

POLITICS

Politics is the study of who gets what., when., and how." Explain this definition of Politics with examples.

The definition of politics as “who gets what, when, and how,” attributed to Harold Lasswell, encapsulates the essence of political activity by focusing on the allocation of resources and decision-making. Politics is inherently tied to scarcity and diversity in society—resources are limited, and individuals or groups often have conflicting needs, preferences, and opinions. This definition highlights the competitive and distributive aspects of politics, as well as its mechanisms for conflict resolution and resource allocation.

Explanation with Examples

1. Who Gets What

This refers to the distribution of resources, benefits, and opportunities. For instance:

- **Economic policies:** Governments decide on tax rates and welfare programs, determining how wealth is redistributed among citizens. In the U.S., debates about tax cuts for the wealthy versus increased social spending for low-income groups exemplify this.
- **Healthcare access:** In countries with universal healthcare, such as the UK, resources are allocated to ensure everyone has access to medical services, while in others, like the U.S., healthcare access depends on income and insurance.

2. When

Timing plays a critical role in political decisions, influencing who benefits immediately versus who might gain in the future.

- **Pandemic relief programs:** Governments around the world enacted stimulus packages during COVID-19. Deciding when to provide financial aid or vaccines impacted how effectively these measures reached the population.

- **Infrastructure development:** In India, rural electrification projects often prioritize some regions over others based on immediate need, political priorities, or strategic goals.

3.How

The “how” addresses the processes, strategies, and power dynamics involved in decision-making.

- **Legislation:** Passing laws involves negotiations and compromises, such as bipartisan agreements in U.S. Congress. The process determines how competing interests are balanced.

- **Elections:** Voting systems like first-past-the-post versus proportional representation influence how citizens' preferences translate into political power.

- **Lobbying and advocacy:** Corporations and NGOs shape policies through lobbying, exemplifying how power and influence affect resource allocation.

Broader Context

- **Politics as Conflict Resolution:** Politics is often viewed as the means of reconciling competing interests. For example, in environmental policymaking, governments balance industrial growth with climate goals, such as India's commitment to renewable energy while maintaining coal-based power.

- **Politics Beyond Government:** The distribution of resources and decision-making isn't confined to governments alone. In families, workplaces, or international organizations, politics is at play. Feminist perspectives highlight that even domestic settings involve power dynamics, such as the division of labor.

What is liberty? Discuss the difference between negative and positive liberty with examples

Liberty is fundamentally the condition of being free to make choices, act upon them, and live without undue external constraints. The concept encapsulates the absence of barriers and the presence of enabling conditions that allow individuals to express themselves freely.

Liberty is a multifaceted concept encompassing the absence of constraints (negative liberty) and the presence of enabling conditions (positive liberty).

Negative Liberty:

Negative liberty is the absence of external constraints or interference. It represents a domain where individuals can act according to their will without being obstructed by others, including the state or society.

1.Key Principles:

- People are considered rational agents who know their interests best and are capable of making informed choices.
- The state should primarily act as a protector of individual freedoms rather than dictating personal goals or behavior.

2. Examples:

- **Freedom of Speech:** An individual can express their opinions without fear of censorship or government interference.
- **Economic Freedom:** The ability to start a business without excessive bureaucratic or regulatory constraints reflects negative liberty.

Here it is also mentioned that negative liberty does not take into account whether the individual have actual resources to act on their choices .

POSITIVE freedom:

Positive liberty emphasizes the presence of enabling conditions or collective control that allow individuals to fulfill their potential and live a rational, meaningful life.

True freedom requires mastering one's lower, irrational impulses through the rational self (the "higher self"). Laws that guide one to achieve the goals liberates the individual rather than controlling.

Education: A state providing universal education empowers individuals to make informed decisions and participate in society, enhancing their positive liberty.

Environmental Laws: Policies to maintain clean air and water might restrict some individual activities but are justified as promoting collective freedom and well-

being

Positive liberty is vulnerable to authoritarianism. Since the government might start over ruling in the name of positive liberty.

Discuss the debate between the different theoretical perspectives about the nature of state.

The state is a central concept in political science, defined as a political association that exercises sovereignty within defined territorial borders. It represents a collection of public institutions tasked with governing society. Over time, different theories have emerged to explain the nature, purpose, and functions of the state. These perspectives highlight ideological, social, and economic concerns about the state's role and impact.

Idealist Perspective

The idealist view, rooted in Hegelian thought, perceives the state as an ethical community. It divides society into three spheres:

1. **The Family:** Characterized by altruism, where individuals prioritize the welfare of their kin.
2. **Civil Society:** Marked by egoism, where individuals pursue personal gains.
3. **The State:** Representing "universal altruism," the state seeks to harmonize individual interests with collective welfare.

Generalized Example: Efforts by some states to implement universal healthcare or education reflect the idealist notion of promoting the common good. For instance, subsidized public healthcare aligns with the idea of fostering collective welfare.

Functionalist Perspective

Functionalist theories define the state by its role in maintaining order and stability. The state is seen as a set of institutions that prevent chaos and deliver social cohesion. These institutions include the judiciary, police, and legislature, which ensure law and order.

Generalized Example: In constitutional democracies, the police and judiciary work to uphold laws and resolve disputes, ensuring peace and stability within society.

Functionalist theories also classify the state based on its level of intervention in society:

1. **Minimal State:** Limited to protecting citizens and maintaining law and order.
 - **Indian Context:** During the early stages of economic liberalization in the 1990s, India reduced state intervention in industries, moving towards a minimal state model.
2. **Developmental State:** Focused on industrial growth and economic development.
 - **Indian Context:** Government initiatives like “Make in India” aim to foster industrial growth and economic progress.
3. **Social-Democratic State:** Seeks to ensure social justice through welfare programs.
 - **Indian Context:** Programs like the Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA) aim to promote fairness and equality.
4. **Totalitarian State:** Exercises control over every aspect of life, including culture and education.
 - **Generalized Example:** Propaganda and strict regulations in totalitarian regimes.

Organizational Perspective

This view defines the state as the apparatus of governance responsible for organizing society. It includes public institutions such as government departments and social welfare systems.

Indian Example: The Right to Education Act (RTE) mandates free and compulsory education for children, showcasing the state’s role as a collective organizer.

International Perspective

This approach emphasizes the state’s role in international relations as a sovereign entity interacting with other states. It highlights the state’s dual role of managing internal governance and external diplomacy.

Indian Example: India’s active participation in global forums like the G20 and its leadership in initiatives like the International Solar Alliance reflect its role as a key international actor.

Rival Theories of the State

1. Pluralist Theory

Pluralists see the state as an impartial mediator, balancing the interests of diverse groups within society.

- **Generalized Example:** Democratic states ensure participation through elections, giving voice to various social groups.

2. Marxist Perspective (Capitalist State)

Marxists view the state as an instrument of class oppression, serving the ruling elite while maintaining capitalist structures.

- **Indian Context:** Labor strikes highlighting inequality in industrial settings can be linked to the Marxist view of the state.

3. Leviathan State

This theory portrays the state as an overbearing entity that excessively regulates individual freedoms.

- **Generalized Example:** Excessive bureaucratic controls or surveillance measures reflect the Leviathan state.

4. Patriarchal State

Feminist theories describe the state as reinforcing male dominance

- **Generalized Example:** Limited reproductive rights for women in some states are seen as evidence of patriarchal control.
- **Indian Context:** Campaigns for women's rights, such as laws against child marriage and domestic violence, reflect efforts to challenge patriarchal structures.

Critically analyse the different models of equality with examples. What is the difference between 'Equality of Resources' and 'Equality of Capabilities' ?

Equality is a multifaceted concept central to political theory and societal governance. While equality ensures fairness and justice, it does not necessarily imply uniformity but focuses on "leveling the playing field" so that it promote well-

being and justice. Several models of equality address distinct aspects of human life and society, and these models often differ in their approaches and implications.

1. Formal Equality

Formal equality emphasizes equal treatment under the law. It ensures that every individual is treated the same, irrespective of gender, race, religion, or social background. This model underpins the idea of "equality before the law."

- **Strengths:** It establishes a foundational level of fairness and impartiality.
- **Limitations:** Formal equality does not address differences in circumstances, such as wealth or access to resources, which can perpetuate inequality.

Example: In India, the Right to Equality under Articles 14-18 of the Constitution prohibits discrimination on grounds like religion or caste.

2. Equality of Opportunity

Equality of opportunity goes beyond formal equality to address initial conditions. It aims to provide everyone an equal chance to succeed by removing systemic barriers, such as poverty or discrimination.

- **Strengths:** It seeks to level the starting line for all individuals, promoting fairness in access to opportunities.
- **Limitations:** Critics argue that not everyone can equally utilize opportunities due to differences in personal circumstances or abilities.

Example: In India, policies like reservations for Scheduled Castes (SCs) and Scheduled Tribes (STs) aim to ensure access to education and jobs for historically marginalized communities.

3. Equality of Outcome

Equality of outcome shifts focus from opportunities to end results, aiming to reduce disparities in income, wealth, or status. This approach often involves redistributive measures to achieve greater social and economic parity.

- **Strengths:** It directly addresses socio-economic disparities and fosters social cohesion.
- **Limitations:** Since there is no benefit one doing up and beyond hence stagnation.

Example: In India, the Public Distribution System (PDS) ensures subsidized food grains for low-income families, attempting to bridge gaps in basic sustenance.

. Equality of Welfare

This model, rooted in utilitarian principles, focuses on ensuring that individuals achieve similar levels of happiness or satisfaction. It prioritizes outcomes that maximize collective welfare.

- **Strengths:** It considers the subjective well-being of individuals, acknowledging that the same resources may not lead to equal happiness for everyone.
- **Limitations:** Critics argue that measuring happiness is subjective and may not translate into practical policies.

Example: Welfare programs like free healthcare and financial aid aim to equalize happiness by addressing people's fundamental needs

Equality of Resources

- **Definition:** Focuses on equalizing the external means or assets (e.g., income, wealth, education).
- **Example:** Providing books and infrastructure in schools to ensure educational access demonstrates resource-based equality.
- **Criticism:** Equal resources may not translate into equal abilities to utilize those resources effectively.

Equality of Capabilities

- **Definition:** Proposed by Amartya Sen, this approach emphasizes equalizing people's abilities to achieve meaningful outcomes in life. It focuses on "what people can do" rather than "what they have."

Example: Instead of merely providing schools, literacy campaigns in India, like "Saakshar Bharat," aim to ensure that people acquire the actual ability to read and

write.

Key Difference:

While "Equality of Resources" focuses on the distribution of external means, "Equality of Capabilities" emphasizes enabling individuals to convert those resources into real-life benefits.

Theories of origin of state

1. Divine Right Theory

• This theory states that the earthly rulers are chosen by the god hence are the non questionable authority , monarchy lies on this defence , monarch is seen as the god representative, modern democratic principle dont agree with this as it undermines an accountable governance

Example: Louis XIV of France famously claimed, "*I am the state*," exemplifying divine right absolutism.

2. Social Contract Theory

This theory states that the state arises from the voluntarily agreement made amongst the individual so that an organised scoring ensuring protection of the natural rights can be brought t into existence.

This is government based upon consent tasked with the job of protecting rights , liberty and property.

Example: Modern democracies, including India, derive legitimacy from the idea of a social contract, where the constitution embodies collective agreement.

3. Patriarchal and Matriarchal Theories

This theory argued that state orginated from the family structure ,either patriarchal side or matriarchal side , men and women family respectively . NO longer valid because family structure differ along the culture.

4 . Force Theory

This theory states that the states merge through the domination of power, might makes right principle example Mauryan empire etc where powerful groups subdued others to form government.

Types of legal justice

Legal justice is broadly categorized into two types: **procedural justice** and **substantive justice**. Each addresses different aspects of fairness within the legal system.

Procedural justice focuses on how laws are applied and decisions are made, ensuring that the process is fair and impartial. It involves primarily equality before the law that the law treats each person equally irrespective of caste, gender, religion. Apart it ensure that there is an independent judiciary that handle the appeals. It also states about the golden thread that innocence till proved guilty it states one cant be detained with a proper evidence.

example *Supreme Court* serves as an appellate authority where judgments from lower courts can be challenged, ensuring procedural fairness.

Substantive justice deals with content of the law itself ensuring that law in itself is fair and ensures justice and is moral.

Law itself should not be discriminating individual on basis of caste gender etc ensuring that law uphold the fundamental values he *Abolition of Untouchability* under Article 17 of the Indian Constitution ensures substantive justice by outlawing discriminatory practices.

The defining features of a liberal democracy

A **liberal democracy** combines the principles of liberalism (individual rights and limited government) with democracy (popular consent and equality). Its defining features include:

1. **Limited Government:**

Government power is constrained by the constitution though the system of check and balances along with independent judiciary.

As an example Indian constitution makes sure that there is proper separation of power.

2. **Protection of Individual Rights:**

- Civil liberties such as freedom of speech, religion, and property rights are respected.
- Example: Fundamental Rights in India, like the Right to Freedom (Article 19), safeguard individual liberties.

3. Popular Consent and Universal Suffrage:

- Elections are based on universal suffrage, ensuring political equality with the principle of "one person, one vote."
- Example: Regular elections in India allow all citizens above 18 to vote, regardless of their background.

4. Competitive Elections:

- Free, fair, and regular elections provide accountability by allowing people to choose their representatives. Political pluralism ensure that there is completion Among the parties ideology and citizen choose the best
- Example: India's multi-party system promotes competition among political parties.

5. Political Pluralism:

- Open competition between different ideologies, movements, and parties is encouraged.
- Example: India's vibrant democracy includes diverse parties representing various regional, cultural, and ideological interests.

These features ensure that a liberal democracy protects individual freedoms while promoting collective decision-making through popular consent.

Difference between functional and organisational view of the state

Functional view : Focuses on the role and purpose of state institutions, such as maintaining social order and stability. Police ensuring law and order reflects the state's functional role.

Organisational view : Defines the state as the apparatus of governance, including institutions responsible for organizing society. Government bodies like ministries represent the state's organizational structure.

The **functional view** examines the state's roles and objectives, while the **organizational view** focuses on its structure and components. Both perspectives together provide a comprehensive understanding of the state.

Define human rights. What are the sources of International Human Rights Laws?

Human rights are universal moral and legal standards designed to safeguard individuals from political, social, and legal abuses. These rights are inherent to all human beings, irrespective of nationality, ethnicity, gender, or other status. The contemporary framework of human rights stems from the **Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR)**,

The concept of human rights is deeply rooted in the idea of natural rights THAT individuals are born with inalienable rights, such as life, liberty, and property.

Civil and Political Rights: Right to life, liberty, and freedom of expression.

Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights: Right to education, work, and an adequate standard of living.

Collectivity and Solidarity Rights : Focus on peace development and environment condition for the social well being of everyone.

Certain human rights principles are recognized as **customary international law**, meaning they are binding on all states, regardless of treaty obligations. These include prohibitions against:

- Genocide.Slavery.Torture.

1. **Security Rights:** Protection against murder, torture, and rape.
 - Example: The prohibition of torture under the UN Convention Against Torture.
2. **Liberty Rights:** Freedom of belief, expression, and movement.
 - Example: Freedom of speech as guaranteed by the ICCPR.
3. **Political Rights:** Right to participate in political processes, such as voting.

- Example: Universal suffrage upheld in democratic constitutions like India's.
4. **Due Process Rights:** Safeguards against unlawful imprisonment or unfair trials.
 - Example: Habeas corpus ensures that detainees can challenge unlawful detention.
 5. **Equality Rights:** Protection against discrimination and guarantee of equal treatment.
 - Example: Anti-discrimination laws prohibit bias based on race, gender, or religion.
 6. **Welfare Rights:** Access to education, healthcare, and social security.
 - Example: The Right to Education Act in India ensures free and compulsory schooling for children.
-

Is the Right to Privacy recognised in the Indian Constitution? What are the legal provisions available in India for data protection?

Yes, the **Right to Privacy** is recognized under the **Indian Constitution**. It was declared a fundamental right by the **Supreme Court of India** in 2017 , which said it is part of the **Right to Life and Personal Liberty** under **Article 21**.

For **data protection**, India has legal provisions like:

1. **Information Technology (Reasonable Security Practices and Procedures and Sensitive Personal Data or Information) Rules, 2011:** Set standards for handling sensitive data.
2. **Personal Data Protection Bill (draft):** Proposes a comprehensive framework for personal data protection, including rights to data access, correction, and erasure, and rules for data processing by businesses.

These laws aim to protect individuals' privacy and data.

How does the use of AI impact (advantages and disadvantages) the following? Use examples

wherever necessary. (3x5 = 15 marks)

a. The maintenance of law and order

Advantages:

- AI can help **predict crime** patterns and **prevent crimes** by analyzing data, such as in **predictive policing**. For example, AI tools can help the police identify high-crime areas in cities like **Delhi**.
- AI-powered **surveillance systems** (like facial recognition) can assist in **identifying suspects** during protests or riots, improving security.

Disadvantages:

- **Over-reliance on technology** can lead to errors or bias, where AI might target certain groups unfairly.

b. Right to privacy

Advantages:

- AI can improve **cybersecurity** and **data protection**, helping secure personal data from breaches, as seen with AI-driven **encryption technologies**.
- It can assist in **data anonymization** to protect individual privacy, such as anonymizing user data when companies use AI to analyze consumer behavior.

Disadvantages:

- AI can lead to **intrusions on privacy** through mass surveillance and collection of personal data. For instance, **face recognition** software used in public places like metro stations could track individuals without their consent, violating privacy.
- **Data exploitation:** In India, AI-powered apps and platforms (like **Aadhaar-based systems**) could misuse personal information, leading to **privacy concerns**.

c. Individual agency in a democracy

Advantages:

- AI can empower citizens by offering **personalized services** and **information**. For example, **AI chatbots** provide quick government services, improving transparency and participation in governance.
- AI can encourage **informed voting** by providing easy access to political information, helping voters make decisions based on facts.

Disadvantages:

- AI-driven **political ads** and **targeted campaigns** might manipulate voters, especially on social media platforms. This was seen in **India's 2019 elections** where AI tools were used for political micro-targeting.
- AI systems may limit **free choice** by creating **echo chambers**, where individuals only see information that aligns with their existing views, reducing critical thinking and individual agency in decision-making.

According to Granville Austin, what are the three goals that the framers of the Indian Constitution wanted to achieve? Explain with reference to the features and provisions in the Constitution (Preamble, Fundamental Rights, and DPSP), how the Indian state seeks to achieve these goals?

According to **Granville Austin**, the framers of the Indian Constitution had three main goals:

- **To establish a democratic republic** based on the principles of justice, liberty, equality, and fraternity.
- **To ensure social and economic justice** for all citizens.
- **To promote unity and integrity** among India's diverse population.

The **Indian Constitution** achieves these goals through:

- **Preamble:** The Preamble sets the vision of a **sovereign, socialist, secular, democratic republic**. It emphasizes justice, liberty, equality, and fraternity.

- **Fundamental Rights:** These guarantee individual freedoms (like **freedom of speech** and **right to equality**) and ensure protection from discrimination, thus promoting justice and equality.

this goes with fr freecc you remember

- **Directive Principles of State Policy (DPSP):** These guidelines help the government work toward achieving **social and economic justice** by ensuring access to education, health, and a better standard of living.

again ones you remember.

. Why did India adopt a parliamentary model of democracy?

India adopted the **parliamentary model** of democracy based on the **British system** to ensure:

- **Responsibility of the Executive to the Legislature:** The **Prime Minister** and **Council of Ministers** are accountable to the **Lok Sabha** (the lower house). This ensures that the government remains answerable to the people's elected representatives.
- **Flexibility and Stability:** The system ensures flexibility in governance and allows for a government to be changed without the need for elections (via a **vote of no confidence**).
- It ensures **participation and representation** of diverse sections of Indian society, promoting a **wide democracy**.

Overall, you can write about how the Lok Sabha represents the entire nation, and how ministers are answerable to them. Additionally, you can discuss aspects of diversity and the no-confidence motion.

The Indian President is the head of the state but not of the executive'. Substantiate the given statement by referring to the powers of the President to exercise his/her discretion.

→ president major major rule and responsibility you can highlight such that → governor election , no major prime minister , chief justice informed to president, in state of financial emergency / external war internal rebellion emergency of president imposed, state emergency, all president handles. can dissolve the Lok Sabha as well

The **President** of India is the **formal head of the state**, but the **Prime Minister** is the **head of the executive**. The President's role is mostly ceremonial, and the executive power is exercised by the government led by the Prime Minister.

However, the **President** can exercise discretion in specific situations:

- **Appointment of the Prime Minister:** If no party has a clear majority in the **Lok Sabha**, the President has the discretion to choose the **Prime Minister**.
- **Dissolution of Lok Sabha:** The President can dissolve the Lok Sabha and call for general elections.

Briefly describe the different procedural devices through which the Parliament holds the Executive accountable.

The Parliament of India has several mechanisms to control the executive, ensuring accountability and transparency.

1. Question Hour:

- The first hour of every parliamentary sitting is reserved for this. During this time, members ask questions to ministers, who provide answers. There are three types of questions:
 - **Starred Questions:** Require an oral answer, allowing for supplementary questions.
 - **Unstarred Questions:** Require a written answer, and no supplementary questions can follow.
 - **Short Notice Questions:** Asked with less than ten days' notice, and answered orally.

2. No-Confidence Motion:

- As per **Article 75** of the Constitution, the **Council of Ministers** is collectively responsible to the **Lok Sabha**. If the government loses the majority's confidence, it must resign, ensuring the executive remains accountable to Parliament.

3. **Privilege Motion:**

- This motion is moved when a minister is believed to have violated parliamentary privileges, such as withholding or distorting facts. Its purpose is to censure the minister and uphold the House's dignity.

4. **Calling Attention Motion:**

- This motion is introduced to draw the minister's attention to a matter of urgent public importance and seek an authoritative statement from them.

5. **Adjournment Motion:**

- If there is an urgent issue of public importance, a member may propose that the House be adjourned to discuss the matter, ensuring that critical issues are addressed promptly.

END SEMESTER

**Write a fort note on the following. (4x5 - 20 marks)
(CO3)**

Judicial activism with reference to PIL:

Judicial activism in India has been significantly shaped by the evolution of **Public Interest Litigation (PIL)**. Supreme Court would address the issue like human rights and environmental protection etc.

PIL is to to democratize the access to justice to the marginalised group, ensure that court actively address all the issues promoting Justice and accountability then protecting interest of public at large.

Public Interest Litigation- In India, a writ petition may be moved not only by an aggrieved individual but also by a public-spirited individual or group of persons in matters in which interest of the public at large is involved. The Court can be moved either by filing a writ petition or by addressing a letter to the Chief Justice of India highlighting the question of public importance for invoking this jurisdiction.

On several occasions, the Supreme Court has treated letters, telegrams, postcards, and news reports as writ petitions. Such a concept is popularly known as 'Public Interest Litigation' (PIL). This judicial innovation of the PIL system is unique to the Supreme Court of India.

Independence of the Indian Judiciary

The independence of the Indian judiciary is the cornerstone of its democratic framework, ensuring unbiased jurisdiction and the rule of law. Key features that uphold judicial independence include:

- **Judicial Review:** The judiciary holds the power to review laws and decisions passed by the legislature or executive to ensure they adhere to constitutional principles. Any violation is declared unconstitutional.
 - **Appointment Process:** Judges of the higher judiciary are appointed through the **collegium system**, minimizing executive influence.
 - **Impeachment Safeguards:** Judges can only be removed by a special majority in Parliament on proven grounds of misbehavior or incapacity.
 - **Irreducible Jurisdiction:** Parliament cannot reduce the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court.
 - **Financial Autonomy:** Expenses of the Supreme Court are charged to the Consolidated Fund of India, ensuring financial independence.
 - **Security of Tenure:** Judges serve until the age of 65, providing stability and preventing arbitrary removal.
-

Functions of the Election Commission

The Election Commission of India (ECI) is an autonomous constitutional body responsible for overseeing and administering elections to ensure they are conducted in a free and fair manner.

Election Administration: Conducts elections for the Lok Sabha, Rajya Sabha, State Legislative Assemblies, and the offices of the President and Vice President of India.

Electoral Rolls and Identity Cards: Prepares, updates, and maintains electoral rolls and issues Electoral Photo Identity Cards (EPIC) to voters.

Political Party Regulation: Registers political parties, grants recognition based on electoral performance, and resolves disputes within or between parties.

Election Code of Conduct: Enforces the Model Code of Conduct to ensure a level playing field during elections.

Monitoring Campaigns: Monitors election campaigns, including expenditure limits, and ensures compliance with legal provisions.

Advisory Role: Advises on matters such as disqualification of members of Parliament or State Legislatures and adjudicates on cases of corrupt practices in elections.

Supervision at State and Local Levels: Works with Chief Electoral Officers at the state level and District Election Officers for election-related tasks.

Media and Voter Education: Facilitates media coverage, conducts voter awareness programs (SVEEP), and promotes electoral participation.

Election Process: Manages the nomination, scrutiny, and withdrawal of candidates, oversees polling and counting of votes, and declares results.

Electoral reforms

Electoral reforms are measures aimed at improving the electoral process to ensure free, fair, and transparent elections

Introduction of Voter ID (EPIC): The Electoral Photo Identity Card (EPIC) was introduced to prevent voter fraud and ensure accurate identification of voters.

Model Code of Conduct (MCC): Enforced during elections to maintain a level playing field and ethical behavior among political parties and candidates.

Limiting Election Expenditure: Legal limits on campaign expenditures for candidates have been set to curb the influence of money in elections.

Electronic Voting Machines (EVMs): Introduced to replace paper ballots, reducing errors and expediting the counting process.

NOTA (None of the Above): Introduced in 2013, allowing voters to reject all candidates if none are deemed suitable.

Ceiling on Campaign Time: Campaigning ends 48 hours before polling to allow voters to make informed decisions without last-minute influence.

Awareness Campaigns (SVEEP): The ECI conducts systematic voter education and participation campaigns to increase voter turnout and awareness.

"Discuss the concept of secularism and explain the Indian model. What is the justification for group-differentiated rights guaranteed in the Indian constitution under Article 29 and Article 30? (10x2 - 20 marks) (CO5)

Secularism refers to the separation of religion and state, ensuring that no religion dominates the political framework or influences government policies. It encompasses two key principles:

1. **Separation of State and Religion:**

- The state shall not align with or promote any specific religion.
- Freedom of conscience is guaranteed for all citizens.
- No discrimination based on religion.

2. **Equality of All Religions:**

- The state treats all religions with equal respect and ensures no official state religion.
- Protection of religious practices and beliefs for all citizens.

Indian Model of Secularism

The Indian model of secularism differs from the Western notion as it emphasizes not only the separation of religion and state but also the **equal treatment of all religions (sarva dharma sambhava)**.

1. **Freedom of Religion:** Citizens are free to profess, practice, and propagate their faith (Article 25).
2. **Equality Before Law:** Provisions like Articles 14, 15, and 16 prohibit religious discrimination.
3. **State Intervention:** The state can intervene in religious matters to ensure social reform (e.g., banning untouchability).
4. **Pluralism:** Reflects the doctrine of inclusivity by recognizing and respecting India's diverse religious practices.

Justification for Group-Differentiated Rights (Articles 29 and 30)

Articles 29 and 30 of the Constitution grant minorities special rights to preserve their cultural identity and promote inclusivity:

- **Article 29:** Protects the rights of citizens to conserve their distinct language, script, and culture. This ensures cultural diversity and guards against forced assimilation into the dominant culture.
- **Article 30:** Grants minorities the right to establish and administer educational institutions of their choice, preserving their heritage while providing equitable opportunities.

WHY ?

1. **Promotes Pluralism:** Recognizes the diversity within the Indian population and fosters coexistence.
2. **Safeguards Against Marginalization:** Protects minorities from cultural or political domination by the majority.
3. **Ensures Educational Autonomy:** Allows communities to sustain their cultural identity through their educational institutions.

Define rights. State the difference between negative and positive rights with examples. Describe the evolution of three generations of rights.

Definition of Rights:

A right refers to what an individual is entitled to, whether as a human, citizen, or member of a group. It is essentially an entitlement to do something or to have something done, such as voting, speaking, or accessing healthcare. A right is different from an obligation because individuals have the choice to exercise their rights; they are not compelled to do so. For example, voting is a right, but there is no obligation to cast a vote. Rights establish a relationship between the right-holder (who holds the entitlement) and the right-observers (who must respect or fulfill the right). This relationship can impose either a negative or positive duty on the observer.

Negative and Positive Rights:

- **Negative Rights:**

Negative rights are those that require non-interference from others or the state. In other words, these rights limit the actions of others in order to allow the right-holder to act freely. For example:

- *Right to Life:* This prevents others from killing an individual, but it does not require them to take any positive action to ensure the person's well-being.
- *Right to Property:* This ensures that others do not interfere with one's property but does not demand any positive action from others to protect or enhance the property.

- **Positive Rights:**

Positive rights, on the other hand, require others or the state to take action to fulfill the rights of the individual. These rights impose an obligation to provide assistance or support to the right-holder. For example:

- *Right to Health:* This obligates the state or society to ensure that individuals have access to healthcare.
- *Right to Education:* This requires the government to provide education to its citizens, particularly the youth.

Evolution of the Three Generations of Rights:

1. First Generation Rights (Civil and Political Rights):

- These rights emerged in the 17th and 18th centuries and were primarily focused on protecting individuals from state interference. The emphasis was on personal liberty and preventing violations by the state. These rights include:

- Right to life, liberty, and property
- Right to vote and participate in political processes

SECOND GENERATION RIGHTS

social economic and cultural rights

With the rise of industrialization and working-class movements, a new set of rights emerged, addressing the economic and social conditions necessary for a dignified life. These rights are linked to equality and guaranteed access to essential services. They include:

social rights : necessary for full participation in the society such as right to education

cultural rights : right to participate freely in cultural life of community

economic rights : this includes right to work and adequate standard of living

Third Generation Rights (Collective or Solidarity Rights):

• These rights emerged in response to global challenges such as extreme poverty, environmental degradation, and the need for solidarity among peoples. They focus on collective rights and the well-being of society as a whole. These rights include:

- Right to sustainable development
- Right to peace and a healthy environment
- Right to humanitarian assistance in times of disaster

Critically analyse if the state is a force for good. What are the different kinds of states in terms of their roles? How would you describe the role of the Indian state, as envisioned by the framers of the Constitution? (7.5+7.5+5)

The state, as a political entity, has a dual nature: it can be a force for good or a source of oppression depending on its role and how it operates. Whether the state is a force for good is a debated question, influenced by different ideological perspectives.

Arguments for the State as a Force for Good:

Key to Civilized Existence: States are seen as essential to the organization of society and maintenance of order. They regulate collective life, ensure security, and protect citizens from internal and external threats.

- **Foundation of Public Life:** The state is responsible for organizing essential public functions such as infrastructure, education, healthcare, and social services. These roles are fundamental for the development of a society that benefits all its citizens.
- **Agent of Social Justice:** The state, through its legislative and judicial systems, can act to correct injustices, redistribute resources, and ensure that citizens' rights are upheld.

Arguments Against the State as a Force for Good:

Cause of Disorder: Critics argue that states can become sources of disorder through overregulation, excessive control, or corruption. The monopolization of power in the hands of a few often leads to inefficiency, exploitation, and inequality.

Enemy of Freedom: Many critics argue that the state infringes upon individual freedoms by imposing unnecessary laws, taxes, and restrictions.

Recipe for Poverty: Some argue that the state's economic policies, particularly in collectivized or totalitarian or authoritarian regimes, can stifle innovation, disrupt markets, and create inefficiencies, ultimately leading to economic stagnation and poverty.

Different Kinds of States in Terms of Their Roles

States vary in terms of their roles and how much they intervene in the lives of their citizens. The role of the state can be classified into several types based on the level of intervention,

Minimal State:

The state acts only as a protective body, ensuring peace and social order but refraining from extensive involvement in economic and social affairs. Example: Classical liberal states with limited government intervention.

Developmental State:

The state takes an active role in economic planning and development, often intervening in markets to promote industrial growth and economic development.

Example Japan in their post-World War II periods.

Social-Democratic State:

In these states, the government aims to promote equality and social welfare via a social restructuring , intervening to ensure that social and economic rights are protected and that citizens enjoy a reasonable standard of living.

Example: England in 20th century

Totalitarian State:

The state exerts absolute control over all aspects of life, including the economy, education, culture, and even private life. It is characterized by centralized power, authoritarian governance, and the suppression of political opposition. Eg soviet union

Collectivized State:

- The state controls the entire economy, either owning or directing all major industries and sectors. This form is often associated with socialist or communist regimes. former soviet union

Role of the Indian State as Envisioned by the Framers of the Constitution

The framers of the Indian Constitution envisioned the Indian state as a **welfare state** committed to securing justice, liberty, equality, and fraternity for all its citizens. The role of the Indian state can be understood through the following lenses:

Democratic Role: The Indian state is envisioned as a **democratic republic**, where citizens have the right to participate in decision-making processes through voting and representation. This ensures political freedom and guarantees a system of checks and balances through the separation of powers between the executive, legislature, and judiciary.

Welfare State: The framers sought to create a welfare state that would actively intervene in economic and social matters to reduce poverty, inequality, and injustice. Through the Directive Principles of State Policy (Part IV of the Constitution), the state is tasked with promoting the welfare of the people, providing basic needs like education, healthcare, housing, and social security.

Social Justice: The Indian state was designed to address historical injustices, particularly those faced by marginalized communities such as Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes, and Other Backward Classes. The state plays a crucial role in promoting social justice through affirmative action policies and reservations.

India has a "quasi-federal" political system. Critically analyse this statement with reference to , the concept of federalism and the institutional design that the Constitution provides for in India. (20 marks)

The term "quasi-federal" is often used to describe India's political system, reflecting a unique blend of federal and unitary characteristics. While India's Constitution establishes a federal framework for governance, it incorporates significant unitary features that give the central government a substantial degree of control. This duality leads to the characterization of India's federalism as "quasi-federal."

Federalism is a system of governance in which power is divided between a central (or federal) government and regional (or state) governments. In a federal system, both levels of government have constitutionally defined powers, and neither is subordinate to the other.

Federal Features in India's Constitution

1. **Dual Government:** India has a system of governance with two levels: the Union (Central) Government and the State Governments, each responsible for certain areas as defined in the Seventh Schedule.
2. **Division of Powers:** The Constitution divides powers between the Union and the States through three lists: the Union List, the State List, and the Concurrent List. The Union List includes subjects on which only the central government can legislate (e.g., defense, foreign affairs), while the State List covers areas of state jurisdiction (e.g., police, public health).
3. **Written Constitution:** India has a written constitution, which explicitly outlines the powers and responsibilities of both the central and state governments.

4. **Independent Judiciary:** The judiciary in India is independent and has the power to adjudicate disputes between the Union and the States. The Supreme Court acts as the ultimate arbiter in interpreting the Constitution.
5. **Supremacy of the Constitution:** The Constitution is the supreme law of the land, and any law inconsistent with it is void. The "basic structure" doctrine ensures that the core principles of the Constitution cannot be altered by ordinary legislation.

Unitary Features in India's Constitution

While India has federal features, several provisions make it more unitary in nature:

1. **Single Constitution and Citizenship:** India has a single Constitution that applies uniformly across the entire country, and all citizens share the same citizenship.
2. **Centralization of Power:** The Union government is given more power in key areas. For instance, during times of emergency (national, state, or financial), the central government can assume greater control over the states, overriding their autonomy.
3. **Emergency Provisions:** The Constitution grants the Union government sweeping powers during a national emergency (Article 352) or a state emergency (Article 356). These provisions allow the Union to dissolve state legislatures, assume executive control, and make laws on subjects in the State List.
4. **Governor's Role:** The Governor of each state is appointed by the President of India, and this central control extends to the power of the Governor to withhold assent to state bills and direct state governments to act in conformity with Union policies.
5. **Unequal Representation in the Rajya Sabha:** States have unequal representation in the Rajya Sabha (Council of States), which further reduces the influence of smaller states in the central legislative process.
6. **Union's Power over State Legislation:** The central government can legislate on matters in the State List if states fail to do so or if two or more states request it.

3. "Quasi-Federal" System in India

India's federal system is described as "quasi-federal" because, while it maintains a federal structure in principle, it often leans toward centralization. This is most

evident in the following areas:

1. **Division of Powers:** While the Seventh Schedule divides subjects between the Union and States, the Union government has the power to legislate on matters in the State List during an emergency. The Union government's power to issue directives to the states also indicates the unitary tendency.
2. **Centre's Dominance in Financial Matters:** The Union government holds significant control over financial resources. The Finance Commission, while tasked with allocating funds to the states, does so within the framework established by the Union, ensuring that financial power remains concentrated at the Centre.
3. **Emergency Provisions:** The scope of the emergency provisions (Articles 352, 356, 360) gives the Union government vast powers over the states, including the ability to dissolve state governments, take direct control of states, and override state laws. This is a feature typically found in unitary systems.
4. **Role of the Judiciary:** The judiciary plays a critical role in maintaining the federal balance, but its intervention can sometimes tilt the system toward centralization. For instance, during an emergency or under Article 356 (President's Rule), the judiciary's role can be sidelined, and decisions are often made by the central government.
5. **Unequal Representation and Centralized Authority:** The Rajya Sabha, which is supposed to represent the states, does not provide equal representation to all states, particularly favoring larger states, and the Union Parliament can alter state boundaries and create new states.

India's political system exhibits both federal and unitary features, leading to its characterization as "quasi-federal." While the Constitution establishes a federal framework with a clear division of powers, the central government's dominance, especially in areas like finance, emergency powers, and the capacity to direct state governments, reflects the unitary nature of the system.

Evolution of the Indian Parliament: Composition, Performance, and Party System

The Indian Parliament, as the supreme legislative body, has undergone significant changes since its establishment in 1950. These changes reflect the evolving political landscape and the shift in party dynamics. This answer examines how the composition and performance of Parliament have evolved, with a particular focus on the party system.

1. Composition of the Indian Parliament

Early Years (1950s-1960s):

- The Indian Parliament initially had two Houses: the **Lok Sabha** (House of the People) and the **Rajya Sabha** (Council of States).
- **Congress dominance:** The **Indian National Congress (INC)** was the dominant party in the early years. Jawaharlal Nehru's leadership ensured stable governance with Congress having a clear majority, leading to smooth functioning in Parliament.

Expansion and Diversification (1970s-1980s):

- With India's growing population, the size of the Lok Sabha and Rajya Sabha increased.
- The **rise of regional parties** like the **Dravida Munnetra Kazhagam (DMK)** and **Shiromani Akali Dal** reflected a shift towards greater regional representation.
- The **Emergency (1975-77)** imposed by Indira Gandhi temporarily affected parliamentary functioning but led to greater political competition post-Emergency.

Coalition Era (1990s-Present):

- The 1990s saw the rise of **coalition politics**. With the decline of Congress' dominance, new parties like the **BJP**, **Janata Dal**, and regional parties gained strength.
- **Rise of social groups:** Increased representation of **Dalits**, **OBCs**, and **women** in Parliament marked this period.
- The **BJP's rise** in 2014 and 2019 marked a return to single-party dominance, though the political system remains diverse.

2. Evolution of the Party System

Early Congress Dominance:

- In the early years, Congress' dominance allowed for a smooth functioning of Parliament, with fewer challenges to government policies.

Coalition Politics (1970s-1980s):

- With the decline of Congress' hold, the political system became more fragmented, and **coalition governments** emerged. Parties like **Janata Dal** and **regional parties** became important players.
- However, coalition politics led to instability and frequent changes in government.

Regional Party Influence (1990s-Present):

- The 1990s saw the rise of smaller regional parties, leading to more **fragmented politics**. This resulted in a new phase of **coalition governance**, especially with the formation of alliances like the **United Progressive Alliance (UPA)** and **National Democratic Alliance (NDA)**.
- In recent years, the **BJP's dominance** has led to a more centralized parliamentary system, although coalition politics still plays a role at the state level.

3. Performance of Parliament

Early Years:

- The initial years of Congress dominance saw effective legislation and minimal disruptions in parliamentary proceedings.

Coalition Politics:

- From the 1990s onwards, the rise of coalition politics led to **political fragmentation** and **legislative instability**. The increasing number of parties meant more debates and compromises, but also delayed decision-making.

Recent Trends:

- In recent years, the **BJP-led government** has been able to push through major reforms, but critics argue that the **opposition's voice** has been diminished, and the functioning of Parliament has become more **polarized**.

4. Conclusion

The composition of the Indian Parliament has evolved from a period of Congress dominance to coalition politics, and now, a more centralized system under the BJP. These shifts reflect broader changes in India's party system. While

Parliament's performance has been affected by political fragmentation and the rise of coalition politics, it continues to be an essential institution in shaping India's democratic governance.

This version simplifies the key points while still addressing the evolution of Parliament, its performance, and the party system, making it more concise and easier to retain for a 20-mark answer.