

BHSEC

BHUTAN CIVICS

Teachers' Guide for Classes XI & XII



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MINISTRY OF EDUCATION
THIMPHU :BHUTAN

Cultivating the Grace of Our Mind



October 30, 2008

FOREWORD

Plato believed that it was the duty of every citizen to participate in the political life of the state. Then, politics was still a highly respected and a much-desired field that brought out the best in the citizens. It was not for no reason that he contemplated the Ideal State to come. Over time, though, politics has acquired an image that is not particularly flattering or inspiring. However, in as much as all humans possess inherent political instincts of sorts, it becomes necessary to learn about the way human beings organize their life and build institutions to guide and govern themselves.

Civics is more than an academic discipline. It is in the nature and role of Civics to concern itself with an examination of the way governments are formed and the manner in which they relate to and influence the life of citizens, including their rights and responsibilities as members of the state. As the children of the new Constitution of the Kingdom of Bhutan, it is in the fitness of things that our school students develop a broad historical perspective and understand the basic principles of how governments are formed and how they operate.

As a powerful nation-building discipline, Civics should inspire an appreciation of the need to develop the necessary qualities of head and heart that help young men and women to live as good fellow-citizens in a democratic society that is based on the principle of mutual respect and trust. Civics, as indeed any discipline, should help develop insight, and not content itself with mere collection of information and facts.

I learn that this edition of *Bhutan Civics* has had the privilege of having been examined and approved by some of our finest minds in the country besides being the collective effort of some seventy of our educators in the country. The book incorporates some of current topics including an introduction to our Constitution and the advent of parliamentary democracy in the country.

I trust that the book will serve the purpose of informing as well as inspiring our scholars. I would like to express my deep appreciation to all our experts and educators for the hard work put in by all of them in the development of the *Bhutan Civics* titles.

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INTRODUCTION

This guidebook contains the standards which is the minimum broad goals to be attained at the end of class XII. The key stage outcome which details out the goals to be achieved at different stages is also given. For instance, in our case, class X is one key stage and class XII another. The key stage outcome explains the objectives to be accomplished at the end of each stage. Then, there is rationale of teaching each chapter. The rationale deliberates on the main purpose of teaching this chapter in the global as well as specific Bhutanese context. The specific objectives for different topics of each chapter are also detailed out to enable the teachers to help our students acquire the maximum from the course.

Based on the specific objectives a wide range of teaching learning procedure and activities has been designed. The activities are only suggestive and not prescriptive. Thus, the teachers are most welcome to design their own teaching learning procedures and activities. This guide book is hoped to stimulate ideas in our teachers.

Another feature of this guidebook is the supplementary information that is provided for each chapter. The supplementary information details out many points that are not there in the student textbook. However, only essential supplementary is given. Thus, it is vital that the teachers refer other sources to make teaching learning process stimulating.

It is also important to note that this guidebook is the minimum expected outcome. It need not be strictly followed. Instead, it is advisable to use it as a resource that will help in the generation of better ideas to make the teaching learning process diverse and appealing.

The activities designed here are not exhaustive and does not necessarily project the best ones. Moreover, there definitely would be activities that are not applicable in certain situations. Thus, it is important to design activities in line with the class size, location of schools as well as the available resources.

This guidebook will be useful in helping better student centred teaching learning activities than the ones in this guidebook for the benefit of our students.

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Standards

The School graduates will:

- Understand the significance of the Constitution of the Kingdom of Bhutan for the wellbeing of the citizens and the sovereignty of the country.
- Understand the duties and rights of the citizens in a Democratic society and live by these values in their daily life.
- Understand the significance of State Policy.
- Understand the importance of voting and participation in the election as voters at all levels of election.
- Understand the roles and significance of the institution of Monarchy in our Parliamentary Democracy.
- Understand the significance of the Bhutan's unique national identity and uphold them.
- Understand the concept and significance of Gross National Happiness and Good Governance.
- Understand the organization and functions of the Legislature, Executive, Judiciary, the Constitutional Bodies and the Civil Service within the political system.
- Understand the formation and roles of political parties.
- Understand the formation and dissolution of the Government.
- Understand the forms of Government.
- Understand the mechanism of checks and balances for good governance.

Keystage outcome for class XII

On completion of class XII students will be able to:

- Understand the concept of Society, State and Nation.
- Understand the form of Bhutanese Government in relation to other forms of Government.
- Understand the characteristics and classification of constitution in relation to the Constitution of Bhutan.
- Understand the powers of the Monarch and Prime Minister in relation to Parliamentary Democracy.
- Understand the composition and powers of the Council of Ministers.
- Understand the role and significance of the Civil Service in a Parliamentary Democracy.

Learning Outcome for Class XI

At the end of class XI students will be able to:

- Understand the definition and attributes of Society, State and Nation and their relationship.
- Understand the forms of Government and their merits and demerits in relation to the Bhutanese Government.
- Understand the types and characteristics of Constitution.
- Understand the merits and demerits of different types of Constitution in relation to the Bhutanese Constitution.

Learning outcome for class XII

At the end of the year class XII students will be able to:

- Understand the powers and roles of the Monarch in Parliamentary Democracy and his relationship with the Council of Ministers.
- Understand the position and powers of the Prime Minister.
- Understand the composition, appointment, powers and functions of the Council of Ministers.
- Understand the meaning, importance and categories of Directive Principles of State Policy.
- Understand the meaning, characteristics, roles and significance of Civil service in a democratic nation.
- Understand the recruitment, classification and promotion procedures of Civil Servants and the role of Royal Civil Service Commission.

Chapter One

Society, State and Nation

Rationale

This chapter was chosen for the following reasons:

First, the chapter introduces us to the three different aspects of Society, State and Nation under which a Government functions. No Government of any kind would be able to function in the absence of these three elements. These are the basic aspects that a country is made up of. Bhutan as a Kingdom has always been functioning smoothly considering all these aspects. These aspects in fact will have to be considered by any country to function smoothly and carry out all developmental activities. More importantly, a country has to project herself as an independent and sovereign nation, and overlooking any one of these important aspects would be detrimental to her progress and independence.

Second, to understand the three aspects is to try and define them. Thus through this chapter we are able to form a definite idea in our mind of what a Society, a State or a Nation is. To describe them as different entities is not only to define them but to identify them based on their attributes or the elements that they are each made up of. Thus we are also exposed to the different characteristics of a Society, State and a Nation.

Third, in the pursuit of economic, cultural and spiritual development a harmonious blend should be aimed at and no nation can overlook the importance of these three aspects. Thus it is with this rationale in mind that the chapter on Society, State and Nation is included as a chapter.

Fourth, the need to coexist as a single entity will be further developed in the minds of the students having understood these aspects.

The chapter will be covered in two lessons.

- Lesson one will cover the definition and elements of Society and State.
- Lesson two will cover the definition of Nation and identify the differences between State and the Nation.

Society and State

Learning objectives

By the end of the lesson students will be able to:

- Define the term Society and State.
- Tell and explain the essential elements of society and State.

Teaching Learning Method

Reflecting and adding.

Activity 1 (Knowledge and Comprehension)

Teacher will introduce the lesson and then ask the students to read the topics that range from the definition of Society to the last attribute of a State that is External Sovereignty. The teacher will monitor and guide the students in the activity.

Activity 2 (Analysis, Evaluation and Application)

Once the students have finished reading, the teacher can then divide the class into five groups and name them such as group A, B, C, D and E. Assign each group with the following questions:

Group A: Comment on the definition of a society and on the first two characteristics of a society.

Group B: Comment on the second two characteristics of a society.

Group C: Comment on the last three characteristics of a society.

Group D: Comment on the definition of a state and on the first two characteristics of a state.

Group E: Comment on the last two characteristics of a society.

Tell each group to discuss and respond to their question in writing on a sheet of paper within the allotted time.

After the completion of the allotted time, ask group A to pass their findings to group B, group B will pass on to group C and C to D and D to E and E to A.

The groups will then read the findings that they received from the other groups. While going through the readings they will be told to add or delete from the list any response as they wish within the allotted time.

Ask each group to present the response to the questions to the whole class. At the end of each presentation the students from other groups can comment and the teacher can supplement.

OR

The teacher can try out this alternative learning procedure. However this method will add one more lesson to the class.

Teaching Learning Method

Research.

Activity 1 (Knowledge, Synthesis and Analysis)

The teacher can divide the class into five groups and name them as Group A, B, C, D and E. Each group will choose a group leader to not only ensure that all students in the group do their work well but to ensure that the discussions are healthy and relevant. The group leader will also be responsible for making the presentation in the class. The teacher will also inform the students that they will be making use of the school library for this lesson. They will be made to research on the topics allotted to each group.

Group A: Comment on the definition of a Society and on the first two characteristics of a Society.

Group B: Comment on the second two characteristics of a Society.

Group C: Comment on the last three characteristics of a Society.

Group D: Comment on the definition of a state and on the first two characteristics of a State.

Group E: Comment on the last two characteristics of a Society.

While students browse through the references in the library, the teacher will ensure that every student contributes to the research work.

Activity 2 (Recall, Application and Synthesis)

In the next class the group leaders will present their findings on their given topic to the class. At the end of the whole presentation the teacher should invite discussion from the whole class. The teacher will then summarize the lesson.

Nation

Learning objectives

By the end of the lesson students will be able to:

- Define the term Nation looking at it from two different angles.
- Differentiate between Nation and State.

Teaching Learning Method

Lecture and questioning.

Activity 1 (Knowledge and Comprehension)

Since this lesson will be dealt purely through a lecture method, the teacher is warned to be fully prepared to ensure that the lesson is delivered effectively. Before coming to the actual lesson the teacher will try and recall the previous lesson on Society and State. From there the teacher will move on to the lesson on “Nation” by informing the students that the lesson will be based on a lecture method.

Activity 2 (Knowledge and Comprehension)

The teacher will introduce the lesson and start by giving them the various definitions of the term “Nation.” He or she will then explain the differences between State and Nation. He or she will then summarize the lesson.

Activity 3 (Analysis, Evaluation and Application)

Once the teacher gives the students a clear definition and an explanation of the term Nation and the differences between Nation and a State, he or she will then try and test out the students understanding of the lesson. To find out whether the students have understood the lesson he or she can throw questions to individual students. At the end of the questions the teacher will tell them to write down the following in their note books:

1. The definition of a Nation.
2. The differences between State and Nation.

OR

The alternative learning procedure that a teacher can use is the independent learning method.

Teaching Learning Method

Independent reading.

Activity 1 (Knowledge)

Teacher can inform the students that the lesson on Nation will be covered through individual reading. As the students read the assigned lesson the teacher will also instruct them to write down important points as they read. The reading session will be followed by a question answer session.

Activity 2 (Knowledge and Comprehension)

The students will read the lesson individually and as they read also take notes of the important points. The teacher will guide them in their reading.

Activity 3 (Recall, Analysis and Evaluation)

At the end of the student's individual reading, the teacher will test the students' understanding of the lesson through questions. The question will be directed to individual student in the class. After the question answer session the teacher will sum up the lesson as well as the chapter on Society, State and Nation.

Supplementary Information for Teachers

Society, State and Nation

Origin and usage: The English word society emerged in the 15th century and is derived from the French *société*. The French word, in turn, had its origin in the Latin *societas*, a “friendly association with others,” from *socius* meaning “companion, associate, comrade or a business partner.” Implicit in the meaning of society is that its members share some mutual concern or interest, a common objective or common characteristics.

In political science, the term is often used to mean the totality of human relationships, generally in contrast to the State, i.e., the apparatus of rule or Government within a territory. In the social sciences Society has been used to mean a group of people that form a semi-closed social system, in which most interactions are with other individuals belonging to the group.

Evolution of societies: Gerhard Lenski, a Sociologist, differentiates Societies based on their level of technology, communication and economy: (1) hunters and gatherers, (2) simple agricultural, (3) advanced agricultural, (4) industrial. This system of classification contains four categories:

- Hunter-gatherer bands, which are generally egalitarian.
- Tribal societies in which there are some limited instances of social rank and prestige.
- Stratified structures led by chieftains.
- Civilisations, with complex social hierarchies and organized, institutional governments.

Over time, some cultures have progressed toward more-complex forms of organization and control. This cultural evolution has a profound effect on patterns of community. Hunter-gatherer tribes settled around seasonal food stocks to become agrarian villages. Villages grew to become towns and cities. Cities turned into city-states and nation-states.

Characteristics of society: The following three components are common to all definitions of Society:

- Social networks
- Criteria for membership, and
- Characteristic patterns of organisation

Each of these will be explored further in the following sections.

Social networks: Social networks are maps of the relationships between people. Structural features such as proximity, frequency of contact and type of relationship (e.g, relative, friend, colleague) define various social networks.

Organisation of society: Human societies are often organized according to their primary means of subsistence. As noted in the section on “Evolution of societies”, above, social scientists identify hunter-gatherer societies, nomadic pastoral societies, horticulturalist or simple farming societies, and intensive agricultural societies, also called civilizations. Some consider industrial and post-industrial societies to be qualitatively different from traditional agricultural societies.

One common theme for societies in general is that they serve to aid individuals in a time of crisis. Traditionally, when an individual requires aid, for example at birth, death, sickness, or disaster, members of that society will rally others to render aid, in some form—symbolic, linguistic, physical, mental, emotional, financial, medical, or religious. Many societies will distribute largess, at the behest of some individual or some larger group of people. This type of generosity can be seen in all known cultures; typically, prestige accrues to the generous individual or group. Conversely, members of a society may also shun or scapegoat members of the society who violate its norms. Mechanisms such as gift-giving and scape goating, which may be seen in various types of human groupings, tend to be institutionalized within a society.

Some societies will bestow status on an individual or group of people, when that individual or group performs an admired or desired action. This type of recognition is bestowed by members of that society on the individual or group in the form of a name, title, manner of dress, or monetary reward. Males, in many societies, are particularly susceptible to this type of action and subsequent reward, even at the risk of their lives. Action by an individual or larger group in behalf of some cultural ideal is seen in all societies. The phenomena of community action, shunning, scape goating, generosity, and shared risk and reward occur in subsistence-based societies and in more technology-based civilizations.

Societies may also be organized according to their political structure. In order of increasing size and complexity, there are bands, tribes, chiefdoms, and state societies. These structures may have varying degrees of political power, depending on the cultural, geographical, and historical environments that these societies must contend with. Thus, a more isolated society with the same level of technology and culture as other societies is more likely to survive than one in closer proximity to others that may encroach on their resources. A society that is unable to offer an effective response to other societies it competes with will usually be subsumed into the culture of the competing society.

Shared belief or common goal: Peoples of many nations united by common political and cultural traditions, beliefs, or values are sometimes also said to be a society (such as Judeo-Christian, Eastern, and Western). When used in this context, the term is employed as a means of contrasting two or more “societies” whose members represent alternative conflicting and competing worldviews.

Some academic, learned and scholarly associations describe themselves as societies (for example, the American Society of Mathematics. More commonly, professional organizations often refer to themselves as societies (e.g., the American Society of Civil Engineers, American Chemical Society). In the United Kingdom and the United States, learned societies are normally nonprofit and have charitable status. In science, they range in size to include national scientific societies (i.e., the Royal Society) to regional natural history societies. Academic societies may have interest in a wide range of subjects, including the arts, humanities and science.

In some countries (for example the United States and France), the term “Society” is used in commerce to denote a partnership between investors or to start a business. In the United Kingdom, partnerships are not called societies, but cooperatives or mutual are often known as societies (such as friendly societies and building societies).

Nations

One of the most influential doctrines in history is that all humans are divided into groups called nations. This doctrine is in itself the starting point for the ideology of nationalism.

A Nation is a group of humans who are assumed to share a common identity, and to share a common language, religion, ideology, culture, and history. They are usually assumed to have a common origin, in the sense of ancestry, parentage or descent.

The national identity refers both to the distinguishing features of the group, and to the individual's sense of belonging to it. A very wide range of criteria is used, with very different applications. Small differences in pronunciation may be enough to categorize someone as a member of another nation. On the other hand, two people may be separated by difference in personalities, belief systems, geographical locations, time and even spoken language, yet regard themselves and be seen by others, as members of the same nation. Members of a nation are considered to share certain traits, values and norms of behavior, certain duties toward other members, and certain responsibilities for the actions of the members of the same nation.

Nations extend across generations, and include the dead as full members. More vaguely, they are assumed to include future generations. Past events are framed in this context; for example; by referring to "our soldiers" in conflicts which took place hundreds of years ago. The term Nation is often used as a synonym for ethnic group (sometimes "ethnos"), but although ethnicity is now one of the most important aspects of cultural or social identity for the members of most nations, people with the same ethnic origin may live in different nation-states and be treated as members of separate nations for that reason. National identity is often disputed, down to the level of the individual.

Almost all nations are associated with a specific territory, the national homeland. Some live in a historical diaspora, that is, mainly outside the national homeland. A State which explicitly identifies as the homeland of a particular nation is a nation-state, and most modern states fall into this category, although there may be violent disputes about their legitimacy. Where territory is disputed between nations, the claims may be based on which nation lived there first. Especially in areas of historical European settlement (1500-1950), the term "First Nations" is used by groups which share an aboriginal culture, and seek official recognition or autonomy.

Defining a nation

Nations are defined by a limited number of characteristics, which apply to both the individual members, and the nation. The first requirement for the definition is that the characteristics should be shared - a group of people with nothing in common, can not be a Nation. Because they are shared, the national population also has a degree of uniformity and homogeneity. And finally, at least some of the characteristics must be exclusive - to distinguish the nation from neighbouring nations. All of the characteristics can be disputed, and opposition to secessionist nationalism often includes the denial that a separate nation exists.

Common descent: The etymology of the word nation implies ancestry and descent. Almost all nationalist movements make some claim to shared origins and descent, and it is a component of the national identity in most nations. The fact that the ancestry is shared among the members of the nation unites them, and sets them apart from other nations, which do not share that ancestry.

The question is: descent from whom? Often, the answer is simply: from previous generations of the same Nation. More specifically:

- the nation may be defined as the descendants of the past inhabitants of the national homeland.
- the nation may be defined as the descendants of past speakers of the national language, or past groups which shared the national culture.

Usually, these factors are assumed to coincide. The well-defined Icelandic nation is assumed to consist of the descendants of the island of Iceland in, say, 1850. Those people also spoke the Icelandic language, were known as Icelanders at that time, and had a recognized culture of their own. However, the present population of Iceland cannot coincide exactly with their descendants: that would imply complete endogamy, meaning that no Icelander since 1850 ever had children by a non-Icelander. Most European nations experienced border changes and, migration over the last few centuries, and intermarried with other national groups. Statistically, their current national population can not coincide exactly with the descendants of the nation in 1700 or 1500, even if was then known by the same name. The shared ancestry is more of a national myth than a genetic reality - but still sufficient for a national identity.

Common language: A shared language is often used as a defining feature of a nation (that is, apart from its value in facilitating communication among the members). In some cases the language is exclusive to the nation, and may be central to the national identity. The Basque language is a unique language isolate, and prominent in the self-definition of the Basque people, and in Basque nationalism, although not all Basques speak it. In other cases, the national language is also spoken by other nations (shared among the nation, but not exclusive to the nation). Some nations, such as the Swiss nation, self-identity as multilingual. Papua New Guinea promotes a 'Papuan' national identity, despite having around 800 distinct languages. No nation is defined solely by language: that would effectively create an open membership (for anyone who learnt the language).

Common culture: Most nations are partly defined by a shared culture. Unlike a language, a national culture is usually unique to the nation, although it may include many elements shared with other nations. Additionally, the national culture is assumed to be shared with previous generations, and includes a cultural heritage from these generations, as if it were an inheritance. As with the common ancestry, this identification of past culture with present culture may be largely symbolic. The archaeological site of Stonehenge is owned and managed by English Heritage, although no 'English' people or state existed when it was constructed, 4 000 to 5 000 years ago. Other nations have similarly appropriated ancient archaeological sites, literature, art, and even entire civilisations as 'national heritage'.

Common religion: Religion is sometimes used as a defining factor for a nation, although some nationalist movements de-emphasize it as a divisive factor. Again it is the fact that the religion is shared, that makes it national. It may not be exclusive: several nations define themselves partly as Catholic although the religion itself is Universalist. Irish nationalism traditionally sees Catholicism as an Irish national characteristic, in opposition to the largely Protestant British colonial power. (It usually recognized the Protestant minority in Ireland as Irish). Some religions are specific to one ethnic group, notably Judaism. Nevertheless, the Zionist movement generally avoided a religious definition of the Jewish people, preferring an ethnic and cultural definition. Since Judaism is a religion, people can become a Jew by religious conversion, which in turn can facilitate their obtaining Israeli citizenship. Jews in Israel who convert to other religions do not thereby lose Israeli citizenship, although their national identity might then be questioned.

Chapter Two

Forms of Government

Rationale

This chapter was chosen for the following reasons:

First, this chapter has a universal theme. It deals with the different forms of Government both democratic as well as non-democratic. Every country is governed by a system of rule that best suit their needs. While no one system can be considered as the most perfect and appropriate form of Government yet some forms of Government are more popular than others. Thus, by introducing the students to the various forms of Government and giving them their definitions, it will broaden their outlook and help them to understand why Bhutan is embarking on a system of Government different from the current system.

Second, the ancient Greek philosopher Aristotle had not only classified the Government into various categories but had also tried to reason out why some forms are better than the others. Aristotle feels that democracy is the worst form of Government among the many that he has mentioned. But in the present world it is just the opposite. Democracy is considered the best form of Government and it is the dream of the people to live under a democratic Government.

Third, as we also move from a monarchy to a democratic Government that is not welcomed by a large section of our people, it would be interesting to gauge the reaction of our students. Using their analytical mind they should be able to give a reasoned judgment for any Government that they wish would best function for Bhutan.

Fourth, the students should be able to appreciate that our approach to democracy has been formulated and handed down by the Fourth King Jigme Singye Wangchuck while in most of the democratic nations today in the world they have had to resort to wars, revolutions and internal strife as the Kings had the desire to cling onto their powers and not part with them.

Fifth, this chapter not only deals with the different forms of Government but also tries to further classify them. Democracy that is described as the best form of Government is further classified into Liberal Democracy, Direct Democracy and Representative Democracy. It is through the process of understanding these features of democracy that the teacher and student can engage in detailed discussions about the best choice of Government for the Bhutanese.

Forms of Government

The chapter will be covered in four lessons:

- Lesson one will cover Aristotle's classification of Government.
- Lesson two will cover forms of Democratic Government.
- Lesson three will cover forms of non-Democratic Government.
- Lesson four will cover types of Monarchy as well as the Bhutanese form of Government.

Learning objectives

By the end of the lesson students will be able to:

- Define and classify Government according to Aristotle.

Aristotle's classification

Teaching Learning Method

Personification or role - play method.

Activity 1 (Knowledge and Comprehension)

Treat each type of Government as a person. Do a web diagram on each to draw out the personality traits of the following.

- (i) Monarchy
- (ii) Tyranny
- (iii) Aristocracy
- (iv) Oligarchy
- (v) Polity
- (vi) Democracy

Activity 2 (Knowledge, Comprehension and Analysis)

Write a letter to the editor of their school news letter expressing the conditions of the citizens under that type of Government. Example the student pair working on Oligarchy should write about their life under oligarchy. Students should present their letter to the class.

OR

The alternative method that can teacher can use is

Teaching Learning Method

Cooperative Learning.

Activity one

1. Divide the class into four groups (A, B, C & D). This group will form the home group.
2. Number the members of the home group as 1, 2, 3 & 4.
3. Reshuffle the home group by grouping all the members having the same number.
4. Assign each topic to the groups.
 - Group one: Aristotle's classification
 - Group two: Tyranny and Aristocracy
 - Group three: Oligarchy and Polity
 - Group Four: Democracy

Activity Two (Knowledge, Comprehension and Analysis)

Make the students to discuss and teacher monitors and guides the groups

Activity three (Knowledge, Synthesis and Application)

Once the discussion in groups is over, instruct the members to go back to their respective home group and present their findings to the group members within an allotted time.

Activity Four (Recall and Evaluation)

After the discussion is over by the groups, in order to check the understanding of the student the teacher can ask a few questions randomly.

Democratic Government

Learning objectives

- Define Democratic Government
- Explain the forms of Democratic Government
- Explain the merits and demerits of Democracy.

Teaching Learning Method

Debate.

Activity 1 (Knowledge and Comprehension)

Ask students to define Democracy in their own words. Teacher explains the derivation of democracy from the Greek words and gives the definition as given by different historians. Ask students to once again define the term democracy in their own words.

Activity 2 (Comprehension and Analysis)

Teacher explains the forms of Democratic Government with the help of a diagram and examples.

Activity 3 (Comprehension, Analysis and Evaluation)

Students will be asked to read the merits and demerits of Democracy from the text. Ask them whether democracy is the best form of Government.

Divide the students into two groups and let them debate on the topic “Democracy is the best form of Government”. Let the group decide on three students to represent their group for the debate. Teacher also selects three students to be the judges, one time keeper and one chairperson. The rest will be the observers. Teacher gives the criteria to be judged and declares the results. He will finally supplement on the points debated by the students.

OR

Teacher Learning Method

Brain Storming.

Activity 1

1. Divide the class into groups consisting of three members each.
2. Let them to discuss and debate on their own topics within the given time.
3. Reduce the number of groups by dividing the two groups into one.
4. Again let the newly formed groups to discuss and debate about their findings.
5. Let the groups to present their findings to the class.
6. The teacher can note their points on the board and elaborate on the points written on the board.

Activity 2

1. Teacher can ask them questions to check their level of understanding.
2. Teacher sums up the lesson once again and gives home work.

Forms of non-Democratic Government

Learning objectives

- Explain the types of Monarchy.
- Explain forms of dictatorial Government.

Teaching Learning Method

Co-operative learning.

Activity 1 (Comprehension)

Divide the class into seven groups. These groups will be named as ABCDEFG and referred to as the Home group. Again each member of the home group will be allotted a number 1 to 7. Teacher will instruct to form a new group of same number. This new group will be named as the Expert group. The expert group will be assigned with a sub topic each from the lesson to discuss through lots.

Expert group 1 will discuss on Monarchy

Expert group 2 will discuss on absolute Monarchy.

Expert group 3 will discuss on constitutional Monarchy.

Expert group 4 will discuss on Dictatorship.

Expert group 5 will discuss on authoritarian Government.

Expert group 6 will discuss on totalitarian.

Expert group 7 will discuss on Military Dictatorship.

Activity 2 (Knowledge, Comprehension and Analysis)

Ask the students to discuss the given topics in their respective group within the given time. Teacher monitors and guides the students.

Activity 3 (Knowledge, Application, Synthesis)

When the discussion is over, ask the expert groups to go back to their home group. The expert members will then facilitate discussion in their home group. This discussion will take place till every member gets chance to share what he or she has learnt from the expert group.

Activity 4 (Recall and Evaluation)

After the discussion is over, the teacher will check the understanding of the lesson learnt by asking questions based on the lesson. The teacher will then summarize the whole lesson

OR

Teaching Learning Method

Inquiry.

Activity 1 (Recall and Knowledge)

Ask students to close their books and inquire about the last lesson randomly. Summarize the lesson of the previous class by few students.

Activity 2 (Comprehension and Analysis)

Teacher will explain the origin of the word monarchy and inquire the class on the history of our Kings such as who was the first King and what were his authority and the system of Government that existed under his rule. Did the people have a say in the decision making processes and what differences do they see during the tenure of the Kings. Do you know anything about other monarchical governments?

Activity 3 (Analysis)

Instruct the class to go through the text under types of monarchy individually. They will be given time to discuss or inquire among themselves. The teacher will help with the difficulties they encounter in their reading.

Activity 4 (Comprehension and Analysis)

Here the teacher will ask the students different levels of questions on types of monarchy, their differences and similarities, and ask them to define dictatorship and to give some examples of it.

Activity 5 (Synthesis, Evaluation and Recall)

Through this inquiry, the teacher lists down all the key points on the board and provides opportunities to those students who did not participate in the lesson to summarise on what was discussed in the class. At the end, the teacher asks some more questions to the class randomly to check the understanding of the lesson discussed.

Bhutanese form of Government

Learning objectives

Students should be able to:

1. Explain the form of Government in Bhutan.
2. Compare our Government with other forms of Government.

Teaching Learning Method

Individual reading.

Activity 1 (Comprehension)

Teacher instructs the class to do individual reading on the Bhutanese form of Government and note down the features of our Government which can be later compared with other forms of governments that they discussed earlier.

Activity 2 (Recall and Comprehension)

Once the students have read the text on the Bhutanese form of Government, he or she ask questions to individual students to check their understanding. Teacher will supplement the lesson as part of conclusion.

OR

Teaching Learning Method

Explanation and discussion.

Activity 1 (Comprehension and Analysis)

Teacher will explain in detail the Bhutanese form of Government to the class and discuss with the class the differences between our form of Government with other forms of Government that the students have learnt in previous lessons.

Activity 2 (Knowledge and Understanding)

Students will discuss in pairs and write down the important features of our government. At the end the teacher will ask questions to check their understanding. As a follow up the teacher summarises the lesson.

Supplementary information for teachers

Government

In its broadest sense, “to govern” means to administer or supervise, whether over a state, a set group of people, or a collection of assets.

The word Government is ultimately derived from the Greek (kybernan), which means “to steer” or “to control” and the latin mente which means “mind”.

Typically, “the Government” refers to the executive function of the state. In many countries (particularly those having parliamentary systems), the Government refers to the executive branch of Government.

Forms of government

There are many different forms of Government. They are traditionally classified according to the number of people who hold political power.

- Autocracies are governments where one individual ultimately holds all power. This category includes absolute monarchies as well as dictatorships with an all-powerful president or other central figure.
- Oligarchies are governments where political power is held by a small group of individuals who share similar interests with each other. A common type of oligarchy is plutocracy, where the small group of powerful individuals is composed of the wealthiest members of society.
- Democracies are governments where the people as a whole hold political power. It may be exercised by them (direct democracy), or through representatives chosen by them (representative democracy).

The lines between some of the above forms of Government can sometimes be ambiguous. For example, during the 19th century, most self-proclaimed “democracies” restricted voting rights to a minority of the population (e.g. property-owning males). This could qualify them as oligarchies rather than democracies. On the other hand, the voting minority was often quite large (20-30% of the population) and its members did not form the compact group with common interests that are the hallmark of most oligarchies. Thus, this form of Government occupied a space between democracy and oligarchy as they are understood today.

Ideas about the origin of Government

There are a wide range of theories about the reasons for establishing governments. The four major ones are briefly described below. Note that they do not always fully oppose each other - it is possible for a person to subscribe to a combination of ideas from two or more of these theories.

Force Theory: Many political philosophies that are opposed to the existence of a Government (such as Anarchism, Nihilism, and to a lesser extent Marxism), as well as others, emphasise the historical roots of governments - the fact that governments, along with private property, originated from the authority of warlords and petty despots who took, by force, certain patches of land as their own (and began exercising authority over the people living on that land). Thus, it is argued that governments exist to enforce the will of the strong and oppress the weak, maintaining and protecting the privilege of a ruling class.

Order and tradition: The various forms of conservatism, by contrast, generally see the Government as a positive force that brings order out of chaos, establishes laws to end the “war of all against all”, encourages moral virtue while punishing vice, and respects tradition. Sometimes, in this view, the Government is seen as something ordained by a higher power, as in the divine right of kings, which human beings have a duty to obey.

Natural rights: Natural rights are the basis for the theory of Government shared by most branches of liberalism. In this view, human beings are born with certain natural rights, and governments are established strictly for the purpose of protecting those rights. What the natural rights actually are is a matter of dispute among liberals; indeed, each branch of liberalism has its own set of rights that it considers to be natural, and these rights are sometimes mutually exclusive with the rights supported by other liberals.

Social contract: One of the most influential theories of Government in the past two hundred years has been the social contract, on which modern democracy and most forms of socialism are founded. The social contract theory holds that governments are created by the people in order to provide for collective needs (such as safety from crime, poverty, illiteracy) that cannot be properly satisfied using purely individual means. Governments thus exist for the purpose of serving the needs and wishes of the people, and their relationship with the people is clearly stipulated in a “social contract” which both the Government and the people must abide by. If a majority is unhappy, it may change the social contract. If a minority is unhappy, it may persuade the majority to change the contract, or it may opt out of it by emigration or secession.

Governmental operations

Governments concern themselves with regulating and administering many areas of human activity, such as trade, education, or medicine. Governments also employ different methods to maintain the established order, such as secrecy, police and military forces, making agreements with other states, and maintaining support within the state. Typical methods of maintaining support and legitimacy include providing the infrastructure for administration, justice, transport, communication, social welfare, etc. Different political ideologies hold different ideas on what the Government should or should not do.

Democracy

Direct democracy

Direct democracy, classically termed pure democracy, is any form of Government in which all citizens can directly participate in the decision-making process. Some adherents want legislative, judicial, and executive powers to be handled by the people, but most extant systems only allow legislative decisions.

Scaling to global democracy

Increasingly larger numbers of citizens places greater difficulties on the implementation of a direct democracy, where representation is not practiced and thus all citizens must be actively involved on all issues all of the time. This increases the need for representative democracy, as the number of citizens grows.

There are concerns about how such systems would scale to larger populations; in this regard there are a number of experiments being conducted all over the world to increase the direct participation of citizens in what is now a representative system.

Indirect democracy

Indirect democracy is a broad term describing a means of governance by the people through elected representatives.

The most common system found in today's democratic states is the representative democracy. The people elect Government officials who then make decisions on their behalf. Essentially, a representative democracy is a form of indirect democracy in which representatives are democratically selected, and usually difficult to recall.

World democracy

World democracy simultaneously comprises two approaches, both mutually reinforcing:

- Extending democracy to all countries.
- Introducing democracy in international organizations, via bypassing the screen of nation-states, particularly attempting reforms in the United Nations.

There has been a great deal of research about global trends of democracy. For example, over the last century, the percent of world population living in democracy has increased from 12% in 1900 to 63% in 2000. The majority of increase in democracy has been in developed countries, but about half of less developed countries are now democracies as well. Skeptics question these statistics (as well as the validity of democracy in various countries; democracy may be regarded as window-dressing over plutocracy, oligarchy, dictatorship or other forms of rule by the few).

References

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Parliamentary system

A parliamentary system, also known as parliamentarianism (and parliamentary in U.S. English), is distinguished by the executive branch of the Government being dependent on the direct or indirect support of the parliament, often expressed through a vote of confidence. Hence, there is no clear-cut separation of powers between the executive and legislative branches, leading to a lack of the checks and balances found in a presidential republic. Parliamentarianism is praised, relative to presidential, for its flexibility and responsiveness to the public. It is faulted for its tendency to sometimes lead to unstable governments. Parliamentary systems usually have a clear differentiation between the head of Government and the head of state, with the head of Government being the prime minister or premier, and the head of state often being an appointed figurehead or hereditary monarch with only minor or ceremonial powers. However, some parliamentary systems also have an elected president with many reserve powers as the head of state, providing some balance to these systems (called a parliamentary republic). As a general rule, constitutional monarchies have parliamentary systems.

The term parliamentary system does not mean that a country is ruled by different parties in coalition with each other. Such multi-party arrangements are usually the product of an electoral system known as proportional representation. Parliamentary countries that use first past the post voting usually have governments composed of one party. The United Kingdom, for instance, had a coalition government during the Second World War. However, parliamentary systems in continental Europe do use proportional representation, and tend to produce election results in which no single party has a majority of seats.

Advantages of a parliamentary system

Some believe that it's easier to pass legislation within a parliamentary system. This is because the executive branch is dependent upon the direct or indirect support of the legislative branch and often includes members of the legislature. It can also be argued that power is more evenly spread out in the power structure of parliamentarianism. The premier seldom tends to have as high importance as a ruling president, and there tends to be a higher focus on voting for a party and its political ideas than voting for an actual person, based on their traits.

There is also a body of scholarship that claims that parliamentarianism is less prone to authoritarian collapse. These scholars point out that since World War II, two-thirds of Third World countries establishing parliamentary governments successfully transitioned to democracy. By contrast, no Third World presidential system successfully transitioned to democracy without experiencing coups and other constitutional breakdowns. A recent World Bank study found that parliamentary systems are associated with lower corruption.

Criticisms of parliamentarianism

A main criticism of many parliamentary systems is that the head of Government cannot be directly voted on. Occasionally, an electorate will be surprised just by who is elevated to the premiership. In a presidential system, the president is directly chosen by the people, or by a set of electors directly chosen by the people, but in a parliamentary system the prime minister is elected by the party leadership.

Another major criticism comes from the relationship between the executive and legislative branches. Because there is a lack of obvious separation of power, some believe that a parliamentary system can place too much power in the executive entity, leading to the feeling that the legislature or judiciary has little scope to administer checks or balances on the executive.

Although Walter Bagehot praised parliamentarianism for allowing an election to take place at any time, the lack of a definite election calendar can be abused. In some systems, such as the British, a ruling party can schedule elections when it feels that it is likely to do well, and so avoid elections at times of unpopularity. Thus, by wise timing of elections, in a parliamentary system a party can extend its rule for longer than is feasible in a functioning presidential system. In other systems, such as the Dutch, the ruling party or coalition has some flexibility in determining the election date.

Chapter Three

Constitution

Rationale

This chapter was chosen for the following reasons:

First, students will be able to understand the term constitution and define it and value it as a people's mandate for the smooth functioning of a parliamentary Government. They will also be able to argue why even Bhutan went for a constitution that was unheard of during the time of our forefathers. We did not have a constitution during the time of Zhabdrung Nawang Namgyal and the Choesid system. Nor did we have a constitution during the rule of the earlier Kings. Neither did our earlier Kings advocate for a constitution nor did we as people ask for a constitution. But today we have a constitution and therefore through this chapter the students can formulate in their minds what a constitution means altogether.

Second, moving from a Monarchy to a parliamentary democracy, our roles and responsibilities under a democratic government are now spelt out more clearly. Not only are our responsibilities and duties more clearly defined but even our rights are made clear. Thus the chapter on constitution will create a fuller and better understanding amongst our students of why we drafted the constitution, why it was taken to the twenty Dzongkhags, why the Kings sought the people's views before finally being ratified and approved by the National Assembly and lastly what our constitution has and upholds for all of us to do and act in a democratic country.

Third, constitutions are of various types and they all have certain features. They are either written or unwritten and good or bad. Ours is a written constitution while the people in countries like Britain do not have a written constitution though functioning in an almost similar form of government. They will be able to explore the advantages and disadvantages of written and unwritten constitutions; compare the constitution of other countries with our constitution and see if our constitution protects our rights and privileges or whether certain things need to be incorporated in our constitution. All these issues that surround the constitution will surely enable the teacher and the students to engage in serious intellectual debates, the outcome of which should be more meaningful for the students and the teachers.

Constitution

The chapter will be covered in two lessons:

- Lesson one will cover the definition, general characteristics, classification and merits and demerits of the constitution.
- Lesson two will cover the characteristics of a good constitution and the salient features of the Bhutanese constitution.

Learning objectives

By the end of the lesson students will be able to:

- Define constitution.
- Explain the general characteristics of a constitution.
- Explain the classification of constitution.
- Explain the merits and demerits of constitution.

Teaching Learning Method

Group discussion.

Activity 1 (Knowledge)

Teacher will present a background on the constitution.

Activity 2 (Knowledge and Comprehension)

Teacher will divide the students into six groups. Each group will comprise of both male and female members. Every group will be given a topic to be read individually in the beginning, followed by group discussion. In the process they will also prepare for class presentation. The title for reading and presentation by every group is as follows:

- Group 1 - Definition and general characteristics of Constitution.
- Group 2 - Classification of Constitution.
- Group 3 - Merits and demerits of a Written Constitution.
- Group 4 - Merits and demerits of Unwritten Constitution.
- Group 5 - Merits and demerits of Flexible Constitution.
- Group 6 - Merits and demerits of Rigid Constitution.

In the meantime while the students are busy discussing in groups for the class presentation the teacher can guide them.

Activity 3 (Analysis and Synthesis)

The teacher will now invite the group leaders to present their findings to the whole class. The teacher will facilitate the discussion and wherever possible supplement the discussion.

Activity 4 (Evaluation)

At the end of the presentation by the group leaders the teacher will ask relevant questions to individual students in the class to check their understanding.

OR

The alternative learning procedure that a teacher can adopt is the Inquiry method.

Teaching Learning Method

Inquiry.

Activity 1 (Knowledge and Comprehension)

Teacher asks the students to read the topics starting from the definition of the Constitution to the demerits of a rigid constitution. Teacher will also ask the students to note down any doubts that they might come across while reading. These noted doubts can be clarified later in the class during the discussion with the whole class.

Activity 2 (Recall, Comprehension and Evaluation)

Teacher can instruct the students to ask questions in order of the titles that they have been asked to read. But before the questions are being asked the teacher nominates four students from the class to record the questions that are being asked by the students. Once the questions are being recorded by the four nominated students the teacher can then begin the question-answer session.

The teacher can also give as home work the different questions that he answered for students to work on individually.

Learning objectives

By the end of the lesson students will be able to:

- Tell the characteristics of a good constitution.
- Explain the constitution of Bhutan.
- Tell the merits and demerits of the Bhutanese constitution.

Teaching Learning Method

Think pair share.

Activity 1 (Knowledge)

Teacher can frame some questions on the constitution of Bhutan and their merits and demerits. The framed questions can be given to the students to discuss in pairs. Some possible questions that the teacher might use are:

- Who took the initiative towards starting a constitutional democracy in Bhutan?
- How were people in other countries of the world able to establish democracy? Was their process a peaceful one?
- What was the justification given by His Majesty the fourth King Jigme Singye Wangchuck in drafting a constitution for Bhutan?
- Why do you think the draft constitution was discussed with the people of Bhutan in the twenty Dzongkhags in the kingdom?
- What are some of the merits of our constitution?
- Do you think that the minimum age of 18 years for the Bhutanese to vote should have been raised to 20 years? If so why? Give reasons for your answer.
- Should the single citizenship laws be replaced by a dual citizenship for the Bhutanese? Why? Justify.
- Do you think that the Monarch's constitutional power should be made possible to be amended in future with the changing needs of our country and people?
- Do you feel that the privileges and power accorded to the monarch under democracy is still very extensive?
- Does the limitation of the constituencies cause imbalance? Justify.

Activity 2 (Knowledge and Comprehension)

Once the students finish discussing the questions in pairs, the teacher can ask questions to different pairs. The answers given by different pairs can be listed down on the board by the teacher.

Activity 3 (Synthesis and Evaluation)

After noting all the answers or the points given by different pairs, the teacher can ask some students to elaborate and explain to other groups using hints listed on the board. The teacher's role here is to guide the students and supplement them with extra information.

OR

The alternative learning procedure a teacher can use is the open discussion method.

Teaching Learning Method

Open discussion.

Activity 1 (Knowledge, Synthesis and Analysis)

Teacher will inform the students that having learnt the various features of constitution, they will today look at the Bhutanese constitution. For this the teacher will tell the students that they will try and do it on their own without referring to the text. The teacher after introducing the lesson will then write down the broad themes for discussion on the board such as: Background or the history of the Bhutanese constitution and merits and demerits

The teacher, after giving clear instructions, will let every student in the class share their thought which will be written on the board. The students will also write down the points listed on the board in their note books. At the end, the teacher will invite students to look at the given points on the board and then those points that they do not feel should be there should be slashed.

Activity 2 (Synthesis and Analysis)

Students will then read the text and then compare the points listed on the board along with those given in the text. Whatever additional points that the students come up will be shared with the colleagues.

Activity 3 (Knowledge)

The teacher will then at the end of the lesson summarize the main points on the Bhutanese constitution.

Supplementary information for teachers

Constitution

A constitution is a system, often codified as a written document, which establishes the rules and principles by which an organization, or political entity, is governed. In the case of countries this term refers specifically to a national constitution, which defines the fundamental political principles and establishes the power and duties of each government. Most national constitutions also guarantee certain rights to the people. Historically, before the evolution of modern-style, codified national constitutions, the term constitution could be applied to any important law that governed the functioning of a government.

Constitutions are found in many organizations. They are found extensively in government, at supranational (e.g. United Nations Charter), national (e.g. Constitution of Japan), and sub-national or provincial (e.g. Constitution of Maryland) levels. They are found in many political groups, such as political parties and pressure groups, including trade unions (Labour Unions). There are many non-political groups and entities that may have constitutions of a sort such as companies and voluntary organizations.

Etymology

The term constitution comes from Latin, referring to issuing any important law, usually by the Roman emperor. Later, the term was widely used in canon law to indicate certain relevant decisions, mainly from the pope.

General features

Generally, all constitutions confer specific powers to an organization on the condition that it abides by this constitution or charter limitation. The Latin term *ultra vires* describes activities that fall outside an organization's or legislative body's legal or constitutional authority. For example, a students' union may be prohibited as an organization from engaging in activities not concerning students; if the union becomes involved in non-student activities these activities are considered *ultra vires* of the union's charter. An example from the constitutional law of nation-states would be a provincial government in a federal state trying to legislate in an area exclusively enumerated to the federal government in the constitution. For example, in the United States, any attempt by a state legislature to ratify a treaty with a foreign nation would be considered *ultra vires* of Congress' constitutional authority, being contrary to the constitution. In both cases, "*ultra vires*" gives a legal justification for the forced cessation of such action, which would be enforced by the judiciary in government.

Governmental constitutions

Most commonly, the term constitution refers to a set of rules and principles that define the nature and extent of government. Most constitutions seek to regulate the relationship between institutions of the state, in a basic sense the relationship between the executive, legislature and the judiciary, but also the relationship of institutions within those branches. For example, executive branches can be divided into a head of Government, Government departments/ministries, executive agencies and a civil service/bureaucracy. Most constitutions also attempt to define the relationship between individuals and the state, and to establish the broad rights of individual citizens. It is thus the most basic law of an area from which all the other laws and rules are hierarchically derived; in some areas it is in fact called "Basic Law".

Key features

The following are features of democratic constitutions which have been identified by political scientists to exist, in one form or another, in virtually all national constitutions.

Codification: A fundamental classification is codification or lack of codification. A codified constitution is one that is contained in a single document, which is the single source of constitutional law in a state. The classic example of this is the constitution of the United States. An uncoded constitution is one that is not contained in a single document, consisting of several different sources, which may be written or unwritten. The constitution of Australia is an example of a constitution in which constitutional law mainly derives from a single

written document, but other written documents are also considered part of the constitution. The constitution of the United Kingdom is an example of an uncodified constitution which consists of both written and unwritten sources and has no single written fundamental document.

The term written constitution is used to describe a constitution that is entirely written, which by definition includes every codified constitution. However, some constitutions are entirely written but, strictly speaking, not entirely codified. For example, in the constitution of Australia, most of its fundamental political principles and regulations concerning the relationship between branches of Government, and concerning the Government and the individual are codified in a single document, the Constitution of the Commonwealth of Australia. However, the presence of statutes with constitutional significance, namely the Statute of Westminster, as adopted by the Commonwealth in the Statute of Westminster Adoption Act 1942 and the Australia Act 1986 means that Australia's constitution is not contained in a single constitutional document. The Constitution of Canada, which evolved from the British North America Acts until severed from nominal British control by the Canada Act 1982 (analogous to the Australia Act 1986), is a similar example.

The term written constitution is often used interchangeably with codified constitution, and similarly unwritten constitution is used interchangeably with uncodified constitution. As shown above, this usage with respect to written and codified constitutions can be inaccurate. Strictly speaking, unwritten constitution is never an accurate synonym for uncodified constitution, because all modern democratic constitutions consist of some written sources, even if they have no different technical status than ordinary statutes. Another term used is formal (written) constitution, for example in the following context: "The United Kingdom has no formal constitution". This usage is correct, but it should be construed to mean that the United Kingdom does not have a written constitution, not that the UK has no constitution of any kind, which would not be correct.

Codified constitution: Most states in the world have a codified constitution. Only three nations, Israel, New Zealand and the United Kingdom, have uncodified constitutions as of October 2006. Codified constitutions - unlike uncodified constitutions, which are the product of an "evolution" of laws and conventions over centuries - are usually the product of dramatic political change, such as a revolution. For example, the US constitution was written and subsequently ratified less than 25 years after the American Revolution. The process by which a country adopts a constitution is closely tied to the historical and political context driving this fundamental change. The most obvious advantage of a codified constitution is the coherent and easily understood body of rules. A codified constitution at the least is simple to read, being a single document.

Un-codified constitution: By contrast, in the Westminster tradition which originated in England, uncodified constitutions include written sources: e.g. constitutional statutes enacted by the Parliament (House of Commons Disqualification Act 1975, Northern Ireland Act 1998, Scotland Act 1998, Government of Wales Act 1998, European Communities Act 1972 and Human Rights Act 1998); together these constitute the British constitutional law.

Entrenchment: The presence or lack of entrenchment is a fundamental feature of constitutions. Entrenchment refers to whether the constitution is legally protected from modification without a procedure of constitutional amendment. Entrenchment is an inherent feature in most written constitutions. The US constitution is an example of an entrenched constitution, and the UK constitution is an example of a constitution that is not entrenched.

The procedure for modifying a constitution is often called amending. Amending an entrenched constitution requires more than the approval of the national legislature. It requires wider acceptance. Procedures for ratification of constitutional amendments vary between states. In a federal system of Government, the approval of a majority of state/provincial legislatures may be required. Alternatively, a national referendum may be required in some states, such as in Australia.

Distribution of sovereignty

Constitutions also establish where sovereignty is located in the state. There are three basic types of distribution of sovereignty: federal, unitary and confederal. A federal system of government will inevitably have a constitution that recognizes the division of sovereignty between the centre and peripheral/provincial regions of the state. The Canadian constitution is an example of this, dividing power between the federal government and the provinces. A unitary constitution recognises that sovereignty resides only in the centre of the state. In the UK, the constitutional doctrine of Parliamentary sovereignty dictates that sovereignty is ultimately contained at the centre.

Separation of powers

Constitutions vary extensively as to the degree of separation of powers, usually meaning the constitutional separation of the executive, legislative and judicial branches of government. The United States constitution has a full separation of powers, with each branch having particular enumerated powers. For instance, Congress, the US legislature, has the power of impeachment, which cannot be exercised by another branch.

Lines of accountability

Lines of accountability are a common feature in all democratic constitutions. In presidential systems of government, such as the United States, and semi-presidential systems, such as France, department secretaries/ministers are accountable to the president, who has patronage powers to appoint and dismiss ministers. The president is accountable to the people in an election. In parliamentary systems, such as the United Kingdom and Australia, ministers are accountable to Parliament, but it is the prime minister who appoints and dismisses them (in Westminster systems this power derives from the monarch, a component of Parliament). There is the concept of a vote of no confidence in many countries with parliamentary systems, which means that if a majority of the legislature vote for a no confidence motion, then the government must resign, and a new one will be formed, or parliament will be dissolved and a general election called.

Constitutional courts

The constitution is often protected by a certain legal body in each country with various names, such as supreme, constitutional or high court. This court judges the compatibility of legislation with the provisions and principles of the constitution, which is termed “constitutionality”. Especially important is the court’s responsibility to protect constitutionally established rights and freedoms. In constitutions without the concept of supreme law, such as the United Kingdom constitution, the concept of “constitutionality” has little meaning, and constitutional courts do not exist.

A “constitutional violation” is an action or legislative act that is judged by a constitutional court to be contrary to the constitution, that is, “unconstitutional”. An example of constitutional violation by the executive could be a politician who abuses the powers of his constitutionally-established office. An example of constitutional violation by the legislature is an attempt to pass a law that would contradict the constitution, without first going through the proper constitutional amendment process.

A constitutional court is normally the court of last resort, the highest judicial body in the government. The process of judicial review is then integrated into the system of courts of appeal. This is the case, for example, with the Supreme Court of the United States. Cases must normally be heard in lower courts before being brought before the Supreme Court, except cases for which the Supreme Court has original jurisdiction.

Chapter Four

The Role of the Monarch in Our Parliamentary Democracy

Rationale

The Institution of Monarchy since its establishment in 1907 has played the key role in the transition of Bhutan from a medieval period to modern era. The Kings of Bhutan steered Bhutan progressively into a Parliamentary Democracy. Over the years, during the reign of the Fourth King, sea change has been noticed. The establishment of Dzongkhag Yargay Tshogdu in 1981, Gewog Yargay Tshogchung in 1991, devolution of power in 1998 and the drafting of the Constitution are some steps taken towards facilitation of Bhutan's transition into Parliamentary Democracy. This would mean that the Monarch will be the Head of the State while the executive power will be with the Prime Minister as the head of the government formed by the Ruling Party.

The parliamentary democratic form of government is a new concept to many Bhutanese. If the government is controlled by the Ruling Party it is important to understand the place of the Monarch in this new system. Thus, it is essential that our school children understand the ascension to throne, Royal privileges and entitlements, roles and powers of the Monarch in a parliamentary democracy.

In effect, this chapter will focus on the ascension to throne, Royal privileges and entitlements, roles and powers of the Monarch in a parliamentary democracy. The delivery of this chapter will help the students to understand that even in the new system the monarch has an unparalleled role to play. Above all, this chapter will create opportunities for the students to understand that the Monarch is the symbol of Unity and Identity of the Bhutanese.

Note:

This chapter can be delivered in two lessons.

- Lesson one: Introduction to Royal privileges and entitlements.
- Lesson two: Powers of the Monarch to conclusion.

Learning Objectives for lesson one

At the end of the lesson the students will be able to:

- Comment on the qualification for ascension to the Throne and the term of reign.
- Tell the importance of the Oath of office.
- Explain the Royal privileges and entitlements with examples.
- Differentiate between the Council of Regency and the Privy Council.

Teaching Learning Method

Reflections.

Activity One (Knowledge and Comprehension)

1. Students will read the topics from Introduction of the chapter till Royal privileges and entitlements (allot time enough to complete reading). The teacher can monitor and guide the students.

Activity Two (Analysis, Evaluation and Application)

1. After reading, divide the class into five groups and name them A, B, C, D and E.
2. Assign each group with the following questions:
 - Group A: Describe about the qualification for ascension to the Throne.
 - Group B: Explain about the term of reign.
 - Group C: Analyze about the importance of the Oath of office.
 - Group D: Explain the Royal privileges and entitlements with examples.
 - Group E: Differentiate between the Council of Regency and the Privy Council.
3. Let each group to discuss and respond to their question in writing on a sheet of paper within the allotted time.
4. After the allotted time ask group A to pass their findings to group B, B to C, C to D, D to E and E to A.
5. Ask each group to read the findings received from other groups and tell them to add or delete from the list if any as per their views within the allotted time.
6. Continue this task till the groups get back their original sheet with new points added to or deleted from their list.
7. Ask each group to present the response of their question to the class. After each presentation the other students can comment and the teacher can supplement.

OR

Try Class Presentation approach.

Activity One (Knowledge, Comprehension and Analysis)

1. Divide the class into four groups.
2. Assign each group one topic from the list given below and ask them to discuss:
 - Qualification for ascension to the throne.
 - Term of Reign and Oath of office.
 - Royal Privileges and entitlements.
 - Difference between the Privy Council and Council of Regency.

Activity Two (Comprehension, Analysis and Evaluation)

After group discussion, each group will present their findings to the class. After each presentation, allow other groups to comment or ask questions to which the presenters should respond.

Activity Three (Knowledge and Comprehension)

The teacher can close the lesson asking a few questions and by summarizing the main points.

Learning Objectives for lesson two

At the end of the lesson the students will be able to:

- List down and evaluate the roles and powers of the Monarch in a Parliamentary Democracy.
- Justify the significance of the Monarch in a Parliamentary Democracy.
- Construct the link between the Monarch and the Council of Ministers.

Teaching Learning Method

Class Presentation approach.

Activity One (Knowledge and Comprehension)

1. Let the students read the topics from Powers of the Monarch to conclusion within the allotted time. Teacher can monitor and help the students wherever necessary.

Activity Two (Analysis, Evaluation and Synthesis)

1. Divide the class into two groups: Presenters and observers. Further, divide the presenters into three groups of five members each.
2. Assign each group the following topics and tell them to discuss and prepare a presentation to the class within the allotted time:
 - Roles and powers of the Monarch (List down and evaluate).
 - Significance of the Monarch in a Parliamentary Democracy Justify.
 - Link between the Monarch and the Council of Ministers.

In the meantime tell the observers to frame questions from the topics that they had read to be raised after the presentation for clarification or elaboration.

3. Presentation followed by discussion.

4. Teacher can ask a few questions randomly to the class to check if the set objectives are achieved and end the lesson by talking on the significance of the Monarch as a symbol of unity and identity for the Bhutanese and Bhutan.

OR

Try out Research and Presentation approach. However, for this approach will demand more time than the earlier one. If you decide to try this approach you will have to budget two lessons to cover the same topics.

The teacher should check if there are any resources in the library that would help the students to get information before trying out this approach.

Lesson One

Activity One (Knowledge, comprehension, analysis and synthesis)

1. Divide the class into two groups and assign one topic to each from the following:
 - Compare the powers of the Monarch of the Pre-Parliamentary Democracy and Post Democracy.
 - Compare the powers of the Monarch and the President of any country with Parliamentary form of government.
2. Send the students to the Library or to the computer laboratory to search for information. Tell them that in the next class they will have to make presentations to the class and respond to the questions of their classmates.

Lesson Two

Activity One (Comprehension, Analysis and Evaluation).

1. Class Presentation by different groups. Every presentation should be followed by discussion amongst the students. The Teacher can facilitate and join in the discussion wherever necessary.
2. The teacher closes the lesson by asking few questions and summarizing the lesson.

Supplementary Information for Teachers

1. Monarchy

A monarchy is a kind of government where a monarch, a hereditary ruler (someone who inherits their office) is the head of the state. Monarchs usually rule until they die or resign. When a monarch resigns it is called abdication. Most monarchies are hereditary, but some are elected. The most famous elected monarch is the Pope of the Roman Catholic Church. Some common titles for monarchs are King, Queen, Emperor, Empress, Czar, Kaiser, Shah, and Emir.

Monarchy is one of the oldest forms of Government. Most historians agree that the first monarchies were tribes or small groups of people who decided to let a war-chief or other leader pass on their office to their children. Over time, the rules for deciding who got to become the next monarch became more complicated. In general, the oldest son or, in some countries, daughter succeeds to the throne when the old one dies. Kings and other kinds of monarchs have been around for many thousands of years. Two of the oldest countries with monarchs that still hold office are the United Kingdom, where the present line of Kings and Queens has been around for nearly 1,000 years, and Japan, which has records showing a line of Emperors dating back even further.

Many monarchs today perform mostly the ceremonial jobs of as the head of the state, while the head of the Government, who is usually elected, passes and enforces laws.

2. Constitutional monarchy

A constitutional monarchy is a form of monarchical Government established under a constitutional system which acknowledges an elected or the hereditary monarch as head of the state. Modern constitutional monarchies usually implement the concept of trias politica or “separation of powers”, where the monarch either is the head of the executive branch or simply has a ceremonial role. Where a monarch holds absolute power, it is known as an absolute monarchy. The process of Government and law within an absolute monarchy can be very different from that of a constitutional monarchy.

In representative democracies that are constitutional monarchies, like the United Kingdom, the monarch may be regarded as the head of the state but the Prime Minister, whose power derives directly or indirectly from elections, is the head of the Government.

Although current constitutional monarchies are mostly representative democracies called constitutional democratic monarchies, this has not always historically been the case. There have been monarchies which have coexisted with constitutions which were fascist or quasi-fascist, as was the case in Italy, Japan and Spain, or with military dictatorships, as is currently the case in Myanmar.

Differences between constitutional and absolute monarchies

- Absolute monarchy: In theoretical absolutism, a monarch rules with total power. Towards the end of the Middle Ages following the Reformation, the religious wars, the decline of the church, and a growing middle class, it resulted in the emergence of absolute leaders to provide guarantees of order. The concept of “divine right” often, as in the case of King James I of England and King James VI of the Scots, covered as a justification for abuses of absolute power.

In a situation where one individual who is not necessarily knowledgeable about economics makes all economic decisions, the economy can be seriously damaged by imprudent allocation of funds. For example, Louis XIV of France abused his control of money by spending it on his Palace of Versailles and on wars that did not benefit France. According to Early Modern France, at the end of Louis XIV’s reign, the French Royal Family was in debt of about 2 billion livres or about \$ 21 billion. This debt, combined with the awkward tax structure of the country, was a contributing factor in the French Revolution. However, other historians argue that the tax-exempt status of the nobility and the Church was a more important cause of France’s budget deficit.

If the absolute monarch favors one group over another, a reduction of personal freedoms may result. King Louis XIV demonstrated this when he overrode the Edict of Nantes and forcibly exiled the Huguenots from France.

- Constitutional monarchy: A constitutional monarchy is a form of Government in which a king or queen reigns with limits to their power along with a governing body (i.e. Parliament), giving rise to the modern adage “the Queen reigns but does not rule”. In constitutional monarchies the position of monarch may be hereditary, hence the need for a royal family, or elected (like the largely symbolic presidents of Europe). In philosophy and political science, two broad justifications are given for monarchy: the British doctrine that monarchs are part of a social contract, founded on the autonomy of the individual, and the Continental doctrine that the monarch is an embodiment of the will and character of a people. People viewed monarchs as role models because they were men in power who were able to control and govern their kingdom with few commands. As in the older feudal regimes, monarchs may be given the title of Emperor, King, Prince, Duke or other traditional titles of territorial rulers. In the British Empire, local monarchs such as Viceroy and Governor Generals have sometimes been appointed. In royal families, children and collateral relatives may have subordinate titles associated with conquered provinces, as when the heir to the British throne is called the “Prince of Wales.” Constitutional monarchs, although they have little power in Government, generally play active roles in civil society, especially in not-for-profit enterprises, and play a symbolic role by representing the nation. Constitutional monarchs may also be the

symbolic leaders of a nation's armed forces, and play a role in maintaining constitutional Government in times of crises or change of administration.

- Constitutional monarchy in England: The English monarchy is considered the oldest of modern constitutional monarchies and as the model for this form of Government in the English-speaking world. A constitutional monarchy was able to form in England across different periods of history for a complex combination of reasons: sometimes due to a lack of strong leadership, and at other times due to strong leaders short of funding, who needed to raise money to prosecute wars, and needed to address public grievances to ensure this money was forthcoming.

Historically, the English were divided on the question of the origins and justification for monarchy, but the Continental and Scottish belief in the “Divine Right of Kings” gradually gave ground to modern social-contract philosophy. The Magna Carta in 1215 is considered the first codification of the monarchy as a contract among territorial chiefs.

In the 17th Century, abuse of power by the Stuart dynasty, and their attempts to import the doctrine of “Divine Right” from Scotland, caused the English to question the royal authority and revive earlier safeguards against executive power. Parliament took several key steps to limit the power of the King. They revived the English instrument of impeachment, which held the King's ministers to be responsible for his actions; hence the King's servants could be executed for implementing unpopular policies. They forced Charles I to sign the Petition of Right that re-affirmed that the King must go through Parliament to enact new laws, taxes, etc. After signing the Petition of Right, Charles I immediately ignored it, precipitating the English Civil Wars, and the eventual beheading of the King for treason. This sent a message to future monarchs of England that they did not have absolute power. During the reign of Charles II, Parliament passed the Habeas Corpus Act of 1679, which said that any prisoner taken by the King would be given a trial. This prevented the King from simply removing his enemies by sending them to jail.

When James II took the throne many people did not appreciate it when he flaunted his Catholicism. Therefore Parliament flexed its muscles once again by asking William of Orange to overthrow the king. William and his wife Mary came from the Netherlands and overthrew James II without bloodshed. This was called the “Glorious Revolution”. Once William and Mary had gained control of the throne, they completely supported the constitutional monarchy. Together they signed the Bill of Rights, which severely limited the power of the king, and gave more freedom to their subjects. One supporter of constitutional monarchy was John Locke. He wrote that people are able to improve and rule themselves, and that people have three main rights. These rights are life, liberty, and property, and it is the government's job to protect these rights. He also wrote that if the government is unjust the people have the right to overthrow it, a doctrine that was invoked during the American Revolution. The

conflict between Scottish (Tory) and social contract (Whig) views of the monarchy came to a head in a war of succession. The deposed English and Scottish King, James II and VII, was defeated by Whig forces led by William of Orange at the Battle of the Boyne in 1690, now considered a decisive turning point in British and Irish history.

- **Constitutional monarchy in the Continental tradition:** An independent development of constitutional monarchy occurred on the continent of Europe in the years following the French revolution. Napoleon Bonaparte is considered the first monarch to proclaim himself the embodiment of a nation, rather than a divinely appointed ruler, and this view of monarchy became the basis of continental constitutional monarchies. G.W.F. Hegel, in his *Philosophy of Right* (1820) gave it a philosophical justification that accorded well with evolving political theory and with Protestant Christian views of natural law. Hegel's forecast of a constitutional monarch with very limited powers, whose function is to embody the national character and to provide constitutional continuity in times of emergency, has been borne out by the development of constitutional monarchies in Europe and Japan. The largely ceremonial office of president, in some modern parliamentary democracies in Europe, Israel and other nations, can be viewed as a form of elected or appointed version of Hegel's constitutional monarch, and his forecast of the form of government suitable to the modern world may be seen as prophetic. The Russian and French Presidents, with their stronger powers, may also be seen as justified in Hegelian terms as wielding the powers suitable to the embodiment of the national will.
- **Constitutional monarchies today:** The most significant family of constitutional monarchies in the world today are the sixteen Realms of the Commonwealth of Nations, all independent parliamentary democracies under a common monarch, currently Queen Elizabeth II of England. Unlike the United Kingdom, almost all of the other countries within the Commonwealth have written constitutions with complex processes for constitutional change. Through political crises, peaceful constitutional drafting and international debate, the Westminster conventions concerning the constitutional monarch have gained much clearer definition in the other fifteen Realms than in the United Kingdom. In many of these constitutions, the monarch or the representative of the Crown is regarded as an integral part of the executive and legislative branches of government, and that position is explicitly protected, at least in part, by the written constitution.

Unlike some of their continental European counterparts, the Westminster monarch and her representatives retain significant "reserve" or "prerogative" powers, to be wielded only in times of extreme emergency or constitutional crises (e.g., Australia 1975, Grenada 1983, Solomon Islands 1994), usually to uphold parliamentary government. In such instances, a lack of understanding by the public of constitutional convention can cause controversy. For example,

in the 1975 dismissal of the Whitlam government in Australia, Governor General John Kerr was widely blamed for his intervention over the supply crisis, much to the bewilderment of British and Canadian constitutional scholars. Instead a number of these authorities such as Lord Hailsham (the former Lord Chancellor of the United Kingdom) and Senator Eugene Forsey (the leading Canadian constitutional authority on the reserve powers of the Crown) argued that the blame for the crisis in Australia and its outcome should have been directed at the then Leader of the Opposition, Malcolm Fraser, who was both politically responsible for refusing supply and causing the immediate crisis, and who was formally responsible for the Whitlam dismissal under the Westminster conventions concerning exercise of the reserve powers. Based on this controversy, legal commentators have since argued that public understanding of the Crown's constitutional role must be heightened if monarchs are to survive even the legitimate exercises of their duties in a time of crisis.

With the exception of post-war Italy, no modern, democratic constitutional monarchy has voted to abolish itself, but Greece voted against re-establishing its constitutional monarchy after the military government had been ousted.

Though many of Europe's past and present leftist parties contain anti-monarchy factions, to date few have openly declared a preference for flat-out monarchical abolition, and instead use their powers to curtail and reform alleged "un-democratic" or "prejudiced" elements of the monarchy. For example, in recent years the age-old tradition of "males first" order of succession to the throne has been abolished in some European constitutional monarchies, allowing for eldest daughters to assume the throne before their brothers.

One common view as to why modern constitutional monarchies continue to survive is that the individual royal families themselves have remained popular. Today, most contemporary royal families go out of their way to project a modern image to the citizenry of a monarchy that is both caring and interested in the people and their country. Many members of modern royal families frequently make donations or participate in charity events, visit poor or sick citizens, and make public appearances at high profile sporting or arts events. Such moves can help make a monarchy seem contemporarily relevant, especially when the royals themselves get involved within the community. As long as a monarchy can remain popular in the public eye, there is little reason for the politicians to meddle, and those who do can easily find themselves at the receiving end of harsh public criticism.

Other defenders of constitutional monarchies argue that royal families promote tourism, and are a (key) tradition associated with patriotism and national pride. For example, in many constitutional monarchies the monarch's birthday is a national holiday, and an event marked with public patriotic events and parties. In recent years many royal families have also become popular targets of tabloid journalism and gossip, which although often argued as

being intrusive and destructive, continues to prove that many find royals interesting simply as celebrities. A further argument speculates that abolishing a popular monarchy may be a pointless endeavor anyway, as even a “deposed” royal family could presumably still live their royal lifestyle and capture public attention, making any republican replacement seem illegitimate. Historically, when monarchies have been abolished the royal family was usually exiled to a foreign country to prevent their presence from interfering or distracting from the new republican government. However, such moves were usually done during periods of conflict and turmoil with the monarchy.

If a democratic country was to abolish its monarchy today, an exile for the royal family would likely be denounced as cruel, and would thus not be seen as a practical option. Moreover, some previously exiled royal families (such as the Habsburgs in Austria) won legal cases by arguing that exiling a person from his or her homeland solely based on family origin is a severe violation of human rights. In Bulgaria, the fall of Communism enabled the former Monarch not only to return from prolonged exile but also to engage in active politics (without seeking to regain his throne).

In the 20th century, a much more politically sophisticated view in favor of preserving constitutional monarchies in parliamentary democracies has emerged, for example, in the case of Queen Elizabeth II, in terms of the usefulness of an observer within the Executive who is unaffiliated with political parties, who does not owe her job security to the Prime Minister of the day, and who can afford to scrutinize political controversies that may sweep the incumbent Prime Minister from office. She has no policy powers - that is the domain of the elected government, headed by the Prime Minister but she is a required, formal co-signatory to political instruments, who has a personal stake in protecting constitutional government from non-justifiable abuses. The most famous advocates of this view were Canadian historian Eugene Forsey (later a Canadian senator, whose defence of the monarchy formed part of his doctoral thesis in history at Oxford) and Australian lawyer H.V. Evatt (later a High Court Judge and Australian attorney-general, whose treatment of Westminster law and the monarch and reserve powers was the basis of his doctoral thesis in law). It is interesting to note both Forsey and Evatt were social democrats, heavily involved in the labour movements of their respective countries. Their work built on that of Alpheus Todd, the 19th Century Librarian of the Canadian House of Commons. Todd's encyclopedic work effectively contradicted the popularly-known, class-obsessed treatise by Walter Bagehot, whose opinions on the monarchy as a “bauble” to distract the “lower” classes remain influential in Britain. In recent decades Bagehot has been effectively discredited, his historical, political and legal assumptions disproved. (For example, his belief that the Queen's position exists solely at the pleasure of the British Parliament, without reference to the electorate, does not withstand detailed scrutiny.)

Ironically, given the public perception of wealth and privilege associated with monarchy, the Todd/Evatt/Forsey case argues that the reserve powers of the Crown and the peculiar nature of the office render it a useful, if limited, asset against the “presidential” aspirations of prime ministers, and a superior safeguard for Executive oversight than anything available in a republican context. The case suggests she is an external observer who, when combined with the conventions of ministerial responsibility, enhances the democratic accountability of the Executive branch to the elected legislature, and the accountability of the elected legislature to the electorate. Put simply, requiring prime ministers to bow the knee and show deference and humility on a regular basis is a useful way of keeping their egos under control.

(See Nigel Greenwood, “For the Sovereignty of the People”, Australian Academic Press, 1999, for a discussion of the Crown as a legal and political instrument of parliamentary democracy in the Westminster system, giving a detailed examination of Todd, Evatt and Forsey, and a contrast-and-compare of modern US and French problems with 20th Century executive lawlessness; e.g. the post-Watergate findings of the US congressional committees re the absence of an executive figure outside the corrupted chain of command.

Independent of such thinkers, George Orwell reached similar conclusions in his vision of a Socialist Revolution in Britain. In the “Lion and The Unicorn: Socialism and the English Genius” Orwell envisioned a revolutionary Socialist regime implementing extensive nationalizations and completely abolishing the aristocracy but nevertheless retaining the monarchy. Concerned with the leader-worship of the Fascist regimes and the personality cult of Stalin, Orwell considered it a useful “safety valve” that popular adoration be focused on a person who does not hold the actual power in the state.

A side effect of Monarchs losing their real power is that they have become more free in the choice of their consorts. Traditionally, Royal families tended to marry only among themselves, such marriages having considerable political significance and considered a major way of cementing alliances. A monarch’s marriage with a commoner (or even a member of the lower aristocracy) was frowned upon, not only out of royal snobbishness but because such a marriage tended to confer undue power on the consort’s family and cause jealousies and frictions. With the monarch being nowadays a figurehead and democratic ideas prevalent in European society, such considerations become largely irrelevant, and on the contrary choosing a commoner for a consort might help the monarchy’s popularity. Thus, the present heirs to the throne in many European monarchies felt free to marry commoners, the choice being made mainly out of personal inclination rather than political calculation.

Retrieved from: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Constitutional_monarchySkip to main content

3. Parliamentarism and Constitutional Monarchy

Parliamentarism means that the party which forms a Government must have the majority's support in the parliament. If the Government no longer has the parliament's trust and/or the support of the majority, the Prime Minister and the Cabinet must resign. The system of Parliamentarism was developed and established in the United Kingdom during the 18th and 19th century.

A constitutional monarchy means that the monarch is head of state, but that he has no real power. The power lies in the parliament, which again is elected by the people. Essentially, the people decide who rules the nation, and the monarch's rights and duties are stated in the constitution.

Norway - a combination

Norway is a constitutional monarchy combined with Parliamentarism. Parliamentarism was established in Norway in 1884. King Harald V is currently head of state in Norway.

The constitution states that the Monarch has limited power (i.e. he is not the absolute ruler) he must take an oath that he will rule the nation according to the constitution and the laws.

In Norway, the parliament is the legislative assembly, in addition to being the supervising and the granting authority. The Cabinet is the Executive, and the courts the judiciary. The French philosopher, author and jurist Montesquieu was the first to come up with the idea of splitting the power between several institutions.

Parliament and elections

Parliamentary elections are held every 4th year and all citizens who are 18 years old or older have the right to vote. Anyone who has lived in the country for 10 years or more, and who has the right to vote, can be elected to the parliament.

Prior to the elections, the various political parties campaign for their parties with leaflets and posters. The leaders of the parties or the parties' candidate for prime minister participate in many heated debates on TV. Debates with local representatives of parties are often held at schools.

There are 165 seats in the Norwegian parliament, the Storting. The amount of seats given to a political party depends on the percentage of votes the party got in the election. These seats again are divided among the party's representatives from the 19 different counties in the country, according to the number of votes given within that county.

After a parliamentary election, the Monarch appoints the new prime minister from the party that got the most votes in the election. The Prime minister then forms a cabinet.

If the Prime minister is from the party with majority in the parliament, the cabinet consists only of members from that party. Several (minority) parties can also form the cabinet - this is called a coalition. Who forms the Cabinet depends on the composition of the Parliament.

According to the constitution, the Cabinet members are appointed by the King, but this really isn't the case anymore. The Prime minister chooses his/her ministers, who then have to be approved by the Monarch. This is just a formal ceremony.

The Storting is usually gathered in plenary sessions, but when bills are discussed and processed, it is divided in two, Odelstinget (Lower Chamber, 3/4 of the Storting) and Lagtinget (Upper chamber, 1/4 of the Storting). The MPs also have duties in one of the 12 Storting committees. The committees work on cases before they are discussed in the Storting. The most important political decisions always take place in the Storting. The Storting may not be dissolved during its four-year term.

Retrieved from: <http://library.thinkquest.org/18802/norgov>.

Chapter Five

The Prime Minister and the Council of Ministers

Rationale

In a Parliamentary Democracy the Government will be formed by the Ruling Political Party. The Prime Minister will be the head of the Government. The government will be managed by the Council of Ministers comprising Prime Minister and his team of Ministers. The Council of Ministers is vested with powers enough to shoulder the great responsibility of upholding the principles enshrined in the Constitution for the security of the Nation and the wellbeing of the people. This system of administration is new to Bhutan as the Monarch had been shouldering this responsibility till now.

Thus, it is important that our children understand the appointment of the Council of Ministers, their term of office and their powers and responsibilities. This chapter will help the students to understand the change and prepare them to participate in ensuring good governance as voters, as political party members or as civil servants of a democratic society.

Learning Objectives for lesson one:

At the end of the lesson the students will be able to:

- Explain the appointment procedure and term of office.
- Comment on the position and power of the Prime Minister.

Teaching Learning Method

Press conference approach.

This chapter can be covered in three lessons.

Lesson one: Preparation

Activity one

1. Let the students to read whole chapter and discuss amongst themselves. Provide guidance and help wherever necessary.
2. Assign roles to the different posts.
Prime Minister: one person.
Council of Ministers: 10 persons for 10 different ministries.
Journalists: One person each from Kuensel, BBS, The Journalist and the Bhutanese.

Lesson two: Press Conference

Activity one

1. Make journalists to prepare questions to be asked to the Prime Minister and the Prime Ministers.
2. At the same time instruct the Prime Minister and the Council of Ministers to remain mentally prepared to respond to the questions.
3. Let the remaining students act the observers.
4. When this is done, begin the press conference.

Lesson three: Presentation by the journalists.

Activity one

1. Let the journalists to present their findings to the class.
2. The observers will raise queries and doubts to the journalists.

Activity two

To conclude the session the teacher can ask some questions randomly that would cover the whole chapter.

OR

Teaching Learning Method

Open Discussion approach can be applied to deliver this lesson.

Lesson one: Introduction of the chapter to Powers and functions of the Prime Minister.

Activity One (Knowledge and Comprehension)

The Students have already studied about the formation of government, National Assembly and the Constitution in the earlier class. Thus, this lesson can be treated through open discussion.

The teacher can ask the students to tell anything without referring the textbook that they know about the Prime Minister on the following:

- Appointment.
- Term of Office.
- Role and power.

The teacher can note all the points thematically on the chalkboard. In the meantime, the students should also write the points in their notebook. Once there are no more points from the students, the teacher can ask the students to comment on the points on the board.

Activity two (Synthesis)

Read the textbook and compare the points in the book with that of the points already discussed. The students can share any new points or findings with the class.

Activity three (Knowledge and Comprehension)

Teacher summarizes the main points to the class.

OR

Try out reflecting and adding to the list approach.

Activity One

1. Make the students read the topics allotted for this lesson.
2. Divide the class into nine groups and assign the topic to the concerned group:
 - Group one: Formation of Council of Ministers.
 - Group two: Distribution of Portfolios.
 - Group three: Removal of ministers.
 - Group four: Leader of the Council of Ministers.
 - Group five: Link between the Monarch and the Council of Ministers.
 - Group six: Chief Advisor of the Monarch.
 - Group seven: Appointment.
 - Group eight: Leader of the Ruling Party.
 - Group nine: Leader of the nation.
3. Provide them with enough time for discussion and make them write down the main points on a sheet of paper.
4. Ask each group to read the findings received from other groups and tell them to add or delete from the list if any as per their views within the allotted time.
5. Continue this task till the groups get back their original sheet with new points added to or deleted from their list.
6. Ask each group to present the response of their question to the class. After each presentation the other students can comment and the teacher can supplement.

Lesson two: The Council of Ministers to conclusion.

Learning Objectives for lesson two

At the end of the lesson the students will be able to:

- Illustrate the composition and appointment of the Council of Ministers.
- Explain the powers and functions of the Council of Ministers.
- Analyze the significant responsibility of the Council of Ministers in ensuring the security and sovereignty of the Nation and wellbeing of the People.

Teaching Learning Method

Lecture method can be applied to deliver this lesson.

Activity one

The teacher will explain the lesson using the lecture method. Incorporate all the characteristics of good lecture.

Activity two

Have question-answer session after the lecture is over. This will prove whether students have understood the lesson.

OR

Try out with Open Discussion approach to deliver this lesson.

Activity One (Knowledge and Comprehension)

The Students have already studied about the appointment, term of office and role and power of Prime Minister. Thus, this lesson can be treated through open discussion.

The teacher can ask the students to tell anything without referring the textbook that they know about the Council of Ministers on the following:

- Appointment and composition of Council of Ministers.
- Term of Office.
- Power and functions of Council of Ministers.

The teacher can note all the points thematically on the chalkboard. In the meantime, the students should also write the points in their notebook. Once there are no more points from the students, the teacher can ask the students to comment on the points on the board.

Supplementary Information for teachers

1. Cabinet of the Netherlands

The government of the Netherlands constitutionally consists of the Queen and the cabinet ministers. The Queen's role is limited to the formation of government and she does not actively interfere in daily decision-making. The ministers together form the Council of Ministers. This executive council initiates laws and policy. It meets every Friday in the Trêveszaal at the Binnenhof. While most of the ministers head government ministries, since 1939 it has been permissible to appoint ministers without portfolio.

The Cabinet is composed of all cabinet ministers and junior ministers, the staatssecretarissen. Junior ministers take over part of responsibilities of minister. They only attend the meetings of the Council of Ministers if the Council invites them regarding a specific subject.

The Council of Ministers makes decisions by means of collegiate governance. All ministers, including the Prime Minister, are (theoretically) equal. Behind the closed doors of the Trêveszaal, ministers can freely debate proposed decisions and express their opinion on any aspect of cabinet policy. Once a decision is made by the council, all individual members are bound by it and are obliged to support it publicly. If a member of the cabinet does not agree with a particular decision he or she will have to step down. Generally much effort is put into reaching relative consensus on any decision. A process of voting within the Council does exist, but is hardly ever used.

The cabinet is collectively responsible to Parliament, and must enjoy its confidence. It is not possible for a minister to be a member of parliament, although many ministers are selected from parliament and have to give up their seat as a result. Ministers or junior ministers who are no longer supported by a parliamentary majority are expected by convention to step down.

As a result of the electoral system and the lack of dominating parties, coalition cabinets, composed out of two or three parties, are the norm.

Prime Minister

The Hague's Binnenhof. The ministry of General Affairs is in the centre with the Torentje, the office of the prime minister of the centre left.

- Prime Minister of the Netherlands

The official task of the Prime Minister is to coordinate government policy. He is chairman of the Council of Ministers and as such has the power to set the agenda of its meetings. In addition, the Prime minister is also Minister of General Affairs. The task of this small

department is basically supporting the Prime Minister in his tasks as described above and organizing publicity around government proposals and decisions. The position of the Prime Minister has become more important since the Second World War.

Retrieved from: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Politics_of_the_Netherlands

2. Opinion: The Separation of Powers

The French writer Montesquieu came to Britain in the 18th century and studied our political system. His observations became the basis of his seminal work, *The Spirit of the Laws*, and, misunderstanding the British system of the time, he formed the theory of the “separation of powers”, between the legislative (Parliament), executive (the King) and the Judiciary. He wrote of the necessity to separate these branches of the government as:

“When the legislative and executive powers are united in the same person, or in the same body of magistrates, there can be no liberty; because apprehensions may arise, lest the same monarch or senate should enact tyrannical laws, to execute them in a tyrannical manner.”

Over 250 years later, our system of Government is still the fused one which in fact existed at the time of Montesquieu’s visit. The executive controls the legislature through the power of the whips. The insistence by Parliament that the king’s ministers be MPs so as to keep a check on them has become the exact opposite, the queen’s ministers keep a check on the MPs, either by invoking loyalty to the party, the prospect of a ministerial or committee post or other nefarious means. Government MPs have become neutered, occasionally finding a pair but never really subjecting the executive to the kind of in-depth scrutiny it requires. Select Committee reports, which do scrutinise the executive, are very rarely debated on the floor of the House and frequently fall into oblivion. MPs are scared of governments, when governments should be scared of MPs.

Page 18 of the 2005 [Liberal Democrat general election manifesto](#) states:

“In recent decades Prime Ministers have exercised a growing domination over the political system, insufficiently accountable to Parliament or the people. We will curb this excessive concentration of power.”

Nothing about defusing power, which lies at the root of the current problems. The Prime Minister is powerful because he, by the rules of our parliamentary democracy, is the person who can command a majority in the House of Commons. It follows that if the PM can command a majority, the PM controls the entire House, with infrequent rebellions by backbench government MPs.

The best way to stop this is simple; the executive’s mandate should come from another

source, the ordinary citizens. The legislative and executive branches of Government should be elected separately; the voters should not be giving MPs a dual mandate (to represent them in Parliament and to support the Government, if they are of the winning party). MPs should have one role: to represent their constituents in Parliament. The executive should have a separate mandate: to govern by the consent of the people, directly choosing the head of the Government. The executive should not leech off the electoral mandate of MPs to support their position.

There is one obvious problem with this - if the executive, with all the powers it must necessarily be given, no longer depends on the legislature for its life, how can the executive be kept in check between elections - how do we stop an elective dictatorship? Of course the legislature will still be the prime legislative body and so the executive will still require the consent of Parliament for its bills.

But what about administrative abuses, patronage or corruption? With a separate mandate, the PM will no longer be a member of parliament and it would be expected his ministers would not be either. His ministers should, however, be confirmed by a simple majority of the Commons. The long dormant impeachment procedure should be emphasised, perhaps by a positive vote in the Commons confirming its existence, possibly with new rules. It would apply, of course, not just to the PM, but to ministers also.

On a day to day matters, ministers would still be required to attend question times and, when a government bill is being debated, advocate the government's position. The only difference is they would not be able to vote in the lobbies. Parliament would be capable of forcing the appearance of any minister, if necessary by threat of arrest for non-appearance.

The executive would thus become controlled by Parliament and ordinary citizens, but it would depend on MPs being ready and willing to face up to the executive when party loyalty conflicts with parliamentary responsibility, but that tension could only be removed by the abolition of parties themselves. And that would hardly strengthen democracy.

Retrieved from: <http://www.libdemvoice.org/opinion-the-separation-of-powers-396.html>

Chapter Six

Principles of State Policy

The Monarch has devolved his power. Political parties will compete to win the election and run the Government. But, are the political parties free to introduce policies and programmes according to their wish? Or are they bound by some principles? The general notion is that once a political party gets elected to run the government the party will be free to design policies as they wish. Thus, this chapter will create opportunities for the students to explore and understand that the political party which is entrusted with the responsibility of running the Government has to follow some guiding principles called Principles of State Policy.

To help the students to understand the significance of Principles of State Policy this chapter will discuss the meaning, classification and significance of Principles. The chapter will also dwell on the difference between the Principles of State Policy and Fundamental Rights.

This chapter can be delivered in three lessons:

- Lesson one: Dividing the class into groups, assigning the task and discussion and findings.
- Lesson two: Presentation of their findings to the concerned group.
- Lesson three: closure

Learning Objectives for the lesson

At the end of the lesson the students will be able to:

- Explain the meaning of Principles of State Policy.
- Differentiate between Fundamental Rights and Principles of State Policy.
- Classify the different categories of Principles of State Policy.
- Evaluate the advantages of having the Principles of State Policy.

Teaching Learning Method

Co-operative Learning can be applied to deliver this lesson.

Lesson one

Activity One (Knowledge and Comprehension)

1. Divide the class into five groups. This will form the home groups.
2. Reshuffle the home groups by grouping all the members having the same number. This will form the expert groups.
3. Assign the task to each group:
 - Group one: Introduction & meaning of Principles of State Policy.
 - Group two: Social sphere (classification).
 - Group three: Cultural, spiritual, economic and international sphere.

Group four: Significance.

Group five: Differences between the Fundamental Rights and the Principles of the State Policy.

4. Send the groups to library for research.

Lesson two

Activity Two (Knowledge and Comprehension)

1. Send back all the expert members to their respective home groups who will act as the resource persons.
2. The student will present his/her findings to the group.

Lesson three

Activity Three (Knowledge and Comprehension)

1. Conduct the quiz for the class to check the understanding of the students about the lesson. The questions for the quiz should cover all the topics so as to be impartial and just for all groups.
2. The teacher can award points or prize to the winning group as a reward.

OR

Try out with Brainstorming and Think Pair Share Method. Unlike the previous lesson, this chapter can be split into two lessons using two different methods.

Lesson one: Introduction, definition and classification of Principles of State Policy. (Knowledge, Comprehension and Analysis)

Teaching Learning Method

Brainstorming approach.

Activity one (Knowledge, Comprehension and Analysis)

1. Divide the class into groups consisting of three members each.
2. Instruct the members to read and discuss the assigned topic within the allotted time.
3. When this is over reduce the number of groups by regrouping two groups into one.
4. Make all the groups to discuss and debate about their task and discuss the invalid points.
5. After this session make them to present their task to the whole class for further brainstorming.
6. The teacher will note down the points, moderate and close the lesson in a fruitful manner.

Lesson two: Significance of Directive Principles and difference between the Principles of State Policy and the Fundamental Rights.

Teaching Learning Method

Think Pair Share can be applied to deliver this lesson.

Activity one (Knowledge, Comprehension and Analysis)

1. Form pairs and assign the task to each pair.
2. Instruct them to discuss and note down their points within a specified time.

Activity two (Knowledge, Comprehension and Analysis)

1. After the discussion is over, make pairs to present their task to the whole class.
2. The teacher can note all the relevant points on the board, without repeating the points.
3. The teacher can sum up the lesson by giving his or her relevant points.

Supplementary Information for teachers

1. Principles of State Policy of India

Gandhian philosophy, originally propounded by Mahatma Gandhi has greatly influenced the Principles of India.

The Principles of State Policy, embodied in Part IV of the constitution, are directions given to the central and state governments to guide the establishment of a just society in the country. According to the constitution, the government should keep them in mind while framing laws, even though they are non-justifiable in nature. Principles are classified under the following categories: Gandhian, social, economic, political, administrative, legal, environmental, protection of monuments, peace and security.

The Principles act as a check on the government; theorised as a yardstick in the hands of the people to measure the performance of the government. Article 31-C, added by the 25th Amendment Act of 1971, seeks to upgrade the Principles. If laws are made to give effect to the Principles over Fundamental Rights, they shall not be invalid on the grounds that they take away the Fundamental Rights. In case of a conflict between Fundamental Rights and Principles, if the latter aim at promoting larger interest of the society, the courts will have to uphold the case in favour of Principles.

The Principles commit the State to promote the welfare of the people by affirming social, economic and political justice, as well as to fight economic inequality. The State must continually work towards providing an adequate means of livelihood for all citizens, equal pay for equal

work for men and women, proper working conditions, protection against exploitation and reduce the concentration of wealth and means of production from the hands of a few. The State must provide free legal aid to ensure that opportunities for securing justice are not denied to any citizen for reason of economic or other disabilities. The State should work for organisation of village panchayats, provide the right to work, education and public assistance in certain cases; as well as the provision of just and humane conditions of work and maternity relief. A living wage and safe working conditions for citizens must be ensured, as must their participation in the management of industries. The State is encouraged to secure a uniform civil code for all citizens, provide free and compulsory education to children, and to work for the economic upliftment of scheduled castes, scheduled tribes and other backward classes.

The Principles commit the State to raise the standard of living and improve public health, and organise agriculture and animal husbandry on modern and scientific lines. The State must safeguard the environment and wildlife of the country. The State must ensure the preservation of monuments and objects of national importance and separation of judiciary from executive in public services. The State must also strive for the maintenance of international peace.

The Principles have been amended to meet definite objectives. Article 45, which ensures Provision for free and compulsory education for children, was added by the 86th Amendment Act, 2002. Article 48-A, which ensures Protection of the environment and wildlife, was added by the 42nd Amendment Act, 1976.

Retrieved from:

<http://en.wikisource.org/wiki/>

National objectives and directive Principles of State Policy

Chapter Seven

The Civil Service: Bureaucracy in a Parliamentary Democracy

In a Parliamentary Democracy, the Government will be run by the Ruling Party. However, it will be possible for the same political party to win the election all the time. This would mean that there is high possibility of different political parties running the government every after five years.

In this light, this chapter will discuss on the meaning, characteristics, significance and role of the Royal Civil Service Commission in the Parliamentary Democracy. This chapter will also illustrate the significance of civil service as the backbone of the administration. The discussion in this direction will provide a clear picture to the students about the place of civil service in a democratic society.

This chapter can be delivered in four lessons:

- Lesson one: Definition and Meaning of bureaucracy.
- Lesson two: Characteristics and role of bureaucracy.
- Lesson three: Significance of bureaucracy.
- Lesson four: Recruitment, classification and promotion to conclusion.

Learning Objectives for lesson one

At the end of the lesson the students will be able to:

- Define bureaucracy in their own words.

Teaching Learning Method

Think Pair Share.

Activity one (Knowledge, Comprehension and Analysis)

1. Form pairs and assign the task to each pair.
2. Instruct them to discuss and note down their points within a specified time.

Activity two (Knowledge, Comprehension and Analysis)

1. After the discussion is over, let the pairs present their task to the whole class.
2. The teacher can note all the relevant points on the board, without repeating the points.
3. The teacher can sum up the lesson by giving his or her relevant points.

Learning Objectives for lesson two

At the end of the lesson the students will be able to:

- Explain the characteristics of bureaucracy.
- Evaluate the role of bureaucracy in a democratic nation.

Teaching Learning Method

Brainstorming.

Activity one (Knowledge, Comprehension and Analysis)

1. Divide the class into groups consisting of three members each.
2. Instruct the members to read and discuss the assigned topic within the allotted time.
3. When this is over reduce the number of groups by regrouping two groups into one.
4. Make all the groups to discuss and debate about their task and discuss the invalid points.
5. After this session make them to present their task to the whole class for further brainstorming.
6. The teacher will note down the points and close the lesson in a fruitful manner.

Learning Objectives for lesson three

At the end of the lesson the students will be able to:

- Evaluate the significance of bureaucracy.

Teaching Learning Method

Debate.

Activity one (Knowledge, Comprehension and Analysis)

1. Divide the class into two groups and assign the topic for the debate using lucky dip.
2. The topic can be as follows:
 - a. Bureaucracy is the backbone of socio-economic development: for the motion.
 - b. Bureaucracy is a hindrance and obstacle for socio-economic development: against the motion.
3. The teacher can act as the chairperson and judge as well.
4. The teacher can moderate the debate and declare the result.

Learning Objectives for lesson four

At the end of the lesson the students will be able to:

- Describe how the civil servants are recruited into the civil service.
- Explain how the structure of the different posts are classified.
- Explain the promotion procedure of the civil servants.

Teaching Learning Method

Guest speaker.

Activity one

1. Invite the guest ahead of classroom teaching.
2. If agreed, provide him or her the following information:
 - Topic.
 - Level.
 - Time allocation.

Activity two

1. Receive the guest and escort him or her to the class.
2. The teacher can introduce the guest to the class and brief the students for inviting the guest.
3. Hand over the class to the guest.

Activity three (Knowledge and Comprehension)

1. After the guest has left the class, let students write about the following using the information provided by the guest speaker:
 - Recruitment
 - Classification
 - Promotion of civil servants.

OR

Try out with Co-operative learning Method to deliver this lesson.

Teaching Learning Method

Co-operative Learning

This chapter can be taught in four lessons.

Lesson one

Activity One (Knowledge and Comprehension)

1. Divide the class into five groups. This will form the home groups.
2. Reshuffle the home groups by grouping all the members having the same number. This will form the expert groups.
3. Assign the task to each group:
 - Group one: Introduction and definition of bureaucracy.
 - Group two: Characteristics of bureaucracy.
 - Group three: Role of bureaucracy.
 - Group four: Significance of bureaucracy.
 - Group five: Recruitment, classification and promotion.
4. Send the groups to library for research.

Lesson two

Activity Two (Knowledge and Comprehension)

1. Send back all the expert members to their respective home groups who will act as the resource persons.
2. The student will present his/her findings to the group.

Lesson three

Activity Three (Knowledge and Comprehension)

1. Continue the presentation.

Activity Four (Knowledge, Comprehension and Analysis)

1. Conduct the quiz for the class to check the understanding of the students about the lesson. The questions for the quiz should cover all the topics so as to be impartial and just for all groups.
2. The teacher can award points or prize to the winning group as a reward.

OR

Try out with Interview Method to teach the topic: Recruitment and Promotion.

Teaching Learning Method

Interview method.

Activity One

1. Divide the Class into two groups and assign the topic to each group.
 - Group one: Recruitment.
Form four sub-groups for different categories of recruitment.
 - Group two: Promotion.
Form three sub-groups for different types of promotion.

Activity Two (Knowledge and Comprehension)

1. After assigning the task, send the concerned groups for interview within the specified time. The interview can be done with the teachers.

Activity Three (Knowledge, Comprehension and Analysis)

1. Make the groups to present their findings to the class.
2. After each presentation there should be time for question-answer session for clarification.

Activity Four (Knowledge)

Sum up by the teacher.

Supplementary Information for Teachers

1. A brief history of bureaucracy

The Chinese, western royal courts, churches, and the Industrial Revolution have all shaped the history of bureaucracy.

In the government, academic, corporate and civil society worlds, buzz words change almost frequently enough for people to require a pocket dictionary that can be updated weekly. Despite any name put to it over the centuries, however, the primary instrument or tool of authority for the exercise of power continues to be “bureaucracy”.

The term, “bureaucracy”, basically means “rule by office.” It is derived from the French word “bureau”, meaning office or desk, and the Greek word “kratein”, meaning “to rule.” Given that, many cultures had bureaucracies of sorts in place long before the term entered common parlance.

Confucianism, which has permeated Chinese life for centuries, contains philosophic elements that in effect are preconditions for a bureaucratic regimen, notably two of the four guiding principles (dragons) – respect for education and compliance with authority. Early Chinese commerce, including the first money economy, tax collecting, military conscription, among other facets of Chinese daily life, were so thoroughly ordered by application of the Confucian tenets that successful invaders were assimilated into the Chinese culture and social structure. To be sure, there were some changes at the top of the social order but their effects did not have the strength to filter down through the ranks to the point they particularly impacted on daily life in the cities and villages. Sheer size of the country, both geographically and demographically, dictated that for the most part existing officialdom could not be replaced wholesale without great socio-economic upheaval.

In more modern times we have seen nearly the opposite of that process in the transformation of the trade labor union movement, a transformation driven, nevertheless, by the need to accommodate bureaucratic tenets. Unions began as individual locals dealing with local labor issues. However, because locals in themselves lacked the strength to negotiate with corporations operating nationally, the locals were compelled to affiliate nationally and, in effect, set up a parallel bureaucratic structure – like negotiating with like. The structure rapidly became more than the sum of its parts – it became an entity in its own right. The voice of individual locals was diminished as authority was transferred to or appropriated by the national body.

While today the term bureaucracy is most closely associated in the public mind with governments, ironically, even lobbyists against excessive government red tape and other perceived forms of bureaucratic bloat have had to bureaucratize their operations in order to function.

The American social scientist, C. Wright Mills, has argued that private bureaucratic development came before government. However, in Western cultures, monarchic and religious structures—governments of their day—could be viewed as bureaucratic, though much less complex than those today.

In place back then were hierarchies of offices, each with defined areas of responsibility, considered by Mills to be a criterion for a bureaucracy. Another key component described by Mills was also prominent – a structure to “regulate and service the properties of men, other than one’s own (property).”

The coming of the Industrial Revolution accelerated the development of bureaucracies, and, somewhat like Confucianism, Western religions tended to imbue this development with ethical justification.

The concept of people having a “calling” or specialization, according to sociologist Max Weber, provided worldly activity with a religious significance. One’s duty was to aspire to a calling and, once achieved, maintain it. That, on the religious side, was described in the Puritan view that “by their fruits ye shall know them,” a theme that in varying degrees still influences and strengthens the bureaucratic characteristics of being “rational, ordained (by authority), accountable, and bound by rules or laws.”

Trade guild structures of the time provided all of these elements and helped affirm acceptance of the bureaucratic virtue of standardization. Although today’s labor markets have changed since those days, many of the professions – medicine, accounting, law, engineering, among others—remain not only guided by regulation but in many cases the authority regulates the number of entrants into the field. The same holds true within academic institutional bureaucracies, notably the universities.

Standardization may appear to have broken down somewhat and there is much discussion of individuality and personal empowerment, but the uniformity of life and social good order is being supported by other rigid, no less bureaucratic measures. Political correctness could be regarded as one of these.

The process starts early in life for many. Consumer demand and career expectations are carefully nurtured. The teen and pre-teen marketplace and its uniformity of cultural goods on offer is an example. Even outrageous behavior, if it occurs within predetermined (by authority) parameters, is a part of the process.

As labor has become increasingly specialized and compartmentalized within bureaucratic structures expressive of organizational values, definitions and title have taken on significance often greater than the actual work they presumably describe. What these do serve to do is support increasing staff while simultaneously diffusing responsibility, in part explaining how bureaucracies, by task multi-layering, tend to expand. This expansion, in turn, then serves to distance the upper level of the hierarchy from the end users of whatever the organization's objects. The face of a corporation becomes a symbol. Logos are judged by market recognition testing but who would recognize the CEO or principal stock holder on a street corner?

In the high tech employment market, human resource experts tell us, there is no job security within an individual company. Workers, even CEO's, tend to change jobs every two or three years. But, if high tech is viewed as a bureaucracy in itself, of which the companies are individual parts, the uniformity of specialization across the industry gives constancy to a calling, especially given the prevailing view that continuing formal education is almost a cradle to grave value.

Specialization also serves another bureaucratic function. In the context of uniformity, e.g., like skilled and credentialed people working only with peers, there is an easy, almost seamless, flow of personnel from private sector to government – common in Japan; and from government to the private sector – common in the United States and other Western countries. For this process to work, clear professional identities are essential, and bureaucratic structures are the best suited to date to enable this to occur.

Retrieved from: <http://sdsd.essortment.com/historybureacurrouq.htm>

1. A Short History of Bureaucracy

Bureaucracy. Its effects may be as nettlesome as federal mandates that force consumers to buy more expensive washing machines and less effective flush toilets. Or they may be as far reaching as the future shape of Europe, as the European Union moves from a free-trade association to a political superstate. Whether they shape business, non-profit entities or governmental organizations from school boards to supra-national bodies like the United Nations, top-down, high-handed agendas are the major products of bureaucracy.

The word itself was coined by the mid-18th century devotee of laissez-faire, French Physiocrat Viscount Vincent de Gournay. Taken from the Latin burrus, a cloth used to cover

a writing desk or bureau, and the Greek word *kratein*, meaning “to rule,” bureaucracy in literal translation meant “government by desk.”

From the outset, “bureaucracy” had negative connotations; de Gournay called it *bureaumania*.

Retrieved from http://findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_km2926/is_200110/ai_n6933036

2. Definitions of Bureaucracy on the Web:

- An organisation typified by formal processes, standardisation, hierarchic procedures, and written communication.
www.booksites.net/download/chadwickbeech/Glossary.htm
- Literally: rule by the bureaus of appointed officials. Group of agencies marked by a clear hierarchy of authority in charge of implementing collective choices made through political institutions. Formal organizations that carry out policy through written rules and standardized procedures based on the specialization of duties and striving for the efficient attainment of organizational goals.
www.elissetche.org/dico/B.htm
- Is a system in which people are expected to follow precisely defined rules and procedures rather than to use personal judgement.
wps.prenhall.com/wps/media/objects/213/218150/glossary.html
- Government based on a specialized set of offices usually hierarchically organized.
oregonstate.edu/instruct/anth370/gloss.html
- The apparatus of administration in the armed forces, judiciary and other government organs and institutions. Early in the USSR, the conditions of underdevelopment and isolation contributed to the development of a privileged and parasitic bureaucracy which stifled the revolutionary initiative of the masses. Lenin said of the bureaucracy: “I hate it heartily. Not the individual bureaucrat, he may be a capable rascal. But I hate the system. It paralyzes and corrupts from above and below.” www.workers.org/marcy/perestroika/glossary.html

Retrieved from: http://www.google.com/search?hl=en&lr=&defl=en&q=define:Bureaucracy&sa=X&oi=glossary_definition&ct=title

3. Origin of the concept

Bureaucracy is a concept in sociology and political science referring to the way that the administrative execution and enforcement of legal rules are socially organized. This office organization is characterized by standardized procedure (rule-following), formal division of responsibility, hierarchy, and impersonal relationships.

Examples of everyday bureaucracies include governments, armed forces, corporations, hospitals, courts, ministries and schools.

Bureaucracy is derived from the word bureau, used from the early 18th century in Western Europe not just to refer to a writing desk, but to an office, i.e. a workplace, where officials worked. The original French meaning of the word bureau was the baize used to cover desks. The term bureaucracy came into use shortly before the French Revolution of 1789, and from there rapidly spread to other countries. The Greek suffix -kratia or kratos - means “power” or “rule”. Bureaucracy thus basically means office power or office rule, the rule of the officialdom.

In a letter of July 1, 1764, the French Baron de Grimm declared: “We are obsessed by the idea of regulation, and our Masters of Requests refuse to understand that there is an infinity of things in a great state with which a government should not concern itself.” Jean Claude Marie Vincent de Gournay sometimes used to say, “We have an illness in France which bids fair to play havoc with us; this illness is called bureaumania.” Sometimes he used to invent a fourth or fifth form of government under the heading of “bureaucracy”. In another letter of July 15, 1765 Baron Grimm wrote also, “The real spirit of the laws in France is that bureaucracy of which the late Monsieur de Gournay used to complain so greatly; here the offices, clerks, secretaries, inspectors and intendants are not appointed to benefit the public interest, indeed the public interest appears to have been established so that offices might exist.”

This quote refers to a traditional controversy about bureaucracy, namely the perversion of means and ends so that means become ends in themselves, and the greater good is lost sight of; as a corollary, the substitution of sectional interests for the general interest. The suggestion here is that, left uncontrolled, the bureaucracy will become increasingly self-serving and corrupt, rather than serving society.

However, bureaucracy existed long before words and theories were devised to describe it in detail. The Chinese Song dynasty (960 AD) for example constructed a centralized bureaucracy staffed with civilian scholar-officials. This system of rule led to a much greater concentration of power in the hands of the emperor and his palace bureaucracy than was achieved in previous dynasties. The first occurrence of this was in Ancient China, during the Wang dynasty in 380 BC.

Sources

1. On Karl Marx: Hal Draper, Karl Marx's Theory of Revolution, Volume 1: State and Bureaucracy. New York: Monthly Review Press, 1979.
2. Marx comments on the state bureaucracy in his Critique of Hegel's Philosophy of Right and Engels discusses the origins of the state here:
3. On Weber: Watson, Tony J. (1980). Sociology, Work and Industry. Routledge. ISBN 0-415-32165-4.

Retrieved from Bureaucracy <http://www.reference.com/browse/wiki/Bureaucracy>

4. Position Classification System

What is the Position Classification System?

The Position Classification System (PCS) is a process of grouping together positions that are sufficiently alike with respect to duties and responsibilities so they can be treated the same way for the purposes of all human resource actions.

Why are we moving from the Cadre System to the Position Classification System?

The Cadre System was introduced in 1989; 16 years on, it now requires to be strengthened to address some of the changes and emerging issues brought on by the rapid development of the country. The PCS is found to be an appropriate foundation towards promoting a merit-based and professional Civil Service that is dynamic, efficient and capable of meeting the changing needs of the public administration system.

Comparison between Cadre System & Position Classification system

CADRE SYSTEM	POSITION CLASSIFICATION SYSTEM
Promotions are awarded for years of service. No consideration is given to the competence required for the higher level position.	Promotions are need-based, focusing on performance, qualifications, experience and skills required to fulfil the higher level positions. Selection is through a fair, open and competitive process.
Qualifications are only recognised at the entry level.	Under the PCS, it is necessary to upgrade your qualifications in order to qualify for new positions. There is recognitions of qualifications at every level.
Civil servants upgraded on years of service in current position, not necessarily to shoulder higher responsibility, especially at the middle and lower levels.	Every position has only one grade. Up-gradation will be need-based entailing a new set of higher level duties that will be met through a merit-based, competitive selection process.
Cadre system does not call for development of comprehensive position descriptions.	Every civil service position will have both an approved generic and specific job disapproved specific description.
Grading decisions are inconsistent and do not consider other positions of comparable value.	Every position will be evaluated using the same objective system for position comparison across the civil service, and graded on the principle of 'equal pay for equal work'.
Civil Servants are not clear about the performance expected in relation to the position held.	The job description clearly states the purpose, duties and responsibilities of the position and is used for performance review and evaluation.
Training and development is not effectively planned as positions do not have clearly identified requirements in terms of knowledge, skills and abilities.	Training and development requirements are linked through the job description to the needs of the organizations concerned and planned according to need, not availability.
Civil Servants are not clear about the performance expected in relation to the position held.	The job description clearly states the purpose, duties and responsibilities of the position and is used for performance review and evaluation.
The cadre system does not promote open and transparent selection processes where all eligible civil servants can be considered for vacancies.	All vacant positions will be notified throughout the civil service enabling qualified and experienced candidates to apply.
The cadre system has limited scope for expansion with no contingency to accommodate new professions and positions.	The PCS is a dynamic system that is able to absorb new positions and occupational groups as and when they are created.

Principles

The PCS embodies the following key principles:

- Professionalism
- Meritocracy
- Efficiency
- Fairness
- Transparency
- Accountability