

'Reflector' Telescopes (collecting the rays on a large mirror and throwing them back to the eye piece).

1. At California Institute of Technology (Palomar U. S. A. the largest telescope in the world).	200 inches
2. At Carnegie Institute, Mt. Wilson California (U. S. A.)	100 inches
3. At Mount Locke Texas. (U. S. A.)	82 ,,
4. At Dunlap Observatory, Richmond Hill (Canada).	74 ,,

FAMOUS EXPLORATIONS AND EXPEDITIONS

i. North Pole (Arctic)

<i>Year</i>	<i>Explorer</i>	<i>Latitude reached</i>
1. 1845	E. K. Kane (U. S. A.)	78.45°
2. 1895	Fridtjof Nansen (Norway)	86.14°
3. 1909	Commander Peary (U. S. A.)	90° (Pole)
4. 1926	Commander Byrd (U. S. A.) (By aeroplane)	90° (Pole)
5. 1928	Gen. U. Nobile (Italy) (By aeroplane)	90° (Pole)
6. 1937	Pavel Golovin (U. S. S. R.) (By Aeroplane)	90° (Pole)
7. 1937	Prof. Otto J. Schmidt and party (U. S. S. R.) (By Aeroplane)	90° (Pole)

ii. South Pole (Antarctic)

<i>Year</i>	<i>Explorer</i>	<i>Latitude reached</i>
1. 1774	Captain Cook (Great Britain)	71.10°
2. 1909	Lieut. Shackleton (Great Britain)	88.23°
3. 1911	Roald Amundsen (Norway)	90° (Pole)
4. 1912	Capt. Robert F. Scott (Great Britain)	90° (Pole)
5. 1929	Admiral Richard Byrd (U. S. A.) (By aeroplane)	90° (Pole)
6. 1935	L. Ellsworth (U. S. A.)	76.79°

iii. Some Everest Expeditions

<i>Year</i>	<i>Explorer</i>	<i>Latitude reached</i>
1. 1921	Col. Howard Bury	22,860 ft.
2. 1922	General Bruce	27,235 ,,
3. 1924	" "	28,200 ,,
4. 1933	Rutledge Expedition	27,400 ,,
5. 1936	" "	28,860 ,,
6. 1938	Shipton Expedition	27,300 ,,
7. 1938	The Houston Expedition (By aeroplane)	Flew over the peak.

Longevity of Animals (Average)

<i>Animals</i>	<i>Years</i>	<i>Animals</i>	<i>Years</i>
Ant	1	Elephant	30-40
Bear	15-20	Goat	12-15
Camel	20-25	Goose	25-35
Crocodile	300-400	Horse	20-25
Cat	10-12	Lion	10
Cow	9-12	Mouse	2-3
Dog	10-12	Monkey	12-15
Eagle	30	Owl	6-8
Ass	18-20	Rabbit	6-8
Wolf	10-12	Pigeon	10-12
Kangaroo	10-12	Squirrel	8-9
Hippopotamus	30	Giraffe	14-16
Pig	25	Tiger	15-20
Rabbit	8	Tortoise	120
Sheep	12	Whale	500
Snake	10		

Longevity of Birds (Average)

<i>Bird</i>	<i>Years</i>	<i>Bird</i>	<i>Years</i>
Crow	100	Peacock	25
Hen	14	Sparrow	40
Nightingale	18	Stork	70
Parrot	100	Vulture	100

Average Expectation of Life in Man

<i>Country</i>	<i>Male</i> (Years)	<i>Female</i> (Years)	<i>Country</i>	<i>Male</i> (Years)	<i>Female</i> (Years)
U. S. A.	60.75	65.08	Norway	60.98	63.84
England	60.18	64.40	Russia	41.93	48.79
Austria	63.48	67.14	Switzerland	50.85	63.08
France	54.30	59.02	India	26.91	26.56
Germany	59.86	62.81	China	34.85	34.63
Italy	53.76	56.00	South Africa (White)	60.10	64.00

Some Famous Discoveries and Expeditions

1. 1492. Columbus sails on his first expedition and discovers some islands of America.
2. 1494. Columbus discovers Jamaica.
3. 1497. Newfoundland discovered by the Cabots.
4. 1497-98 Vasco da Gama rounds the Cape of Good Hope and discovers the sea-route to India.
5. 1498. Columbus touches the American Mainland.
6. 1500. Brazil discovered by the Portuguese.
7. 1513. Balboa discovers the Pacific.
8. 1521. Magellan discovers the Philippines.
9. 1577. Drake sails round the world.
10. 1584. Virginia discovered.
11. 1642. Newzealand and Tasmania discovered.
12. 1770. Captain Cook discovers New South Wales.

SPORTS AND GAMES

SPORTS

Development in sports has been both gradual and scientific. A retrospect shows that it can be divided into three periods.

Antiquity : Athletic exercises were practised in ancient Asia and Egypt, as also in Greece where the ideal of physical fitness was especially pursued. Under the Roman Empire gladiatorial combats were more popular than athletic displays which was left to the Greek professionals to show their skill at. Chariot racing was very popular, particularly under the Byzantine empire. Celtic and Teutonic races took part in athletics as a training for hunting and warfare.

Middle Ages : Hunting, jousting and other war-like activities found favour with the nobility while the common people indulged in running, ball games, quarter staff and other forms of sport. The English were particularly fond of archery.

Modern Age : Fresh trend in sports and athletics in recent centuries proved that they had much more than mere recreational value. Early in the 19th century, through the efforts of Gotsmuths (Germany) and Ling (Sweden), therapeutic and educational value of sports was realized.

Athletics became organised sport in the 16th century. World-known contests began to take shape in the middle of the 18th century and the Olympic Games were revived in 1896.

Boxing : Boxing gained popularity in 18th and early 19th century under "prize fighting" rules. Modern boxing dates from 1886 when Queensbury Rules were drawn up.

Wrestling : Perhaps mankind's third form of sport. Popular locally for many centuries, it became organised sport towards the close of the 19th century. Many styles popular today.

Rowing : Rowing as a sport developed early in 19th century. First Oxford-Cambridge Boat Race 1829 ; held annually since 1856. Henley Regatta founded 1829.

Swimming : Chief recent development was the introduction of "trudgeon" and "crawl" strokes in 1873 and 1902 respectively for short-distance races. Long-distance swimming encouraged by efforts to cross the English channel.

Skating : Common as sport since 12th century. First amateur championship 1880. London Skating Club founded 1830. Of two types : (i) Ice Skating and (ii) Roller Skating.

Skiing : Introduced into Central Europe 1590 ; Ski races and Ski jumps instituted 19th century ; Greatest national sports tournament in Norway (Norwegian Ski Derby) ; Became part of Olympic Games 1932 (Lake Placid).

Horse Racing : Known in England since 12th century. Regulated in 17th and 18th centuries, when "classic" races were founded.

Dog Racing : First regularised in England in 1926. All dog races are held at night.

Cycling : First serviceable mechanism made about 1865 but as a sport cycling became popular only with the invention of pneumatic tyres, about 1890.

Motoring : First trial 1894 ; Gordon Bennett Cup 1901 ; first Grand Prize race 1906 ; first Tourist Trophy race 1923 ; first track (Brooklands) 1907.

Motorcycle Racing : First Tourist Trophy (International T.T.) competition in 1907.

Mountaineering : As systematic sport dates from 1854 ; Alpine Club founded 1857.

BALL GAMES.

Baseball : Became popular in 19th century ; Town ball of 1833 became baseball in 1860. First baseball organisation, called Knicker Bucket Baseball Club, founded in New York in 1845. National League of Baseball established in 1876.

Basketball : First introduced in 1892 ; of purely American origin.

Cricket : Recognised in England as recreation for people in 1707 ; Hambledon Club founded 1750 ; M. C. C. 1787 ; County Championship started 1873 ; First Test match in Australia 1877, in England 1880.

Football : Of six types. Association football (Soccer most common) F. A. Cup first played 1871 ; Football League founded 1888 ; first international match 1872.

Rugby : Another common form of football ; Rugby Union founded 1871 ; first international contest (with Scotland) 1871 ; Ireland 1875 ; Wales 1880 ; France 1906. Professionalism recognised 1895.

Golf : Known in Scotland since 15th century ; R & AGC St. Andrews founded 1754, first English club at Westward H, 1864 ; first open championship 1860 ; amateur 1860 ; Ladies 1893. Royal and ancient St. Andrews (in Fife) Scotland, world's most famous course.

Hockey : Of two common types : (i) Ice Hockey and (ii) Field Hockey. Considered oldest of all ball games ; became

popular in second half of 19th century ; Hockey Association founded 1875 ; first international match 1875. .

Lacrosse : North America—Indian Game, adopted as national game of Canada 1867 ; English Lacrosse Association founded 1868.

Tennis : Played since 14th century ; first amateur championship at Queens Club 1889.

Lawn Tennis : Modern form of tennis took shape in 1874, now most universal of all ball games. First Wimbledon championship 1877 ; Davis Cup presented 1900.

Polo : Origin ascribed to Persia of 4,000 years ago, though controversial ; known in India 16th century ; revived by British Army officers 1863 ; introduced in England 1869 ; Hurlingham Club (Governing body of Polo) founded 1873.

Yachting : First Yacht club in Ireland in 1720 ; races date from early 19th century ; Royal Yacht Squadron founded 1833 ; America's Cup 1851 ; International rules adopted 1906.

Volley Ball : Invented by William G. Morgan in 1895 (U.S.A.) ; original name Minonette for reasons unknown. United States Volley Ball Trophy 1929 ; International open trophy 1945. Most popular in U. S. A. Widely played in India.

SPORTS TERMS

I. CRICKET

Creases. Lines defining the position of the batter and the bowler.

Popping Crease. The popping crease is a line marked four feet from the wicket, parallel to it, and is deemed unlimited in length.

Bye and Leg Bye. If the ball passes the batsman without touching his bat or person and any runs are obtained they will be categorised as ‘bye’ ; but if the ball touches any part of the batsman’s person (his hands excepted) and any run or runs are obtained the score will be categorised as “leg-bye.”

Drive. To send the cricket ball with great force.

Stumped. If in playing at the ball, provided it is not touched by his hand or bat, the batsman be out of his ground and the wicket is put down by the wicket-keeper with the ball, or his hand or arm with the ball in hand, the batsman shall be declared “stumped.”

L. B. W. If the batsman intercepts with any part of his person (except his hand) which is between the wickets, a ball

which in the opinion of the umpire is pitched in a straight line from the bowler's wicket to the batsman's wicket or is pitched on the off-side of the striker's (batsman's) wicket and would have hit the stumps, the batsman is declared *Leg Before Wicket* or *LBW*.

Hit Wicket. If the batsman, in playing at a ball, hits down his own wicket with his bat or any part of his person or dress, it is called "Hit Wicket," which is one of the ways a batsman is "out."

Bowling. Throwing the cricket ball.

The Break and the Swing. If a ball changes its direction after touching the ground it is said to *break* and if the ball deflects or changes its direction while traversing through the air it is said to *swing*. There are two types of breaks, the *leg-break* and the *off-break* and two types of swings, the *out-swing* and the *in-swing*. The *out-swing* bears resemblance to the *leg-break* and the *in-swing* to the *off-break*. Broadly speaking, a ball coming in from the on-side is the *leg-break* and a delivery coming in from the off-side is the *off-break*.

Maiden Over. When no runs are scored in an over it is called a 'maiden over.'

Hat Trick. When a bowler gets three batsmen out without their having scored any runs he is said to have done the 'hat trick.'

A Duck. The zero which records in a scoring sheet that the player has made no runs.

Googly. An off breaking ball with an apparent leg-break action on the part of the bowler, and conversely, a leg breaking ball with an apparent off-break action on the part of the bowler. (Chamber).

The Ashes. The famous term is the outgrowth of England-Australia Test match played in England in 1882 at the Oval in which, England needing only 20 runs to win and with six wickets in hand, lost the match. The next day the *London Sporting Times* published an epitaph : "In affectionate remembrance of English cricket which died at the Oval on 29th August. Deeply lamented by a large circle of sorrowing friends and acquaintances R. I. P. (The body will be cremated and the ashes taken to Australia). Since then the term has been applied to Test matches between Australia and England, the winner being supposed to win or retain the "Ashes" as the case may be.

Square Leg. A fielder to the left of, and in line with the batsman.

Stone Walling. Batting with caution and offering wall like resistance to the opposite party trying to force an easy or quick decision in its favour.

The Rubber. The ultimate winner of a series of Test matches played between two countries is said to have won the rubber. The usual number of such matches is five.

Names of Positions in the Field. Long-leg, Third man, Slip, Short-leg, Gully, Wicket-keeper, Deep Square-leg, Square-leg, Point, Silly point, Silly-Mid-off, Silly Mid-on, Mid-wicket, Deep Mid-wicket, Mid-on, Long On, Cover-point, Extra-cover, Deep extra-cover, Mid-off, Long-off and bowler.

II FOOTBALL.

Off-Side. A player is declared *off-side* by the referee if he is nearer his opponent's goal-line than the ball at the moment the ball is played unless, (a) he is in his own half of the field of play, (b) there are two of his opponents nearer to their own goal-line than he is, (3) the ball last touched an opponent or was last played by him, and (d) he receives the ball direct from a goal-kick, a corner-kick, a throw-in or when it is dropped by the referee.

Dribble. To kick forward the foot-ball little by little.

Free kick. In the event of any infringement, or of a player being sent off the field, a free kick is awarded to the opposite side from the place where the infringement occurred.

Free kicks are of two types : (1) " Direct ", from which a goal can be scored direct against the offending side ; and (2) " Indirect " from which a goal cannot be scored unless the ball has been played or touched by a player other than the kicker before passing through the goal.

Penalty Kick. If a player of the defending side intentionally trips, kicks, strikes, jumps at, holds, pushes, charges violently, dangerously or from behind an opponent or handles the ball within the penalty area, the referee awards the opponents a penalty kick which is taken from the penalty kick mark.

Throw-in. When the ball passes over a touch-line it is ordered to be thrown in by the referee from the point where it crossed the line, in any direction, by a player of the team opposite to that of the player who last touched it.

Corner-kick. If the ball passes over the goal-line (excluding the portion between the goal-posts) having last been played by one of the defending team, a number of the attacking team shall take a kick from within the quarter circle at the nearest corner flag-post.

Goal-kick. When the ball passes over the goal-line, barring the portion between the goal-posts, having last been played

by one of the attacking team it is ordered to be kicked direct into play beyond the penalty area from a point within that half of the goal-area nearest to where it crossed the line, by a player of the defending team.

III. HOCKEY

Bully. To bully the ball a player of either team stands squarely facing the sidelines, each with his own goal-line to his right, and taps first the ground between the ball and his own goal-line and then his opponent's stick over the ball three times alternately, after which one of these two players plays the ball with his stick before it is put into general play.

Off-side. At the moment when the ball is hit or rolled in, any other player of the same side as the striker or roller in is in an off-side position unless, (a) there be at least three opponents nearer to their own goal-line, or (b) the striker or roller-in be nearer the opponent's goal-line. No player can be declared to be in off side position if he is in his own half of the ground.

Roll-in. If the ball passes over the side-line it is ordered to be rolled (not bounced or thrown) in play by hand along the ground in any direction, from the point where it crossed the line, by a player of the team opposed to the player who last touched the ball.

Striking Circle. In front of each goal is drawn a white line, four yards long, parallel to and fifteen yards from the goal-line. This line is continued each way to meet the goal-line by quarter circles, having the goal-posts as centres. The space enclosed by these lines and the goal-lines, including the lines themselves, is called the *Striking Circle*.

"Sticks". If while hitting a ball the player raises any part of his stick above his shoulder, either at the beginning or end of the stroke, the umpire declares it as "Sticks".

Undercutting and scoop. No player is allowed to intentionally undercut the ball but the "scoop" stroke, which raises the ball from the ground is permissible, but even for this stroke a player is liable to be penalised by the umpire if the stroke appears to him to be dangerous.

Penalty. (1) *Outside the Circles*: A free hit is awarded to one of the opposing team for any breach on the spot where the breach occurred.

(2) *Inside the Circles*: For any breach by the attacking teams a penalty is a free hit for the defending team; and for any breach by the defending team the penalty is a "penalty corner" or "penalty bully" on the spot where the breach

occurred. A penalty bully is given only in the case of a wilful breach when in the judgement of the umpire the goal would have been scored had the breach not occurred.

Names of places in the ground both for Hockey and Football.

Goalie, Goal-keeper ; Right Full-back and Left half-back; Right half-back; Centre half-back and Left half-back; Right outside, Right inside, Centre Forward, Left inside and Left Outside.

IV. TRACK AND FIELD SPORTS.

Doping. The use of any stimulant not normally employed to increase the capacity for action in athletic competitions above the average is called "Doping".

Steeplechase. It is a race punctuated by hurdles and a water jump, in order to create obstruction.

Marathon. It is a race in which the competitor has to cover a distance of 42,195 metres or 26 miles and 385 yards.

Pentathlon. It is a competition comprising of the following five events: Running Broad Jump, Throwing the Javelin, 200 Metres Flat Race, Throwing the Discus and 1,500 Metres Flat Race. The winner is the one who is the top-scorer for these five events.

Decathlon. This competition comprises of the following ten events : 100 Metres Flat Race, Running Board Jump, Putting the Shot, Running High Jump and 400 Metres Flat on the first day; Hurdle Race (110 metres), Throwing the Discus, Pole Vault, Throwing the Javelin and 1500 Metres Flat on the second day. The winner is the one who obtains the highest number of points in the ten events.

TENNIS.

Forehand. It is simply a swing of the racket on the same side of the body as the hand in which the racket is held, the most important feature of the stroke being a follow-through after the ball has been struck.

Backhand. More difficult to execute than the forehand, it is a swing of the racket from the side of the body away from which it is held. Rhythm and follow-through do play a part in it but more important are the body position and the back swing.

Volley. A hard return of the ball before it reaches the ground. This stroke is always made close to the net and before the

ball has bounced. The most essential factor in it is the motion of the wrist through which control of flight and direction are attained.

Half Volley is a return by striking the ball just as it touches or rises from the ground.

Smash. Very much like the service, it has the additional factor of timing. It is used to return a ball that has been "lobbed" by an opponent and has therefore to be struck overhead and brought down.

Service. This stroke is usually executed by swinging the racket from behind over the head, ending in a downward sweep in front of the body. The swing imparts top-spin, underspin or sidespin to a ball. Rhythm in this stroke plays a most important part.

Deuce. The term is used in Lawn tennis to denote that each side has gained three points ("forty all").

SPORTS MEASUREMENTS

Badminton Court : 44' × 20' (Double) ; 44' × 17' (Singles).

Baseball : Diamond-shaped ground : 90' on each side and 127" along the diagonals.

Boxing Ring : 12' to 20' square.

Basket ball : 85' × 46' (maximum dimensions.)

Cricket : Ground: round or oval-shaped ; Wickets 22 yards apart ; Ball : 8-13/16 to 2" in circumference and 5½ tb 5¾ oz. in weight ; Bat : 4½" maximum width and 38" maximum length ; Bowling Crease: 8' and 8" in length ; Popping Crease : 4' feet from the wicket and deemed unlimited in length ; Stumps: 27" out of the ground.

Croquet : 25yds. × 28yds.

Derby Course : 1½ miles.

Football Field : Length: 100 yds. to 130 yds. ; Breadth 50 yds. to 100 yds. ;

Goal: Width 8 yards, bar 8' from ground ; Area: 6 yds. from each goal-post. Ball: 27" to 28" in circumference. Duration. Maximum 90 mins.

Football (Rugby) : Field: 100 yds. to 75 yds. Goal-posts: 11' in height and 18' 6" apart joined by a cross bar 10' from ground.

Golf : Hole : 4½" ; Ball 1½ oz. in weight.

Hockey : Ground: 100 yards by 55 to 60 yards. Duration of Game : Two periods of 30 minutes each plus extra time in case of draw or suspension of game for some reason. Goal: Perpendicular posts four yards apart joined together by a

horizontal cross bar seven feet from ground. Ball: 8-13/16" circumference; Weight: 5½ to 5¾ oz.

(*Playground-ball Soft-ball*): Base lines: 60'; Pitching distance: 45'.

Polo: Ground: 300 yards × 200 yards if unboarded; 300 yards × 160 yards if boarded. Goals: 250 yards apart and 8 yards wide. Goal-posts: 10 feet in height. Goal board: 11" in height. Duration game: Seven periods of 8 minute each. Interval 3 minutes each. Ball: 3½" in diameter and 5½ oz. in weight.

SOME GREAT NAMES IN SPORT

<i>Dhian Chand</i> .	Hockey.	<i>Miss Sultana</i> .	Table Tennis Champion.
<i>Suman Misra</i> .	Tennis.	<i>Dalip Bose</i> .	Tennis.
<i>Joe Louis</i> .	Heavy weight Boxing.	<i>Worrel</i> .	Cricket.
<i>Charles Ezzard</i> .	Heavy weight boxing.	<i>Don Bradman</i> .	Cricket.
<i>Amarnath</i> .	Cricket.	<i>C. S. Naidu</i> .	Cricket.
<i>Hazare</i> .	Cricket. (Captain India against M.C.C. 1951-52.)	<i>Hammond</i> .	Cricket.
<i>Mankad</i> .	Cricket.	<i>Gama</i> .	Wrestling.
<i>Frank Sedgman</i> .	Tennis.	<i>Donald Budge</i> .	Tennis.
<i>Patty</i> .	Tennis.	<i>Phadkar</i> .	Cricket.
<i>Gorden Richards</i> .	Britain's Champion Jockey.	<i>Ted Schroeder</i> .	Tennis.
<i>Naresh Kumar</i> .	Tennis.	<i>Pierre Etchebaster</i> .	World's Tennis Champion.
<i>Narendra Nath</i> .	Tennis.	<i>Joe Maxim</i> .	World light-heavy weight Champion.
<i>Sohan Lal</i> .	Tennis.	<i>Balwant Singh</i> .	Tennis.
<i>Mr. J.C. Mukerjee</i> .	President of the Board of Control for Cricket in India.	<i>Walter Lindrum</i> .	World Billiard Champion.
<i>Sugar Ray Robinson</i> .	Middle weight champion.	<i>Randolph Turpin</i> .	Middle weight fighter.
<i>Savold</i> .	Europe's Heavy weight Champion.	<i>Namdjou</i> .	Bantam weight lifting (World Record).
<i>Parimal Roy</i> .	Best Physique in Asia.	<i>Mrs. Rajagopalan</i> .	Table Tennis Champion.
<i>Nigel Howard</i> .	Captain of M.C.C. team touring India in 1951-52.	<i>Mantosh Roy</i> .	Mrs. Universe in class III.
		<i>Levy Pinto</i> .	Fastest man in Asia.
		<i>Kid Gavilon</i> .	Welter weight king.

FAMOUS TROPHIES

Trophies	associated with	Trophies	associated with
<i>American cup.</i>	Yacht racing	<i>Epsom</i>	Horse-racing in (London)
<i>Davis cup</i>	Lawn Tennis		Football
<i>Corbillon cup</i>	Table Tennis	<i>I.F.A. Shield</i>	Football
	(World Women F. A. Cup		Football
	Championship)	<i>Rovers cup</i>	
<i>Calcutta Cup</i>	Horse racing.	<i>The Kings Cup</i>	Air Races
<i>Fyder cup</i>	Golf	<i>Blue Riband</i>	Steamship
<i>Whightman cup</i>	Tennis		Races
<i>The Ashes</i>	Cricket	<i>Bleviot cup</i>	Aeroplane
<i>The Schneidar Trophy</i>	Seaplane		Competition
<i>The Ranji Trophy</i>	Competitor	<i>Prince of Wales cup</i>	Golf
	Cricket	<i>Westchesler cup</i>	Polo
<i>Walker cup</i>	Golf	<i>Rudha Krishen cup</i>	Racing
<i>The Brighton cup</i>	Hockey		
<i>The oval</i>	Cricket field	<i>Hansraj Thakkar Silver Belt Amulya Memorial Challenge Cup</i>	Boxing
<i>Dr. Rajendra Prasad Cup</i>	Tennis		
<i>Thomas Cup</i>	Badminton		
<i>Swathling Cup</i>	Table Tennis		
	(World Championship)		

The Blue Riband. A handsome challenge cup donated jointly by the three Defence Services. It is open to Indian bred horses of 3 and 4 years of age. (In the races in 1950, besides the cup and a replica valued at Rs. 4,5000 and Rs. 500 respectively, the races also carried a stake money of Rs. 7500).

PLACES ASSOCIATED WITH WELL KNOWN GAMES

Boxing. Yankee Stadium, New York.

Lawn Tennis. Wimbledon in England, Forests Hills in U.S.A.

Shooting. Bisely.

Rugby Football. Blackhealth in London.

Polo. Hurlington club.

Association Football. Wembley Stadium.

Derby. Epsom.

Horse Ricing. Mildmay Course and the "Grand National" at Aintree.

THE OLYMPIC GAMES

These are a revival of the ancient games which were held at Olympia in Greece after every four years between 776 B.C. and 394 A.D. These were revived by the French Baron Pierre du Coubertin in 1894. An International Olympic Committee organized the meetings which it was intended should be held, like the ancient Greek games, each 4 years. The modern series started in Athens in 1896, a feature being the Marathon race commemorative of the bringing to Athens of the news of the Greek Victory at Marathon, a distance of more than 26 miles. They were held at Athens (1896), Paris (1900), St. Louis (1904), London (1908), Stockholm (1912), Antwerp (1920), Paris (1924), Chamonix winter games Amsterdam ; Winter games St. Moritz (1928), Los Angeles Winter Game, Lake Placeid (1932), Berlin (1936), Winter Games Garmisch Partenkirchen, and London (1948), Winter Games St. Moritz. The next Olympic Games will be held at Helsinki this year (1952). The games include the usual field events, swimming, yachting, boxing, canoeing, cycling, fencing, basket ball, gymnastics, hockey, football, shooting, weight lifting, wrestling, rowing, pentathlon and an art exhibition.

ASIAN GAMES

Games run on the lines of the World Olympiad, on which its programmes were also based, started early in 1951 in New Delhi where they were played at the National Stadium from 4th to 11th March 1951.

In imitation of the World Olympiads, torch bearers started from the Red Fort Delhi and reached the stadium, covering a distance of 11 miles. Brig. Dalip Singh had the honour of running into the stadium on the last lap of the Marathon route and lightning the Olympic Flame.

Object of the Games.

The object of these games in the words of Prime Minister Nehru is "to enable countries of Asia to regain old threads of history and past cultural contacts, as also to strengthen those forces of international cooperation which normally should be the basis of securing peace." Its other object is to encourage physical fitness, sportsmanship and friendship among the Youth of Asia, through the holding of periodic Asian games. The following countries participated in the games :—

Afghanistan, Burma, Ceylon, India, Indonesia, Iran, Japan, Philippines, Nepal, Singapore and Thailand.

The Flag and Motto

On white background betokening peace the flag had an orange full sun in the centre and below it blue interlinked circles equal to the number of member countries.

Winners in Some of the big games

Decathlon : Kamamoto Fumio (Japan).

Bantam weight : Namdjou (Iran).

Lifting

Marathon : Chhota Singh (India).

100 and 200 metres : Levy Pinto (India).

400 metres : Okano Eitaro (Japan).

800 metres : Ranjit Singh (India).

1500 metres : Nikka Singh (India).

5000 metres : Baghbanbashi (Iran).

10000 metres : Tamoi Soichi (Japan).

3000 Metres Steeplechase : Takashi Susuma (Japan).

10,000 Metres Walking Race : Mahabir Prasad (India).

50 Kilometres Walk : Bakhtawar Singh (India).

110 Metres Hurdles : Liang Chiang (Singapore),

400 Metres Hurdles : Okano Eitaro (Japan).

Running High up : A. Franco (Philippines).

Running Broad Jump : Tajima Masaji (Japan),

Hop Step and Jump : Sugi Mura Yoshio (Japan),

Putting The Shot : Madanlal (India).

Discus Throw : Makhan Singh (India).

Women's Events

100 Metres : Sugimura Kiyako (Japan).

200 Metres : Kimiko Okamoto (Japan).

80 Metres Hurdles : Kyoto Yoneda (Japan).

Running High Jump : Kyodo Yoneda (Japan).

Running Broad Jump : Kyoko Yoneda (Japan).

Putting the Shot : Toyoko Yoshino (Japan).

Discus Throw : Yoshima Joyoko (Japan).

Javelin Throw : Joyoka (Japan).

100 Metres Free Style Swimming : Sachin Nag (India).

400 Metres Free Style : Neo Chwee Kok (Singapore).

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Hammer Throw : Kamamoto Fumio (Japan.)

Javelin Throw : Nagayasu Haruo (Japan.)

Pole Vault : Sawada Bunkichi (Japan.)

Team Events

Basket-Ball.

Philippines beat Burma 63-19 points ; Japan beat Iran 40-34 ; Iran beat India 63-52 ; Japan beat Burma 81-19 ; Philippines beat Iran 65.41 ; Japan beat India 70-46 ; India beat Burma 50-47 ; Philippines beat Japan 57-33 ; Philippines beat India 86-36 ; Iran beat Burma 84-38.

Water Polo.

India beat Singapore 6 goals to 4.

Football.

India beat Indonesia 3 goals to nil ; Iran beat Burma 2-0 ; India beat Afghanistan 3-0 ; Iran beat Japan 3-2 ; Japan beat Afghanistan 2-0 ; India beat Iran (final) 1-0.

Bantam-Weight.

M. Namjou (Iran)	I
Aggregate 700 lbs. (New world record.)				

Feather-Weight.

Salamassai (Iran)	I
Total aggregate 675 lbs.				

Heavy-Weight.

Kurukchiyan (Iran)	I
775 lbs.				

Light-Weight.

Hassan Feidowss (Iran)	I
Total aggregate 695 lbs.				

Light-Heavy Weight.

Hassan-Rahnavardi (Iran)	I
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Middle-Weight.

Firous Pojhan (Iran)	I
Total aggregate 765 lbs.				

Middle-Heavy Weight.

Rassoul Raissi (Iran)	I
Aggregate 805 lbs.				

Best Physique Contest for Mr. Asia title : Parimal Roy (India).

WHO'S WHO

Abdulla, Sheikh Mohd (b 1905). Prime Minister, Jammu and Kashmir; the popular national leader of his people, hailed by the name of (Shere-Kashmir); was educated at Srinagar, Lahore (Punjab University) and Aligarh University; was for sometime a science teacher in the State High School; then started national movement for the establishment of popular and responsible govt. This led to the formation of the Kashmir Muslim Conference. In 1938 the Muslim Conference was converted into the National Conference; in 1946, he raised the 'Quit Kashmir' slogan and was arrested. After his release he was mainly instrumental in saving the state from falling into the hands of Kashmir raiders; at present he is the Head of the Constituent Assembly.

Abdur Razzaq (1418-1482). Envoy sent by Shah Rukh of Persia to the court of Raja Deva Rai II who has left valuable observations regarding the city and empire of Vijayanagar.

Abul Fazl. Son of Shaikh Mubarak; poet, essayist, critic, historian and man of letters in the Court of Akbar. Author of *Ain-i-Akbari* and *Akbarnamah*.

Abul Faizi. Brother of Abul Fazl, Poet Laureate in the Court of Akbar. He was a great scholar of Arabic and excelled both in the art of poetry and the science of Medicine. Works : *Masnavi Nala-o-Daman*, *Markaz-i-Adwar*, *Mawarid-ul-Kalam* and *Samati-ul-Ilham*.

Addison (1672-1719) Celebrated English essayist and poet, pre-eminent qualities of his style were purity and elegancy. His name is associated with *Tatler*, *Spectator* and *Guardian*.

Adler, Alfred (1870-1937). Psychologist; founder of the school of Individual Psychology.

Aeschylus (525-456 B.C.) Great Greek Dramatist. He is regarded as the father of Greek tragedy. Wrote nearly 90 plays, of which seven survive, and gained the prize for dramatic excellence thirteen times.

Al-Biruni (b. 973 A. D.) Native of Khiva, a great Arab scholar of Medieval times who accompanied Mahmud on his expeditions to India. Has left a very true and faithful account of the social, economic and political conditions of India of the early Middle Ages.

Aesop. Celebrated Greek fable writer of the 6th century B.C. The stories are meant to impart moral lessons by introducing both animal and human beings.

Aga Khan, Aga Sultan Sir Mohd Shah (b. 1877). Indian Moslem prince and religious leader ; in 1885 succeeded his father as head of the Ismailite sect ; was knighted in 1902. and later, was granted the status of a first-class prince, in recognition of his loyal services during the First World War. On many occasions he led the Indian delegation to League of Nations assemblies. He is also a reputed sportsman and won the Derby in 1930, 1935 and 1936.

Alexander the Great (356–323 B. C.) King of Macedonia, founder of Alexandria in Egypt and conqueror of the Persian Empire of Darius whom he defeated at Arbela in 331 B. C. On his forward march of conquest he carried everything before him till he reached Jhelum where he fought one of his fiercest battles against the raja Porus. His armies refusing to proceed farther he reached Babylon where he died of a fever.

Alfred the Great (848-900). The most celebrated and greatest of all the Saxon Kings. He is regarded as the father of the British Navy.

Ambedkar, Dr. Bhimrao Ramji (b. 1893). M.A. Ph.D. D. Sc. Educated at Satara, Bombay ; in 1917 became Professor of Political Economy, Sydenham College of Commerce, Bombay; went abroad for higher studies in Germany and England, joined the Bar in 1923; was member of the Round Table Conference, London, 1930-32. Member, Viceroy's Executive Council 1942-46 ; Minister of Law, Government of India, upto 1951. Defeated in the General elections (1951-52). Some of his outstanding publications are *Who were the Shudras, Caste in India, Thoughts on Pakistan, Ranade, Gandhi and Jinah, The Problem of the Rupee, The Untouchables*.

Amrit Kaur, Rajkumari (b. Feb. 2, 1889). Daughter of Raja Sir Harman Singh of Kapurthala ; Minister for Health, Govt. of India in the first Nehru Ministry ; was for 15 years Mahatma Gandhi's secretary ; educated at Dorsetshire and London ; first woman member of the Advisory Board of Education (Govt. of India) from inception till resignation in protest in August 1942 ; accompanied Indian Delegation to U.N.E.S.C.O. in Nov. 1945 in London, and in 1946 in Paris.

Amundsen, Captain Roald (1872-1928) great Norwegian explorer, the first to reach in 1911 the South Pole. Later in 1918 he also flew over the North Pole.

Anand, Mulk Raj (b. December, 1905). Novelist and short-story writer. Born in Peshawar, the son of a private soldier ; spent his early life in military camps ; graduated at the Punjab University, became Ph. D. in London and returned to India

in 1929. At present he is editor, Marg. Some of his outstanding publications are : *Two Leaves and a Bud*, *Coolie*, *Untouchable*, *The Village*, *Across the Black Waters* and *The Sword and the Sickle*.

Angell, Sir Norman (1874-). Renowned publicist. Was awarded the Nobel Prize for Peace in 1933. His famous work is "The Great Illusion" in which he maintains that any war must prove ruinous to the victors as well as to the vanquished.

Archimedes (287-212 B. C.). The greatest mathematician of ancient times, a man of superlative inventive power, well skilled in all the mechanical arts and sciences of the day. He made discoveries in geometry, hydrostatics and mechanics of permanent importance.

Ariosto, Ludovico (1474-1533). Italian poet ; wrote Latin poems and comedies on classical lines; was frequently engaged in embassies and diplomacy. His famous romantic epic is *Orlando Furioso*.

Aristophanes (448-380 B. C.). Greek comic dramatist of Athens; directed the shafts of his wit against all, of whatever rank, who sought in any way to amend the religious, philosophical, social, political or literary creed and practice of the country. Some of his famous plays are : *The Knights*, *The Clouds*, *The Wasps*, *The Frogs*.

Aristotle (384-322 B. C.) Greek philosopher ; studied at Athens under Plato, became tutor to Alexander the Great and in 335 opened a school at Athens.

Of his works some 22 treatises survive, dealing with logic ; metaphysics ; and meteorology ; biology ; psychology ; ethics and politics ; and literary criticism. His chief writings were *The Politics* and *The Poetics*.

Arkwright, Sir Richard (1732-1792). Inventor and manufacturing pioneer who invented the spinning frame and helped to bring about the Industrial Revolution.

Arnold, Matthew (1822-88). English poet and critic, who held steadfastly to the standard set by classical unity and demanded "high seriousness" and "a criticism of life."

Asvaghosha. A great Sanskrit scholar, he flourished in the reign of Kanishka. His work : *Saundernanda*.

Attila (406-453). King of the Huns, called the "Scourge of God" who achieved many conquests over the Roman forces, committing great ravages, and laying large tracts of country waste. All this brought about the downfall of the Roman Empire.

Attlee, Clement Richard. (1883-). Former Prime Minister of England. Leader of the Labour Party. His party won a sweeping victory in the elections of 1945.

Aurobindo, Sir (b. 1872). Mystic poet philosopher. Some of his outstanding publications are *The Life Divine*, *Essays on the Gita*, *System of National Education*, *Views and Reviews*, *Letters of Sri Aurobindo*, *Collected Poems*, *Savitri*.

Austen, Jane (1777-1817). One of the greatest of English novelists. Her great works include, *Pride and Prejudice*, "Sense and Sensibility", "Mansfield Park" and "Emma" etc.

Azad, Abul Kalam, Maulana (b. in Mecca 1889) and in 1898 his parents returned to India, education was private, later toured Iraq, Egypt, Syria, Turkey and France and learnt European languages and literatures through private reading; in 1912 founded and edited *Al-Hilal*, an Urdu Journal; was interned and imprisoned several times, and was president of the Indian National Congress; has written many books on Koranic theology, etc. In 1948 he became Minister of Education and Art in the Govt. of India.

B

Bach, Johann Sebastian (1685-1750). German composer, came of a distinguished musical family. At 15 he became a chorister and at 19 organist. Bach's music represents the culmination of the polyphonic style of the 17th and early 18th cents.

Bacon, Francis (1561-1626). A great Elizbethan statesman, philosopher and writer. Famous for his pithy Essay's and his "Novum Organum" and "The Advancement of Learning." He is regarded as the precursor of modern thought.

Bacon, Roger (1214-92). Medieval philosopher and pioneer scientist, one of the most original and bold thinkers of the Middle Ages; suggested several scientific inventions, such as the telescope, the air pump, the diving bell, the Camera obscura and the use of gunpowder.

Baden-Powell, Robert Stephenson Smyth (1857-1941). Soldier. Famous as the founder of the Boy Scout movement.

Baird, John Logie (1888-1946). He is the acknowledged inventor of television.

Bajpai, Sir Girja Sankar (1891-). Joined Indian Civil Service in 1915 and since then occupied many high posts and was sent on many important missions abroad. Was India's Representative on the Council of U. N. R. R. A. 1941-46. Now Secretary General, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, India.

Bal Boa, Vasco Nunez de (1475-1517). Spanish explorer, who was the first European to discover the Pacific Ocean.

Balzac, Honore de (1799-1850). One of the greatest of French novelists, and the author of over eighty novels to which he gave the covering title of 'Comedie Humaine'.

Banting F. G. (1891-1941). Canadian scientist who, along with Prof. Macleod, Dr. Best and others discovered in 1922 the insulin treatment for diabetes, for which he was awarded in 1923 the Nobel Prize.

Barrie, Sir James Matthew (1860-1937). Scottish novelist and playwright. His works display a rich vein of humour and pathos. His story of Peter Pan, or the boy who never grew up is known all over the world.

Baum, Vicki (1896-). Austrian novelist, dramatist and scenario writer. Her novel 'Grand Hotel' translated into English, proved one of the best sellers. Other novels are: *A Tale from Bali*, "Shanghai", "Nanking Road", "The Weeping Wood" etc.

Beethoven, Ludwig Van (1770-1827). German. One of the greatest musical composer the world has known. He is famous for his symphonies, chamber music and piano sonatas.

Bell, Alexander Graham (1847-1922). Inventor of the telephone.

Bergson, Henri Louis (1859-1941). Greatest of modern French philosophers of Anglo Jewish parentage. His most important works are "Time and Free Will"; "Matter and Memory", and "Creative Evolution".

Bhatnagar, Sir Shanti Swarup (b. March, 1895), was educated at Lahore, London and Berlin; was University Professor of Chemistry, Banaras, 1921-24; Research Scholar of the Dept. of Scientific and Industrial Research of Great Britain; President, Chemistry Section, Indian Science Congress; in 1945 was General President, Indian Science Congress; Member, Governing Body, Council of Scientific and Industrial Research, Utilization Committee, and all the Research Committees. At present he is Director, Industrial and Scientific Research. Some of his publications are: *Hum-ul-Borg, Principles of Applications of Magneto Chemistry*.

Bhavabhuti, celebrated Sanskrit dramatist; flourished in the court of Yasovarman in the 8th century A. D. He is the author of *Mahavira Charita*, *Uttara-Rama-Chrita*, *Malati-Madhava*.

Bismarck (1815-1898). Is one of the greatest statesmen of Germany in recent German history. He brought the scattered states of Germany under the leadership of Prussia and gave a crushing defeat to the French in 1870 and proclaimed the birth of the German Empire in 1871. When William II came to the throne he was forced to vacate his

seat of German Chancellorship that he had held with such conspicuous success.

Blake, William (1757-1827). English poet, painter and visionary, an intensely religious man of deep spiritual insight, most vivid feeling and imagination. We are all familiar with his "Songs of Innocence" and "Songs of Experience." His full stature as a great spiritual artist has been recognized only very recently.

Blum, Leon (1872-1950). French socialist, was several times premier of France.

Behr, Niels Henrik David (1885-). Famous Danish physicist who received universal recognition and fame by his experiments in atomic structure. Discovered a new element-Hafnium. Made a perilous journey to America to impart vital information regarding atomic fission to the Allied Powers.

Bolivar, Simon (1783-1830). South American soldier-statesman, known as the Liberator, also called the Washington of South America. Freed from Spanish yoke, Venezuela, and New Granada, and afterwards Upper Peru, henceforth called Bolivia, after his name.

Borgia, Cesare (1476-1507). Son of Pope Alexander VI. He was made a cardinal, but soon became a soldier, and in that capacity he is alleged to have given himself upto deeds of inhumanity which have made his name a synonym for every action that is most crafty, revolting and cruel. He and his sister Lucrezia are two of the most colourful figures in Italian history.

Bose, Sir Jagdish Chander (1858-1937). Eminent Indian scientist. Published many works on plant physiology. For the study of plants he designed certain instruments, of which the best known is the creseograph which can magnify movement 100,000 times.

Bose, Nandalal (b. 1883). Educated at Govt. School of Arts, Calcutta; was for sometime an apprentice under Dr. Abanindranath Tagore; joined Santiniketan School and became in 1919 Director of Kalabhavan; toured with Dr. Rabindranath Tagore in Far East in 1924. He is certainly the most distinguished living Indian artist.

Bose, Sarat Chandra (b. 1889-1950). Was in 1946 Member of Interim Govt.; was educated at Cuttack, Calcutta and London; was member, Congress Working Committee; Leader of the opposition in the Bengal Legislative Assembly, 1937-45; was for sometime Leader of Congress Party in Central Legislature; was expelled from the Congress fold; and formed a new Party. Died recently.

Bradman, Donald George (1908-). Australian cricketeer ; in private life a stockbroker at Adelaide. Holder of many world records in cricket. Captain of the Australian Test teams in recent years.

Bronte Sisters : Charlotte, Emily and Anne. All the three sisters took to the pen. Charlotte proved one of the most gifted novelists and won instant fame by her *Jane Eyre*, but Emily was even greater. Her *Wuthering Heights* is a tremendous work.

Browning, Robert (1812-1889). One of the two greatest poets of the later Victorian era. His poetry and drama, though marked by singular insight and power is little read because of a somewhat involved style from which he could not free himself. His masterpiece is *The Ring and the Book*.

Buchan, John (1875-1940). Scottish Statesman and author ; was appointed Governor General of Canada (1935-40) ; wrote biographies of Raleigh, Scott, Cromwell, Julius Caesar and Augustus. Some of his important publications are : *Prester John*, *Thirty-Nine Steps*, *Greenmantle*, *Huntingtower* and *Three Hostages*.

Buddha (563-483 B. C.) or the Enlightened One, son of Suddhodana, chief of the Sakya clan of Kapilavastu, the founder of Buddhism.

Bunche, Dr. Ralph. American Negro leader, appointed in 1949 by the U. N. O. as mediator in Palestine where he succeeded in bringing about truce between the Arabs and the State of Israel. Winner of Nobel Prize for peace, 1950.

Bunyan, John (1628-1688). A fiercely religious puritan : was imprisoned, and remained in jail for twelve and a half years for his preachings, during which time he dreamed his world famous dream, the *Pilgrim's Progress* which has made his name immortal.

Burke, Edmund (1729-97). Statesman and author ; achieved literary fame in 1756 by his *Vindication of Natural Society* and "Essay on the Sublime and Beautiful". He entered parliament as a Whig in 1765, and took a prominent part, as orator and pamphleteer, in the opposition to George III's attempts to dominate English politics and coerce the Americans, e.g. by his "Thoughts on the Present Discontents" and "Speech on Conciliation."

Burns, Robert (1759-1796) the greatest lyric poet that Scotland has produced. His most well read poems are *The Cottar's Saturday Night*, and *Tam o' Shanter*, *Jolly Beggars*.

Butler, Samuel (1835-1902). Novelist, painter and musical composer. His well known works for which he is remember-

ed, and which are still read are *Erewhon*, and the autobiographical novel, *The Way Of All Flesh*.

Byron, George Gordon Lord (1788-1824) the most colourful personality among the poets of the English Romantic Revival. He exercised also the greatest influence upon European thought during the early part of the 19th century. Attained greatest notoriety as a person of loose morals, and had to leave England partly on account of this reason. He died of fever at Missolonghi where he had proceeded to help the Greeks in their struggle for independence. His well known works are *Childe Harold's Pilgrimage* and *Don Juan*.

C

Caesar, Gaius Julius (c. 102-44 B. C.). Roman Statesman, general, and founder of the Empire; defeated Pompey at Pharsalus (48 B. C.); was thereupon elected elector and consul for five years, distinguishing himself in Egypt and elsewhere; returned to Rome (47 B. C.); Conceived and executed vast schemes for the benefit of the city, and became the idol of its citizens; was assassinated on the Ides of March, 44 B. C., at the age of 58.

Calvin, John (1509-64). Swiss reformer and theologian. His theological system is known as Calvinism and his Church government as Presbyterianism.

Cariappa, Major-General. (b. January, 1900); was educated at Coorg and the Presidency College, Madras. He joined the Indian Army as a cadet in 1918 ; was on active service in Iraq, Waziristan, Syria, Burma and Iran, 1920-45 ; was a member of the Army Sub-Committee for the partitioning of the Indian Army in 1947 ; was one of the first two Indian officers to attend the Imperial Defence College in London. At present he is C.-in-C., Indian Army.

Carlyle, Thomas (1795-1881). A distinguished Victorian writer. Some of his well-known publications are *Sartor Resartus*, *Heroes and Hero-Worship*, *Past and Present*, *Latter-Day Pamphlets*, *French Revolution*, *Life of Schiller*, *Letters and Speeches of Oliver Cromwell*, *The History of Frederick II of Prussia*.

Carnegie, Andrew (1835-1919). Scottish-American millionaire ; a reputed industrialist ; by the introduction of sleeping-cars and successful investments in oil, laid the foundations of a vast fortune. Next he concerned himself with the development of the Pittsburg iron and steel industries and built up a vast 'empire' which he disposed of to the U. S. Steel Trust in 1901. Later in his life he became a philanthropist.

Carroll, Lewis (1832-1898) pen name of Charles Lutwidge Dodgson, Lecturer in Mathematics at Christ Church College Oxford, author of "*Alice's Adventures in Wonderland*" one of the most fascinating and delightful books for children ever written.

Cavendish, Henry (1731-1810). Physicist; grandson of a duke, he devoted his life to scientific pursuits. He discovered nitric acid and the composition of water. The Cavendish experiment was a device of his to discover the density of the earth.

Caxton, William (c. 1422-91). First English Printer; trained as a mercer, settled for a time in Bruges, learnt the art of printing, and printed there a translation of the *Recuyell of the Historyes of Troye*. Returning to England, set up a press in Westminster, and in 1477 issued *Dictes or Sayings of the Philosophers*, the first book printed in England, which was soon followed by many others.

Cervantes, Saavedra Miguel de (1547-1616) author of *Don Quixote*, one of the greatest books in the literature of the world, as fresh today as when it was first written.

Cezanne, Paul (1839-1906). French painter of power and originality. Landscape, still life (flowers etc.) and portrait painting were his forte. He is the leader of the Post Impressionist School.

Chanakya. Also called Kautalya was a wily and masterful Brahman who by his intrigues helped Chandragupta Maurya to get the throne of Nanda King. Wrote a treatise called the *Arthashastra* on politics and statecraft for the guidance of Chandragupta.

Chaplin, Charles (b. 1889). Well-known film comedian, first appeared on the stage at the age of 5. He went to the U. S. A., and after making a number of short films for Keystone Studios, he began to direct his own films in 1914. One of his earliest successes was *Tillie's Punctured Romance*. In 1919 he founded United Artists with D. W. Griffith, Douglas Fairbanks and Mary Pickford. Some of his outstanding films are: 'The Gold Rush', 'The Circus', 'City Lights', 'Modern Times', 'The Great Dictator' and 'Monsieur Verdoux' (1947).

Charlemagne (742-814). King of the Franks and the first of the Holy Roman emperor who subjugated by his arms the southern Gauls, the Lombards, the Saxons and the Avars, so that his kingdom extended from the Ebro to the Elbe. He was also a great legislator.

Chaucer, Geoffrey (1340-1400). Father of English poetry. His masterpiece is the "Canterbury Tales", delightful tales

told to each other by a company of Pilgrims proceeding to Canterbury to beguile time.

Chaitanya (b. 1486). A great Vaishnava teacher of the Bhakti cult who preached his doctrines in Bengal and Orissa. He preached when the Lodhi dynasty was reigning in Delhi.

Chekhov, Anton Pavlovich (1860-1904). Great Russian dramatist and short story writer whose works have been translated into English and much appreciated. Most important of these are : "The Seagull"; Uncle Vanya"; "Three Sisters" and "Cherry Orchard".

Chesterton, Gilbert Keith (1874-1936). One of the most versatile of English writers. The most famous of his novels are : "Innocence of Father Brown", "Napoleon of Notting Hill", "Man who was Thursday", "Flying Inn", "Man who knew too Much".

Chiang Kai-Shek, (b. 1887). Till recently was Chinese Generalissimo; in 1907 joined the revolutionary party of Sun Yat-sen; participated in the Revolution of 1911 and served on Sun Yat-sen's staff at Canton, 1917-20. In 1945 he became C.-in-C. of the Kuomintang armies in S. China and established a national government at Nanking. But since then there has been a renewal of the former struggle between the Kuomintang and the Chinese communists. The successes of the communists has compelled Chiang to leave his country.

Cicero Marcus Tullius (106-43 B.C.). Great Roman orator, writer and statesman. He is regarded as one of the greatest orators of all time.

Chopin, Frederic Francois (1810-49). Polish composer who has no rival in piano music. His works include collections of waltzes, preludes, etudes, nocturnes, ballads, impromptus, fantasias and mazurkas.

Churchill, Winston Leonard Spencer (1874-). Prime Minister of England (1940-45) 1951 and vigorous War leader. Is the descendant of the Duke of Marlborough. He has remained a redoubtable fighter all through his life. He is the man who presented himself to the House of Commons with his famous "blood and tears, toil and sweat" speech and proved himself one of the greatest of war leaders in Britains' 'finest hour'. Not only is he a great statesman and orator, but he is also a great writer. He is, however, a man of very narrow outlook.

Coleridge, Samuel Taylor (1772-1834). Poet, critic and philosopher, one of the greatest of English poets. His "Ancient Mariner", "Kubla Khan", "Biographia Literaria", are all great masterpieces.

Colet, John (1467-1519). Divine and humanist. In 1505 Colet became dean of St-Paul's and about 1508 refounded St-Paul's school. Colet is the founder of modern biblical exegesis.

Columbus, Christopher (1451-1506). Famous Italian navigator, known the world over as the discoverer of America.

Confucius (c. 550-478 B. C.). The Chinese sage whose name is given to Confucianism ; he devoted his life to the revision of the ancient Chinese scriptures, some parts of which have been attributed, though on slight evidence, to his pen.

Conrad, Joseph (1857-1924). Great novelist, by birth a Pole, who upto the age of sixteen did not know a word of English. He is now regarded as one of the greatest of English prose writers. His chief works are : "Nigger of the Narcissus", "Lord Jim", "Nostromo", "Typhoon etc."

Constable, John (1776-1837). Landscape painter ; some of his famous pictures are "Flatford Mill", "Stratford Mill", "The Cornfield".

Cook, Captain James (1728-79). A great English voyager and explorer, who in three voyages of explorations, made many a discovery of new islands in the South Seas and made valuable additions to geographical knowledge and was responsible for the addition of the Australasian territories to the British Empire. He was savagely murdered by the natives of the Sandwich islands in an encounter with them.

Copernicus, Nicolaus (1473-1543). Polish astronomer ; he proved that the sun is the centre of our system, and he thus became a prime founder of modern astronomy.

Coward, Noel (1899-). Actor, dramatist, composer and producer. Well known works are "Cavalcade", "Design for Living", "Private Lives", "The Vortex", "Easy Virtue" and "Bitter Sweet".

Crawford, Osbert Guy Stanhope. Archaeologist ; his books include "Man and his Past," "Field Archaeology".

Cromwell, Oliver (1599-1658). Leader of the rebellion against Charles I. General of the Roundheads. Lord Protector of England from 1653 to his death. He is one of the great figures of English history.

Cunningham, William (1849-1919). Economic historian. "Growth of English Industry and Commerce".

Curie, Marie (1867-1934). Polish Scientist; her husband assisted her in discovering the existence of polonium and radium. Both Scientists refused to take out a patent on their discovery, and were jointly awarded the Davy Medal (1903) and the Nobel Prize for physics.

D

Dalton, John (1766-1844). Chemist and physicist. B. in Cumberland. His first important work was "Meteorological Observations and Essays" (1793). He is remembered for formulating the atomic theory of chemical composition, published in "Absorption of Gases" (1803), with a list of atomic weights, and for certain "laws" of chemistry.

Damocles (4th cent. B. C.) A courtier to the elder Dionysius, ruler of Syracuse. Having extolled the happiness of his Sovereign, Damocles was invited by him to a great feast, and in the midst of his enjoyment beheld above his head a sword suspended by a single hair. He recognised this as a symbol of the insecurity of the great.

Dante, Alighieri (1265-1321). Great Italian poet, whose *Divina Commedia*, an imaginary journey through Hell, Purgatory and Paradise under the guidance of Reason and Faith is the greatest poem of the Middle Ages.

Darwin, Charles Robert (1809-82). Great English naturalist and biologist who discovered the principle of natural selection, and by his publication of his well known works, the '*Origin of Species*', and the '*Descent of man*', he revolutionised thought in the scientific study of life.

Davies, Fanny (1861-1934). Pianist. B. in Guernsey, she studied at Leipzig and Frankfurt. Made her London debut in 1885, and from that day she ranked as the finest woman Pianist of her day.

Davies, Joseph Edward (b. 1876). American diplomat. Was ambassador to Soviet Russia in 1936-38. He is the author of "*Mission to Moscow*. (1943).

Davies, Sarah Emily (1830-1921). Pioneer in women's education. In 1867 she founded a college for women at Hitchin which in 1873 was transferred to Cambridge. She was its first Mistress.

Davy, Sir Humphry. (1778-1829). An eminent British chemist whose discoveries were of great scientific importance. Inventor of the miner's safety lamp.

Defoe, Daniel (1660-1731). Writer of the World famous book *Robinson Crusoe*.

Demosthenes (384-322 B. C.) Greek orator, statesman and warrior. One of the greatest orators of his time. His orations are known as the "Philippics" in which he denounced King Philip of Macedon.

De Valera, Eamon (b. 1882). Irish statesman; b. in New York; Prime Minister of Ireland 1938-48 and Minister of External Affairs 1932-48. President of Executive Council of Irish Free State, 1932-1938; President of Sean Fien; 1917-1926,

Was delegate to Assembly and Council of League of Nations, 1932. Prime Minister again.

Dickens, Charles (1812-1870). The most popular novelist of the 19th century. Works contain a blending of pathos and humour. Most well known works are: "Pickwick Papers", "Tale of Two Cities", "David Copperfield", "Great Expectations", etc.

Disney, Walt (1901-). American cartoonist, creator of Mickey Mouse, Silly symphonies, Donald Duck Cartoons and such others of breath taking beauty.

Dostoievsky, Fyodor Mihailovich (1821-81). One of the greatest writers that the world has known. His "*Crime and Punishment*" is one of the greatest realistic novels ever written. His other well known works are "The Idiot", "The Eternal Husband" "The Possessed" & "Brothers Karamazov".

Doyle, Sir Arthur Conan (1859-1930). Great Writer of detective stories. His detective, Sherlock Holmes has become one of the most enduring characters in English fiction. Other of his well known book is "The Hound of the Baskervilles."

Drake, Sir Francis (1545-96). The great English circumnavigator and sea captain who continuously plundered Spanish ships and "singed the King of Spain's beard" by burning Spanish ships. As vice admiral he helped in defeating the Spanish Armada.

Dumas, Alexandre (1802-70). Great French novelist and dramatist whose adventure stories, Three Musketeers, Count of Monte Cristo, Man in the Iron Mask etc. are famous the world over and have been translated into practically all the important languages of the world.

E

Eck, Johann Von (1486-1543). Was one of the most vigorous opponents of the Reformation in Germany.

Eckenen, Dr. Hugo Von. Famous German Aeronaut and engineer. Designer and commander of the Graf Zeppelin on all her flights. Regarded as the greatest authority in the world on dirigibles.

Eden, Rt. Hon. (Robert) Anthony (b. 1897) English Statesman. Foreign Secretary Dec. 1935-Feb. 1938, 1940-45 ; 1951 Dominion Secy. Sep. 1939 to May 1940. M. P. for Warwick and Leamington since 1923.

Eddington, Prof. Sir Arthur Stanley (1882-1944). Celebrated modern astronomer and physicist. Director of the Cambridge Observatory. He has done work of the highest importance in

regard to the motions and equilibriums of stars, their luminosity and atomic structure. His well known works are : "The Nature of the Physical World" and "The Expanding Universe".

Edison, Thomas Alva (1847-1931). A celebrated American inventor, born in Ohio; started life as a newsboy ; displayed his genius and enterprise by producing the first newspaper printed in a railway train. Turning his attention to telegraphy, he revolutionised the whole system by a series of inventions, to which he added others, to the number of 500, the most notable being the megaphone, phonograph, kinetoscopic camera, which was the forerunner of the cinema, a transmitter, and improvements in electric lighting.

Ehrlich, Paul (1854-1915). German chemist ; discoverer of Salvarsan, specific for Syphilis 1910 ; shared Nobel Prize for medicine with Mechnikov.

Einstein, Prof. Albert (b. 1879). World famous for his Theory of Relativity. Prof. of Theoretical Physics and Permanent Member of Inst. for Advanced Study, princeton, New Jersey. U. S. A., since 1933. Was Director of the Kaiser Wilhelm Physical Institute, Berlin, 1913-33, when he was exiled by the Nazis. His General Theory of Relativity, published in 1916, caused a revolutionary change in the scientific views of gravitation.

Eisenhower, General Dwight David (b. 1890). Com-in-chief of Allied Forces in European theatre of operations, 1943-45, and of Allied Forces in North Africa, 1942-43. Served in first World War with U. S. Tank Corps. and later held various Army posts throughout the U. S. and in the Philippines. Now Supreme Commander Western European Defence.

Eliot, George (1819-1890). Pseudonym of Mary Ann Evans. Distinguished woman novelist of the 19th century, some of whose masterpieces, rank equally high with the great masterpieces of great novelists like Dickens and Thackeray. Most important of these are : "Adam Bede," Mill on the Floss," "Sils Mariner," "Middlemarch" etc.

Eliot, Thomas Stearns (1888-) One of the foremost lyric poets of the 20th century. Brought about a revolution in modern English Literature with his poem "The Waste Land," "Ash Wednesday", "Four Quartets." He was awarded the Nobel Prize for literature in 1948.

Epstein, Jacob (1880-) Great leading Romantic sculptor of England who has executed portrait busts of many well known men.

Erasmus, Desiderius (1466-1536). Great Dutch scholar and humanists of whom it has been said that "he laid the egg that Luther hatched." He was the friend and correspondent of the foremost men of his time and more than 3000 of his letters have survived.

Euclid, 300 B. C. A famous Greek geometrician ; founded school of mathematics in Alexandria.

Eucken, Rudolf Christoph (1846-1926). A well-known German philosopher and theologian.

Euripides (484-407 B. C.). The greatest Greek tragedian poet ; wrote seventy two plays, of which only eighteen are extant. Tinged in pessimism, he is nevertheless less severe than his great predecessors, Sophocles and Aeschylus, surpassing them in tenderness and artistic expression, but falling short of them in strength and loftiness of dramatic expression. Sophocles, it is said, represented men as they ought to be, and Euripides as they are.

Ewing, Sir James Alfred. British Scientist, professor of engineering at Tokyo, Dundee and Cambridge, and vice-chancellor of Edinburgh University. His researches were mainly in connection with physics, specially magnetism.

F

Fahein Chinese pilgrim to India during the reign of Vikramaditya II from whose works we can know much about the social, religious, economic and political conditions of India of those days.

Faraday, Michael (1791-1867). Chemist and natural philosopher, first became a laboratory assistant to Sir Humphry Davy at the Royal Institute in 1813, and in 1827 succeeded him as professor of chemistry. As early as 1812 he began researches into the problems of electricity, and in that year made his first electric battery. In 1821 he began experimenting on electro-magnetism and ten years later discovered the induction of electric currents and made the first dynamo. Many more epoch-making discoveries in electro magnetism followed, and in 1845 he began a second great period of research in which he discovered what he announced as the magnetization of light. He delivered highly popular lectures at the Royal institute, and published many treatises on scientific subjects. In 1835 he was given a government pension, and in 1858 a house at Hampton Court, where he died.

Fisher, Herbert Albert Laurens (1865-1940). Historian ; for most of his life he was a don at New College, Oxford. In 1915-22 he was President of the Board of Education in the Lloyd George Coalition ministry and was mainly responsible for the "Fisher" Education Act of 1918, intended to establish a really national system of education. Most important of his writings is a "History of Europe." (1935). He received the O. M. in 1937.

Fitzgerald, Edward (1809-83) Poet and translator. In 1859 a free translation of the "Rubaiyat of Omar Khayyam" won him undying fame.

Fleming, Sir Alexander. Bacteriologist and discoverer of penicillin, the medicine which has revolutionized the treatment of diseases.

Florey, Sir Howard Walter (b. 1898). Pathologist ; he was professor of pathology at Oxford from 1935 and in 1938 began work on penicillin. He was knighted in 1944 and received with Sir A. Fleming the Noble Prize for medicine in 1945.

Ford, Henry (1863-1947). U. S. motor-car magnate ; in 1890 he joined the Detroit Edison Electric Company, and produced the first gas-driven motor-car in 1893. In 1899 he founded the Detroit Automobile Company, designing his own cars. In 1902 he resigned from this firm and in 1903 founded the Ford Motor Company, and in 1908-9 he designed his famous T-model. He was a pacifist, and in 1915-16 visited Europe in an attempt to end the war.

France, Anatole (1844-1924) Pseudonym of the French writer Jacques Anatole Thibault. One of the greatest literary artist of the modern age. Master of character portrayal and satire. Chief works : "*Crime of Sylvestre Bonnard*" "*Thysis*," "*The Revolt of the Angels* etc.

Franco Bahamonde, Francisco (b. 1892). Spanish dictator who plotted an uprising with German and Italian assistance, and on the outbreak of Civil war organised the invasion of Spain by Moorish troops and foreign legionaries. The surrender of Madrid in 1939 brought all Spain under his government. On the outbreak of the World War he announced that Spain's attitude was one of "Strictest neutrality," but he sent a Spanish legion to fight the Russians.

Franklin, Benjamin (1706-90). American Statesman, scientist ; and writer ; his invention of the lightning-conductor, made him internationally famous. He was president of Pennsylvania 1785-8, and took part in the drafting of the U. S. Constitution. During his later years he wrote an autobiography.

Frazer, Sir James George (1854-1941). Anthropologist ; his works include "The Golden Bough", "Totemism and Exogamy". He received a Knight-hood in 1914 and the O.M. in 1925.

Freud, Sigmund (1856-1939). Inventor of psychoanalysis ; he developed the method of "free association" which has remained the basic procedure in psycho-analysis to this day. His works include, "The Interpretation of Dreams". The

Psycho-pathology of Everyday Life", "**The Ego and the Id**", "**Civilisation and its Discontents**", and "**Moses and Monotheism**".

G

Gainsborough, Thomas (1727-1788). English portrait and landscape painter, whom Ruskin declared to be the greatest colourist since Rubens.

Galilei, Galileo (1564-1642). Italian Scientist ; born at Pisa, he studied at the university there, and was professor of mathematics. He improved the recently - invented telescope, and with it was the first man to see the satellites of Jupiter.

Galsworthy, John (1867-1933). Eminent British novelist and playwright. Author of "*Forsyte Saga*," "*Man of Property*". Awarded Nobel Prize for Literature in 1932.

Gandhi, Mohan Das Karam Chand (1869-1948). Father of the Indian Nation, regarded as the greatest Indian after Buddha. Born in Porbandar, Kathiawar, studied law in London, and in 1893 went to South Africa where he soon became a vigorous champion of the rights of Indian settlers. Returning home, he offered resistance vigorously to the British Regime by his Civil Disobedience Movements, also called "Non Violent Non Co-operation." He was imprisoned several times, till India attained her freedom. One of the greatest moral forces of recent times. He was assassinated by Nathu Ram Godsey on 30th January 1948.

Garibaldi, Giuseppe (1807-82). Italian patriot. He dedicated his life to the liberation of his country from the Austrian and French yoke and bringing about its unity. He fought against the Austrians in 1848, and again in the war of 1859 and 1860 at the head of 1000 Redshirts. He fought in other similar wars, but spent the end of his life in retirement.

Garrick, David (1717-79). Leading tragic actor of his time, probably the greatest actor that England has produced. He was a member of the Johnsonian Circle.

Gaulle, Charles Andre Joseph Marie de (b. 1890). French general and statesman. In the battle of France, he commanded a tank brigade (1940), and on the fall of France escaped to London, where he organised the Free French movement. He returned to France in 1944, and acted as the president of the provisional government until 1946 when his dislike of the proposed new Constitution led to his retirement.

Ghalib. The greatest of the Urdu poets, was the contemporary of Bahadur Shah. He is the Shakespeare or Kalidas of Urdu poetry.

Gibbon, Edward (1737-94). Historian ; setting out on a tour of Europe in 1763, he conceived the idea of his history of the "Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire," while in Rome in 1764.

Gil, Amrita Sher (1913-41). Indian artist. Born in Budapest, of Sikh and Hungarian parentage, she studied art in Paris 1929-34, and exhibited at the Salon. Returning to India she married a doctor, and produced many paintings of Indian scenes and peoples.

Gladstone, William Ewart (1809-98). British Statesman, orator and scholar. Four times prime minister of England in the reign of Queen Victoria. Leader of the Liberal Party. One of the most eminent statesmen England has produced.

Goebbels, Paul Josef (1897-1945). German Nazi leader. Minister of Propaganda during Hitler's Regime.

Goethe, Johann Wolfgang von (1749-1832). German poet and man of letters, statesman and natural philosopher. His publications include *Wilhelm Meister* and *Dichtung und Wahrheit*.

Gogol, Nicolai Vasilyevich (1809-52). One of the greatest of Russian novelists who, in his great masterpiece *Dead Souls*, displays all his power of pathos, humour and satire at his very best.

Goldsmith, Oliver (1728-74). Distinguished man of letters of the 18th century. The celebrated author of *The Vicar of Wakefield*, *The Deserted Village* and *She stoops to conquer*. Died in debt and poverty, owing to his own extravagance.

Gordon General, Charles George (1833-85). A distinguished British soldier, who had a most adventurous, and self sacrificing career. One of the architects of the British Empire, while holding Khartoum he was captured and killed.

Gorky, Maxim (1868-1936). Russian novelist and dramatist ; highly esteemed by the Soviet leaders, for whom he acted as a propagandist. His works : "Mother", "Reminiscences of Youth" "Recollections", "Creatures that once were men".

Goya, Francisco Jose de (1746-1828). Famous Spanish painter and etcher and one of the greatest Spanish artists. Renowned for his wonderful series of etchings and satirical drawings. His *Disasters of War* is a collection of etchings wherein he has portrayed the horrors of the French invasion of Spain (1808-14).

H

Hahnemann, Samuel (1755-1843). German physician, founder of homoeopathy. His chief work is "Organon of the

Rational Art of Healing". He announced that "like things are cured by like".

Haile Selassie (1891-). Emperor of Ethiopia. Leapt into fame by his stubborn opposition to Mussolini. Was driven into exile, but regained his throne in 1941 with the help of the English.

Haldane, Prof. John Burdon Sanderson (b. 1892). One of the ablest and most brilliant of present day biologists; Prof. of biometry University College, London University.

Hamsun, Knut (1859-). Norwegian novelist. Nobel Prize winner for Literature in 1920. His works : "Hunger", "Pan", "Soil", "Victoria" and "Growth of the Soil".

Hannibal (247-182 B.C.) Carthaginian general who won a brilliant victory over the Italians at Cannae, but some years later was defeated by the Romans at Zama. He died by poisoning himself.

Hardy, Thomas (1840-1928). Poet and novelist. Many of his novels are widely read, e. g., *Tess of the D'urbervilles*, *Pair of Blue Eyes*, *Far from the Madding Crowd*, *Return of the Native*, *The Mayor of Casterbridge*.

Harvey, William (1578-1657). English doctor and scientist who won eminence as anatomist and physiologist. He discovered the circulation of the blood in 1616.

Helmholtz, Hermann Ludwig Ferdinand Von (1821-94). Great German physicist and physiologist, whose work on the nature of light is a permanent contribution to science. He also did important work in the fields of conservation of energy, hydrodynamics, electrodynamics and optics.

Hemingway, Ernest (1898-). Modern American novelist, who excels in depicting scenes of violence with a deceptive quietness. Author of the celebrated novels : *A Farewell to Arms*, *Death in the Afternoon*, *Winter Takes Nothing*, *For Whom the Bell Tolls*

Henderson, Rt. Hon. Arthur, P. C. (1863-1935). President of World Disarmament Conference, 1932-35; Leader of the Labour Party, 1931-1932; Foreign Secretary, 1929-31; Home Secretary, 1924. He was awarded Prize of £ 2,200 by the Carnegie Foundation for his work for Peace and Disarmament, April 1933, and the 1934 Nobel Prize for Peace.

Herodotus (c. 484-424 B. C.) The distinguished Greek historian, popularly known as the "Father of History".

Herschel, Sir William (1738-1822). Great astronomer who in 1781 discovered Uranus and later several of its satellites. Author of "Motion of the Solar System in Space".

Hindenburg, Field Marshall Paul Von (1847-1934). Military leader of Germany at the time of the First Great War. Was President of the German Reich 1925-1934.

Hitler, Adolf (1889-1945). Dictator of Germany and leader of the Nationalist Socialist Party (Nazi), became Chancellor in 1933, and on the death of Hindenburg became the Führer. He plunged Germany into the 2nd World War in 1939, and when it seemed lost, committed suicide in 1945.

Hogarth, William (1697-1764). The celebrated engraver and painter who satirised the follies of his age in a series of his engravings. His important works include, "A Rake's Progress", "Marriage a' la Mode", "Industry and Idleness".

Homer. Legendary Greek Epic poet, the traditional author of the 'Iliad' and the 'Odyssey'. According to tradition he was a blind wandering minstrel. He is supposed to have lived between the 11th and 7th cent. B. C.

Hopkins, Sir Frederick Gowland, O. M., F. R. S. (1861-1947) An eminent English bio-chemist, noted for his important work on proteins and vitamins. Awarded Nobel Prize, 1929.

HUME, David (1711-1776). The Scottish historian and philosopher.

Huxley, Prof. Julian Sorrell (b. 1887). Biologist and writer; Director General of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (U. N. E. S. C. O.) Secretary of Zoological Society of London 1935-42.

I

Ibsen, Henrik Johan, (1828-1906). Norwegian dramatist and poet; author of a number of plays of international repute, the best-known being *The Doll's House*, *Ghosts*, *Pillars of Society*, *The Master Builder*, *Hedda Gabler*, *Brand* and *Peer Gynt*; his characters are life like; his works deal largely with social problems and the status of women.

Ibn-Batuta. A native of Tangiers Africa who wrote his account of travels in Egypt, Syria, Arabia, Persia, Central Asia and India. His account includes a long list of the reign of Muhammad bin Tuglak of which he was a personal eye-witness.

Irving, Washington (1783-1859). Popular American essayist, charming story writer, and historian. Author of Lives of Goldsmith, Columbus, Mohammed, and George Washington. Chief work : *The Sketch Book*.

J

Jackson, Andrew (1767-1845). Seventh President of the United States; First he became President in 1823 and was again elected in 1832; made frequent use of the President's veto; was also a successful general.

James, Henry. (1843-1916). Anglo-American novelist, born in New York ; Established his reputation as a novelist in 1875 with *Roderick Hudson*. Most of his life was spent in Italy and England, writing novels, short stories and criticisms. The style of his novels is involved, their plots almost non-existent ; their strength lies in their remarkable psychological analysis. Best-known works : *The American* and *The Turn of the Screw*.

Jeans, Sir James Hopwood (1877-1946). A brilliant British mathematician and astronomer ; author of many learned and popular works on astronomy, including *The Mysterious Universe* (1930) and *The New Background of Science* (1933), *The Universe Around us*.

Jefferson, President Thomas (1743-1826) Twice President of the U. S. A. Took part in the American Revolution and drafted the Declaration of Independence.

Jenner, Edward (1749-1823). An eminent physician, born in Bucklebury, and practised there ; was the discoverer of inoculation with cowpox as a preventive of small pox, or vaccination, a discovery which immortalised his name.

Jenner, Sir William, (1815-1898). An eminent physician, born in Chatham ; was physician to Queen Victoria and to Edward VII when Prince of Wales ; discovered the symptoms which differentiate typhus from typhoid fever.

Joad, Cyril Edwin Hutchinson. (b. 1891). Head of the Dept. of Philosophy and Psychology, Birkbeck College, University of London since 1930. Has written many important works on philosophy, as well as many books, pamphlets and articles dealing with numerous controversial questions of social and political life.

Joan of Arc (1412-1431). Peasant girl whose heroism inspired the French to drive the English out of Orleans and enabled Charles to be proclaimed king at Rouen. Burnt at the stake.

Johnson, Dr. Samuel (1709-1784). Great lexicographer, writer, conversationalist and literary dictator of England in the 18th century. Better known as a person than as an author.

Jones, Sir Harold Spencer. (b. 1890). Astronomer Royal since 1933. He wrote "Worlds Without End", "Life on Other Worlds".

Joule, James Prescott (1818-1889). English physicist ; famous for his researches on electro-magnetism and his establishing on experimental grounds the doctrine of the conservation of energy.

Joyce, James (1882-1941). Irish novelist, whose extraordinary novel *Ulysses* brought him immediate popularity, though it was banned in the U. S. A. and England for its obscenity.

K

Kalinin, Mikhail Ivanovich, (1875-1946) President of the Soviet Union; the son of a peasant, he took an active part in the Bolshevik Revolution in 1917. In 1919 he became a member of the Central Committee of the Communist Party, and soon after was elected President of the Central Executive Committee of the Soviet Government. This post, which he exchanged for the corresponding one of President of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet in 1937, was equivalent to the head of the Soviet State.

Kalidas. The greatest poet and dramatist of India. He is to India what Shakespeare is to England. Is supposed to have flourished in the time of king Vikramaditya. Works : *Kumarasambhava*, *Vikramorvashiya*, *Shakuntla*, *Raghuvansha*, *Ritusimhara* and *Meghaduta*.

Kant, Immanuel, (1724-1804) German philosopher, one of the greatest in the history of the world ; works : *Critique of Pure Reason*. "Prolegomena" *Metaphysics of Ethics*, "*Metaphysics of Nature*."

Katju, Dr. Kailas Nath b. June 17, 1887 ; was Governor of West Bengal ; was Minister of Justice, Industries and Development, U. P. Govt. 1937-39 and April 1946 to August 1947 ; was Governor of Orissa, August 1947 to June 1948. Home and Law Minister in Nehru's first Ministry.

Keats, John (1795-1821) Ranks among the greatest of English poets though he died at the early age of 25. The dignity, tenderness, and imaginative power of his work contained the highest promise. Great poems : *Endymion*, *Lamia*, *Isabella*, *Hyperion*, *The Eve of St. Agnes*, and many a beautiful Odes scattered throughout his works.

Keitel, Wilhelm. (1882-1946). German field-marshal ; was chief of the Supreme Command from 1938, and signed the unconditional surrender of German forces at Berlin on May 8, 1945. He was tried at Nuremberg as a war criminal and hanged.

Kelvin, William Thomson. (1824-1907); Physicist ; was professor of natural philosophy at Glasgow ; and is best known for his work in connection with Electrical Science.

Kepler, Johann. (1571-1630) German Astronomer who established what are known as Kepler's law of planetary motion. These are; (1) The orbit of each planet is an ellipse with the sun at one of the foci, (2) The radius vector of each planet describes equal areas in equal times, (3) the square of the time of the revolution of a planet is proportional to the cubes of their mean distances from the sun.

Keshab Chander-Sen. (1838-1884). Indian religious reformer ; a Brahmin of high caste born at Calcutta ; he became a

leader of a reform movement in the Brahmo Samaj in 1860 and visited England in 1870.

Keyserling, Hermann Alexander. (1880-1946), German philosopher; founded the 'School of Wisdom,' and expounded an individual philosophy tinged with Orientalism.

Khalifa, Abdullah el Taaisha. (1846-1899). Sudanese dervish leader; succeeded the Mahdi as ruler in Sudan and was defeated by Kitchner, tried to escape but was killed at Kordofan.

Khan, Khan Abdul Ghaffar (b. 1891); Popularly known as the "Frontier Gandhi"; a devoted follower of Mahatma Gandhi; was imprisoned several times for leading national movements; represented Congress in negotiations with Cabinet Mission; became member, Constituent Assembly, Pakistan. He organised All-Pakistan People's party, was imprisoned in June, 1948 by N. W. F. P. Govt. for alleged anti-Pakistan activities.

King, William Lyon Mackenzie. (b. 1874). Canadian Statesman; became leader of the Liberal Party in 1919, and was Prime Minister of Canada 1921-30; took part in Quebec Conference in 1943; was defeated in general election of 1945, but later on returned at a by-election. He represented Canada in 1946 at the Paris Peace Conference.

Knox, John (1505-72). Scottish Protestant reformer; chiefly responsible for the establishment of the Church of Scotland; his "History of the Reformation in Scotland" is one of the masterpieces of Scottish prose.

Kriplani, J. B. Acharya. Was General Secretary of Indian National Congress, 1934 to June 1946; became President of Indian National Congress, Oct. 1946, Nov. 1947. After leaving the Congress he has formed a new party, the K. M. P. P. His publications include; *The Gandhian Way, the Non-Violent Revolution, The National Congress etc.*

Krishna Menon, Vengalil Krishnan (b. 1898). Indian politician; born in Calicut, he joined the national movement and in 1924 went to England; practised at Bar and in 1929 became Secretary of the Indian League, which he developed into the chief mouth-piece in Europe of the Congress Party. He was a Labour Councillor for St. Pancras, London 1934-47. In 1947 he was appointed first High Commissioner for India in London.

Krishnamurti, Jiddu. (b. 1897). Indian mystic, was adopted by Annie Besant in 1909, who proclaimed his spiritual powers; Theosophists formed the "Order of the Star in the East", headed by him to prepare for a new Messiah; but he disbanded the order in 1929, and repudiated all spiritual authority.

Koch, Robert. (1843-1910). Great German bacteriologist, discovered sundry bacilli, chief being the Cholera bacillus and the phthisis bacillus. In 1905, he received Nobel Prize for medicine.

Krupp, Alfred. (1812-1887). Noted German industrialist and armament manufacturer. Factories are located at Essen and were taken over by the Allies in 1945.

L

La Guardia, Fiorello Henrico. (1882-1947). American politician; born of Italian parents, practised law; served in Air Force and sat in Congress as a Republican but strongly supported the New Deal; elected Mayor of New York in 1933. He resigned in 1946. Was director general of UNRRA for some time.

Lamark, Jean Baptiste. (1744-1829). French naturalist. Theories as propounded in his "Philosophie Zoologique" have had a profound influence on the theory of evolution, as elaborated by later day scientists. Lamarckism may be summarised thus: (1) changing environments create new needs, (2) changed needs create new habits, (3) new habits involve use and disuse of structures, (4) use and disuse of structures lead to structural modifications, (5) the acquired habits are inherited by the offspring, (6) the structural modifications arise earlier and earlier in successive generations until they are finally inherited.

Lamb, Charles. (1775-1834). Celebrated author of "Essays of Elia" and "Tales from Shakespeare". Spent his life as a clerk at India House. Devoted his whole life to caring for his sister Mary who had periodic fits of insanity.

Lancaster, Osbert. (b. 1908), Black and white artist and writer; chiefly famous for his cartoons in the "Daily Express".

Lao Tze. One of the ancient philosophers of China who lived about 600 B C. He was the contemporary of the equally celebrated Confucius. He is regarded as the founder of Taoism, one of the three principal religions of China. He composed the celebrated *Tao-te Ching* the Taoist Scripture.

Laplace, Pierre Simon Marquis de (1749-1827). French Mathematician and astronomer. He is the author of the nebular hypothesis.

Laski, Harold J. (1893-1950). Political theorist; studied at Oxford and since 1920 had been on the staff of the London school of economist. His works include "A Grammar of Politics" 1927, "Liberty in the Modern State" 1930, and "The American Presidency" 1946. He had been a member of the Labour Party executive since 1936. Died in March 1950.

Lawrence, David Herbert (1885-1930). One of the most powerful and original of modern novelists. Author of *Sons and Lovers*, *The White Peacock*, *The Plumed Serpent* etc.

Leacock, Stephen (1869-1944). Canadian humorous writer and economist. His best known humorous writings are "*Literary Lapses*," "*Nonsense Novels*," and "*Frenzied Fiction*".

Lenin, Vladimir Ilyich (1870-1924). Russian revolutionary and statesman; practised law for some time but later on devoted himself entirely to revolutionary propaganda; was banished to Siberia 1895-1900; edited the Social Democratic Party's paper *Iskra* from abroad; remained at different continental countries, and returned to Russia in 1917, on the outbreak of the revolution; became president of the Soviet government and concluded peace with Germany. He led the founding of 3rd (communist) International in 1919; his health broke and he became an invalid; died on June 21, 1924; his embalmed body was laid in a Mausoleum in Red Square, Moscow.

Leonardo Da Vinci (1452-1519). Italian painter, sculptor, architect, musician, engineer and scientist; "*Last Supper*" and "*Battle of Anghiari*" are his famous paintings that he made on church walls. There is no man in history who distinguished himself in so many different fields of human activity.

Lincoln, Abraham (1809-65). 16th President of the U. S. A.; qualified as a lawyer, sat in the state legislature as a whig 1834-41 and in Congress 1847-9; joined the Republican Party in 1860; contested in debates with Stephen Douglas, his opponent, and was elected President. He proclaimed the "*Emancipation of Slaves*" and consequently a Civil War broke out; under odd circumstances he won it. After a few days of the victory he was assassinated in a theatre at Washington by a Confederate fanatic, John Wilkes Booth.

Lindbergh, Charles Augustus (b. 1902). American aviator; he made the first solo non-stop flight across the Atlantic and was created a colonel in the U. S. Army.

Lin Yutang (b. 1895). Chinese scholar and author; was professor of English at Peking University and later on Secretary for Foreign Affairs. His best known books include "*My country and My People*", "*Importance of Living*" and "*Wisdom of China and India*."

Lister, Joseph. (1827-1912). Surgeon and founder of aseptic surgery; was the first to use antiseptic treatment for wounds, became president of the Royal Society 1895-1900.

Livingstone, David (1813-73). Scottish missionary and explorer ; explored the interior of Eastern and Central Africa ; was buried in Westminster Abbey.

Lloyd George, David (1863-1945). Liberal statesman ; was a fiery Radical and Welsh Nationalist. In 1916 he became Prime Minister. He was one of the "Big Three" responsible for the Versailles Treaty.

Loia, Dr. Ram Manohar, Ph. D. (1910-). Is a prominent socialist leader.

Loyola, St. Ignatius (1491-1556). Founder of the order of the Jesuits.

Ludwig, Emil (1881-1948). German biographer, famous for psycho-analytical studies of Goethe, Bismark, Wilhelm II, Hindenburg and Roosevelt.

Luther, Martin (1483-1546). German reformer, regarded as the founder of Protestantism. He bitterly denounced such practices of the Roman Church as selling 'indulgences', for which he was excommunicated by the Pope. He had the boldness to publicly burn the papal bull at Wittenberg in 1520, which few could have the courage to do in those days.

M

Macaulay, Thomas Babington (1800-59). Brilliant English essayist and historian, but he is shallow, declamatory and prejudiced in his views.

Machiavelli, Niccolo (1469-1527). Italian statesman and author ; with the accession to power of the Medici, he was arrested, imprisoned and exiled from the country. His works include *L'Arte della guerra*, *Historie fiorentine* and *Clizia* ; *Il Principe* (The Prince), profoundly affected political science.

Mahavira. Vardhamana, the son of Siddharatha, a rich man of Vaisali, in Bihar, who assumed the surname of Mahavira (the great hero), the founder of the Jain sect. Flourished between the fourth and fifth century B. C.

Malan, Daniel Francois (b. 1874). S. African statesman ; originally a pastor of the Dutch Reformed Church ; became Minister of the Interior and then became leader of the Nationalist Party. After victory in general elections in 1948, he led the party as Prime Minister.

Malaviya, Madan Mohan (1861-1946). Indian nationalist ; born at Allahabad, was long associated with the Congress Party, and was three times its president. He founded the Hindu University at Banaras.

Malik Kafur. A renegade Hindu captured by Ala-ud-Din Khilji during his conquest of Gujarat. He rose to the position of Commander-in-Chief of the royal forces and led

expeditions right upto Rameshwaram in the extreme south, destroyed Hindu Kingdoms and brought back immense booty.

Malthus, Thomas Robert (1766-1834). Economist ; famous for his "Essay on the Principle of Population".

Maun, Thomas. Nobel Laureate. Noted German author whose works were publicly burned by the Nazis and had to flee from Germany to America on account of the Nazi persecution. Chief works : *Buddenbrooks*, *The Magic Mountain*.

Mao Tse-Tung (b. 1893). Born in Hunan, he took part in 1911 revolution, joined the Communists in 1920 and in 1931 became Chairman of the Council of the People's Commissars in the Soviet areas of S. China. In 1935 he led the "long march" to Shensi. He secured an alliance between Communists and the Kuomintang in 1936, which broke down in 1945, when civil war was renewed.

Marconi, Guglielmo (1874-1937). Italian pioneer in the invention and development of wireless telegraphy ; received a Nobel Prize for physics in 1909 ; was an Italian delegate to the Peace Conference in 1919.

Marlborough, John Churchill 1st, Duke of (1650-1722). One of the greatest of British generals. His great victories at Ramillies, Oudenarde and Malplaquet won him great fame and enhanced the prestige of England abroad.

Marlowe, Christopher (1564-1593). Poet and dramatist. *Tamburlaine*, *Dr. Faustus*, *Edward II*.

Marshall, Alfred (1842-1924). Economist ; was principal of University college Bristol and professor of political economy at Cambridge ; his works are "Principles of Economics" "Money, Credit and Commerce" etc.

Marx, Karl Heinrich (1818-83). German philosopher and Socialist ; son of a Jewish lawyer ; edited the *Rheinische Zeitung* ; collaborated with Engels—and developed the Marxist philosophy, first formulated in their joint works, "The Holy Family," "German Ideology"—and "Poverty of Philosophy;" joined the Communist League and again began editing *Rheinische Zeitung* until he was expelled from Prussia in 1849. In London he wrote "Class Struggles in France", "Critique of Political Economy" and his most well known book "Capital".

Maugham, William Somerset (born 1874). One of the foremost of modern English novelists, and playwrights. Well known works : *Of Human Bondage*, *Our Betters*, *The Summing up*, *The Razor's Edge* etc.

Maupassant, Guy de (1850-93). French author ; was encouraged in his literary ambitions by Flaubert ; in 1880 he established reputation by his short stories.

Maxwell, James Clerk (1831-1879). British physicist. Author of Electro-magnetic theory of light and other electrical researches to which is due the advent of wireless.

Mazzini, Giuseppe (1805-72)- Italian nationalist ; studied law and joined revolutionary party, the Carbonari ; was imprisoned in 1830, then he went to France and founded "Young Italy" ; remained on the continent in exile for many years. In 1833 he was condemned to death in his absence by the Sardinian government ; on the outbreak of the 1848 revolution he returned to Italy and became the head of the republican government, but had to go into exile again ; he achieved a great moral influence which brought about the Italian unity.

Mendel, Gregory Johann (1822-1884). An humble Austrian monk, whose epoch-making researches on heredity laid the foundation of the modern scientific study of the subject.

Michelangelo, Buonarroti (1475-1564). Italian painter, sculptor, architect and poet, one of the greatest painters and sculptors in the history of the world. He beautified churches both at Rome and Florence. His large paintings, particularly, "The Last Judgment" in the Sistine Chapel at Rome are renowned the world over.

Michelson, Albert Abraham (1852-1931). American physicist ; professor at Chicago ; the first American scientist to win the Nobel Prize.

Mill, John Stuart (1806-73). Philosopher and economist ; sat in Parliament as a Radical ; his feminist views inspired his "On the Subjection of Women", and his philosophical and political writings include, "A System of Logic", "On Liberty" and "Considerations on Representative Government".

Millikan, Robert Andrews (b. 1868). American physicist ; best known for his atomic research—and was awarded the Nobel Prize in 1923.

Milton, John (1608-1674). England's chief epic poet, whose "Paradise Lost" is the greatest poem of its kind in the English language.

Moliere (1622-74). French comic dramatist. His greatest comedies were 'Le Tartuffe', 'La Misanthrope', 'Malade Imaginaire' etc.

Molotov, Vyacheslav Mikhailovich (b. 1890). Soviet statesman ; joined the Bolshevik party in 1906 while a student and was exiled three times ; became a member of the central committee of the Communist Party in 1921 ; and was Chairman of the Council of People's Commissars ; succeeded Litvinov as Foreign Commissar in 1939. During the World War he took part in the Teheran, Crimea and Potsdam

Conferences and headed the Soviet Union at all the Foreign Ministers Conferences since 1945.

Monroe, James (1758-1831). Fifth president of the U. S. A., served in the War of Independence and was also Minister to France. His name is associated with the *Monroe doctrine*.

Montessori, Maria (b. 1869). Italian educationist ; was the first woman to take a medical degree at Rome University and from experience with mentally deficient children, evolved a system of spontaneous education adapted to normal infants, as described in her "Montessori Method" (1912). After 1919 she lectured widely in foreign countries.

Montgomery, Bernard Law M. (b. 1887). Field-marshal ; was commissioned in 1908 and served in the Great War ; at the beginning of the World War he was commanding the 3rd division—and took part in the evacuation from Dunkirk ; in 1942 took command of the 8th Army ; was the Commander of the British occupation forces in Germany until Feb. 1946, when he was appointed C. I. G. S. ; promoted to Field-Marshal in 1944. In Oct. 1948 was appointed permanent Military Chairman of Cs.-in-C. in Committee for W. European defence.

More, Sir Thomas (1478-1535). Statesman and author ; studied at Oxford and was influenced in his religious beliefs by Colet ; in 1497 he first met Erasmus and in 1504 entered parliament and in 1523 became Speaker of the House of Commons. His well known writing is "Utopia" sketching an ideal commonwealth.

Morgan, Thomas Hunt (1866-1945). American biologist ; was awarded Nobel Prize for originating the theory of paired elements within the chromosomes, which govern heredity.

Morse, Samuel Finley Breese (1791-1872). American inventor of the magnetic telegraph.

Mosley, Sir Oswald Ernald (b. 1896). Leader of the British Fascist movement ; in 1947 he published "My Alternative."

Mountbatten of Burma, Louis Mountbatten, (b. 1900). Statesman and naval officer ; entered the navy in 1913, served in the Great War ; was appointed C.-in-C. of the S. E. Asia in 1943 ; was responsible for the reconquest of Burma and received the surrender of the Japanese Southern armies at Singapore in Sept. 1945 ; in 1947 became the last Viceroy of India — and first Governor General of the Dominion of India.

Mozart, Wolfgang Amadeus (1756-91). The celebrated Austrian composer, who composed some of the most enchanting music imaginable. Important works : *The Marriage of Figaro*, *Don Giovanni*, *The Magic Flute*, *Jupiter*, and *The Requiem Mars*.

Munshi, Kanhaiyalal Maneklal. Statesman, writer and lawyer ; was Agent - General to the Govt. of India in Hyderabad, 1948 ; was Home Minister, Government of Bombay, 1937-1939 ; resigned from Congress over Non-violence issue 1941 but rejoined in 1946. He became Food Minister in Nehru's Ministry. His publications include *I follow the Mahatma, Bhagvat Gita and Modern Life.*

Murdock, William (1754-1839). Inventor of gas for purposes of illumination.

Mussolini, Benito (1883-1945). Italian dictator ; son of a blacksmith, he worked in early life as a teacher and journalist and took active part in socialist movement and in 1919 he founded the *Fasci di Combattimento* ; this movement was backed by landowners, industrialists and by the heads of army and police ; in 1922 he became the Prime Minister ; in 1925 he became the dictator, and suppressed all opposition ; in 1935-1936 he began a career of conquest, taking Ethiopia and Albania ; this policy brought him nearer to Nazi Germany. He entered the World War as an Axis power and after defeat in 1943, he was compelled to resign in 1943; and shot dead in an attempt to escape from the country.

N

Nahas Pasha, Mustapha (b. 1879). Egyptian statesman ; leader of the Wafd Party since 1927 ; Prime Minister in 1942-51.

Nanak, Guru (b. 1469). Founder of the Sikh religion, was born in a humble khatri family at Talwandi, a village on the Ravi in the Lahore district. The doctrines of Nanak are embodied in the Adigranth, the Holy Bible of the Sikhs.

Napoleon, Bonaparte (1769-1821). One of the three greatest generals the world has produced, (others being Alexander the Great and Julius Caesar). Rising from the humble position of a mere captain in the French Army he rose to the position of its Commander-in-Chief. A series of most brilliant victories over the Austrians and the Russians made him master of practically the whole of Europe. Ultimately defeated by Wellington, the British general, at Waterloo in 1815, he was banished to St. Helena where he died six years later.

Nansen, Fridtjof (1861-1930). Norwegian explorer, scientist and statesman, the first man to reach nearest the North pole.

Nehru, Jawaharlal, (b. 1889). Statesman and writer ; he was born at Allahabad, the son of Pt. Motilal Nehru, a wealthy lawyer who adopted strong Nationalist views : educated at Harrow and Cambridge, and from 1912 practised at the Allahabad Bar. He soon became prominent in the Congress Party as the leader of its Socialist left wing and acquired

influence second only to Gandhi's. During 1921-45 he was imprisoned 9 times for his political activities ; became Foreign Minister in the interim government set up in Sept. 1946, and Prime Minister on the establishment of the Dominion of India in August 1947 ; he is the author of several books "Glimpses of World History"; An Auto-biography and "The Discovery of India".

Nero, Claudius Caeser (37-68 A D.). The notorious Roman Emperor, whose reign was rendered infamous by his cruelty and licentiousness.

Nelson, Horatio (1758-1805). Greatest English sea captain. Victor of the Battle of the Nile and of Trafalgar.

Nevinson, Christopher Richard Wynne (1889-1946). Artist; famous for his war pictures.

Newton, Sir Isaac (1642-1727). Natural philosopher ; educated at Cambridge ; was elected to F. R. S. in 1672, soon after his publication of "New Theory about Light and colours ; he expounded the law of gravitation the next year and then followed his greatest work *Philosophiae Naturalis Principia Mathematica* in 3 volumes ; was President of the Royal Society in 1703 and buried in Westminster Abbey.

Nietzsche, Friedrich Wilhelm (1844-1900). German philosopher ; published *Morgenrothe*, *Die frohliche Wissenschaft* and *Ecce Homo* etc. suffered breakdown due to overwork and loneliness ; his philosophy is the rejection of the accepted absolute moral values and "the Slave morality" of Christianity. His ideal was "Overman" or "superman" who would impose his will on those who are too weak and worthless to be anything but slaves.

Nightingale, Florence (1820-1910). Hospital reformer ; born in Florence of wealthy parents, she took in 1854 a staff of nurses to the Crimea and brought the death rate from 42 to 2 percent which has been due to insanitary conditions.

Nobel, Alfred Bernhard (1833-96). Swedish chemist born at Stockholm. He invented dynamite in 1862 and ballistite, a smokeless gunpowder in 1889. He amassed a large fortune from the manufacture of explosives and the exploitation of Baku oilfields, the bulk of which by his will he left in trust for the endowment of five Nobel Prizes. These are awarded annually for the year's most important discovery or invention in the spheres of chemistry, physics and medicine ; most distinguished literary work ; any outstanding service to international peace. Persons of any nationality are eligible to receive them.

Nuffield, Viscount (1877-). Chairman of the Morris Motors Ltd. Has made many munificent gifts to charitable

institutions and donated large sums for the furthering of medical research.

O

Omar Khayyam (1050-1123). Persian astronomer and Poet. His Rubaiyats have won world fame.

O'Neill Eugene Gladstone (1888-). American playwright, who received in 1936 the Nobel Prize for Literature. In his works he has dealt largely with the depressed classes, specially with the colour problem. Important Works; *Mourning Becomes Electra*, *Desire under the Elms*, *The Emperor Jones*, *Beyond the Horizon* etc.

Orr, Sir John Boyd (b. 1880). Expert on nutrition ; and was Director General of the U. N. O. Food and Agriculture Organization 1945-8.

Osborn, Henry Fairfield (1857-1935). American palaeontologist ; was president of U. S. Natural History Museum in 1908 ; and wrote "The Age of Mammals", "Origin and Evolution of Life", "Evolution and Religion in Education".

Ostwald, Wilhelm (1853-1932). German chemist ; was professor at Riga and Leipzig and in 1909 was awarded the Nobel Prize for chemistry.

P

Paasikivi, Juhio Kusti (b. 1870). Finnish statesman ; a leader of Coalition Party ; conducted armistice negotiations with Moscow in 1944 and became premier ; in 1946 he became President.

Paderewski, Ignacz (1860-1941). Polish pianist, musical composer and statesman. Became Polish Prime Minister in 1919, which post he resigned the same year.

Paine, Thomas (1737-1809). Author ; he published "The Rights of Man" an answer to Burke's "Reflections on the Revolution in France" ; he also published "The Age of Reason".

Palgrave, Francis Turner (1824-97). Poet and critic ; best known for his anthology the "Golden Treasury of English Songs and Lyrics."

Palmerston, Viscount (1784-1865). Celebrated whig statesman. Served for many years as Foreign Secretary, also twice Prime Minister of England.

Parnell, Charles Stewart (1846-91). Distinguished Irish Nationalist politician, the leader of his party which he made more powerful than it had ever been before.

Pascal, Blaise (1623-62). French philosopher and mathematician. His *Provincial Letters* exhibit remarkable wit and genius. Another of his equally famous book is *Pensees*.

Pasteur, Louis (1822-95). French chemist; discovered the causes of fermentation in alcohol and milk; his later researches were on silkworm disease, anthrax and hydrophobia.

Patel, Vallabh bhai, Sardar (1875-1950). Started public career in 1916 and was one of the organisers of Kaira Satyagrah 1918, Borsad no-tax campaign and Bardoli no-tax campaign, was imprisoned several times for alleged anti-British activities: was President 46th Congress at Karachi, 1931; Home Member, Interim Government 1946-47; then Deputy Prime Minister of India and Minister of Home, Broadcasting and States. Credit for the political Integration of India and elimination of semi-independent Indian States belongs by universal consent to him. Without his foresight, determination and untiring energy it would have been impossible to achieve this result. It required patience, perseverance, tact and above all speed. A great bloodless revolution has taken place in the history of India. His name will go down in history as the builder of new India.

Pavlova, Anna (1885-1931). Russian dancer, she popularized the Russian ballet by touring the world successfully.

Pavlov, Iven Petrovich (1849-1936). Russian physiologist and Nobel Prize winner for research on digestion. His most important work was in connection with conditioned reflexes.

Peel, Robert (1788-1850). Conservative Prime Minister of England, responsible for many reforms, specially the repealing of the Corn Laws.

Perkin, Sir William Henry (1838-1907). Chemist; his discovery of a mauve dye (1856) gave an impetus to the aniline dye industry.

Pericles (490-429 B.C.). Distinguished Athenian statesman, general and orator. Athens reached the highest pinnacle of glory and prosperity in his reign.

Perugino, Pietro (1446-1522). Italian painter; Raphael was his pupil.

Petain, Henri Philippe. French soldier and statesman; commissioned in 1878, promoted general in 1915; became a national hero in 1916 by the defence of Verdun; in 1917 became C.-in-C. of France; became Prime Minister in 1940 and signed armistice with Germany after defeat. He removed the seat of Government to Vichy; in 1944 at the time of the Allied invasion fled to Germany but returned and was sentenced to death but later on the sentence was commuted to life imprisonment.

Peter The Great (1672-1725). One of the greatest of Russian Emperors. Reorganized his country on Western lines,

modernised the army, built a fleet, remodelled the administration and legal system, encouraged trade, won many victories over the Turks and Persians and built on the Baltic the city of St. Petersburg, now called Leningrad.

Phidias. The greatest of the Greek sculptors, who flourished in the time of Pericles. He executed the colossal statue of Zeus at Olympia which was one of the seven wonders of the World.

Pirandello, Luigi (1867-1936). Prominent Italian dramatist and novelist. Nobel Prize winner for Literature in 1934. His popular work : *Six characters in search of an auth'r.*

Pitman, Sir Isaac (1813-97). Inventor of the Pitman shorthand system.

Pitt, William (1759-1806). One of the most brilliant statesmen that England has produced. He had to pilot the ship of state through the most trying period of the French Revolution.

Planck, Prof. Dr. Max. German physicist whose investigations into the radiation of energy culminated in 1901 in his law of radiation which laid the foundation of the quantum theory. He was awarded Nobel Prize for Physics in 1918.

Plato (428-348 B. C.). Great Athenian philosopher, pupil of Socrates, whose life, death, and teachings he gives in details in his celebrated 'Dialogues.' His other well known book is the *Republic*. He is the father of experimental science.

Plutarch (50-120 A. D.). Greek biographer, whose fame rests on his "Parallel Lives" of distinguished Greek and Roman soldiers and statesmen, followed by comparisons between the two.

Polo, Marco (1254-1324). Venetian traveller in China and the Far East.

Pope, Alexander (1688-1744). Celebrated English poet of the 18th Century. Author of the *Rape of the Lock*, and the famous *Essay on Man*.

Pound, Ezra (1885-). American poet and oriental and medieval scholar. He went to settle in Italy and broadcast from there on behalf of the Fascists. He was taken to U. S. A. on treason charges in 1945. Is reported to be in a lunatic asylum there. His most well known works : *Cantos*.

Poussin, Nicolas (1593-1665). A very eminent French painter of landscapes and historical subjects.

Prasad, The Honble Dr. Rajendra (b. Dec. 3, 1884 ;). President, of the Indian Union ; was Chairman, Indian Constituent Assembly ; was President, Indian National Congress, 1932, 1934, 1939, 1947 ; Member and Minister for food and Agriculture in the Indian Interim Govt.

and the free Indian Govt. after independence in 1946 and 1947 respectively ; left government in Jan. 1946 and became President of Congress in Nov. 1947: His publications include *Autobiography* and *India Divided*.

Praxiteles. Great Greek sculptor who lived in the 4th century B. C. His most celebrated works were his marble statue of Aphrodite and Hermes.

Proust, Marcel. (1871-1922). Greatest of modern French psychological novelists with a penetrating insight into the working of the human mind. His masterpiece is: *Remembrance of Things* in fifteen volumes.

Pythagoras, (570-500 B. C.). Greek philosopher ; devoted much attention to mathematics. Pythagoras theorem is well known in geometry.

Q

Quisling, Vidkun (1887-1945). Norwegian pro-Nazi politician ; formed the Norwegian fascist party and aided the Nazis in the invasion of the country by delaying mobilization ; he was made Premier by Hitler in 1942 ; but his unpopularity grew and he was arrested in 1945, and was shot as a traitor. His name has been added to the War vocabulary to describe those guilty of his brand of treason.

R

Racine, Jean (1639-99). French dramatist ; his works include *Andromaque*, *Britannicus*, *Esther* and *Athalie*.

Radhakrishnan, Sir Sarvepalli (b. 1888). Scholar ; professor of philosophy Calcutta 1931-39 ; Vice Chancellor of Banaras Hindu University from 1939. He has largely written on Hindu religion and philosophy. He is at present India's Ambassador and Plenipotentiary Extraordinary at Moscow.

Rajagopalachari Chakravarti. (b. 1879). Statesman ; from 1919 he was a prominent leader of the Congress Party ; became Prime Minister of Madras 1937-39 ; during the World War II he temporarily broke with the Congress. He became Minister of Industries and Supplies in the Indian Government 1946-47 ; was Governor of W. Bengal 1947, and in 1948 succeeded Lord Mountbatten as Governor General, the first Indian to hold the office. He retired from his office on 26th Jan 1950, when India chose Dr Rajendra Prasad as its' first President ; came back as Home Minister and retired again.

Raleigh, Sir Walter (1552-1618). Very celebrated English scholar, courtier, soldier, sailor and statesman of the time of Queen Elizabeth and James 1st.

Ram, Jagjivan. President of the All-India Depressed Classes League ; became Minister of Labour in the Indian Cabinet in 1946.

Ram Mohan Roy (1774-1833). Religious reformer, born in Bengal, he disliked idolatry and in 1830 founded Brahmo Samaj.

Ranjit Singh Ji, Kumar Shri (1872-1933). Maharaja of Nawanagar ; a brilliant batsman, he played cricket for Sussex in 1897-8 and in 1899 played for England against Australia. The Ranji Trophy Matches were started in his honour.

Ranke, Leopold Von (1795-1886). German historian, he laid the basis of modern historical research.

Raphael, Sanzio (1483-1520). Italian. One of the greatest painters of all times. His works are distinguished for their beauty of form and colour.

Rasputin (1871-1916). A Russian monk who was reputed to have possessed strange occult powers. He gained influence over the Czarina and thoroughly corrupted the Court.

Rau, B. N. One of India's best legal brains ; appointed India's permanent representative to the U. N. Now appointed judge of the International Court of Justice.

Rembrandt, Harmensz Van Rijn (1606-1669). One of the greatest of the Dutch school of painters. His most important works are "Presentation in the Temple," "Anatomy Lesson," "Night Watch," "Women Taken in Adultery" and of the "Good Samaritan."

Reuter, Paul Julius, (1816-99). Founder of Reuters international news agency.

Reynolds, Sir Joshua (1723-92). Portrait painter ; his artistic theories are propounded in his "Discourses."

Richelieu, Cardinal (1585-1642). One of the greatest of statesmen France has produced. Was minister of Louis XIII; was a patron of letters and the founder of the French Academy.

Robespierre. (1756-94). One of the leaders of the French Revolution. In the Reign of Terror as President of the Committee of Public Safety he sent vast numbers to the guillotine. He afterwards met the same fate himself.

Rockefeller, John Davison. (1839-1937). Born poor, but ended by being the richest man on earth. Became President of the Standard Oil Company which ultimately controlled 90% of the U. S. refineries. He was also a great philanthropist.

Rolland, Romain (1866-1944). French novelist and dramatist ; he wrote works on Beethoven and Handel ; and novels like Jean-Christophe, for which he received Nobel Prize.

Rommel, Erwin (1891-1944). German field-marshall ; he served in the Great War and joined the Nazi party

later on ; he was prominent in the annexation of Central Europe, the fall of France, the N. African War and the 1944 operations. One of the ablest commanders who achieved a great success in N. Africa.

Rontgen, Wilhelm Konrad (1845-1923). German physicist ; his experiments resulted in the discovery in 1895 of rays which subsequently helped the development of X-rays.

Roosevelt, Anna Eleanor (b. 1884). Wife of President F. D. Roosevelt ; has served as a U. S. delegate to the U. N. O. general assembly and was elected chairman of the U. N. O. commission on human rights in 1946.

Roosevelt, Franklin Delano (1882-1945). 32nd president of the U. S. A., born at Hyde Park, New York and educated in Europe at Harvard and at Columbia Universities ; in 1907 joined the bar ; entered politics in 1910 and was elected to the State senate as a Democrat ; was Governor of New York 1929-33. In 1932 he became President ; again in 1936 was elected President on the record of the New Deal ; drew up Atlantic Charter with Mr. Churchill. He participated in Quebec, Cairo, Teheran and Yalta Conferences : again he was elected in 1944 but expired in April 1945.

Ross, Sir Ronald (1857-1933). Physician and bacteriologist ; received a Nobel Prize in 1902. Famous for his work on malaria.

Rossetti, Christina Georgina (1830-94). Poet ; sister of Dante. Probably the greatest of English Women poets, her works include "The Goblin Market" "The Prince's Progress" and "Sing Song" etc.

Rothschild, Meyer Amschel (1742-1812), and his descendants became the heads of one of the most important and richest financial concerns of the world—the famous Rothschild banking business. They are Jews.

Rousseau, Jean Jacques (1712-1778). French philosopher and one of the great prose writers of French Literature. His writings were partly responsible for the French Revolution. His most well known works are ; *The Social Contract*, *Emile* and *Confessions*.

Rubens, Peter Paul (1577-1640). The most famous painter of the Flemish School. His masterpiece "Descent from the Cross" and "War and Peace" are well known.

Rutherford, Ernest (1871-1927). English physicist. A pioneer of modern atomic science, his main researches were in the field of radio-activity and he was the first to recognize the nuclear nature of the atom.

Russell, Bertrand Arthur William (b. 1872). Philosopher and mathematician ; for an article in a journal he had to go to prison for 6th months where he wrote "Introduction to Mathematical Philosophy." He visited U. S. S. R., China

and U. S. A. Among his most important works are "Principles of Mathematics," "Problems of Philosophy," "An Enquiry into Meaning and Truth," and "History of Western Philosophy." Received the Nobel Prize for Literature in 1950.

Ruskin, John (1819-1900). English art critic and social reformer. His writings exhibit a masterly perception of the principles of art and a boundless gift of literary expression. Though his fame has dimmed now, his works have inspired many greater men of modern times, notably Mahatma Gandhi. His well known works : *Modern Painters*, *The Seven Lamps of Architecture*, *The Stones of Venice* and *Unto This Last*.

S

Santayana, George (b. 1863). Spanish philosopher. His books include "The Life of Reason," "The Realm of Truth," "Background of my life," "The Sense of Beauty".

Sapru, Sir Tej Bahadur (1875-1949) ; Statesman and lawyer, president of the Indian Liberal Federation, and at one time law member of the Governor-General's executive council.

Salra Bhai Bharati (b. 1913). Hindu poetess. She completed her education at Oxford, and on returning to India devoted herself to poetry ; her chief work is "The Well of the People."

Sarkar, Sir Jadunath (1870-) Kt., C. I. E., M. A. Prem Chand Roychand, Scholar, D. Litt., one of the foremost historian on medieval India. His well known works are ; History of Aurangzeb in 5 vols ; Shivaji and his Times, Mughal Administration, India Through the Ages, Fall of the Mughal Empire etc., etc.

Savonarola, Girolamo (1452-98). Fiery preacher and Reformer of Venice, who denounced the follies and luxuries of his time, especially attacking Pope Alexander VI, for which he was excommunicated, imprisoned and burnt at the stakes.

Schopenhauer, Arthur (1788-1860). German philosopher. His chief work is "The world as Will and Idea."

Schiller, Johann Christoph Friedrich (1759-1805). Famous German dramatist and poet, next only to Goethe. Author of: *The Maid of Orleans*, *William Tell*, *The Robbers* etc.

Schumann, Robert Alexander (1810-56). German composer and musical critic.

Sforza, Count (b. 1873). Italian statesman ; was Foreign Minister 1920-21, and ambassador to Paris in 1922. In 1944 he became a minister without portfolio and Foreign Minister in 1946.

- Schubert, Franz** (1797-1828). Austrian Musical Composer. A contemporary of Beethoven. His abiding fame rests on his songs, which are infused by a great intensity of poetic feelings. Celebrated for his *Unfinished Symphony*, *Ave Maria* *Lilac Times* etc.
- Schweitzer, Albert** (1875-). Alsatian theologian, musician, organist and missionary surgeon. According to many authorities the greatest living man in the world. Works : *The Quest of the Historical Jesus*, *On the Edge of the Primeval Forest*, *My life and Thought* and *From My African Notebook*.
- Scott, Robert Falcon** (1868-1912). Antarctic explorer who commanded the National Atlantic Expeditions, in one of which he lost his life.
- Scott, Sir Walter** (1771-1832). One of the greatest of the British Novelist, as also a great poet though Lord Byron soon eclipsed him in poetry which he had to abandon to pay attention to a more congenial field, the writing of the celebrated Waverly Novels, most popular of which are : *Ivanhoe*, *The Talisman*, *Kenilworth*, *Heart of Midlothian* etc. etc.
- Shackleton, Sir Ernest** (1874-1922). British explorer who commanded the Nimrod Farthest South expedition of 1907-9 which reached within 100 miles of the South Pole. Died whilst on a scientific voyage to the Antarctic.
- Shakespeare** (1564-1616). Greatest of English dramatist and poet, the author of world renowned dramas : Hamlet, King Lear, Othello, Macbeth, Julius Caesar, Much Ado about Nothing, As You Like It, Twelfth Night, Romeo and Juliet, and a number of historical plays
- Shankracharya** (b. 788 A. D.). One of the greatest of Hindu teachers and preachers of Vedanta philosophy. He was a Nambudri Brahman from Malabar. His efforts were partly responsible for the disappearance of Buddhism from India.
- Shaw, George Bernard.** Dramatist. He was decidedly the greatest playwright of the 20th century. Works : Arms and the Man, Caesar and Cleopatra, Man and Superman, and The Intelligent Women's Guide to Socialism and Capitalism.
- Shelley, Persy Bysshe** (1792-1822). One of the most brilliant poetic geniuses of the 19th century, renowned for the daring and un-orthodox views which he held. His greatest works : *Prometheus Unbound*, *Adonias*, *Ode to the West Wind*, *The Skylark* etc.
- Sheridan, Richard Brinsley** (1751-1816). Irish dramatist and politician. Author of a most brilliant satirical comedy; *The School for Scandal*, and the *Critic*.

Sherriff, Robert Cedric (1896-). English dramatist who leapt into sudden fame by his play about the Great War, "Journey's End".

Singh, The Hon'ble Sardar Baldev. Minister of Defence, Govt. of India after the partition of the country ; was Member of Defence, Interim Government, September 2, 1946.

Sidney, Sir Philip (1554-86). Statesman, poet and soldier, a favourite courtier of Queen Elizabeth. Literary works : *Apology for Poetry, Defence of Poesy*.

Sinclair, Utopian (1878-). American novelist who established his reputation as a writer when he wrote ; *The Jungle* in 1906. Later works are 'Boston' "Dragon Harvest" "Presidential Agent", etc.

Socrates (469-399 B C.). Great Greek philosopher and soldier, who had such celebrated pupils as Plato and Xenophon. The best account of his life, death and teaching is in Plato's *Dialogues*. He was condemned to death for corrupting youth and introducing new gods for which he had to drink the hemlock potion prepared for him.

Sophocles (495-406) Famous Athenian dramatist. Author of the Oedipus series, seven of which have survived. His writings are remarkable for the intense humanity, sublime passion and lofty morality that inspires them.

Spenser, Edmund (1552-99). English poet of the Elizabethan period. Well known works ; *The Faier-e Queene*.

Spinoza, Benedict (1632-1677). Jewish philosopher born in Amsterdam, the greatest modern pantheist, and one of the greatest philosophers of all time. His greatest work is the "Ethics" (1677).

Sri Prakasa (b. August 3, 1890); Governor of Assam in the first Nehru Ministry ; formerly a High Commissioner for India in Pakistan since Sep. 1947. Sri Prakasa is a politician, educationist and journalist. His publications include "Annie Besant, as Woman and as Leader."

Stalin (b. 1879). After the death of Lenin he became the most prominent figure in Russia. Introduced in 1929 the famous five year plan. General Secretary of the Central Executive Committee of the U. S. S. R., 1924-41 ; Chairman of the Council of People's Commissars since May, 1941. Defence Commissar since July 1941, and assumed the Supreme Command of the Red Army. Marshal of the Soviet Union since March 7, 1948.

Steel, Sir Richard (1672-1729). English essayist, friend of Addison, in collaboration with whom he founded the *Spectator* and also edited the *Tatler*.

Stephenson, George (1781-1848). He is the inventor of the steam locomotive.

Stevenson, Robert Lewis (1850-1894). British novelist and essayist of Scottish descent. Author of : *Treasure Island*, *Kidnapped*, *Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde*.

Strasser, Otto (b. 1897). German politician. Formerly a Nazi, he broke away with his brother Gregor in 1930 and founded the Revolutionary National Socialist Party, with a programme combining Nazism and Socialism.

Sun Yat Sen, Dr. (1866-1925). First President of the Chinese Republic of which he was the founder.

Swift, Jonathan (1667-1745). Irish satirist. *Gulliver's Travels*, *A Tale of a Tub*, and *The Battle of the Books* are among his best known works.

T

Tagore, Rabindranath (1861-1941). Writer and poet; born in Calcutta ; in 1901 he established the "Abode of Peace" Santi Niketan, a school which has developed into an international University ; his "Gitanjli" and "Chitra" brought him world fame and in 1913 he got the Nobel Prize. An ardent social reformer and nationalist ; in 1919 he gave up knighthood to protest against the British repression in the country.

Talleyrand, Perigord Prince (1754-1838). Distinguished French diplomat and prelate Napoleon's foreign secretary till 1807.

Tennyson, Alfred Lord (1809-92). Poet Laureate of England in the reign of Queen Victoria. Author of *The Princess*, *In Memoriam*, *Idylls of the King*, *Maud*, *Enoch Arden* etc.

Thackeray, William Makepiece (1811-1863). One of the greatest of Mid-Victorian Novelist. His best novel is the *Vanity Fair*.

Titian (1477-1576). One of the greatest painters of Italy. His best known works are *Venus and Adonis*, *Bacchus and Ariadne* and the "Entombment of Christ".

Tito. (b. 1892), assumed name of Josip Broz. Yugoslav soldier and statesman ; served in the Austrian army during the Great War ; went to Russia and fought in civil wars ; after his return to Yugoslavia became prominent as a communist ; after the German invasion of 1941 he organized National Liberation Army ; became Prime Minister in 1945. His favour of the peasantry at the cost of the working class let him into conflict with the Yugoslav Communist Party and expulsion from the Cominform.

Tolstoy, Leo Nikolaievich (1828-1910). Russian novelist ; came from a noble family and fought in the Crimean War ; his masterpieces are "War and Peace" and "Anna Karenina." Later he devoted himself to preach gospel of brotherhood and love and wrote "Kreutzer Sonata" and "Resurrection" which appeared in 1900.

Trollope, Anthony (1815-82). Novelist, his popular works are "Barchester Towers" "Orley Farm" and "The Duke's Children" etc.

Truman, Harry Shippe (b. 1884). 33rd President of the U.S.A. practised law ; became major in the Great War and entered Senate in 1935 ; became Vice-President in Jan 1945 and succeeded Roosevelt on his death in April 1945 ; in 1948 he was again elected President.

Tulsidas (1532-1623). The contemporary of Akbar, the greatest reformer (by his writings) and one of the greatest poet that India has produced. Works : *Ramacharitamanas* or 'The Life and the Deeds of Rama'.

Turgenieff, Ivan (1818-1883). Russian novelist and short story writer. Among his works are *Smoke*, *Fathers and Sons*, *Virgin Soil*.

Turner, James Mallord William (1775-1851). English landscape painter. His work was greatly admired and popularised by Ruskin, whose *Modern Painters* was written primarily in defence of Turner.

U

Urey H. C. (1893—). American chemist. Joined in 1934 the Columbia University, when he received the Nobel Prize for Chemistry. He has specialized in the structure of atoms and molecules and discovered heavy water.

V

Velazquez, Don Diego (1599-1660). Famous Spanish painter, whose pictures rank among the first in Spanish art. Noted works : *The Waiting Maidens*, *The Spinners*.

Valmiki. The first poet of India, the immortal writer of the great Ramayana. He ranks with Vyasa, the author of Mahabharata, and Homer of Greece as the three greatest Epic writers of the ancient world. He is supposed to have flourished between 6th and 7th century B. C.

Verne, Jules (1828-1905). One of the most popular authors of wonder stories. Popular works : *Five Weeks in a Balloon*, *Twenty Thousand Leagues under the Sea*, *Voyage Around the World in Eighty Days*.

WHO'S WHO

Virgil, (70-19 B.C.). Roman poet ; he belonged to the yeoman class whose life he eulogized in his poems. His best known work is "Aeneid" an epic poem in 12 volumes.

Voltaire, Francois Marie Arouet de (1694-1778). One of the greatest of French writers and philosophers, who devoted himself to crushing the spirit of intolerance. His most important works are *Candide*, *Zadig* and *The Age of Louis XIV*.

Vyas. The supposed author of the great *Mahabharata*, the second greatest epics of the Hindus. May have flourished between the 7th and 2nd century B. C.

Vyshinsky, Andrei Januarievich (b. 1813). Soviet statesman ; joined the Socialist Democratic Party in 1902 and fought in 1905 revolution ; later on in 1940 became Deputy Commissar for Foreign Affairs ; Vice Minister in 1946 and represented U. S. S. R. at the U. N. O. General Assembly.

W

Wagner, Wilhelm Richard (1813-83). German Composer who exerted the greatest influence upon musical art in the 19th century. Well known works : *The Ring of the Nibelung* and *Parsifal*.

Wallace, Henry Agard (b. 1888). American statesman ; was editor of "Wallace's Farmer" 1910-33 ; was Vice-President in Roosevelt's 3rd term.

Ward, Barbara (b. 1914). Economist ; was University extension lecturer and later on assistant editor of Economist. "In 1946 she became a governor of B.B.C."

Washington, George (1732-99). Commander-in-Chief of the American Army of Liberation and the first President of the U. S. A.

Watt, James (1736-1819). Inventor of the steam Engine.

Watteau, Jean Antoine (1684-1721). French landscape painter of transcendent ability. His masterpiece is *Embarkation for the Isles of Cythereas*.

Wavel, Archibald Percival (b. 1883). Field Marshal ; served in the Great War and was C-in-C Southern Command 1938-39, and C-in-C. Middle East in July 1939, became C-in-C. in India in 1941 and became Viceroy of India in 1943.

Wellington, Arthur Wellesley Duke of (1769-1852). Famous as the man who defeated the Great Napoleon in the battle of Waterloo. Was twice Prime Minister of England.

Wells, Herbert George. (1866-1946). Writer and prophet of the age of scientific humanism ; his works include "The Invisible Man," "First and Last Things," "Russia in the

Shadows," and "Outlines of History". "The shape of Things to Come" and "Mind at the End of its Tether" were his last works.

Wilde, Oscar Fingall O' Flaheritie Wills (1854-1900). Irish writer; his works include "Dorian Gray" "Lady Windermere's Fan" "A Woman of No Importance." "An Ideal Husband" and "Importance of Being Earnest" "Ballad of Reading Gaol" and *De Profundis* were prompted by his experience in imprisonment which he had to undergo for homosexuality.

Wilson: Thomas Woodrow. (1856-1924). 28th President of the U. S. A., he tried to keep U. S. A. neutral during the Great War but the German U-Boat campaign forced him to declare war in 1917; he issued "Fourteen Points" in 1918 as a basis for a just peace settlement. He succeeded in establishing the League of Nations.

Wodehouse, Pelham Grenville (1881—). English humorist and writer of a large number of exceedingly popular stories. His servant character Jeeves in his "My Man Jeeves" is world famous.

Wordsworth, William (1770-1850). One of the most inspired of all British poets—the great interpreter of Nature in all her moods. Succeeded to the Poet Laureateship on the death of Southey in 1843.

Y

Yeats, William Butler (1865-1939). Poet, playwright and author of Irish birth. Was one of the potent forces in the Irish literary revival in the 20th century. Awarded the Nobel Prize for Literature in 1923.

Z

Zeppelin, Ferdinand, Count Von. (1838-1917). The inventor of Zeppelin, a rigid dirigible balloon. Zeppelins were used for air raids on England during the First World War.

Zola, Emile. (1840-1902). French novelist of the realistic or naturalistic school, began literature as a journalist, but soon gave himself up to novel-writing. Among his works the chief are *Therese Raquin*, *La Fortune des Rougon*, *L'Assommoir*, *Rome*, and *Paris*.

