TOPICS

- President
- Vice-President
- Prime Minister
- Union Council of Ministers
- Governor
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- State Council of Minister
- Union Territories
- Indian Parliament
- State Legislature
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Article 52 states that there shall be a President of India. The executive powers of the Union shall be vested in the President. Article 53 says that all the executive powers of the Union shall be exercised by him either directly or through officers subordinates to him.

He, as the head of a state, represents the nation. In some democratic systems, the head of the state is also the head of the government and, therefore, he also acts as the head of the political executive, the US Presidency represents this form. In Britain, the monarch is the symbolic head, representing the British nation. The powers of the Government are vested in the political office of the Prime Minister. In Indian political system, the latter form has been adopted. The President of India is the first citizen and represents the Indian nation and does not, therefore, belong to any particular political party. He is elected by the representatives of the people through an Electoral College.

**Election of the President of India**

Article 54 of the constitution says

‘The President shall be elected by the members of an electoral college consisting of:

- The elected members of both the Houses of Parliament, and
- The elected members of the Legislative Assemblies of the States (including National Capital Territory of Delhi and the Union Territory of Pondicherry vide the Constitution 70th amendment Act, 1992).

Thus in the election of the President the citizens play no direct part and he is elected indirectly by the representatives or the people, like the American President but no special electoral college is elected, as in the case of America. Another point of difference that may be noted is that the election of the President of India is by the system of proportional representation, by the single transferable vote, as provided by Article 55(3) of the Constitution, while the American President is elected by the straight vote system.
Reasons for Indirect Election

- The process of election of the President of India is original and no other Constitution contains a similar procedure. The question was considerably debated in the Constituent Assembly. It was argued by many members that the Electoral College consisting of the elected members of Central Legislature as well as those of the Legislative Assemblies of the States was not sufficiently representative of Peoples’ will. Some members, therefore, favoured the system of direct election by the people instead of an indirect round-about method, because such a system would be most democratic and it would make the President a direct choice of the nation. This was, however, not accepted. The main reasons which influenced the deliberations of the Constituent Assembly for determining indirect Presidential election are:

  - Firstly, in a country following the Cabinet system of Government, the office of titular Chief Executive is a technical one, to the extent that its duties are largely prescribed by other authorities (usually by the Legislature), which requires specific competence for the performance of its duties from the incumbent. Very few voters can be competent to judge wisely of the technical abilities of the candidates for any particular office of this type, having specific, limited and defined functions.

  - Secondly, if the direct election of the President were adopted, the Presidential candidate who has to carry on an election campaign from one corner of the country to another will certainly be put up by some party or the other, which may cause political excitement and generate party feelings. Thus the man elected to the Presidential office through this means will never be able to forget his party affiliations. So the ideal of getting a non-party man outside the turmoil of party passions and reasonably respected by all factions to assume the role of the head of the State will be defeated. Further, as India is almost a sub-continent with crores of enfranchised citizens, it would be impossible to provide electoral machinery for the purpose of smooth and successful Presidential election.

  - Lastly, a directly elected Chief Executive may not be content with his position of a mere constitutional head and can claim to derive his authority directly from the people. So, if he wanted to assume real power, it would lead to a constitutional deadlock and an inevitable clash with the Cabinet or real executive. This would definitely produce a confusion of responsibility.

- Such a contingency had happened when under the French Constitution of 1848 the President of the French Republic, Louis Napoleon, was elected by the direct vote of the people, and by exploiting this system, he had overthrown the Republic to establish the empire with himself as emperor. To prevent the recurrence of such a contingency, the French people in their later constitutions discredited and abandoned the system of electing the head of State by the direct vote of the people.

- A middle course was chosen by the framers of the Indian Constitution in order to make the Presidential office more broad-based. The Electoral College for Presidential election has been expanded so as to include the elected members of the State Assemblies all over India, which means that the President is chosen by the nation as a whole, indirectly, through the elected representatives of the people and is thus not the representative of a particular constituency but of the nation. Through this device he is also not necessarily to be a man of the majority party in Parliament. This has also the additional advantage of investing the President with greater moral independence and authority which would have not been possible, had he been a man virtually elected by the majority party in Parliament.

- This indirect election of the President of India takes place with the participation of both directly elected members of Lok Sabha and Legislative Assemblies, and indirectly-elected members of Rajya Sabha. Each citizen of India is represented in Parliament and the State Legislative Assembly, because, the members of Lok Sabha and MLAs are elected on the basis of universal adult suffrage. The members nominated by the President have no right to vote in this election. Similarly, the members of the Legislative Councils of the State Legislatures, wherever they exist, have also been excluded from the Electoral College.

Procedure for the Election of the President

The Constitution provides for the election of the President by the system of proportional representation by means of the single transferable vote. The Constitution also provides for weighting of votes in the election of the President based on two fundamental principles. First, to secure as far as possible, uniformity in the scale of representation of different States of the Union, which emphasizes the similarity in the status of the States of the Union. Secondly, to secure parity between the States as a whole and the Union in order to work up the idea of federal compact. For the purpose of securing such uniformity and parity the following method is laid down:

In order to secure uniformity in the scale of representation of the different States it is provided that every elected member of the Legislative Assembly (Vidhan Sabha) of a State has to cast as many votes as there
are multiples of one thousand in the quotient obtained by dividing the population of the State by the total number of elected members of the Assembly, and if, after taking the said multiples of one thousand, the remainder is not less than five hundred, the votes of each member referred to above are further increased by one. To put it in simpler words, each member of the electoral college who is a member of a State Legislative Assembly will have a number of votes calculated as follows:

\[
\text{Value of an MLA vote} = \frac{\text{Total population of the state}}{\text{Total number of elected members} \times 1000}
\]

Fractions exceeding one half are counted as one

The following illustrations explain the method of calculation:

- The population of Andhra Pradesh is 43,502,708. Let us take the total number of elected members in the Legislative Assembly of Andhra Pradesh to be 294. To obtain the number of votes which each such elected member will be entitled to cast at the election of the President we have first to divide 43,502,708 (which is the population) by 294 (which is the total number of elected members), and then to divide the quotient by 1,000. In this case the quotient is 147,968.3945. The number of votes which each such member will be entitled to cast would be 147,968.3945/1000 i.e. 148.

- Again, the population of Punjab is 1,35,51,060. Let us take the total number of elected members of the Legislature of Punjab to be 117. Now applying the aforesaid process, if we divide 1,35,51,060 (i.e. the population) by 117 (i.e. the total number of elected members), the quotient is 115,821.0256. Therefore, the number of votes which each member of the Punjab Legislature would be entitled to cast is 115,821.0256/1000 i.e. 116.

Each elected member of either House of Parliament shall have such number of votes as may be obtained by dividing the total number of votes assigned to the members of the Legislative Assemblies of the States under sub-clauses (a) and (b) by the total number of the elected members of both Houses of Parliament, fractions exceeding one-half being counted as one and other fractions being disregarded.

\[
\text{Value of an MP vote} = \frac{\text{The sum of elected members of all Legislative Assemblies}}{\text{The sum of elected members of both the houses of Parliament}}
\]

Fractions exceeding one-half being counted as one

For the Presidential election, the population of a State is taken to be the population at the last preceding census. (Latest, census 2011)

**Proportional Representation**

**Article 55(3)** of Indian Constitution requires that the President should be elected in accordance with the system of proportional representation by means of the single transferable vote.

- **Why?**

The underlying principle of proportional representation is to prevent the exclusion of minorities from the benefits of the State, and to give each minority group an effective share in the political life. The aim of proportional representation is to give every division of opinion among electors corresponding representation in national or local assemblies. In the ordinary mode of election known as ‘straight voting system’, what happens is that a candidate getting the support of the numerically largest group is elected, although the combined strength of all other candidates representing different other parties may far outnumber his supporters. The result is that the elected candidate cannot be said to represent the opinion of the majority of the electorate as a whole. The following illustrations will amply reveal this fact.

In Nandigram South (Midnapore) constituency of the West Bengal State in 1992, the following was the ledger of polling:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Candidate</th>
<th>Votes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>P.C. Jena (Congress)</td>
<td>15,320</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bhupal Panda (Communist Party)</td>
<td>14,926</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It may be noticed that though 23,314 people voted against the Congress and only 15,320 in favour of it, yet the seat went to Congress.

This kind of anomaly is sought to be avoided by the system of Proportional Representation, and it is claimed that if this system is practiced all the parties or shades of political opinion amongst the electorate will secure the number of seats in the elected body according to their respective strength amongst the electorate.

**How the Single Transferable Vote System Works**

The best known form of Proportional Representation is that of the *Single Transferable Vote*, which means that each elector has only one vote, irrespective of the number of seats to be filled up. For instance, if there are six seats to be filled up, the elector does not cast six votes but indicates six successive preferences, by marking his first preference and the succeeding preferences with the appropriate numerals against the name of candidates printed on his ballot paper.

**Quota of Votes**

In the ordinary straight voting system a candidate who secures the highest number of votes is declared elected, while under the Proportional Representation system any member who secures the necessary quota of votes is declared elected. There are several ways of finding out the quota, but the most common method is to divide the total number of valid votes cast by the total number of seats in the constituency plus one and add one to the quotient. The formula may be represented as follows:

\[
\text{Quota} = \frac{\text{Total number of valid votes cast}}{\text{Total number of seats to be filled} + 1} + 1
\]

Supposing there are 100 valid voting papers and four seats are to be filled up. In order, therefore, to determine the quota 100 is divided by 4 plus 1, i.e. 5 and the quotient arrived at, namely 20, is increased by one so that the quota is 21. After the quota is fixed, any candidate whose total number of first preference votes is equal to or exceeds the quota is forthwith declared elected.

**Term of Office of President**

**Under Article 56**

- The President shall hold office for a term of five years from the date on which he enters upon his office: provided that-
  - the President may, by writing under his hand addressed to the Vice-President, resign his office;
  - the President may, for violation of the Constitution, be removed from office by impeachment in the manner provided in article 61;
  - 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**

**Under Article 57**

A person who holds, or who has held, office as President shall, subject to the other provisions of this Constitution, be eligible for re-election to that office.
Qualifications for Election as President

Article 58

Provides for following:
- No person shall be eligible for election as President unless he/she
  - is a citizen of India,
  - has completed the age of thirty-five years, and
  - is qualified for election as a member of the House of the People.
- 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.

Explanation: For the purposes of this article, a person shall not be deemed to hold any office of profit by reason only that he is the President or Vice-President of the Union or the Governor of any State or is a Minister either for the Union or for any State.

Conditions of President’s Office

Article 59

Mentions following in this context:
- The President shall not be a member of either House of Parliament or of a House of the Legislature of any State, and if a member of either House of Parliament or of a House of the Legislature of any State be elected President, he shall be deemed to have vacated his seat in that House on the date on which he enters upon his office as President.
- The President shall not hold any other office of profit.
- The President shall be entitled without payment of rent to the use of his official residences and shall be also entitled to such emoluments, allowances and privileges as may be determined by Parliament by law and, until provision in that behalf is so made, such emoluments, allowances and privileges as are specified in the Second Schedule.
- The emoluments and allowances of the President shall not be diminished during his term of office.

Oath or Affirmation by the President

Under Article 60 every President and every person acting as President or discharging the functions of the President shall, before entering upon his office, make and subscribe in the presence of the Chief Justice of India or, in his absence, the senior-most Judge of the Supreme Court available, an oath or an affirmation in the following form, that is to say:

‘I, A.B., do swear in the name of God/solemnly affirm that I will faithfully execute the office of President (or discharge the functions of the President) of India and will to the best of my ability preserve, protect and defend the Constitution and the law and that I will devote myself to the service and well-being of the people of India.’

Procedure for Impeachment of the President

Article 61 provides for the following:
- When a President is to be impeached for violation of the Constitution, the charge shall be preferred by either House of Parliament.
- No such charge shall be preferred unless-
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 been given of their intention to move the resolution, and

Such resolution has been passed by a majority of not less than two-thirds of the total membership of the House.

- When a charge has been so preferred by either House of Parliament, the other House shall investigate the charge or cause the charge to be investigated and the President shall have the right to appear and to be represented at such investigation.
- 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.

**Powers of the President**

**Executive powers**

- The executive power of the Union is vested in the President. The executive power does not only mean the execution of laws passed by the legislative but also the powers to carry out the business of the Government.

- However, it is evident that President is not free to use his powers; rather he acts on the advice of the Council of Ministers.

- The executive powers of the President include *administrative powers and military powers*.

- Administratively, the President may not discharge any function as there are ministries responsible for such an act. This way President becomes a formal head and action is taken in his name.

- The administrative power also includes the power to appoint and remove the high dignitaries of the State. The President shall have the power to appoint -
  - The Prime Minister of India.
  - Other Ministers of the Union.
  - The Attorney-General for India.
  - The Comptroller and Auditor General of India.
  - The judges of the Supreme Court.
  - The judges of the High Courts of the States.
  - The Governor of a State
  - A commission to investigate interference with water-supplies.
  - The Finance Commission.
  - The Union Public Service Commission and joint Commissions for a group of States.
  - The Chief Election Commissioner and other members of the Election Commission
  - A Special Officer for the Schedule Castes and Tribes.
  - A Commission to report on the administration of Scheduled Areas.
  - A Commission to investigate into the condition of backward classes.
  - A Commission on Official Language.
  - Special Officer for linguistic minorities.

- In making some of the appointments, the President is required to consult persons other than his ministers as well. Thus, in appointing the Judges of the Supreme Court, the President shall consult the Chief Justice as he may deem necessary [Art. 124(2)].

- The President shall also have the power to remove
  - His Ministers, individually;
  - The Attorney-General of India;
The Governor of a State;

- The Chairman or a member of the Public Service Commission of the Union or of a State, on the report of the Supreme Court;

- A Judge of the Supreme Court or of a High Court or the Election Commissioner, on an address of Parliament.

### Legislative Powers

**Summoning, Prorogation, Dissolution:** Indian President shall have the power to summon or prorogue the Houses of Parliament and to dissolve the lower House. He shall also have the power to summon a joint sitting of both Houses of Parliament in case of a deadlock between them. [Arts. 85, 108]

**The Opening Address:** The President shall address both Houses of Parliament assembled together, at the first session after each general election to the House of the People and at the commencement of the first session of each year, and “inform Parliament of the causes of its summons” [Art. 87].

**The Right to send Messages:** Apart from the right to address, the Indian President shall have the right to send messages to either House of Parliament either in regard to any pending Bill or to any other matter, and the House must then consider the message “with all convenient dispatch” [Art. 86(2)].

**Nominating Members to the Houses:** President has been given the power to nominate certain members to both the Houses upon the supposition that adequate representation of certain interests will not be possible through the competitive system of election. Thus,

- In the Council of States, 12 members are to be nominated by the President from persons having special knowledge or practical experience of literature, science, art and social service [Art. 80(1)].

- The President is also empowered to nominate not more than two members to the House of the People from the Anglo-Indian community, if he is of opinion that the Anglo-Indian community is not adequately represented in that House [Art. 331].

**Laying Reports before Parliament:** The President is brought into contact with Parliament also through his power and study to cause certain reports and statements to be laid before Parliament, so that Parliament may have the opportunity of taking action upon them.

**Previous sanction to legislation:** The Constitution requires the previous sanction or recommendation of the President for introducing legislation on some matters. These matters are:

- **Assent to legislation and Veto:** A Bill will not be an Act of the Indian Parliament unless and until it receives the assent of the President. When a Bill is presented to the President, after its passage in both Houses of Parliament, the President shall be entitled to take any of the following three steps
  - His assent to the Bill;
  - He withholds his assent to the Bill; or
  - He may, in the case of Bills other than Money Bills, return the Bill for reconsideration of the Houses, with or without a message suggesting amendments. A Money Bill cannot be returned for reconsideration

- In case of (c), if the Bill is passed again by both Houses of Parliament with or without amendment and again presented to the President, it would be obligatory upon him to declare his assent to it (Art. 111).

- **Types of ‘Veto power:** From the standpoint of effect on the legislation, executive vetoes have been classified as absolute, qualified, suspensive and pocket veto.
  - **Absolute Veto:** Refusal of assent to any bill. The bill cannot become law, notwithstanding any vote of Parliament.
  - **Qualified Veto:** A veto is ‘qualified’ when it can be overridden by a higher majority of the Legislature and the Bill can be enacted as law with such majority vote, overriding the executive veto.
  - **Suspensive Veto:** A veto is suspensive when the executive veto can be overridden by the Legislature by an ordinary majority.
  - **Pocket Veto:** By simply withholding a Bill during the last few days of the session of the Legislature, the Executive can prevent the Bill to become law.

**Disallowance of State Legislation:**

- Besides the power to veto Union Legislation, the President of India shall also have the power of is allowance or return for reconsideration of a Bill of the State Legislature, which may have been reserved for his consideration by the Governor of the State (Art. 201)
Key Highlights
- In India, President is both Executive Head and also the part of legislature.

Address the Parliament
- The President has power to summon and prorogue Parliament.
- He can also dissolve the Lok Sabha before the expiry of five year term.
- The President also enjoys the power to summon a joint sitting of both the House of Parliament in case of deadlock between the two.
- The President also addresses the opening session of a newly elected Parliament. He can also address it jointly in between.

Nominate Members
- The President also enjoys the power to nominate certain member of the Parliament.
- In Rajya Sabha 12 members are nominated and 2 members from Anglo-Indian communities are nominated to the Lok Sabha if the community has not been adequately represented in his opinion in the House.

Assent to Bills
- Certain Bills do require a previous sanction of the President like money bill, the bill involving expenditure from the Consolidated Fund of India, bill for the formation of a new state, bill relating to language, and the bill affecting the taxation of state.
- The bill passed by the Parliament cannot become an Act before it has President’s assent. He can, after his comments, return the bill limited in case of money bill.

Ordinance Issuing Power (Art - 123)
- The President has a very strong position in the sense that he has the power of issuing ordinance. In case there is a matter of urgency and a law is needed for a particular situation, the President can issue ordinance.
- The 38th Amendment in this regard is a milestone in the sense that his assent is important.
- The ordinance can be promulgated by the President when the Houses of Parliament are not in session. The ordinance will have the same effect as of the law of the land.

Pardoning Power
- Article 72 of the Constitution empowers the President to grant pardons to persons who have been tried and convicted of any offence in all cases where the:
  - Punishment or sentence is for an offence against a Union Law, offence by a court martial (military court) and the sentence of death.
  - The object of conferring this power on the President is to keep the door open for correcting any judicial errors in the operation of law and to afford relief from a sentence, which the President regards as unduly harsh.
- The pardoning power of the President includes the following:
  - Pardon: It removes both the sentence and the conviction and completely absolves the convict from all sentences, punishments and disqualifications
  - Commutation: It denotes the substitution of one form of punishment for a lighter form. For example, a death sentence may be commuted to rigorous imprisonment, which in turn may be commuted to a simple imprisonment
  - Remission: It implies reducing the period of sentence without changing its character. For example, a sentence of rigorous imprisonment for two years may be remitted to rigorous imprisonment for one year.
  - Respite: It denotes awarding a lesser sentence in place of one originally awarded due to some special fact, such as the physical disability of a convict or the pregnancy of a woman offender.
Reprieve: It implies a stay of the execution of a sentence (especially that of death) for a temporary period. Its purpose is to enable the convict to have time to seek pardon or commutation from the President.

Emergency Powers

- The President also enjoys emergency power. In a federal structure the grip of the Union on the State is not so tight and hence the Constitution framers did provide for the exigencies which may require a tighten grip of the Union on the State.
- Article 352 under Art 352 President can declare a national emergency.
- Article 356 gives powers to the President for the extension of his rule in the State. “If the President on receipt of report from the Governor of a State or otherwise, is satisfied that a situation has arisen in which the Government of the State cannot be carried on; the President may extend his rule to the State.
- Article 360 deals with financial emergency, “If the President is satisfied that a situation has arisen whereby the financial stability or credit of India or of any part of the territory is threatened ... the President can declare financial emergency.”

The 38th Amendment (clause 5) has furthered the strength of the President in this regard as his decision is final and cannot be challenged in the Court of law.

Analysis of Position and Role of President of India

President of India- Real Executive or Rubber-stamp?

- Until the Forty-second Amendment to the Constitution settled the issue, there was a great deal of academic debate over the role contemplated, in the Constitution of India for the President.
- Dr. Rajendra Prasad gave an edge to the controversy by drawing attention to the fact that ‘there is no provision in the Constitution which in so many words lays down that the President shall be bound to act in accordance with the advice of his Council of Ministers’.
- One view was that the President of India could not become a ‘real’ executive except by ignoring the Constitution. As against this, there was a small, but apparently growing, school of thought which tended to take an ultra-literal view of certain Constitutional Clauses and drew the conclusion that the President had considerable ‘real’ powers which he could use at his discretion.
- A third school of thought took a middle position, namely, that while the President was a Constitutional head of State and acted ordinarily on the advice of the Ministers he had unspecific ‘reserve’ powers, as guardian of the Constitution, to be used by him at his discretion. However, the intention of the founding fathers is not quite clear. ‘The President,’ Dr. Ambedkar declared, ‘occupies the same position as the king in the British Constitution.’
- He can do nothing contrary to their (Ministers’) advice. The President’s ‘symbolic’ position was repeatedly stressed. According to Dr. Ambedkar, he is ‘the head of the State, but not of the Executive’. At the same time, it is suggested that the framers expected the President to be more than a mere rubber stamp, as in Jawaharlal Nehru’s view the President of India would not be an automaton like the President of France: ‘We did not give him any real powers but we have made his position one of authority and dignity.’
- The 42nd Amendment Act of 1976 amended Article 74 (1) to clearly state that the President was bound to act in accordance with the advice of his Council of Ministers; earlier there was no express provision to this effect in the Constitution. After the 44th Amendment Act of 1978 the President has no power, except in certain marginal cases, to act in his discretion.
- He was not only bound to act according to the advice of his Council of Ministers, but also liable to impeachment for violation of the Constitution if he refused to act by the advice. He has been given the new power to send back to the Council of Ministers for reconsideration the advice given by them in any particular case.
- He can do so only once and if the Council of Ministers adheres to their previous advice, the President has no option but to act in accordance with the advice. The Amendments clarify the real position of the President of India who is and was meant to be a Constitutional head.
- The Indian President, thus, possesses the British monarch’s three traditional rights—the right to be
consulted, the right to encourage and the right to warn. The doctrine that, in unforeseen situations, the President can act without or even against ministerial advice, because he is a ‘custodian’ of the Constitution or the ‘supreme guardian of the democratic process’ is no longer tenable.

But, at the same time, the amendment so made has erred on the other side, by making it an absolute proposition, without keeping any reserve for situations when the advice of a Prime Minister is not available (e.g., in the case of death); or the advice tendered by the Prime Minister is improper according to British conventions, e.g., when a Prime Minister defeated in Parliament successively asks for its dissolution.

So far as the contingency arising from the death of the Prime Minister is concerned, it instantly operates to dissolve the existing Council of Ministers. Hence, it would appear that notwithstanding the 1976-78 Amendments of Art. 74 (1), the President shall have the power of acting without ministerial advice, during the time taken in the matter of choosing a new Prime Minister, who, of course, must command majority in the House of the People. In this contingency, no Council of Ministers exists, on the death of the erstwhile Prime Minister.

But as regards the contingency arising out of a demand for dissolution by a Prime Minister who is defeated in the House of the People, it cannot be said that no Council of Ministers is in existence. On the amended Act. 74 (1), the President of India, must act upon the request of the defeated Council of Ministers even if such request is improper, e.g., on a second occasion of defeat.

Powers of President though are by and large ceremonial; there are times in which the President’s office assumes real powers, for example, Mercy Powers (because President may override the advice of Council of Ministers in these cases).

Model Question

Q 1. While powers and responsibility of the office of President has remained the same since independence, it is the personality of the person in office, which has created huge difference in performance of various presidents since independence. Critically analyze.

Q 2. The office of President in India is largely ceremonial; however, he plays a much greater role in political system than British monarch? Critically Analyze.

Q 3. Weak council of minister gives much more room to President to excercise his discretionary powers, Illustrate

Q 4. India has a president despite not having a presidential system, isn’t that a anomaly. Critically Analyze