farmers and process it for later resale to the National Import-Export Corporation (Société Nationale d'Exportation et d'Importation—SONEXIM) (see ch. 19, Agriculture; ch. 23, Foreign Economic Relations).

STATE COMMERCIAL BANKS

All of the eight private banks were nationalized on July 1, 1964. Concurrently with the announcement of this move in mid-November 1963, the government purchased the private Cambodian-owned Banque Khmer (Khmer Bank) and converted it into a state commercial bank known as the Khmer Bank of Commerce (Banque Khmer pour le Commerce—BKC). Before this step the Khmer Bank had reportedly functioned as the commercial arm of the National Bank. The capital of 100 million riels is held entirely by the National Bank.

The BKC is limited to financing import and export transactions for the SONEXIM and controlling foreign exchange allocations made by the National Exchange Office of the National Bank.

In late June 1964, just before the nationalization of all private banks, the National Assembly created another state commercial bank, the National Credit Bank (Crédit National). This bank is focused on the promotion of industrial development. The National Credit Bank was initially capitalized at 100 million riels. In addition to its headquarters office in Phnom Penh, the National Credit Bank has branch offices in Kompong Cham, Sihanoukville and Svay Rieng.

The staffs of two French-owned banks, the Franco-Chinese Bank and the National Bank of Commerce and Industry assisted the new state commercial banks during the transition.

MONEY SUPPLY

The total money supply remained almost steady in the early 1960's, rising only 100 million riels, from 7.6 billion riels in 1962 to 7.7 billion riels in 1965. Demand deposits fell from 4.8 billion riels in 1962 to 2.9 billion riels in 1965. In contrast, currency in circulation rose from 3.3 billion riels in 1962 to 4.8 billion riels in 1965.

This total monetary stability was largely because of the nationalization of commercial banks in 1964 and the consequent decline in the proportion of production moving in commercial channels. Countervailing forces were a small rise in the volume of economic activity and continued recourse to deficit financing by the government.
Cambodians are, by and large, an orderly and law-abiding people. Because of a high code of personal morality rooted in Buddhist ethics, they adhere, for the most part, to the disciplines imposed by family and social group. The long, violent years of the Indochina War disrupted the tranquility that had prevailed in the country for almost 100 years, and gave lawless elements the opportunity to gain an ascendancy that required a major national effort to suppress.

During the first few years of independence banditry and dissident guerrilla activity became a serious problem, but a vigorous campaign by combined army and police forces succeeded in restoring order to the country. In April, 1967 insurgent activity broke out in Battambang Province and dissident activity also erupted in northeastern Cambodia among the tribal peoples. Because of the threat to the country's security the army took command of the military, paramilitary and police units in various sectors.

Statistics on the incidence of crime are incomplete and cannot be confirmed, but the limited records available indicated a relatively low rate for the area. Violations of administrative regulations, such as health, antinoise or licensing ordinances, were the most prevalent types of offenses, while theft was at a lower level, and crimes of violence, from assault to homicide, were extremely rare. There was no evidence of organized banditry, and life and property were generally secure throughout the country.

Penal codes and codes of criminal procedures introduced during the colonial regime were still the country's basic criminal law in 1967. The government had made some revisions in the courts and judicial system, but the changes were not radical and did not depart from familiar French precedents. Courts were generally equitable, and justice tended to be lenient rather than harsh or oppressive.

Law enforcement is in the hands of the Royal Khmer Police, a loosely centralized force under the Secretary of State for Surface Defense, a subordinate activity of the Ministry of the In-
terior (see ch. 13, The Governmental System; ch. 26, The Armed Forces). It was given its present designation in 1959 as a result of a reorganization that brought under one authority all of the country's law enforcement activities. It includes rural and municipal police organizations, as well as the paramilitary Surface Defense Force comprising the Provincial Guard and the Chivapol.

The scattered distribution pattern of the country's population in thousands of small villages and few urban centers makes it difficult for any level of government to operate an efficient police system. In small settlements of 300 or less which cannot afford to maintain a police force, the problem is even further aggravated. In spite of this, however, the country's police force, combining professional and volunteer forces, has been able to achieve a noteworthy record of maintaining law and order and ensuring a high degree of internal security.

SOCIAL CONTROLS

Respect for constituted authority is traditional in Cambodian society, and the influence of family and kinship group has created an attitude and outlook responsive to an ordered and disciplined code of behavior. Ingrained loyalty to the king, now transferred to the Chief of State, has served as a restraining influence in governing individual conduct, and the traditional hierarchy of authority is recognized and accepted. Religion has also had an important role in conditioning the people, and pacific Buddhist doctrines have fostered a degree of tranquility and nonaggressiveness.

After the arrival of the French in the nineteenth century, the colonial regime introduced a modern judicial and police framework patterned after France. This was new in form, but not radically different in principle or concept, since it conformed generally to accepted attitudes toward crime and punishment. Acceptance was further facilitated by the retention of many traditional forms and usages and their incorporation into the new codes. In general the people had no difficulty in adjusting to the new patterns of behavior, and for years the French found Cambodia one of the more tractable territories in their colonial empire.

Urbanization has been slow throughout the country, although Phnom Penh has had a marked growth since World War II. Other than the capital, there are only 10 towns with populations ranging from 10,000 to 45,000. As a consequence social and economic change has been gradual, and the country has escaped most of the modern categories of crime associated with burgeoning cities.

Throughout the countryside the concept of public order based
on national law is generally accepted without question, and the modern courts are the instruments of official authority. The restraints instilled by family and group ties continue to exert their influence, but the control mechanism of the country is considerably more modern than traditional.

Title II of the Constitution—Liberties, Rights and Duties of Cambodians—is designed as a bill of rights to protect the individual and ensure the equitable administration of justice. Among the principles outlined are equality under the law, the assumption of innocence until guilt is proved, freedom from arbitrary search and arrest and the opportunity for an adequate defense. The Constitution further ensures freedom of the press, freedom of religion, movement and assembly and the right of peaceful demonstration. Title V is concerned with the judiciary and prescribes the jurisdiction, structure and composition of the major tribunals.

The public attitude toward the police has varied over the years, from respect to fear. The use of foreigners, especially Vietnamese, as policemen did much to alienate the police from the people, and the emphasis on enforcing compliance with alien French laws and regulations fomented an attitude of prejudice and distrust. Since independence the public's image of the police has improved. By the early 1960's there were no foreigners on the force, better training refined and improved police performance and methods, and the continuing emphasis was to establish the police as the friends and protectors of the community.

Other than a thin veneer of police supervision, the citizen is confronted with few mechanical controls or repressions. The police control the issuance of passports, and foreign travel is carefully regulated. Ordinances affecting the economy, such as price controls and marking requirements, are strictly enforced, and hotel registers must be submitted periodically for official inspection. There are, however, no indications of a national identity card program of the kind that exists in many other former French colonies, and in general the law-abiding citizen meets with little police intrusion into his daily life.

THE JUDICIAL SYSTEM

The judicial system is based on French juridical principles but incorporates, to an extent, traditional forms and practices that have been adapted to conform to modern French legal codes. The first modern penal code was introduced by the French shortly after the establishment of the protectorate. It was periodically revised over the years, the latest revision being 1956, and it is that edition which was in force in 1967.
The extraterritorial system of separate jurisdictions for Cambodians and non-Cambodians in effect during the colonial era was done away with immediately after independence, and all residents of the country are not subject to trial by Cambodian courts. Although all French courts were abolished at that time, the court structure remains essentially the one built upon the framework established by the French and patterned closely along Western lines.

The Constitution states that the principle of separation of the executive, legislative and judicial powers of government is alien to Cambodian tradition. It provides that judicial power is exercised in the name of the king by the various tribunals according to their degree of jurisdiction. In practice, except for the executive powers granted to the king, or, in 1967 the Chief of State, separation does exist, and one of the principal responsibilities of the High Council of the Magistracy is to ensure the independence of judges (see ch. 13, The Governmental System).

The judicial mechanism does not, however, provide checks to executive or legislative power, and it is frequently vulnerable to outside influences and pressures. Further, it does not have the power to interpret the Constitution, a prerogative which is assigned, without appeal, to the National Assembly. Nevertheless, the combination of traditional and Western concepts of jurisprudence has resulted in a system that has generally provided both individual safeguards and clear functional delineations.

Police officers are empowered to act as a summary court and may fine offenders on the spot for traffic violations or minor police regulations. When fines cannot be paid, prison terms may be imposed. This is a practice that often led to abuses and harassment of the people and in recent years has brought strong corrective action by the Chief of State.

An anticorruption committee headed by Prince Sihanouk has been active since 1962 and has slowly been effecting needed reforms. Several high police officials have been dismissed, and the range of penalties that could be imposed directly has been drastically reduced. Maximum fines for simple infractions at the misdemeanor level have been reduced from 10,000 to 500 riels (see Glossary), and prison terms for these offenses reduced from 2 years to 5 days.

Penalties imposed by the courts are classified in two basic categories: criminal or correctional punishment. Within each category there are three degrees, ranging in severity from first up to third. Criminal punishment involves felonies and serious offenses, and the maximum category, criminal punishment of the third degree, carries the death penalty or life imprisonment. First degree criminal penalties entail imprisonment ranging from 6 to
10 years; second degree ranges from 6 years to any maximum, excluding a life term. Correctional imprisonment is applied in cases of lesser offenses where a sentence may not exceed 5 years of imprisonment. Correctional penalties of the first degree range from 6 days to 1 month, second degree from 1 month to 1 year and third degree from 1 to 5 years. The limits of allowable punishment generally determine the level of court to which a case is referred.

Criminal Court Structure

The court structure is fundamentally a continuation of the French system of the colonial era, although some changes have been effected since independence. Article 113 of the 1956 revision of the Constitution states that the organization of the judiciary is regulated by a special law and that conformance with the provisions of this law will be ensured by the High Council of the Magistracy. Titled The Judicial Organization of Cambodia, the law prescribes in general terms the types of courts authorized and outlines their composition and limits of jurisdiction.

The court structure in 1967 comprised four types of tribunals concerned with criminal matters; the local courts, courts of first instance, criminal courts and the Court of Review. The one Court of Review was similar in function to the French Court of Cassation (Cour de Cassation) and was the final court of appeal in criminal matters. Although there was a court designated the Court of Appeal in the judicial framework, its jurisdiction was limited to civil cases.

The competence of the various types of trial court was generally determined by the levels of criminal offenses recognized by the penal code. Thus misdemeanors (contraventions de police) are referred to a local court; the lesser criminal offenses (déits) are tried by a court of first instance; and felonies (crimes) are assigned to a criminal court. In certain special cases, appeals from the findings of local courts could be carried directly to the Court of Review on questions of law, but the normal channel was to the court of first instance in the area. Decisions of these latter courts were appealed to the criminal court, and the criminal court's findings were in turn appealed to the Court of Review, which in any case reviewed their legal rulings on a routine basis.

Local courts were summary in nature, and a single magistrate functioned in a manner similar to an American justice of the peace, conducting all aspects of a trial. Courts of first instance, presided over by three magistrates and employing a jury of six men, were found in each of the provinces. Eight criminal courts, operating in a similar manner, were distributed throughout various parts of the country.
There were numerous other types of courts, but these had specialized and limited functions and were not part of the normal criminal court hierarchy. There were commercial courts for civil arbitration and special military tribunals, which not only tried military personnel, but also civilians charged with treason or attempting to overthrow the government by force. The High Council of the Magistracy was essentially a disciplinary court to deal with offenses committed by members of the judiciary. The People's Tribunal, an elected body which replaced the former High Court of Justice, had jurisdiction over corruption or offenses committed in office by members of the Council of Ministers (see ch. 13, The Governmental System).

Criminal Court Procedures

Criminal matters are governed by the procedural section of the penal code of 1956, which has its roots in the colonial system of jurisprudence. Numerous laws and ordinances promulgated since independence have effected a variety of changes to better adapt the code to current needs that have been relatively minor in nature, and criminal procedures continue to follow a definitely traditional French pattern. The code for the most part provides general guidance rather than specific instruction, but it does prescribe the jurisdictions of the various types of court, the responsibilities of judicial officials, and the conduct of preliminary proceedings and trials.

The criminal procedures in force in 1967 to an extent eliminate some of the inequities that had caused dissatisfaction during the colonial era. Regulations are set forth governing rules of custody, conduct of preliminary investigations and imposition of punishments, as well as limiting precautionary arrest and pretrial detention. Though still based on French sources, the code departs sufficiently from French law to give it a national character, and it attempts to accelerate the process of justice while reconciling the requirements of public order with the rights of the individual.

As in the French system the prosecutor is the key figure in criminal procedure. Offenses reported by a civil or police official are submitted to the prosecutor, who determines disposition, jurisdiction and venue in the case. He is not concerned with misdemeanors, which are handled independently by the local courts, but with more serious offenses. He may refer a case directly to a lower court or submit it to an examining magistrate for review. Under the supervision of the prosecutor, the examining judge makes a judicial investigation of the case, collects evidence and interviews witnesses. As a result of his recommendation the case may be dismissed, referred to a lower court or returned to the
prosecutor for arraignment of the offender before a higher court. The conduct of trials closely parallels French procedure, and the law specifies an open and public court. The procedure followed in a multiple-judge trial, as in a criminal court, follows a rigidly prescribed routine; after selection of the jury, which functions like a jury under Anglo-Saxon law, the trial opens with a reading of the charges by the prosecutor. The accused is then identified and sworn in. The charges are explained by the presiding judge, who is the senior magistrate, and then the accused enters his pleas. He may elect to make a statement at this time giving a brief explanation of his side of the case.

After opening statements by the prosecution and the defense, the presiding magistrate begins interrogation of the accused. Witnesses are then examined and cross-examined, after which both sides make their closing arguments; the defense follows the prosecution. The jury then retires to reach its findings, and upon completion of its deliberations, the court is reconvened and the verdict announced. If found not guilty the accused is immediately released; if found guilty, court is again adjourned while the judges confer to determine the sentence. The court then reconvenes, and the sentence is announced.

There are few curbs or restrictions regarding admissibility of evidence, and such matters as hearsay and leading questions are evaluated by the judges on their own merits. Bail is provided for but is not often used, and the right of a hearing on a writ of habeas corpus, which is a relatively recent concept in French jurisprudence, is still a somewhat unfamiliar novelty in Cambodian law. The procedures prescribed by the code are frequently circumvented in actual practice, and leniency or sympathy on the part of the judges reportedly make for frequent liberties with prescribed guidelines, more often than not in favor of the accused.

**NATIONAL POLICE SERVICE**

The Royal Khmer Police consists of the National Police, the Municipal Police (of Phnom Penh), the Town Police and the Surface Defense Force. This last is a paramilitary force which is under police jurisdiction during normal times but reverts to control under the Ministry of National Defense in times of emergency or hostilities. The mission of the police force is to maintain law and order, preserve the peace, protect life and property, prevent and detect crime and bring offenders to justice. In addition to their normal law enforcement duties, the police are charged with internal security and have the primary responsibility for patrolling and guarding the country's borders.
Headquarters of the Royal Khmer Police is at Phnom Penh, from where it determines policy, supervises operations and directs the activities of subordinate units. In practice, outlying units enjoy a considerable degree of autonomy, as shortages of supervisory personnel, distance from the capital and limited communications preclude very close or frequent contacts with Phnom Penh. The headquarters is headed by a Director of Royal Police, who is directly responsible to the Secretary of State for Surface Defense under the Ministry of the Interior.

The Municipal Police and the Town Police are uniformed forces operating entirely in urban areas. The National Police operates in plainclothes, and its responsibilities cover the entire country. The Surface Defense Force wears army-type uniforms distinguished by a distinctive shoulder board which bears the police device of a stylized pyramid capped with a small rayed sunburst. The Surface Defense Force uses army ranks and insignia, but the police elements have their own police grade structure.

Police ranks include only three officer grades, which ascend from inspector to chief and commissioner. There is, however, a wide range of noncommissioned levels, starting with policemen and moving up through "brigadier" or corporal, to sergeant and sergeant superior class. Each level incorporates an in-grade promotion system of classes that moves a man up from third to first class. Above sergeant first class there are three senior grades, sergeant at large, special sergeant at large, and sergeant superior class.

Uniforms closely resemble those of the army and are basically khaki, but a white uniform is authorized for ceremony and dress. Policemen and noncommissioned officer grades are indicated by bars or chevrons worn on the shoulder board. Only a policeman trainee has no insignia of rank and wears a plain shoulder board. A policeman 3d class is indicated by one green bar, 2d class by two and 1st class by one silver chevron. "Brigadiers" use silver chevrons, 3d class starting with two, 2d class adding a thin silver chevron and 1st class a gold one. A sergeant 3d class uses three silver chevrons, adds a thin gold one for 2d class, and is marked by two silver bars for 1st. Sergeant at large has one gold and one silver stripe. The two top grades are indicated by one gold bar, special sergeant at large adding a bank of silver leaves across the shoulder board, and superior class using gold leaves.

The Royal Khmer Police has a total strength of approximately 14,000 men and women. This does not include the Surface Defense Force, with its Provincial Guard and Chivapol. These latter, however, are part-time auxiliaries who are not professional members of the force. Police recruiting is done on a local basis, and candidates are selected through public competitive examina-
tions, which are held periodically in the major cities. Applicants must hold a secondary school diploma or its equivalent and must be between 18 and 25 years of age. Police pay compares favorably with army compensation, and there are usually enough applicants to insure a wide field of selection. Higher police officials are appointed by the Minister of the Interior on recommendation from the Secretary of State for Surface Defense.

The National Police

The National Police is patterned after the Sûreté forces which were maintained in the country under French rule. Sometimes called secret police, the National Police more properly constitutes a bureau of investigation and political surveillance. Some of its activities are clandestine, and as a result, little is publicized regarding its operations. Although occupied with subversion and internal security, it has a wide range of other responsibilities, and the greater part of its efforts are probably devoted to the more prosaic police functions concerned with conventional non-political crime. In 1967 it numbered some 1,500 men.

National Police Headquarters at Phnom Penh is organized into five principal sections: criminal, economic, immigration, administrative and special police. The administrative section, in addition to handling personnel, pay, records and the like, has the responsibility for all matters concerned with traffic. It is charged with maintaining order on the highways, controls the issuance of licenses and conducts accident investigations. The special police operates in the more sensitive areas of police activities and is mainly concerned with subversion and threats to the stability of the government. It investigates possible sources of dissidence and is charged with the security of government officials and installations. It operates in a covert manner, and its activities are classified as secret.

The criminal section, in effect the criminal investigation department of the Royal Khmer Police, is responsible for the prevention and detection of crime and the apprehension of criminals. It operates much like the detective force of any Western law enforcement agency, has charge of fingerprints and criminal files and maintains a detection laboratory.

The economic section is concerned with the enforcement of government regulations affecting trade, commerce and other aspects of the economy. These include price controls, marking of merchandise, honest weights and hoarding and extend to smuggling and illegal arms traffic. The immigration section handles such matters as passports and visas, travel controls, residence permits, alien restrictions and questions of citizenship. Most of its activi-
ties are of a routine nature, with much of its efforts going into guarding the borders against illegal entry into the country.

**Municipal and Town Police**

Cities and towns have their own urban police establishments which operate within their limits and immediate environs. The police force of the capital is called the Municipal Police, and the organized forces of the other cities and towns are known as Town Police. Some of the smaller towns use members of the Provincial Guard of the Surface Defense Force, in which case they are also considered urban, or Town Police. It is estimated that 2,500 provincial guardsmen are assigned to this type of duty. In the more densely populated areas the police and military forces operate effectively together when needed. In less accessible areas, however, such as the remote border regions, distance and difficulty of mobility make such cooperation considerably less effective.

The Municipal Police is responsible for the maintenance of law and order in Phnom Penh. Except for offenses that come within the province of the National Police, as those where national security is involved or where provincial boundaries have been crossed, it has sole jurisdiction over all law enforcement activities in the capital. It is generally conceded to be an efficient and effective force and is considered locally to be the most important instrument of public order in the country.

This force, with a strength of 1,500, is headed by a commissioner designated Chief of the Municipal Police. He is directly responsible to the Royal Delegate to the Municipality of Phnom Penh, but in technical matters he is under the Secretary of State for Surface Defense. In addition to his regular police duties, the chief presides over the local court of Phnom Penh and is also responsible for the Royal Police Academy, the principal training facility for all components of the Royal Khmer Police.

Police headquarters is organized into two principal operational elements, the criminal police section and the public order and traffic section. The criminal section is charged with the protection of persons and property and the suppression and investigation of crime, and its members serve as patrolmen on the beat and as city detectives. The section maintains an extensive crime laboratory, which is manned by veteran police specialists trained in modern criminology. The traffic section is charged with the many traffic regulatory functions within the city.

The city has six precincts, each with its own commissioner. There are six police stations dispersed throughout the city at key locations where they afford centralized coverage for their areas. For the most part, each precinct operates independently within
its own jurisdiction, but coordinates with headquarters when necessary, and may either assist or ask for assistance, if needed, from the other precincts. Manpower is allotted as dictated by the density of population or by the importance of the area, but in general, the six areas are not particularly disparate in assigned strengths. The city is well equipped with police transportation, and there are adequate quantities of trucks, sedans and motorcycles.

The Town Police constitute the individual forces supported by the various cities and towns throughout the country. They are found mostly in provincial capitals and are a completely decentralized force, their only area of contact being their mutual subordination to Royal Khmer Police Headquarters at Phnom Penh. Indirectly they come within the province of the Secretary of State for Surface Defense, but normally they operate entirely independently, with possibly infrequent policy guidance from the secretary’s office.

The Surface Defense Force

What little police protection or attention is given to the villages is provided by the Surface Defense Force. Formed originally in 1952 as the Territorial Defense Force, it was organized as a military force to support the army in its suppression of insurgency. Upon the pacification of the country in 1955, the force was assigned to police duties, and since 1960 has been used principally as a constabulary.

The Surface Defense Force consists of the Provincial Guard and the Chivapol. The Provincial Guard is the professional element of the force, and its members are the only personnel on full-time active duty. Numbering over 10,000 men, its mission is the maintenance of law and order in the provinces and the remote border areas. In many towns that do not have the resources to maintain their own municipal force, guardsmen act as urban police, and the 2,500 who are assigned to this type of duty are detailed to the Town Police. The great majority of guardsmen, however, exercise their police duties in their home villages, here, backed by the nominal authority of the Royal Khmer Police, they are usually the sole representatives of government law enforcement.

The Chivapol is a local, part-time volunteer militia designed to assist other police elements in case of need. It is estimated to total approximately 50,000 men and women, but strength reports are unreliable, as many of its members are entirely inactive. It was organized in 1954 to back the Provincial Guard when the sudden Communist Viet Minh invasion of northeastern Cambodia
created a threatening situation. It was, in effect, a general mobilization for the defense of the country, and over 100,000 were enrolled. The organization was retained after the crisis passed and continues its limited activities in support of the regular police somewhat in the manner of sheriff’s deputies in the United States.

**TRAINING**

The Royal Police Academy in Phnom Penh is the principal institution for training police personnel. It was built and equipped under the United States Agency for International Development (AID) program and opened its doors in 1960 to develop police officers trained in modern methods and techniques. It offers 250 students basic training for new recruits and conducts a variety of advanced professional courses for officers and noncommissioned officers. Its broad curriculum, which is available to all components of the Royal Khmer Police, is taught by French and Cambodian police specialists.

The most advanced study offered by the academy is a 2-year course for inspectors, a course largely devoted to staff work and theoretical and practical management. Other courses range from 3 months to a year and cover such fields as criminal law, scientific methods, investigative procedures and highway traffic control. There are basic courses in police duties and public relations, where classroom work combines with field trips and practical application of techniques. At all levels considerable emphasis is given to the use of weapons and self-defense, and all students are given practical training in judo and other means of protection.

In addition to the academy, there is a Basic Training Center for Police at Kompong Chhnang, some 50 miles north of the capital. This institution, established in 1953, was the country’s sole police training facility until the formation of the academy. Since 1960 it has been used almost exclusively for the Provincial Guard. Its capacity is 350 students, and it handles basic and advanced training for members of the guard and for occasional selected students from the Chivapol. Both training center and academy have modern, efficient plants, with adequate classrooms, dormitories and laboratory facilities. The quality of training meets a high standard and has shown steady progress and improvement over the years.

In the past it had been customary to send a number of police officers abroad each year for specialized courses in foreign schools. Many attended courses in French and other European institutions, and a few were enrolled in police courses in the United States. When the academy opened, the number sent abroad was sharply reduced as the local school enlarged and improved the
scope of its instruction. The country’s emphasis on self-sufficiency starting in the early 1960’s further limited overseas training, and in 1967 there were apparently no police students being trained outside the country.

PRISONS

The country’s prison system is rudimentary and conceded to be inadequate, particularly if measured by Western standards. It still suffers from a system that was for all of Indochina. It had been French practice to move their prisoners around to any institution in the entire area; as the number of criminal cases in the country was insignificant during the colonial era, the major detention facilities were located outside of Cambodian territory, mostly in what is now Vietnam.

Information on present-day facilities is extremely limited, and what there is available is vague and unreliable. Some of the better, more modern prisons are known to be located in Phnom Penh as well as some of the provincial capitals. These are frame buildings with reasonably secure arrangements, in contrast to the average village jail, which is often a temporary bamboo cage set between the stilts of the chief’s hut. Except for the few permanent structures in the larger towns, facilities for incarceration are fragile and insecure; any but the most unimaginative prisoner could break out at will, yet very few do. Among the larger penal facilities are the Central Prison in the capital and a prison camp on the island of Antay, just off Kep near the eastern end of the coast. This latter accommodates over 1,000 inmates.

The prison system is under a Director of Prisons who is subordinate to the Minister of the Interior. The directors for the past 10 years have been generally enlightened in their outlook and progressive in their administration. Many reforms have been instituted, including liberalization of prison procedures, providing trade schools and language classes and making newspapers and other reading material available to inmates. A parole system has been established and appears to be working with marked success. Many deficiencies remain, however, as prisons are generally overcrowded and uncomfortable and sanitary facilities even in the capital’s Central Prison are inadequate or nonexistent. In most of the smaller jails prisoners must rely on family or friends to supply their food and other basic needs.
CHAPTER 26
THE ARMED FORCES

The Royal Khmer Armed Forces (Forces Armées Royales Khmères—FARK) consist of the army, the navy and the air force. The navy and air force are subordinate to the army, which is by far the dominant component of the military establishment, and are directly under the jurisdiction of the Chief of the General Staff, who is the army commander. In late 1967 total military strength amounted to over 35,000 men, some 32,000 of whom were in the ground forces. Cambodia had one of the smallest national military force among the countries in Southeast Asia.

In addition to the regular establishment, there was a sizable paramilitary element designated the Surface Defense Force. This comprised the Provincial Guard of some 11,000 men, a volunteer reserve force called the Chivapol, which numbered 50,000, and the National Police. The Surface Defense Force was an auxiliary force under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of the Interior, but it reverted to the control of the Ministry of National Defense in the event of hostilities (see ch. 25, Public Order and Safety).

The Cambodian armed forces have maintained a noteworthy record of avoiding involvement in politics. They have remained largely aloof from the political scene and have exercised no significant influence on the government. In addition, they are able to occupy much of their time in civic action programs which promote security in remote border areas, accomplish needed public works and contribute to bolstering the national economy.

Cambodians are not an aggressive or militaristic people and their sociological and religious background is not one to foster the development of an effective modern army. Nevertheless, during the later years of colonial rule the French instilled in the people a sense of pride in the armed forces that carried over and was, in fact, stimulated in independence. French rule in the country was not harsh, and, as a result of the generally satisfactory relationship, French influence remains a significant factor, particularly in the armed forces. After 15 years of autonomy, the armed forces still retain the atmosphere and appearance of a French colonial establishment.

The serviceman as an individual is in a favored segment of the
society, and his environment and conditions of service meet a high local standard. The soldier's daily routine is not too strenuous or demanding. He has status, relative security and many amenities and advantages that would be difficult to attain in civilian life. The armed forces are recognized as an integral and essential part of the social structure, and the military are a familiar and accepted facet of the national scene.

Military strength is maintained almost entirely on a volunteer basis. There is a conscription law, promulgated in 1954, which provides for compulsory military service by all qualified males between the ages of 21 and 35. The government has rarely had to resort to conscription, however, as voluntary enlistments have maintained the forces at desired levels with no difficulty. The benefits and relatively high pay offered by a military career generally serve to attract more volunteers than can normally be absorbed by the services, and, as a result, the draft law has only been applied in a few isolated instances involving needed specialists.

The country is almost entirely dependent on outside aid for its armament, equipment and materiel, as well as for much of its military training. The military forces are small, and their armament is limited and unsophisticated, but they are reasonably well trained and competent. Their dependence on outside sources, however, seriously limits their independence of action, and deficiencies are most evident in the materiel field. Logistic support facilities are barely adequate for peacetime needs, and the system would be hard pressed to cope with operations of any extent or scope in the event of hostilities.

THE MILITARY TRADITION IN NATIONAL LIFE

The country's modest military tradition combines aspects of its ancient monarchial heritage with the French doctrines and techniques of its more recent colonial tutelage. Cambodia's history is filled with reports of wars of rival kingdoms and dynastic strife; as the Khmer people see the glories of Angkor Wat reflected in present-day Cambodia, so the military exploits of an earlier age serve as an inspirational legacy to the present heirs of its ancient tradition. The twelfth century bas-reliefs of the ruined citadels of the past depicted the battles of the Khmer against their invaders, and ancient chronicles were filled with their warlike deeds at a period when they dominated the area.

The martial spirit was not long lived, however. As the people became converted to Theravada Buddhism the pacific nature of the new creed gradually supplanted the aggressive drive that had marked the earlier years. For several hundred years, beginning in the fifteenth century, the country was relatively peaceful and
submissive, and the result was that it was dominated by its more belligerent neighbors.

The nineteenth century saw Cambodia beset by a series of aggressive acts on the part of its traditional enemies; these acts threatened its territory and independence. In 1857 King Ang Duong, the founder of the present dynasty, sought security for his country by allying himself with the French, who were then occupied with the conquest of Annam to the east. This alliance resulted in a French protectorate being proclaimed in 1864, the agreement providing that France would undertake to defend Cambodia against both external and internal enemies. After the signing of the treaty, the country's armed forces were placed under French command and remained so until Cambodia gained its independence in 1953 (see ch. 3, Historical Setting).

The first modern military force in the country, the Royal Cambodian Army, was organized in 1946 as part of the French colonial forces. All of its officers were French, but in 1949 a new accord provided for the formation of a new national army to be commanded by Cambodian officers. The national force was built up slowly over the years, and increasing numbers of Cambodian officers acquired their rank in the services. Nevertheless, when the final transfer to Cambodian command was effected in October 1953, the new accord provided that French advisers and technicians would be furnished to the new army and that French officers would be permitted to command its units as needed.

These former elements of the French Union Forces formed the basis of the present-day establishment. Totaling some 10,000 men, they were subsequently augmented by nationalist guerrilla troops, who rallied to the king, and by irregular security forces, particularly the Provincial Guard of the Surface Defense Force. In 1954 the navy and air force were organized, and the name Royal Cambodian Army was changed to the Royal Khmer Armed Forces (Forces Armées Royales Khmères—FARK).

The FARK took part in several successful campaigns to rid the country of dissident guerrillas whose operations in outlying areas marred the first years of independence. They also fought against Viet Minh forces that were operating in Cambodia until they were withdrawn as a result of the 1954 Geneva Agreement that was ostensibly to end hostilities in Indochina. The armed forces retain as a primary responsibility the defense of the nation against foreign attack, but since 1958 they have been used increasingly in an economic role to develop outlying districts through civic action projects.

The military tradition of the army in 1967 rested solidly on a French foundation, absorbed over the years through amicable relations and a paternalistic guardianship. Because of France's
longstanding and continuing commitment to Cambodia’s armed forces they reflect a marked French influence in doctrine, outlook and appearance.

FOREIGN INFLUENCE

From the time of the establishment of the protectorate, the country was suffused in a French military atmosphere that was fostered and maintained by the presence of French troops and the integration of Cambodians into the French colonial army. After the independence of the country in 1953, the original military cadres were all French colonial service veterans who carried over into the Cambodian forces the French patterns of their training, both in concepts and in physical externals.

At the start the army relied exclusively on the French for the schooling of its officers and the training of its enlisted men; French theoretical and tactical doctrines became so thoroughly ingrained that they are still paramount in influencing military thinking. Developments over the next few years, however, witnessed the decline of France’s fortunes in its colonial empire and the gradual increase of United States involvement in Southeast Asia. These changes were reflected in a decrease in French aid and a significant rise in United States assistance. From 1958 through 1963 the United States was the major source of the country’s military aid, and a United States Military Assistance Advisory Group (MAAG) provided specialized training in United States-furnished equipment and assisted in staff planning.

France, nevertheless, continued to dominate training, although instruction in the use of American weapons and equipment was provided by American technicians. This never reached significant proportions, however, and it left little permanent influence on Cambodian military concepts or doctrines. Since the termination of United States aid in 1968, the principal source of materiel has been from the Communist bloc, particularly the Soviet Union and Communist China.

France still furnishes some logistic support in materiel and equipment, but it is in the field of training that it continues to occupy a dominant position. In 1967 the French Military Mission was the only such foreign group in the country, and numerous French officers were attached to the general staff in advisory capacities. French advisers were found throughout the military school system, and the majority of Cambodian students in the military services who were trained abroad continued to be sent to French schools and academies.

Little evidence remains of the period of confrontation with the Japanese during World War II. Japanese influence was min-
imal and transitory, and left only minor vestiges of its brief association with the Cambodian armed forces. Communist influence on the military has not proved a very effective force, and the services have remained for the most part fundamentally anti-Communist. There have been no other outside pressures that have had any significant impact, and in 1967 it did not appear likely that the predominance of French influence would be supplanted for some time to come.

THE ARMED FORCES AND THE GOVERNMENT

In 1967 the government was still operating under the Constitution of 1947 as amended in 1965. This instrument devotes scant attention to the armed forces; Article 45 designates the king as the supreme commander of the armed forces; and Article 42 specifies that he creates and confers all military ranks. Article 49 decrees that military personnel on active duty may not vote in national elections and may be appointed but not elected to public office.

Subsequent amendments and modifications have effected necessary changes to conform to new conditions, and provision has been made for the Chief of State to assume the functions normally those of the king (see ch. 8, Historical Setting). The relationship between the military and civil components of government has been left largely to the discretion of the Chief of State, and appropriate laws or decrees have been promulgated as necessary.

The Chief of State, Prince Norodom Sihanouk, exercises command of the armed forces through two distinct channels, one civil and one military. The civil channel extends from the supreme commander through the President of the Council of Ministers (Prime Minister) to the Minister of National Defense, who is responsible for the administrative and support services of the armed forces. He does not, however, have operational functions, and he exercises no operational control over the military services.

Operational control of the military forces adheres to a strictly military chain of command extending directly from the supreme commander to the Commander in Chief of the Armed Forces. The Commander in Chief has as his principal subordinate the Chief of the General Staff. The decisions of the Chief of the General Staff are implemented by General Headquarters of the FARK, which serves as the headquarters element for the three services.

From 1955 to 1966 the positions of Minister of National Defense, Commander in Chief of the Armed Forces and Chief of the General Staff were held by the same person, a lieutenant general in the army. This facilitated coordination between the
military and civil components and did much to eliminate possible confusion in a complicated command structure. This was changed in 1966, however, with the appointment of a new defense Minister of National Defense who did not hold an active military command position. In 1967 the relationships between the various command and advisory elements were still somewhat tenuous and were in the process of being decided and defined in official terms.

THE MILITARY ESTABLISHMENT AND THE NATIONAL ECONOMY

The development of the armed forces immediately after independence was facilitated by French and United States aid in weapons, equipment and budgetary support. This eased significantly what otherwise would have been a serious drain on the country's slim resources. By 1963, however, the country's philosophy of nonalignment resulted in a cessation of United States aid and a sizable decrease in French support. Since that time, despite a fair amount of assistance from the Communist bloc, the cost of maintaining its military establishment has become a growing burden on the country's economy, and the government has been having increasing difficulty in meeting its military budget commitments.

During the mid-1960's approximately one-quarter of the national budget was devoted to military expenditures, a ratio considerably lower than most of the country's Southeast Asian neighbors. The military budget for fiscal year 1967 (fiscal year coincides with calendar year) was approximately 1,700 million riels (see Glossary), which was just under 25 percent of the total budget. This was somewhat lower than the 890 million riels for the previous year, which had been 27 percent of the national budget. This outlay did not include the budgetary support of the Surface Defense Force, which was borne by the Ministry of the Interior, but this normally has been a relatively insignificant item.

The country does derive some economic gain from the use of the regular armed forces for civic action projects. Since 1958 the services have been engaged as much in public works to develop the economy as in training or strictly military duties. Close to 1,000 miles of new roads have been completed; over 50 bridges have been built; several dams and airfields have been constructed; and over 100 schools have been established throughout the country. Military personnel have assisted in agricultural programs both in the field and at army-established model farms, and the men and their wives have served extensively as teachers in the new schools built under civic action.
The use of the military in an economic role was originally confined largely to the more populous areas in the central portion of the country, but starting in 1961 the emphasis was shifted to the development of more remote regions. A program was started with four border provinces, two in the southwest and two in the northeast, placing them directly under control of the FARK, to be administered by a military governor. These areas (now consisting of five provinces) were inhabited largely by hill tribes which had never been fully integrated into the national society, and the civic action programs served the dual purpose of developing the territory economically and giving the people a sense of identity with the nation. The project has made slow, steady progress and has resulted in an additional benefit in developing a national consciousness that makes the areas less vulnerable to subversion. There are plans to extend its application to additional outlying territories.

The number of men in regular military service is small in relation to the total population, amounting to about 2 percent of the able-bodied males. The withdrawal of this small number from normal civilian pursuits does not have any appreciable effect on the economy, nor does it create any manpower shortages in agriculture or industry. Any full mobilization or large-scale increase in the size of the forces would not necessarily constitute a military manpower problem, but it would be an economic drain on resources that would prove unacceptable except in the most serious emergency.

The armed forces require a continuing supply of foreign armament, munitions and other materiel in order to function, and they need credits and other financial support. Nevertheless, in the face of world conditions and major power commitments in Southeast Asia, it appears probable that Cambodia will continue to receive foreign assistance to meet its growing military needs.

**MANPOWER**

In 1967 there were nearly 1.5 million men in the 15- to 49-year age bracket, of which 50 percent were considered qualified for military service. An average of some 60,000 young men reaching the military age of 18 each year ensures ample manpower to meet the country's military requirements. The status and benefits of a military career have attracted enough volunteers to make conscription unnecessary, and it did not appear that compulsory service would have to be resorted to for some time to come.

Despite only half of the eligible males proving qualified for induction, there are still enough men available so that the services can be carefully selective in accepting applicants. The unified character of the nation's manpower is strikingly evident, as a
preponderant majority of the men share a common religion, language and ethnic background. Although there are no difficulties with respect to numbers, there is, nevertheless, a perennial problem in finding men with the education and mechanical aptitudes to train as leaders and technical specialists.

The average Cambodian is generally intensely loyal and patriotically motivated. He is good natured and normally not overly aggressive, but he responds well to capable leadership and has proved to be a courageous and effective soldier. Most of the men come from rural backgrounds. About 50 percent are illiterate, and they come into the service with little or no mechanical or technical skills. Many are completely unfamiliar with rudimentary tools or simple mechanical devices and must be grounded in basic fundamentals before going on to more advanced training in the complex equipment of modern warfare.

The country's military schools regularly turn out well trained junior officers, but their output is small, and the supply of professional officers rarely, if ever, meets the demand. Even military academies, which have a high priority call on qualified manpower, have difficulty in obtaining candidates with the educational qualifications needed to fill their small quotas.

**Procurement and Training of Officers**

Officer procurement is on the basis of direct appointment, voluntary application or selection from the ranks. Over half of the candidates attend military schools; about a third are commissioned from the ranks; and the rest are given direct appointments. The number of applicants is usually below the needs of the services, and the military training schools have tried to be realistic in the matter of entrance requirements. Nevertheless, they must maintain relatively high standards, and, as a result, the required scholastic and physical qualifications tend to limit the field of applicants to well-to-do young men who have an education well above the country's average.

The Khmer Military School at Phnom Penh is the basic institution for training cadets for the army. It offers a 3-year course leading to a regular commission and a degree equivalent to a bachelor of science. Founded by the French in 1946, it graduates classes that average 50 students annually. Candidates for admission must be between 18 and 25 years of age and are required to have completed secondary school. Applicants with higher educational qualifications may be admitted directly to the second year of study. In addition to military subjects, the curriculum also includes mathematics, science, history, geography, French and English.

The school also offers several specialized courses. A 1-year course trains noncommissioned officers who have qualified as
candidates for a commission, and a similar course trains reserve officers. Special short courses of 6 to 12 months are given to provide preflight training for air force cadets and basic training for naval officer candidates.

There is one additional training facility for army officers, the School of Application, at Kompong Chhnang. All newly commissioned officers are required to attend its specialized 1-year course in infantry tactics and ground force operations. Among the numerous other schools offering specialized army instruction are the Infantry Training Center, the Jungle Warfare School and the Engineering School. These are not exclusively for officers, although there are provisions for training them in conjunction with courses for enlisted men.

Candidates for regular commissions in the navy are selected by competitive examination. They first receive basic military training at the army’s Khmer Military School and then go on to 2 years’ additional study at the Naval Instruction Center at the Chhrui Changvar Naval Base. They receive instruction in navigation, communications, ordnance, radio and small arms. The next step is enrollment in the French Naval Academy near Brest, France, where they pursue a 3-year course at either the Line Officers School or the Naval Engineering School. Upon successful completion of the Academy curriculum, they are usually assigned for a 9-month probationary period to a French navy training cruiser, after which they are appointed ensigns first class.

Air force cadets begin their training with attendance for 1 year at the Khmer Military School. They then enter the Royal Flying School at Phnom Penh for ground and flight training. Upon completion of this phase the cadet is graduated as a probationary pilot-officer and is sent out of the country for advanced training and transition flying.

There is one high-level career school, the Royal Khmer Military Academy, located at Phnom Penh. It was founded in 1955 for officers of the three services. Its curriculum offers both staff and command courses of a minimum of 1 year’s duration. Battalion and company commanders’ courses and an advanced staff course are included. Before entering the Academy, the student must have completed a special 1-year correspondence course designed to prepare him for the phase he is to study at the school.

The French Military Mission plays an important role in the training of officers, as it does in all training. French advisers and instructors are found throughout the military school system, and French officers are assigned as consultants at various staff levels in all three services. Cambodians are gradually replacing some French instructors, but they are still a small percentage, particularly in the navy and the air force.
Procurement and Training of Enlisted Personnel

The strength of the armed forces was maintained at a relatively constant level from 1957 to 1967. This was accomplished almost exclusively through voluntary enlistments. Only twice since the compulsory service law was enacted in 1954 has it been necessary to resort to conscription, and this was done to fill a small number of specialist vacancies that occurred soon after the law's promulgation.

Voluntary enlistments are open to physically qualified male citizens between the ages of 18 and 25. The term of enlistment is for 3 years for the combat arms and 6 years for the technical services; reenlistments are accepted on a year to year basis. Women may volunteer for service in the armed forces and are used extensively in the higher headquarters and the technical services. They are employed primarily at clerical duties, but they also serve as drivers, switchboard operators and parachute packers.

Recruit training for the army and the air force is conducted at the Infantry Training Center at Pursat, some 100 miles northwest of Phnom Penh. Recruits undergo an 8-week basic course and then go on to advanced training in the arm or specialty to which they have been assigned. Airmen report to air force installations to continue their training. Navy recruits receive all their introductory instruction at the Naval Instruction Center at Chrui Changvar and, after basic training, are assigned to specific career fields. French Military Mission personnel assist in training at all navy and air force schools and at most army schools.

The navy and the air force have most of their training facilities concentrated at their principal bases, and they occasionally send men to army technical schools for instruction in jointly needed specialties. The army has a number of technical schools which provide basic and advanced courses in engineering, communications, armor and other branch subjects. Navy men receive much of their advanced instruction aboard ship, and airmen are promptly assigned practical work in tactical units under experienced instructors.

In all three services after a man is assigned to a unit his training is continuous throughout his military career. In addition to on-the-job instruction and small unit exercises, a number of men are permitted to attend formal courses for specialized training and advanced career schools. These opportunities are limited, however, and are usually reserved for noncommissioned officers. Noncommissioned officers usually come up from the ranks and are selected on the basis of experience and proven capability.
Most are career men who have had several years' service. Although all components suffer from a shortage of experienced noncommissioned officers, this group in general constitutes one of the principal elements of the military services.

MISSION AND ORGANIZATION OF THE ARMED FORCES

The army has two primary missions: to defend the country's territorial integrity against external aggression and to assist in maintaining internal security. This entails the traditional military responsibility of ensuring a constant state of readiness to repel any invader and to implement the government's military policies. In addition, the army is charged with developing primitive regions of the country through civic action and with directing a national sports program.

The navy's principal mission is to defend the national coastline and to police territorial waters. It is also charged with patrolling inland waterways and, where possible, providing transport and tactical support to the ground forces. The mission of the air force is primarily the air defense of the country, but it is also responsible for providing air transport and tactical support to the army. The air force also has the additional responsibility of participating in civic action and providing a pool of pilots for civil aviation.

In the first few years of independence the armed forces were required to take the field against scattered dissident elements that were threatening security in outlying areas. The insurgent forces were not large, however, and they were neither well equipped nor well organized. The royal forces' operations were successful for the most part, and from the end of the 1950's to early 1967, there was no significant insurgency. The army gained a limited background of combat experience, but it was experience based on restricted, irregular operations, usually confined to small unit tactics in engagements using small arms exclusively. The armed forces have actually been more concerned with civic action than with military pursuits. Since 1967, however, with the outbreak of insurgency in Battambang Province and other areas, the armed forces have been involved on several occasions in multi-battalion operations.

In 1967, of the 35,000 men in the armed forces, more than 90 percent were in the army, and the principal emphasis was on the infantry. The navy and air force were, in effect, token forces that were of some support value but could contribute little in the event of major hostilities.

In 1967 the basic organization of the armed forces remained fundamentally unchanged from that carried over from the French, and a residual French influence continued to pervade all
levels of the military structure. The army is the basic element of the armed forces and effectively overshadows the other services. Despite a trend toward increased autonomy for the navy and air force, they continue to be under army direction, and their commanders subordinate to the Chief of the General Staff, who is an army officer. The General Staff fulfills normal staff functions for all three services, but at the operational level each component has a small, specialized staff to handle its own particular activities.

The Minister of National Defense is responsible for the administrative and support services of the armed forces. These services comprise a variety of support activities which include quartermaster, ordnance, engineer, signal, military justice and medical services. The Minister also has under his jurisdiction the Director of Personnel, the Director of Research and the Office of Civic Affairs. The Minister, however, has no operational function and exercises no direct control over the military services.

Operational control of the military forces extends directly from the supreme commander to the Commander in Chief of the Armed Forces. The Commander in Chief is, in effect, the country's senior military officer, and he directs military operations subject to the policies of the Chief of State. He has as his principal subordinate the Chief of the General Staff (see fig. 6).

General Headquarters of the FARP is at Phnom Penh. The staff is organized along conventional lines and adheres closely to the pattern of the French army. Following French precedent, chiefs of bureaux (sections) are charged with personnel, intelligence, plans and operations and logistics. To these have been added a fifth bureau for information and morale and a sixth for security. In addition to the Inspector General, who is responsible only to the supreme commander, two staff inspectors, one for training and one for logistics, complete the headquarters organization.

The various technical services under the Ministry of National Defense have officers attached to General Headquarters who fulfill the functions of a special staff. The unusual arrangement of having most of the support elements outside of the military command structure is one that could create complications in that it places the Commander in Chief in a position where he must, in effect, contract for such services as ordnance, signal or engineering. In the past, however, problems usually have been avoided by having the top-military and civilian positions in the defense hierarchy occupied by the same person.

Reported data and statistical estimates concerning the organization of the service components vary widely. The latest figures available indicate that in early 1967 the Royal Cambodian
1 FARK -- Forces Armées Royales Khmères (Royal Khmer Armed Forces).
2 Under Ministry of National Defense during emergencies only.

Figure 6. Command Structure of the Cambodian Armed Forces
Army's strength of over 30,000 men was organized into between 30 and 40 standard infantry battalions. In addition, there were two parachute battalions and two Royal Guard Battalions. The army framework also included one known armored reconnaissance regiment and an antiaircraft artillery brigade.

Arms and equipment inventories included fairly substantial quantities of armor, artillery and heavy infantry weapons, ranging from French AMX-13 light tanks to 105-mm howitzers. The armament did not, however, represent a very sophisticated level of weaponry, and much of the equipment was old and approaching obsolescence. Additional materiel was expected from Communist bloc sources.

The country is divided into five geographic regions which divide the area into roughly equal segments. Where they coincide, regional boundaries generally follow those of the political provinces, but each military region encompasses several provinces. Regional commanders are directly responsible to the Chief of the General Staff and exercise command over all units stationed in their areas, with the exception of military training schools and General Reserve units. The General Reserve is a strategic military reserve in existence rather than an inactive force to be called to duty in case of need. It is centered in the general area of Phnom Penh, has units dispersed in numerous military regions and constitutes a sizable composite force, comprising infantry, paratroop and armored units.

The Royal Cambodian Navy was originally part of the army, but it became a separate service in 1954. It is a small force designed for coastal and river patrol duty and for tactical support of ground force operations in the maintenance of internal security. In late 1967 it had a strength of some 1,400 officers and men, which included a commando infantry force of about 200 for use in amphibious operations.

The navy's operational forces are organized into three principal elements: a river division, a coastal force and a sea force. The river division is based at Chrui Changvar, across the river from the capital, where the naval repair and construction facilities are also located. The other elements are stationed at Ream, on the Gulf of Siam. The naval inventory of over 50 small vessels includes two patrol boats, a support gunboat, several amphibious landing craft and a variety of service and utility ships.

In late 1967 the Royal Cambodian Air Force, with around 2,000 men, was one of the smallest in Southeast Asia. It had about 100 aircraft, which included several jet fighters and light bombers. Designed primarily to support the ground forces, it is used mostly to provide aerial resupply, paradrops and the transport of personnel. The operational elements form a composite
squadron, although they are organizationally divided into separate operational and technical groups. Aircraft in operational units in 1967 included MIG-17 jet fighters, A-1 Skyraider light bombers (French) and T-28 Trojan ground attack aircraft. There were also a number of jet trainers, 12 C-47 transports and other miscellaneous transports, including several helicopters.

CONDITIONS OF SERVICE

The general environment and physical conditions surrounding military life have not changed significantly since French colonial times. Many of the facilities of the colonial era continued in use, and many of the newer ones still adhered to familiar French patterns. The life of the serviceman, though not one of ease, was not particularly austere, and he was, for the most part, well cared for by the authorities. He was respected and well compensated, and the conditions under which he served rated relatively high in comparison with normal local standards.

Military posts were scattered throughout the country, with a heavy concentration in the Phnom Penh area. Although primitive by Western standards they compared favorably with most civilian facilities and adequately met the needs of the services. In general, quarters, food and pay were as good as a man could find outside the service and often were considerably better. There were separate accommodations for officers, and on most stations, housing for families was provided. Troop barracks were mostly of tropical wooden frame construction, but occasionally there were more elaborate buildings of stucco and tile.

There were other advantages that added attraction to a military career, such as medical care, retirement pay, accrued leave and survivor benefits. Rations were generally superior in both quality and quantity to the food consumed by much of the population; standards of nutrition were higher and provided greater variety and a more balanced diet. Although menus were built on a rice base and were repetitious from a European point of view, meals conformed to local dietary patterns, and the average soldier considered himself well fed.

There are no reliable recent figures on current pay scales, but it is evident that the military are adequately paid by Southeast Asian standards. Basic pay rates were raised moderately in 1967. The latest figures available, however, were for 1965. These ranged from the equivalent of $14.65 a month for a private first class to $192.00 for a colonel (and navy or air force counterparts). A master sergeant received $43.00 a month; and a captain, $97.71. In addition to base pay, there was a wide variety of supplementary allowances for officers and men, including family and station allowances, as well as additional compensation for
specialists, paratroops and flying personnel. Every man received a fixed ration allowance, and there were generous reenlistment bonuses and equipment allowances for officers and men.

In 1967 retirement procedures still followed the French army system. Retirement could be for disability, length of service or age and could be statutory or granted on request. Retired pay is geared to length of service and grade held; a man may retire with a partial pension after 15 years' active duty; he is entitled to a full pension after 25 years' service. The retirement plan is contributory, 6 percent of a man's pay being withheld each month. Service leave policies are liberal; all ranks accrue ordinary leave at the rate of 30 days a year, with special provisions for emergency situations.

All military personnel receive free medical treatment at military hospitals or infirmaries, and members of the immediate family are eligible for treatment where facilities are available. Although there is a shortage of military doctors, medical service is maintained at a relatively high level. There is a well-equipped 120-bed military hospital in Phnom Penh, and three 30-bed dispensaries are located at Kompong Speu, Battambang and Kompong Cham. These were built and furnished through the United States Agency for International Development (AID) program, and they have modern dental, X-ray and laboratory equipment. Smaller dispensaries have been set up in several of the border provinces, where they offer treatment to the hill tribesmen in the area as well as to military personnel and their dependents.

Very little information is available on military justice or the conduct of courts-martial. The average serviceman has a background of traditional respect for authority and deference to his elders; he considers obedience a normal adjunct of military life; therefore, discipline is not a major problem in the armed forces. In general, the French system of military justice is followed. There is one permanent four-man court which sits at General Headquarters in Phnom Penh and handles the more serious cases involving members of the armed forces. Commanding officers have relatively wide disciplinary powers, and court-martial is generally resorted to only in cases of major offenses.

UNIFORMS, INSIGNIA AND DECORATIONS

The rank and grade structure of all three services has been adopted from the French almost without change, and insignia or rank closely follow the French pattern for both officers and noncommissioned officers. Army and air force ranks are identical and use the French titles, whereas the navy uses the distinctive designations of the French naval service. Officers’ insignia of
grade are displayed on shoulder boards; the army and navy use a basic dark blue and the air force a lighter blue. Some of the army services have a distinctive color, such as light green for para-troops and maroon for medical corpsmen. Noncommissioned officers' chevrons are worn on the upper left sleeve or, for dress occasions, on shoulder boards.

General officer shoulder boards have gold stripe of laurel-like leaves marking the outer edge, and grade is indicated by small silver stars. Other officer ranks use narrow bands of gold (or gold and silver) braid across the end of the shoulder boards. Noncommissioned officers wear chevrons of gold braid or colored cloth (indicating branch of service). These closely resemble United States equivalents and are worn with the points upward for the combat arms and reversed for the services. Adjudants and adjudants chef wear officer-type insignia on the shoulder, and aspirant (officer candidate), a distinct grade that ranks just below second lieutenant, has its own officer-style insignia (see table 19).

Responsibilities for commissioned officers generally follow Western practice; lieutenants command platoons; captains are in charge of companies; and lieutenant colonels or majors command battalions. Among noncommissioned officers, squad leaders are generally sergeants, with corporals as assistants. Higher ranks as well as adjudants may occupy staff positions or serve as platoon sergeants, specialists or unit sergeant majors.

The uniforms of the military services, furnished for the most part by France, follow French design, with minor changes in detail and insignia to lend a national character. Except for the navy, which wears the standard white of the French service, uniforms are built up from the basic tropical outfit of khaki shirts and trousers. Shorts and short-sleeved shirts are worn as the weather dictates, and long trousers are tucked into combat boots or leggings for field or garrison wear and worn loose with low-quarter shoes for dress. Officers wear the conventional service coat blouse for off-duty and dress occasions, and they also have a white dress uniform. Headgear includes berets, bush hats, oversea caps and peaked garrison caps, and helmets are worn frequently in the field.

A national emblem of the arms of Cambodia is worn by all officers; it is centered on their shoulder boards along with their insignia of rank. The air force arms add stylized wings, and the navy insigne incorporates a fouled anchor. The national arms are also used as a cap ornament and as the central theme of other badges and devices, such as buttons and pilots' wings. The army has adopted distinctive branch insignia of brass or enamel, which are worn on the shirt collar or the lapel of the blouse. The in-
Table 19. Ranks and Insignia of the Cambodian Armed Forces

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<th>Army and Air Force</th>
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<th>Insignia</th>
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</table>

fantry uses crossed rifles; artillery, crossed cannon; engineers, a stylized temple tower; quartermaster, a flaming grenade; and medical, a caduceus superimposed on a red cross. Pilots’ wings are gold colored, and paratroops’ badges are silver.

The Cambodian serviceman presents a generally favorable appearance; he is neat, clean and usually proud of his uniform. His clothing and personal equipment are of good quality, are simple and comfortable and adequately meet his needs. His appearance has not changed radically from the soldier of the French colonial army, but the accessories and distinctive devices of his uniform are designed to keep him conscious of his unique national status.

The country makes extensive use of awards and decorations, and the military are particularly conscious of the many national
symbols of official recognition. Awards are highly prized and are worn with pride. There are several strictly military decorations and numerous national orders and awards designed to reward individual accomplishment or outstanding service of either a military or a civil nature. Civilian and, in rare cases, military awards may be presented to foreign nationals.

The ranking decoration is the Grand Collar of the National Order of Independence, which is given in a single class for exceptional services to the kingdom. This is followed by the Royal Order of Cambodia, which closely parallels the French Legion of Honor in form and structure and consists of five grades ranging upward from Chevalier through Officer, Commander, Grand Officer and Grand Cross. Next in order of precedence are two military awards, the Sena Jayaseddh Medal, presented in one class for exceptional military services, and the National Defense Medal, which comes as a bronze, silver, or gold star for acts of heroism in action.

Three additional decorations are often awarded to military personnel but are not restricted to services of a military nature: the Medal of the Crown, a single class award; the Medal of the Kingdom, in bronze, silver or gold categories; and the Anussara Medal of Royal Remembrance, also limited to one basic class. Campaign and service medals are issued periodically, and a variety of other specialized orders and decorations recognize achievement in such fields as sports, agriculture, literature, labor and cleanliness. There is also a special medal of merit for women. Article 42 of the Constitution, as amended in 1956, states that the King (now Chief of State) is grand master of all of the orders of the kingdom and makes all appointments thereto.

LOGISTICS

Responsibility for planning and controlling the procurement of supplies and equipment rests with the Ministry of National Defense. Little procurement of materiel for the armed forces is undertaken within the country itself, however, as logistic support for the military is almost entirely dependent on foreign aid and assistance. Virtually all arms and equipment must originate outside of the country, as there is no internal capability for the manufacture of weapons, munitions, vehicles or other heavy items of military hardware.

Until 1955 most military supplies were provided by France, and from 1955 until 1963 the United States was the principal source of arms and equipment. Since the termination of United States aid in 1963, the country has been largely dependent on assistance from the Communist bloc, but France continues to provide limited support in some categories. There has been a
fairly steady flow of materiel from Communist China and the Soviet Union, and earlier stocks of French and United States equipment are gradually being replaced by more modern materiel from these sources.

Storage and issue procedures are centrally controlled by the Ministry of National Defense. Central depots are maintained for each of the technical services, mostly in the vicinity of Phnom Penh, and these serve as stock control and distribution points for filling requisitions from the army, navy or air force. In most supply matters the army generally serves the other components, but both the navy and the air force have small logistic activities to handle their own specialized needs.

The separate organizational structure of the support elements, which places their functions outside of the operational chain of command, requires complex and time-consuming procedures. Requests for supplies must be requisitioned through the Ministry of National Defense and, consequently, channeled from the field back through the Chief of the General Staff and the Commander in Chief of the Armed Forces. In practice, however, there is actually some decentralization; numerous field stations have been set up in various parts of the country for the direct issue of ammunition, fuel and medical supplies without requiring formal requisitioning procedures.

The major support facility is the logistic center at Lovek, some 80 miles north of the capital, which is the maintenance center for all ordnance and quartermaster materiel. It includes over 80 separate structures and provides a modern installation where major repairs can be performed on weapons, vehicles and other equipment. The center also has facilities for the manufacture of shoes and clothing in small quantities.

In general, there are adequate quantities of basic items, such as uniforms and personal equipment for routine operations. Sufficient quantities of individual weapons are available, and they are maintained in reasonably good condition. Few depots are able to maintain adequate stock levels. The logistic services are marginally adequate for peacetime needs, but they would have difficulty meeting requirements of a wartime situation.

The navy’s facilities are centered at the naval base at Chhrui Changvar, and lesser activities exist at some of the smaller coastal and river stations. Ship maintenance is accomplished at the main base’s Fleet Repair Facility, and most shore-based naval supplies are handled by the base’s naval warehouses. The air force has its main storage and issue point at Phnom Penh, which handles virtually all aircraft maintenance and has four well-equipped hangars where most of this work can be performed. Most of the maintenance, excluding major overhauls that are performed outside of the country, is supervised by French advisory personnel.
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Section II: Political

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Section IV. National Security


Cambodia. Laws, Statutes, etc.


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achar—Lay assistant to the monks.

AID—Agency for International Development.

AKP—Agence Khmère de Presse (Khmer Press Agency). Cambodian daily news agency.

Annam—Name of the former French protectorate that formed part of French Indochina. Its area conformed roughly with that of the central third of Vietnam.

Bandung Conference—Held in 1955. Its sponsors were Burma, Ceylon, India, Indonesia and Pakistan. Many other countries participated, including Cambodia, Communist China, Japan, the Philippines, South Vietnam, North Vietnam and Thailand. The conference endorsed the Panch Shila, the Five Principles of Peaceful Coexistence.

civic action program—Government-sponsored program to provide economic assistance to the hill tribes and to improve communications and transportation in the outlying provinces which are under military control.


Cochin China—Former French protectorate which formed part of French Indochina; its area conformed roughly with what are now the southern provinces of South Vietnam.

Colombo Plan—The Colombo Plan for Cooperative Economic Development in South and Southeast Asia. Coordinates aid of Western nations and Japan to Asian nations; Asian nations also provide aid to each other through the Plan.


Democrat Party—A Cambodian political party led by Son Ngoc Thanh; it opposed Prince Sihanouk.

ECAFE—Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East.

EEC—European Economic Community.

ENAPHAR—Enterprise Nationale Pharmaceutique (National Pharmaceutical Enterprise).

FARK—Forces Armées Royales Khmères (Royal Khmer Armed Forces).
Five-Year Plan—The plan for economic development that was begun in 1960.

GATT—General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade.


JSRK—Jeunesse Socialiste Royale Khmère (Royal Khmer Socialist Youth). A youth auxiliary of the Sangkum.

Kambuja—Ancient name for Cambodia.

Khmer—The dominant ethnic group, members of which first entered the country from the northwest before the first century, A.D. It is also the name of the language of the Khmer.

Khmer Krom—Term applied to people of Khmer origin living in South Vietnam.

Khmer Loeu—Upper Cambodians. A term used to designate the nomadic mountain peoples living in Cambodia, primarily along the northeastern and eastern frontiers.

Khmer Serei—Rebel group operating outside of Cambodia.

Lovek—Ancient capital of Cambodia.

MAAG—Military Assistance Advisory Group. A United States military organization which provided the FARK with items of military equipment and also provided personnel to train Cambodian military personnel in the use of the equipment. Disbanded in 1963.

Naga—Seven-headed snake in Indian mythology.

ONE—Oeuvre Nationale d’Entr’aide (National Mutual Aid Association).

OROC—Office Royale de Coopération (Royal Office of Cooperation). A government loan fund established in 1956 to help create and assist agricultural cooperatives.

Panch Shila—The Five Principles of Peaceful Coexistence agreed upon at the Bandung Conference of 1955. The participants agreed that the principles were: mutual respect for each other’s territorial integrity and sovereignty, nonaggression, noninterference in each other’s internal affairs, equality and mutual benefit, and peaceful coexistence.

Pracheachon—Crypto-Communist party.

Réalités Cambodgiennes—Cambodian weekly news magazine.

riel—The basic unit of currency, composed of 100 sen. The official rate of exchange is 35 riels to the United States dollar.

RNK—Radiodiffusion Nationale Khmère (Khmer National Radio).
Sangkum Reastr Niyum—People's Socialist Community. A political party created and led by Prince Sihanouk; usually called the Sangkum or the Sangkum Party, but occasionally referred to as the SRN.

SATRAR—Service d'Achat de Transformation et de Reconditionnement du Riz (Rice Purchasing, Processing and Reconditioning Service).

SEATO—Southeast Asia Treaty Organization. Member nations (United States, Great Britain, France, Thailand, Australia, New Zealand, the Philippines and Pakistan) are committed to resist aggression in the treaty area.


SONAPRIM—Société Nationale de Distribution de Produits Importés (National Import Distribution Corporation).

SONEXIM—Société Nationale d'Exportation et d'Importation (National Import-Export Corporation).

SRN—See Sangkum Reastr Niyum.

Tonkin—Name of the former French protectorate that formed part of French Indochina. Its area conformed roughly with what is now North Vietnam.


USIA—United States Information Agency. Its overseas arm is the United States Information Service (USIS).

Vassa—Period of religious retreat.

Viet Cong—Derogatory contraction of the term meaning “Vietnamese Communist.” It is used in reference to Communist forces operating in South Vietnam.

Viet Minh—A Communist-led organization represented as a coalition of nationalist groups, which spearheaded Vietnamese resistance to French rule in the early years of the Indochina War.

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