



POLITICAL SCIENCE (317)

CHAPTERWISE NOTES



POLITICAL SCIENCE

Sl. No.	Module	Chapters (Public Examination)	Marks
1	Module 1: Individual and the State	L-3: Distinction Between Society, Nation, State and Government L-4: Major Political Theories	14
2	Module 2: Aspects of the Constitution of India	L-6: Fundamental Rights L-7: Directive Principles of State Policy and Fundamental Duties L-8: Indian Federal System L-9: Emergency Provisions	15
4	Module 4: Democracy at Work	L-18: Electoral System in India L-19: National Political Parties L-20: Regionalism and Regional Parties L-21: Public Opinion and Pressure Group	12

Component	Details	Marks
Public Exam (Selected Modules 1,2,4,)	Total Chapters : 10	41
Practical Exam	NA	0
TMA	Tutor Marked Assignment	20
Final Possible Marks		61 Marks

TABLE OF CONTENTS

1	Distinction Between Society, Nation, State and Government
2	Major Political Theories
3	Fundamental Rights
4	Directive Principles of State Policy and Fundamental Duties
5	Indian Federal System
6	Emergency Provisions
7	Electoral System in India
8	National Political Parties
9	Regionalism and Regional Parties
10	Public Opinion and Pressure Group

1

DISTINCTION BETWEEN SOCIETY, NATION, STATE AND GOVERNMENT

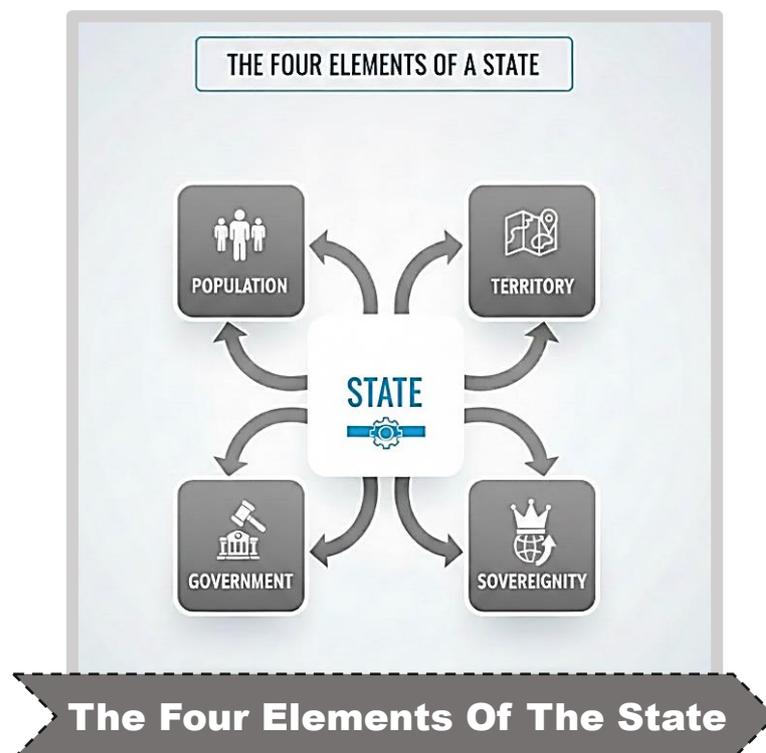
STATE AND SOCIETY

Both Society and the State hold significant importance in the evolution of human civilization. Although they are interconnected, there are major differences in -their identities, rules, and powers, which can be understood through the points outlined below.

DEFINITIONS:

Society: A large group of people living together, sharing customs, and relationships (family, friends, religion). It is very old.

State: A politically organized society with a government and laws. It has the power to punish.



KEY DIFFERENCES:

S.No	Basis	State	Society
1	Origin	A later development (Political structure).	Prior to the State (Started with man).
2	Territory	Fixed territory is essential.	No fixed territory; can be global.
3	Sovereignty	Possesses sovereignty (Power to punish).	No sovereignty; uses moral influence.
4	Organization	A political organization.	A social organization.
5	Rules	Functions through Laws.	Functions through Customs/Traditions.

STATE AND OTHER ASSOCIATIONS

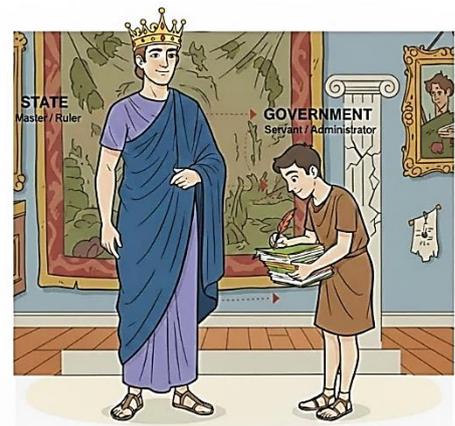
An association is an **organized group** of people who work together to **achieve common goals**. Association groups like: Cricket Club, Red Cross, Trade Unions, Religious groups, etc.

KEY DIFFERENCES:

S.No	Basis	State	Other Associations
1	Membership	Compulsory (Mandatory).	Voluntary (Optional).
2	Purpose	General Welfare (All-inclusive).	Specific Purpose (Limited).
3	Territory	Always limited to a fixed area.	Can be local, national, or international.
4	Sovereignty	Sovereign (Supreme power).	No sovereignty (Must follow State law).

STATE AND GOVERNMENT

State is the "**Master**", Government is the "**Servant**".



Key Differences:

<i>S.No</i>	<i>Basis</i>	<i>State</i>	<i>Government</i>
1	Elements	Consists of all 4 elements.	Only one element of the State.
2	Nature	Abstract concept (Invisible).	Concrete group (Visible).
3	Permanence	Permanent and stable.	Temporary (Changes with elections).
4	Sovereignty	Possesses original power.	Exercises power on behalf of State.
5	Territory	Has its own fixed boundary.	Has no territory of its own.

STATE AND NATION

State is "**Political**"; Nation is "**Emotional**".

NATION

A **nation** is a group of people who share a common history and culture and want to preserve it through their own political system or state.

Key Differences:

<i>S.No</i>	<i>Basis</i>	<i>State</i>	<i>Nation</i>
1	Nature	It is a Political concept.	It is a Cultural and Psychological body.
2	Sovereignty	Sovereignty is the chief characteristic. A state must be independent.	It does not need to be sovereign. It becomes a 'Nation-State' only after getting statehood.
3	Unity	Unity is External. It is imposed from above through laws.	Unity is Internal. It comes from within through emotions and sentiments.
4	Nature	A Political concept.	A Cultural concept.

- **State** = Population + Territory + Government + Sovereignty.
- **Government** = Only the agency that makes and enforces laws.



TOP 5 QUESTIONS

Q-1. Distinguish between State and Society. Give any five differences.

Answer- There are Five difference between State and Society are:

<i>S.No</i>	<i>Basis</i>	<i>State</i>	<i>Society</i>
1	Origin	A later development (Political structure).	Prior to the State (Started with man).
2	Territory	Fixed territory is essential.	No fixed territory; can be global.
3	Sovereignty	Possesses sovereignty (Power to punish).	No sovereignty; uses moral influence.
4	Organization	A political organization.	A social organization.
5	Rules	Functions through Laws.	Functions through Customs/Traditions.

Q-2. Explain the distinction between State and Other.

Answer- There are Five difference between State and Other Associations are:

<i>S.No</i>	<i>Basis</i>	<i>State</i>	<i>Other Associations</i>
1	Membership	Compulsory (Mandatory).	Voluntary (Optional).
2	Purpose	General Welfare (All-inclusive).	Specific Purpose (Limited).
3	Territory	Always limited to a fixed area.	Can be local, national, or international.
4	Sovereignty	Sovereign (Supreme power).	No sovereignty (Must follow State law).

Q-3. "State is a political association, but it is different from other associations." Explain this statement.

Answer- The State is a political association because it consists of an organized group of people. However, it is supreme and differs from other voluntary associations (like Unions or Clubs) in five key ways:



1. **Sovereignty:** State is supreme and sovereign; associations must obey state laws.
2. **Coercive Power:** Only the State can punish physically (jail/fines). Associations can only expel members.
3. **Membership:** State membership is compulsory (by birth); association membership is voluntary.
4. **Purpose:** State works for general welfare; associations serve specific interests.
5. **Territory:** State needs a fixed territory; associations do not.

Q-4 "State is permanent, Government is temporary." Explain.

Answer- This statement highlights a fundamental difference between the State and its agency.

1. State is Permanent: The State is a permanent institution. It continues to exist as long as it has its four elements: population, territory, government, and sovereignty. The State survives even if the ruler dies. For example, India has remained the same State since 1947.

2. Government is Temporary: The Government is short-lived. It is merely the machinery through which the State acts. Governments change frequently through elections (in democracies) or revolutions.

Conclusion: A change in government does not mean a change in the State. Governments come and go, but the State remains constant.

Q-5 Distinguish between State and Nation.

Answer- There are Five difference between State and Other Nation are:

<i>S.No</i>	<i>Basis</i>	<i>State</i>	<i>Nation</i>
1	Nature	It is a Political concept.	It is a Cultural and Psychological body.
2	Sovereignty	Sovereignty is the chief characteristic. A state must be independent.	It does not need to be sovereign. It becomes a 'Nation-State' only after getting statehood.
3	Unity	Unity is External. It is imposed from above through laws.	Unity is Internal. It comes from within through emotions and sentiments.
4	Nature	A Political concept.	A Cultural concept.



2

MAJOR POLITICAL THEORIES

INTRODUCTION

Major Political Theories explain how society should be organised and governed. This chapter discusses three major political ideologies:

1. Liberalism
2. Marxism
3. Gandhism

Liberalism and Marxism dominated the 20th century, while Gandhism emerged as a moral and practical alternative to both.

LIBERALISM

Liberalism is a political philosophy centered on Individual Liberty. It emerged as a challenge to absolute monarchy and traditional authority.



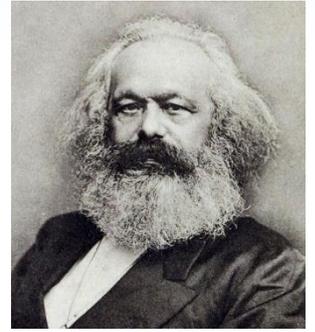
Key Features of Liberalism:

1. **Individual Liberty:** Every person has the right to freedom of thought, expression, and action.
2. **Individual-centred Theory:** The State and Society exist to serve the individual, not the other way around.
3. **Capitalistic Economy:** Supports a free-market economy, private property, and freedom of contract.
4. **Limited State:** The State is a "necessary evil." Its role is limited to maintaining law and order.
5. **Opposed to Traditions/Superstitions:** It rejects blind faith and relies on human reason and science.



MARXISM

Marxism is the philosophy of the working class, developed by Karl Marx. It aims to end the exploitation of workers in a capitalist system.

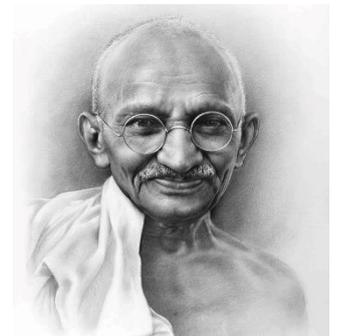


Basic Tenets (Core Principles):

- 1. Dialectical Materialism:** "Matter" (economy) is the ultimate reality. Change happens through the conflict of opposites.
- 2. Historical Materialism:** History is a series of stages (Feudalism → Capitalism → Socialism) defined by who owns the resources.
- 3. Theory of Surplus Value:** The profit taken by the owner is actually the "unpaid labor" stolen from the worker.
- 4. Class Struggle:** Society is divided into two warring classes: Bourgeoisie (Owners) vs. Proletariat (Workers).
- 5. Revolution:** Capitalism cannot be fixed; it must be overthrown by a violent workers' revolution.
- 6. Dictatorship of the Proletariat:** A temporary period where workers control the state to destroy capitalism.
- 7. Dictatorship of the Proletariat:** A temporary period where workers control the state to destroy capitalism.

GANDHISM

Gandhism is a moral and political philosophy based on Truth and Non-violence. It offers an alternative to Western civilization.



Critique of Western Civilization

- 1. Materialistic Nature:** Western civilization stresses material comfort, wealth, and industrial growth, while neglecting inner human and moral development.



2. Loss of Spiritual and Moral Values: Weakens spirituality and ethics, reducing life to physical and economic success.

3. Centralisation and Exploitation: Encourages centralized power and industries that exploit workers and concentrate wealth.

Theory of Trusteeship

1. Property Belongs to Society:
2. Capitalists as Trustees:
3. Profit for the Community:
4. Harmony between Labour and Capital:

Ends and Means

1. Ends and means are inseparable
2. Pure means lead to pure ends
3. Non-violence (Ahimsa) above Swaraj
4. Rejects the idea that ends justify means

Society and Sarvodaya

1. Equality of all human beings
2. No discrimination based on caste, class, gender, or race
3. Special concern for Dalits and weaker sections
4. **Sarvodaya** = Welfare of all (material + moral + spiritual)



TOP 5 QUESTIONS

Q-1. What do you mean by 'Liberalism'?

Answer- Liberalism is a **political philosophy** that considers the Individual as the center of the system. It advocates for individual liberty, a democratic government, rule of law, and a capitalist economy with limited state interference.

Q-2. What is the theory of 'Surplus Value'?

Answer- The theory of **surplus** value states that workers produce more value than they receive as wages. The extra value taken by capitalists as profit is called surplus value. It is the main source of exploitation in capitalism.

Q-3. What was Gandhiji's view on the 'State'?

Answer- Gandhiji described the State as a "Soulless Machine" because it is based on violence and force. He believed the State destroys individuality. His ideal society was Ramrajya, a stateless society where people are self-regulated.

Q-4. Discuss Dialectical Materialism as a key feature of Marxism.

Answer- Dialectical Materialism as a key feature of Marxism:

1. Dialectical Materialism explains social change through material and economic factors.
2. Society develops due to contradictions between relations of production and productive forces.
3. These contradictions create conflict, leading to revolutionary change.
4. As a result, a new and higher mode of production emerges, driving social progress.

Q-5. Compare Liberalism and Marxism as political ideologies.

Answer- Liberalism and Marxism are two major political ideologies that offer different explanations of society, state, economy, and individual freedom.



Basis	Liberalism	Marxism
Core Focus	Emphasizes individual liberty and personal freedom	Emphasizes class equality and collective welfare
Economic System	Supports capitalism and private property.	Opposes capitalism; supports socialism and communism
View of State	Advocates a limited, constitutional state	Regards the state as a class institution.
Social Change	Believes in gradual reforms	Supports revolutionary change through class struggle.
Class Perspective	Ideology of the capitalist class	Ideology of the working class.



3

FUNDAMENTAL RIGHTS

INTRODUCTION

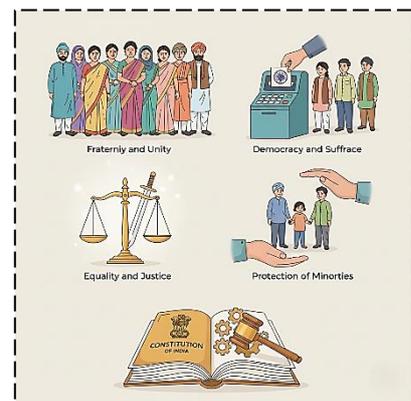
Fundamental Rights are the basic rights guaranteed by the Indian Constitution to protect freedom, equality and human dignity. These rights ensure justice and safeguard citizens against misuse of state power in a democracy.

MEANING OF FUNDAMENTAL RIGHTS

1. Fundamental Rights are basic rights guaranteed by the **Indian Constitution**.
2. They are mentioned in **Part III (Articles 14–32)**.
3. These rights ensure **physical, mental and moral development** of individuals.
4. They protect citizens from **arbitrary actions of the State**.
5. Fundamental Rights are **justiciable** (enforceable by courts).

IMPORTANCE OF FUNDAMENTAL RIGHTS

1. Protect human dignity and freedom.
2. Provide democratic legitimacy to government.
3. Ensure equality and justice.
4. Safeguard minorities.
5. Act as a check on government power.



NATURE OF FUNDAMENTAL RIGHTS

1. Not absolute; reasonable restrictions allowed.
2. Can be restricted in the interest of public order, morality, security, health.
3. Some rights are available to foreigners also.
4. Right to Property removed by 44th Amendment (1976).



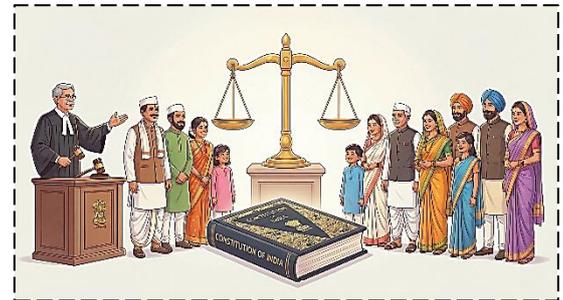
5. Presently, there are six Fundamental Rights.

RIGHT TO EQUALITY (ARTICLES 14–18)

Ensures equal status and opportunity to all citizens.

(i) Equality before Law

- No person is above law.
- Equal protection of laws for all.



(ii) No Discrimination

- No discrimination on grounds of **religion, race, caste, sex, place of birth**.
- State can make **special provisions** for women, SCs, STs and OBCs.

(iii) Equality of Opportunity in Public Employment

- No discrimination on grounds of **religion, race, caste, sex, place of birth**.
- State can make **special provisions** for women, SCs, STs and OBCs.

(iv) Abolition of Untouchability

- Untouchability abolished.
- Its practice is a **punishable offence**.

(v) Abolition of Titles

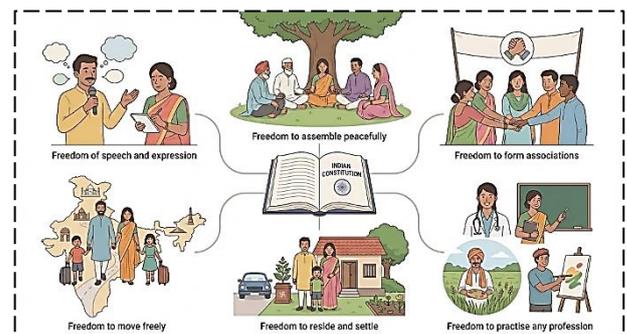
- Titles creating social inequality are abolished.
- Civil and military awards are allowed but not used as titles.

RIGHT TO FREEDOM (ARTICLES 19–22)

Ensures individual liberty.

(A) Six Fundamental Freedoms

1. Freedom of speech and expression
2. Freedom to assemble peacefully
3. Freedom to form associations



4. Freedom to move freely
5. Freedom to reside and settle
6. Freedom to practise any profession



These freedoms can be restricted during National Emergency.

(B) Protection in Respect of Conviction

1. No punishment without violation of law.
2. No double punishment for same offence.
3. No self-incrimination.

(C) Protection of Life and Personal Liberty

No person can be deprived of life or liberty except by procedure established by law.

(D) Safeguards against Arbitrary Arrest

1. Right to be informed of grounds of arrest.
2. Right to consult a lawyer.
3. Produced before magistrate within **24 hours**.
4. Not available in preventive detention cases.

(E) Right to Education (Article 21-A)

1. Added by **86th Amendment Act**.
2. Free and compulsory education for children **6–14 years**.
3. Responsibility of both **State and parents**.



RIGHT AGAINST EXPLOITATION (ARTICLES 23–24)

1. Prohibits **forced labour** and **human trafficking**.
2. Child labour below **14 years** in factories, mines and hazardous work is banned.
3. State may take compulsory service during **national emergencies**.



RIGHT TO FREEDOM OF RELIGION (ARTICLES 25–28)

1. Freedom of **conscience, practice and propagation** of religion.
2. Religious groups can manage their own affairs.
3. No religious instruction in institutions wholly funded by the State.
4. Restrictions allowed in interest of **public order, morality and health**.

CULTURAL AND EDUCATIONAL RIGHTS (ARTICLES 29–30)

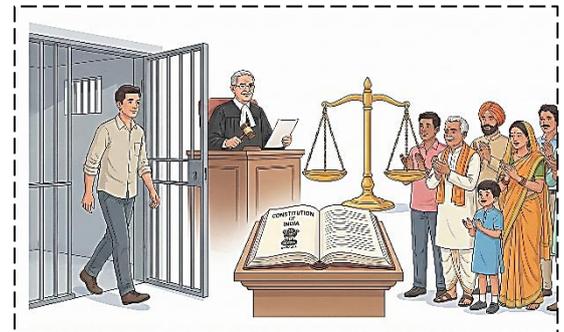
1. Protect **language, script and culture** of minorities.
2. Minorities can establish and manage educational institutions.
3. State shall not discriminate while giving financial aid.

RIGHT TO CONSTITUTIONAL REMEDIES (ARTICLE 32)

- Citizens can approach Supreme Court or High Courts.
- Called the “Soul of the Constitution” by Dr. B.R. Ambedkar.

TYPES OF WRITS:

1. **Habeas Corpus** – release from illegal detention
2. **Mandamus** – command to perform duty
3. **Prohibition** – stop lower court from excess jurisdiction
4. **Quo Warranto** – challenge illegal holding of office
5. **Certiorari** – transfer case to higher court



TOP 5 QUESTIONS

Q-1. Explain the importance of Fundamental Rights.

Answer- Fundamental Rights are essential for the democratic system of India.

1. They protect the **dignity, freedom and equality** of individuals.
2. They ensure **justice and fair treatment** to all citizens.
3. They act as a **check on the arbitrary power of the government**.
4. They safeguard the interests of **minorities**.
5. They provide **constitutional remedies** for the protection of rights.

Q-2. Describe the Right to Equality and its provisions.

Answer- The Right to Equality ensures equal status and opportunities to all citizens.

Its main provisions are:

1. **Equality before Law** – All persons are equal before law and enjoy equal protection of laws.
2. **No Discrimination** – No discrimination on grounds of religion, race, caste, sex or place of birth.
3. **Equality of Opportunity in Public Employment** – Equal opportunity in government jobs based on merit.
4. **Abolition of Untouchability** – Untouchability is abolished and its practice is punishable by law.
5. **Abolition of Titles** – Titles creating social inequality are abolished.

Q-3. Explain the Right to Freedom and six Fundamental Freedoms.

Answer- The Right to Freedom ensures the all-round development of individuals in a democracy.

Six Fundamental Freedoms are:

1. Freedom of speech and expression
2. Freedom to assemble peacefully without arms
3. Freedom to form associations or unions
4. Freedom to move freely throughout India
5. Freedom to reside and settle in any part of India



6. Freedom to practise any profession or occupation

Q-4. What is the Right to Constitutional Remedies? Explain different writs.

Answer- The Right to Constitutional Remedies allows citizens to approach the Supreme Court or High Courts for the enforcement of Fundamental Rights. Dr. B.R. Ambedkar called it the "Soul of the Constitution."

Types of Writs:

1. **Habeas Corpus** – Orders the release of a person illegally detained.
2. **Mandamus** – Orders a public authority to perform its duty.
3. **Prohibition** – Prevents a lower court from exceeding its jurisdiction.
4. **Quo Warranto** – Challenges a person holding a public office illegally.
5. **Certiorari** – Transfers a case from a lower court to a higher court.

These writs protect citizens' rights effectively.

Q-5. How does the Right to Freedom of Religion promote secularism in India?

Answer- The Right to Freedom of Religion helps in establishing secularism in India.

1. It guarantees **freedom of conscience** to all citizens.
2. People are free to **practice, profess and propagate** any religion.
3. The State does not favor or discriminate against any religion.
4. Religious groups can manage their own religious affairs.
5. Religious freedom is subject to **public order, morality and health**.

this right ensures religious harmony and strengthens secularism in India.



4

DIRECTIVE PRINCIPLES OF STATE POLICY AND FUNDAMENTAL DUTIES

INTRODUCTION

The Indian Constitution aims to establish not only political democracy but also social and economic justice. For this purpose, it provides Directive Principles of State Policy and Fundamental Duties. Together, they guide the State and citizens in building a welfare society.

MEANING OF DIRECTIVE PRINCIPLES OF STATE POLICY (DPSP)

1. Directive Principles are **guidelines and instructions** to the Centre and State governments.
2. They are mentioned in **Part IV** of the Constitution.
3. They are **non-justiciable**, but fundamental to governance.
4. Inspired by the **Irish Constitution**.
5. Aim to establish a **welfare state** and economic justice.



CLASSIFICATION OF DIRECTIVE PRINCIPLES

Directive Principles are classified into **four categories**:

(A) Economic and Social Principles

The State shall:

1. Provide adequate means of livelihood to men and women.
2. Prevent concentration of wealth in few hands.
3. Ensure equal pay for equal work.
4. Secure healthy working conditions and employment.
5. Protect children from exploitation.
6. Provide right to work, education and public assistance.



DPSP AND SOCIAL ISSUES

(A) Universalisation of Education

1. Education is essential for socio-economic justice.
2. National Literacy Mission and Operation Blackboard were launched.
3. Right to Education (Article 21-A) added by 86th Amendment Act, 2002.
4. Free and compulsory education for children 6–14 years.

(B) Child Labour

1. Employment of children below **14 years** in hazardous work is prohibited.
2. Poverty and social attitude are major causes.
3. Elimination of child labour is necessary for a developed India.

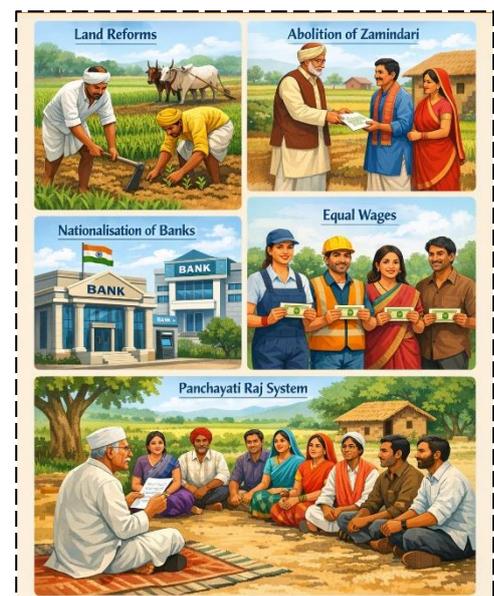
(C) Status of Women

1. Indian society has been male-dominated.
2. Constitution provides equal pay, livelihood, maternity relief.
3. Laws enacted against dowry, sati, child marriage and female foeticide.
4. 73rd and 74th Amendments provide reservation for women in local bodies.

CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF DIRECTIVE PRINCIPLES

1. Critics call DPSPs "**pious declarations**".
2. They are non-justiciable and depend on government will.
3. Still, they guide policy-making.
4. Many DPSPs implemented successfully, such as:

- Land reforms
- Abolition of zamindari
- Nationalisation of banks
- Equal wages
- Panchayati Raj system



Thus, DPSPs are essential for a **welfare state**.

DISTINCTION BETWEEN FUNDAMENTAL RIGHTS AND DPSP

Fundamental Rights	Directive Principles
Justiciable	Non-justiciable
Negative in nature	Positive in nature
Political democracy	Social & economic democracy
Enforceable by courts	Moral obligation

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FUNDAMENTAL RIGHTS AND DPSP

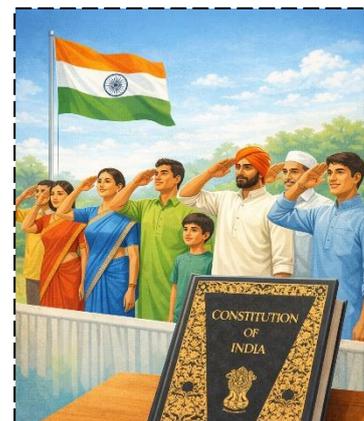
1. They are **complementary and supplementary**.
2. Fundamental Rights ensure political democracy.
3. DPSPs ensure socio-economic democracy.
4. Together, they form the **core of the Constitution**.

FUNDAMENTAL DUTIES (ARTICLE 51-A)

1. Added by **42nd Amendment Act, 1976**.
2. Originally **10 duties**, later **11th duty** added by **86th Amendment Act, 2002**.

Important Duties include:

1. Respect the Constitution, Flag and National Anthem.
2. Promote unity and integrity of India.
3. Protect environment and wildlife.
4. Promote harmony and dignity of women.
5. Provide education to children (6–14 years).



Nature of Fundamental Duties

1. Non-justiciable.
2. Act as a moral code of conduct.
3. Help in building responsible citizenship.



TOP 5 QUESTIONS

Q-1. Explain the meaning and significance of Directive Principles of State Policy.

Answer- Directive Principles of State Policy are guidelines given to the government to establish social and economic justice. Though non-justiciable, they are fundamental to governance and help in building a welfare state.

Q-2. Describe the classification of Directive Principles of State Policy.

Answer- Directive Principles are classified into four categories:

- (i) Economic and Social Principles
- (ii) Gandhian Principles
- (iii) Principles related to International Peace
- (iv) Miscellaneous Principles

These categories guide the State in different areas of governance.

Q-3. Examine the role of Directive Principles in promoting education, child welfare and status of women.

Answer- Directive Principles emphasise universal education, abolition of child labour and improvement of women's status. Right to Education, laws against child labour and reservation for women reflect their implementation.

Q-4. Distinguish between Fundamental Rights and Directive Principles of State Policy.

Answer- Fundamental Rights are justiciable and ensure political democracy, while Directive Principles are non-justiciable and aim at social and economic democracy. Both are essential and complementary.

Q-5. Explain the importance of Fundamental Duties.

Answer- Fundamental Duties promote discipline, unity, environmental protection and respect for the Constitution. Though non-justiciable, they create responsible citizens and strengthen democracy.



5

INDIAN FEDERAL SYSTEM

INTRODUCTION

The Indian Constitution has adopted a federal system to maintain unity while respecting diversity. It divides powers between the Centre and the States to ensure effective governance. At the same time, it establishes a strong Centre to protect national unity and integrity.

MEANING OF FEDERALISM

- Federalism means **division of powers** between the Centre and the States.
- Both levels of government function **independently within their spheres**.
- It helps in achieving **unity in diversity** and common national goals.

FEATURES OF INDIAN FEDERALISM

(i) Written Constitution

- The Indian Constitution is written and elaborate.
- It defines powers of both the Union and the States.
- Establishes supremacy of the Constitution.

(ii) Rigid Constitution

- Some amendments need **special majority in Parliament**.
- Certain amendments also require approval of **at least 50% States**.
- Hence, the Constitution is **rigid** in nature.

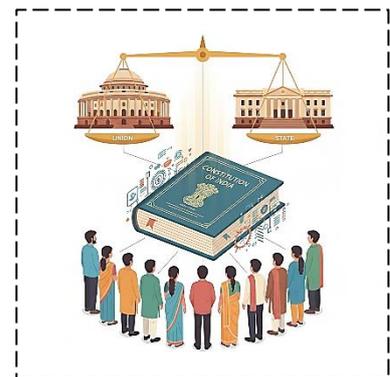
(iii) Division of Powers

- **Powers divided into three lists:**

1. **Union List (97 subjects)** – Defence, Railways, Post & Telegraph

2. **State List (66 subjects)** – Police, Public Health, Trade

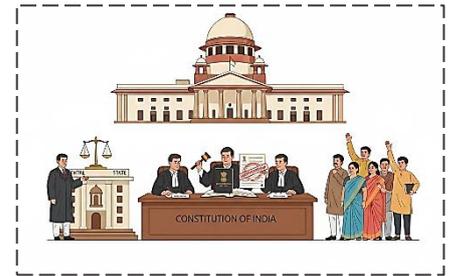
3. **Concurrent List (47 subjects)** – Electricity, Trade Unions



- In case of conflict, Union law prevails.

(iv) Supremacy of Judiciary

- Independent judiciary interprets the Constitution.
- Supreme Court settles disputes between Centre and States.
- It can declare laws unconstitutional.



NATURE OF INDIAN FEDERATION

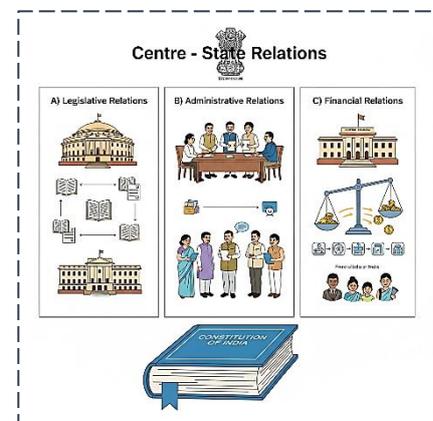
1. Article 1 describes India as a **“Union of States”**.
2. States have **no right to secede** from the Union.
3. Single Constitution, **single citizenship**, and **single judiciary** exist.
4. Governors are appointed by the **Centre**.
5. States have **unequal representation** in Rajya Sabha.

Therefore, India is federal in form but unitary in spirit. It is also called a quasi-federal or semi-federal system.

CENTRE–STATE RELATIONS

(A) Legislative Relations

- Parliament legislates on Union List.
- States legislate on State List.
- Both can legislate on Concurrent List.
- Parliament can legislate on State subjects during Emergency or President’s Rule.



(B) Administrative Relations

- States must ensure compliance with Union laws.
- Union can issue directions to States.
- All India Services (**IAS, IPS**) are under Union control.
- Centre can deploy **Central Forces** in States.



(C) Financial Relations

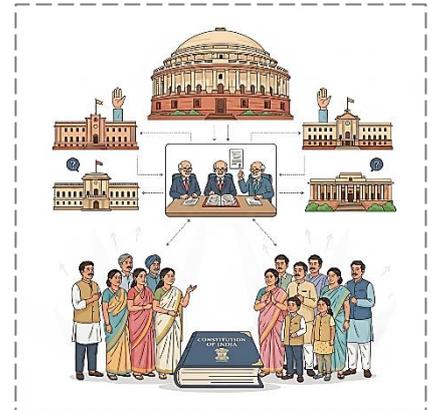
- Centre and States have **separate sources of revenue**.
- Centre controls major taxes and gives **grants-in-aid** to States.
- During **Financial Emergency**, Centre controls State finances.
- States depend heavily on the Centre financially.

DEMAND FOR GREATER AUTONOMY

1. States demand greater autonomy due to strong Centre.
2. Sarkaria Commission was set up to improve Centre–State relations.

3. It recommended:

- Cooperative federalism
- Permanent **Inter-State Council**
- More financial resources to States
- Mutual consultation between Centre and States



TOP 5 QUESTIONS

Q-1. Explain the main features of Indian Federalism.

Answer- The main features of Indian Federalism are:

1. Written and rigid Constitution
2. Division of powers between Centre and States
3. Supremacy of the Constitution
4. Independent judiciary

These features ensure coordination while maintaining unity in diversity.

Q-2. Explain why India is called federal in form but unitary in spirit.

Answer- India has federal features like division of powers and an independent judiciary. However, it has unitary features such as a strong Centre, single citizenship, single Constitution and emergency powers. Therefore, India is federal in form but unitary in spirit.

Q-3. Describe the legislative relations between the Centre and the States.

Answer- Legislative powers are divided into Union, State and Concurrent Lists. Parliament makes laws on Union List, States on State List and both on Concurrent List. In case of conflict, Union law prevails. Parliament can legislate on State subjects during emergencies.

Q-4. Explain the financial relations between the Centre and the States.

Answer- Both Centre and States have separate sources of income, but major taxes are controlled by the Centre. States depend on the Centre for grants-in-aid. During Financial Emergency, the Centre controls State finances, making it financially stronger.

Q-5. What is the Sarkaria Commission? Mention its recommendations.

Answer- The Sarkaria Commission was appointed to improve Centre–State relations. It recommended cooperative federalism, establishment of Inter-State Council, more financial autonomy to States and resolving disputes through mutual consultation



6

EMERGENCY PROVISIONS

INTRODUCTION

The Constitution of India provides special emergency provisions to protect the security, integrity and stability of the nation. During extraordinary situations, these provisions empower the Union Government to assume greater authority for effective governance.

MEANING OF EMERGENCY PROVISIONS

1. Emergency provisions deal with **extraordinary or abnormal situations**.
2. They enable the **President and Union Government** to take special powers.
3. During emergencies, the **federal system becomes unitary in nature**.
4. These provisions are meant to protect **national unity and constitutional order**.

TYPES OF EMERGENCIES IN INDIA

The Constitution provides three types of emergencies:

1. **National Emergency** – Article 352
2. **President's Rule (State Emergency)** – Article 356
3. **Financial Emergency** – Article 360

NATIONAL EMERGENCY (ARTICLE 352)

(A) Grounds for Proclamation

National Emergency can be declared when the security of India is threatened by:

- War
- External aggression
- Armed rebellion

President can declare it **only on written advice of the Union Cabinet** (44th Amendment).



(B) Parliamentary Approval

- Must be approved by **both Houses of Parliament within one month.**
- Requires **absolute majority + 2/3 majority of members present and voting.**
- Valid for **six months at a time**, but can be extended.

(C) Effects of National Emergency

- Federal system changes into **unitary system.**
- Parliament can legislate on **State List subjects.**
- President can issue directions to States.
- Tenure of Lok Sabha and State Assemblies can be extended.
- **Fundamental Rights under Article 19 are suspended.**
- Union Government gets control over **financial distribution.**

(D) National Emergencies in India

- **1962** - China attack
- **1971** - India–Pakistan war
- **1975** - Internal disturbances

EMERGENCY DUE TO FAILURE OF CONSTITUTIONAL MACHINERY (ARTICLE 356)

(A) Meaning

- Declared when a State government cannot be carried on according to the Constitution.
- Commonly known as **President's Rule.**
- Proclaimed on the **report of the Governor.**

(B) Duration

- Must be approved by Parliament within two months.
- Valid for six months at a time.
- Can be extended up to one year (with conditions).

(C) Effects of President's Rule

1. President assumes powers of the State Government.
2. State Legislative Assembly may be **dissolved or suspended.**



3. Parliament makes laws for the State.

4. Often criticised for **misuse on political grounds**.

- **Sarkaria Commission** recommended its use only as a **last resort**.
- **Bommai Case**: Assembly should not be dissolved before Parliamentary approval.

FINANCIAL EMERGENCY (ARTICLE 360)

(A) Meaning

- Declared when financial stability or credit of India is threatened.
- Must be approved by Parliament within two months.
- Continues as long as the situation demands.

(B) Effects of Financial Emergency

1. Union Government can give financial directions to States.
 2. Salaries and allowances of government employees, including judges, can be reduced.
 3. Money Bills of States may be reserved for Parliament's consideration.
- **Financial Emergency has never been declared in India so far.**



TOP 5 QUESTIONS

Q-1. What are Emergency Provisions? Why are they necessary?

Answer- Emergency provisions are special constitutional measures to deal with abnormal situations threatening national security and stability. They are necessary to protect unity, integrity and effective functioning of the government during crises.

Q-2. Explain the proclamation and effects of National Emergency.

Answer- National Emergency is proclaimed under Article 352 due to war, external aggression or armed rebellion. It converts the federal system into a unitary one, suspends Article 19 rights, increases Centre's powers and allows Parliament to legislate on State subjects.

Q-3. Under what circumstances is President's Rule imposed in a State?

Answer- President's Rule is imposed under Article 356 when a State government cannot function according to the Constitution. It is declared on the Governor's report and leads to suspension or dissolution of the State Assembly.

Q-4. Why has Article 356 been criticised?

Answer- Article 356 has been criticised due to its misuse for political purposes. Many State governments were dismissed without genuine constitutional breakdown. Hence, it is recommended to be used only as a last resort.

Q-5. Explain Financial Emergency and its effects.

Answer- Financial Emergency is declared under Article 360 when the financial stability of India is threatened. It allows the Centre to control State finances, reduce salaries of government employees and supervise State money bills. It has never been imposed in India.



7

ELECTORAL SYSTEM IN INDIA

INTRODUCTION

Elections are the foundation of democracy as they enable citizens to choose their representatives. India follows a democratic electoral system based on universal adult franchise to ensure free, fair and regular elections at different levels of government.

MEANING OF ELECTORAL SYSTEM

1. Electoral system refers to the **process by which representatives are elected**.
2. It includes rules, procedures and machinery for elections.
3. Elections in India are based on **Universal Adult Franchise**.
4. All citizens **18 years and above** have the right to vote without discrimination.

ELECTION COMMISSION OF INDIA

(A) Composition

1. A constitutional body.
2. Consists of:
 - **Chief Election Commissioner**
 - Other Election Commissioners
3. Appointed by the President of India.
4. It is a multi-member body since 1989.



(B) Tenure and Removal

1. Tenure: **6 years or till 65 years**, whichever is earlier.



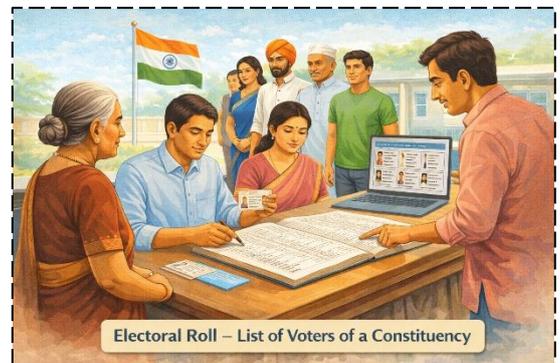
2. Chief Election Commissioner can be removed like a **Supreme Court judge**.
3. Other Election Commissioners can be removed on the recommendation of the CEC.

POWERS AND FUNCTIONS OF ELECTION COMMISSION

- Conducts free and fair elections.
- Delimitation of constituencies.
- Preparation and revision of electoral rolls.
- Recognition of national and state political parties.
- Allotment of election symbols.
- Appointment of election officials.
- Enforcement of Model Code of Conduct.

ELECTORAL ROLLS

1. Electoral roll is the **list of voters** of a constituency.
2. Prepared and revised by the Election Commission.
3. A voter must:
 - Be a citizen of India
 - Be **18 years of age**
 - Be a resident of the constituency



ELECTORAL PROCESS IN INDIA

Main Stages:

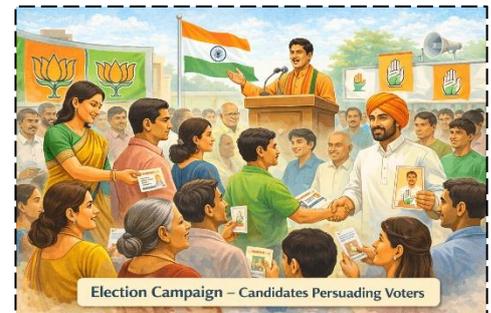
1. Notification of Election
2. Filing of Nominations



3. Security Deposit
4. Scrutiny of Nominations
5. Withdrawal of Candidature
6. Election Campaign
7. Polling
8. Counting of Votes
9. Declaration of Result

ELECTION CAMPAIGN

1. Candidates try to **persuade voters**.
2. Campaigning stops **48 hours before polling**.
3. Free access to **AIR and Doordarshan** for recognised parties.
4. Must follow **Model Code of Conduct**.



POLLING AND COUNTING

- Voting is done by **secret ballot**.
- Conducted at polling booths under Presiding Officer.
- Votes are counted under the supervision of the Returning Officer.
- Candidate with **maximum votes** is declared elected.

ELECTRONIC VOTING MACHINES (EVMS)

- Introduced to ensure **free and fair elections**.
- One EVM can accommodate **up to 16 candidates**.
- Reduces rigging, booth capturing and counting errors.



- Makes counting **faster and more reliable**.

SHORTCOMINGS OF INDIAN ELECTORAL SYSTEM

- **Money power**
- **Muscle power and criminalisation of politics**
- Role of **caste and religion**
- **Misuse of government machinery**
- Violence and bogus voting reduce public faith.

ELECTORAL REFORMS

- Voting age reduced from **21 to 18 years**.
- Introduction of **Photo Identity Cards**.
- Use of **Electronic Voting Machines**.
- Increase in **security deposit** to discourage non-serious candidates.
- Strict monitoring of election expenses.



TOP 5 QUESTIONS

Q-1. What is the role of the Election Commission of India?

Answer- The Election Commission of India conducts free and fair elections. It prepares electoral rolls, recognises political parties, allots symbols, appoints election officers and enforces the Model Code of Conduct.

Q-2. Explain the main stages of the electoral process in India.

Answer- The electoral process includes notification, filing and scrutiny of nominations, withdrawal, election campaign, polling, counting of votes and declaration of results. Each stage is supervised by the Election Commission.

Q-3. What are the main shortcomings of the Indian electoral system?

Answer- Major shortcomings include use of money and muscle power, caste and religion in politics, criminalisation of politics and misuse of government machinery, which affect the fairness of elections.

Q-4. Explain the importance of Electronic Voting Machines.

Answer- Electronic Voting Machines reduce rigging and bogus voting, ensure secrecy of vote, speed up counting and increase transparency. They have strengthened the credibility of elections in India.

Q-5. What electoral reforms have been introduced in India?

Answer- Important reforms include lowering of voting age to 18 years, introduction of voter ID cards, use of EVMs, increase in security deposit and strict control over election expenses.



8

NATIONAL POLITICAL PARTIES

INTRODUCTION

Political parties are essential for the working of a democratic system. They act as a link between the people and the government, help in political participation and provide choices to the voters. A strong party system is necessary for the success of democracy in India.

MEANING OF POLITICAL PARTY

1. A political party is an **organised group of people**.
2. Members share **common principles, ideology and goals**.
3. The main aim of a political party is to **acquire and retain political power**.
4. Political parties contest elections and form governments.

ROLE AND IMPORTANCE OF POLITICAL PARTIES

Political parties play an important role in a democracy:

1. Provide a **link between citizens and the government**.
2. Help in **formation of government**.
3. Offer **alternative policies and programmes**.
4. Educate citizens politically.
5. Act as a **watchdog** by criticising government policies.
6. Represent public opinion and social interests.



ESSENTIAL FEATURES OF A POLITICAL PARTY

A political party should have:



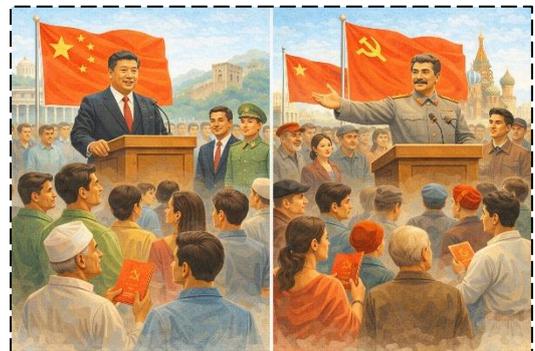
1. An **organised structure** with formal membership.
2. Clearly defined **policies and programmes**.
3. A common **ideology** accepted by members.
4. The aim to gain power through **democratic means**.
5. A **clear and accepted leadership**.
6. Focus on **major national and social issues**.

TYPES OF PARTY SYSTEM

Different countries follow different party systems:

(A) One-Party System

- Only one political party exists or dominates.
- Example: **China**, erstwhile **Soviet Union**.



(B) Two-Party System

- Two major parties dominate politics.
- Example: **USA** (Republican & Democratic), **UK** (Conservative & Labour).

(C) Multi-Party System

- Several political parties compete for power.
- Example: **India, France, Germany, Japan**.

India follows a **multi-party system**.

EVOLUTION OF PARTY SYSTEM IN INDIA

(A) One-Party Dominance (1952–1967)

- Indian National Congress dominated Centre and States.



- Only exception: **Kerala (1956–59)**.

(B) Emergence of Multi-Party System (1967–1975)

- Congress defeated in several States in 1967 elections.
- Coalition governments formed.
- Congress split into **Congress (O)** and **Congress (N)**.

(C) Emergency Period (1975–1977)

- Known as the **authoritarian phase** of Indian democracy.
- Political freedoms were curtailed.

(D) Coalition Politics (1977 onwards)

- Congress defeated in 1977 by **Janata Party**.
- Since 1989, no single party has formed government alone.
- Coalition governments like **NDA** and **UPA** came into power.

NATIONAL AND REGIONAL PARTIES

(A) National Parties

1. Have influence across the country.
2. Recognised by the Election Commission.
3. A party securing **at least 4% valid votes in four states** is recognised as a national party.
4. **Major national parties** : Indian National Congress, Bharatiya Janata Party (BJP), Communist Party of India (CPI), Communist Party of India (Marxist) – CPI(M), Bahujan Samaj Party (BSP)



(B) Regional Parties

1. Operate mainly in specific states or regions.



2. Represent regional interests and issues.

Examples: DMK & AIADMK (Tamil Nadu), Akali Dal (Punjab), National Conference (Jammu & Kashmir), Shiv Sena (Maharashtra)

MAJOR NATIONAL POLITICAL PARTIES IN INDIA

(A) Indian National Congress (INC)

1. Founded in **1885**; first President: **W.C. Bonnerjee**.
2. Became a mass-based party under **Mahatma Gandhi**.
3. Played a major role in the **freedom struggle**.
4. Dominated Indian politics in the early decades after independence.
5. Led India during the **Nehru era** and several later periods.



(B) Bharatiya Janata Party (BJP)

1. Formed in **1980**.
2. Strong support base in Hindi belt, **Gujarat and Maharashtra**.
3. Gradual rise in Lok Sabha seats since **1989**.
4. Led the National Democratic Alliance (NDA) government.



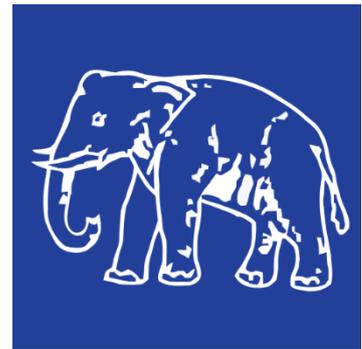
(C) Communist Parties (CPI & CPI-M)

1. Communist movement started in 1920s; CPI **founded in 1925**.
2. Believe in economic equality and classless society.
3. CPI formed the first communist government in **Kerala (1957)**.
4. CPI split in 1964 leading to formation of CPI(M).
5. Strong base in **Kerala, West Bengal and Tripura**.



(D) Bahujan Samaj Party (BSP)

1. Became a national party in **1996**.
2. Represents lower castes, deprived sections and minorities.
3. Strong influence in **Uttar Pradesh**.
4. Aims to free **Bahujan Samaj** from social exploitation.

**IMPORTANCE OF NATIONAL PARTIES IN INDIA**

1. Strengthen democratic system.
2. Provide stable leadership.
3. Form governments at the Centre.
4. Represent national interests.
5. Ensure political participation of diverse social groups.



TOP 5 QUESTIONS

Q-1. What is a political party? Describe its essential features.

Answer- A political party is an organised group of people sharing common ideology and goals, aiming to acquire political power through democratic means. Its features include organised structure, clear policies, common ideology, leadership and focus on national issues.

Q-2. Explain the role of political parties in a democracy.

Answer- Political parties link citizens with the government, contest elections, form governments, educate voters, present alternative policies and act as watchdogs by criticising government actions.

Q-3. Describe the evolution of the party system in India.

Answer- India initially experienced one-party dominance under Congress (1952–1967), followed by the emergence of a multi-party system, the Emergency period (1975–77), and finally coalition politics since 1989.

Q-4. Distinguish between national parties and regional parties.

Answer- National parties have influence across the country and are recognised by the Election Commission, while regional parties operate mainly in specific states or regions and focus on local issues.

Q-5. Describe any two major national political parties of India.

Answer- The Indian National Congress played a major role in the freedom struggle and dominated early Indian politics. The Bharatiya Janata Party, formed in 1980, emerged as a strong national party and led coalition governments at the Centre.



9

REGIONALISM AND REGIONAL PARTIES

INTRODUCTION

Regionalism and regional parties are important features of Indian democracy. While regionalism reflects people's attachment to their region, regional parties represent regional interests in politics. Together, they have significantly influenced both state and national politics in India.

MEANING OF REGIONALISM

1. Regionalism means strong attachment to a particular region or state rather than the nation as a whole.
2. It has **two meanings**:
 - **Positive sense**: Love for one's region, culture and language.
 - **Negative sense**: Excessive regional loyalty threatening national unity.
3. In India, regionalism is mostly used in the **negative sense**.

CAUSES OF REGIONALISM

Regionalism develops due to several factors:

1. **Neglect of certain regions** by the central or state governments.
2. **Political awareness** among backward or neglected regions.
3. **Cultural and linguistic differences**.
4. **Economic imbalance** and uneven development.
5. **Role of local political leaders** who encourage regional feelings for power.



FORMS OF REGIONALISM IN INDIA

Regionalism in India appears in different forms:

(A) Demand for State Autonomy

1. States demand greater autonomy from the Centre.
2. Caused by excessive central interference.
3. Also seen within states by sub-regions.

(B) Secession from the Union

1. Most dangerous form of regionalism.
2. Demand for **separate nation or state**.
3. Threatens the unity and integrity of India.

(C) Inter-State Issues

1. River water disputes.
2. Language and job reservation issues.
3. Migration from backward to developed states.



DEVELOPMENT OF REGIONALISM IN INDIA

1. Regionalism existed even during **British rule**, encouraged to weaken nationalism.

2. After independence, leaders tried to promote national unity through:

- Single citizenship
- Unified judiciary
- Strong central government

3. Despite this, regionalism grew due to:



- Linguistic reorganisation of states
- Rise of regional parties like **DMK in Tamil Nadu**
- Role of Congress and regional leaders (1947–1967).

CAUSES FOR GROWTH OF REGIONALISM

Major reasons include:

1. Imposition of language or culture by the Centre.
2. Continuous neglect of backward regions.
3. Demand for greater autonomy and self-government.
4. Desire of regional elites to **capture political power**.
5. Impact of modernisation and mass political participation.
6. Awareness among people of discrimination and inequality.



MEANING OF REGIONAL PARTIES

- A regional party operates within a **limited geographical area**.
- It focuses on **regional issues and interests**.
- It aims to form government at the **state level**, not the Centre.
- Regional parties are **more numerous than national parties** in India.

ROLE OF REGIONAL PARTIES

Regional parties have played a significant role in Indian politics:

- Formed governments in many states (e.g., Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh, Assam).
- Played an important role in **coalition politics** at the Centre.
- Highlighted regional problems in Parliament.



- Increased political awareness in remote and backward areas.
- Forced national parties to address regional issues seriously.

Thus, regional parties have influenced both **regional and national politics**.

MEASURES TO REDUCE REGIONALISM

To reduce harmful regionalism:

- Promote **balanced regional development**.
- Reduce unnecessary interference by the Centre.
- Solve regional problems peacefully and constitutionally.
- Strengthen **co-operative federalism**.
- Improve Centre–State relations.
- Promote national education and national integration.



TOP 5 QUESTIONS

Q-1. What is regionalism? Why is it considered dangerous?

Answer- Regionalism means strong attachment to one's region rather than the nation. It becomes dangerous when it promotes secession, weakens national unity and threatens the integrity of the country.

Q-2. Discuss the different forms of regionalism in India.

Answer- Regionalism in India appears in forms such as demand for greater state autonomy, secession from the Union, inter-state disputes over water and language, and hostility towards migrants from other states.

Q-3. Explain the causes for the growth of regionalism in India.

Answer- Regionalism has grown due to uneven development, neglect of backward regions, cultural and linguistic differences, desire of regional leaders for power, and increased political awareness among the masses.

Q-4. What are regional parties? Explain their role in Indian politics.

Answer- Regional parties operate in limited areas and focus on regional interests. They have formed state governments, influenced coalition politics at the Centre, raised regional issues and strengthened political awareness among people.

Q-5. Suggest measures to reduce the negative effects of regionalism.

Answer- Negative regionalism can be reduced by balanced regional development, improving Centre-State relations, avoiding unnecessary central interference, solving issues constitutionally and promoting national integration through education.



10

PUBLIC OPINION AND PRESSURE GROUP

INTRODUCTION

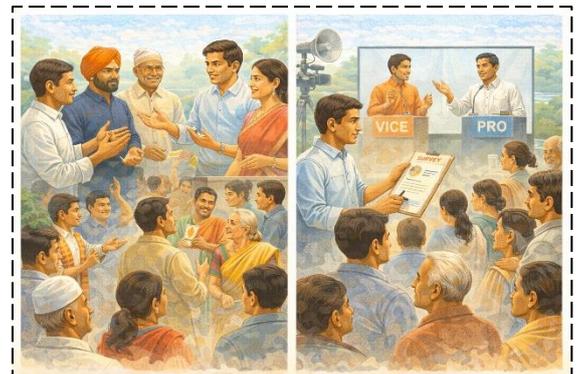
Public opinion and pressure groups play a vital role in a democratic system. They influence government policies, keep the rulers alert and ensure that governance reflects the views and interests of the people. No democratic government can afford to ignore them.

MEANING OF PUBLIC OPINION

1. Public opinion means the **organised and considered views** of a section of society on public issues.
2. There is **no single public**; different groups have different opinions.
3. It is **not the opinion of all people**, nor of experts or individuals.
4. Public opinion reflects **diversity of views**.
5. It is dynamic and **changes with time, situation and information**.

CHARACTERISTICS OF PUBLIC OPINION

1. It is not **unanimous**, but shows general agreement.
2. It is **logical and considered**, not emotional.
3. It reflects **plurality and diversity** of opinions.
4. It is not **confined** to a fixed area.
5. It ensures **democratic communication** between people and government.



SIGNIFICANCE AND ROLE OF PUBLIC OPINION

Public opinion is essential for democracy:

1. **Guide to the Government:** Helps in policy formulation and decision-making.



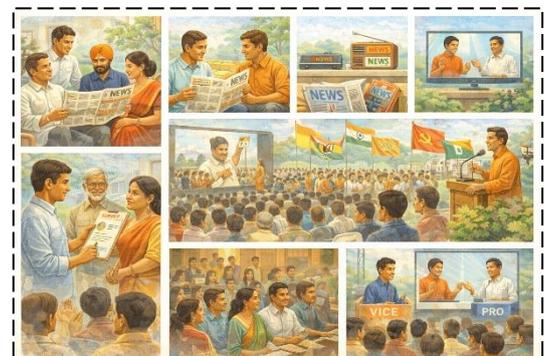
2. **Helps in Law Making:** Laws are framed according to people's needs and views.
3. **Acts as a Watchdog:** Keeps a check on arbitrary actions of the government.
4. **Protects Rights and Liberties:** Encourages citizens to criticise or support the government freely.
5. **Influences International Relations:** Governments are conscious of national and international public opinion.

FORMATION OF PUBLIC OPINION

Public opinion is formed through formal and informal processes.

Major Agencies of Public Opinion:

- **Political Socialisation** (family, peer groups, society)
- **Press (Print Media)** - newspapers, journals, magazines
- **Radio and Television** - audio-visual media
- **Cinema** - films and documentaries
- **Public Meetings** - rallies, seminars, conferences
- **Political Parties** - manifestoes, campaigns
- **Opinion Polls** - surveys of public attitude
- **Educational Institutions** - schools, colleges, debates



HINDRANCES IN THE FORMATION OF SOUND PUBLIC OPINION

Sound public opinion is affected by:

- **Indifferent attitude** of people towards politics
- **Illiteracy** and lack of awareness
- **Poverty**, which keeps people away from public affairs



- Casteism and communalism
- Biased and controlled press

For healthy public opinion, press must be **free and impartial**.

MEANING OF PRESSURE GROUPS

- Pressure groups are **organised voluntary groups**.
- They seek to **influence government policies** in favour of their interests.
- They **do not contest elections**.
- They work **outside the formal political system**.
- They help in **mobilising public opinion**.

DIFFERENCE BETWEEN POLITICAL PARTIES AND PRESSURE GROUPS

Political Parties	Pressure Groups
Contest elections	Do not contest elections
Aim to capture power	Aim to influence power
Broad objectives	Narrow and specific interests
Formal organisation	Informal organisation

CLASSIFICATION OF PRESSURE GROUPS IN INDIA

(A) Professional Pressure Groups

1. Formed by people of the same profession.

2. Examples:

- **Business groups** - FICCI, CII, ASSOCHAM
- **Trade Unions** - AITUC, CITU
- Peasant organisations, teachers and students unions



(B) Socio-Cultural Pressure Groups

1. Promote social, cultural, religious or linguistic interests.
2. **Examples:** Arya Samaj, RSS, VHP, Ramakrishna Mission, YMCA

(C) Institutional Pressure Groups

1. Work within **government machinery**.

2. Examples:

- Civil Services Associations
- Defence personnel organisations
- Police welfare associations



(D) Ad-hoc Pressure Groups

1. Formed for a **temporary and specific purpose**.
2. Dissolve after achieving the objective.

3. Examples:

- Relief organisations during natural calamities
- Water dispute associations

ROLE OF PRESSURE GROUPS

Pressure groups:

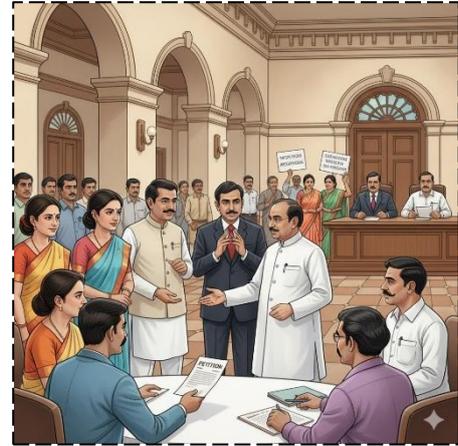
1. Act as a link between people and government.
2. Educate people on **socio-economic issues**.
3. Influence policy-making and administration.
4. Provide **training** ground for future leaders.
5. Strengthen democratic **values and participation**.



METHODS USED BY PRESSURE GROUPS

Pressure groups influence government by:

1. Lobbying and persuasion
2. Petitions and representations
3. Use of **print and electronic media**
4. Publicity and campaigns
5. Rallies, dharnas and demonstrations
6. Hunger strikes (in extreme cases)



Their influence depends on:

1. Organisation
2. Leadership
3. Public support
4. Financial resources
5. Access to decision-making bodies



TOP 5 QUESTIONS

Q-1. What is public opinion? Explain its characteristics.

Answer- Public opinion is the organised and considered opinion of a section of society on public issues. It is not unanimous, reflects diversity of views, is logical in nature and changes with time and circumstances.

Q-2. Explain the role of public opinion in a democratic system.

Answer- Public opinion guides the government, helps in law-making, acts as a watchdog, protects rights and liberties and influences both national and international policies, making democracy effective.

Q-3. Describe the agencies that help in the formation of public opinion.

Answer- Public opinion is formed through political socialisation, press, radio and television, cinema, public meetings, political parties, opinion polls and educational institutions.

Q-4. What are pressure groups? Distinguish them from political parties.

Answer- Pressure groups are organised voluntary groups that influence government policies without contesting elections. Unlike political parties, they do not aim to capture power and have limited objectives.

Q-5. Explain the role and methods of pressure groups in India.

Answer- Pressure groups act as a link between people and government, educate citizens and influence policies. They use methods like lobbying, media campaigns, petitions, demonstrations and public opinion mobilisation.

