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INDIAN ADMINISTRATION

By: P.R. Tiwari

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of the
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QUESTION PAPER

(June – 2019)

(Solved)

INDIAN ADMINISTRATION

Time: 3 Hours]

[Maximum Marks: 100

Note: Answer any two questions from section I, any four from section II and any two from section III.

SECTION-I

Answer the following questions:

Q. 1. Explain the relationship between secretariat department and executive department at the state level.

Ans. Ref.: See Chapter-14, Page No. 65, 'Secretariate Directorate Relationship Patterns'.

Q. 2. Describe the regulatory, executive and quasijudicial functions of the Union Public Service Commission.

Ans. Ref.: See Chapter-9, Page No. 41, 'Functions of the UPSC'.

Q. 3. Examine the role of the Governor in the state administration.

Ans. Ref.: See Chapter-12, Page No. 54, 'Role of the Governor'.

Q. 4. Write a note on the Urban Local Self-Government.

Ans. Ref.: See Chapter-19, Page No. 87, 'Urban Local Self-Government', Page No. 89, Q. No. 5.

SECTION-II

Answer the following questions:

Q. 5. Briefly describe the basic features of Indian Constitution.

Ans. Ref.: See Chapter-6, Page No. 27, 'Introduction', 'Unambiguous Nature', 'Preamble', 'Parliamentary Democracy', Page No. 28, 'Fundamental Rights', 'Directive Principles', 'Federalism', 'Judiciary', Page No. 29, 'Division of Power'.

Q. 6. Explain the changing role of the Prime Minister's Office.

Ans. Ref.: See Chapter-8, Page No. 37, 'Changing Role of the PMO'.

Q. 7. Write a note on components of civil services at the state level.

Ans. Ref.: See Chapter-15, Page No. 68, 'Components of Civil Services at the state level.'

Q. 8. Examine the role of the District Collector in Panchayati Raj Institutions.

Ans. Ref.: See Chapter-17, Page No. 79, Q. No. 4, Page No. 78, 'Collector Work : Some Constraints'.

Q. 9. Explain the different types of administrative tribunals.

Ans. Ref.: See Chapter-23, Page No. 101, 'Types of Administrative Tribunals'.

Q. 10. What are the limitations of Judicial control over administration ?

Ans. Ref.: See Chapter-24, Page No. 106, 'Limitations of Judicial Control Over Administration'.

Q. 11. Describe the division of administrative powers between the centre and states.

Ans. Ref.: See Chapter-12, Page No. 56, Q. No. 1.

Q. 12. 'Pressure groups differ in their constitution and objectives'. Discuss.

Ans. Pressure groups differ in their constitution and objectives. Pressure groups are forms of organisations, which exert pressure on the political or administrative system of a country to extract benefits out of it and to advance their own interests. The term 'pressure group' refers to any interest group whose members because of their shared common attributes make claims on the other groups and on the political process. They pursue their interests by organising themselves and by influencing the governmental policies. Their aim is to see that laws or government's actions are favourable to their interests. Pressure groups have been in existence in different forms ever since governmental machinery became capable of delivering certain benefits to either individuals or groups. They did take more concrete form in the wake of industrial revolution and the rise of market oriented economies. The emergence of trusts and monopolies and the struggle

over tariffs led to the formation of pressure groups. With the advancement of technology and agricultural skills new problems, desires and needs arose and therefore new groups and organisations came into being to advance their common interests. State assumed various welfare functions in addition to its earlier regulatory activities. All this entrusted considerable power and discretion in the hands of state apparatus and the need to exert more pressure on the State became stronger. The dominant sections of the society needed the help of the State in promotion of the economic activities and the weak and the deprived needed its help for meeting their basic requirements. To articulate their interests, and exert pressure on the State apparatus these groups gained prominence. Pressure groups in mobilising and organising masses have widened the base of political participation as well as creating a responsive political and administrative system. They help in social integration, political articulation and act as catalysts

SECTION-III

Answer the following questions:

Q. 13. Enlist the defects of the Regulating Act of 1773.

Ans. Ref.: See Chapter-2, Page No. 9, Q. No. 2.

Q. 14. What are the modes of corruption in public services ?

Ans. The term corruption has been defined in many ways. In general terms corruption is not always for monetary gains. It is the personal use of public

office in violation of rules and regulations. Corruption has many negative effects on administration. It is one of the major factors for delay and inefficiency in administration. The Central Vigilance Commission has identified the following modes of corruption.

1. Acceptance of substandard stores/works.
2. Misappropriation of public money and stores.
3. Acceptance of gifts.
4. Borrowing of money from contractors/firms having official dealing with officers.
5. Show of favours to contractors and firms.
6. Possession of assets disproportionate to income.
7. Purchase of immovable property without prior permission or intimation.
8. Losses to the government by negligence or otherwise.
9. Misuse of official position and powers.
10. Irregularities in reservation of seats by rail and by air.
11. Irregularities in grant of import and export licenses.

Q. 15. Elaborate the issues confronting police administration.

Ans. Ref.: See Chapter-18, Page No. 83, 'Issues Confronting Police Administration'.

Q. 16. Explain the concept of public interest litigation.

Ans. Ref.: See Chapter-24, Page No. 109, Q. No. 7. ■ ■

Sample Preview of The Chapter

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INDIAN ADMINISTRATION

HISTORICAL CONTEXT

Administrative System at the Advent of British Rule



INTRODUCTION

The history of India starts with the Indus Valley civilization. Pre-Vedic sites of Mohenjo-Daro, Harappa and Lothal are about 5000 years old. Later, during the rule of King Ashoka large parts of India were united. During Magadha, Mauryan and Gupta Ages, India had a well-knit state organization. A detailed account of the political institutions of the time is given in Kautilya's "*Arthashastra*", written around 300 B.C. During medieval period Islam emerged as political force. Many dynasties of Islamic rulers were followed by the Moghuls. Many features of ancient and medieval rulers' administrative systems got reflected in the practices of British rule in India.

CHAPTER AT A GLANCE

Among the many great emperors of ancient India, the names of Chandragupta and Ashoka are well-known. They not only enlarged and consolidated their empire, but they were also very good administrators. During the reign of Chandragupta Maurya, Kautilya wrote his famous political treatise "*Arthashastra*" which contains the fundamental tenets of statecraft as practiced in ancient India. It comprises fifteen books and the principles enumerated in them are relevant even today. Wide network of administration included the secret police and *nagarpatris* in towns and villages. The king was supreme and had the *parishad* and the *sabha* to assist him. The king was also obligated to take steps of

popular welfare. King Ashoka set-up a new department called the Ministry of Morals.

During the medieval period India had many Muslim kings. Among the dynasties of that period, the Moghuls deserve special mention. The Moghul rule was autocratic and centralized. Unlike the Mauryas, the Moghuls did not pay much attention to such social sectors as health and welfare. Their administration was personalized and revolved around the king who was the source of authority. The nature of the rule and policies of the state depended on the character and person of the king. Some of the kings, for instance Akbar, were regarded as benevolent and concerned about the masses. Akbar strengthened and consolidated his empire. On the other hand, some, like Aurangzeb, were intolerant and indulged in religious persecution. This led to revolts in various parts of the empire and set into motion the forces of disintegration.

Moghul rule was essentially land-based, i.e. mainly concerned with realization of the land revenue. Hence, they build an efficient network of revenue collection. The recruitment of the officers was based on caste, kin and personal loyalty. Every officer of the State held a Mansab and was expected to supply a certain number of troops to the king. Thus the bureaucracy had military character and officers were feared by the people. There were as many as 33 grades of Mansabdars, ranging from Commander of 10 soldiers to those of 10,000 soldiers. Many of the officers received their salaries through jagirs for a temporary period. They had no ownership

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of land in their jagirs but had the right to collect revenues. This led to exploitation of the masses and gave unchecked power to the jagirdars.

The army was largely based on Mansabdari system, though there were also supplementary troopers. But, barring the special category of horse-riding soldiers owing exclusive allegiance to the king, most of the soldiers were more attached to their immediate recruiters or bosses who were busy with their rivalries and jealousies. This affected the fighting capability of the army. The responsibility of policing in rural areas was on the village headman while in the cities and towns this was shared by the Kotwals.

THE STRUCTURE OF THE MOGHUL ADMINISTRATIVE SYSTEM

The administration of the Moghul rulers was very much centralized and its efficiency depended upon the king. Strong kings had strong administration and if the king was weak or indifferent the administration would suffer. Generally the administrative pattern was based on regulations, traditions and practices. The highest official of the administrative system was the *Vakil* followed by the *Wazir*, the former was overall in-charge of the State while the latter headed the revenue department.

Wazir was also known as high diwan and the head of the administrative wing Chief Diwan was accountable to him. It was the Chief Diwan whose signatures and seal authenticated the government business. He supervised the work of provincial diwans and other high officials. The official who audited income and expenditure was called *Mustafi* and the *Waqia-navis* used to keep records of all big farmers. The ecclesiastical department was headed by *Sadr-e-Sudur* and the *Mir-e-Bakshi* was the paymaster-general of the empire.

The provincial authorities were mere administrative agents of the Centre. The empire was divided in many provinces or *Subas*. The executive head of the province the *Subedar*, or the Governor, was appointed by imperial order. He was expected to govern with a firm hand and realize the tributes from local chiefs. He also controlled the zamindars and jagirdars. The provincial diwan was in-charge of the finances and appointed *kroris* and *tehsildars*. Though provincial Diwan was next in importance to the Governor but he functioned independently and was accountable to the imperial Diwan. The role of the *Bakshi* in provinces was similar to that of

the Centre. *Sadr* and *Qazi* looked after the judicial cases. While *Sadr* was only for civil cases, the jurisdiction of *Qazi* included both the civil and criminal cases.

The Suba or the province consisted of many local areas or '**Sarkars**'. Some of them were ruled by the tributary rajas. Some other were under the direct control of the empire and ruled by the officers called *Fauzdars*, appointed by the emperor. A *Fauzdar* was also in-charge of a military force and ensured that any rebellions are put down. The responsibility to look after the revenues of a 'Sarkar' lied with *amalguzars*.

'Sarkar' was further divided into 'Paraganas'. Each 'Paragana' had a *shiqqdar*, an **amil** and a **Qazi**. Below the 'Paraganas' were 'Chaklas' headed by *Chakladars*.

REVENUE ADMINISTRATION

Land Revenue has been traditionally the primary source of income of the State. The share of the state has been changing from time to time and the peasants never had any option but to pay. In some regimes the State's share was fixed as one-twelfth while in other it was as high as one-third or one-fourth. During fourteenth century, the State took half. During Moghul period Akbar fixed it as one-third.

In India there were different types of land tenurial systems. While in Bengal Zamindari system was prevalent in Mahalwari system was seen in North West Provinces. In Mahalwari system, the settlement of land revenue was with zamindars which did not own their Mahal (estate) individually but held it in joint proprietorship and acted as intermediary. Third type of land ownership, which was prevalent in North India and the Deccan, is known as Ryotwari system. In this system there was no intermediary between the State and the ryots or peasants. The proprietary rights were vested in the State and the cultivator was responsible for the annual payment to the State.

As the bulk of the State's income came from land revenue its administration was crucial. In many parts of the country the State found it convenient to have some middleman or intermediaries to realize land revenue regularly. Therefore the land tenures were complex and varied from place to place. On the one hand, there was non-proprietary tenure under which the peasant cultivators worked as tenants and rent-payers. On the other hand, under superior proprietary tenures there were intermediaries known as assignees. Generally, they were descendants or representatives of ancient chiefs and nobles, hereditary officers or local

influential persons also played this role. They acted as temporary or permanent owners of the government share and paid a certain tribute or revenue to the State. This system was basically oppressive to the cultivators.

Significant systematic changes in land revenue system were introduced during the reign of Akbar. After a detail survey, the land was classified and the different rates of revenue for various kinds of land were fixed. To ensure proper realization of land revenue, the provinces or *Subas* were divided into 'Sarkars', which were subdivided into 'paraganas'. While Diwan of a *Suba* was accountable to Imperial Diwan, the chief revenue collector of the district was *amalguzar* who was assisted by a large subordinate staff like *qanungo*, who kept revenue records, *bitikchi* or the accountant and *potdar* or district treasurer.

ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE

During Moghul rule the judicial system was based on Quranic law. Though the judges followed the Quranic precepts, customary laws and the principles of equity were not disregarded by them. There were two types of tribunals. While Chief Qazi and subordinate Qazi followed the Islamic laws in both civil and criminal cases, 'Mir'adl' was a secular officer who took care of the cases not specifically provided for by the religious laws. The office of 'Mir'adl' was limited to big cities and he exercised a general controlling authority over the Qazi. The king was the supreme court of both original and appellate jurisdiction.

As the judicial system was based on Quranic law, the punishments were severe and barbarous. Whipping to death was common. The punishment of various crimes was based on the following principles:

1. 'Huda' or punishment specified by Quranic law;
2. 'Qisas' or retaliation due as a right of man; and
3. 'Tazir' or punishments inflicted at the discretion of the judge.

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q. 1. Explain the Manasbdari System.

Ans. During Moghul rule as land revenue was the main source of income for the State, its administration was crucial. To appoint a middleman or intermediary to realize land revenue regularly was convenient for the State. Hence, to streamline the land revenue system and realize it regularly a network based on officers of the State was established. Every officer held a Mansab

and his recruitment was based on caste, kin and personal loyalty.

The Mansabdars were expected to supply a certain number of troops according to their grade, ranging from Commander of 10 soldiers to those of 10,000 soldiers. Thus the bureaucracy had military character and officers were feared by the people. This system of revenue collection was basically oppressive to the cultivators. Many officers received their salaries through jagirs where they had the right to collect revenues. This led to severe exploitation of the masses and unchecked powers to the jagirdars.

Q. 2. Enumerate the special features of Moghul Administration.

Ans. The Moghul rulers were autocratic and their rule was centralized. The king was the source of authority and the rule and policies of the State depended on the character and person of the king. Strong kings had strong administration and if the king was weak or indifferent the administration would suffer. The bureaucracy had military character and officers were feared by the people. The army was largely based on Mansabdari system, though there was also special category of horse-riding soldiers owing exclusive allegiance to the king. The ordinary soldiers were generally attached to their immediate recruiters or bosses who were jealous of each other.

Moghul rule was essentially land-based, i.e. mainly concerned with realization of land revenue. Significant role in realization of land revenue was played by Mansabdars. Every officer held a Mansab and his recruitment was based on caste, kin and personal loyalty. Many Mansabdars had no ownership of the land in their *jagirs* but had the right to collect revenues. This made the jagirdars ruthless and exploitative. The responsibility of policing in rural areas was on the village headman while in the cities and towns this was shared by the Kotwals.

Q. 3. Make a list of important officials at the Central level.

Ans. The Moghul rule was highly centralized. The highest official at the Centre and overall in-charge of the State was the 'Vakil'. Second highest was the 'Wazir' or High Diwan (*diwan-e-ala*). The Chief Diwan, who was head of the administration and looked after the revenue department and expenditure, was accountable to the 'Wazir'. Hence, the 'Wazir' can be called Prime Minister of the Moghul Court.

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The king was the source of authority and efficiency of the administration depended on his control over the high officials. The signatures and seal of the Chief Diwan authenticated the government business. He supervised the work of Provincial Diwans and other high functionaries. Other important officials at the Central level included 'Mustafi' who audited income and expenditure; 'Waqia-navis' who used to keep records of all big farmers; 'Mir-e-Bakshi' who was the paymaster-general of the empire and 'Sadr-e-Sudur' who headed the ecclesiastical department.

Q. 4. Make a list of important officials at the provincial and district levels.

Ans. The Moghul administrative pattern was based on regulations, traditions and practices. As the king was the source of authority and the system was very much centralized, the authorities at the provinces and district level were mere agents of the Centre. The empire was divided in many provinces or 'Subas' and the 'Subas' were further sub-divided in many local areas or districts known as 'Sarkars'.

The 'Subedars' were appointed by imperial orders. They were the executive head of the province, controlled the zamindars and the jagirdars and realized the tributes from local chiefs. An interesting feature was that the provincial diwan was next in importance to the 'Subedars' but not accountable to him. He was accountable to the imperial diwan and functioned independently. The provincial diwan was in-charge of the finances and appointed '*kroris*' and '*tehsildars*'. In provinces the jurisdiction of Qazi included both the civil and criminal cases.

Local areas, or districts known as 'Sarkars', were ruled by the tributary rajas. Many local areas were directly controlled by the empire. They were ruled by *Fauzdars* who were appointed by the emperor. The responsibility to look after the revenues of district lied with '*amalguzars*'.

Q. 5. Distinguish between the Zamindari, Mahalwari and Ryotwari tenurial systems.

Ans. The land tenurial systems in India were complex and varied from place to place. The Zamindari system was prevalent in Bengal and the Mahalwari system was followed in North-West Provinces. In North India and the Deccan the Ryotwari system was widely practiced.

As land revenue used to be the main source of its income, the State found it convenient to have some

middleman or intermediaries to realize it regularly. Therefore, in many parts of the country intermediaries were either part of the administration or close to it. The Zamindars played a crucial role as intermediaries in realization of land revenue. This is why the British rulers found it very convenient and introduced it some parts of Madras.

In Mahalwari system, settlement of land revenue was with zamindars who acted as intermediaries. They did not own their Mahal (estate) individually but held it in joint proprietorship. There was no intermediary in the Ryotwari system. The peasants and cultivators were responsible for annual payment of the land revenue but they did not have any proprietary rights over the land. The land was owned by the State.

Q. 6. Who were the "assignees"? What were their functions in the society?

Ans. The persons having proprietary tenure over land so long as they paid a certain tribute or revenue to the State were known as 'assignees'. As land revenue used to be the main source of its income, the State found it convenient to have some middleman to realize it regularly. They were either descendants or representatives of ancient chiefs and nobles or local influential persons.

The 'assignees' generally took a part of the government share and acted as intermediaries. They were responsible for law and order in the area and even administration of justice. In fact, the feudal structure of the society rested on these various types of assignees.

Q. 7. Mention three important revenue officials.

Ans. (i) Amalguzar, (ii) Qanungo, (iii) Potdar.

Q. 8. Describe the type of tribunals for judicial administration.

Ans. The judicial system during Moghul period had two types of tribunals. The one who followed Quranic laws in both the civil and criminal cases and the other who took care of the cases not specifically provided for by the religious laws. For both the original and appellate cases, the Emperor was the Supreme authority.

While the former tribunal following Quranic laws was headed by Chief Qazi and subordinate Qazi, the latter tribunal of non-religious cases was headed by a secular officer known as 'Mir'adl'. But it was limited to big cities. 'Mir'adl' had a general controlling authority over the Qazi.