

**EMERGING PATTERN OF DISTRICT LEVEL
DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION IN SIKKIM:
A STUDY SINCE 1975**

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By

Smt. Pritha Roy Chowdhury, M.A., M. Phil.

Research Supervisor

Dr. M. Yasin

*Professor, Dept. of Political Science
University of North Bengal*



Co-Supervisor

Dr. Dhruba Jyoti Bhaumik

*Retired Professor, Dept. of Political Science
University of North Bengal*

**DEPARTMENT OF POLITICAL SCIENCE
UNIVERSITY OF NORTH BENGAL
RAJA RAMMOHUNPUR
DARJEELING-734430**

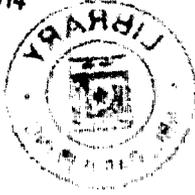
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PREFACE

The district administration in India is a British legacy. The East India Company created some sort of administrative unit in the year 1772 for their administrative convenience that can be treated as the genesis of district administration in India. And in due course of time it becomes the most experienced and the most experimented administrative unit. The administration in India cannot be thought of without the presence of the districts even after the more or less successful working of the grass root level democracy.

On the other hand, the concept of development in India is relatively a new concept. However, the history of India experienced some development programmes, but those were carried out by the rulers at that time. But the institutionalised implementation of the development programmes is only seen in India during the post independence period. Actually, the concept of development administration originated by the Comparative Administration Group, led by Fred Riggs during the mid of the 20th century to combat the spread of Marxism in the then newly independent States in all over the world. Many of the third world countries, at that time, adopted this concept of development administration to make the government pro- people. And India was not an exception to this direction.

Switching over to the story of Sikkim, we can see that it enjoyed independent status even during the rule of the British in India. However, it had to depend on the foreign power for its existence from the time of its inception. And ultimately, this small Himalayan landlocked State had to merge with India and be the 22nd constituent state of Indian Union. Being one of the constituent states of India, Sikkim had started enjoying the programmes, policies and institutions those were going on in India and started experiencing the concepts like democracy, development and decentralisation.

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The limitations, if any, are exclusively mine.

Pritha Roy Chowdhury

(PRITHA ROYCHOWDHURY)

LIST OF ABBREVIATION

AAV	Antyodaya Annadan Yojana
APL	Above the Poverty Line
ARC	Administrative Reforms Commission
ARDRS	Agriculture and Rural Debt Relief Scheme
AY	Annapoorna Yojna
ARWSP	Accelerated Rural Water Supply Programme
BDO	Block Development Officer
BPL	Below Poverty Line
CDP	Community Development Programme
CFC	Central Finance Commission
CRSP	Central Rural Sanitation Programme
CSRE	Crash Scheme for Rural Employment
DC	District Collector
DDP	Desert Development Programme
DDO	District Development Officer
DM	District Magistrate
DPAP	Drought Prone Area Programme
DPC	District Planning Committee
DPCC	District Planning Coordination Committee
DPO	District Planning Officer
DWCRA	Development of women and Child of Rural Areas
EAS	Employment Assurance Scheme
FASCs	Farmer's Agriculture Service Centres
FFW	Food for Work

GKY	Ganga Kalyan Yojana
GOI	Government of India
GP	Gram Panchayat
HADP	Hill Area Development Programme
HDI	Human Development Index
HYVP	High Yielding Variety Programme
IAAP	Intensive Agriculture Area Programme
IAY	Indira Awas Yojana
IEC	Information, Education and Communication
IRDP	Integrated Rural Development Programme
JRY	Jawahar Rozgar Yojana
JGSY	Jawahar Gram Samridhi Yojana
MFAL	Marginal Farmers and Agricultural Labourers
MGNREGA	Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act
MMAAY	Mukhya Mantri Awas Yojna.
MMAAY	Mukhya Mantri Antyodaya Annadan Yojana
MWS	Million wells Scheme
NFRD	National Fund for Rural Development
NIRD	National Institute of Rural Development
NRDP	National Rural Development Programme
NRDWP	National Rural Drinking Water Programme
NOAPS	National Old Age Pension Scheme.
NREGS	National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme.
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PMGSY	Pradhan Mantri Gram Sadak Yojana
PO	Programme Officer
PRIs	Panchayati Raj Institutions

RHS	Rural Housing Scheme
RGVY	Rajiv Gandhi Grameen Vidyutikaran Yojana
RLEGP	Rural Landless Employment Guarantee Programme
RMDD	Rural Management & Development Department
SC	Scheduled Caste
SFC	State Finance Commission
SFDA	Small Farmers Development Agency
SGRY	Sampoorna Grameen Rozgar Yojana
SGSY	Swarnajayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana
SHG	Self Help Group
SIRD	State Institute of Rural Development
TADP	Tribal Area Development Programme
TPP	Twenty Point Programme
TRYSEM	Training of Rural Youth for Self-Employment
ST	Scheduled Tribes
TSC	Total Sanitation Campaign
UNDP	United Nations development Programme
VLW	Village Level Worker
ZP	Zilla Panchayat

LIST OF TABLES

Table: 2.1	Population Growth in Sikkim
Table: 2.2	Sikkim at a glance
Table: 2.3	Result of the first general Election, 1953
Table: 2.4	Community wise break up of the contestants in the second general election, 1958
Table: 2.5	Community wise break up of the contestants in the third general election, 1967
Table: 2.6	Result of the Fourth General Elections, 1970
Table: 2.7	Result of the Fifth General Elections, 1973
Table: 2.8	Representation of the Communities in Civil Service
Table: 3.1	Names of the Departments in the Govt. Of Sikkim 1955
Table: 3.2	Names of the Departments in the Govt. Of Sikkim 1961
Table: 3.3	Names of the Departments in the Govt. Of Sikkim 1975
Table: 3.4	Names of the Departments in the Govt. Of Sikkim 2001
Table: 3.5	Representation of the Major Communities before merger.
Table: 3.6	Representation of the major Communities after merger.
Table: 4.1	Urban- Rural Population of East District-Facts and figures
Table: 4.2	Urban- Rural Population of West District-Facts and figures
Table: 4.3	Urban- Rural Population of North District-Facts and figures
Table: 4.4	Urban- Rural Population of South District-Facts and figures
Table: 6.1	List of Rural Development Programmes
Table: 6.2	Physical and financial achievements Under SGSY (2010-2011)

Table: 6.3	Details of Maintenance of Funds during 2010-11&2011-2
Table: 6.4	Achievement of the NRDWP
Table: 6.5	Performance of Dhara Vikas
Table: 6.6	Performance of Balika Samridhi Yojna
Table: 7.1	Sex Wise Distributions of the Respondents
Table: 7.2	Age Wise Distribution of the Respondents
Table: 7.3	Caste Wise Distribution of the Respondents
Table: 7.4	Religion Wise Distribution of the Respondents
Table: 7.5	Academic Qualification Wise Distribution of the Respondents
Table: 7.6	Occupation Wise Distribution of the Respondents
Table: 7.7	Selection of Beneficiaries
Table: 7.8	Whether People's problems are solved through the PRIs
Table: 7.9	Measurement of the Influence of Party Leaders
Table: 7.10	Whether Administrators Lack Motivation and Commitment
Table: 7.11	Whether RDPs are working successfully
Table: 7.12	Whether Administrators can satisfy the people
Table: 7.13	Defective Planning of Work Programme
Table: 7.14	Defective interdepartmental coordination
Table: 7.15	Lack of Regular Machinery to Assess
Table: 7.16	Rigidity of Administrative Procedure
Table: 7.17	Exercise Political Pull and Pressure
Table: 7.18	Lack of People's Interest and Participation

Contents

	Page
PREFACE	i - ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	iii - v
ABBREVIATION	vi - viii
LIST OF TABLES	ix - x
CONTENTS	xi - xii
CHAPER-I	1 - 38
INTRODUCTION	
CHAPER-II	39 - 63
SIKKIM: THE 22 ND STATE OF INDIA	
CHAPER-III	64 - 80
ADMINISTRATION OF THE STATE: AN EVOLUTIONARY OVERVIEW	
CHAPER-IV	81 - 103
ADMINISTRATION AT THE DISTRICT LEVEL: A STUDY SINCE 1975	
CHAPER-V	104 - 128
DECENTRALISATION AT THE DISTRICT LEVEL IN SIKKIM	
CHAPER-VI	129 - 162
DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION AND DISTRICTS IN SIKKIM	
CHAPER-VII	163 - 180
DISTRICT LEVEL DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION: A REPORT OF THE FIELD	
CHAPER-VIII	181 - 192
SUMMARY OF FINDINGS AND CONCLUDING OBSERVATION	

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY	193 - 208
ANNEXURE -I	209 - 212
ANNEXURE -II	213 - 226
ANNEXURE -III	227 - 228
ANNEXURE -IV	229 - 234
ANNEXURE -V	235 - 253

CHAPTER-I

INTRODUCTION

INTRODUCTION

Sikkim, the small landlocked Himalayan state, receives attention of the students of social sciences for its distinctive constitutional and politico-administrative background. It travelled a long way from a monarchical state to a democratic one. At the advent of 20th century the then Sikkim became British-India's protectorate (Bhaumik, & Bhattacharyya, 1977). It continued to be so even after independence of India. In 1947, it obtained the status of an "Associated State" of India and with the passage of the 36th Constitution Amendment Act; it became a constituent unit of India in 1975.

The term "political development" includes both constitutional and administrative development of a state. Being a land locked state; Sikkim had to depend on foreign powers from its inception. Throughout 19th and the first half of the 20th century it remained the protectorate of British –India (Bhaumik, & Bhattacharyya, 1977). As a response to the popular agitation since 1949 demanding popular government the Maharaja of Sikkim, the Chogyal, made the proclamation in March 1953 specifying the composition and functions of the legislative and executive Council (Sengupta, 1985) which can be regarded as the starting point of the constitutional history of Sikkim.

On the basis of this proclamation the first election of Sikkim held in 1953 and the last elections before its merger were held in 1973. After 1973 elections a demand for full-fledged democratic form of government came to surface and ultimately this demand was accepted both by the maharaja and the Government of India. Consequently, a tripartite agreement was signed by the government of India, Chogyal and the then existing political parties providing the essential features of future constitutional set-up(Bhaumik, & Bhattacharyya, 1974).

The traditional life of Sikkim was devoid of any complexity and so was the administration. The feudal landlords used to provide the administrative machinery for performing regulatory functions. A sea-change can be noticed in the administration in Sikkim during the post-integration period. The regulatory administration was gradually converted into a welfare-oriented one. It was realised that the consideration of merit should get priority over the “communal parity” in the recruitment of public personnel. The principles of decentralisation had been implemented to bring the administration nearer to the people.

The history of district administration in Sikkim can be traced back to the period marked by the reign of Puntso Namgyal. He divided the entire territory of Sikkim into twelve Dzongs(fort areas) as administrative units and placed them under twelve Dzongpons(Singh, 1975).

As a first step towards organising the district administration, Sikkim was divided into two tehsils, i.e., revenue blocks, East and West, for the purpose of revenue collection. With introduction of Seven Year Plan (1954-1961) and as a sequel to Indo-Sikkim treaty of 1950, the administration was geared to meet the exigencies of implementing the plan. Consequently, Sikkim was divided into four districts, namely- North, South, East and West with district headquarters at Mangan, Namchi, Gangtok and geysing respectively.

Statement of the Problem:

Gradually, to be in tune with other unit states of India, district administration in Sikkim became the viable unit for bringing the developmental programmes and their consequences nearer to the common people. The present study has been a modest attempt to bring into focus as to how the regulatory set-up of administration has gradually been transformed into developmental one.

While the developmental programmes, intended to bring about desirable socio-economic change, it has also been studied as to who are the beneficiaries of such programmes. The district administration guided by the concept of the 'theory of local finality' seeks to bring the administration nearer to the people and achieve decentralisation. In this context, the impact of 73rd and 74th Constitution Amendment Acts, 1992, has been discerned. Thus district administration which is instrumental in the implementation of developmental programmes has been thoroughly changed in the light of democracy and decentralisation. All these developments significantly lead to changing nature of district administration. The present study thus tries to describe and analyse emerging pattern of district level development administration in Sikkim limiting its confine to the time span of 1975 to the present day.

Objective of the study:

The objective of the present study is to find out the working of district level development administration in Sikkim. Being a monarchical state till 1974, Sikkim gradually transformed from regulatory administration to developmental administration. The study is an attempt to capture the changing dimensions of District administration, the fulcrum around which developmental administration revolves. An attempt has been made to high light the people's attitude to some of important rural development programmes as well.

Theoretical Framework:

The formation of an administrative unit is largely determined by geographical compulsion and administrative convenience. Of the various

territorial divisions, big and small, the one that has become the principal unit of administration and has an equivalent in almost every country except for semantic variation is the district (Sadasivan, 1988).

District as we find it in India is the most experienced administrative unit. The Oxford dictionary defines a district as a territory marked off for specific administrative purposes. The same dictionary defines administration as the management of public affairs within a territory marked off for the purpose. More specifically, district administration is that portion of public administration which functions within the territorial limits of a district (Khera, 1992).

The district in India is the most important administrative unit. It is that convenient geographical unit, where there can be concentration of the total apparatus of public administration. It constitutes a unit, not too big and not too small, which seems to be a convenient organisation. It provides a practical method for the management of public affairs in a country like India (Khera, 1992).

District administration in India, as it is today, is a result of history. We can find out its roots in the age of Manu. In Manu's time, about a thousand villages formed a district and it was in charge of separate official (Khera, 1992). However, the Mauryas were the first to constitute the district as the most prominent territorial unit and to centralise its administration with all power concentrated in a single officer called the Rajuka (Sadasivan, 1996). During Akbaris regime the district was described as 'Sarkar' (Khera, 1992). This term was significant in the sense that it means the government in its total manifestation in a conveniently demarcated geographical unit. So is the district administration today in India.

District administration set-up today in India is, however, a British legacy. Districts in India as it stands today were first created in 1772. However, the concept of the district as a unit of administration in India is derived somewhat from the pattern of the period of the French prefecture with the district officer as a prefect (Khera, 1992). At the initial period of the history of district administration as established by the British, the head of the district was company's trading agent. Gradually, these representations in the districts became the collectors of land revenue, trading being replaced by the levy and collection of land revenue. The collector of the district also became the official responsible for maintaining law and order. Thus, the collector became properly a civil servant of the British government (Khera, 1992).

In course of time 'total' presence of government at the district level can be seen. On the other hand, the collector levied and collected land revenue and other taxes and on the other, as district magistrate, he maintained law and order and in doing so administered a system of justice. To assist him there was a police official, the Superintendent of police, commonly known as 'Captain Saheb'. A doctor was also added to the district staff. Thus, a certain degree of welfare orientation came about; thus gradually turning the district administration into a complex operations; the collector and Magistrate, the Superintendent of Jail, the Civil Surgeon, then the District Judge, and the executive engineer for public works, and thus on to include a District inspector of Schools, a District Agriculture officer, and the rest of the components of the district administration that exist today (Khera, 1992).

So far as the functional aspect of district administration is concerned in the initial period, a controversy developed about the fundamental nature of the role of the district officer. Two alternative models were tried out. One was followed in Bengal, which projected the District Officer as a coordinator of the activities of other district level officials. The second model, followed in Madras,

established the District Officer as a strong individual with total power over subordinates as well as over those living in the district. Eventually Madras pattern prevailed (Eames, Edwin & Parmatama Saran, 1982). Fiscal, police and judicial powers became centralised in the hands of the district officers in all over the British India. However, Lord Cornwallis persisted on the separation of judicial from executive functions in district administration. Henceforth, the collector was only a collector of land revenue and the District Judge-Magistrate, having magisterial, judicial function along with police and general administration, became the head of the district (Mishra, 1996). And here it is to be mentioned that the Madras pattern followed the Murno school of thought about district administration.

The introduction of local self-government institution as part of the reforms of 1919 and 1920 created a new situation and led to a new phase in the arrangements of governance in the district and in the functioning of the district administration. The then district administration was emphasised on departmentalism and working in mutual isolation (Khera, 1992).

With the implementation of provincial autonomy in 1937 under the Government of India Act, 1935, the District Officer had been projected as the agent of popular government instead of being an agent of the British Government. Accordingly, the functions and position of the district officer changed. The District Magistrate came to be more and more involved with interpretation and enforcement of newly passed social and economic legislation. He had to be engaged more and more in rural development (Mishra, 1996). And on the eve of independence in 1947, the District Magistrate had to become something of a 'jack of all trades'. When contemplate the social and economic administration in the district one finds that great changes have been taking place since independence.

In a country like India, district administration is the cutting edge of the tool of public administration. However, surprisingly, the constitution of India makes no mention at all of a district as a unit of administration. Nothing is mentioned about district administration, or about the role of District Magistrate and Collector. There is just one reference in the constitution, in Article 233, to the appointment of district judges. Indeed, district administration is the most experienced administrative unit in India. It plays like a connecting point between the state administration and the common masses.

The period immediately after independence marked a substantive increase in the power of district collector. The ministers desired their strength from the bureaucracy right from the state to the district as regards the implementation of government policy. Apart from maintaining law and order and revenue administration, the district collector became the kingpin of all development activities right from district to ground level. In actual sense, he was the 'Maibaap' of the district. The role of the district collector increased manifold in 1952-53 with the introduction of Community development Programme (CDP) and National Extension Service (NES). During this period he was supposed not only to take care of development administration but he was also responsible to coordinate the activities of various departments such as health, animal husbandry, agriculture, industry, education, PWD, etc. working at the district level. Apart from this, he had also to take care of the visit of ministers to his district and to be the chief guest of various social, academic and other activities.

The Balwant Rai Mehata Study Team recommended decentralisation of administration and democratisation of power. Its main objectives are to bring about a change in the mental outlook of the people, install them an ambition for higher standards of life and the will and determination of work for such standards, it seeks to build up the community and the individual and to make the latter a builder of his own village centre and of India in the larger sense (Rao,

1990). This team recommended the formation of hierarchic three-tier system of rural local government to be called Panchayat Raj. These three-tier are the Gram Panchayat, to be located at village level, Panchayat Samiti, to be located at intermediate level and Zilla Parishad-located at the district level.

During the late 70s a change on government came at the national level and consequently there has been a change on policy formulation also. During this period the blocks have been gaining importance in lieu of districts. The 6th Five-Year Plan again highlighted the importance of block level planning for eradication of poverty through the provision of gainful employment opportunities to the poor.

With the introduction of Panchayati Raj Institution in 1993, the collector became no longer the only eyes and ears of the government and denied to be the final decision-maker in several matters which he formally used to be. More and more participation of common people in the administration at and below the district level is encouraged now- a- days. He became almost the “and” functionary among various departments at the district level.

Remaining in such a situation, the district administration in India has to face some dysfunctionality. Following the footsteps of Prof. Dayal, Mathur and Bhattacharya (1976), we can point out such dysfunctionality regarding overlapping. Artificial split-up of identical tasks and distributions of them among a number of departments create some dysfunctionality to the district administration. For example, in the total operation of agriculture credit three departments, like the Cooperative department, Agriculture Department and the Revenue Departments are involved. Consequently, no one can find out one department responsible for one particular task.

The second dysfunctionality is that a villager has to contact many points to get the permits or supplies for his/her primary activity-i.e.-agriculture. And more surprisingly, a common villager does not know the actual points through which his requirements can be fulfilled.

The third dysfunctionality is that a coordinate report of total activities of the district is not available for the district collector to take corrective measures towards achieving prescribed goals. The reporting system is designed more for record and less for managerial control purposes.

The fourth dysfunctionality generates from the simultaneous work of a tall and flat organisation. In order to carry out the regulatory tasks a tall organisation is required and so was our district administration in its early stage. Gradually, various developmental tasks are entrusted on district administration. Consequently, a flat organisation is also required. And it becomes problematic to the district administration to control both the tall and flat organisation at the same time.

The fifth dysfunctionality has emerged due to the conflict between technocrats and bureaucrats. As per recent time district administration is more and more concerned with departmental tasks, it needs a number of technical departments to carry out the tasks properly. And the technocrats, being the heads of those technical departments, try to get a slice of power from the office of the district collector. As a result, the district administration as a whole suffers from different problems.

The sixth dysfunctionality has emerged due to the conflict between political leaders and administrators. With the introduction of Panchayati Raj Institutions, the emphasis of the district administration has been shifted from the office of the district collector to the office of the Chairman of Zilla Parishad.

Consequently, a debate has been taking place regarding the question that who would be more powerful; District Collector or the Chairman of Zilla Parishad, so far as the domain of district administration is concerned.

Due to these dysfunctionalities district administration in India, like administration of other levels of the state, cannot achieve the attainable level of good governance. It is sure that good governance is not a final product. It represents a continuous quest and an endless effort. The quest is for mass prosperity and liberal democracy and the effort is towards sustaining and upgrading whatever level of good governance accomplished (Ray, Jayanta Kumar, 2001).

In order to reach at higher level of good governance different administrative set-up in India, including district administration was opted for decentralisation in administration. It is argued that good governance becomes successful through a decentralised administration. An important pillar of good governance is mass prosperity which may be achieved through various poverty alleviation programmes.

Given this evolutionary back ground, the present study tries to find out the present position of the district administration in Sikkim. It has already been stated that Sikkim has a distinctive socio-political and administrative history. It merged with India in 1975 and tries to assimilate the then administrative set-up in India and a regulatory administration became a developmental one. So, the researcher tries to find out whether the district administration in Sikkim also suffers from the above mentioned dysfunctionalities or not; if yes, whether that district administration gets only way out of the dysfunctionalities.

Models of Districts:

In the early part of the British rule, the Britishers believed in big district. They were of the opinion that the larger the district, the greater the economy of its administration and the higher the status and prestige of the district officer. However, they, towards the end of their rule, have increasingly realised the need for an optimum size of a district for which different criteria were laid down and various approaches were formed. According to the concept of optimum district the ideal size of a district should not be too big or too small. In a big district the administration can not reach to the people properly while a small district increases the expenditure of the state administration. But the question, what is the optimum size of a district, exact how much square kilometre should it acquire is yet to be decided. So, the theory of optimum district becomes less important while establishing the districts.

During colonial rule the British rulers created districts in India according to their own concept- own convenience. After attainment of independence, every unit state in India has resorted to the creation of new district solely for political reasons ignoring even the basic relation between their area and population and mounting cost of their administration. The Indian districts have its parallel or counterpart in Britain, USA, France, China, Malaysia, Nepal, Japan and Thailand also. As a district, so its parallels are also not uniform but widely differ in size both in area and population. The districts in this country conspicuously differ in their area and cover a number of agro-climatic zones and some of them are larger than states like Tripura, Sikkim, Nagaland, Manipur and Kerala (Sadasivan, 1988).

Despite arbitrary creation of districts, its administration can hardly overlook the role of the 'theory of local finality' in the life of its people. The theory of local finality offered for the district covers a wide range of matters

associated with the life of its inhabitants. The district has the characteristics of a sub-state and the capacity to meet almost every requirement of its inhabitants (Sadasivan, 1988). From time to time, many districts were bifurcated or split-up to create new districts but it was to give affect to the theory of local finality, transcending geographical impediments and other difficulties arisen in the way of administration. The differences in size of districts both in area and population are largely attributable to the natural preferences and to the extent of the effort at obtaining local finality (Sadasivan, 1988).

Professor Dayal, Mathur and Bhattacharyya have given another model of district administration. That model of district administration is developed after the footsteps of socio-technical systems approach in organisation. The socio-technical systems approach postulates that managerial command should include as a complete regiment of the task possible. The manager would be able to supervise the task only if he can command the totality of what resources are brought into the organisation (import), processing of these resources (conversion) and sending away what is converted outside its own work system (export). Such organisational analysis is facilitated by conceptualising work as a totality consisting of import-conversion-export. The organisation imports materials, transforms them by means of conversion process, consumes some of the products of conversion for internal maintenance and exports the rest. This process can always be identified in the total organisational or its sub-systems.

District administration today is working under the socio-technical model of organisation (Dayal, Mathur, and Bhattacharyya, 1976). It is opined that an administrative organisation, as much as a democratic society, must be concerned with growth and preservation and activities that ensure the rights and obligations of the members which are adequately maintained. They have segmented and labelled these tasks as productive, ministration and protective tasks of district administration. Each of the segments is concerned with

operating, maintenance and regulatory activities (Dayal, Mathur, and Bhattacharyya, 1976).

Among the tasks performed by the District Administration today, the following are concerned with production tasks:

- i) Agriculture and other occupations in the villages;
- ii) Part time activities for supplementing the income, such as poultry, dairy products, weaving etc.

The ministration tasks are:

- i) Education ,
- ii) Health and Social Services,
- iii) Revenue etc.

The protective activities are:

- i) Police,
- ii) Judicial functions.

All these functions are performed through import-conversion-export process.

The present study will try to find out that which of those approaches was working during the creation of districts in Sikkim. But since the study is bound by a time span that is 'Since 1975' and division of the territory of Sikkim into four districts was done before 1975, the focus of the present study will on whether there is any socio-cultural, agro-climatic and other difference among these four districts in Sikkim or not. If yes, what type of variation is it-is it a mere semantic variation?

Research Questions:

The present study intends to seek the answers of the following questions:

- i) Is the existing set-up of the district administration in Sikkim an imposed replica of British set-up?
- ii) Are the districts in Sikkim created following the “theory of local finality”?
- iii) Is the decentralised system of administration helpful to reach the desirable degree of good governance?
- iv) What is the impact of democracy, development and decentralisation on the district level administration in Sikkim?

Exploration of Existing Literature:

In his book **Anil Chaturvedi, (1988)** holds up the study of inter-organisational relations that become important, the bases of interaction among agencies, their pattern of interaction, and whether co-operation can be learnt by organisation. Chaturvedi opines that district is the locus of all developmental activities, revenue related activities and other activities relating to maintenance of law and order. Therefore, he confines himself at the district level in order to reach his goal, i.e. to explore the areas like bases of interaction among the agencies, their pattern of interaction etc. Chaturvedi’s work was based on four districts in Uttar Pradesh during late 80’s of the last century.

Khan (1997), in his book, not only describes the evolution of the office of the District Collector and its functions and role of the District Magistrate analyses the relation among development administration, local administration and

District Officer. On the perspective of this relation he up holds the need for change and reforms.

Dayal, Mathur and Bhattacharyya (1976) in their “District Administration: A Survey for Reorganisation” analysed the organisation of district administration. This book is divided into five chapters. The first chapter is the introductory part. The second chapter deals with the background of the district and its administrative organisation. Chapter three discusses about the organisational design for district administration. Chapter four provides a model for district administration. The last and the fifth chapter hold up the problems of implementing the new system. To give a new model of district administration, the writers analyse the socio-technical systems approach and holds up the import-conservation-export model for district administration.

Sadasivan (1988) nicely holds up the evolution of district administration as a principal unit of administration and the role of district collector in the district level co-ordination. He admits that the problems of co-ordination are too complex but it could be solved through necessary changes in the organisational set up.

Khera (1992) describes the administrative complex that goes to make up the district administration. He also identifies the components of district administration. The author analyses the district administration as an organic, integral and dynamic goal.

Dubey (1995) makes a comparative study of District administration taking three states considering their different status during the British colonial rule- one from Bengal Presidency, one from Madras Presidency and another from one of the Princely states. It analysed the functions of the District officer like land and revenue administration, elections, grievance and so on. It also explains the

magisterial functions of the sub-divisional Magistrate and upholds the type of politics at sub-divisional level.

Shukla (1976) depicts and analysed the administrative set-up from state to the level of village panchayats in India. Besides the administrative part he also deals with the land settlement, jails and judiciary, education, public health and even with forests.

M.A.S. Rajan (1990) has explained the changes those have taken place in case of district plan from independence to the present day. He also identifies the factors and forces those may help to formulate the district planes to be more conducive.

Misra (1983) deals with the evolutionary part of district administration from its creation in India till 1970's and with the alternatives to local bodies and rural development, such as, Community Development Programme, Panchayati Raj Institutions. He also holds up the personnel qualities and resources of district administration. He shows that all the administrative changes that occurred in India in case of district administration are related with the then prevailing social and economic conditions and demands of the time and during the process of change a considerable account of policy objectives and organisational problems emerged.

In the book of **Hooja and Arora (2007)** the contributors in this book deal with different approaches and models and their relevance and impact on the prevailing administrative set up. Various scholars in the field of public administration have been examined in relation to their opinions and critical appreciation of reality.

Eames and Saran (1982) examine the changing role of the district officer from the colonial times to the present day. They also analysed the factors and forces



those are responsible for the failure of the district officer in the developmental sectors.

The focus of rural development in India has been shifted from one issue to another over the years. It has been realised that the programmes of rural developments cannot be able to reach their intended destination until the rural masses take active part in it. **Lalitha (2004)** holds up the approaches and strategies adopted by the government, banks and NGOs in the field of rural developments, the recent trends and the programmes implemented under the departments of the Ministry of Rural Development.

Dubhashi (1970) depicts decentralisation as conducive to democracy. To him local self government is not indispensable for the community development. On the contrary, democracy, decentralisation and community development are inter-dependable to each other.

NGOs are one of the important links among the people at grassroots level as well as at the civil society and the state level. They play vital role to make people aware about the development schemes and, in many cases, also implement the policies. The contributors in the book edited by **Power, Ambedkar and Shrikant (2004)** deal with the role of the NGOs in creating aware among the people, particularly, their role as an agent of social change, developing the rural masses, defending human rights, ensuring peoples' participation etc.

The contributors, in the book edited by **Mehta and Shepherd (2006)**, uphold and analyse the chronic poverty in India and also indicate the causes of this chronic poverty, analyse the poverty among the senior citizens in India and also the gendered patterns of intra-household resource allocation. The book also analyses the government policies to eradicate poverty in India.

In the book of **Jean Dreze and Amartya Sen (1996)** the contributors nicely analysed different developmental issues in different parts of the country-Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal, and Kerala. Firstly, it deals with the ends, means and practical reasons for reforms; regional diversity and contrasts; intrinsic value and instrumental role of human capability and holds up a comparative study between China and India.

Sing (1995) understand rural development as a multi dimensional process. He describes rural development as the development of the socio-economic condition of the people residing in the rural areas; it also demands participation of the rural masses in the process of upliftment of their living conditions.

Muley (1987) opines rural development of the key concept of each stratum of administration in India. He analyses the power and functions of the PRIs and also suggest some steps to overcome the administrative hindrances to the working of the PRIs.

Sing (1998) is of the opinion that the PRIs play an important role in the process of development and reconstruction in rural India. So, according to him, increase in efficiency and effectiveness of the PRIs is required to carry out its functions properly.

Nayyar (1991) describes a state wise measurement of poverty in rural India covering the period from 1960-61 to 1983-84. In the first part, the author describes the relationships between poverty and malnutrition, disease and morbidity and the inadequacy of health and educational facilities. In the second part, he identifies reasons for inter-state differences in rural poverty, and tried to establish causality between poverty and each of the explanatory variables that emerge as significant. The living conditions of the rural agricultural workers are

also examined. The author nicely analyses the rural development programmes in India those are launched to eradicate poverty.

Satraj Aziz (1978) discusses the features of rural development based on Chinese approach. He upholds the basic objectives of rural development, the constraints on or linkages among and between objectives.

Anwer(1999) opines that it is only people's active participation that can make the rural development t programmes successful.

Sengupta, Miah and Yasin(2004) examine the effects of globalisation on rural development. They are of the opinion that rural development should be made dependent not on the state or state sponsored agencies but on the market and its forces.

Bagchi (ed) (2007) in his book makes an attempt to evaluate the empowerment programmes and policies in India as well as in the constituent states in India.

Good governance, according to **Singh (2002)**, is the corner stone of all round development of a modern democratic state. He opines that the hindrances to the good governance need to be taken care immediately.

Dutta and Sen (2009) analyse rural development as well as governance in India, particularly in West Bengal. They discuss here the role of civil society in meeting the challenges in governing the rural masses in India, through panchayati raj institutions, the gender issues in rural governance, democratic decentralisation, participatory planning and literacy, development and empowerment in rural West Bengal.

The strength and weakness of the concept of good governance has been examined by **Sangita(2002)**. She also examines the framework of good governance developed by international agencies.

The meaning and objectives of good governance in the context of social, political and economic needs are analysed by **Mukhopadhyay(1999)**. He also identifies the ways to meet the challenges of good governance.

Dwivedi and Mishra(2005) observe, in their article, the values essential for good governance. They also discuss the process and strategies of good governance with special reference to India. They hold up the factors responsible for poor governance and wide spread corruption.

Munshi and Abraham (2004) discuss good governance in democratic societies in the context of globalisation from a cross cultural perspective. The rich culture and the new aspirations of India and European Union are discussed and are tried to make an attempt to know what they can learn from each other.

Ashok Mukhopadhyay (1999) in his article 'Reinventing Government for Good Governance' intends to explore the concept of good governance. He upholds the objectives line behind the present context of social, political and economic needs of government. He feels a need to established and strengthen rule of law with a suggestion to reinvent the process of government.

S.N. Mishra and Sweta Mishra(1999) in their joint article discuss the conceptual issues regarding good governance and people's participation. They observe the probabilities and obstacles to people's participation in the local self governments even after the introduction of the 73rd and 74th Constitution Amendment Acts. They also identify the role of the NGOs in involving the common masses in the process of decision making and at the same time ensure a higher level of good governance.

Muttalib and Khan (1982) discuss local government on the basis of broad socio-economic and political boundary of its operation. They deal with the concepts like popular participation, partnership etc. which analysing the decentralised development.

S.N. Mishra(1995) is of the opinion that the local authorities should be involved more and more in the decision making process to strengthen the functioning of the local self-government.

Girish Kumar (2006) intends to a discussion on the comparative history of decentralisation in India with a view to understand its impact on democratisation. He covers the issues like empowerment of the people through the Panchayats, strengthening democracy at the local level, the reservation policy that has created space for the weaker section of people including the woman and the level of satisfaction of the people with the performance of the Panchayats.

Lieten (2003) holds up provocative insights in the day to day life of the common people in various villages in India. In this book the author dealt with the working of panchayats in West Bengal, Uttar Pradesh. The impact of land reforms on development and the causes of the high human development index in Kerala, the communal activity in villages the opinion of the common people on the post modernist views of development, child labour and the views of their families on child labour are also analysed in this book.

Nirmal Mukherji (1993), in his article ‘Third Stratum’ analyse the debate whether the Panchayats are the instruments for development or only an example of local-self government.

Abhijit Dutta (1996) in his article discuss the objective and methods of empowering the local self government he makes a comparative analysis among Brazil, Nigeria and India—the three countries belonging to third world from three different continents. However, **Dutta (1989)** in a thought provoking paper analyses the proposal of Nirmal Mukherjee and offer an alternative model of local self government.

Bhatnagar (1978) is the opinion that there are generally two reasons behind the implementation of local self-government—a) administrative deconcentration and b) decentralisation. The local self-government created for administrative deconcentration does not have any authority of its own while decentralisation empowers the local self-government to decide over things within its jurisdiction.

Despite the introduction of 73rd and 74th Constitutional Amendment Acts., **Subramanyan (2002)** observes that there are some obstacles to strengthen the local self-government. To him, it is the lack of politico-administrative will. He, therefore, recommends for removing these types of obstacles in order to strengthen the local self-government.

George Mathew (1994) observes that the over centralised tendency of Indian federation gives birth to the demand for decentralisation and that resulted in the introduction of 73rd and 74th Constitution Amendment Acts. **Mathew (2003)** describes the panchayati raj as a significant agency for decentralised governance in India. It is instrumental to the enforcement of human rights. To him an elected Panchayat body can enrich political culture.

S. R. Maheshwari (1971) while analysing the structure and function of the rural and urban local self-government in India identifies the major causes of inefficiency and ineffectiveness of the local self-government.

Joshi and Narwani (2005) show how the empowerment of the women and the weaker section of the people through the reservation policy bring changes in the socio-economic and politico-cultural sphere of these sections of the society. They discuss the procedure to strength the Panchayati Raj Institutions by identifying the weaknesses of them and taking care of the lacunae those are still there in spite of the constitutionalisation of the PRIs.

Jayal, Prakash and Sharma (2006): analyses the complexity of local governance both in rural and urban areas in India. The essays in this volume illuminate some aspects of interaction between the Panchayats and other institutions of local government like district administration or other parastatal agencies and the civil society organisations.

To Rao (1990) the existence of panchayati raj institutions helps people's participation in decision making process.

Bhargava (1979) is of the opinion that political development and democracy depends on the local leadership as well as on the functioning of the panchayati raj institutions.

Meenakshisundaram (1994) makes an attempt to analyse the on-going process of people's participation in public governance through democratically decentralised local bodies.

Sweta Mishra (2003) analyses the areas of development in the process of decentralisation and also holds up the problems of its implementation.

Singh and Sharma (ed.) (2007) review the select state models of decentralisation in the state and analyse the form of development through democratic process in the institutions of local governments. The essays in this book show how the concept of decentralisation influences the social structure, how the lives of rural India are changing through the rural transformation.

Decentralisation according to **Mathur (1997)** is something technical. He holds in his book that the planning process can be developed through decentralisation. It is the planning from the grass-root level that can make a proper developed society.

Rondinelli (1981) analyse the issues of decentralisation, its rationale, procedures of devolution, and the pre-conditions for successful implementation of decentralisation on the basis of the experience of Sudan.

Neil Webster (1992) looks upon decentralisation as political phenomena. To him, decentralisation is a tool that helps the state to be responsive and adaptable to the local needs.

In the opinion of **Prabhat Dutta (1994)** people can participate in local self government through the process of democratic decentralisation. **Dutta (1998)** holds that the tilt of Indian federation to a centralised administration creates a serious threat to the grass-root democracy. In order to strengthen the local self-government, the states should be made powerful. *He argues for more devolution of power to the local bodies for their success.*

Rajani Kothari (1991) opines that the political system in a country like India leads to dissipation, erosion and disintegration without implementation of democracy and decentralisation.

Udai Pareek(1989) illuminates the connotations and context of decentralisation. He also analyses the interrelation between democracy and decentralisation, dimensions of power sharing, functions and dysfunctions and the prerequisites for the success of decentralisation.

Baviskar, B.S. and George Mathew (2009) opine that exclusion is still the hallmark of the system of local government even after approximately 20 years of their performance as a constitutionalised body. The essays in their edited book focus on the issue of inclusion and exclusion. The contributors also address the question of empowerment of the SCs, STs and the women.

Noore Alam Siddiquee (1996) analyses the theoretical framework of decentralisation. He shows that the theorists have different conflicting view

about the applicability and potentials of the concept of decentralisation in the third world countries.

T. M. Thomas Isaac & Richard W. Franke (2000) make an analytical study of the stories of democracy and decentralization in Kerala. It shows the process of people's participation in developing the state. The gradual changes of focus from state level to grass-root level in the process of plan formulation and implementation.

Other than the theoretical part the researcher also explore the literatures, although limited in number, on constitutional and political development in Sikkim and democratic decentralisation and panchayati raj institutions in Sikkim. Since there is not a single book on district administration in Sikkim, so far the knowledge of the researcher goes, has no way other than exploring the above mentioned materials. Moreover, district administration is a part of the political and social set-up of a state, so to review the constitutional and political development in Sikkim, to study democratic decentralisation and panchayati raj institution is also relevant here.

B.S.Das (1983) vividly depicts the stories that led to the merger of Sikkim to India. The author offers a firsthand report of the period of turmoil in Sikkim from 1973 to 1975, the year of merger. The author faithfully holds up the factors and forces those played important role behind the merger. He also told the stories of three ladies, Indira Gandhi, Hope Cooke and Elina Maria who had important role in shaping the political future of the state.

Nirmalanada Sengupta (1985) offers a thought provoking analysis of the facts lying behind the merger of Sikkim to India. The author in this book analysed

the geo-political as well as economic foundation of the society; the electoral process and behaviour; the role of the pressure groups and political parties during the time of integration. At the same time, the author deals with, the role of the organs of the government- legislative- executive and judiciary during pre as well as post merger period.

M. P. Lama (2001) in his book offers an in-depth analysis of various index of development with statistic up to the year of 2001.

Yasin, Mohammad and Durga P. Chhetri (ed.) (2012) offer multi-disciplinary views to analyse various socio-political and economic aspects of this unique state of Indian Union. The eminent scholars in different fields discuss different issues relating to politics, society and economic and also educational development at the grass-root level in Sikkim.

Chhetri (2012) nicely explains the decentralised governance and development in India with special reference to Sikkim. He offers a detailed view on the concept of decentralisation in the process of administration in Sikkim as well as the performance of the rural development programmes those are implemented in that state.

Shresta (2005) upholds the performance of democracy in Sikkim from the year 1975. In his book he offers various government documents that can depict the stories performance of the democratic administration in that state.

Ethnicity as an issue of social movements is gaining importance day by day in all over India. **Suresh Kumar Gurung (2011)** holds up the fact that, like other parts of India, in Sikkim also politics played a determinate role in the creation of ethnic consciousness rather than ethnic communities creating the consciousness.

Bhowmik and Bhattacharyya (1977) in their joint article analyse the Constitutional and the Political Development in Sikkim. The authors discuss the constitutional development as well as political development from 1953 till merger of Sikkim with India. This article helps the researcher to understand the unique constitutional and political set up of the state. In another article, **Bhowmik and Bhattacharyya (1977)** describe the factors and forces behind the story of merger of Sikkim with India. At first, the authors depict the political development of Sikkim. Secondly, they deal with the development of administration and thirdly, they uphold the process of administration of development up to the year of 1977-78.

Bhowmik and Dhamala (1982) show the process of transformation of an autocratic state into a democratic one and the role of Panchayati Raj Institutions to make the government power decentralised one. The process of democratic decentralization has been started in Sikkim during the period of Maharaja and with the changing demands and aspirations of the local people the form of institutions for decentralization has been changed. In order to analyse the process of democratic decentralisation this article upholds the programmes and policies from Community Development Programme to Panchayati Raj Institutions including the recommendations of Balwantrai Mehta Study Team and Ashok Mehta Committee.

D. S. Bhattacharjee (1994) intent to holdup the prevailing conditions in post merger Sikkim and brings out the imagine pattern of the society and polity in Sikkim.

Justification of the Problem:

There are several reasons for carrying the present study.

First, works have so far been done on Constitutional and political development in Sikkim, Democratic decentralisation and Panchayati raj in Sikkim, Political and administrative development in Sikkim, Local self-government and democratic Decentralisation in Sikkim, even on Religions and Cultural aspects of Sikkim. There is no work on district administration as such.

Second, before 1975, Sikkim was under a Monarchical form of Government and after its merger with India it gradually accepted the development oriented administration. As such, there seemed to exist a research gap as to how an autocratic set-up gradually did transform into democratic set-up.

Third, at present, the most discussed programmes in the developing countries are the rural development programmes. In Sikkim also not less than 70% of its population live in poverty. Therefore, it is thought wise to study and evaluate how the upliftment of the rural masses is being carried out under the leadership of the district administration in Sikkim.

Fourth, one of the researchers, Ms Ranju Rani Dhamale has done a very well appreciated work on local Self- Government and democratic Decentralisation in Sikkim. The researcher was interesting to know the impact of 73rd and 74th constitution amendment acts, 1992 on the same aspect for the above mentioned reasons district level development administration in Sikkim.

Furthermore, the present study confines itself with 'District Level Development Administration'. District is the most viable unit in India. One can find the replica of state government at the district level. So, the study focuses on district level.

And the concept of 'development administration' is not a new one. It is the goal oriented action- oriented administration. In the third world countries development administration becomes popular now. It concludes that type of

administration which is other than routine work of the administrators i.e. maintenance of law order try to reach to the people. The district level development administration denotes the administrative set-up that established after the passing of 73rd and 74th constitution amendment acts, 1992.

Methodology:

The present study is basically an exploratory one with the purpose to study the overall pattern of 73rd and 74th constitution amendment acts in a state which has its own unique characteristics. For the purpose, relevant information will be collected from the official records and documents. An empirical study will also be carried out primarily based on questionnaire followed up by interviews with the officials associated with the district administration, politicians and citizens in Sikkim. Selection of respondents has been done with the help of random sampling.

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CHAPTER-II

SIKKIM: THE 22ND STATE OF INDIA

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Sikkim, the small landlocked Indian state is located in the Himalayan Mountains. It is linked with the Indian Union through its southern part. Being a land locked state Sikkim had to depend on the external powers throughout its history. Till 18th century, it depended, for its entity, both for Tibet and China. During the 19th century it had to depend on the British authority in India and ultimately, it became the protectorate of India during the first half of the 20th century (Bhaumik & Bhattacharyya, 1977). Finally, in the year 1975, with the passing of 36th Constitution Amendment Act, Sikkim became the 22nd state of Indian Union.

The state of Sikkim covers an area of 7096sq.kms with around 607,000 inhabitants as of 2011 census report. So Sikkim is the least populous state in India and the second-smallest state after Goa. Sikkim borders Nepal to the west, China occupied Tibet to the north and east, and Bhutan to the south-east and the state of West Bengal lies to the south.

Table: 2.1

Population growth in Sikkim

Census	Pop.	%±
1951	138,000	—
1961	162,000	17.4%
1971	210,000	29.6%
1981	316,000	50.5%
1991	406,000	28.5%
2001	541,000	33.3%
2011	607,688	12.3%

Source: Census of India, 2011

Sikkim is India's least populous state, with 607,688 inhabitants according to the 2011 census. Sikkim is also one of the least densely populated Indian states, with only 86 persons per square kilometre. However, it has a high population growth rate, averaging 12.36% between 2001 and 2011. The sex ratio is 889 females per 1000 males, with a total of 321,661 males and 286,027 females recorded in 2011. With 50,000 inhabitants, the capital Gangtok is the only significant town in the mostly rural state; the urban population in Sikkim constitutes around 11.06% of the total. The per capita income in Sikkim stands at Rs. 11,356 which is one of the highest in the country.(www.web.archive.org)

The native Sikkimese consists of the Bhutias, who migrated from the Kham district of Tibet in the 14th century, and the Lepchas, who are believed to have migrated from the Far East. However, the Nepalese constitute the majority population in the state. Tibetans reside mostly in the northern and eastern regions of the state. Migrant resident communities include Biharis, Bengalis and Marwaris. They are prominent in commerce in South Sikkim and in Gangtok. (<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sikkim>)

Table: 2. 2

Sikkim at a glance

Country	:	India
Established	:	on 16 May 1975
Capital	:	Gangtok
Largest City	:	Gangtok
Districts	:	4

Legislature	:	Unicameral (32 seats)
Total Area	:	7,096 km ² (2,740 sq miles)
Population (2011)	:	607,688
Density	:	86/km ² (220 sq mile)
Literacy	:	76.6 % (7th)
Official languages	:	Nepali (lingua franca), Bhutia, Lepcha (since 1977), Limbu (since 1981), Newari, Rai, Gurung, Mangar, Sherpa, Tamang (since 1995) and Sunwar (since 1996)

Sikkim is nonetheless geographically diverse due to its location in the Himalayas; the climate ranges from subtropical to high alpine. Kanchenjunga, the world's third-highest peak, is located on Sikkim's border with Nepal. Sikkim is a popular tourist destination, owing to its culture, scenery and biodiversity. It also has the only open land border between India and China. Sikkim's capital and largest city is Gangtok.

There are so many theories prevailing regarding the origin of the name of the state, Sikkim. The most accepted theory of the name Sikkim is that it is a combination of two Limbu words: 'su', which means 'new', and 'khyim', which means 'palace' or 'house'. The name is believed to be a reference to the palace built by the first ruler of the state, Phuntsog Namgyal. Besides, other inhabitants of the state have different other names of the state in their own language. The Tibetan name for Sikkim is Denjong, which means 'valley of rice'. The Lepcha

people, the original inhabitants of Sikkim, called it 'Nye-mae-el', meaning 'paradise' while the Bhutias call it 'Beyul Demazong', which means the 'hidden valley of rice'. In Hindu religious texts, Sikkim is known as 'Indrakil', the garden of the war god Indra. (<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sikkim>)

The state of Sikkim is characterized by mountainous terrain. Almost the entire state is hilly, with an elevation ranging from 800 feet to 28,280 feet (Chhetri, 2012). The summit of Kangchenjunga - the world's third-highest peak - is the state's highest point, situated on the border between Sikkim and Nepal. For the most part, the land is unfit for agriculture because of the rocky, precipitous slopes. However, some hill slopes have been converted into terrace farms. Numerous snow-fed streams have carved out river valleys in the west and south of the state. These streams combine into the major Teesta River and its tributary, the Rangeet, which flow through the state from north to south.

The Himalayan Mountains surround the northern, eastern and western border of Sikkim. The state has 28 mountain peaks, more than 80 glaciers, 227 high-altitude lakes, including the Tsongmo, Gurudongmar and Khecheopalri Lakes, five major hot springs, and more than 100 rivers and streams. Eight mountain passes connect the state to Tibet, Bhutan and Nepal (W <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sikkim>).

Sikkim's hot springs are renowned for their medicinal and therapeutic values. Among the state's most notable hot springs are those at Phurchachu, Yumthang, Borang, Ralang, Taram-chu and Yumey Samdong. The springs, which have a high sulphur content, are located near river banks; some are known to emit hydrogen. The average temperature of the water in these hot springs is 50 °C (122 °F) (<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sikkim>).

Sikkim is the only state in India with an ethnic Nepali majority. Sikkim has eleven official languages: Nepali, Bhutia, Lepcha, Limbu, Newari, Rai, Gurung, Mangar, Sherpa, Tamang and Sunwar. English is taught in schools and used in government documents. The predominant religions are Hinduism and Vajrayana Buddhism. Sikkim's economy is largely dependent on agriculture and tourism, and as of 2011 the state has the fourth-smallest GDP among Indian states, (<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sikkim>) although it is also among the fastest-growing states in India.

Sikkim's nominal state gross domestic product (GDP) was estimated at \$730 million in 2010. It constitutes the fourth-smallest GDP of an Indian state (Bell, 1987). The state's economy is largely agrarian, based on the terraced farming of rice and the cultivation of crops such as maize, millet, wheat, barley, oranges, tea and cardamom. Sikkim has the highest production of cardamom in India, as well as the largest cultivated area of cardamom (Crossette, 1996). Because of its hilly terrain, and the lack of transport infrastructure, Sikkim lacks a large-scale industrial base. Brewing, distilling, tanning and watch making are the main industries, and are mainly located in the southern regions of the state, primarily in the towns of Melli and Jorethang. Despite the state's minimal industrial infrastructure, Sikkim's economy has been among the fastest-growing in India since 2000, with the state's GDP expanding by over 13% in 2007. Elaichi and the cardamom seeds are the only cash crops in Sikkim (<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sikkim>).

The ancient history of Sikkim is not so much known to us. According to the legend, Guru Rinpuche, the Buddhist saint passed through and blessed the land in the 9th century and introduced Buddhism to Sikkim. During the 13th century, Guru Tashi, a prince from the Mi-nyak House in Eastern Tibet, settled down in the Chumbi Valley in Sikkim (www.en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_Sikkim). The modern history of Sikkim is started with Phuntsog Namgyal, the

fifth generation descendant of Guru Tashi, in the year 1642. Phuntsog Namgyal was consecrated to the throne by three lamas, viz., Lhatsun Chhembo, Sempah Chhembo and Rigdzin Chhembo (Chhetri, 2012).

Phuntsog Namgyal was succeeded in 1670 by his son, Tensung Namgyal. In the year 1700 Sikkim was invaded by Bhutanese with the help of the half-sister of the Chogyal, who had been denied the throne. The Bhutanese were driven away by the Tibetans, who restored the throne to the Chogyal. Between 1717 to 1733, the kingdom had gone through many raids by the Nepalese as well as the Bhutanese that culminated with the destruction of the capital Rabdentse by the Nepalese (Singh, 1985). In 1791, China sent troops to support Sikkim and defend Tibet against the Gurkhas. Following Nepal's subsequent defeat, the Chinese Qing Dynasty established control over Sikkim (Singh, 1985).

Following the beginning of British rule in neighbouring India, Sikkim allied with Britain against their common enemy, Nepal. The Nepalese attacked Sikkim, overrunning most of the region including the Terai. This prompted the British East India Company to attack Nepal, resulting in the Gurkha War of 1814 (Jha, 1985). Treaties signed between Sikkim and Nepal resulted in the return of the territory annexed by the Nepalese in 1817. However, ties between Sikkim and the British weakened when the latter began taxation of the Morang region. In 1849, two British physicians, Sir Joseph Dalton Hooker and Dr. Archibald Campbell, the latter being in charge of relations between the British and Sikkim governments, ventured into the mountains of Sikkim unannounced and unauthorised (Blackwood, 1890). The doctors were detained by the Sikkim government, leading to a punitive British expedition against the kingdom, after which the Darjeeling district and Morang were annexed to British India in 1853. The invasion led to the Chogyal of Sikkim becoming a titular ruler under the directive of the British governor. In 1890, Sikkim became a British protectorate,

and was gradually granted more sovereignty over the next three decades (<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sikkim>).

There was no effort to change the politico-administrative set-up in Sikkim so long as it was under the influence of the British authority. They maintained the stagnant conditions of social orthodoxy, political tyranny and economic backwardness. The British colonial power in India also would not deliberately disturb the internal administration in Sikkim. The feudal class also used to provide solid obstacle to change because they received much more returns from the existing system.

After Indian independence:

In course of time different interesting political developments were also taking place in Sikkim. The Indian struggles for freedom, which culminated in the winning of independence in 1947, inspired the educated and intelligent Sikkimese to set the machine to action for doing away with the yoke of feudalism and to bring in the refreshing wind of democracy in the political sphere. Three political parties emerged during this time. However, the parties has no cohesive action and set goal. But they had at least two demands in common; firstly, that of abolition of landlordism and secondly, establishment of popular Government.

The newly educated elites identified the peasants as the worst victims of social oppression, economic exploitation and political tyranny. During this period of time several associations were created to improve the status of peasants. Among this association the most important were Praja Sudharak Samaj led by Tashi Yshiring, Praja Sammelan by Gobardhan Pradhan and Dhan Bahadur Tewari and Praja Mandal led by Kazi Lhendup Dorji Khangsarp rku and the Praja Mandal at Chakhung, these three pioneer associations of Sikkim (Sengupta, 1985).

The Praja Sudark Samaj at Gangtok, the Praja Sammelan at Yemi Ya ultimately merged together and gave rise to a new party, the Sikkim State Congress with Tashi Tsering, most respected leader of the time as the President. The Sikkim State Congress put forward three demands to the Maharaja. The leader requested the Maharaja to give effect to abolition of landlordism, formation of an interim Government as a necessary precursor of democratic and responsible government and accession of Sikkim to the Indian union (Sengupta, 1985).

The Maharaja's formal reaction was to consider two demands from the three mentioned above—abolition of landlordism and introduction of responsible Government – and to urge to drop the third one, that is, Sikkim's accession to India. But the informal effort of the then Maharaja was to politicise other forces in Sikkim so as to oppose all the three demands. These other forces were constituted of orthodox and traditional Bhutia-Lepchas, the Kazis and the hereditary landlords of Sikkim, these forces, ultimately, in 1948 organized the Sikkim National Party (Bhaumik & Bhattacharyya, 1977).

During that period India become independent of the British Colonial Power. The relation between Sikkim and free India was to be defined. In Feb, 1948, a standstill Agreement was signed between Sikkim and India pending conclusion of a new treaty. In March, 1950 the Government of India issued a press note indicating the principles upon which the new treaty would be based. And on this basis a treaty was signed on December 1950, between India and Sikkim. This treaty confirmed the status of Sikkim as the protectorate of India. The Government of India would look after its external relations, defence and communication. Sikkim would continue to enjoy autonomy in the internal matters. However, the ultimate responsibility for the maintenance of good administration and law and order would remain in the hands of the Government of India. It was also stated that an officer of the Government of India will

continue to be Dewan of the state. It was also proposed that an Advisory Council, representative of all the interest should be associated with the Dewan. It was also proposed that effort would be made to institute a village Panchayat system on an elective basis within the state. However this treaty could not satisfy the leaders and supporters of the Sikkim State Congress. The demand of this political party, from its inception was to establish a popular Government with the help of India (Sengupta, 1985).

Ultimately, the Maharaja of Sikkim could not overlook the demand of a popular Government. On the basis of all-party agreement, regarding the electorate and the method of election, the Maharaja issued a Proclamation in March, 1953 which postulates the composition and functions of the State Council and Executive Council. Section 2 of the Proclamation provides that "There shall be constituted a state Council for the State of Sikkim." Section 3 states the composition of the Council. It holds that there shall be a President of the Council and he shall be appointed by Maharaja. There would be 12 elected members, of whom six shall be either Sikkim Bhutia, or Lepcha and the remaining six shall be Sikkim Nepalese. There would be other five nominated members also. They would be nominated by His Highness the Maharaja in his discretion. Election of the members of State Council was to be based on the universal adult franchise. It will enjoy a tenure of three years. Before stipulated time the Maharaja could dissolve the State Council. The meeting of the State Council was to be presided by the President of the Council and it should be summoned to meet at least two times in every year. Section 13 holds that "Subject to the assent of the Maharaja, the State Council: shall have power to enact laws for the peace, order and good government of Sikkim. Provided that the State Council shall not without the previous sanction of the Maharaja make, or take into consideration, any law affecting any matter hereinafter defined as a reserved subject." The Proclamation also mentioned eight items as reserved subjects. These are —

- i) Ecclesiastical
- ii) External Affairs
- iii) State enterprises
- iv) Home and Police
- v) Finance
- vi) Land Revenue
- vii) Rationing
- viii) Establishment (Shresta, 2005)

According to Section 19 of the Proclamation there shall be constituted a Executive Council for the state. The members of the executive council shall hold office during the Maharaja's pleasure and shall be responsible to him for the executive and administrative function of Government. The Executive Council shall consist of the Dewan by virtue of the office which he holds under the Maharaja and other elected members of State Council as may be appointed by the Maharaja from time to time. Dewan shall be the President of the Executive Council and in his absence this Council may be presided by such person as may be appointed by the Maharaja. According to Section 21 of the Proclamation, "All or any of the following departments may be entrusted to the charge of elected members of the Executive Council, each of whom shall be individually responsible to the State Council for the administration of the Department entrusted to him:-

- ☼ Education
- ☼ Public Health
- ☼ Excise

- ☀ Bazaars
- ☀ Transport
- ☀ Forests
- ☀ Public Worker (Shresta, 2005)

All members of the Executive Council other than the Dewan would retire from office at the Commencement of the first session of each new State Council but shall be eligible for reappointment.

A new chapter in the constitutional history of the state was opened in 1953 with first election in Sikkim. The entire state was divided into four territorial constituencies, namely, Gangtok constituency, North Central constituency, Namchi constituency and Pamayangtse constituency. From each constituency three representatives were to be elected. Out of three seats two were reserved for Bhutia, Lepcha community and one was for Nepalese in case of Gangtok and North Central constituencies and in case of other two the provision was just reverse of the former two (Shresta, 2005).

The Nepali candidates were to be elected directly by the voters during the elections. However in case of the Bhutia, Lepcha candidates the provision was different. They were to be elected first in a primary election. Four Bhutia - Lepcha candidates were to be elected in the primary election each from Gangtok and the North Central Constituencies and the number would be two each from Namchi and Pemayangtse Constituencies. Then the final elections were to be conducted. Some conditions must be fulfilled to be a member of the state Council. A member must be at least 30 years of age on a date which might be specified for that purpose and must have a fixed habitation in Sikkim having all the other qualifications of a Voter (Shresta, 1985).

Four parties, Namely, Sikkim State Congress, National Party, Rajya Praja Sammelan, Scheduled Caste League took part in the 1953 elections. The positions of these parties in the first Sikkim State Council can be shown in the following table:

TABLE-2.3

Result of the first general Election,1953

Name of the Parties	Number of the Seats Contested	Number of the seats secured
Sikkim State Congress	6	6
National Party	12	6
Rajya Praja Sammelan	5	0
Scheduled Caste League	2	0

Source: Materials furnished by the Election Office, Gangtok, from the available documents (Sengupta, 1985)

In this election all the six Bhutia-Lepcha Seats were secured by the National Party and all six Nepali seats by the Sikkim State Congress. The other two parties Rajya Praja Sammelan and Scheduled Caste League failed to win any single seat.

The tenure of the State Council was fixed for three years. However the second elections in Sikkim were held in 1958. Through a new proclamation in 1958 the membership of the State Council was enlarged and number was raised to twenty. Six seats were reserved for the Bhutia-Lepcha community and six for the Nepalese. Three candidates were to be elected from the four constituencies mentioned earlier. One seat was reserved for the Sangha. This

representative was to be elected by the Lamas belonging to the monasteries recognized by the Sikkim Darbar. Another seat was declared as “General” with the whole territory of Sikkim serving as the single constituency (Sengupta, 1985). It is to be mentioned that the Indians settled in Sikkim could not participate in the elections.

41 candidates contested in the elections of 1958. The community wise break up of the contestant in different constituencies can be shown through the following table:

TABLE-2.4

**Community wise break up of the contestants
in the second general election,1958**

Name of the Constituency	No. of Seats	Total No. of Contestants	No. of Nepali	No. of Contestant from Bhutia-Lepcha Community
1. Sangha	1	2	----	-----
2.General	1	3	2	1
3.Pemayangtse	3	9	6	3
4. Namchi	3	9	6	3
5.North Central	3	8	3	5
6. Gangtok	3	10	3	7

Source: Sikkim Darbar Gazette, Vol. VIII, No. 5, October, 1958, Notification No. 5(63) 58/CE, dated, 18-10-1958 (Sengupta, 1985)

The systems of elections in 1958 were much more complicated and communal also. In this complicated mechanism a candidate from one

community securing the highest number of votes may not be declared as elected if he did not get the highest number of votes of his own community. A candidate to be declared as elected must secure at least 15 percent vote of other community also. Due to these complications the representatives were not selected properly in the elections of 1958.

The third election of Sikkim was held in 1967. On the basis of all party agreement certain changes were made in 1953 proclamations. Consequently, the total number of members in the Sikkim state council was increased from 20 to 24. The state was divided into the five constituencies, namely – Gangtok Town Constituency, East Constituency, South Constituency, West Constituency and North Constituency. 14 members were to be elected from these five Constituencies. Of these 14 seats 7 were reserved for the Bhutia-Lepcha Community and 7 were for the Nepalese. From the General Constituency three members were to be elected of which one was reserved for the Scheduled Castes, one for the Tsongs and the other was General. The Sangha seats were to be elected by the Electoral College composed of the Sanghas. Part from this, there was the provision for six members who were to be nominated by the Chogyal (Sengupta, 1985).

A total number of 87 candidates filed their nominations for 18 elective seats. The community wise break up of the contestants in this election can be shown in the following table:

TABLE-2.5

**Community wise break up of the contestants
in the Third General Election,1967**

Sl. No.	Name of the Constituency	Number of Seats	No. Of Nepali contestants	No. Of Bhutia-Lepcha contestants
1.	Gangtok Town	1B.L.+1 Nepali	4	3
2.	East Constituency	2B.L.+1 Nepali	3	6
3.	South Constituency	1B.L.+2 Nepali	6	2
4.	West Constituency	1B.L.+2 Nepali	6	2
5.	North Constituency	2B.L.+1 Nepali	4	3
6.	General Constituency	1	1	2

Source: Sikkim Darbar Gazette, Ex.Gaz.No.13, dated 3-2-1967(Sengupta, 1985)

The Sikkim National party, National Congress, State Congress and the Sikkim Scheduled Caste League contested in the elections. Sikkim National Congress won the majority securing eight seats out of eighteen elective seats. The National Party won in five seats and the Sikkim State Congress secured two seats only.

The fourth general elections in Sikkim State Council were held in 1970. On the eve of this election Kazi Lhendup Dorji demanded the formation of own independent and separate Election Commission in lieu of existing Election Committee. However, nothing has been changed during these elections, so far as the rules, regulations, membership and constituencies are concerned. During the end of 1969 a new party, namely, Sikkim Janata Party came into the political scenario of Sikkim. Both the Sikkim National Congress and Sikkim State Congress demanded for written Constitution and for more democracy.

The result of the fourth general elections can be shown in the following table:

TABLE-2.6

Result of the Fourth General Elections, 1970

Name of the Party	No. of seats secured
1. National Party	07
2. Sikkim National Congress	05
3. State Congress	04
4. Sangha	01
5. General(Tsong) – Independent	01

Source: Sikkim Darbar Gazette, Ex. Gaz. No, 35, dated 14.05.1970 (Sengupta, 1985)

The fifth general elections were held in 1973. It was the last elections in Sikkim under the status of a protectorate state. In this election the membership of the State Council and the number of Constituencies were same as the

previous elections. During this period, the political scenario of Sikkim was becoming very complex. The pro-Darbar forces were consolidating on one hand and on the other; other parties continued their struggle for more democracy and more participation of the people in the governing process. During 1972 the Sikkim State Congress and Sikkim Janata Party merged together and the Sikkim Janata Congress was born. Three political parties namely, the Sikkim National Party, the Sikkim Janata Congress and Sikkim National Congress participated in this election.

The following table has shown the result of the fifth elections in Sikkim:

TABLE-2.7

Result of the Fifth General Elections, 1973

Name of the Party	No. of seats secured
1. Sikkim National Party	09
2. National Congress	05
3. Janata Congress	02
4. Independent (S.C. Constituency)	01
5. Sangha	01

Source: Sikkim Darbar Gazette, Ex. Gaz. No. 29, dated 15.02.1973

(Sengupta, 1985)

Before the discussions on the post elections political scenario, we should look at the Bureaucratic system existed in the then Sikkim. The Bureaucrats have their origin in the regime of Puntso Namgyal who had divided Sikkim into twelve Dzong (Fort Areas – as the administrative unit) and placed them under

twelve Lepcha Dzongpens (Dhamala, 1985). Actually, this incident made the beginning of the dual administration mechanism in which the limited bureaucracy and a half-bred aristocracy ruled over Sikkim. Till 1950 the central administration in Sikkim was under the supervision of a secretariat Consisted of members answerable to the council and Maharaja. Barring a few, higher Civil Servants were recruited mainly from the aristocracy – those who had a background of religious and liberal education. No competitive tests were administered for filling even higher posts in the Government.

The appointment of Dewan in 1949 made room for bureaucratization of Sikkim on non-lamatist pattern. Sikkim was divided into two tehsils (the revenue district); East & West. And in order to carry out the first seven year plan (1954 – 1961) properly and successfully Sikkim was divided into four districts with district official: North (Mangan), West (Geyzing), South (Namchi) and East (Gangtok). The administration was run by the secretariat headed by the Chief Secretary under whom the departmental secretaries of finance, revenue, trade and industry, Panchayat and various other directors functions. The recruitments to the higher civil service are made on personal consideration (Sinha, 1975). Various posts of civil service in Sikkim had been distributed between the Bhutia-Lepcha and Nepalese in such a way that it can maintain a balance between the two. The representation communities in the senior position of carrier level may be shown in the following table:

TABLE-2.8**Representation of the Communities in Civil Service**

Serial No.	Position	Communities
1.	The Chief Secretary	Bhutia-Lepcha
2.	Secretary to the Chogyal	Do
3.	Finance Secretary	Do
4.	Establishment Secretary	Do
5.	The Auditor General	Nepalese
6.	Home Secretary	Do
7.	The Chief Engineer	Do
8.	The Conservator of Forest	Do
9.	The Police Commissioner	Bhutia-Lepcha (C.S.)
10.	Industries Secretary	Bhutia-Lepcha (S.C.)

Source: Bhaumik & Bhattacharyya, 1977

The fifth elections to the State Council in Sikkim became the turning point in the political history of Sikkim. During the counting of votes the representatives of Sikkim National Congress and the Sikkim Janata Congress complained against the officers on election duty. They accused that the officers on election duty were pro-palace and pro-National Party in nature. The representatives of the above said parties denied to join the Executive Council though didn't refuse to be nominated as a member of that council by the

Chogyal himself. The demands like popular government, written constitution, fundamental rights and universal franchise brought the Sikkim State Congress and Sikkim Janata Party more closely. They formed a Joint Action Committee with Kazi Lhendup Dorji as Chairman (Sengupta, 1985). The Committee urged upon the Chogyal to fulfill their demand, otherwise they would launch mass movement.

The Darbar just ignored the appeal of the Joint Action Committee. And as a result of this incident a mass agitation started. The Darbar's administrations virtually collapsed and in the east and south people established a 'Janata Raj'. Failing to control the situation the Chogyal requested the Government of India to take over the administration and maintain law and order within the State. Consequently Indian army took the responsibility of the law and order in Sikkim and the Political Officer took the charge of administration. Later on The Government of India sent Mr. B. S. Das as the Chief Administrator of Sikkim.

No block involved in the affairs of Sikkim could ignore the fact that some constitutional reforms had become necessary. Therefore, a Tripartite Agreement (Gangtok Agreement) was signed by the Chogyal, the foreign secretary of the Government of India and the representatives of the three political parties, i.e., Sikkim National Congress, Sikkim Janata Congress and Sikkim National Party, to establish a responsible government in Sikkim with a more democratic Constitution, guarantying fundamental rights to the people rule of law, independent judiciary and greater legislative and executive power for the representative of the people elected on the basis of equitable representation of all section of people (Sengupta, 1985).

The Agreement provided for an Assembly constituted of 32 elected members. Out of these 32 seats fifteen were declared reserved each of the

Bhutia-Lepcha and Nepali Communities and between the remaining two, one was reserved for the Sangha and the other for the Scheduled Caste Community. The Assembly was empowered to legislate and adopt resolutions on certain matters like finance, economic and social planning education and agriculture. But has no power on some topics, namely, the Chogyal and the members of the ruling family, matters before the courts, the appointment of the Chief Executive and the members of the judiciary and the issues relating to the responsibility of the Government of India. The Palace establishment and the Sikkim Guard remained directly under the Chogyal.

The Agreement also provided for a Chief Executive who was to be nominated by the Government of India and formally appointed by the Chogyal. An Executive Council would also be constituted of some elected members of the Assembly. The Chief Executive was to preside over the meetings of the Executive Council (Shrestha, 2005). However the Chogyal was not happy with the arrangement. He felt that all powers of the Chief Executive must flow out of him.

In the mean time, the Sikkim National Congress and the Sikkim Janata Congress merged together and formed Sikkim Congress. This Sikkim Congress won 31 seats and the National Party secured only one seat. This result showed a clear tilt on the anti-Chogyal sentiment in Sikkim. The elected Congress members denied to take the oath in the name of Chogyal and refused to be loyal to him.

In May 1974, the Sikkim Congress decided to put an end to the Monarchical rule in Sikkim. The Sikkim Assembly passed the Government of Sikkim Act, 1974 for the progressive realization of a fully responsible government for Sikkim and for furthering its relationship with India. By virtue of this Act, the Sikkim Assembly passed a resolution expressing its desire to be

associated with the political and economic institutions of India and for seeking representation for the people of Sikkim in India's Parliamentary system. Accordingly, the 36th Constitution Amendment Act, 1974, was passed by the Indian Parliament to give effect to the resolution of Sikkim Assembly. The main provisions of this Amendment Act were as follows:

First, Sikkim would be an "associate state" not a part of the territory of India. It was brought within the frame work of the Indian constitution by inserting Article 2A and the 10th schedule in Constitution, and

Second, Sikkim would be entitled to send two representatives to the two houses. The rights and privileges of these members would same as other members of the Parliament. However, they would not enjoy the right to vote in the election of the President and Vice-president of India.

Criticism started due to the introduction of the status of an "associate state" into the Indian federal system. There was no room for any "associate state" under the Constitution of India. Ultimately Sikkim was admitted into the Indian Union as the 22nd state in the 1st schedule of the Constitution of India. On the other hand, Article 2A and the 10th schedule which were added to the Constitution of India, by the 36th Constitution Amendment Act, 1974, were omitted by the 38th Constitution Amendment Act, 1975.

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CHAPTER-III

ADMINISTRATION OF THE STATE: AN EVOLUTIONARY OVERVIEW

ADMINISTRATION OF THE STATE: AN EVOLUTIONARY OVERVIEW

Sikkim the small Himalayan state has a unique administrative history of its own. One can not overlook this ever interesting history. From the time of early rulers, Sikkim was invaded by foreign powers. It is the British Government in India with whom the Maharaja of Sikkim formed his first alliance. Ultimately during the last decade of the 19th century Sikkim fell under the British supremacy. A Political Officer was stationed at Gangtok and continued to advise and assist the Maharaja in the government of his country and to preside over the State Council.

During the pre-merger period, the Ruler of Sikkim was the source of all authority, judicial, administrative and legislative. The revenue of the State was treated as public funds in the strict sense of term. The Maharaja appropriated this fund to his own use a very modest civil list which was fully exhibited in the annual budget of the State.

The Government of the State was conducted under the direct control of His Highness. However, he himself was assisted by an organised Secretariat on the lines of the Government of India. The entire administration was carried on through specific Departments. The recommendations of the Departmental officers are carefully considered in the Secretariat and the decisions of the Durbar were to be issued in English by a Secretary to Government in the form of orders, proceedings or letters. All the various Departments of the administration were controlled by three Secretaries, namely, General Secretary, Judicial Secretary and Financial secretary. The General Secretary was to deal with—

1. Police,
2. Arms and amenities,
3. Land Administration,
4. Registration,
5. Co-operative Societies (except accounts),
6. Forests,
7. Political Affairs,
8. Stationary,
9. Miscellaneous (concerning external dealings such as Post, Telegraphs, and the communications with the Government of India.)

Judicial Secretary had to deal with the Departments mentioned below:

1. Education,
2. Medical including sanitation (except accounts),
3. Ecclesiastical,
4. Jail,
5. Printing Press,
6. Income-tax,
7. Excise,
8. Bazar,
9. Veterinary,
10. Stamps,

11. Census,

12. Miscellaneous (internal dealings such as transport, etc.)

The Financial Secretary was to deal with the budget, accounts, audit and leave, etc. of all the employees of the state (Administrative Report of the Sikkim State for the year 1936-37 to 1937-38). Besides, there was a State Engineer and he also acted as a Secretary for Public Works Department of the State. Later on, a Home Secretary was added, assuming authority over some of the departments formerly allotted to the General and Judicial Secretaries. In addition to the departments headed by the various secretaries, there was a separate forest service and a private secretariat for the Chogyal. Again in 1949 with the appointment of Dewan, the Chogyal has delegated some of his executive power to Dewan. As a result, the Dewan became the sole authority in charge of administration of the State since the year 1949 (Chhetri, 2012). There was no provision for Chief Secretary.

However, the administrative functions of Sikkim were controlled by the Maharaja, the Chogyal; it had been steadily adapting itself to modern forms of Government. The system was based on the good old patriarchal monarchy of the ancient days of oriental civilization. The simple Hill people were unaffected by the negative effect of democracy and elections. The people were happy with the competent rule by His Highness. The common people treated the Chogyal as next to their God.

The revenue of the State was derived mainly from a system of both direct and indirect taxation. Land Revenue, House Tax and Income Tax were the only sources of revenue by direct taxation. The State did not collect its taxes through any departmental agency. The State, at that time, could not levy any export or import duties on goods going out of or coming into Sikkim. The income derived

from excise licenses such as cigarettes, etc. was considerable. Forest, Court fees and registration of documents also yield an appreciable income. The budget was framed annually and assigned most of the income of the year to the well being of the people. The provision of public roads and public buildings consumed the bulk of revenues.

More or less this system has been running till 1974. According to the Government of Sikkim Act, 1974, the Chogyal was to take precedence over all other persons in Sikkim. He was to continue to enjoy the honour, position and other personal privileges hitherto enjoyed by him. The Chogyal was to exercise his powers and perform his functions. Consequently the Chogyal was functioning more as a nominal executive.

The legislative power exercised by the Chogyal was to summon the Assembly, on the advice of the President of the Assembly, to meet at such time and place as he thought fit. The Chogyal may address the Assembly after intimating to the President of the Assembly. The Chogyal or any person appointed by him was to administer oath or affirmation of the members of the Assembly. Any dispute regarding the question of disqualification of the members of the Sikkim Assembly was to be settled by the Chogyal. However it was mentioned that before giving any decision the Chogyal should obtain the opinion of the Election Commission of India or any other election authority as may be specified by the Government of India for that purpose. Any bill passed by the Assembly of Sikkim should be presented to the Chogyal. The Chogyal might give consent to the Bill or returned to the Assembly with a request to reconsider it. However, the Chogyal was bound to give his to the Bill if the Assembly sent the Bill once again even without changing any provision of that Bill. So far as the executive powers were concerned, all these powers were to be carried out in the name of the Chogyal.

Besides, there was the Chief executive who was to be appointed by the Chogyal himself. Any dispute between the Chogyal and the Chief Executive should be referred to the Government of India. And in such a case the decisions of the latter should be prevailed. The Chief Executive should submit all important matters to the Chogyal for his information and for his approval of the action prepared to be taken. However, in case of emergency, the Chief Executive might take such action as he thinks fit. But it should be sanctioned by the Chogyal as soon as possible.

If we look at the administration in Sikkim it will be cleared that the merger inaugurated a new age of political system in Sikkim. A monarchical form of government was transferred into a democratic form. The then existing administrative set-up in India was imposed upon the soil in Sikkim. Mr. B. B. Lall assumed office of the Governor of Sikkim with the effect from May, 1975. Kazi Lhendup Dorji was chosen as the Chief Minister. And a ministry was formed under the leadership of Kazi Lhendup Dorji.

So far as the power and position of the Governor of Sikkim was concerned Article 371 F (g) of Indian Constitution holds that “the Governor of Sikkim shall have special responsibility for peace and for equitable arrangement for ensuring the social and economic advancement of different sections of the population of Sikkim and in the discharge of his special responsibility under this clause the Governor of Sikkim shall, subject to such directions as the President may, from time to time deem fit to issue, act in his discretion.” Obviously, this discretionary power had been given to the Governor of Sikkim to tackle the then prevailing situation in the state.

The executive power of the state, as it was in case of other constituent states in India, was vested in the hands of the Governor. However, according to the prevailing set-up of India the governor was to act on the advice of the Council of Ministers. However, in case of Sikkim, at least during Kazi's reign, the story was just reverse. Then the cabinet was acted on the advice of the Governor. In fact, the Ministers, at that time in Sikkim, were quite new and obviously they were not conversant with the complex working of the modern democratic government. It was also believe that the Cabinet Secretary also acquired a vital position in the matters of decision-making.

At the initial stage, the Governor also figured in the Assembly debates. Mr. N. D. Khatiwada has opined that the Ministers should not involve the Governor in each and every issue, because it was against the norms of parliamentary practice (Proceeding of the Sikkim legislative assembly, October, 1976). The Chief Minister of Sikkim, Kazi Lhendup Dorji mentioned in the Assembly that the Governor had been doing his best for the welfare of the people of Sikkim (Proceeding of the Sikkim legislative assembly, March, 1978).

This active role of the Governor was criticized by the then existing political parties. However, despite criticisms the Governor could not help without doing it. The then politico-cultural, socio-economic problems of Sikkim were quite different from the rest of India. And to fulfill these different types of demand, to lubricate the process of transformation of political institutions from its feudalistic form to a democratic one, the Governor had to be more powerful than he should be in a parliamentary form of government. In fact, Mr. B. B. Lall, the first Governor of Sikkim is described as the Chief Architect of what Sikkim is today.

The cordial relationship between the Governor and the Cabinet as it was during Kazi's regime was changed after the formation of new Ministry under the leadership of Mr. N. B. Bhandari. The relation between the Governor and the Cabinet become cold. The leaders of Bhandari's party, the Sikkim Sangram Parishad opined, before formation the Ministry, that they would request the Government of India to replace the Governor (Sikkim Express, 1979) Mr. Bhandari also was of the opinion that the Governor should remain as a Constitutional Head. The cabinet and the Governor have their own separate jurisdiction and they should remain within their own jurisdiction. Ultimately, the then Governor, Mr. B. B. Lall, was replaced by Mr. Homi J. H. Taleyarkhan. However, in due course of time, the Cabinet led by Bhandari, also had to depend on the Governor. Actually, it was the demand of the then existing politico-economic, socio-cultural situation of that state.

To discuss the bureaucratic set-up of that state we should look into the historical background of that institution. At the initial stage, traditional life in Sikkim was simple and the administration was devoid of any complexity. As the Government begun to undertake more responsibility, including industry, commerce, trade and transport, the importance and complexity of the administration were increased. The administration also was called upon to undertake increasingly welfare programmes for the people. Sikkim's social and economic planning was of great concern for the Government of India. Under the Indo-Sikkimese treaty of friendship in 1950 the government gave not only the financial assistance but also officials for planned economic development. In 1973 personnel of different categories were loaned from India were as follows:

- A) I. A. S. —6
- B) I. A. & A. S. —4
- C) I. P. S. —4
- D) I F. S. —5

E) I. R. S. -4

F) Chartered Accountant -1(Bhaumik, & Bhattacharyya, 1977)

At the same time, training facilities for certain services such as, tourism, business management and fruit technology were offered by India.

Initially the administrative set-up in Sikkim consisted of fourteen departments. The names of the departments in Government of Sikkim in the year 1955 were shown in the following table.

Table—3.1

Names of the Departments in the Government of Sikkim, 1955

Serial No.	Name of the Departments
1.	Agriculture & Rural Development
2.	Horticulture
3.	Animal Husbandry
4.	Forests
5.	Cooperation
6.	Minor Irrigation Works
7.	Power
8.	Cottage Industries/ Industries
9.	Development of Mineral Resources
10.	Roads and Bridges
11.	Road Transport
12.	Education
13.	Medical Public Health
14.	Communications

Source: Sikkim, Sikkim Development Plan, Gangtok, Sikkim Durbar Press, 1955.

In due course of time the numbers of the departments were increased. In the year 1961, the number reached at seventeen. These were shown through the following table:

Table-3.2

Names of the Departments in the Government of Sikkim, 1961

Serial No.	Name of the Departments
1.	Agriculture
2.	Irrigation
3.	Animal Husbandry/Dairying
4.	Forests
5.	Fisheries
6.	Cooperation
7.	Industries/Cottage Industries
8.	Roads
9.	Road Transport
10.	Tourism
11.	Education
12.	Medical and Public Health
13.	Housing
14.	Publicity
15.	Culture
16.	Government Press
17.	Planning Department

Source: Sikkim, Sikkim: facts and figures, Gangtok, Sikkim Durbar Press, 1963.

In 1975, the following departments were in existence under the Government of Sikkim.

Table-3.3

Names of the Departments in the Government of Sikkim, 1975

Serial No.	Name of the Departments
1.	Agriculture Department
2.	Animal Husbandry Department
3.	Bazar Department
4.	Co-operative Department
5.	Education Department
6.	Ecclesiastical Department
7.	Electricity Department
8.	Electricity, Transmission and Transformation Department
9.	Establishment Department
10.	Excise Department
11.	Finance Department
12.	Food Supplies and
13.	Fair Price Shops Department
14.	Forest Department
15.	General Excise and Motor Vehicles Department
16.	Home Department
17.	Land Revenue Department
18.	Law Department
19.	Legislative Department
20.	Medical and Public Health Department
21.	Panchayat and Rural Works Department

22.	Planning and Development Department
23.	Press publicity and Cultural Affairs Department
24.	Public Works Department
25.	Tourism Department
26.	Trade Industry and Commerce Department

Source: Shresta, 2005.

These numbers has been proliferated as situation demands. The names of the departments as it was during 2001 are as under:

Table:3.4

Names of the Departments in the Government of Sikkim, 2001

Serial No.	Names of the Departments.
1.	Agriculture Department
2.	Animal Husbandry Department
3.	Building and Housing Department
4.	Cooperation Department
5.	Department of Personnel, A. R. and Training
6.	Ecclesiastical Department
7.	Culture Department
8.	Education Department
9.	Excise (Abkari) Department
10.	Election Department
11.	Food & Supplies Department
12.	Home Department
13.	Finance Department

14.	Health & Family Welfare Department
15.	Information & Public Relation Department
16.	Irrigation and Flood Control Department
17.	Industries Department
18.	Land Revenue Department
19.	Labour Department
20.	Law Department
21.	Parliamentary Affairs Department
22.	Transport Department
23.	Mines & Geology Department
24.	Printing & Stationary Department
25.	Public Health Engineering Department
26.	Roads and Bridges Department
27.	Rural Development Department
28.	Tourism Department
29.	Urban Development and Housing Department
30.	Social welfare Department
31.	Sports & Youth Affairs Department
32.	Science and Technology Department
33.	Horticulture Department
34.	Power Department
35.	Planning and Development Department
36.	Forest, Even. And Wild Life Department
37.	Programme Implementation, Evaluation & Monitoring Department
38.	Information Technology Department

Source: Government of Sikkim, notification No. 42/ Home /1994 dated 18/07/94.

Similarly, certain a new and separate directorate were opened. These directorates were Horticulture, Industry, Geology and Mines and Labour. This new trend clearly indicates the well wishes on the part of the then political leaders in Sikkim to reconstruct the administration of that state and to make it a welfare state. However, it is to be mentioned that there was some differences between the administrative set-up in Sikkim and that in the rest of India. The administrative set-up in Sikkim had to build in the light of its tradition, culture, ecology and development potentiality.

Till 1975 administrative provision was made for the protection of the interest of the two communities-the Bhutia-Lepcha and the Nepalese. The representation of these two communities in the senior bureaucrats can be shown in the following table:

Table-3.5

Representation of the Major Communities before merger

Serial No.	Position	Community
1.	The Chief Secretary	Bhutia-Lepcha
2.	Secretary to the Chogyal	Bhutia-Lepcha
3.	Finance Secretary	Bhutia-Lepcha
4.	Establishment Secretary	Bhutia-Lepcha
5.	The Auditor-General	Nepalese
6.	Home Secretary	Nepalese
7.	The Chief Engineer	Nepalese

8.	The Conservator of Forests	Nepalese
9.	Police Commissioner	Bhutia-Lepcha
10.	Industries Secretary	Bhutia-Lepcha

Source: Bhaumik, D.J. & Bhattacharyya, K.S, 1977

After merger these community wise representation has been changed and showed a clear tilt to the Nepalese.

Table-3.5

Representation of the Major Communities after merger

Sl No.	Position	Community
1.	The Chief Secretary Home & Ecclesiastical Affairs	Bhutia
2.	Secretary, Establishment	Bhutia
3.	Secretary, Press & Publicity	Bhutia
4.	Secretary, General Excise & Motor Vehicles	Bhutia
5.	Secretary, Power TIC & STC, etc.	Nepalese
6.	Secretary to Governor Medical & Health, L. S. G.	Nepalese
7.	Secretary, Land & Land Revenue, Land Reform	Nepalese
8.	Secretary, Finance	Nepalese
9.	Secretary, Co-operation	Nepalese
10.	Secretary, Rural Works, etc.	Nepalese
11.	Secretary, Law	Nepalese

Source: Bhaumik, & Bhattacharyya (1977)

After merger another trend of legal-rational authority can be seen in Sikkim. The consideration of merit started to get priority over the communal parity in the recruitment of public personnel. The then policy makers in Sikkim realize that the policy of recruitment on merit basis may require time to give effect to. Keeping in mind the high sensitivity of the issue it is necessary to take adequate steps for relaxation of tension and restoration of confidence the political leaders in Sikkim were poised for its planned economic development. The mutual distrust among the communities would melt away by equitable distribution of wealth and by putting an end to the economic exploitation in the bosom of the society. It would help in building up 'administrative capabilities' for speedy implementation development programmes. It was the ultimate objective. In the mean time, attempt may be made to reduce progressively any over representation a minority community might be enjoying in the senior positions in career level without reducing the ratio below its percentage of population in Sikkim (Bhaumik and Bhattacharyya, 1977).

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CHAPTER-IV

ADMINISTRATION AT THE DISTRICT LEVEL: A STUDY SINCE 1975

ADMINISTRATION AT THE DISTRICT LEVEL: A STUDY SINCE 1975

Section - I

In a federal State the districts or similar type of units receives much importance both from political and administrative point view. According to the Oxford Concise Dictionary a district is a territory marked off for special administrative purposes. This Dictionary defines administration as management of public affairs. Thus one may describe the district administration as the management of public affairs within the territory marked off for special administrative purposes. In other ways, district administration is that portion of public administration which functions within the territorial limits of a district. It is the total functioning of a government in a district; the total and complex organisation of the management of public affairs at work, dynamic and not static, in the territory of geographically demarked district (Khera, 1992).

In a country like India, district administration is the cutting edge of public administration. However, quite surprisingly, the Constitution of India makes no mention at all of a district as a unit of administration. Nothing is mentioned about district administration or about the role of District Magistrate and Collector. There is just one reference in the Constitution, in Article 233, to the appointment of District Judges.

District administration in India is a British legacy. Initially it was established as an essential element of colonialism. As an arm of the colonial power its major objective was to maintain status quo. Even, it had to be repressive, remained unchanged in the new system which proclaimed

development, social and economic change as its goals (Eames and Saran, 1982). However, similar types of units were existed even in the age of Mauryans and Mughals. Mughals divided their kingdom into bounded geographic units for the purpose of taxation. Even in the Code of Manu there was a reference of this type of administrative unit. But the 'Districts' in India as it stand today were first created in 1772 (Ghosh, 1997).

So far as the structure of the District Administration is concerned the concept of the district as a unit of administration in India derives somewhat from the pattern of the French Prefecture, with the District Officer as the Prefect. During the period of East India Company's rule the head of the district was Company's trading agent. In course of time, this principal representative at the district level became the collector of land revenue. The Collector of the district also became officially responsible for the maintenance of law and order (Khera, 1992).

Gradually, the total presence of government at the district could be seen. The districts then truly came under the full governance and administration of the imperial power. The Collector levied and collected the land revenue and other taxes and the same time he maintained law and order as District Magistrate. He also administered a system of justice. There was a police official also, the Superintendent of Police, to assist the Collector in order to carry out the order and function.

In due course of time, the need of at least some minimum arrangements of medical attention in the district was felt. Consequently, a doctor was added to the district staff. He was the Civil Surgeon of the district. This Civil Surgeon was also made the Superintendent of Jail. This arrangement continued more or less throughout the British period. However, towards the end of this period the Jail Superintendent was drawn from a new and separate departmental cadre of

officers specially trained for that purpose. Thus the District Administration grew into a complex apparatus: the District Collector and Magistrate, the Superintendent of Jail, the Civil Surgeon, the District Judge, the Executive Engineer of Public Works; and thus on to include a District Inspector of Schools, a District Agriculture Officer, and the rest of the components of the District Administration as it exist today.

The introduction of local self government institutions and the reforms of 1919 and 1920 have introduced the concepts of departmentalisation; working in mutual isolation etc. the structure of district administration was more or less same till 1992. After the introduction of the 73rd and 74th Constitution Amendment Act, 1992, a change in the structure of district administration has been taken place. However, Nirmal Mukherjee, (1989) proposed for the establishment of a district level government. He suggests the replacement of the District Collector and the Zilla Parishad by an elected district government he argued that it is necessary from three point of view— i)it will be more democratic, ii) it will be more federal, and iii) it will be controlled mere by the locals.

Under the 73rd and 74th Constitution Amendment Act, 1992, Zilla Parishad has been established at the district level which is an elected body. The Chairman of the Zilla Parishad has been given the status of Minister of State and the District Collector becomes the ex-officio member of Zilla Parishad. District Planning Coordination Committee (DPCC) is created to formulate plans for the all-round development. It is interesting to note that the concept of district planning is comparatively a new one. And M.A.S. Rajan (1990) is of the opinion that since the districts in India is nothing but a part of a larger area planning has to be independent of the outlines of a district. However he agreed that the plans should be based on extensive local knowledge about resources, people, micro-climate, terrain, etc.

The concept of Panchayati Raj Institutions comprehends an administrative structure that covers Gram Panchayat at district level, Panchayat Samiti at intermediate level, and Zilla Parishad at district level. Thus an effort to establish a direct relation between the district administration and grass-root level can be noticed. So this is the structure of district administration as it exists today.

Now let us look at the functional aspects of district administration. The head of the district is the District Collector. Initially he was District Collector and Magistrate. The office of the District Magistrate, in its early period, was vested with powers relating to administration, judiciary as well as collection of revenue. However, Lord Cornwallis insisted on the separation of judicial from executive functions in District Administration. Henceforth the collector was only a collector of land revenue and the District Judge- Magistrate, having magisterial, judicial functions along with police and general administration, became the head of the district. In contrast to the Cornwallis system there was Munro School of thought about district administration. Under the Munro model the District Collector became the real and effective head of the district and was responsible for the general administration and the welfare of the people in his charge (Mishra, 1996). The Munro model was working in the first decade of the 19th century in the provinces of Madras, Bombay, and North-Western provinces.

During 1980s Rippon demanded for participation in administration on the part of the Indians. He allowed political education to the native masses. Local government institutions have been given a new direction during this period. By 1919 the initiative of the District Officer has been reduced and his powers and authority had become limited. The introduction of local self government institutions and the new system of government, as a result of the reforms of 1919 and 1920, created a new phase for the arrangements and functioning of

district administration. The district administration, at that time, emphasised on departmentalism and working in mutual isolation (Mishra, 1996).

With the implementation of Provincial Autonomy in 1937 under the Government of India Act, 1935, the District Officer has become the agent of popular government instead of being an agent of the British Government. Accordingly, the functions and position of the District Officer have changed. The District Magistrate come to be more and more involved with interpretation and enforcement of newly passed economic and social legislation. He had to be engaged more and more in rural development (Mishra, 1996). On the eve of independence in 1947 the District Magistrate had to be something like “jack of all trades”. When we contemplate the social and economic administration in the district, one may find that great changes have been taking place since independence.

The period immediately after independence marked a substantive increase in the power of District Collector. The ministers desired their strength from the bureaucracy right from the state to the district as regards the implementation of the Government policy. Apart from maintaining law and order and revenue administration, the District collector became the king pin of all developmental activities right from the district to the grass root level. In actual sense, he was the ‘Maibaap’ of the district.

So far as the management of the affairs of government at the district level is concerned, the Collector of a district occupies a cardinal position in the administration of the district. He is the local representative of the government. He is the head of the revenue department and the district. He is the executive District Magistrate who keeps in general touch with the working of all departments within the district and with the increased shift in emphasis on

developmental activities. He is personally responsible for coordination and guidance in this respect (Singh and Singh, 1989).

The role of the District Collector increased manifold in 1952-53 with the introduction of Community Development Programme (CDP) and National Extension Service (NES). During this period he was supposed not only to take care of the development administration but he was also responsible to coordinate the activities of various departments, such as, health, animal husbandry, agriculture, industry, education, etc. working at the district level. Apart from this, he had also to take care of the visit of ministers to his district and to be the Chief Guest of various social, academic and other activities.

The Balwant Rai Mehta study team recommended decentralisation of administration and democratisation of power. Its main objective are to bring about a change in the mental outlook of the people, install in them an ambition for higher standards of life and the will determination to work for such standards, it seeks to build up the community and the individual and to make the latter a builder of his own village and centre and of India on the large sense. The recommended the formation of hierarchic three-tier system of rural local government to be called Panchayati Raj. These three tiers are Gram Panchayat, to be located at local level, Panchayat Samiti, to be located at intermediate level, and Zilla Parishad—to be located at district level (Ghosh, 1997).

During the late 70s a change of government came at the national level and consequently there has been a change on policy formulation also. During this period the blocks have been gaining importance in lieu of districts. The 6th Five Year Plan again highlighted the importance of block level planning for eradication of poverty through the provision of gainful employment opportunities to the poorest of the poor (Ghosh, 1997).

With the introduction of Panchayati Raj Institutions the Collector was no longer the only eyes and ears of the government. And with the advent of democratic decentralisation, decision making, even in administrative matter has shifted from administrators to the elected politicians (Mukhopadhyay, 1990). There has been an increasing demand of the need of the people's participation in the administrative process, in economic and social administration of the district (Mishra, 1996). In West Bengal an act has been passed (October, 1999) which takes away the function of the collector relating to revaluation of land entrusted it on the Finance Secretary of the state (Ananda Bazaar Patrika, 4th October, 1999).

However, despite these changes and reduction on status and prestige of his office, the collector has continued to be the principal officer of the state government at the district level. As B. Sivaraman observes, the role of the collector and the emphasis on the type of work he was to do at a certain period in history has changed from time to time. But all along he has been the Head of the Administration in the district and he has been the representative of the Government at that level (Mishra, 1996).

Section - II

The history of district administration in Sikkim has been started from the period marked by the reign of Phuntsog Namgyal. He has divided the entire territory of Sikkim into twelve Dzongs (fort areas—as the administrative units) and placed them under twelve Dzongpens (Shina, 1975). The traditional life was simple in Sikkim and administration also devoid of any type of complexity. The society was feudal and feudal lords provided the administrative machinery by performing regulatory functions. The abolition of landlordism in 1949 necessitated the reorganisation of the administrative system. As a first step to

this direction, Sikkim was divided into two tehsils (revenue districts): East and West. These tehsils had been created for the purpose of revenue collection (Chhetri, 2012).

After the introduction of Seven Year plan (1954-1961), as a result of Indo-Sikkim treaty of 1950, the administration had to be geared to meet the exigencies of implementing this plan. Consequently, Sikkim was divided into four districts, namely, East, West, North and South with the headquarters at Gangtok, Geyzing, Mangan and Namchi respectively. Again the three districts each are subdivided into two subdivisions – the West into Geyzing and Sorong; the North into Mangan and Chungthang; the South into Ravangla and Namchi. The East district is sub-divided into three subdivisions namely, Gangtok, Pakeong and Rangli.

From the name itself it prevails that the East district is located in the eastern portion of the state. In the west of this district there is South district of the state, in the north there is North district, in the north – east there is China occupied Tibet, in the south – east it is Bhutan there and in the South there is West Bengal. According to the census report, East Sikkim had been populated with 281,293 persons of which 150,260 were male and 131,033 were female. There was a change of 14.79% in the population compared to the population as it was in 2001. Average literacy rate of East Sikkim in 2011 were 84.67 compared to 74.67 of 2001. If we intend to look into the things at gender basis male and female literacy were 89.22 and 79.41 respectively. Total number of literates in this district was 215,675 of which male and female were 121,881 and 93,794 respectively.

We can show the facts and figures regarding urban rural population of East district through the table below:

Table—4.1**Urban- Rural Population of East District-Facts and figures**

Description	Rural	Urban
Population (%)	57.07%	42.93%
Total population	160,543	120,750
Male population	86,661	63,599
Female population	73,882	57,151
Sex Ratio	853	899
Child Sex Ratio (0-6)	963	923
Child Population (0-6)	15,496	11,075
Male Child(0-6)	7,893	5,758
Female Child (0-6)	7,603	5,317
Child Percentage (0-6)	9.65%	9.17%
Male Child Percentage	9.11%	9.05%
Female Child Percentage	10.29%	9.30%
Literates	117,256	98419
Male Literates	67,894	53,987
Female Literates	49,362	44,432
Average Literacy	80.84%	89.74%
Male Literacy	86.19%	93.34%
Female Literacy	74.48%	85.72%

Source: Census Report of India, 2011

The West district of Sikkim is bounded Nepal (located in west), North district (located in north), South district (located in east) and West Bengal (located in south). In 2011 the West district of Sikkim had population of 136,299 of which male were 70,225 and female were 66,074. There is a change of 10.58% in the population compared to the population as per 2001.

Average literacy rate of west Sikkim in 2011 are 78.69 compared to 58.80 of 2001. If things are looked out at gender wise, male and female literacy were 84.86 and 72.12 respectively. For 2001 census, same figures stood at 66.82 and 50.11 in west Sikkim District. Total literate in west Sikkim District were 95,481 of which male and female were 53,084 and 42,397 respectively. In 2001, West Sikkim District had 60,628 in its district.

In case of Sex Ratio in West Sikkim, it stood at 941 per 1000 male compared to 2001 census figure of 929. In 2011 census, child sex ratio is 950 per boys compared to figure of 966 girls per 1000 boys of 2001 Census data According to the Census 2011 data regarding child under 0-6 age in West Sikkim there were total 14,957 children under age of 0-6 against 20,153 of 2001 census. Child Sex Ratio as per census 2011 was 950 compared to 966 of census 2001. In 2011, Children under 0-6 formed 10.97 percent of the total population of West Sikkim District compared to 16.35 percent of 2001.

The facts and figures on rural and urban population in West Sikkim can be shown through the following table:

Table—4.2

Urban- Rural Population of West District-Facts and figures

Description	Rural	Urban
Population (%)	96.16%	3.84%
Total population	131,060	5,239
Male population	67,522	2,703
Female population	63,538	2,536
Sex Ratio	941	938
Child Sex Ratio (0-6)	952	899
Child Population (0-6)	14,469	488

Male Child(0-6)	7,412	257
Female Child (0-6)	7,057	231
Child Percentage (0-6)	11.04%	9.31%
Male Child Percentage	10.98%	9.51%
Female Child Percentage	11.11%	9.11%
Literates	91,202	4,279
Male Literates	50,777	2,307
Female Literates	40,425	1,972
Average Literacy	78.22%	90.07%
Male Literacy	84.47%	94.32%
Female Literacy	71.57%	85.55%

Source: Census Report of India, 2011.

The North District in Sikkim is located in the northern part of the state. In the west of this district there is Nepal, in the north as well as east there is China occupied Tibet and in the south there are three districts of Sikkim—West, South and East.

In 2011, North Sikkim had population of 43,354 of which male and female were 24,513 and 18,841 respectively. In 2001 census, north Sikkim had a population of 41,030 of which males were 23,414 and remaining 17,616 were females. There was change of 5.66 percent in the population compared to population as per 2001. Average literacy rate of North Sikkim in 2011 were 77.39 compared to 67.21 of 2001. If things are looked out at gender wise. Male and female literacy were 83.03 and 69.92 respectively. For 2001 census, same figures stood at 75.69 and 55.39 in North Sikkim District. Total literate in North Sikkim District were 30,084 of which male and female were 18,392 and 11,692 respectively. With regards to Sex Ratio in North Sikkim, it stood at 769 per 1000 male compared to 2001 census figure of 752. In 2011 census, child sex ratio is 897 girls per 1000 boys compared to figure of 995 girls per 1000 boys of

2001 census data. In census report, 2011, the district of North Sikkim has 4,479 children under age of 0-6 against 5,958 of 2001 census. The Child Sex Ratio as per census 2011 was 897 compared to 995 of census 2001. In 2011, Children under 0-6 formed 10.33 percent of North Sikkim District compared to 14.52 percent of 2001.

The following table describes the population in the North District by showing it as it is in case of urban and rural areas.

Table—4.3

Urban- Rural Population of North District-Facts and figures

Description	Rural	Urban
Population (%)	89.28%	10.72%
Total population	38,706	4,648
Male population	22,052	2,461
Female population	16,654	2,817
Sex Ratio	755	889
Child Sex Ratio (0-6)	898	894
Child Population (0-6)	3,907	572
Male Child(0-6)	2,059	302
Female Child (0-6)	1,848	270
Child Percentage (0-6)	10.09%	12.31%
Male Child Percentage	9.34%	12.27%
Female Child Percentage	11.10%	12.35%
Literates	26,700	3,384
Male Literates	16,503	1,889

Female Literates	10,197	1,495
Average Literacy	76.73%	83.02%
Male Literacy	82.54%	87.49%
Female Literacy	68.87%	77.99%

Source: Census Report of India, 2011.

The South district is bounded by West district, North district, East district and West Bengal those are located in west north east and south respectively. This district had population of 146,742 in 2011 of which male and female were 76,663 and 70,079 respectively. In 2001 census, South Sikkim had a population of 131,525 of which males were 68,241 and remaining 63,284 were female. There was change of 11.57 percent in the population compared to population as per 2001.

Average literacy rate of South Sikkim in 2011 were 82.06 compared to 67.31 of 2001. If things are looked out at gender wise, male and female literacy were 87.06 and 76.57 respectively. For 2001 census, same figures stood at 74.29 and 59.72 in South Sikkim District.

With regards to sex Ratio in Sikkim, it stood at 914 per 1000 male compared to 2001 census figure of 927. In 2011 census, child sex ratio is 948 girls per 1000 boys compared to figure of 969 girls per 1000 boys of 2001 census data. In south Sikkim there were total 15,070 children under age of 0-6 against 20,674 of 2001 census. Child Sex Ratio as per census 2011 was 948 compared to 969 of census 2011. In 2011 Children under 0-6 formed 10.27 percent of south Sikkim District compared to 15.72 percent of 2001.

The population in South district in Sikkim as it is in rural and urban sectors can well be depicted as under:

Table -4.4**Urban- Rural Population of South District-Facts and figures**

Description	Rural	Urban
Population (%)	85.63%	14.37
Total population	125,653	21,089
Male population	65,887	10,776
Female population	59,766	10,313
Sex Ratio	907	957
Child Sex Ratio (0-6)	956	891
Child Population (0-6)	13,166	1,904
Male Child(0-6)	6,730	1,007
Female Child (0-6)	6,436	897
Child Percentage (0-6)	10.48%	9.03%
Male Child Percentage	10.21%	9.34%
Female Child Percentage	10.77%	8.70%
Literates	91,240	16,814
Male Literates	51,072	8,935
Female Literates	40,168	7,879
Average Literacy	81.11%	87.64%
Male Literacy	86.33%	91.46%
Female Literacy	75.32%	83.68%

Source: Census Report of India, 2011

Sikkim was a feudal state till 1949. During this feudal period, the landlords including the monk landlords had both judicial and economic rights over their subjects. After the abolition of landlordism and creation of four districts, the District Officer as the head of the districts had some magisterial powers along with the regulatory functions—as the District Collectors of other

districts in India enjoyed. However it is to be mentioned that there was another officer at the district level in Sikkim, Inspector of Land Revenue, responsible for collecting land revenues which was one of the most important functions of the District Collector. Apart from District Officer and Inspector of Land Revenue, Deputy Development Officer was also placed in district service in Sikkim. The Chief Secretary of Sikkim who was the head of the state administrative system had to function through the District Officers of respective districts.

In a country where monarchical form of government is there, the districts are created just to sustain and maintain the autocratic rule uninterruptedly. Sikkim was not an exception to this direction. Before merger, the district administration in Sikkim was carried out only to maintain the rule of the Chogyal. However, after merger, the concept of democracy was introduced for the first time in the history of district administration in Sikkim. Now the purpose of district administration there is to serve the people to maintain the people's government, to administer development for the people and to develop the administration in turn. In order to carry out the administration properly, at the district level the District Magistrate and Collector has the Additional District Magistrate, the Superintendent of Police, the Deputy Superintendent of Police, the Sub-divisional Magistrates, the Deputy Director, Land Revenue and Disaster Management Department, the Revenue Officers, Land Revenue and Disaster Management Department
([www.http://southsikkim.nic.in/districtadmin/dstadmin](http://southsikkim.nic.in/districtadmin/dstadmin)).

The District Collector represents the state government at the district level. Within the district he is the leader of the administrative set up. The administrative machinery of the district looks up to him for his order. He has to lead all the government officials' work within the area of his jurisdiction. The presence of effective leadership of the collector can bring about a sea-change in

the attitude of the people who work with him. The District Collector has a crucial role in executing and monitoring the developmental programmes within the territory of his district. The relief camps have to be organised under the supervision of the District Collector. He is also empowered to control the law and order situation, with the help of the Superintendent of Police, within the boundary of the District.

The Superintendent of Police, Inspector General of Jails, the Surgeon General, the Chief Conservator of Forests and the Chief Engineer had to inform the Collector of every activity in their Departments. Though the Additional Commissioners of Income Tax are important officials of the district they do not have to send a report to the collector as they work for the central government and not the state governments.

The District Collector is entrusted with a wide range of duties in the jurisdiction of the district. An Indian district has between 11,054,131 to 7,948 residents, with an average of two million residents. The area of land in a district also varies widely, from 45,652 sq. Km. (larger than Denmark or Switzerland) to 9 sq. Km ([www.http://en.wikipedia.org/District_collector](http://en.wikipedia.org/District_collector))

While the actual extent of the responsibilities varies in each State, they generally involve:

As Collector

- land assessment
- land acquisition
- collection of land revenue
- Collection of income tax dues, excise duties, irrigation dues etc.
- distribution of agricultural loans

As District Magistrate:

- maintenance of law and order
- supervision of the police and jails
- supervision of subordinate Executive magistracy
- hearing cases under the preventive section of the Criminal Procedure Code
- supervision of jails and certification of execution of capital sentences

As Crisis Administrator

- Disaster management during natural calamities such as floods, famines or epidemics
- Crisis management during riots or external aggression

As Development Officer

- Ex-officio chairman of the District Rural Development Agency, which carries out various developmental activities
- Chairman of the District Bankers Coordination Committee
- Head of the District Industries Centre
([www.http://en.wikipedia.org/District_collector](http://en.wikipedia.org/District_collector))

He is assisted by the following officers for carrying out day to day work in various fields:-

1. Additional deputy commissioner
2. Assistant commissioner (general)
3. Assistant commissioner (grievances)
4. Executive magistrate
5. District revenue officer
6. District transport officer

7. District development and panchayat officer
8. Civil defence officer
9. Urban ceiling officer

As a collector, the main task of the District Collector is the collection of land revenue. Revenue and excise go together, and are concerned with the assessment and collection of taxes and duties of different kind (Khera, 1992.) The collector has to maintain and update the land records. He is the registrar of land documents also and being the registrar he has to collect the registration duty. He is the head of the revenue court. He has to resolve the disputes relating to mutation, boundary of the pieces of land acquired by some person or persons. Acquisition of land for public purpose is also to be done under the supervision of District Collector. Again he is responsible for sending relief for all types natural calamity. Consequently, the District Collector is the head of the administration of natural calamity relief fund and force. And when we describe the functions of District Collector relating to the collection of revenue it can be mentioned that in Sikkim land reform has not been done till date. Sikkim has its own land laws. Their existing land and revenue laws flow from the Chogyal himself. The treasury officer works under the control of the District Collector and forms a part of district administration.

District Collector in Sikkim has to act as the District Magistrate also. District Collector, as the District Magistrate is the legal head of the criminal administration in a district. This is the provision as it is in the Indian Police Act (1861). In that sense, one may expect that the District Collector has tremendous functional role in the police administration. However, this was true until the Criminal Procedure Code was amended in 1973. This amendment separated the executive functions from the judicial functions at the district level.

Prior to this separation, resulting from amendment of Criminal Procedure Act, 1973, the District Magistrate tried IPC and other criminal cases in his court. So the police administration was expected to head to legal orders of District Magistrate. With the separation of judiciary, this judicial functions were taken away from the District Collector and entrusted with the Judicial Officers like Judicial Magistrate, Chief Judicial Magistrate and session Judges.

In the present day scenario, one can say that District Collector is, at best, a nominal head of the Criminal Administration. As the District Magistrate he carries out the duties of an Executive Magistrate under the Criminal Procedure Code like security proceedings, disposal of unlawful assemblies, removal of public nuisance etc. The police administration has to convince the District Collector and seek his orders to the above ends.

As far as day to day running of police administration is concerned, one must realise that uniformed force should have one undisputed leader who can command them. This role is played by the District Superintendent of Police. The District Collector cannot interfere in this task. In short the rules of the District Collector and the District Superintendent of Police are complementary to each other. Both of them need to develop a mutually respecting relationship to achieve the common objective, i.e., objective of maintaining law and public order.

Other important functions that have to be carried out by the District Collector are the functions relating to Development Administration. The District Collector acts as the Member-Secretary of Zilla Parishad. According to the Sikkim Panchayat Act, 1995, which has been passed following the footsteps of the 73rd and 74th Constitution Amendment Act, 1992, the District Collector is the Sachiva of the Zilla Parishad while the Chairman and Vice-Chairman of the

Zilla Parishad are to be the elected members. However, all rural development schemes are administered under the supervision of the District Collector.

In addition, the District Collector has to ensure the civil supplies of essential commodities for the people of a district (Khera, 1992). The district administration is also concerned with the running of all elections to Parliament as well as state Assembly and also to the local bodies. There is usually a District Election Officer. The Collector of a district is responsible for the proper conduct of the election process, with the help of the staffs which he very often draws from all other departments of the district. The District Collector has to act as the District Electoral Registration Officer as well as Returning Officer in the district.

It is the District Collector who has to administer various relief funds. It may be flood draught earthquake or fire—it is the duty of the Collector to send the relief funds to the affected area and to see that the funds are distributed to the affected people properly.

In Sikkim the District Controller is the Chairman of the District Consumer Protection Council. A District Council is a part of the executive and judicial governments in some jurisdictions, which are formed by the Central Government of the country. The north eastern states of the nation are mostly characterized by these kinds of councils. In the country of India, these District Councils are mainly formed to maintain and restore the original customs and lifestyles of the native tribal population

The main features of this Council can be grouped as under:

1. It aims at promoting and protecting the distinct consumer rights.
2. Apart from carrying on meetings as and when required, a minimum of 2 meeting are to be held in a year.

3. Being appointed as the Chairperson of the District Council, the District Collector is the in-charge of the district administration.
4. This Council are to be constituted of several other non-official and official members, who represent the same interests prescribed by the Government of the state.
5. It formulates and forwards plans for balanced and secured development of the state.
6. It timely reviews the implementation of the suggested proposals.
7. It also reviews the expenditure of the state.
8. Again, it reviews the maintenance of public order and security of Sikkim.

Apart from these, the District Collector in Sikkim has to play his role as the Chairman of National Rural Health Mission, Chairman of District T.B. Control Society, Chairman of District Cancer Control Programme Chairman of the Disaster Management Committee, Chair of the Prime Minister's Employment Generation Scheme, Chairman of the District Coordination Committee and District Consultative Committee, Chairman of the Sarva Siksha Abhiyan, Chairman of the District Level Monitoring Committee under Rule 16 and 17 of Sc/ St(Prevention of Atrocities) Rules, 1995. He is also the Certificate Officer of Sikkim Public Demand Recovery Act, 2006. And last, but not the least, the District Collector has to exercise powers conferred by sub-section (1) of sec. 21 of Sikkim Anti-Drug Act, 2005.

Keeping all these factors in mind, the working of development administration at the district level in Sikkim is going to be discussed in the next chapter.

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CHAPTER-V

DECENTRALISATION AT THE DISTRICT LEVEL IN SIKKIM

DECENTRALISATION AT THE DISTRICT LEVEL IN SIKKIM

The concept of decentralisation is receiving attention of the scholars, in the field of administration, as well as the policy makers of different democratic countries. A decentralised administration is synonymous to good administration. The word 'decentralisation' has its root in a Latin word meaning 'away from the centre' (Mac Makon, A.W., 1961). L. D. White explains it as the transfer of authority, legislative, judicial or administrative, from a higher level of government to a lower level (White, 1959).

Scholars are of the opinion that centrally administered bureaucracies represent an inefficient administration that negates the equal allocation of resources within a given society. They propogates two reasons behind their opinion—firstly, they argue that centrally administered state agencies lack the 'time and place knowledge' to implement policies and programmes those reflect people's real needs and aspirations. Secondly, they hold that 'time and place gaps' give local officials unlimited ability to distribute resources and extract rents according to their own will (Johnson, 2003).

Decentralisation may take any of the four forms:

1. Deconcentration—handing over some amount of administrative authority to lower levels.
2. Delegation—transferring responsibilities for specifically defined functions to organisations those are outside the regular bureaucratic structure and indirectly controlled by the central government.

3. Devolution—creation and strengthening of sub-national unit of the government activities of which are substantially outside the direct control of the central government.

4. Privatisation—passing all responsibilities for functions to non-governmental organisations independent of the government. The word ‘decentralisation’, therefore, relates to the devolution of powers resulting from the creation of bodies separated by law from the national centre to local representatives (Meenakshisundaram, 1994).

There are several conditions for the success of decentralisation. Jaya Prakash Narayan has identified six conditions for its success. These are: a) education of the people, b) non-politicisation of the Panchayats, c) trust in people leading to the devolution of power, d) local control over resources, e) local ownership of the civil servants, and establishment of democratic gram sabhas to ensure people’s participations. The World Bank also identified four other conditions for success of decentralisation these conditions are: i) supports by central political leaders and bureaucracies; ii) conducive culture, behaviour and attitudes for decentralised decision-making; iii) appropriately designed policies and programmes; and iv) adequate financial, human and physical resources to all the operating units (Pareek, 1989).

The amount of decentralisation depends on readiness of the operating units to use decision making power given to them. Unless the operating units are made competent to use effectively the delegated authority for the purpose of developmental and other goals, the ultimate aim of decentralisation may fail. Scholars have identified four types of competencies important for this purpose—1. Technical competencies, 2. Planning competencies, 3. Human process competencies i.e., tendency to take responsibility and effective team work, and 4. Negotiating competency (Pareek, 1989).

Decentralisation, in India, is as old as its civilisation. Decentralisation was found even in the age of Vedas (Jayswal, 1955). Even in 'Ramayana' and 'Mahabharata' there is the mention of decentralised form of government (Mookherjee, R, 1958). In case of Sikkim also, the process of decentralisation has a long history. The modern history of Sikkim begins with Phuntsog Namgyal, in the year 1642, who is declared as the first Chogyal of the state. The State was more or less centrally administered during his period.

To run the administration efficiently and effectively, the Chogyal has divided the whole territory of the state into twelve Dzongs (Districts in modern sense of term) with the heads called Dzongpons. The names of these twelve Dzongs are:

1. Lassu,
2. Dallom,
3. Yangthang,
4. Gangtok,
5. Rhenok,
6. Barmeak,
7. Tashiding,
8. Song,
9. Libing,
10. Maling,
11. Simik,
12. Pandom (Chhetri, 2012).

The Dzongpons, the head of the Dzongs, were to be appointed by the Chogyal himself, generally, from the members of the leading families of the State and were responsible to the Chogyal. The chief qualifications demanded of a Dzongpon were adequate wealth, wisdom and popularity.

The power and authority of the Dzongpons flow from the Chogyal himself. They had to work under the direct supervision of the Chogyal. The main functions of the Dzongpons were to maintain the law and order within Dzongs, to collect rent in kind or cash from the cultivators on specified land. They used to enjoy some judicial power also (Chhetri, 2012). Actually, they had to perform the duties of a District Collector in our time. So, it can be opined that decentralisation of administration was there, though in a limited sense of term, during the time of the first recorded Chogyal of the State.

The then administration in Sikkim was designed to be controlled centrally. However, the Chogyal allowed the presence of the village panchayats system under various names in different parts of the country. Some of these systems like, Chhodu system in Dzongu, community panchayats in Tsongs were even older than the Tibetan colonisation in Sikkim.

The Lepchas in Dzongu had their own administrative system at the village level called Chhodu i.e. the village council. This council was to constitute of the elders of each household. The council enjoyed some administrative as well as judicial powers. Muktiar, Mandal, Gyapon and Youmi are some of the office bearer of the council (Chopra, 1979).

Muktiar was the official link between the State and the people. He was responsible for the supervision and coordination of the work of all village Mandals. He has to supervise all tax accountants and visit the villages twice in a year to inspect the fields to see that grains had not been planted in excess of the

amount on which tax had been paid. He had to maintain the register of births and deaths within his jurisdiction (Gorer, 1967).

Mandal was made responsible for the collection of revenues. He was responsible for the maintenance of law and order within his jurisdiction. He had some welfare functions also. Being the head of the village he had to arrange even the marriages of most of the people, to advise the villagers and to act as the intermediary between villagers and the court. The office of the Mandal is hereditary. The chief qualifications demanded of a Mandal are good character, wisdom, adequate wealth and popularity (Gorer, 1967).

Youmi was to be nominated by the Mandal in consultation with the village elders. According to the convention, a Youmi must be an old and experienced person and must be an ex-Gyapon. He must have engaged in social welfare activities. Youmi was to assist the Mandal in his works. On the other hand, the Gyapon was an elected person who was to be elected from the villagers. The main functions of the Gyapon were collection of taxes, summoning the villagers for ceremonies, collection of grains from each house for communal ceremonies, and prevention of crime etc. (Gorer, 1967).

Another form of decentralised administration is seen in the Bhutia inhabited villages Lachen and Lachung those are situated in the present North district of Sikkim. The villages have their own assembly called Dzumsa. The meeting of the Dzumsa is held in a public hall called Mong-khyim i.e. Dzumsa Ghar. The head of the families of the village can be the member of the Dzumsa. Initially, the male members only could be the members of the Dzumsa. However, later on this restriction has been removed and at present, both the male and the female can be the member of the Dzumsa. The important officers of this village assembly are Pipon and Gyapon (Chhetri, 2012).

Dzumsa the village assembly meets every year to elect two Pipons—one senior Pipon and the other junior Pipon. However, initially, the Pipon was not an elected representative of the villagers. He was to be appointed by the Chogyal himself. After the introduction of two-tier panchayati raj system in that Sikkim, the senior Pipon is made the member of the Zilla Panchayat. In the village Lachung the Pipon is directly elected by the village people at the meeting of the village assembly. However, in case of Lachen the Lama, the Buddhist priest enjoys the ultimate power to nominate the Pipon (Chhetri, 2012).

Normally, the Pipon was to be elected for a period of one year. He is eligible for re-election also. However, he may be replaced before the completion of the term through the device of recall. The qualifications demanded of a Pipon are: he must be a member of the Dzumsa, he must be a land revenue payee and possess wealth, he must be a popular person in the village, he must be a male member and preferably elder one from the family, and he must be able, intelligent and has a good family background.

Dzumsa generally meets once in a year. However, the Pipon may call the meeting at any time, if the situation demands. Any kind of dispute is to be settled through the meeting of the Dzumsa. The meeting is summoned by the Pipon in consultation with the elders and the Gyapon. Gyapon is the office bearer of the Dzumsa. He has to inform the villagers about the meeting. Initially the attendance in the meeting was compulsory and absentees were fined by the Pipon. However, with the advent of modern era the attendance is made voluntary and imposition of fine to the absentees has been removed (Chhetri, 2012). It is interesting to mention that the State of Sikkim is still experiencing the Dzumsas. Under the Sikkim Panchayat (Amendment) Act, 2001, the State Government deemed it expedient that the traditional Institutions of the Dzumsas continued to exist in accordance with the Traditional and Customary Law.

These Institutions were made to exercise powers and functions provided under the Act in addition to those exercised by them under the existing Traditional Law (Shrestha, 2005).

There is another kind of local government in Sikkim, known as Gaon or community panchayats. The Nepalese in Sikkim settled mainly low land of the state. They had their own type of traditional village administration. The society in Sikkim was purely feudal in nature hence, there developed a number of feudal lords who occupied a sizable portion of agricultural land in different parts of the State. This private occupied portion of land gave birth to Ellakas. Each Ellaka was directly under the control of Ellakadars—the owner of the Ellakas. The Ellakadars enjoyed the executive as well as judicial powers. The Mandals were appointed by the Ellakadars in order to regulate the intra-village affairs. The mandal was empowered to maintain the law and order within his jurisdiction and to collect the revenues. This Ellaka system was recognised officially in 1906 under Political Officer's Notification No. 2338 (Chheri, 2012). This notification defined the powers and functions of the Ellakadars.

The clause 2 of the Notification of 1906 enumerated the following administrative powers of Ellakadars:

1. Link between the state government and ryots,
2. Collection of land revenue and house tax,
3. Registration of birth and death in the Ellakas, and
4. Agent of government at local level.

Besides, the Ellakadars has the judicial power to try petty cases of cattle trespass, petty land disputes, and debt cases of value not more than Rs.10.00 with fine to the extent of Rs. 5.00 (Chhetri, 2012).

The traditional systems of local self government in Sikkim remained the same till 1965. The Sikkim Panchayat Act of 1965 integrated the chhodu system with the pattern prevalent in the rest of the country. The local self-government prevalent in Lachen and Lachung was, however, remained to be continued at present day also. The British rulers, also, though brought many changes in the working of the administration, left it untouched and allowed to run as it was. In fact, the basic feudal fabric in the State remained the same. It is only the systematisation of the revenue collection that was the contribution of the Britishers as the protector of the State (Basnet, 1974).

J.C. White was appointed as the Political Officer at Gangtok in the year 1989. After his appointment, Mr. White tried to introduce the land settlement programme that brought substantial changes in the land ownership pattern. The Notification No. 2338, 1906 recognised the Ellaka system, for the first time, and defined the powers and functions of the Ellakadars.

There were 104 Ellakas in Sikkim of which 11 were managed by Managers appointed on commission by state. Generally Managers were selected from any of the neighbouring Ellakadars and the system of collection of revenue was same as that of the lessees. 15 Ellakas formed the Private Estate of His Highness, the Maharaja of Sikkim. Five Ellakas' land revenue tax went to the upkeep of the five big monasteries of Sikkim. Of the Ellakadars of the State 21 were Kazis, 6 were Bhutias, 8 were Lepchas, 13 were Nepalese and 1 was a domiciled Plainsman (Administrative Report of the Sikkim State for the year 1936-37 to 1937-38).

In order to carry out the intra-village affairs, each Ellaka was divided into some convenient blocks headed by Mandle (Administrative Report of the Sikkim State for the year 1936-37 to 1937-38). The Mandles were appointed by the Ellakadars. The ceiling of land that Mandle and the Ellakadars could hold

was also decided by the government orders. A Mandle of the various blocks of an Ellaka may acquire the land up to 30 acres and the Ellakadars could acquire not more than 100 acres (Chhetri, 2012).

During this system the Ellakadars enjoyed both administrative and judicial powers. The Ellakadars were responsible for the collection of taxes—land revenue and house hold taxes—with the help of the Mandles. They were empowered to try petty cases of cattle trespass, petty land disputes and debt case of value not exceeding Rs.10.00 with fine to the extent of Rs.5.00, the Ellakadars performed their functions as the magistrate on both of his private estate and leased lands, and was responsible for maintaining the local courts and police (Chhetri, 2012).

According to the judicial power enjoyed by the Ellakadars they could be grouped into four different categories. The first category of Ellakadars enjoyed the judicial powers to try ordinary civil and criminal cases and to fine up to Rs. 100 or imprisonment of one month within the limit of their Ellakas. The second category of Ellakadars was conferred with powers to try ordinary civil and criminal cases and to fine upto Rs. 50. The third and fourth categories of Ellakadars enjoyed powers to try ordinary cases and fine up to Rs. 25 and Rs 15 respectively. However, this judicial power does not include the British citizens residing in the State (Chhetri, 2012). It was only the Indian Panchayat that could try the British people. This Panchayat was consisted of four Indians, one Nepali, and one Sikkimese.

The policy of decentralisation in Sikkim experienced many changes during the rule of Tashi Namgyal and his son Palden Thondup Namgyal. During the rule of Tashi Namgyal, the eleventh Chogyal of Sikkim, a Panchayat Tribunal was established under the notification No.3054-254/PS dated 24th January, 1948. This Panchayat had to be consisted of the Land Lord and other

four villagers of the estate. According to Clause 5 of the Notification the Mandal would ask their block people in a meeting called for the purpose to select four persons to represent the block in the final selection. These four members of the blocks would then elect the four member of the Panchayat Tribunal. The qualifications of the membership, according to the Notification were:

a) Member of the Panchayat would be not less than twenty-two years of age,

b) He must be literate in any vernacular language,

c) He would be a payee of a land tax of not less than Rs. 15. One development towards the establishment of transparent administration could be noticed in this Notification. The conviction of an offence of moral turpitude would be a disqualification for membership (Dhamala, 1985).

It was the year 1951 when Sikkim experienced an elected representative body at the village level when Local Area Panchayat came into existence vide Sikkim Darbar Gazette Notification dated 5th August, 1951. The Indo-Sikkim treaty gave recognition to the demand of Sikkim State Congress for the formation of village Panchayats and transfer of power from the Landlords to the village Panchayats (Dhamala, 1985).

According to the provisions of the Notification the members of the Local Area Panchayat were to be elected by the villagers directly and after election the members had to be confirmed by the Darbar. Any person who attain the age of 18 and above and who had resided in that local area for at least 12 months prior to the electoral date were entitled to vote. The Notification also held that the candidates, the proposers and seconders must be bonafied voters of that area (Dhamala, 1985).

Under Clause 8 of the Notification the Local Area Panchayats enjoyed the following power and functions:

- The Panchayat had power to establish primary schools in conformity with Government's resolution, set up amenities such as travellers rest house, wayside benches etc;
- It had to maintain and repair of village path with the co-operation and assistance of the villagers;
- It had power to build cattle ponds, at convenient places and assess damage to crops by stray animals; and
- It also enjoyed the judicial power in the civil cases up to the value of Rs.100 (Dhamala, 1985).

During the period of the Chogyal Tashi Namgyal the state of Sikkim witnessed a number of steps towards decentralisation. The land reform initiatives were taken during his regime. Whole territory of Sikkim was divided into two Teshils (Revenue District) i.e. east Sikkim and West Sikkim. Each Teshil was kept under the supervision of an officer called Teshildar. The Teshildars were to be assisted by a number of officers namely, a Deputy Development Officer, An Extension officer, a Revenue Inspector, those who were appointed by the Sikkim Darbar and there were other officers also deputed to the 'district' level by the various departments of the Secretariat (Chhetri, 2012).

The Teshildars were entrusted with some revenue functions, Executive functions and Magisterial functions. Being the head of the revenue administration within the Teshil, the Teshildar had to collect taxes, maintain the records and accounts of the Khazana or land tax, so far as the collection of was corned it was the prime responsibility of the Teshildars to see that not only done promptly, efficiently but also sympathetically. He was

head of the police force within the district. He was also empowered to pass sentence of imprisonment for a term not exceeding six months and fine not exceeding two hundred rupees. He would look after the cases of defaulter of payment and impose the fine accordingly. The complaints and the police charge sheet were to be filed directly in the courts of Teshildar. He had the power to inspect the records and working of the Honorary Courts and to submit their reports to the Dewan. So far as the executive powers were concern, the Teshildar had to act as the sub-registrar within their jurisdiction. The applications for royalty free use of timber in forest were to be verified by the Teshildar (Chhetri, 2012).

The demand for more democracy and decentralisation was raised from within the political parties in Sikkim. Consequently, various steps had been taken by the Chogyal to respond these demands. As a result, Sikkim had experienced the formation of State Council, Executive Council, Advisory Council and the General elections to the State council. Not only this, the territory of Sikkim was divided into four Districts with district officers, namely, North, South, East and West with their headquarters at Mangan, Namchi, Gangtok and Gyalshing respectively.

The District Officers were appointed by the Chogyal himself. They were in charge of the district and had to act as a Magistrate, Deputy Development Officer and Inspector of Land Revenue. The District Officers were invested with the following functions:

- I. To act as link between the Chogyal and the district administration;
- II. To ensure the law and order in the district;
- III. To draw a plan for integrated socio-economic development of the region;

- IV. To provide good and efficient administration;
- V. To co-ordinate and implement the economic development programmes (Chhetri, 2012).

The 50s of the last century witnessed a tilt towards decentralisation. Many leading ideas on local governments emerged during this period (Lalitha, 2004). Sikkim was also not an exception to this direction. Influenced by the ongoing process of decentralisation, the Chogyal of Sikkim passed the Sikkim Panchayat Act, 1965. This Act stipulated a single tier Panchayat system with Block Panchayat at the village level. There was the concept of Block Sabha under the Sikkim Panchayat Act, 1965. Block Sabha was consisted of the adult Sikkim subjects who pay land revenue or local tax to the Government for the landed property or house owned in their names.

Clause 11(1) of this Panchayat Act enumerated different functions of the Block Panchayats that can be grouped as follows:

1. Planned improvement of agriculture establishment and management of model agricultural farms, crop experiments to secure minimum standard of cultivation and construction of compost pits;
2. Promotion of dairy farming poultry, piggery, improvement of cattle and cattle breeding.
3. Organisation of community Programme for soil conservation and tree planting, embankment against floods, petty irrigation works etc. ;
4. Construction of public latrine, sanitation, health hygiene and conservancy;
5. Maternity and child welfare;

6. Promotion of cottage;
7. Construction and maintenance of roads, bridge and drains;
8. Construction, repair and maintenance of school buildings;
9. Taking preventive and remedial measures connected with epidemics;
10. Cultural and social development activities;
11. Maintenance of burning and burial grounds;
12. Recording of birth, death and marriages;
13. Recommendations for improvement of Gorucharan, khasmal and primary schools;
14. Rural water supply and programme of minimum rural amenities including construction of approach roads linking each village to the nearest road;
15. Management of primary schools; and
16. Works programme for the full utilisation of manpower resources for rural areas and other such matters as may from time to time be referred to it by the District Officer (Chhetri, 2012).

Besides, the Block Panchayats there was Bazaar Committee Act, 1969 that dealt with the establishment and administration of the Bazaar areas. The Committee was to be constituted of six members—among them two were to be elected from Sikkim subjects, two from non Sikkim subjects residing in that area and one was to be nominated by the Chogyal himself. The District Officer acted as the Ex-officio Chairman of the Committee. So, after analysing the story of decentralisation before merger it can well be said that it was the principle of deconcentration and delegation were there during that time.

After 1975 when Sikkim became an integral part of India the other two principles of decentralisation, gradually, took place. The concept of devolution has reached to its culminating point after the introduction of 73rd and 74th Constitution Amendment Acts in 1992. However, ten years before these Acts Sikkim Panchayat Act of 1982 was enacted to replace the previous Sikkim Panchayat Act of 1965.

Establishment of Panchayat in the state was made in 1948 under Notification No. 3052-254/ P. S. dated 24. 01. 1948. The Sikkim Panchayat Act, 1965 was passed to ensure rural development and enable participation in all communities in the village level. In 1982, another new act was enacted to introduce the two tiers Panchayati Raj System in that state—Gram Panchayat at the village level and Zilla Panchayat at the district level. However, under Act the Panchayat members must not be an elected member. In most of the cases, like other part of India they were nominated by the majority party in power. All major developmental functions like agriculture, education, health etc. were directly under the concerned departments of the state government.

The Sikkim Panchayat Act 1993 was enacted in conformity with the 73rd Constitutional Amendment Act, 1992 and provided appropriate framework for involvement of people in the formulation of plans and execution of rural development programmes and social justice. It is primarily aimed at restructuring the society towards participatory democracy as well as laying the foundation for democratic decentralization in Sikkim.

The Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRIs) act as the unit of local self government and as an effective instrument of implementing various development programmes in the rural areas. Both the Gram Panchayats and the Zilla Panchayats are empowered with the overall supervision, co-ordination and

implementation of development programmes at the village as well as the district level and also preparation of plans for the area of their jurisdiction.

The Rural Management & Development Department (RMDD) is the in charge of the effective functioning of the PRIs. The Zilla Panchayats and the Gram Panchayats, according to Sections 69 of the Sikkim Panchayat Act, 1993, the Zilla Panchayats are invested with the powers relating to regulation of melas and haats, construction and maintenance of Panchayat ghars, dharmasalas, minor irrigation, regulating supply of drinking water and water for irrigation, forestation, promotion of social forestry and environmental conservation, establishment and maintenance of primary schools, health centre and child welfare and maternity centre, organisation of relief works, preparation of plans for all round development of the district.

34 of the said Act, 1993, as amended in the year 1995, the Gram Panchayats have the power relating to construction and maintenance of sanitation, drainage, village roads, dharmasalas, buildings; imposition and collection of taxes, fees or rates; immunisation; management of common grazing ground, burning place and public grave yards; registration birth and death; regulating in floe of animals; disposal of stray and ownerless dogs, unclaimed cattle.

Despite these mandatory functions there are some assigned functions for both Gram Panchayats and Zilla Panchayats. Under Section 35 of the above mentioned Act the Gram Panchayats have to deal with the management of government primary schools, dispensaries, primary health centres, child welfare and maternity centres; construction and maintenance of minor irrigation; welfare programme for the infirm and destitute; rehabilitation of displaced persons; cattle improvement programmes; promotion of education including

adult education and plantation; land reforms; regulation of fairs, melas, haats etc.; bringing into cultivation waste and fallow land.

On the other hand, under Section 70 of the same Act the Zilla Panchayats are entitled to carry out the functions like promotion of responsibility of employment through community farming; organisation and maintenance of clubs and other places for recreation or games; establishment, encouragement and maintenance of library and reading rooms; construction and maintenance of destitute homes; slaughter houses and encamping grounds; promotion of agriculture and of communal harmony.

Section 11 of the said Act as it was amended in 2005 provides that the Gram Sabha enjoys the authority to approve the works and the development plans, to identify the beneficiaries for extending benefits of social sector schemes besides, there is the District Planning Committee that consolidates the plans prepared by the Panchayats into the draft district plan of the district.

After merger a more or less autocratic and centralised administrative system (despite a number of steps taken by the Chogyal towards democracy and decentralisation) has been transformed into a democratic one. Consequently measures have been adopted by the government of Sikkim. And with the advent of democracy and decentralisation, the concept of good governance received too much importance in Sikkim like any other developing countries.

Good governance is a term that has suddenly entered the vocabulary of public administration since the 90s of the 20th century (Bhattacharya, 1999). The Concise Oxford Dictionary defines good governance as an “act or manner of governing” and “the office or function of governing” while ‘govern’ is defined as “rule or control with authority; conduct the policy and affairs”. It means, governance refer to a process or the act or function of exercising authority (usually legitimate) to regulate affairs of man in a given territory,

generally a State (Dey, 1999). R. C. Sekhar (1999) holds good governance may be defined sometime in terms of goals, sometimes in terms of means, sometimes left entirely too democratic choice of goals and sometimes with pre-ordained goals.

From the experiences of the World Bank at several developing countries, the Bank realised that “good governance is central to creating and sustaining an environment which fosters strong and equitable development and it is an essential complement to sound economic policies”. Three distinct aspects can well be identified in the conceptualisation of ‘governance’. These aspects are: i) the form of political regime; ii) the process by which authority is exercised in the management of a country’s economic and social resources; and iii) the capacity of governments to design, formulate and implement policies, and in general, to discharge government functions (Bhattacharya, 1999).

The World Bank identified seven parameters of good governance those are relevant to both of the developed as well as developing countries. These parameters are:

1. Legitimacy of the political system which can best be achieved through regular elections and political accountability.
2. Freedom of association and participation by various socio-economic, religious, cultural and professional groups in the process of governance.
3. An established legal framework based on the rule of law and independence of judiciary to protect human right, secure social justice and guard against exploitation and abuse of power.

4. Bureaucratic accountability including transparency in administration.
5. Freedom of expression required for formulation of public policies, decision-making, monitoring and evaluation of government performance.
6. A sound administrative system leading to efficiency and effectiveness.
7. Co-operation between the government and civil society organisation.

The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) has also identified four indicators of good governance. They are as follows:

1. Legitimacy of government;
2. Accountability of political and official elements of government;
3. Competence of government to make policy and deliver services;
4. Respect for human rights and rule of law.

If we look into the working of the government of Sikkim we can identify a number of measures taken to ensure good governance. Firstly, the government officers are made accountable to the common people. At the grass-root level, the people's representatives are made answerable to the common villagers through the meetings of the Gram Sabha. Gram Sabha, under the new Panchayat Act of 1995, has power—to review the annual statement of accounts, to review the reports of the preceding financial year, to review and submit views on development programmes for the following year, and to participate in the identification of beneficiaries for some government schemes. Besides, there are the Vigilance Committee and the Beneficiary Committee. This Committee is

generally consisted of the Panchayat members of respective village. This Committee has to monitor and over see the works of the Panchayats. And the Beneficiary Committee is formed to minimise the role of the contractors and middlemen in carrying out public works and enable speedy completion of work that is undertaken. The clearance certificates are to be sanctioned by the Beneficiary Committee before drawing of final bills from the departments after the completion of work.

Audit is another weapon that made the officials accountable. A system of statutory audit has been introduced under the state Panchayat Act. The provisions for both the internal and external audit are there in Sikkim at the Panchayat level. The internal audit is conducted by Audit Officers of the state government and the Auditor General and his staff conduct external audit annually for the Panchayats.

Secondly, a transparent administration also ensures good governance. The quality of transparency is further enhanced if stakeholders are not merely informed of what business transpires, but are also given the opportunity to participate in the decision-making process and effectively influence it (Jha, 2006). People must have an access to 'reliable' and 'user-friendly' information about the functioning of the government. This access may be provided in two ways: 1) the citizens must be given the right to information, and 2) the PRIs also should furnish informations about their activities (Ghosh, 2005). The right to information act promote openness, transparency and accountability in administration by making government more open to continuing public scrutiny (Mander and Joshi, 1999).

The third ingredient, that is an indispensable part of good governance, is participation. People's participation may be direct or indirect, formal or informal, highly institutionalised or adhoc, continuous or intermittent (Cohen &

Uphoff, 1980; Mishra & Mishra, 1999). Being a democratic state indirect participation of the common people is ensured at the state level of administration. But the people directly participate in the working of the Panchayats through Gram Sabha.

Legitimacy, democracy and decentralisation are also essential for good governance. In Sikkim, there is no point of difference that, a legitimate democratic government is running since 1974. The measures to make the administration more and more decentralised have been taking place from the reign of the first recorded Chogyal of the state. And keeping all these things as background the present study will try to identify the degree of good governance that is achieved through the decentralised system of administration.

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CHAPTER-VI

DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION AND THE DISTRICTS IN SIKKIM

DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION *AND THE DISTRICTS IN SIKKIM*

Development administration, the most interesting innovation of Fred W. Riggs got much more importance during the late 70's of the last century. However, the term development yet to have a unanimous definition. Scholars frequently view this concept as 'economic growth', 'modernisation', 'nation building', 'social change' or simply as a 'state of mind'. Edward Weidner one of the important pioneers in the field of development administration defined this term as "the process of guiding an organisation toward the achievement of development objective". These objectives are "progressive political, economic, and social objectives that are authoritatively determined in one manner or another" (Arora, 2007). Ferrel Heady equates development with modernisation. To him 'development' and 'modernisation' or 'mordenity' are inter-related concepts that are widely but variously used to refer the major social transformation involving a complex of social economic and political changes (Meena, 2007).

Development is a continuing process of formulating, reformulating and implementing a set of related goals, plans, programmes, activities and tasks for realising the stated goals in a prescribed time sequence. And administration is one of the principal instruments available in governments for realising the goals of nation building and socio-economic progress (Krishnaveni, 1996).

The term development administration has been used in two inter-related senses—one is administration of development programmes and another is development of administration. Development can be of two types—a) quantitative development and b) qualitative development. However Fred W. Riggs are not ready to accept quantitative changes as developments. He is of the

opinion that by the term development one should refer to the “changes in the basic structural arrangements of society and economy not the degree to which these structures are productive or non-productive”. But, at the same time, we cannot ignore the quantitative changes because at the end these are also qualitative in nature.

In most of the key areas of development administration it is difficult to observe any uniform pattern either in the activities or in the behaviour of the various elements. In the diffused sectors like agriculture, education, community development, health, family planning and many areas of social welfare, it is virtually not possible to establish a clear-cut role for social, economic, political and administrative institutions in development administration. So, in the developmental situation it is not possible to identify clearly the behavioural values which have to be changed or the methods through which they can be changed. Even it is not possible to design an administrative set-up which can place both the agent of change and the clientele system of any kind of an effective organized relationship. Consequently, the various institutions and processes working in the developmental context criss-cross each other cause considerable confusion in their working, while the existing administrative theory remains on the side-lines.

India, with an experience of colonial rule, experienced a disproportionate development through the State. Actually the rural masses were neglected by the colonial rulers. However, the urban centres have been grown up at the cost of the rural areas. This unequal development of rural areas gave birth to a variety of problems those required prompt attention (Mehta, 1984).

During the pre-independence era, efforts to develop the socio-economic as well as cultural position of rural masses have been taken by some individuals like Tagore, Gandhiji and so on. No initiative was found on the part of the

Government. During the post independence period the state began to emphasis on the requirements of a welfare state. There was a greater awareness on the part of the citizens about their rights and responsibilities in the society. Under this situation development has become a major focus of administrative activity in India. The process of development consists of bringing about structural and behavioural change in social, economic and political life of the people. Development administration, as a concept, carnets the totality of administrative process involved in developmental activities.

After independence the first efforts for rural development was the introduction of Community Development Programme (CDP) in 1952. Onwards 1952 a number of programmes have been taken by the Government of India under various five year plans.

The rural development programmes with the respective dates of beginning and with a brief of their objectives can be shown in the following table:

Table—6.1

List of Rural Development Programmes

Sl.No.	Name of the Programmes	Year of commencement	objectives
1	Community Development Programme (CDP)	1952	Over-all development of rural areas with people's participation.
2	Intensive rural Agriculture Programme	1960-61	Providing loans for seeds and fertilizers to farmers

3	Intensive Agriculture Area Programme (IAAP)	1964-65	To develop special harvest in agriculture area.
4	Credit authorization scheme	1965	Involved qualitative credit control of Reserve Bank of India.
5	High Yielding Variety Programme (HYVP)	1966-67	To increase the productivity of food grains by adopting latest varieties of inputs of crops.
6	Green Revolution	1966-67	To increase productivity (confined to wheat production)
7	Rural Electricity Corporation	1969	To provide electricity in rural area
8	Scheme of Discriminatory Interest rate	1972	To provide loan to the weaker sections of society at a concessional interest rate of 4%
9	Accelerated Rural Water Supply Programme	1972-73	Providing drinking water in villages
10	Drought Prone Area Programme	1973	Protection from drought by achieving

			environment balance and by developing ground water.
11	Crash Scheme for Rural Employment (CSRE)	1973	Aiming at rural employment
12	Marginal Farmer and Agriculture Labour Agency (MFALA)	1973-74	Technical and financial assistance to marginal farmers
13	Small Farmer Development Scheme (SFDS)	1974-75	Technical and financial assistance to small farmers.
14	Command Area Development Programme (CADP)	1975	Better utilisation of irrigational capacities
15	Twenty Point Programme (TPP)	1975	Poverty eradication and an overall objective of raising the level of living
16	National Institute of Rural Development (NIRD)	1977	It is a training, investigation and advisory body for rural development
17	Food for Work Programme	1977-78	Providing food grains to labours

18	Training Rural Youth for Self Employment(TRYSEM)	1979	Providing educational and vocational training
19	Integrated Rural Development Programme(IRDP)	1980	To secure overall development of the poor
20	National Rural Development Programme(NRDP)	1980	To provide employment for rural manforce
21	Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas	1982	Sustainable opportunities for self employment to the women belonging to the rural families who are living below the poverty line
22	Rural Landless Employment Guarantee Programme(RLEGP)	1983	To provide the employment to landless farmers and labourers
23	Farmer's Agriculture Service Centres(FASCs)	1983-84	To train the people to use the improved instruments of agriculture
24	National Fund for Rural Development(NFRD)	1984	To grant tax rebate to donors and also to

			provide financial assistance for rural development project
25	Comprehensive Crop Insurance Scheme	1985	To provide Crop insurance
26	Council of Advancement of People's Action and Rural Technology	1986	To assist rural people
27	Self Employment Programme for the Poor	1986	To provide self employment through credit and subsidy
28	National Drinking Water Mission	1986	To provide safe drinking water to rural poor. This programme was renamed and upgraded to Rajiv Gandhi National Drinking Water Mission in 1991
29	Jawahar Rojgar Yojna(JRY)	1989	To provide employment to rural unemployed
30	Agriculture and Rural Debt Relief Scheme(ARDRS)	1990	To exempt bank loans upto Rs.10000 for rural artisans and weavers
31	Scheme of Housing and	1990	To provide employment

	Shelter Upgradation		by shelter upgradation
32	National Housing Bank Voluntary Deposit Scheme	1991	To use black money by constructing low cost housing for the poor
33	Employment Assurance Scheme	1993	To provide employment of, at least, 100 days in a year in villages.
34	Mahila Samridhi Yojna	1993	To encourage rural women to deposit in post office scheme.
35	Child Labour Eradication Scheme	1994	To shift child labours from hazardous industries to school.
36	National Social Assistance Programme	1995	To assist the people living below the poverty line.
37	Group Life Insurance Scheme	1996	To provide insurance in rural areas for low premium.
39	Ganga kalyan Yojna	1997-98	To provide financial assistance to farmers exploring ground water resources
40	Annapoorna Yojna	1999	To provide 10 kgs of food grains to elderly

			people.
41	Swarna Jayanti Gramin Swarajgar Yojna	1999	To provide self employment in rural areas.
41	Pradhan Mantri Gram Sadak Yojna	2000	To connect all villages with nearest pukka road.
42	Sampoorna Gramin Rozgar Yojna	2001	To provide employment and food security to rural people.
43	National Food for Work Programme	2004	To provide supplementary wages as food grains for work.
44	Janani Suraksha Yojna	2005	To provide care for pregnant women
45	National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme	2006	To provide 100 days wage for development works in rural areas.
46	Rajib Awas Yojna	2009	To make India slum free within 5 years.

Source: Singh (1995) & Five year Plan Documents, planning Commission, government of India.

Keeping all these things as a background, now we have to look at the facts in Sikkim. So far as the administration is concerned in Sikkim, till 1975 administrative provision was made for the protection of the interest of the two communities--the Bhutia-Lepcha and the Nepalese. But after merger these

community wise representation has been changed and showed a clear tilt to the Nepalese.

During the pre-merger period the administrative system in Sikkim was feudal in nature. The administrators were responsible to the Chogyal himself, not to the people. During post merger period development had to be consolidated and supported by administrative development. For this purpose, attempts were made to modernize the administrative system as an instrument of planned economic development.

In order to modernise the administration the legal rational authority has been introduced. The agency through which the power is implemented under this type of authority is called bureaucracy. This bureaucratic system is based on specialisation of work, hierarchy of position, rule boundness, recruitment on merit, and loyalty of office. During post integration period, with the advent of modernism in administration, specialisation of work can be seen in Sikkim. However, it can be said that the process of specialisation has been started since 1973 when the judicial power of District Collector has been taken away from him and entrusted to the judicial officers who are specialised in law. Likewise the head of the department of Health and Social Service has become a person specialised in medicine. Hierarchy of position was there during the period of traditional authority. But there was some kind of authoritarian attitude towards the junior colleagues in the organisation and a sense of disregard to the rules and regulations was there (Dhamala, 1985). However, after integration mutual responsibility and a sense of rule boundness has been emerged. The administrators became loyal to the office and rules and not to the ruling authority of the state.

With the abandonment of the royal patronage in the field of recruitment, merit principle came to be recognised. For this purpose an open competitive

examination is held under the auspices of the Selection Committee till this date. The Director of Institute of Tibetology and Director of Tasi Namgyal Academy conduct such examinations. The generalists are recruited through this type of examination. However, it is to be noted that when the administration is set for attaining programmatic goals the generalist dominated personnel system is highly inadequate for the purpose. Therefore, a shift of emphasis in this regard is necessary, for bringing the organisation and classification of service and post, in tune with the needs of development administration in Sikkim. (Bhaumik and Bhattacharyya, 1977)

Due to the development of administration the number of the departments under district administration has been increased. Being a 'prismatic society' some kind of overlapping is there in the functioning of these departments. As a result, the role of District Collector as a coordinator has been increased tremendously. In fact, this coordinating function becomes the most important function of the District Collector in the present day.

During the last one and half decade enormous efforts have been taken in the field of infrastructural development in the state. This development has been reflected throughout the state. The revenue receipt of the Urban Development and Housing Department has increased from Rs. 78.91lakhs during 1994-95 to Rs.424.89lakhs in 2008-09. It was a jump of near about 438% over a period of 15 year. The collection of entertainment tax was Rs. 29, 54,478.00 in the year 1994-95. It has risen to Rs. 54, 37,931.00 in the year 2006-07(www.pawan-chamling.org).

One of the important sources of income of the state of Sikkim is tourism. In order to create more attraction of the tourists remodelling and beautification of MG Marg, Gangtok is done. A ropeway from Deorali to Secretariat, Gangtok has been started to carry passengers. Children Park near Paljor Stadium, Titanic

Park and Millennium Park in Gangtok, Central Park at Namchi has been established.

A walkway from Baluwakhani, Gangtok to Ranipool along the National Highway; Drainage system along NH 31-A from Zero Point to Ranipool; CarPark cum Shopping Complexes at Lall Market and Development Area, Baluwakhani in Gangtok and Singtam; Multi Utility Centre near Lall Market and 32 No. middle Camp at East Sikkim; Car Park Plaza at West Point School, Multi level Car Parking at Deorali in Gangtok; four Shopping Complexes at Jorethang in South Sikkim, Soreng in West Sikkim, Pakyong in East Sikkim and Geyzing in Sikkim have been established.

We have noticed some other infrastructural development keeping in view the health of the common people in Sikkim. One Slum Rehabilitation Centre has been established at Lingding in East Sikkim. Two Solid Waste Composite Plants started working in East Sikkim and West Sikkim. Besides, pay and Use Toilets at Jorethang, Namchi, Ravangla, Rabdentse, Dikchu and Phensang. Bell system has been introduced for effective collection of garbage and to ensure cleanliness in town. Not only have these, Garbage Management Committees been established, with the help of the NGOs, in the bazaar areas.

Besides, augmentation of water supply and capacity enhancement with improved distribution system has been carried out in almost all the urban towns of the state. Sewerage scheme has been initiated at Namchi, Jorethang, Singtam and Rangpo. The PHE department is responsible for supplying drinking water to notified Rural Marketing Centres in Sikkim (www.pawan-chamling.org.)

From the above discussion it becomes clear that there are much more infrastructural developments in Sikkim. However, 'development' does not mean only infrastructural development. Development, actually, means 'growth with equity'. In order to develop a society, the government has to look after the

poorer and the weaker section of the society. Accordingly, the state government of Sikkim has been taken various programmes for the enforcement of the principle of 'growth with equity'. In order to discuss the development programmes the present study grouped the programmes into some heads like programmes for rural development, programmes for the upliftment of the women and children programmes for the youths of the state, programmes to make justice accessible.

Initially Sikkim does not have any District Rural Development Agency and District Planning Committee. Plans were to be formulated at state level. But now, with the advent of decentralization, both are there to make the administration more pro-people. More than 50% people in the third world countries reside in the rural areas. So, there is no wonder that the focus of the present government in Sikkim is devoted to the rural development. 70% of the state budget has to be spent for the welfare measure of the rural people in Sikkim. The state also becomes one of the pioneering states to carry out the policy of decentralisation of power to the grassroots level. Power has been transferred to the villagers through panchayats to make the people partners in the process of policy making and finalising schemes and also implementing them at the grassroots level.

Since the state of Sikkim has merged with India in the year 1975 the rural development programmes launched by the Government of India onwards 1975 has also been executed in Sikkim. The present study tries to uphold some of the latest programmes.

SWARNAJAYANTI GRAM SWAROZGAR YOJNA (SGSY)

The Swarnajayanti Gram Swarozgar yojna (SGSY) is one of the major self employment programmes that have been launched in 1999. It is a holistic self employment scheme that aimed at a sustainable income to rural BPL families through income generating assets or economic activities so as to bring them out of the poverty line. It combines the Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) with allied programmes like TRYSEM, DWCRA, SITRA, GKY, and MWS. The SGSY is trying to achieve social mobilisation through formation of the groups (Self Help Group) those are controlled and managed by their own members. From 1999 to the year 2009 around 2991 self help groups have been formed (Annual Report, Dept. Of Information & Public Relation, Govt. of Sikkim).

The scheme of SGSY is funded both by the Government of India as well as the government of Sikkim in the ratio of 90:10. This programme covers all aspect of self employment such as Self Help Groups (SHGs) credit, training, technology, infrastructure and marketing. According to the guiding line, the beneficiaries are selected by the Block Level Committee in the Gram Sabha from the families below the poverty line (BPL). This programme is aimed at uplifting the poor families from below the poverty line (BPL) to above the poverty line (APL). The swarozgaries may work as individual or in a group under this programme. However, the SHGs are major components under SGSY programme. The SHGs have the advantages to get assistance in terms of credit technology as well as marketing guidance.

Table-6.2

Physical and financial achievements Under SGSY (2010-2011)

OB As on 1.4. 2010	Centre	State	Fund of 2009-10 received during the year 2010-11	Interest accrued	Total	Achievement	SHG formed	SHG received(revolving funds)	SHG received(subsidy)	No. Of individual Swarozgaris and SHG members assisted for economic activities	No. Of Swarozgaris trend
228.30	311.40	30.00	105.87	11.60	687.17	368.39	176	176	165	2163	6800
							groups	groups	groups	Nos.	Nos.

Source: Annual Report 2010-11, RMDD, Government of Sikkim.

TOTAL SANITATION CAMPAIGN

Sikkim is the first state to be declared as the 'Nirmal Rajya' (Annual report 2010-11, RMDD, Government of Sikkim). The health and hygiene of the individual is dependent, to a large extent, on adequate availability of drinking water and proper sanitation. So one can directly relate water and sanitation with health. Consumption of unsafe drinking water, improper disposal of human excreta, improper environmental sanitation and lack of personal and food hygiene have been major causes of many diseases in developing countries. India is no exception to this. Prevailing High Infant Mortality Rate is also largely attributed to poor sanitation. It was in this context that the Central Rural Sanitation Programme (CRSP) was launched in 1986 primarily with the objective of improving the quality of life of the rural people and also to provide privacy and dignity to women.

Sikkim being one of the constituent states of India was not an exception to this direction. However, after implementing this programme, Sikkim within a very short time, achieved 100% sanitation in the year 2008.

INDIRA AWAAS YOJNA

The Government of India has Indira Awaas Yojna (IAY) in the year 1999 with an objective to provide shelter to the homeless rural poor families belonging to scheduled castes/scheduled tribes, freed bonded labourers, physically and mentally challenged individuals and other non SC/ST families. Under this scheme a financial assistance of Rs. 48,500 is to be provided per beneficiary for the construction of new house. The list of beneficiaries is prepared from 2005 Socio-Economic Survey conducted by DESME, Government of Sikkim and on this basis a permanent IAY waitlist has been prepared. In the state of Sikkim, for construction, 30 pieces of green coloured pre coated galvanized GCI sheets are provided with a financial assistance to the selected beneficiaries. The financial assistance is to be released in two instalments. The first instalment has to be released along with the 30 pieces of GCI sheets and the remaining fund is to be released after full construction of the house. Till March, 2011, 16156 new houses have been constructed with the financial expenditure of Rs. 4130.18 lakhs and 5596 houses have been upgraded with the financial expenditure of Rs. 852.86 lakhs under the scheme of IAY. (Annual Report 2010-11, RMDD, Govt. of Sikkim).

RURAL HOUSING SCHEME (RHS)

The Government of Sikkim, with a view to eradicate the curse of poverty from the state, has launched the ambitious "Mission Poverty Free Sikkim-2013" in the year 2010. The problem of the people having no shelter has been solved due to the high priority given to the housing sector by the government of Sikkim. Under RHS from the year 1994-95 to 2008-09, 107495 families have

been benefited and Rs. 181.50 crores have been spent. (Department of Information and Public Relations, Government of Sikkim). And during the same period, 51255 individuals have been distributed GCI sheets and an amount of Rs.65.25 crores have been spent so far. (Annual Administrative Report, 2010-2011, Department of Information and Public Relations, Government of Sikkim.)

However, a survey conducted, in mid 2010, by the Rural Management and Development Department (RMDD) of the government of Sikkim revealed that the number of households staying in Katcha houses is 6000. The poorest of the poor households were able to manage to construct a house with the supports of the housing subsidy programmes. But they were unable to upgrade their household status. Therefore, a need was felt to introduce a new scheme to make Sikkim free from Kutch houses within the year 2013. Accordingly, the state has introduced a new scheme –Mukhya Mantri Awas Yojna. In fact, Sikkim was the first to introduce this scheme.

PRADHAN MANTRI GRAM SADAK YOJNA (PMGSY)

The Pradhan Mantri Gram Sadak Yojna was launched by the Government of India in the year 2000 with a view to connect all the villages with nearest pukka roads. In Sikkim, a master plan has been prepared to construct such roads covering 1800 kms of road length providing rural connectivity to 410 habitations. (Annual Report 2010-11, RMDD, Govt. Of Sikkim) In addition to this the road connectivity was also to be extended to education centres, panchayats head quarters health centres and tourists points.

From the periods of its inception of the scheme up to the year 2012-13, a total number of 296 habitations have been cleared for connecting with an all-weather road by constructing 3,246 kms of road length. Against this, the state has connected 168 habitations by constructing 2,406 kms of road length. (www.rural.nic.in)

The project proposals of the value of Rs. 971 crore have been sanctioned to the state of Sikkim till June, 2012 against which Rs. 600 crore has been released. So far out of this, the state has utilized Rs.499 crore. (www.rural.nic.in)

During the expansion of the rural road net-work, the challenges also lies with maintaining the new infrastructure being created. There is 5 year in built maintenance in the programme; the state has been lagging the capacity to ensure the same. We can show the required funds for the maintenance of the road the funds released to the SRRDA and the funds utilized by the state during last two years through the table below:

Table: 6.3

Details of Maintenance of Funds During the Last Two years

Financial year	Maintenance of Funds Required to be Released (as per maintenance contract)	Actual release to SRRDA During the Financial year	Expenditure under the contracts by SRRDA During the Financial Year
2010-11	2.5	2.5	2.5
2012-13	5.69	1.49	2.92

Source: www.rural.nic.in

NATIONAL RURAL DRINKING WATER PROGRAMM

The availability of safe drinking water is a basic need. According to the Eleventh Schedule of the Constitution of India rural drinking water supply is a state subject and it may be entrusted to the panchayats by the states. To accelerate the pace of coverage of problem villages with respect to provision of

drinking water, the Government of India introduced the Accelerated Rural Water Supply Programme (ARWSP) in the year 1972-73, to support states and union territories with financial and technical assistance in implementing drinking water supply schemes. In order to address the major issues like sustainability, water availability and supply, poor water quality, etc., the Rural Drinking Water Supply Guidelines have been revised with the effect from 01-04-2009. This revised programme has come to known as National Rural Drinking Water Programme (NRDWP).

The NRDWP focuses on the following areas:

1. Moving forward from achieving habitation level to household level drinking water coverage.
2. Moving away from over dependence on single drinking water source to multiple sources through conjunctive use of surface water, ground water, and rainwater harvesting.
3. Ensuring sustainability in drinking water schemes and preventing slip back.
4. Encouraging water conservation methods including revival of traditional water bodies.
5. Convergence of all water conservation programmes at the village level.
6. Ensuring household level drinking water security through water budgeting and preparation of village water plans.
7. Consciously moving away from high cost treatment technologies for tackling arsenic and fluoride contamination to the development of alternative sources/ dilution of aquifers through rainwater harvesting for tackling fluoride contamination.

8. Developing the capacity of preliminary drinking water testing at the gram panchayat level.

9. Establishing Water Testing Laboratory with respect to drinking water, at the district and subdivision level.

10. Linking water Quality Monitoring and Surveillance with the Jalmani guidelines for implementation of standalone drinking water purification systems in rural schools.

11. Encouraging handing over management of Rural Drinking Water Scheme (RWS) to the Panchayati Raj Institutions (incentive of 10% of the NRDWP allocation of the states that transfer the management, is introduced (www.rural.nic.in/sites/NRDWP.asp).

The state statistics under NRDWP during the year 2011-12 can be shown through the table below:

Table: 6.4

Achievement of the NRDWP

As on 01-04-12	Total Habs. Covered	SC Dominated Habs. Covered	ST Dominated Habs. Covered	Other Habs. Covered
East District	82.44%	100.00%	78.30%	82.90%
West District	62.30%	0.00%	65.08%	62.00%
North District	77.17%	0.00%	79.62%	70.97%
South District	61.77%	0.00%	78.18%	60.28%
Sikkim	71.74%	50.00%	76.64%	70.87%

Source: www.Indiawater.govt.in

So, from the above table it becomes clear that the functioning of the NRWDP is satisfactory. However, the North, South, and West districts have to be serious more to cover the SC households under this programme.

The state of Sikkim is not only able to supply safe drinking water to more than 70% households in the rural Sikkim, two water testing laboratories have been set up one at Karfacter SIRD complex for South and West districts and other at Tadong for North and East districts. Testing facilities is available here for all parameters.

DHARA VIKAS

The ecology and economy of the Himalayan states have, tremendously, been affected by the change of climate. The people of this region are predominantly dependent on spring water for their day to day work. As a result of the change of climate these springs are going to dry to met the challenge of this problem the government of Sikkim had launched a new programme, Dhara Vikas, in the year 2008. However, the first project, under this scheme, was implemented in the year 2010.

The Dhara Vikas programme is a unique scheme sponsored by the state government, with the help of the NGOs and other institutions to increase the discharge of springs in rural Sikkim. The labour for the works is funded by the Mahatma Gandhi Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme the local people are to be trained to recognised contours and where to place the trenches and drains so they can direct the project implementation without the Field Facilitators present.

It is modelled with the idea of protecting a spring's catchment area and provided recharge of its aquifer. Its implementation system requires community involvement and it is an example of decentralised water management. It is a system of village level water management that facilitates communities improving their own water supply through spring shed development.

The technology behind the Dhara Vikas Programme is based on slowing the movement of water down the slope. As an impact of the changing rainfall patterns, soils are not absorbing enough water during the monsoon season and the ground water is not being adequately recharged. To solve this problem and increase the discharge of springs in winter, the water need to be slowed down enough to percolate down and recharge the spring aquifers. The installation of trenches in barren lands and drains in cultivated land, gives rainwater a place to rest and percolate down into the ground water. The drains in cultivated land provide additional water to the crops, as well as, catching soil and nutrients that have run off from other terraced fields (www.sikkimsprings.org).

The Sikkim Rural Management and Development Department, in their annual report of the year of 2010-11 hold up the response of spring discharge to rainfall as well as artificial recharge, taking six springs as sample. The spring discharge during March 2010 was taken as the baseline and compared with the spring discharge during March 2011. The result can be shown in the following table:

Table: 6.5

Performance of Dhara Vikas

Name of Spring	Discharge of springs during March 2010	Discharge of springs during March 2011	Increase in Discharge
Malagiri Dhara, Lungchok Kamarey GP. Sumbuk Block	7.5liters per minute	15 liters per minutes	100%
AitbareyDhara,Deythang GP, Kaluk Block	2liters per minute	6liters per minute	200%
Dokung	8liters per	30liters per	300%

Dhara, Takuthang GP, Kaluk Block	minute	minute	
Nunthaley Dhara, Deythang GP, Kaluk Block	2liters per minute	10liters per minute	400%
Kharkharey Dhara, Deythang GP, Kaluk Block	1liters per minute	5liters per minute	400%
Chukudum Dhara, Kewzing Bakhim GP, Ravangla Block	45liters per minute	60liters per minute	33%

Source: Annual Report 2010-11, RMDD, Government of Sikkim

Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act **(MGNREGA)**

Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA) is the national flagship programme that directly touches the lives of the poor villagers and promotes their inclusive growth. This Act aims at enhancing livelihood security of households in rural areas of the country by providing at least one hundred days of guaranteed wage employment in a financial year to every household whose adult members are willing to do unskilled manual works.

This Act is implemented in Sikkim by the Rural Management and Development Department of the government of Sikkim. The Act came into force in the year 2006. It was introduced in the North District in that year. Secondly, it was introduced in East and South Districts in Sikkim during 2007-2008. And lastly, it was implemented in West District on April 1, 2008 (Annual Report, 2010-11, RMDD, Government of Sikkim).

The MGNREGA guarantees wage employment at an unprecedented scale. The objective of the Act is augmenting wage employments through strengthening natural resource management that address problems like drought, deforestation and soil erosion and at the same time encourage sustainable development.

The Act has other objectives also. They are:

- 1) Generating productive assets and skills thereby booking the rural economy,
- 2) Protecting the environment
- 3) Empowering rural women
- 4) Reducing rural urban migration and foresting social equity among others (www.mgnregasikkim.org)

Following the Administrative Report 2010-2011 of the Rural Management and Development Department Sikkim, the outcome of this programme during the year 2010-2011 are as follows:

- a) Increasing Employment Opportunities in 2010-2011, 56,401 household were provided employment and 48 lacs person days of employment were guaranteed.
- b) Enhancing Weigh Earning and Impact on Minimum Wage: The enhance wages earning have lead to a strengthening of the livelihood resource base of the rural poor in Sikkim , in 2010-2011
- c) Increasing Outreach to the Poor and Marginalized people: Self targeting in nature, the Programme had high work participation from marginalized groups and women

- d) Strengthening Natural Base : In 2010-2011, 2314 works were undertaken, of which 67% were related to water conservation .A total of 181 Jhora training works, 360 water conservation works, 415 drought proofing and plantation works, 100 micro irrigation channels, 260 rural footpaths and 199 land terracing works(including play grounds) were completed. In order to enhance rural water security a new spring-shed development programme has been initiated.
- e) Financial Inclusion of the Poor: The system of wage payments through Institutional Bank and Post Office accounts has been opened and 99% of the wage payments disbursed through them in the financial year of 2010-2011.
- f) Independent studies and research indicates that MGNREGA has aided in enhancement of agricultural productivity (through water harvesting, flood control, ground water recharging, improved moisture content, check in soil erosion and minor irrigation) stemming of migration increased access to markets and services through rural connectivity work, supplementing household incomes, increase in women work force participation ratios, and the regeneration of natural resources.(Annual Report,2010-2011,RMDD,Sikkim)

Besides all these programmes, the present government in Sikkim aims at capacity building as a major component of the development process in the state. The government of Sikkim announced that all departments and the Panchayati Raj institution were to set aside 2% of their budget allocation for capacity building programmes and training for the youth. The youths in Sikkim, including both boys and girls have been sent to other parts of the country as well as abroad under various schemes in order to transform them into

productive individuals and at the same time to make them able to serve as a resource pool of human resource for the State. (www.pawan-chamling.org.)

The Skill Development Scheme

The Skill Development Scheme was initiated in 2004-05 with the aim of assisting local educated unemployed youth in developing their skills to enable them to explore employment avenues outside the government sector and even outside the state. Under this scheme, educated local unemployed youths are sent for vocational training outside the state. Till 2009 1782 candidates have been sponsored for vocational training under the Skill Development Scheme including coaching programme for Civil Service Examination (www.pawan-chamling.org).

Chief Minister Self-Employment Scheme

There is another programme that targets the youth in Sikkim is the Chief Minister Self Employment Scheme. It was launched in the year 2002-2003 and it is to be implemented by Sikkim Industrial Development and Investment Corporation. This scheme promotes self employment by providing loan to the unemployed youth. Preference is given to the trained candidates. The maximum limit of loan permissible to each individual is Rs. 3 lakhs. Simple interest of 6% is charged after two years of release of loans. Till 2009, the Corporation has sanctioned Rs. 38.76 crores to 4305 beneficiaries for setting up self employment ventures (www.pawan-chamling.org).

Comprehensive Educational Loan Scheme

In order to give support to the eligible educated unemployed youth desiring to take up higher studies in academic or professional courses outside Sikkim and even abroad the government has launched the Comprehensive

Educational Loan Scheme. The maximum loan amount for study in India is Rs. 7.5 lakhs and in case of abroad it is rupees 15 lakhs. In the year 2007-08 rupees 12.03 crores has been sanctioned to 189 beneficiaries among whom 62 students got Rs. 7.53 crores for their study in abroad (www.pawan-chamling.org).

During the year 2007-08, the Directorate of Capacity Building organised a 'Carrier Fair'. A large number of students as well as unemployed young were exposed to a variety of academic and vocational courses. Reputed faculty from various famous institutions delivered informative lectures on a variety of subjects.

Development of a society cannot be completed without the development of the women and the children in that society. The government of Sikkim is fully aware of the fact. So, the state cabinet approved 40% reservation for the women in panchayat bodies and became the first state to offer women the highest quota.

Laghu Pariwar Yojna

Laghu Pariwa Yojna was launched in the year 1997. The aim of this programme is to delay the marriage of girls till she reaches at the age of 18. It also aims to make the girls aware to maintain adequate space between child births. It also encourages them to pursue higher education.

Balika Samridhi Yojna

With an intention to raise the minimum age of marriage for girls of Government of India has launched a programme called Balika Samridhi Yojnain the year 1997. The scheme was implemented in Sikkim also. Under this scheme Rs. 500/- is to be deposited in the name of the girl child of a family living below the poverty line. The beneficiary will get the promised amount at her age of eighteen year provided she is not married till then. Under this

scheme, benefits are restricted to two girl children in each household born on and after 15th August, 1997, irrespective of total number of children of that family. More than 2000 beneficiaries have been benefited from this scheme till 2009 (<http://india.govt.in/scheme/balika-samridhi-yojna-0>), (www.pawan-chamling.org).

Besides the above mentioned programmes the government of Sikkim has introduced other programmes to empower the women in that state. Swayamsiddha yojna has been started with an aim to achieve a holistic socio-economic development of the women. Kishore Shakti Yojna was launched to provide proper nutrition and health care for girls between the ages of 11-18 years. Again, the government has the Small Family Scheme which is a state programme. The girl children, at the age of 13 years are to be registered under this scheme. Rs. 8000/- per beneficiary is deposited in the State Bank of Sikkim for a period of eight years. If the registered girl remains unmarried till the age of 21 years, she become eligible for first incentive of Rs.2000/-. If she marries only after attaining 22years of age, additional Rs.500/- is to be paid to her. If she marries only after 23 years of age, additional Rs.1000/- is to be paid to her.

Under the Small Family Scheme, bearing first child only after 2 years of marriage makes a girl eligible for an incentive of Rs.1000/-. And a gap of 3 years between the first and second child makes her eligible for another incentive of Rs.1000/-. As of 2008-09 7,263 numbers of beneficiaries have been covered (www.pawan-chamling.org).

Sikkim has merged with India in the year 1975. Then onwards, a number of development programmes have been introduced in that state. An in-depth study of these programmes reveals a shift of the basic objective of the programme from the infrastructural development to the development of human

resource. The evolution of the development priorities in Sikkim can be shown through the following table:

Table: 6.6

Performance of Balika Samridhi Yojna

1980-1995	1996-2010	2011-2025
<p>*Development of essential infrastructure</p>	<p>* Development of social infrastructure (housing, school, hospitals, rural roads, water supply, playgrounds, minor irrigation channels (MICs) flood control etc.)</p> <p>*Decentralisation (infrastructure, funds, staff, participatory planning.)</p> <p>* Wage employment</p> <p>* ICT(computers, mobile phones)</p>	<p>* Development of non-farm economy and agricultural income</p> <p>* Skill development and placement</p> <p>* Decentralisation(staff, accountability, participatory planning)</p> <p>* ICT(computers, online software, internet)</p> <p>* Post earthquake rebuilding</p> <p>*Recreational infrastructure</p> <p>* Climate change adaptation</p>

The District Collector, initially, was the central figure in the district. He could, by right, be involved in almost all district level activity and he himself controlled almost all the significant committees in the district. And almost in each and every committee he was the chairman. The whole administration of the district revolved around the district magistrate and collector and all the other key district officials. Not only this, most governmental transactions and linkages with the superior provincial authorities were built around him (Chaturvedi, 1988).

However, from the time that development started receiving great emphasis, there have been attempts at bolstering the authority of the Collector as the leader of district development. In district administration one can find traces or successive efforts at development coordination. All the development programmes have to be implemented through the administration at the district level. Being the leader of the administration at the district level, the District Collector remains the kingpin of district administration. He becomes the eyes and ears of the government at district level. The District Collector has to play a vital role as a coordinator between different development departments. The District Collector is expected to act as a catalytic agent for development. His success depends on his own personality. He should be tactful in dealing with the technical officers who are specialists in their own fields (Acharya, 1996).

The beneficiaries of all of these development programmes, in Sikkim, are selected by the Gram Sava. However, the implementing authority is the District Development Officer- cum- Panchayat Officer of the respective districts. The DDO-cum- PO is a man from Indian Administrative Service. He holds a peculiar position in the district administration in the sense that the horizontal division of power at the district level among various departments gives the DDO-cum-PO a more or less similar status to the District Collector. However, at the same time, the District Collector in Sikkim is still treated as the leader of

the district. So, there is every possibility to arise a conflict between the District Collector and the DDO-cum-PO. However, it is to be mentioned that due to more or less homogeneous character of the society in Sikkim there is no instance of conflict between these two officers at the district level.

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CHAPTER-VII

DISTRICT LEVEL DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION: A REPORT OF THE FIELD

DISTRICT LEVEL DEVELOPMENT
ADMINISTRATION:
A REPORT OF THE FIELD

Sikkim, the small landlocked constituent state of India has fought for democracy since mid of 19th century. The most interesting thing in the state is that there the Chogyals themselves introduced decentralized administration to carry out the administration conveniently. The state is, more or less, democratically stable and different communities residing there reside peacefully, at least in comparison to some of our neighbouring States and some States in Middle East and Africa. When the demand for democracy was urged from the people themselves the Chogyal accepted most of their demands and changed the administrative set-up accordingly. However the story was not always the same.

We, the students of the political history of Sikkim, always start our analysis from the first Chogyal of Namgyal dynasty. However, S.K. Gurung (2011) holds that despite lack of documentary evidences, it is believed, from the information available from Lepcha and Tsong (Limboo) tradition, there were the existence of tribal chiefs and a unique institution resembling rudimentary monarchy and the system had been destroyed by the Tibetan lamas when they migrated to Sikkim.

Yasin (2012) also considers the pre-merger political system in Sikkim as not only undemocratic and non-participatory but also centralized, authoritarian and most unsuited to the conditions and needs of expanding populations, limited human resources, and contemporary demand for human and civic rights. Buddhism was declared as the state religion in Sikkim under the rule of the

Keeping all these facts as background the present study would try to analyze the factors and forces that played important role in the process of developing the rural masses in Sikkim. The field study was carried out on the basis of a structured questionnaire. Selection of respondents was done through random sampling. However, it was kept in mind that there should be proper representation of the common citizens, politicians as well as the administrators in order to get the proper scenario of the development administration at district level in Sikkim. The present study could cover 120 citizens, 35 politicians and 17 administrators as respondents covering all the four districts in Sikkim.

Tables 7.1 to 7.6 show the socio-economic status of the common citizens.

Table: 7.1

Sex Wise Distribution of the Respondents				
Categories	No. of Respondents		Percentage	
	Citizen	Politician	Citizen	Politician
Male	77	24	64.16	68.64
Female	43	11	35.84	31.46
Total	120	35	100	100

Source: field survey

The table shows that among 120 common citizens 77 are male and 43 are female the percentage are 64.16 and 35.84 respectively where as among 35 respondents of politician 25 respondents (68.64%) are male and 11 are female (31.46%).

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Source: field survey

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Table: 7.2

Categories	Age Wise Distribution of the Respondents			
	No. of Respondents		Percentage	
	Citizens	Politician	Citizen	Politician
18-30	44	4	36.66	11.44
31-40	30	15	25	42.90
41-50	28	8	23.33	22.88
51-60	08	3	6.66	8.58
60 and above	10	5	8.33	14.30
Total	120	35	100	100

Source: Field Survey

Table 7.2 reveals that among 120 respondents the majority that is 36.66% are from the age group of 18-30. The number of respondents is reducing gradually as the age group goes higher. 25% respondents are from 31-40 age group and 23.33% from 41-50 age group. The lowest no of respondent is from the age group of 51-60 that is only 08 that constitutes 6.66% and there are only 10 respondent from the age group of 60 and above.

In case of the politicians 11.44% of respondents are from the age group of 18-30. 42.90% of them are from the age group of 31-40. From the group of 41-50 the number of respondents is 08 that is 22.88% of the respondents. The lowest percentage come from the age group of 51-60 that is only 8.58% whereas from the age group of 60 and above the number of respondents is 5 that is 14.30% of the respondents.

Table: 7.3

Categories	Caste Wise Distribution of the Respondents			
	No. of Respondents		Percentage	
	Citizen	Politician	Citizen	Politician
General	24	6	20	17.16
SC	16	5	13.33	14.30
ST	49	14	40.83	40.04
OBC	31	10	25.83	28.60
Total	120	35	100	100

Source: Field Survey

Table 7.3 holds up the caste wise distribution of the respondents. Among 120 respondents 24 are from general caste, 16 are from scheduled caste and 31 are from the other backward classes where as the highest no of respondents are from the scheduled tribe community. If we consider the percentage of the caste wise distribution of the respondents, it is 20%, 13.33%, 25.83% and 40.83% respectively.

On the other hand, most of the politician respondents are, like the citizens, from the scheduled tribe community and the second majority is from the other backward classes. 17.16% of the respondents are from the general caste and it is only 14.30% that belongs to the scheduled castes.

Table: 7.4

Religion Wise Distribution of the Respondents				
Categories	No. of Respondents		Percentage	
	Citizens	Politician	Citizen	Politician
Hindu	73	20	60.83	57.20
Muslim	02	00	1.66	00
Buddhist	45	13	37.5	37.18
Christian	05	02	4.16	5.72
Others	00	00	00	00
Total	120	35	100	100

Source: Field Survey

Religion wise distribution is shown in the table 7.4. This table shows that there exist four leading religion of India. 73 respondents (60.83%) are Hindu among the total number of 120. The number of respondents belonging to Buddhism is 45 (37.50%). The Christians and Muslims are 05 and 02 respectively that constitute the percentage of 4.16% and 1.66% respectively.

Regarding religion wise distribution, as it is shown in the above mentioned table 57.20% of politician respondents is Hindu, 37.18% is Buddhist

and 5.72% is Christian. However, there is no one from Muslim or any other religion.

Table: 7.5

Academic Qualification Wise Distribution of the Respondents				
Categories	No. of the Respondents		Percentage	
	Citizen	Politician	Citizen	Politician
Illiterate	01	01	0.83	2.86
Literate	12	02	10	5.72
Primary	10	02	8.33	5.72
Junior High	19	07	15.83	20.02
Secondary	15	06	12.50	17.16
H.S.	23	05	19.16	14.30
Graduate	29	07	24.16	20.02
Post-Graduate	11	01	9.16	2.86
Total	120	35	100	100

Source: Field Survey

The distribution of the respondents, according to their academic qualifications is shown in the table 7.5. Among this 120 respondents 29 are graduate (24.16%); 11 of them (9.16%) has the post graduate degree; 23 respondent (19.16% of the total number) passed the Higher Secondary level; 15.83% (the number is 19) passed the Junior High level. 12.5% of them passed Secondary Examination. 10% of the respondents is only literate where as 0.83% of them is illiterate.

In case of the politicians 2.86 % is illiterate, 5.72 % is literate only. It is again 5.72% of the politician respondents who have the Primary level of education. 20.02 % of respondent passed the Junior High level and 17.16% passed the Secondary Examination. 14.30% of the respondent passed Higher Secondary Level where as 20.02 % has Graduate and only 2.86% has the Post Graduate degree.

Table 7.6 shows the occupation wise distribution of the respondents.

Table: 7.6

Categories	Occupation Wise Distribution of the Respondents			
	No. of the Respondents		Percentage	
	Citizen	Politician	Citizen	Politician
Service (govt.)	30	4	25	11.44
Service (Private)	10	04	8.33	11.44
Business	22	01	18.33	2.86
Cultivation	22	07	18.33	20.02
Party Whole-Timer	06	04	5	11.44
Unemployed	14	06	11.66	17.16
Others	16	09	13.33	25.74
Total	120	35	100	100

Source: Field Survey

Among 120 respondents 40 persons are in service and of this these men 30 are in government service and 10 are in private sector that constitutes 25% and 8.33% of the respondents respectively. 22 persons that is 18.33% of the respondents are in business. The percentage of the respondents who are attached with cultivation is same as the businessman. 5% of the respondents is involved in politics as party whole-timer. 14 persons of the respondents are unemployed and 16 of them are involved in some other activities.

The occupation wise distribution facts of the politician respondents are that 22.88% of them are service holder. Among these service holders 11.22% is in Government Service and the remaining 11.22% is in private sector. 2.86% has their own business. 20.02% of the respondents is in cultivation. Only 11.44% of them is involved in full time politics, 17.16% is unemployed and 25.74% is involved in some other activities.

Keeping in mind this socio-economic background the present study evaluated the awareness and the level of satisfaction on the part of the citizens as well as of the politicians about the performance of the rural development programmes. At the same time, the present study attempts to hold up the

attitudes of the citizens and the politicians to the administrators. In order to obtain the opinions of the respondents some persons were appointed and they secured the opinions through the structured questionnaires.

The Panchayati Raj Institutions are the key instruments of democratic decentralization in India. The long cherished idea of decentralization was institutionalized through the 73rd and 74th Constitution Amendment Acts, 1992. The constituent states of India also passed the Panchayat Acts for the respective states following the footsteps of the said Constitution Amendment Acts. As the purpose of the present study is to analyze the working of the development administration at the district level it is important to assess the process of planning, implementation, and success of the rural development programmes as well as evaluate the role of Panchayats as the instrument for rural development programmes.

Table 7.7 shows the response of the citizens and the politicians to the question whether the beneficiaries are selected through the Gram Sabhas.

Table: 7.7

Whether the Beneficiaries are Selected through the Gram Sabhas				
Categories	No. of Respondents		Percentages	
	Citizens	Politicians	Citizens	Politicians
Yes	61	23	50.83	67.71
Undecided	21	05	17.50	14.29
No	29	07	24.16	20
Total	120	35	100	100

Majority of the citizens (50.83%) as well as the politicians (67.71%) are of the opinion that the beneficiaries are selected through the Gram Sabhas. 24.16% of the citizens and 20% of politicians opine that they are not selected through the Gram Sabhas and 17.50% of the citizens and 14.29% of the politicians remain undecided to this question.

The study intends to know the level of satisfaction regarding the function of the PRIs. The respondents are asked whether they can solve their problems through the PRIs. The table: 7.8 shows that the citizens are moderately satisfied

Table: 7.8

Whether the people's problems are solved through the PRIs				
Categories	No. of Respondents		Percentage	
	Citizens	Politicians	Citizens	Politicians
Mostly	29	18	24.16	51.43
To Some Extent	77	16	64.16	45.71
Not at All	14	01	11.66	2.86
Total	120	35	100	100

Source: Field Survey

with the functioning of the PRIs. 64.16% of the respondent under the category of citizen are of the opinion that they can solve their problems through the PRIs to some extent. However, most of the politicians do not support this view. More than 50% politicians (51.43%) opined that the people can solve their problem mostly through the Panchayats where as it is only 24.16% of the citizen among the 120 respondents support this view. Among the citizens 11.66% of the respondents opined that the Panchayati Raj Institutions cannot at all solve their problems and it is only 2.86% of the politicians, only one person among the 35 respondents support this view. 45.71% of respondent among politicians hold that the people can solve their problem through the Panchayati Raj Institutions to some extent.

The Panchayats are the most viable instruments of rural development throughout India. In order to carry out their functions properly the Panchayati Raj Institutions should be allowed to act independently without the influence from outside.

Table: 7.9

Whether the Panchayats Act According to the Influentials and the Party Leaders				
Categories	No. of Respondents		Percentage	
	Citizens	Politicians	Citizens	Politicians
Mostly	41	16	34.16	45.71
To Some Extent	60	14	50	40
Not at All	19	05	15.83	14.29
Total	120	35	100	100

Source: Field Survey

The table 7.9 reveals that 50% of the respondents among the citizens hold that the Panchayati Raj Institutions act, to some extent, under the control of the influential persons in the villages or according to the direction of the party leaders; 34.16% of them hold the view that in most of the cases the Panchayati Raj Institutions act in accordance with the opinion of the influential persons and the party leaders. It is only 15.83% of them think that the PRIs can act independently. However, the politicians express different view from that of the citizens. 45.71% of them hold that the Panchayati Raj Institutions act under the leadership of the party leaders and 40% of the respondents among the politicians opined that the Panchayati Raj Institutions are dependent to the party leaders to some extent and 14.29% of them tell that the Panchayati Raj Institutions can act independently.

The study also tries to elicit the opinion of the common people as well as of the politicians about the performance of the administrators. Do they lack motivation and commitment to implement the Rural Development Programmes? Table 7.10 holds that near about 60% of the respondents among the citizens (the figure is 58.33%) are of the opinion that the administrators, to some extent, lack motivation and commitment in implementing the Rural Development Programmes where as it is 45.71% of the respondents of the politicians support this view. 25.83% of the citizen respondents and 37.15% of the politician

respondents are of the opinion that in most of the cases the administrators are *not motivated and committed to implement the Rural Development Programmes*. It is only 15.83% of citizen respondents and 17.14% of the politician respondents opine that the administrators are motivated to implement the Rural Development Programmes.

Table: 7.10

Whether the Administrators Lack Motivation and Commitment to implement the RDPs				
Categories	No. of Respondents		Percentage	
	Citizens	Politicians	Citizens	Politicians
Mostly	31	13	25.83	37.15
To Some Extent	70	16	58.33	45.71
Not at All	19	06	15.83	17.14
Total	120	35	100	100

Source: Field survey

In order to depict the level of satisfaction regarding the performance of the Panchayati Raj Institutions two questions were asked – i) whether the Rural Development Programmes are working successfully and ii) whether the government officials can satisfy the common people. So far as the first question is concerned, table: 7.11 reveals that 68.33% of the respondent among the citizens are of the opinion that the Rural Development Programmes are moderately successful. Most of the politicians, i.e., 54.29% support the same view. 17.50% of respondents among the citizens and 34.29% of the respondents among the politicians are of the opinion that the Rural Development Programmes are working successfully in most of the cases. While the lowest percentage of both the citizens (14.16%) and politicians (11.42%) give negative marks so far as the performance of the in most of the cases. While the lowest percentage of both the citizens (14.16%) and politicians (11.42%) give negative marks so far as the performance of the in most of the cases. While the lowest percentage of both the citizens (14.16%) and politicians (11.42%) give negative

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Table: 7.11

Whether the Rural Development Programmes are Working Successfully				
Categories	No. of Respondents		Percentage	
	Citizens	Politicians	Citizens	Politicians
Mostly	21	12	17.50	34.29
To Some Extent	82	19	68.33	54.29
Not at All	17	04	14.16	11.42
Total	120	35	100	100

Source: field Survey

Regarding the second question, as it is shown in table 7.12, the majority of respondents among both of the citizens and the politicians, 55.83% and 45.71% respectively express that the administrators can satisfy the people, to some extent. 27.50% of the respondents among the citizens and 34.29% of the

Table: 7.12

Whether the Administrators can satisfy the people				
Categories	No. of Respondents		Percentage	
	Citizens	Politicians	Citizens	Politicians
Mostly	33	12	27.50	34.29
To Some Extent	67	16	55.83	45.71
Not at All	20	07	16.66	20
Total	120	35	100	100

Source: Field Survey

respondents among the politicians express their views in favour of the administrators while 16.66 of respondents among the citizens and 20% of respondents among the politicians give negative marks to the administrators.

Since the common people are not fully satisfied with the performance of the Rural Development Programmes and they opine that the administrators, to some extent, lack commitment and less motivated to implement the development programmes the present study tries to have a look on the views of the administrators on the reasons for slowing down the implementation of development programmes. Tables 7.13 to 7.18 show some of the options and the answer of the respondents.

Table 7.13 depicts that 50% of the respondents are of the opinion that defects in the planning of work programmed is responsible, to some extent, for slowing down the development programmes. 15% of the respondent mostly agreed with this view but 35% hold that this reason is not at all responsible for slowing down the implementation of Rural Development Programmes.

Table: 7.13

Defective Planning of Work Programme		
Categories	No. of respondent	Percentage
Mostly	03	15
To Some Extent	10	50
Not At All	07	35
Total	20	100

Source: Field Survey

The respondents were asked whether defective interdepartmental coordination is responsible for the relatively unsatisfactory results of the Rural Development Programmes. 55% of the respondents deny accepting this reason where as 30% of them opine this reason is to some extent responsible for the unsatisfactory results of the Rural Development Programmes. It is only 15% who accept this view (Table: 7.14).

Table: 7.14

Defective interdepartmental coordination		
Categories	No. of respondent	percentage
Mostly	03	15
To Some Extent	06	30
Not At All	11	55
Total	20	100

Source: Field Survey

Table 7.15 shows that 70% of the respondents hold that lack of machinery to assess the achievements and shortfalls is, to some extent responsible for slowing down the implementation of the Rural Development Programmes. 20% of them does not agree with this view and 10% opine that this reason is mostly responsible for the slow implementation of the rural development programmes.

Table: 7.15

Lack of Regular Machinery to Assess Achievements and Shortfalls		
Categories	No. of respondent	Percentage
Mostly	02	10
To Some Extent	14	70
Not At All	04	20
Total	20	100

Source: Field Survey

Rigidity of administrative procedure is also one of the reasons that slow down the implementation of the Rural Development Programmes. Table 7.16 reveals that 60% of the respondents accept this reason to some extent responsible, 15% of them as mostly responsible and 25% of them as not at all responsible for slowing down the Rural Development Programmes.

Table: 7.16

Rigidity of Administrative Procedure		
Categories	No. of respondent	Percentage
Mostly	03	15
To Some Extent	12	60
Not At All	05	25
Total	20	100

Source: Field Survey

In each and every democratic State, especially in the third world country like India, politics is everywhere in our life. So there is every possibility, on the part of the politicians, to interfere in the administrative process also those results into an unsatisfactory performance of the administrators.

Table: 7.17

Exercise Political Pull and Pressure		
Categories	No. of respondent	percentage
Mostly	09	45
To Some Extent	09	45
Not At All	02	10.00
Total	20	100

Source: Field Survey

Table 7.17 shows that 45% of the respondents are of the view that political pull and pressure is to some extent responsible and the same percent of respondent hold that it is mostly responsible for the poor performance of the Rural Development Programmes. However, 10% of them express their disagreement with this view.

On the contrary, 55% the respondent identifies lack of people's interest and low level of participation being to some extent responsible for the slow process of implementation of the Rural Development Programmes and interestingly 45% opine that this reason is not at all responsible for it.

Table: 7.18

Lack of People's Interest and Participation		
Categories	No. of respondent	Percentage
Mostly	00	00
To Some Extent	11	55.00
Not At All	09	45.00
Total	20	100

Source: Field Survey

On the basis of the above mentioned data, in the next chapter, an attempt has been made to analyse the working of the development administration at the district level in Sikkim and to find out the answer of the research questions.

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CHAPTER-VIII

WITHER DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION IN SIKKIM: A CONCLUDING OBSERVATION

WITHER DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION IN SIKKIM: A CONCLUDING OBSERVATION

Development administration, in so far as the development of administration is concerned, it is not a new thing like any other democratic country. From the year 1648 to present day the administration in Sikkim has to complete a long journey from a Monarchical State under the rule of Maharaja who used to be called 'Chogyal' to a liberal democratic form of government—from an independent State to a constituent unit of India. From a fully centralised form of administration gradually Sikkim is experiencing a decentralised administration.

Until the emergence of liberal democracy, the politics in Sikkim was undemocratic, non-participatory, centralised, and authoritarian (Yasin, 2012). However, it is to be noted that the experience of democracy is not a new thing in Sikkim. The emergence of new democracy as an alternative political model in Sikkim can be traced to the reformist movements of early 1940s. The urge for democracy derived from the people in Sikkim themselves. The Chogyal also gradually reformed himself and allowed to introduce democratic institutions.

The 1953 Proclamation provided for a State Council that was to be constituted of –a) A President who shall be nominated and appointed by Maharaja; b) Twelve elected members, of whom six should be either Sikkim Bhutia, or Lepcha and the remaining six should be Sikkim Nepalese, and c) five members should be nominated by His Highness the Maharaja in his discretion (Clause 3, Proclamation of His Highness Maharaja of Sikkim, 1953).

If we consider the voting procedure to decide on a question at any sitting of a State Council, the said Proclamation provides that the question will be decided by a majority of votes of the members present and voting other than the President or person acting as such. However, the President or the person acting as President had a casting vote (Clause 11, Proclamation of His Highness Maharaja of Sikkim). So, it can be said that the disputes, after the introduction of State Council under 1953 Proclamation, was to be resolved by representatives of the people. However, quite naturally, there were some exceptions. The Civil List, including the expenditure on the household department of Maharaja; pay and allowance of the Dewan, the judiciary and officers on deputation from the government of India; and secret and discretionary expenditure were not the subject to vote of the State Council. This arrangement reflects the kind of partial democracy—democracy in spirit but not in content.

Sikkim had experienced its first election in the year 1953. With the introduction of this electoral politics, though in a limited sense of term, the administration of Sikkim becomes from a non-participatory to a participatory one.

It was the misfortune of the Sikkim Chogyals that they never could be able to carry out their rule in an authoritative way. This small tiny Himalayan State had to depend on foreign power for its existence right from its inception. Initially it had to depend on Tibet. It was invaded by several foreign powers from time to time. Afterwards it came into contact with the British power in India. And during the first half of the 20th century it became the Protectorate of the British in India. (Bhaumik & Bhattacharyya, 1977)

An attempt to introduce a decentralised administration was also seen even during the rule of the first recorded Chogyal in Sikkim, Phuntsog Namgyal. He

divided his kingdom into twelve Dzongs. However, during that period it was more delegation of authority than decentralisation in its true sense of term. But the administration was never totally centralised one. In some areas like Lachen and Lachung there was the existence of local self-government.

Despite the introduction of participatory democracy and presence of decentralised administration, however, in a limited sense of term, there was a demand, on the part of the political parties in Sikkim, for a more democracy in administration (Sengupta, 1985). It was quite natural efforts on the part of the then Chogyal, Palden Thondup Namgyal, to protect the identity of the State. B. S. Das (1983) opined that merger of Sikkim with India was inevitable, but it could be avoided if the Chogyal could manage it diplomatically. But the fact is that Sikkim had nothing to do without merging with India. Keeping all these facts in mind the present study makes an attempt to summarise the findings of the field study and to conclude on it.

In the previous chapters it has been analysed that in Sikkim there was the existence of the administrative units in their various forms. However, the districts in Sikkim, as they stand today, are nothing but a replica of the British set-up. Being a protectorate of the British power in India Sikkim was under the direct supervision of the Britishers. And ultimately when it merged with India the administrative set-up, as it is in India, is to be introduced in Sikkim also. The district in India is a British legacy. It was formed as well as reformed by the British power in India. Initially, the set-up of District Administration was imposed in India for the administrative convenience of the British ruler.

However, after independence, the administrative set up at the district level has travelled a long path. From a regulatory administration it transformed into a development oriented administration. The district collector was the master within the territory of the districts and with the introduction of the

concept of development administration he has become the servant of the people within the district. So, now the district in India today and as it is in Sikkim is not the replica of the British set-up.

An important fact about the district level is that the district is simply an entity with purely administrative rationale. It has often come into being by custom and usage or sentiment rather than by eco-economic logic (Rajan, 1990). In Sikkim, also, the districts were created by the Chogyal for administrative convenience. So, it can be opined that while creating the districts, the “Theory of Local Finality” was not followed.

The present study also tries to find out whether the decentralised system of administration in Sikkim is helpful to reach the desirable degree of good governance. Professor Bhattacharyya has identified three aspects of good governance—a) the form of political regime (parliamentary or presidential, military or civilian, and authoritarian or democratic); b) the process by which authority is exercised in the management of a country’s economic and social resources; and c) the capacity of governments to design, formulate and implement policies, and in general, to discharge government functions. According to the generic meaning of good governance (Bhattacharyya, 1999) it ensures people-driven development and it denotes governance without government.

If we look at Sikkim, the field survey reveals that the prevailing decentralised system can reach a moderate level of good governance. The majority of the respondents among the citizens as well as the politicians admit that the administrators have nothing to do with the selection of beneficiaries of the prevailing development programmes. They are selected by the Gram Sabhas. However, majority of the respondents among the citizens (64.16%) opined that they solve their problem, to some extent, through the PRIs. And

quite naturally, the majority of the politician respondents (51.43%) are of the opinion that the people's problems are solved mostly through the Panchayati Raj Institutions.

So, one may hold that even if the Panchayats in Sikkim can be able to get rid of the bureaucratic red-tapism in case of selection of beneficiaries the common people are not totally satisfied with the performance of the Panchayats. They do not get proper service from the Panchayats and that is why they cannot solve their problems through the Panchayats. It means that they had to go to other institution or persons to get their problem solved- it may be to the bureaucrats or to the politicians at the district level. And when the people cannot get the service from the institutions that supposed to serve them, transparency in the process of administration is questioned. Otherwise it may appear that the accountability on the part of the administrator-both of the political administrators and of the bureaucrats becomes questionable.

If we consider good governance as governance without government, it is yet to be actualised in Sikkim. The government is very much present in the governing process in Sikkim. Consequently, the district level officials are not only, playing role but also are expected to play positive role, in the implementation of the Rural Development Programmes (RDPs). They are expected to be motivated and committed to the process of implementation of the Rural Development Programmes. The citizen respondents accused the administrator that they are to some extent lack motivation and commitment to implement the Rural Development Programmes. They are more interested in the fulfilment of the goals than that of the proper development of the common people. The citizen respondents accused the officials that they are, to some extent lacked motivation and commitment to implement the Rural Development Programmes.

So far as the political interference is concerned 50% of the respondents among the citizens are of the opinion that the Panchayats act, to some extent, according to the influentials and the party leaders. Quite surprisingly, a major portion of the respondent among the politicians also opined that the Panchayats act according to the influentials and party leaders. This tendency can be explained through the analysis of political holds of the existing political parties in the state.

If we have a look into the distribution of Assembly seats in Sikkim, it can be noticed that there is always a tilt towards one- party domination in Sikkim. In the first Assembly elections in Sikkim the Congress Party got an overwhelming majority in the house. Out of 32 seats, the Congress Party won in 30 seats. It is only in the second Assembly elections we can notice the presence of opposition in Sikkim. In that election Sikkim Janata Parishad had the majority with 16 seats, Sikkim Congress Revolutionary in 11 seats, Sikkim Projatantra Congress in 4 seats and independent in 1 seat. In the third Assembly election Sikkim Sangram Parishad had a majority over 30 seats and in the next election Sikkim Sangram Parishad practically washed out the opposition wining all the 32 seats in the house. In the fifth Assembly election Sikkim democratic registered their victory for the first time in the electoral history in Sikkim. In that election Sikkim Sangram Parishad got 27 seats in the house (Shresta, 2005). And the history repeats itself till date.

So, one can easily find out a tendency, on the part of the administrators to be obedient to the guidelines of the majority party in power. Consequently, the administrators may engage themselves more in achieving the targets set by the political leaders than in rendering service to the people. However, it is to be mentioned that this tendency is not a unique feature of Sikkim. In every State where parliamentary form of government is there, especially in the third world

countries, if one- party domination is there, politicisation of bureaucracy can be seen there.

After having the view of the citizens and the politicians that the administrators are to some extent lack motivation and commitment in implementing the Rural Development Programmes and they are not fully satisfied with the working of the Rural Development Programmes, the present study intend to have the opinion of the officials regarding the fact. They were asked to express their opinion on the problem of relative dissatisfaction of the people about the working of the Rural Development Programmes.

The administrators express their adverse opinion to the politicians of the state. They are of the opinion that political pulls and pressures are responsible for the negative performance of the Rural Development Programmes. And at the same time, quite naturally, they denied the presence of defective interdepartmental co-ordination as a reason of the unsatisfactory result of the Rural Development Programmes.

The administrators are more diplomatic in answering the questions. They intend to shift the responsibility for slowing down the implementation of the development programmes from their own ends. They identify the defective planning of work programmes and insufficiency in regular machinery to assess the achievements and shortfalls of the performance of the Rural Development Programmes. However, at the same time, they opine that the rigidity in administrative procedure is also play a vital role in the poor performance of the Rural Development Programmes. But they certify the common people that they are not less interested in the participation in the process of planning as well as implementing the Rural Development Programmes.

Therefore, one can easily opine that participation as one of the measures of good governance is unquestionably present in Sikkim. The administration is

also legitimised there. Keeping in mind all these factor and forces it can well be said that the present decentralised system of administration is able to achieve a moderate degree of good governance.

Finally, the study makes an attempt to find out the impact of democracy, development and decentralisation on the district level administration in Sikkim. In the previous chapters of this study it has been shown that how a fully monarchical and more or less centralised administration has transformed into a democratic decentralised pro-people development oriented administration. With the advent of democracy in Sikkim, the monarchical form of government has transformed into a parliamentary form of government with the popularly elected political executive. In Sikkim the demand for democracy has been urged from the people themselves. So, after 1975, the administration in Sikkim both at the state and the district level is becoming more and more participatory. The field study also reveals that the people are interested in participating in the process of planning and implementation of the rural development programmes.

The concept of decentralisation is not a new thing in the administration in Sikkim. Decentralised administration in Sikkim has its origin in the formation of Dzons. The history of Sikkim experienced elected representatives in the local self-government at the villages Lachen and Lachung. The new thing that is introduced with advent of the concept of decentralisation is that it has brought a tremendous change in the administrative set-up at the district level. With the introduction of the Constitutionalised Panchatati Raj Institutions the role of the District Collector has gone through a sea-change. The chairman of the Zilla Panchayat being a popular representative enjoys equal prestige with that of the District Collectors. The functions relating to plan formulation and plan implementation transfer to the village panchayats. The beneficiaries of the rural development programmes are selected through the Gram Sabhas. The District Collector who was previously entrusted with maintaining law and order within

his jurisdiction becomes the 'and' functionary between and among various departments at the district level.

With the introduction of economic reforms the District Officers are to be sensitised to the implications and relevance of the reforms to their functioning. It is necessary to understand, for the district officer, the overall context of these reforms and the impact on the poor at present and is likely to do so in the future (Katoch, 1995).

Having all these points as the summery of the findings the present research work tries to offer some suggestions to establish a more responsive administration at the district level of the state of Sikkim.

- ❖ The people should be aware to a greater extent to give a constant vigil to the working of the Rural Development Programmes because the people are the best evaluator of the performance of the administration.
- ❖ The politicians should not interfere in the administrative process and should allow the local self governments to act more autonomously.
- ❖ A considerable degree of good governance can only be achieved only when proper decentralisation has been implemented, so the Panchayats should be given more authority to decide over the matters independently.
- ❖ Since Sikkim is a hilly state without a piece of plane land the means of communication is to be developed more. Infrastructural developments as well as capacity building programmes are to be initiated to a greater extent.
- ❖ Provisions are to be introduced to make the administration more accountable and more transparent.

- ❖ Single window system is to be introduced to avoid the unnecessary harassment of the common people.
- ❖ The attitudes of the administrators should be more pro-people.
- ❖ Administration should be more flexible in order to meet the needs of the present society. E-governance should be introduced for the prompt action of the government.
- ❖ Measures should be taken to overcome the defects in the plan formulation and implementation.
- ❖ Administrative machinery should be introduced to assess the achievements and shortfalls of the rural development programmes.
- ❖ People should participate more in the working of the local self government.

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ANNEXURE - I

The Agreement of May 8, 1973:

On 8 May, 1973, an agreement was signed at Gangtok between the Chogyal, the leaders of the political parties representing the people of Sikkim and the Government of India.

The Agreement, among other things, provided for a Legislative Assembly for Sikkim elected on the basis of adult franchise, an Executive Council responsible to the Assembly and safeguards for minorities.

Under the Agreement, India was to provide the head of administrator (Chief Executive) to ensure democratization, good administration, communal harmony and social development. The elections for the new Assembly were to be held within a few months. The Assembly was to be elected every four years on the basis of adult franchise under the supervision of the Election Commission of India.

The new Assembly was to be set up on a "one man one vote" franchise, but with a provision that no single group from the Bhutia, the Lepchas or the Nepalese will hold a dominant position. The Assembly was given powers to propose laws and adopt resolutions on fourteen subjects including finance, economic and social planning, education and agriculture. But it has no power on her topics, namely, the Chogyal and the members of the ruling family, matters before the courts, the appointment of the Chief Executive and members of the judiciary, and issues which are the responsibility of the government of India. Only the Palace establishment and the Sikkim guards remained directly under the Chogyal. A significant feature of the agreement

was omission of the police department on either links of subject to be dealt by the Assembly or those outside its purview.

The Agreement is important for many reasons. For first time in Sikkim's history, the people, represented by popular forces, became the acknowledged participants in the political process. Secondly, it has frustrated Chogyal's ambition to make Sikkim a sovereign State. It not only reiterated India's control over the defence and foreign relations of Sikkim, but also made it clear that the Chogyal is subordinate to New Delhi. In any dispute between the Chogyal and the Indian nominated Chief Executive, New Delhi's ruling will be final.

Working of the Agreement:

After signing of the May 8, 1973 Agreement, life in Sikkim once again becomes normal. In August, the two important constitutions of the IAC, the Janata Congress and the National Congress met at Namchi and decided to merge them to form a new party called Sikkim Congress. Kazi Lhendup Dorji was elected President and K.C. Pradhan as Vice President. The new party decided to have a tricolour with blue star in the Centre as its flag and the ladder as its election symbol.

On the basis of the tripartite Agreement of May 8, 1973, elections were held from April 15 to 19, 1974, under the supervision of a Chief Election Commissioner deputed by the Election Commission of India. The 32 seats were divided among Bhutia- Lepcha and Nepalese Communities. The Sikkim Congress contested all the seats. The pro- Chogyal National Party contested only five seats. The real fight was between the Sikkim Congress and the 26 Independent candidates, who came together at the last moment under the name "United Independent Front".

The Sikkim Congress in its election manifesto tried to allay fears of the minority communities of Bhatias and Lepchas by declaring that “The Sikkim Congress shall introduce a special program for the safeguard of the interest of the minority communities and backward classes in Sikkim”.

The manifesto made special reference to land reforms by declaring that Sikkim Congress would ensure “the immediate abolition of private Estate”. Meaning thereby the abolition of the Private Estate of the Chogyal. The manifesto further declared that “No land must be left untilled and no tiller left without land”.

Lastly, the manifesto spelt out the altitude of the Sikkim Congress towards India in these words:

The Sikkim Congress will seek to strengthen the bonds that already exist with the Government and the people of India. The Sikkim Congress is aware that the democratic development of Sikkim has benefited from the interest shown by the government and people of India, Although for historical reasons our progress towards democracy has been slower, we also aspire to achieve the same democratic rights and institutions that the people of India have enjoyed for a quarter of century.

The Sikkim Congress won a land-slide victory by securing 31 of the 32 seats in the New Assembly and polled about 70% of the votes. All the 15 Assembly seats reserved for the minority have also been captured by the Sikkim Congress with its own Lepcha and Bhutia candidates. The party President, Kazi Lhendup Dorji was returned unopposed from the Tashiding Constituency. The Congress won a notable victory when its candidates wrested the Sangha (monasteries) seat. In this functional Constituency, there were about 2000 Buddhist Lama Voters representing 57 recognised monasteries.

This was first time that a candidate other than the one representing Monasteries Association and backed by the National Party had won the Sangha seat.

The National Party and the United Independent Front tried India- baiting by constantly referring to the enlarged "Indian Presence". The National Party which secured 11 out of the 18 elective seats in February, 1953, could none secure only one seat. Along with the United Independent Front, it could secure only 30 percent of the votes polled. The United Independent Front in May, 1974, formed themselves into the Prajatantra Party. The Party adapted anti India stand and began to spread concocted stories about collusion between Sikkim Congress and the Government of India to harm the interests of Sikkim. But its vile propaganda failed to make any impact on the masses of Sikkim.

ANNEXURE - II

NOTIFICATION No. 35/S.C.

Dated Gangtok, July 6, 1974

Having received the assent of the Chogyal of Sikkim on July 4, 1974, the Government of Sikkim Bill 1974 which was passed by the Sikkim Assembly on July 3, 1974, has now become the Government of Sikkim Act 1974 and it is hereby notified for general information as follows:

The Government of Sikkim Act, 1974

An

Act

to provide in pursuance of the historic agreement of the 8 of May 1973, between the Chogyal, the leaders of the political parties representing the people of Sikkim and the Government of India and of the unanimous desire of the members of the Sikkim Assembly expressed in the meeting of the Assembly held on May 11, 1974, for the progressive realisation of a fully responsible government in Sikkim and for further strengthening its close relationship with India.

CHAPTER- I

PRELIMINARY

**Short title and
Commencement**

1. This Act may be called the Government of Sikkim Act, 1974.
(2) It shall come into the force on the fourth day of July 1974.

Definitions

2. In this Act, unless the content otherwise requires.
 - a) "Assembly" means the Sikkim Assembly;
 - b) "Chief Executive" means the Chief Executive referred to in section 28;
 - c) "Chogyal" means the Chogyal of Sikkim;
 - d) "Member" means a member of the Assembly

CHAPTER- II

THE CHOGYAL OF SIKKIM

**The Chogyal and his
privilege**

3. The Chogyal shall take precedence over all other persons in Sikkim and he shall continue to enjoy honour, position and other personal privileges hitherto enjoyed by him.

**The Chogyal to exercise
power and perform
function in accordance
with this Act.**

4. The Chogyal shall exercise his powers and perform his functions in accordance with the provisions of this Act, and nothing contained in section 3 shall affect the provisions of this section

**Executive action in
Sikkim have to be
expressed**

5. All executive action of the Government of Sikkim taken in accordance with the provisions of this Act shall be expressed to be taken in the name of the Chogyal.

CHAPTER- III

SIKKIM ASSEMBLY

Assembly for Sikkim

6. (1) There shall be an Assembly for Sikkim.
- (2) The total number of seats in the Assembly to be filled by persons chosen by direct election shall be such as may be determined by law.

Election to the Sikkim Assembly

7. (1) For the purpose of the elections to the Sikkim Assembly, Sikkim shall be divided into constituencies in such manner as may be determined by the law.
- (2) The Government of Sikkim may make rules for the purpose of providing that the Assembly adequately represents the various sections of the population, that is to say, while fully protecting the legitimate rights and interests of Sikkimese of Lepcha or Bhutia origin and of Sikkimese of Nepali origin and other Sikkimese, including Tsongs and Scheduled Castes no single section of the population is allowed to acquire a dominating position in the affairs of Sikkim mainly by reason of its ethnic origin.

Election Commission of India may conduct Elections

8. For ensuring free and fair elections in Sikkim, the Chogyal appoint a representative of the Election Commission of India nominated by the Government of India in this behalf and the elections shall be conducted under the supervision of such representatives, and for this purpose the representatives shall have all the powers necessary for the effective discharge of his functions.

Qualification for

9. A person shall not be qualified to be chosen to

**Membership of
Assembly**

fill a seat in the Assembly unless he:

- (a) is an elector for many constituency and makes and subscribe before same person authorized by the authority conducting the election an oath or affirmation according to the form set out in the schedule;
- (b) is not less than 25 years of age;
- (c) Possesses such other qualifications as may be specified in any law for the time being in force.

***Election on the basis of
adult suffrage***

- 10. (a) The elections to the Sikkim Assembly shall be on the basis of one man one vote, that is to say, every person who on the prescribed data is a subject of Sikkim, is not less than twenty-one years of age and is not otherwise disqualified under this Act or under any other law on the ground of residence, unsoundness of mind, crime or corrupt or illegal practice shall be entitled to be registered as a voter at such election.
- (b) Every person whose name is for the time being listed on the electoral roll of any constituency shall be entitled to vote at the election if a member from that constituency.

Duration of Assembly

- 11. The Assembly shall, unless sooner dissolved, continue for four years from the date appointed for its first meeting and no longer, and the expiration of the said period of four years shall operate as dissolution of the Assembly.

***Summoning of
Assembly***

- 12. The Chogyal shall, on the advice of the president of the assembly, summons the Assembly to meet at such time and place as he thinks fit, but for six months shall not intervene between its last sitting in one session and the date appointed for its first sitting in the next session.

***Speaker and Deputy
Speaker of the
Assembly***

13. (1) The Chief Executive shall be an ex-officio president of the Assembly and as such shall perform the functions of the Speaker thereof.
- (2) The Assembly shall, as soon as may be, choose a member to be deputy Speaker thereof who shall act as Speaker during absence of the President of the Assembly from any sitting of the Assembly.

***Right of Chogyal to
Attend and address
Meeting of Assembly***

14. The Chogyal may address the Assembly after intimating to the President of the Assembly his intention to do so.

***Oath or affirmation by
Members***

15. Every member of the Assembly shall before taking his seat, make and subscribe before the Chogyal or some person appointed in that behalf by him an oath or affirmation according to the form set out for the purpose in the schedule.

Vacation of seats

16. If a member of the Assembly:
 - (a) becomes subject to any disqualification mentioned in section 7 for membership of the Assembly; or
 - (b) resigns his seat by writing under his hand addressed to the president of the Assembly, his seat shall thereupon become vacant.

***Disqualification for
membership***

17. (1) A person shall be disqualified for being chosen as, and being, a member of the Assembly.
 - (a) if he holds any office of profit under the Government of Sikkim other than an office declared by law not to disqualify its holder;
 - (b) if he is of unsound mind and stands so declared by a competent court;

- (c) if he is so disqualified by or under any law.
- (2) For the purpose of this section, a person shall not be deemed to hold any office of profit under the Government of Sikkim by reason only that he is Minister.
- (3) If any question arises as to whether a member of the Assembly has become disqualified for being such a member under the provision of sub-section (i), the question shall be referred for the decision of the Chogyal and his decision shall be final.
- (4) Before giving any decision on any such question, the Chogyal shall obtain the opinion of the Election Commission of India or such other election authority as may be specified by the Government of India for the purpose, and shall act according to such opinion.

Penalty for sitting and voting before taken oath etc. or when disqualified etc.

18. If a person sits or votes as a member of the Assembly before he has complied with the requirements of section 15 or when he knows that he is not qualified or that he is disqualified for membership thereof; he shall be liable in respect of each day on which he so sits or votes to a penalty of one hundred rupees to be recovered as a debt due to the Government of Sikkim.

Power, privileges of members

19. (1) Subject to the provisions of this Act, and to the rules and standing orders regulating the procedure of the Assembly, there shall be freedom of speech in the Assembly.
- (2) No member shall be liable to any proceedings in any court in respect of anything said or any vote given by him in the Assembly or in any Committee thereof, and no person shall be so liable in respect of the publication by or under the

authority of the Assembly of any report, paper, votes or other proceedings.

***Powers and function of
the Assembly***

20. (1) Subject to the provisions of this Act, the Assembly may discuss, make recommendations or make laws for the whole or any part of Sikkim with respect to any of the following matters, namely ;
- (a) Education;
 - (b) Public Health;
 - (c) Excise;
 - (d) Press and Publicity;
 - (e) Transport;
 - (f) Bazars;
 - (g) Forests;
 - (h) Public Workers;
 - (i) Agriculture;
 - (j) Food Supplies;
 - (k) Economic and social Planning including State Enterprises; and
 - (l) Land Revenue.
- (2) Subject to the provisions of this Act, the Assembly shall also have the right to discuss and make recommendations with respect to any matter not enumerated in sub-section (1) which may from time to time be referred to it by the Chief Executive.
- (3) The Chogyal shall, on the recommendation of the Government of India, by notification in the Sikkim Durbar Gazette add any other matter to the matters enumerated in sub-section (1), and thereupon the matter so added shall be deemed to have been included in that sub-section for the purposes of this Act.

Assent to Bills

21. When a Bill has been passed by the Assembly, it

shall be presented to the Chogyal and latter shall either given his consent to the Bill withhold his assent there from.

Provided that the Chogyal may, as soon as possible after the presentation to him of a Bill for assent, return the Bill to the Assembly with a message requesting that they will reconsider the Bill or any specified provisions thereof and, in particular, will consider the desirability of introducing any such amendments as he may recommend in his message and, when a Bill is so returned, the Assembly shall reconsider it accordingly within a period of three months from the date of receipt of such message and if it is again passed by the Assembly with or without amendment and presented to the Chogyal for assent, the Chogyal shall not withhold assent therefrom,

Provided further that the Chogyal shall reserve for the consideration of the Government of India any Bill which would, if it became law, affect any of the responsibilities of the Government of India or any of the special responsibilities of the Chief Executive referred to in section 28 and shall act according to the decision of the Government of India.

*Courts not to enquire
into Proceeding of
Assembly*

22. (1) The validity to any proceedings in the Assembly shall not be called in question on the ground of any alleged irregularity in procedure.
- (2) No officer or member of the Assembly in whom powers are vested by or under this Act for regulating the procedure or the conduct of business or for maintaining order in the Assembly shall be

Provided that the Chogyal may, as soon as possible after the presentation to him of a Bill for assent, return the Bill to the Assembly with a message requesting that they will reconsider the Bill or any specified provisions thereof and, in particular, will consider the desirability of introducing any such amendments as he may recommend in his message and, when a Bill is so returned, the Assembly shall reconsider it accordingly within a period of three months from the date of receipt of such message and if it is again passed by the Assembly with or without amendment and presented to the Chogyal for assent, the Chogyal shall not withhold assent therefrom,

Provided further that the Chogyal shall reserve for the consideration of the Government of India any Bill which would, if it became law, affect any of the responsibilities of the Government of India or any of the special responsibilities of the Chief Executive referred to in section 28 and shall act according to the decision of the Government of India.

***Courts not to enquire
into Proceeding of
Assembly***

22. (1) The validity to any proceedings in the Assembly shall not be called in question on the ground of any alleged irregularity in procedure.
- (2) No officer or member of the Assembly in whom powers are vested by or under this Act for regulating the procedure or the conduct of business or for maintaining order in the Assembly shall be subject to the jurisdiction of any court in respect of the exercise by him of these powers.

Rules of procedure

23. (1) The Assembly may make rules for regulating,

subject to the provisions of this act, its procedure and the conduct of its business.

(2) Notwithstanding anything contained in subsection or any other provisions of this Act, the Assembly shall not discuss or ask question or any of the following, namely:

- (a) The Chogyal and members of the ruling family;
- (b) Any matter pending before the court of law;
- (c) The appointment of the Chief Executive or members of the Judiciary;
- (d) Any matter which is exclusively the responsibility of the government of India whether under this Act or under any agreement or otherwise.

CHAPTER- IV

COUNCIL OF MINISTERS

**Council of Ministers to
aid and advice the
Chogyal**

24. (1) There shall be an executive Council (in this Act referred to as the Council of Ministers) with one of the members thereof at the head who shall be designated as the Chief Minister and the others as Ministers.

(2) The Council of Ministers shall be in charge of the administrative departments allotted to them and advise the Chogyal in respect of all matters within their jurisdiction.

(3) Every advice tendered by the Council of Ministers shall be communicated to the Chogyal through the Chief Executive who may, if he is in the opinion that the advice affects or is likely to affect any of his special responsibilities of the Government of India referred to in section 28, require the Council of Ministers to modify the

advice accordingly.

(4) The question whether any, and if so what, advice was tendered by ministers to the Chogyal shall not be inquired into by any court.

**Appointment and
removal of minister**

25. (1) The Chief Minister and other Ministers shall be appointed by the Chogyal on the advice of the Chief Executive.

(2) The Council of Ministers shall be responsible to the Assembly.

(3) Before a minister enters his office, the Chogyal or such other person as may be authorised in this behalf, shall administer to him the Oaths of the office and secretary according to the form set out for the purpose in the schedule.

**Extent of executive
power of the Council of
Minister**

26. The executive power of the Council of Minister shall extend to the matters referred to in section 20.

Conduct of business

27. The Chogyal shall, on the recommendation of the Chief Executive taken in consultation with the Chief Minister, make rules for the allocation of business to the Ministers and for the more convenient transaction of business.

CHAPTER- V

THE CHIEF EXECUTIVE

**Chief Executive and his
functions**

28. (1) At the head of administration in Sikkim, there shall be a Chief Executive, who shall be a person nominated to that post by the Chogyal.

(2) The function of the Chief Executive shall be to ensure that:

(a) the responsibilities of the Government of India in or in relation to Sikkim as respect all or any of

the matters referred to in the Agreement of the 8 of May, 1973, between the Chogyal, the Government of India and the leaders of the political parties representing the people of Sikkim, or in any other Agreement entered into between the Chogyal and the Government of India, whether before or after the commencement of this Act;

(b) the special responsibilities of the Chief Executive referred to in the agreement of the 8 May, 1973, aforesaid;
are duly discharged.

(3) The Chief Executive shall have all the powers necessary for the discharge of his functions and responsibilities, and the executive power in Sikkim shall be so exercised as to ensure compliance with any decisions take or orders or directions issued by the Government of India in the due discharge of its responsibilities.

**Performance of the
functions by the Chief executive**

29. (1) The Chief Executive shall:

(a) Where any action taken in the performance of his functions concerns a matter of administrative functions relating to which have been allocated to a minister, act in consultation with the Minister in respect thereof:

(b) submit all important matters to the Chogyal for his information and for his approval of the action proposed to be taken;

provided that where immediate action is required the Chief Executive may take such action as he thinks fit and shall obtain the Chogyal's approval as soon as after the action has been taken as possible.

(c) Advice the Chogyal in respect of all other matters.

(2) Where difference of opinion arises between Chief Executive and the Chogyal in respect of any matter; it shall be referred to the Government of India for decision and the decision of the Government of India shall be final.

CHAPTER- VI

GENERAL

Association with Government of India

30. For the speedy development of Sikkim in social, economic and political fields the Government of Sikkim may:

- (a) request the Government of India to include the planned development of Sikkim within the ambit of the planning Commission of India while that Commission is preparing plans for the economic and social development of India and to appropriately associate officials from Sikkim in such work;
- (b) request the Government of India to provide facilities for students for Sikkim in institutions for higher learning and for the employment of people from Sikkim in the public service of India (including the all India services), at par with those available to the citizens of India;
- (c) Seek participation and representation for the people of Sikkim in the political institution of India.

Independence of Judiciary

31. All judges shall be independent in the exercise of their judicial function and subject only to this Act and the Laws.

***Basic human rights and
fundamentals of
freedom***

32. (1) All sections of the people in Sikkim shall enjoy basic human rights and fundamental freedoms without discrimination.

(2) The Government of Sikkim shall make every endeavour to secure for the people of Sikkim the enjoyment of the aforesaid rights and to maintain and promote communal harmony.

(3) Notwithstanding anything contained in the aforesaid provisions, special provision shall be made for the advancement or the protection of the aboriginal inhabitants of Sikkim and other minorities.

***Existing assembly to be
the first Sikkim
Assembly under this
Act***

33. The Assembly which has been formed as a result of the election held in Sikkim in April, 1974, shall be deemed to be the first Assembly duly constituted under this Act, and shall be entitled to exercise the powers and perform the functions conferred on the Assembly by this Act.

***Powers to removed
difficulties***

34. If any difficulty arises in giving effect to the provisions of this Act, the Chogyal may, in consultation with the Chief Executive, by order, do anything not inconsistent with the provisions of this Act, which appear to be expedient or necessary for the purpose of removing the difficulty.

By Order

J.T. Densappa
Secretary of the Chogyal.

ANNEXURE - III

THE SCHEDULE

(Forms of Oaths or Affirmations)

I

(See section 9-a)

(1) Form of oath or affirmation to be made by a candidate for election to the Assembly.

“I A. B. having been nominated as a candidate to fill a seat in the Assembly
do swear in the name of God that I will bear true faith and allegiance to the
Solemnly affirm
Constitution of Sikkim as by law established.”

II

(See section 15)

(2) Form of oath or affirmation to be made by a member of the Assembly

“I A.B. having been elected as a member of the Assembly do swear in the name of God
Solemnly affirm
that I will bear true faith and allegiance to the Constitution of Sikkim as by law
established and that I will faithfully discharge the duty on which I am about to enter.”

III

(See section 25)

(3) Form of oath of office for a member of the Council of Ministers

“I A.B. do swear in the name of God that I will bear true faith and allegiance to
Solemnly affirm
the Constitution of Sikkim as by law established and that I will faithfully and
conscientiously discharge my duties as a Minister and that I will do right to all manner
of people in accordance with the Constitution and the law without fear or favour,
affection or ill-will.

IV

(See section 25)

(3) From of oath of secretary for a member of the Council of Ministers

“ I A.B. do swear in the name of God Solemnly affirm that I will not directly or indirectly communicate or reveal to any person or persons any matter which shall be brought under my consideration or shall become know to me as a Minister except as may be required for the due discharge my duties as such a Minister.”

ANNEXURE - IV

THE TEXT OF THE CONSTITUTION (THIRTY – EIGHTH AMENDMENT) BILL, 1975

Be it enacted by parliament in the twenty –sixth year of the Republic of India as follows:

1. (1) This Act may be called the Constitution (Thirty-Eighth Amendment) Act, 1975.

(2) It shall be deemed to have come into force on the date on which the Bill for this Act (Introduced in the House of the people as Constitution [Thirty-eighth Amendment] Bill 1975), as passed by the house of the People, is passed by the Council of States.

1. In the first schedule of the Constitution, under the heading

“1. THE STATES”, after entry 21, the following entry shall be inserted, namely:

“22 SIKKIM *‘The Territories which immediately before the commencement of the Constitution (Thirty-eighth Amendment) Act, 1975, were comprised on Sikkim.’*”

3. After Article 371F of the Constitution, the following article shall be inserted, namely:

“371F, notwithstanding anything in this Constitution,

- (a) The Legislative Assembly of the State of Sikkim shall consist of not less than thirty members;
- (b) as from the date of commencement of the Constitution (Thirty-eighth Amendment) Act, 1975 (hereinafter in this article referred to as the appointed day):
- (i) the Assembly for Sikkim formed as result of the elections held in Sikkim in April, 1974, with thirty-two members elected in the said elections (hereinafter referred to as the sitting members) shall be deemed to be the Legislative Assembly of the State of Sikkim duly constituted under this constitution;
 - (ii) the sitting members shall be deemed to be the members of the Legislative Assembly of the State of Sikkim duly elected under this Constitution ; and
 - (iii) the said Legislative Assembly of the State of Sikkim shall exercise the powers and perform the functions of the Legislative Assembly of a State under this constitution;
- (c) Period of five years referred to in clause (1) of article 172 shall, in the case of the Legislative Assembly of the State of Sikkim referred to in clause (b), be deemed to have commenced on the appointed day;
- (d) Until other provision are made by the Parliament by law, there shall be allotted to the State of Sikkim one seat in the House of the People and the State of Sikkim shall form one parliamentary constituency to be called the parliamentary constituency for Sikkim;

(e) The representative of the State of Sikkim in the House of the People in existence on the appointed day shall be elected by the members of the Legislative Assembly of the State of Sikkim;

(f) Parliament may, for the purpose of protecting the rights and interests of the different sections of the population of Sikkim, make provision for the number of seats in the Legislative Assembly of the State of Sikkim which may be filled by candidates belonging to such sections and for the delimitation of the assembly constituencies from which candidates belonging to such sections alone may stand for election to the Legislative Assembly of the State of Sikkim.

(g) The Government of Sikkim shall have special responsibility for peace and for an equitable arrangement for ensuring the social and economic advancement of different sections of the population of Sikkim and in the discharge of his special responsibility under this clause, the Governor of Sikkim shall, subject to such directions as the President may, from time to time deem fit to issue, act in his discretion;

(h) All property and assets (whether within or outside the territories comprised in the State of Sikkim) which immediately before the appointment day were vested in the Government of Sikkim or in any other authority or in any person for this purpose of the Government of Sikkim shall, as from the appointed day, vest in the Government of the State of Sikkim;

(i) The High Court functioning as such immediately before the appointed day in the territories comprised in the State of Sikkim shall, on and from the appointed day, be deemed to be the High Court for the State of Sikkim;

(j) All court of civil, criminal and revenue jurisdiction, all authorities and all officers, judicial, executive and ministerial, throughout the territory of the State of Sikkim shall continue on and from the appointed day to exercise their respective functions subject to the provisions of this Constitution;

(k) All laws in force immediately before the appointed day in the territories comprised in the State of Sikkim or any part thereof shall continue to be in force therein until amended or repealed by a competent Legislature or other competent authority;

(l) For the purpose of facilitating the application of any such law as is referred to in clause (k) in relation to the administration of the State of Sikkim and for the purpose of bringing the provisions of any such law into accord with the provisions of this Constitution, the President may, within two years from the appointed day by order make such adoptions and modifications of the law, whether by way of repeal or amendment, as may be necessary or expedient, and there upon, every such law shall have effect subject to the adaptations and modifications so made, and any such adaptation or modification shall not be questioned in any court of law;

(m) neither the Supreme Court nor any other court shall have jurisdiction in respect of any dispute or other matter arising out of treaty, agreement, engagement or other similar instrument relating to Sikkim which was entered into or executed before the appointed day and to which the Government of India or any its predecessor Government was a party, but nothing in this clause shall be construed to derogate from the provisions of Article 143;

(n) the president may, by public notification, extend with such restrictions or modifications as he thinks fit to the state of Sikkim any enactment which is in force in a State in India at the date of notification;

(o) if any difficulty arises in giving effect to any of the foregoing provisions of this Article, the President may, by order, do anything (including any adaptation or modification of any other article) which appear to him to be necessary for the purpose of removing that difficulty; Provided that no such order shall be made after the expiry of two years from the appointed day;

(p) all things done and all actions taken in or in relation to the State of Sikkim or the territories comprised therein during the period commencing on the appointed day and ending immediately before the date on which the constitution (38th Amendment) Act, 1975, receives the assent of the President shall, in so far as they are in conformity with the provisions of this constitution as amended by the constitution (38th amendment) Act, 1975, be deemed for all purposes to have been validly done or taken under this constitution as so amended”.

4. In the Fourth Schedule to the Constitution, in the table:

(a) after entry 21, the following entry shall be inserted, namely:

“22. SIKKIM I”

(b) existing entries 22 to 25 shall be renumbered as entries 23 to 26 respectively;

(c) for the figures “231”, the figures “232” shall be substituted.

5. The following consequential amendments shall be made in the constitution, namely:

- (a) Article 2A shall be omitted;
- (b) in Article 80, in clause (1), the words and figure “subject to the provisions of paragraph 4 of the Tenth Schedule”, shall be omitted;
- (c) in Article 81, in clause (1), the words and figure “and paragraph 4 of the Tenth Schedule” shall be omitted;
- (d) the Tenth Schedule shall be omitted.

ANNEXURE - V

Emerging Pattern of District Level Development Administration in

Sikkim: A study since 1975

Questionnaire for Politician

Section -I

1. Name of the Panchayat Members (optional) :

2. Sex: I) Male II)Female

3. Age Group

I) 18-30

II) 31-40

III) 41-50

IV) 51-60

V) 60 and Above

4. Caste :

I) General

II) S.C.

III) S.T.

IV) O.B.C

5. Academic Qualification:

I) Illiterate

II) Literate

III) Primary

IV) Junior High

V) Madhyamik

VI) Higher Secondary

VII) Graduate

VIII) Post graduate

6. Income of the family per annum :

7. Occupation of the member :

I) Service (govt.)

II) service (private)

III) Business

IV) Cultivation

V) Party Whole Timer

VI) Unemployed

VII) Any Other

Section -II

1. Name of the rural Development Programme in your area :

i)

ii)

iii)

iv)

v)

vi)

2. How are the beneficiaries for the RDPs selected?

3. Are you satisfied with the process of selection of beneficiaries?

i) Yes

ii) Undecided

iii) No

4. Reason for your opinion :

5. Are the programme implemented through the proper process?

6. Details of the Rural Development programmes:

A. i) Name of the programme:

ii) Percentage of reservation of the beneficiaries:

a) S.C.

b) S.T.

c) O.B.C.

d) Women

iii) Amount of fund:

11. Do the women panchayat members attend the meetings regularly?

i) Always

ii) Sometimes

iii) Never

12. Do they offer any independent opinion in the meeting?

i) Always

ii) Sometimes

iii) Never

13. Do the opinions of the women members influence the decision of the meeting?

i) fully

ii) Partly

iii) Not at all

14. Do you have autonomy to decide on the local issue?

i) Always

ii) Sometimes

iii) Never

15. Do the leaders at the state level influence you to solve the local problem?

i) Always

ii) Sometimes

iii) Never

16. A. Do the Government officers interfere in your action?

i) Always

ii) Sometimes

iii) Never

B. Are you happy with the working of the government officers?

i) fully

ii) Partly

iii) Not at all

17. Do you think panchayats have been doing very job for the development of rural areas?

i) Agreed

ii) Undecided

iii) disagreed

18. Do you think that rural poverty has decreased through the works of the panchayats?

i) Agreed

ii) Undecided

iii) disagreed

19. Do you think that panchayats formulate policies and adopt programmes for the upliftment of the poor?

- i) Agreed ii) Undecided iii) disagreed

20. Please state few policies or programmes that were taken by your panchayat for the upliftment of the poor:

i)

ii)

iii)

iv)

v)

21. Do you think panchayats are working for influential and party leaders?

- i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

22. How far have the development programmes in your area been successful?

- i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

23. How far the following factors responsible for slowing down the implementation of development programmes?

a) Lack of faith in programmes and policies:

- i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

b) Lack of skilled and dedicated workers:

- i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

c) Lack of resources:

- i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

d) Defective planning of work programme:

- i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

e) Defective interdepartmental coordination:

i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

f) Defective coordination among various levels of the department:

i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

g) Defective supervision:

i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

h) Inter-dependent rivalry:

i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

i) Target changing tendency:

i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

j) Lack of regular machinery to assess achievements and shortfall:

i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

k) Rigidity in administrative procedure:

i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

l) Excessive political pulls and presence:

i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

m) Lack of people's interest and participation:

i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

n) Administration of the supply of full inputs:

i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

24. Do you agree with the view that administrators lack motivation and commitments to implement rural development programmes?

i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

25. Do you agree with the view that administrators are more concerned with the fulfillment of targets and less with the real achievement?

- i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

26. Is there any concept of village level workers? i) Yes ii) No

27. How frequently do the VLWs visit and talk to the common people?

- i) Often ii) Sometimes iii) Never

28. How much do you agree with the following statements?

a) In preparing and executing development programmes administrators should have nothing to do with political leaders:

- i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

b) Administrators should initiate and prepare development programmes and explain them to political leaders:

- i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

c) Administrators should consult political leaders before they initiate and prepare development programmes:

- i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

d) Administrators should act upon development programme which have been initiate and prepared by political leaders:

- i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

e) Do you agree with the view that the involvement of political parties in the local bodies impeded the administration of development programmes?

- i) Not at all ii) Somewhat iii) Very much

f) Do you agree with the view that administration will be more effective if, politicians leave the administrators alone to decide what programme to carry out and how to carry out?

- i) Not at all ii) Somewhat iii) Very much

**Emerging Pattern of District Level Development Administration in
Sikkim: A study since 1975**

Questionnaire for Citizens

Section-I

1. Sex : I) Male II) Female
2. Age Group : I) 18-30 II) 31-40
III) 41-50 IV) 51-60 V) 60 and Above
3. Caste : I) General II) S.C.
III) S.T. IV) O.B.C
4. Academic Qualification: I) Illiterate II) Literate
III) Primary IV) Junior High V) Madhyamik
VI) Higher Secondary VII) Graduate VIII) Post –graduate
5. Income of the family per annum :
6. Occupation of the member: I) Service (govt.) II) service (private)
III) Business IV) Cultivation V) Party Whole Timer
VI) Unemployed VII) Any Other
7. Religion :

Section -II

1. Name of the rural Development Programme in your area :
- i)
 - ii)
 - iii)
 - iv)
 - v)
 - vi)

2. How are the beneficiaries for the RDPs selected?

3. Are you satisfied with the process of selection of beneficiaries?

- i) Yes ii) Undecided iii) No

4. Reason for your opinion :

5. Are the programme implemented through the proper process?

6. How would you evaluate the panchayats?

- i) As a development instrument.
ii) As a step towards decentralized government.
iii) Give no answer

7. Can the people themselves solve their problems through the panchayat bodies?

- i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

8. Are the panchayats effectively working at the grassroots institution of democracy?

- i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

9. Do you think that women in your locality come into politics because

a) They want to join politics:

- i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

b) Their family wants them to join politics:

- i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

c) The political parties want them to join politics:

- i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

10. Do the women panchayat members attend the meetings regularly?

- i) Always ii) Sometimes iii) Never

11. Are you happy with the working of the government officers?

- i) fully ii) Partly iii) Not at all

12. Do you think panchayats have been doing very job for the development of rural areas?

- i) Agreed ii) Undecided iii) disagreed

13. Do the opinions of the women members influence the decision of the meeting?

- i) fully ii) Partly iii) Not at all

14. Do you think that rural poverty has decreased through the works of the panchayats?

- i) Agreed ii) Undecided iii) disagreed

15. Do you think that panchayats formulate policies and adopt programmes for the upliftment of the poor?

- i) Agreed ii) Undecided iii) disagreed

16. Please state few policies or programmes that were taken by your panchayat for the upliftment of the poor:

i)

ii)

iii)

iv)

v)

17. Do you think panchayats are working for influential and party leaders?

- i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

18. How far have the development programmes in your area been successful?

- i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

19. How far the following factors responsible for slowing down the implementation of development programmes?

a) Lack of faith in programmes and policies:

- i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

b) Lack of skilled and dedicated workers:

- i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

c) Lack of resources:

- i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

d) Defective planning of work programme:

- i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

e) Defective interdepartmental coordination:

- i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

f) Defective coordination among various levels of the department:

- i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

g) Defective supervision:

- i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

h) Inter-dependent rivalry:

- i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

i) Target changing tendency:

i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

j) Lack of regular machinery to assess achievements and shortfall:

i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

k) Rigidity in administrative procedure:

i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

l) Excessive political pulls and presence:

i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

m) Lack of people's interest and participation:

i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

n) Administration of the supply of full inputs:

i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

20. Do you agree with the view that administrators lack motivation and commitments to implement rural development programmes?

i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

21. Do you agree with the view that administrators are more concerned with the fulfilment of targets and less with the real achievement?

i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

22. Is there any concept of village level workers? i) Yes ii) No

23. How frequently do the VLWs visit and talk to the common people?

i) Often ii) Sometimes iii) Never

24. How much do you agree with the following statements?

a) In preparing and executing development programmes administrators should have nothing to do with political leaders:

i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

b) Administrators should initiate and prepare development programmes and explain them to political leaders:

- i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

c) Administrators should consult political leaders before they initiate and prepare development programmes:

- i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

d) Administrators should act upon development programme which have been initiated and prepared by political leaders:

- i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

e) Do you agree with the view that the involvement of political parties in the local bodies impeded the administration of development programmes?

- i) Not at all ii) Somewhat iii) Very much

f) Do you agree with the view that administration will be more effective if, politicians leave the administrators alone to decide what programme to carry out and how to carry out?

- i) Not at all ii) Somewhat iii) Very much

**Emerging Pattern of District Level Development Administration in
Sikkim: A study since 1975**

Questionnaire for Administrator

Section-I

- | | |
|------------------------------------|---------------|
| 1. Name of the Officer (optional) | : |
| 2. Department | : |
| 3. Position held | : |
| 4. Educational Qualification | : |
| 5. Income per annum | : |
| 6. Profession | : |
| i) Technical | ii) General |
| 7. Property of the family | : |
| 8. Marital Status | : |
| i) Married | ii) Unmarried |
| 9. If married, spouse's name | : |
| 10. No. of dependent in the family | : |

Section -II

1. How many Rural development (RD) Programmes are there in Sikkim?

2. Name of the rural Development Programmes :

Serial No.	Name of the Programme	Centre/ State sponsored
1		
2		
3		
4		
5		
6		
7		
8		
9		
10		

3. Are all these programmes working in all four districts in Sikkim?

i) Yes

ii) No

4. If not,

a) Name the RD programmes that are working in East District:

1.

6.

2.

7.

3.

8.

4.

9.

5.

10.

b) Name the RD programmes that are working in West District:

1.

6.

2.

7.

3.

8.

4.

9.

5.

10.

c) Name the RD programmes that are working in North District:

- | | |
|----|-----|
| 1. | 6. |
| 2. | 7. |
| 3. | 8. |
| 4. | 9. |
| 5. | 10. |

d) Name the RD programmes that are working in South District:

- | | |
|----|-----|
| 1. | 6. |
| 2. | 7. |
| 3. | 8. |
| 4. | 9. |
| 5. | 10. |

5. Do you follow the blue-print of the RD programme in to during the process of implementations?

- i) Always ii) Some times iii) Never

6. Do you make any addition, alteration in the blue-print of the RD programmes during the time of implementation?

- i) Always ii) Some times iii) Never

7. Do you think that there is scope for change in the blue-print of RD programmes?

- i) Always ii) Some times iii) Never

8. What recommendations would you like to suggest in the blue-print of Rd programmes?

9. Do you think that you have enough authority to decide things that you should decide?

- i) Enough authority ii) some authority iii) No authority

10. Is there any scope of initiative in your day-to-day work?

- i) Enough scope ii) some scope iii) No scope

11. What are the major items of your job?

- i) Correspondence ii) Supervision iii) Coordination

12. What are your feelings about your job?

- i) Very interesting ii) Somewhat interesting iii) Not interesting

13. Do you think that your jobs have become completed for the interference of the political leaders?

- i) Always ii) Some times iii) Not at all

14. How far have the development programmes in your area been successful?

- i) Not much ii) Somewhat iii) Much

15. How far the following factors responsible for slowing down the implementation of development programmes?

a) Lack of faith in programmes and policies:

- i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

b) Lack of skilled and dedicated workers:

- i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

c) Lack of resources:

- i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

d) Defective planning of work programme:

- i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

e) Defective interdepartmental coordination:

- i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

f) Defective coordination among various levels within a single department:

- i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

g) Defective supervision:

- i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

h) Inter-dependent rivalry:

- i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

i) Target changing tendency:

- i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

j) Lack of regular machinery to assess achievements and shortfall:

- i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

k) Rigidity in administrative procedure:

- i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

l) Excessive political pulls and presence:

- i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

m) Lack of people's interest and participation:

- i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

16. Do you agree with the view that administrators lack motivation and commitments to implement rural development programmes?

- i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

17. Do you agree with the view that administrators are more concerned with the fulfilment of targets and less with the real achievement?

- i) Mostly ii) To some extent iii) Not at all

18. Is there any concept of village level workers? i) Yes ii) No

19. If yes, how frequently do they visit and talk to the common people?

i) Very often ii) Sometimes iii) Never

20. Do you agree with the view that village level workers care only for the influential leaders and not the common people?

i) Agreed ii) Undecided iii) Disagreed