

State

State is “a community of persons permanently occupying a definite portion of territory, independent of external control, and possessing an organized government”

On the basis of this definition, we can say that there are four elements of the State, which are given as below:

Elements of the State-

A State stands identified with its four essential elements:

- 1. Population or community of person:** Population is the first and most essential element for the existence of any state. Whether the state is ancient or modern its physical existence depends on the groups of people.
- 2. Territory:** Territory is next major element for the existence of state. Population within undefined or unspecified area cannot be called a state. For instance, until twentieth century no one was ready to recognize the physical existence of Jews because they did not have any defined geographical area but now their geographical area is specified or defined therefore, they are recognized as a nation with physical existence.
- 3. Government:** The government is the most important instrument of the State through which the latter realizes its objectives. Through its three organs i.e.; the Legislature, the Executive and the Judiciary, it makes laws and rules, implements them, maintains peace and order in the Individual and the State country and resolves clashes of interests. It also tries to ensure territorial integrity or unity of the country.
- 4. Sovereignty:** Sovereignty is one of the foremost elements of any independent State. It means absolute Independence, i.e., a government which is not controlled by any other power: internal or External. A country cannot have its own constitution without being sovereign like India.

Nation

A nation is a community of people formed on the basis of

a common language, territory, ethnicity etc.

Difference between Nation and Country		
Parameters of Comparison	Nation	Country
Etymology	It means a 'nacion' – an old French word meaning “place of origin”.	It means a “contree” – an old French word meaning “a remote area”.
Identity	It is commonly recognized as a cluster of individuals who share the same cultures and traditions.	It is commonly recognized as a 'state' governed by an authority.
State	Not every nation has a state.	In the concept of Nation-State, every state has one nation.
Example	The Kurds	The Russian Federation
Alternative	It can alternatively be used in reference to sovereign state and country.	In an unsubstantial way, it can alternatively be used in reference to any particular region or area with no governmental status.

Constitution

Constitution means a document having a special legal sanctity, which sets out the framework and principal functions of the Government.

Need and importance of the Constitution

- ❑ To establish Rule of Law.
- ❑ To provide a set of basic rules that allow for minimal coordination amongst members of society.
- ❑ To specify who has the power to make decisions in a society. It decides how the government will be constituted.
- ❑ To set some limits on what a government can impose on its citizens. These limits are fundamental in the sense that government may never trespass on them.
- ❑ To enable the government to fulfil the aspirations of a society and create conditions for a just society.

Types of the constitution	
Unwritten Constitution	Written Constitution
Unwritten constitution refers to the constitution not codified in a structured manner	Written Constitution refers to the constitution codified and compiled in a structured and cohesive manner
Unwritten Constitution evolves over a long period with a new set of laws and guidelines being added as time progresses	Written constitutions have been properly framed and compiled in a step-by-step manner with any subsequent changes being added almost instantaneously
Rigid, Flexible or Both	Majorly Flexible, however, there can be instances where even the written Constitution is rigid
The Parliament is supreme in a country where there is an unwritten constitution	The Constitution is supreme
The judiciary has limited powers	The Judiciary has more power in order to ensure constitutional supremacy
The Magna Carta can be considered the earliest form of the unwritten constitution. It was a charter of rights signed by King John of England on 15th June 1215. The charter promised to protect the rights of the nobility from the interference of the crown. The Magna Carter would eventually evolve into the unwritten constitution of the United Kingdom	The Constitution of the United States of America is considered as the oldest written constitution, which is still in force. It was drafted on September 17th, 1787, ratified on June 21st, 1788 and, came into effect on March 4th, 1789. James Madison, one of the founding fathers of the United States wrote the document that formed the model for the Constitution
Example – Britain	Example – India, USA etc.

Are Constitutions Static in Nature?

No, Change is the rule of nature and Constitutions also develop through amendments. The Constitution is the basic document of any nation. There is a need to bring in timely changes in it because of the social, political, economic, cultural and technological changes that take place with the passage of time. The architects of the Constitution have made provisions to make amendments in the Constitution.

Indian Constitution

Historical Background –

- Many regulations and legislation passed before India's independence can be traced back to the Constitution. The Indian Constitution's evolution

can be divided into two categories:

- The Company Rule (1773–1858) is a set of rules that governs how businesses were run during the East India Company Rule.
- The Crown Rule (1858–1947) was a period of British rule that lasted from 1858 until 1947.
- Colonial authorities adopted and devised techniques for dealing with Indian concerns, and India's constitution bears some of the British administration system's legacy.

Historical Evolution of the Indian Constitution

There are various layers in the background of the Indian Constitution:

- Regulating Act 1773
- Act of Settlement 1781
- Pitt's India Act 1784
- Charter Act of 1813
- Charter Act of 1833
- Charter Act of 1853
- Government of India Act 1858
- Indian Councils Act 1861
- India Councils Act 1892
- Morley-Minto Reforms 1909
- Montague-Chelmsford Reforms 1919
- Government of India Act 1935
- Indian Independence Act 1947

Regulating Act, 1773-

- First time the British Parliament resorted to regulating the affairs of the East India Company.
- The Governor of Bengal was made the Governor-General of Bengal.
- An Executive Council of the Governor-General was created with 4 members.
- Centralised the administration with the Presidencies of Madras and Bombay being made subordinate to the Bengal Presidency.
- Supreme Court was established at Calcutta as the Apex Court in 1774.
- Prohibited company officials from engaging in private trade and from accepting gifts from Indians.

Act of Settlement 1781-

- It exempted the Governor-General and the Council from the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court for the acts done by them in their official capacity. Similarly,

it also exempted the servants of the company from the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court for their official actions.

- ❑ It excluded the revenue matters and the matters arising in the collection of revenue from the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court.
- ❑ It provided that the Supreme Court was to have jurisdiction over all the inhabitants of Calcutta. It also required the court to administer the personal law of the defendants i.e., Hindus were to be tried according to the Hindu law and Muslims were to be tried according to the Mohammedan law.
- ❑ It laid down that the appeals from the Provincial Courts could be taken to the Governor-General-in-Council and not to the Supreme Court.
- ❑ It empowered the Governor-General-in-Council to frame regulations for the Provincial Courts and Councils.

Pitt's India Act 1784

- ❑ Commercial and political functions of the company separated. The Court of Directors managed the commercial activities while the Board of Control managed political affairs.
- ❑ The company territories in India were called 'British possession in India'.
- ❑ Governor's Councils were set up in Madras and Bombay as well.

Charter Act 1813

- ❑ It abolished the trade monopoly of the company in India i.e., the Indian trade was thrown open to all British merchants. However, it continued the monopoly of the company over trade in tea and trade with China.
- ❑ It asserted the sovereignty of the British Crown over the Company's territories in India.
- ❑ It allowed the Christian missionaries to come to India for the purpose of enlightening the people.
- ❑ It provided for the spread of western education among the inhabitants of the British territories in India.

Charter Act 1833

- ❑ It made the Governor-General of Bengal as the Governor-General of India and vested in him all civil and military powers. Thus, Lord William Bentick (the then Governor-General of Bengal) became the first Governor-General of India.

- ❑ It deprived the Governor of Bombay and Madras of their legislative powers. The Governor-General of India was given exclusive legislative powers for the entire British India.
- ❑ This act ended the commercial activities of the company and it was transformed into an administrative body.

Charter Act 1853

- ❑ The legislative and executive powers of the Governor-General's Council were separated.
- ❑ A Central Legislative Council was created of 6 members out of which 4 were appointed by the provisional governments of Madras, Bombay, Agra and Bengal.
- ❑ The Indian civil service was opened as a means to recruit officers for administration through open competition.
- ❑ It extended the Company's rule and allowed it to retain the possession of Indian territories on trust for the British Crown. But it did not specify any particular period, unlike the previous Charters. This was a clear indication that the Company's rule could be terminated at any time by the British Parliament.

Government of India Act 1858

- ❑ After the revolt of 1857, the rule of the company was ended and the British possessions in India came directly under the British Crown.
- ❑ The office of the Secretary of State for India was created. He was assisted by a 15-member Council of India.
- ❑ It changed the designation of the Governor-General of India to that of Viceroy of India. Viceroy was the direct representative of the British Crown in India. Lord Canning, thus, became the first Viceroy of India.
- ❑ It ended the system of dual Government by abolishing the Board of Control and Court of Directors.

Indian Council Act 1861

- ❑ Indians were given representation in the Viceroy's Councils. Three Indians entered the Legislative Council.
 - ❑ Provisions were made for the entry of Indians in the Viceroy's Executive council also as non-official members.
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- ❑ Portfolio system was recognised.
- ❑ Decentralisation initiated with the presidencies of Madras and Bombay being restored their legislative powers.

Indian Council Act 1892

- ❑ It raised the number of (non-official) members in the Central and Provincial Legislative Councils while keeping the official majority.
 - Bombay – 8
 - Madras – 20
 - Bengal – 20
 - North-Western province -15
 - Oudh – 15
 - Central Legislative Council minimum - 10, maximum 16
- ❑ Members could now debate the budget without having the ability to vote on it. They were also barred from asking follow-up questions.
- ❑ The Governor-General in Council was given the authority to set rules for member nomination, subject to the approval of the Secretary of State for India.
- ❑ To elect members of the councils, an indirect election system was implemented. Members of provincial councils could be recommended by universities, district boards, municipalities, zamindars, and chambers of commerce.
- ❑ Provincial legislative councils were given more powers, including the ability to propose new laws or repeal old ones with the Governor General's assent.
- ❑ In the event of the Central legislature, the Governor was given the authority to fill the seat, while in the case of the provincial legislature, the Governor was given the authority.

Indian Council Act 1909 (Morley-Minto Reforms)

- ❑ It considerably increased the size of the legislative councils, both Central and provincial. The number of members in the Central Legislative Council was raised from 16 to 60. The number of members in the provincial legislative councils was not uniform.
- ❑ It retained official majority in the Central Legislative Council but allowed the provincial legislative councils to have non-official majority.
- ❑ The elected members were to be indirectly elected.

The local bodies were to elect an electoral college, which in turn would elect members of provincial legislatures, who in turn would elect members of the central legislature.

- ❑ It enlarged the deliberative functions of the legislative councils at both the levels. For example, members were allowed to ask supplementary questions, move resolutions on the budget, and so on.
- ❑ It provided (for the first time) for the association of Indians with the executive Councils of the Viceroy and Governors. Satyendra Prasad Sinha became the first Indian to join the Viceroy's Executive Council. He was appointed as the law member. Two Indians were nominated to the Council of the Secretary of State for Indian Affairs.
- ❑ It introduced a system of communal representation for Muslims by accepting the concept of 'separate electorate'. Under this, the Muslim members were to be elected only by Muslim voters. Thus, the Act 'legalised communalism' and Lord Minto came to be known as the Father of Communal Electorate.
- ❑ It also provided for the separate representation of presidency corporations, chambers of commerce, universities and zamindars.

Government of India Act 1919 (Montague-Chelmsford Reforms)

Dyarchy

- ❑ Introduction of dyarchy at the provincial level. Dyarchy means a dual set of governments where one set of government was accountable while the other was not.
- ❑ Control over provinces was relaxed by demarcating subjects as 'central subjects' and 'provincial subjects'

Division of Subjects

- ❑ The provincial government's subjects were separated into two divisions.
- ❑ The reserved subjects were under the supervision of the province's British governor, while the transferred subjects were assigned to the province's Indian ministers.
- ❑ Local self-government, public works, sanitation, industrial research, and the establishment of new companies were all on the Transferred List.
- ❑ Justice Administration, Press, Revenue, Forests, Labour Dispute Settlements, Water, Agricultural

Loans, Police, and Prisons were among the items on the Reserved List.

- ❑ The Secretary of State and the Governor-General had the authority to intervene in things covered by the reserved list, but only to a limited extent in matters covered by the transferred list.

Legislative Changes

- ❑ Legislature had no power to pass any bill without the assent of the Viceroy while on the contrary Viceroy could enact a bill without the legislature assent
- ❑ Bicameralism was introduced in the Central Legislature by this act. The lower house was the Legislative Assembly, with 145 members serving three-year terms and the upper house was the Council of States with 60 members serving five-year terms.
- ❑ The legislators, under the new reforms, could now ask questions, pass adjournment motions and vote a part of the budget, but 75% of the budget was still not votable.
- ❑ Composition of Lower House: The Lower House would consist of 145 members, who were either nominated or indirectly elected from the provinces. It had a tenure of 3 years.

Electoral provision

- ❑ The communal representation was extended to include Sikhs, Europeans and Anglo-Indians. The franchise (Right of voting) was also granted but only to a limited number of people.
- ❑ There was a provision to provide reservation to the non-Brahmins in Madras and the depressed classes were also offered nominated seats in the legislatures.

Other Provisions

- ❑ The Act provided for the establishment of a Public Service Commission in India.
- ❑ The number of Indians in the Executive Council was three out of eight.
- ❑ It established an office of the High Commissioner for India in London.

Government of India Act 1935

- ❑ It provided for the establishment of an All-India federation consisting of provinces and princely states as units.
- ❑ It divided the powers between the centre and units

in terms of three lists- Federal list, provincial list and the concurrent list. Residuary powers were given to the Viceroy. However, this federation never fructified since princely states did not join it.

- ❑ It abolished dyarchy in the provinces and introduced 'provincial autonomy' in its place
- ❑ The act introduced responsible government in provinces, that is, the governor was required to act with the advice of ministers responsible to the provincial legislature
- ❑ It provided for the adoption of dyarchy at the centre. However, this provision did not come into effect at all
- ❑ Bicameralism was introduced in six provinces- Bengal, Bombay Madras, Bihar, Assam and the United Provinces
- ❑ Separate electorates were further extended to depressed classes, women and labour
- ❑ Council of India which was established as per the 1858 act was abolished the Secretary of state was instead provided with a team of advisors.
- ❑ The act provided for setting up- Federal Public Service Commission, Provincial Public Service Commission, Joint Public Service Commission, Federal Court, Reserve Bank of India.

Indian Independence Act 1947

- ❑ The British authorities left India on Fifteenth August, 1947.
 - ❑ India will be divided into two sovereign provinces of India and Pakistan and each of those states turns sovereign on this very day.
 - ❑ The powers formerly exercised through the British authorities in India could be transferred to each of those states.
 - ❑ Punjab and Bengal will be divided and its boundary will be separated by a boundary commission headed by Mr. Radcliffe.
 - ❑ The Office of the Secretary of State for India will be abrogated.
 - ❑ Provision was made for the Governor-General for every territory, who was to be named by the Queen of England on the exhortation of the Dominion government. He was not to act in his individual judgment or circumspection however will act just as the constitutional head of the state.
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- ❑ Each domain must have a sovereign legislature to set the rules. No legislation passed by the British Parliament will automatically apply to India.
- ❑ Both countries will have their own Constituent Assembly, which will also act as a legislative body.
- ❑ Until a constitution is formulated by a Constituent Assembly in any dominion, it will work as closely as possible with the 1935 Act.
- ❑ Provincial governors will act as constitutional heads of the provinces.
- ❑ Reserving the posts of Secretary of State should be discontinued. Government personnel wishing to resign after the transfer of power to both dominions must do so.
- ❑ British domination of the states and tribal territories of India will end on August 15, 1947. In this case, power will be transferred not to dominions but left to the states to decide whether they want to participate in India or Pakistan.
- ❑ From now on, the relationship of the UK government with India will be managed through the Office of Commonwealth Affairs.
- ❑ The King of England renounced the title of King and Emperor of India.
- ❑ Pakistani territories include East Bengal, West Pakistan, Sindh and British Baluchistan. In the event that the NWFP decides to join Pakistan in a referendum, this territory will also join Pakistan.

Constituent Assembly

It was the Cabinet Mission that had put forth the idea of a Constituent Assembly and, therefore the composition of the Assembly was made in line with the Cabinet Mission scheme.

This came up with certain traits from which it could be inferred that the Constituent Assembly was supposed to be a body partly elected, and partly nominated members. The elections to the Assembly that took place in 1946 resulted in the Indian National Congress winning a total of 208 seats, and the Muslim League securing 73 seats leaving behind 15 seats that were occupied by independents. The decision of the Princely States to not be involved in the Constituent Assembly left 93 seats vacated.

It is noteworthy that although members of the Constituent Assembly were not elected directly by the

Indian people, it comprised of representatives of all sections of the society namely the Hindus, Muslims, Sikhs, Parsi, Anglo-Indian, Indian Christians, SCs/ STS, Backward Classes, and women belonging to all of these sections.

The structure of the Constituent Assembly was:

- ❑ 292 members elected through the Provincial Legislative Assemblies;
- ❑ The Indian Princely States was represented by 93 members; and
- ❑ The Chief Commissioners' Provinces were represented by 4 members.

Thus, the total membership of the Constituent Assembly was to be 389. But the Mountbatten Plan of 3rd June 1947 led to the partition of India thereby leading to a formation of a separate Constituent Assembly for the newly made Pakistan. This ceased some of the representatives of certain Provinces to be members of the Assembly, resulting in a reduction of the membership to 299 members.

The total strength of the new Constituent Assembly was fixed at 299 which was inclusive of the strength of the

- ❑ Indian provinces (229), and
- ❑ Princely States (70)

The Assembly became a fully functioning sovereign body, and by the means of the Act of 1947, any law made under the umbrella of the British Parliament with regards to India could be scrapped, altered, or modified. The Assembly was majorly vested with two functions;

- ❑ Make a constitution for the free nation; and
- ❑ Enacting laws for the country and its people to be governed by.

The Assembly functioned in many other ways beyond enacting laws and framing the Indian Constitution such as;

- ❑ Adoption of the national flag, national song, and national anthem on 22nd July 1947, and 24th January 1950 respectively.
- ❑ In May 1949, the Assembly had ratified India's membership of the Commonwealth.
- ❑ The Assembly on 24th January 1950, elected Dr. Rajendra Prasad as its first President.

Committees of the Constituent Assembly

To avoid any kind of mismanagement, and taking into

account the load of work to be dusted off, the Constituent Assembly had formulated different committees working in specific areas of constitution-making. There were eight major committees namely;

- ❑ The Union Powers Committee presided over Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru.
- ❑ The Union Constitution Committee presided over Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru.
- ❑ The Provincial Constitution Committee presided over Sardar Patel.
- ❑ Drafting Committee presided by Dr. B.R. Ambedkar.
- ❑ Advisory Committee on Fundamental Rights, Minorities and Tribal and Excluded Areas presided by Sardar Patel. This committee had the following five sub-committees:
 - ❑ Fundamental Rights Sub-Committee with J.B. Kripalani as the Chairman.
 - ❑ Minorities Sub-Committee with H.C. Mukherjee as the Chairman.
 - ❑ North-East Frontier Tribal Areas and Assam Excluded & Partially Excluded Areas Sub-Committee with Gopinath Bardoloi as the Chairman.
 - ❑ Excluded and Partially Excluded Areas (Other than those in Assam) Sub-Committee with A.V. Thakkar as the Chairman.
 - ❑ North-West Frontier Tribal Areas Sub-Committee.
- ❑ Rules of Procedure Committee presided over by Dr. Rajendra Prasad.
- ❑ States Committee (Committee for Negotiating with States) presided over Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru.
- ❑ The Steering Committee was presided over by Dr. Rajendra Prasad.

The remaining 13 committees were considered minor committees.

The Drafting Committee of the Constituent Assembly

Among all the committees mentioned above, a special mention of the Drafting Committee headed by Dr. B.R. Ambedkar is required. Set up on 29th August 1947, the Drafting Committee was vested with the main task of drafting the Constitution of India after taking into account proposals from different committees. He was the first person to introduce a new draft of the Indian Constitution. This Committee comprised of seven members of the Assembly namely;

- ❑ Dr. B. R Ambedkar as the Chairman of the Committee;
- ❑ Dr. K M Munshi;

- ❑ Syed Mohammad Saadullah;
- ❑ N Madhava Rau (He replaced B L Mitter who resigned due to ill-health);
- ❑ N Gopalaswamy Ayyangar;
- ❑ Alladi Krishnaswamy Ayyar;
- ❑ T T Krishnamachari (He replaced D P Khaitan who died in 1948).

B.N. Rau was also appointed as the constitutional adviser to the constitution. The Committee took a period of not beyond six months to prepare its first draft which was subjected to changes by suggestions, public comments, and various criticism thereafter the second draft was released in October 1948.

The supreme law of democratic India was drafted by the Assembly from 1946 to 1950 and was finally adopted on 26th November 1949 with effect from 26th January 1950 which has been celebrated as the Republic Day of India.

The Constituent Assembly had precisely taken two years, eleven months, and seventeen days to complete the historic duty of drafting the Indian Constitution. During this period, the Assembly held eleven sessions spread over 165 days, among which 114 days were spent solely on consideration of the Draft Constitution.

Timeline of Formation of 'The Constitution of India'

- ❑ 9 December 1946: Formation of the Constituent Assembly (demanding a separate state, the Muslim League boycotted the meeting.)
- ❑ 11 December 1946: President Appointed – Rajendra Prasad, vice-chairman H.C. Mukherjee and constitutional legal adviser B.N. Rau (initially 389 members in total, which declined to 299 after partition of India). Out of 389, 292 were from government provinces, 4 from chief commissioner provinces and 93 from princely states)
- ❑ 13 December 1946: An 'Objective Resolution' was presented by Jawaharlal Nehru laying down the underlying principles of the constitution, which later became the Preamble of the constitution.
- ❑ 22 January 1947: Objective resolution unanimously adopted.
- ❑ 22 July 1947: National Flag adopted.
- ❑ 15 August 1947: Achieved independence. India split into Dominion of India and Dominion of Pakistan.
- ❑ 29 August 1947: Drafting Committee appointed, with B. R. Ambedkar as the Chairman.

- ❑ 16 July 1948: Along with H.C. Mukherjee, V. T. Krishnamachari was elected as the second vice-president of the Constituent Assembly.
 - ❑ 26 November 1949: 'Constitution of India' passed and adopted by the assembly.
 - ❑ 24 January 1950: Last meeting of the Constituent Assembly. 'Constitution of India' (with 395 articles, 8 schedules, 22 parts) was signed and accepted by all.
 - ❑ 26 January 1950: The 'Constitution of India' came in to force after 2 years, 11 months and 18 Days, at a total expenditure of ₹6.4 million to finish.
 - ❑ Ganesh Vasudev Mavalankar was the first speaker when meeting the assembly of Lok Sabha, after turning republic.
- Indian Constitution**
Indian constitution consists of a Preamble, 470 articles

which are group into 25 parts with 12 Schedules.

List of Articles			
Parts	Subject matter	Sub Parts	Articles
I	The Union and its Territory		1 to 4
II	Citizenship		5 to 11
III	Fundamental Rights		12 to 35
IV	Directive Principles of State Policy		36 to 51
IV 'A'	Fundamental Duties		51A
V	The Union		52 to 151
	Chapter-1	The Executive	52 to 78
	Chapter-II	Parliament	79 to 122
	Chapter- III	Legislative Powers of President	123
	Chapter-IV	The Union Judiciary	124 to 147
	Chapter- V	Comptroller and Auditor-General of India	148 to 151
VI	The State Governments		152 to 237
	Chapter-I	General	152
	Chapter-II	The Executive	153 to 167
	Chapter-III	The State Legislature	168 to 212
	Chapter -IV	Legislative Powers of Governor	213
	Chapter-V	The High Courts	214 to 232
	Chapter-VI	Subordinate Courts	233 to 237
VII	The States in Part B of the First Schedule (Repealed)		238
VIII	The Union Territories		239 to 242
IX	The Panchayats		243 to 243-O
IX-A	The Municipalities		243-P to 243 -ZG
IX-B	The Co-operative Societies		243-ZH to 243-ZT
X	The Scheduled and Tribal areas		244 to 244-A
XI	Relations between the Union and the States		245 to 263
	Chapter-I	Legislative Relations	245 to 255
	Chapter-II	Administrative Relations	256 to 263

XII	Finance, Property, Contracts and Suits		264 to 300-A
	Chapter I	Finance	264 to 291
	Chapter-II	Borrowing	292 to 293
	Chapter-III	Property, contracts, Rights, Liabilities, Obligations and Suits	294 to 300
	Chapter-IV	Right to Property	300-A
XIII	Trade, Commerce and Intercourse within the Territory of India		301 to 307
XIV	Services under the Union and the States		308 to 323
	Chapter-I	Services	308 to 314
	Chapter-II	Public Service Commissions	315 to 323
XIV-A	Tribunals		323-A to 323-B
XV	Elections		324 to 329-A
XVI	Special Provisions relating to Certain Classes		330 to 342-A
XVII	Official Language		343 to 351-A
	Chapter-I	Language of the Union	343 to 344
	Chapter-II	Regional Languages	345 to 347
	Chapter-III	Language of the Supreme Court, High Courts, and so on	348 to 349
	Chapter-IV	Special Directives	350 to 351
XVIII	Emergency Provisions		352 to 360
XIX	Miscellaneous		361 to 367
XX	Amendment of the Constitution		368
XXI	Temporary, Transitional and Special Provisions		369 to 392
XXII	Short title, Commencement, Authoritative Text in Hindi and Repeals		393 to 395

SCHEDULES OF THE CONSTITUTION	
Numbers	Subject Matter
First Schedule	<input type="checkbox"/> Names of the States and their territorial jurisdictions. <input type="checkbox"/> Name of the Union Territories and their extent.
Second Schedule	<input type="checkbox"/> Provisions relating to the emoluments, allowances, privileges, and so on of: <input type="checkbox"/> The President and the Governors of the States <input type="checkbox"/> The Speaker and the Deputy Speaker of the Lok Sabha <input type="checkbox"/> The Chairman and the Deputy Chairman of the Rajya Sabha <input type="checkbox"/> The Speaker and the Deputy Speaker of the Legislative Assemblies in the States <input type="checkbox"/> The Chairman and the Deputy Chairman of the Legislative Councils in the States <input type="checkbox"/> The Judges of the Supreme Court and of the High Courts <input type="checkbox"/> The Comptroller and Auditor-General of India
Third Schedule	Forms of the Oaths or Affirmations for: 1. The Union Ministers 2. The candidates for election to the Parliament 3. The Members of the Parliament 4. The Judges of the Supreme Court 5. The Comptroller and Auditor General of India 6. The State Ministers 7. The candidates for election to the State Legislature 8. The members of the State Legislature 9. The Judges of the High Courts
Fourth Schedule	Allocation of the seats in the Rajya Sabha to the States and the Union Territories.
Fifth Schedule	Provisions relating to the administration and the control of the Scheduled Areas and the Scheduled Tribes.
Sixth Schedule	Provisions relating to the administration of the Tribal Areas in the States of Assam, Meghalaya, Tripura and Mizoram.
Seventh Schedule	Division of the powers between the Union and the States in terms of List 1 (the Union List), List II (the States List) and List III (the Concurrent List).
Eighth Schedule	Includes the languages recognised by the Constitution. Originally, it had 14 but presently there are 22 languages. They are: Assamese, Bengali, Gujarati, Hindi, Kannada, Kashmiri, Konkani, Malayalam, Manipuri, Marathi, Nepali, Oriya, Punjabi, Sanskrit, Sindhi, Tamil, Telugu and Urdu. Sindhi was added by the 21st Amendment Act of 1967, while Konkani, Manipuri and Nepali were added by the 71st Amendment Act of 1992. The 92nd Amendment Act, 2003 added Bodo, Dogri, Maithili and Santhali.
Ninth Schedule	Validation of certain Acts and regulations, mostly relating to the land reforms. There are 284 such Acts. This Schedule was added to the Constitution by the First Amendment Act of 1951 which provided, that by incorporating any law into it, the State would make it immune from judicial scrutiny.
Tenth Schedule	Provisions relating to the disqualification of the legislators on grounds of defection. This Schedule was added by the 52nd Amendment Act of 1985. It is also known as the Anti-defection Law.
Eleventh Schedule	Specifies the powers, authority and the responsibilities of the Panchayats. It has 29 matters. This schedule was added by the 73rd Amendment Act of 1992.
Twelfth Schedule	Specifies the power, authority and the responsibilities of the Municipalities. It has 18 matters. This Schedule was added by the 74th Amendment Act of 1992.