

# UNIT –I ( POLITICAL SCIENCE)

The **Government of India** ([ISO](#): Bhārata Sarakāra, legally the **Union Government** or **Union of India**<sup>[1]</sup> and colloquially known as the **Central Government**) is the [central executive authority](#) of the [Republic of India](#), a federal republic located in [South Asia](#), consisting of [28 states and eight union territories](#). The government is led by the [prime minister](#) (currently [Narendra Modi](#) since 26 May 2014) who exercises the most executive power and selects all the other [ministers](#).<sup>[1]</sup> The country has been governed by a [NDA](#)-led government (a coalition of the [BJP](#) and its allies) since 2014. The [prime minister](#) and their senior ministers belong to the [Union Council of Ministers](#)—its executive decision-making committee being the [cabinet](#).

The government, seated in [New Delhi](#), has three primary branches: the legislative, the executive and the judiciary, whose powers are vested in a [bicameral Parliament](#),<sup>[5]</sup> a [prime minister](#),<sup>[2]</sup> and the [Supreme Court](#)<sup>[6]</sup> respectively, with a [president](#) as head of state.<sup>[4]</sup>

The [Council of Ministers](#) are responsible to the [House](#) in which they sit, they make statements in that [House](#) and take questions from fellow members of that [House](#). For most senior ministers this is usually the directly elected [Lok Sabha](#) rather than the (mostly) indirectly elected [Rajya Sabha](#). As is the case in most parliamentary systems, the government is [dependent on Parliament](#) to legislate, and [general elections](#) are held every five years to elect a new [Lok Sabha](#). The most recent election was in [2024](#).

After an election, the [president](#) selects as [prime minister](#) the leader of the party or alliance most likely to command the confidence of the majority of the [Lok Sabha](#). In the event that the [prime minister](#) is not a member of either [House](#) upon appointment, he/she is given six months to be elected to either [House of Parliament](#).

## History

### British colonial rule: (1857–1947)

: [British Raj](#)

The first seeds of responsible government during [British colonial rule in India](#) were sown by the [Indian Councils Act 1909](#), commonly known as the [Morley-Minto](#) reforms. The Act introduced elections to the [Imperial Legislative Council](#) (then the unicameral Legislature for British India). Before that, governance was carried by an all-European [Legislative Council](#) and [Viceroy's Executive Council](#). As such, no Indians were represented in government before 1909.<sup>[7]</sup>

India's current bicameral [Parliament](#) has its roots in the [Government of India Act 1919](#), commonly known as the [Montagu-Chelmsford](#) reforms, which introduced a greatly expanded [Imperial Legislative Council](#). It comprised a lower house, the [Central Legislative Assembly](#) of 145 members (of which 104 were elected and 41 nominated) and an upper house, the [Council of State](#) of 60 members (of which 34 were elected and 26 nominated).<sup>[8]</sup>



[Council House](#) in [New Delhi](#) as seen from above in 1926, seat of the former [Imperial Legislative Council](#), home to the [Parliament of India](#) until 2023

The next structural modification to the governance of [British India](#), the [Government of India Act 1935](#) (the longest [Act of Parliament of the United Kingdom](#) until surpassed by the [Greater London Authority Act 1999](#)) was aimed at devolution of powers by establishing [provincial governments](#) and the creation of [civil service institutions](#). However, it was unpopular amongst Indians and is considered a failure as it did not give Indians self-rule and permanent [dominion status](#) (the form of government followed in [Canada](#), [Australia](#) and [New Zealand](#)) as was previously promised.<sup>[9]</sup>

### **Dominion: (1947–1950)**

: [Dominion of India](#)

Between midnight on [15 August 1947](#) and [26 January 1950](#), India was a self-governing [dominion](#) of the [United Kingdom](#), a [constitutional monarchy](#) with a [Prime Minister](#) and a [Governor-General](#) as the viceregal representative of the [British monarch](#). Its unicameral legislature, the [Constituent Assembly](#), was tasked with drafting the country's constitution.<sup>[10]</sup>

### **Republic: (1950–present)**



[Chakravarti Rajagopalachari](#), the ultimate [Governor-General of India](#) declaring India a [republic](#) at [Government House](#), [26 January 1950](#)

The [Constitution of India](#) came into effect on [26 January 1950](#), making India a [republic](#) with a [president](#) as head of state, replacing the [British monarch](#) and its viceregal representative, the [Governor-General](#). It was based in large part on the [Government of India Act 1935](#), which was itself based on the [uncodified constitution of the United Kingdom](#). It also drew notable inspirations from the constitutions of several other Commonwealth dominions and the [French](#), [Soviet](#), [Japanese](#), [German](#) and [American](#) constitutions.<sup>[11]</sup>

India today prides itself in being the world's largest [democracy](#), and the 4th largest economy in the world. Even though much remains to be done, especially in regard to eradicating [poverty](#) and securing effective structures of governance, India's achievements since independence in sustaining freedom and democracy have been singular among the world's new nations.<sup>[12]</sup>

## **Basic structure**

The Government of India is modelled after the [Westminster system](#).<sup>[13]</sup> The Union government is mainly composed of the [executive](#), the [legislature](#), and the [judiciary](#), and powers are vested by the [constitution](#) in the [prime minister](#), [parliament](#), and the [supreme court](#), respectively. The [president of India](#) is the [head of state](#) and the [commander-in-chief](#) of the [Indian Armed Forces](#), while the [elected prime minister](#) acts as the head of the executive and is responsible for running the Union government.<sup>[14]</sup> The parliament is [bicameral](#) in nature, with the [Lok Sabha](#) being the [lower house](#), and the [Rajya Sabha](#) the [upper house](#). The judiciary systematically contains an apex [supreme court](#), 25 [high courts](#), and several [district courts](#), all inferior to the supreme court.<sup>[15]</sup>

The basic [civil](#) and criminal laws governing the citizens of India are set down in major parliamentary legislation, such as the [civil procedure code](#), the [penal code](#), and the [criminal procedure code](#).<sup>[16]</sup> Similar to the Union government, individual state governments each consist of executive, legislative and judiciary branches. The legal system as applicable to the Union and individual state governments is based on the [English common](#) and [Statutory Law](#).<sup>[17]</sup> The full name of the country is the *Republic of India*. India and Bharat are equally official short [names](#) for the Republic of India in the Constitution,<sup>[18]</sup> and both names appears on legal banknotes, in treaties and in legal cases. The terms "Union government", "central government" and "*bhārat sarkār*" are often used officially and unofficially to refer to the government of India.<sup>[citation needed]</sup> The term *New Delhi* is commonly used as a [metonym](#) for the Union government,<sup>[19]</sup> as the seat of the central government is in [New Delhi](#).

## Legislature

: [Parliament of India](#)



Parliament House, New Delhi

The powers of the legislature in India are exercised by [the Parliament](#), a bicameral legislature consisting of the [Rajya Sabha](#) and the [Lok Sabha](#). Of the two houses of parliament, the Rajya Sabha (or the 'Council of States') is considered to be the [upper house](#) and consists of members appointed by the president and [elected](#) by the [state and territorial legislatures](#). The Lok Sabha (or the 'House of the People') is considered the [lower house](#).<sup>[20]</sup>

The parliament does not have complete control and [sovereignty](#), as its laws are subject to [judicial review](#) by the [Supreme Court](#).<sup>[21]</sup> However, it does exercise some control over the [executive](#). The members of the [Council of Ministers](#), including [the prime minister](#), are either chosen from parliament or elected there within six months of assuming office.<sup>[22]</sup> The council as a whole is [responsible](#) to the Lok Sabha. The Lok Sabha is a temporary house and can be dissolved only when the party in power loses the support of the majority of the house. The Rajya Sabha is a permanent house and can never be dissolved. The members of the Rajya Sabha are elected for a six-year

## UNIT II

The [executive](#) of government is the one that has sole authority and responsibility for the daily administration of the state bureaucracy. The division of power into separate branches of government is central to the republican idea of the [separation of powers](#).<sup>[25]</sup>

### **President OF INDIA**

The executive power is vested mainly in the [President of India](#), as per Article 53(1) of the constitution. The president has all [constitutional](#) powers and exercises them directly or through subordinate officers as per the aforesaid Article 53(1). The president is to act following aid and advice tendered by the Prime Minister, who leads the Council of Ministers as described in [Article 74 of the Constitution](#).

The council of ministers remains in power during the 'pleasure' of the president. However, in practice, the council of ministers must retain the support of the Lok Sabha. If a president were to dismiss the council of ministers on his or her initiative, it might trigger a constitutional crisis. Thus, in practice, the Council of Ministers cannot be dismissed as long as it holds the support of a majority in the [Lok Sabha](#).

The President is responsible for appointing many high officials in India. These high officials include the [governors](#) of the 28 [states](#); the [chief justice](#); other judges of the [supreme court](#) and [high courts](#) on the advice of other judges; the [attorney general](#); the [comptroller and auditor general](#); the [chief election commissioner](#) and other [election commissioners](#); the chairman and members of the [Union Public Service Commission](#); the officers of the [All India Services](#) ([IAS](#), [IFoS](#) and [IPS](#)) and [Central Civil Services](#) in group 'A'; officers of the [Indian Armed Forces](#); and the [ambassadors](#) and [high commissioners](#) to other countries on the recommendations of the Council of Ministers, among others.<sup>[26][27]</sup>

The President, as the [head of state](#), also receives the credentials of [ambassadors](#) from other countries, while the [prime minister](#), as [head of government](#), receives credentials of [high commissioners](#) from other [members of the Commonwealth](#), in line with historical tradition.

The President is the [de jure commander-in-chief](#) of the [Indian Armed Forces](#).<sup>[28]</sup>

The [President of India](#) can grant a pardon to or reduce the sentence of a convicted person once, particularly in cases involving the punishment of death. The decisions involving pardoning and other rights by the president are independent of the opinion of the prime minister or the Lok Sabha majority. In most other cases, however, the president exercises his or her executive powers on the advice of the prime minister.<sup>[29]</sup> Presently, the President of India is [Droupadi Murmu](#).

### **Vice president**

: [Vice President of India](#)

The vice president is the second-highest constitutional position in India after the president. The vice president represents the nation in the absence of the [president](#) and takes charge as acting president in the incident of resignation impeachment or removal of the president. The vice president also has the legislative function of acting as the chairman of the [Rajya Sabha](#).<sup>[30]</sup> The vice president is elected indirectly by members of an electoral college consisting of the members of both the houses of the parliament following the system of [proportional](#)

[representation](#) employing the [single transferable vote](#) and the voting is by secret ballot conducted by the [election commission](#).

**Prime minister:** [Prime Minister of India](#)



North and South Blocks of the [Central Secretariat](#) housing various [ministries of the Government of India](#), with [Rashtrapati Bhavan](#) visible in the distance

The [Prime Minister of India](#), as addressed in the [Constitution of India](#), is the chief executive of the government and the leader of the majority party that holds a majority in the Lok Sabha. The prime minister leads the executive of the Government of India.

The prime minister is the senior member of the cabinet in the executive government in a parliamentary system. The prime minister selects and can dismiss other members of the cabinet; allocates posts to members within the Government; is the presiding member and chairman of the cabinet and is responsible for bringing a proposal of legislation. The resignation or death of the prime minister dissolves the cabinet.

The prime minister is appointed by the president to assist the latter in the administration of the affairs of the executive.

## Cabinet, ministries and agencies

### UNIT III

In [political science](#), a **political system** means the form of [political organization](#) that can be observed, recognised or otherwise declared by a [society](#) or [state](#).<sup>[1]</sup>

It defines the process for making official [government](#) decisions. It usually comprizes the governmental [legal](#) and [economic system](#), [social](#) and [cultural system](#), and other state and government specific systems. However, this is a very simplified view of a much more complex system of categories involving the questions of who should have authority and what the government influence on its people and economy should be.

Along with a basic sociological and socio-anthropological classification, political systems can be classified on a social-cultural axis relative to the [liberal values](#) prevalent in the [Western world](#), where the spectrum is represented as a continuum between political systems recognized as [democracies](#), [totalitarian regimes](#) and, sitting between these two, [authoritarian regimes](#), with a variety of [hybrid regimes](#);<sup>[2][3]</sup> and [monarchies](#) may be also included as a standalone entity or as a hybrid system of the main three.

#### DEFINATION

According to [David Easton](#), "A political system can be designated as the interactions through which values are authoritatively allocated for a society".<sup>[6]</sup> Political system refers broadly to the

process by which laws are made and public resources allocated in a society, and to the relationships among those involved in making these decisions.<sup>[7]</sup>

## Basic classificatiON

Social anthropologists generally recognize several kinds of political systems, often differentiating between ones that they consider uncentralized and ones they consider centralized.<sup>[8]</sup>

- Uncentralized systems
  - [Band society](#)
    - Small family group, no larger than an extended family or clan; it has been defined as consisting of no more than 30 to 50 individuals.
    - A band can cease to exist if only a small group walks out.
  - [Tribe](#)
    - Generally larger, consisting of many families. Tribes have more social institutions, such as a chief or elders.
    - More permanent than bands. Many tribes are sub-divided into bands.
- [Centralized governments](#)
  - [Chieftdom](#)
    - More complex than a tribe or a band society, and less complex than a state or a civilization
    - Characterized by pervasive inequality and centralization of authority.
    - A single lineage/family of the elite class becomes the ruling elite of the chieftdom
    - Complex chieftdoms have two or even three tiers of political hierarchy.
    - "An autonomous political unit comprising a number of villages or communities under the permanent control of a paramount chief"<sup>[9]</sup>
  - [Sovereign state](#)
    - A sovereign state is a state with a permanent population, a defined territory, a government and the capacity to enter into relations with other sovereign states.
- [Supranational political systems](#)
  - Supranational political systems are created by independent nations to reach a common goal or gain strength from forming an alliance.
- [Empires](#)
  - Empires are widespread states consisting of people of different ethnicities under a single rule. Empires - such as the Romans, or British - often made considerable progress in ways of political structures, creating and building city infrastructures, and maintaining civility within the diverse communities. Because of the intricate organization of the empires, they were often able to hold a large majority of power on a universal level.
- Leagues
  - Leagues are international organizations composed of states coming together for a single common purpose. In this way, leagues are different from empires, as they only seek to fulfill a single goal. Often leagues are formed on the brink of a military or economic downfall. Meetings and hearings are conducted in a neutral location with representatives of all involved nations present.

# Western socio-cultural paradigmatic-centric analysis

Further information: [List of forms of government](#)

The sociological interest in political systems is figuring out who holds power within the relationship between the government and its people and how the government's power is used. According to [Yale](#) professor [Juan José Linz](#) there are three main types of political systems today: [democracies](#), [totalitarian regimes](#) and, sitting between these two, [authoritarian regimes](#) (with [hybrid regimes](#)).<sup>[3][10]</sup> Another modern classification system includes [monarchies](#) as a standalone entity or as a hybrid system of the main three.<sup>[4]</sup> Scholars generally refer to a [dictatorship](#) as either a form of authoritarianism or totalitarianism.<sup>[11][12][3][13]</sup>

## Democracy

Further information: [Types of democracy](#)

[Democracy](#) (from [Ancient Greek](#): δημοκρατία, [romanized](#): *dēmokratía*, *dēmos* 'people' and *kratos* 'rule')<sup>[14]</sup> is a system of [government](#) in which [state power](#) is vested in [the people](#) or the [general population](#) of a state.<sup>[15][16][17]</sup> Under a minimalist definition of democracy, rulers are elected through competitive elections while more expansive definitions link democracy to guarantees of [civil liberties](#) and human rights in addition to competitive elections.<sup>[18][19][17]</sup>

## Authoritarianism

[Authoritarianism](#) is a political system characterized by the rejection of [political plurality](#), the use of strong central power to preserve the political [status quo](#), and reductions in [democracy](#), [separation of powers](#), [civil liberties](#), and the [rule of law](#).<sup>[20][21]</sup> Political scientists have created many typologies describing variations of authoritarian forms of government.<sup>[21]</sup> Authoritarian regimes may be either [autocratic](#) or [oligarchic](#) and may be based upon the rule of a [party](#) or the [military](#).<sup>[22][23]</sup> States that have a blurred boundary between democracy and authoritarianism have some times been characterized as "hybrid democracies", "[hybrid regimes](#)" or "competitive authoritarian" states.<sup>[24][25][26]</sup>

## Totalitarian

[Totalitarianism](#) is a political system and a [form of government](#) that prohibits opposition political parties, disregards and outlaws the political claims of individual and group opposition to the state, and controls the [public sphere](#) and the [private sphere](#) of society. In the field of [political science](#), totalitarianism is the extreme form of [authoritarianism](#), wherein all [socio-political power](#) is held by a [dictator](#), who also controls the national politics and the peoples of the nation with continual propaganda campaigns that are broadcast by state-controlled and by friendly private [mass communications media](#).<sup>[27]</sup>

## Monarchy

A [monarchy](#) is a [form of government](#) in which a person, the [monarch](#), [reigns](#) as [head of state](#) for life or until [abdication](#), usually a hereditary position acquired by some form of nominal [divine right](#) or [blessing](#), or [religious](#) sanction. The [political legitimacy](#) and authority of the monarch may

vary from restricted and largely symbolic ([constitutional monarchy](#)), to fully [autocratic](#) ([absolute monarchy](#)), and can span across [executive](#), [legislative](#), and [judicial](#) domains.<sup>[28]</sup>

The [succession](#) of monarchs has mostly been [hereditary](#), often building [dynasties](#). However, [elective](#) and [self-proclaimed](#) monarchies (in the sense of [monarchical states](#)) have also often occurred throughout history.<sup>[29]</sup> [Aristocrats](#), though not inherent to monarchies, often function as the pool of persons from which the monarch is chosen, and to fill the constituting institutions (e.g. [diet](#) and [court](#)), giving many monarchies [oligarchic](#) elements.

## Hybrid

Further information: [Democratization](#) and [Democratic backsliding](#)

A [hybrid regime](#)<sup>[a]</sup> is a type of political system often created as a result of an incomplete [democratic transition](#) from an [authoritarian](#) regime to a [democratic](#) one (or vice versa).<sup>[b]</sup> Hybrid regimes are categorized as having a combination of [autocratic](#) features with democratic ones and can simultaneously hold [political repressions](#) and regular [elections](#).<sup>[b]</sup> Hybrid regimes are commonly found in [developing countries](#) with abundant natural resources such as [petro-states](#).<sup>[47][37][48]</sup> Although these regimes experience civil unrest, they may be relatively stable and tenacious for decades at a time.<sup>[b]</sup> There has been a rise in hybrid regimes since the end of the [Cold War](#).<sup>[49][50]</sup>

The term *hybrid regime* arises from a polymorphic view of political regimes that opposes the dichotomy of [autocracy](#) or [democracy](#).<sup>[51]</sup> Modern scholarly analysis of hybrid regimes focuses attention on the decorative nature of [democratic institutions](#) (elections do not lead to a change of power, different media broadcast the government point of view and the opposition in [parliament](#) votes the same way as the ruling party, among others),<sup>[52]</sup> from which it is concluded that [democratic backsliding](#), a transition to authoritarianism is the most prevalent basis of hybrid regimes.<sup>[b][53]</sup> Some scholars also contend that hybrid regimes may imitate a full [dictatorship](#).<sup>[54][55]</sup>

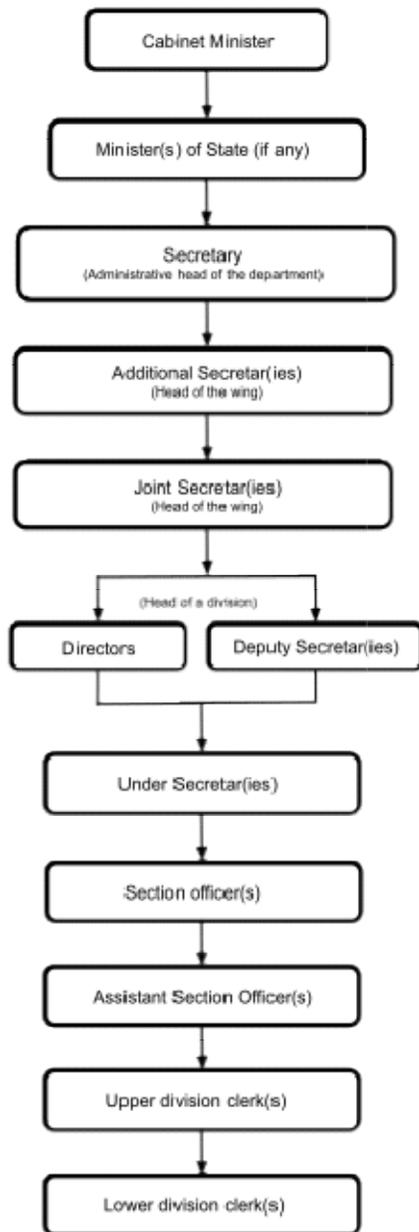
## Marxist/Dialectical materialistic analysis

[19th-century](#) German-born philosopher [Karl Marx](#) analysed that the political systems of "all" state-societies are the *dictatorship* of one [social class](#), vying for *its* interests *against* that of another one; with *which* class oppressing *which* other class being, in essence, determined by the [developmental level](#) of that society, and its repercussions implicated thereof, as the society [progresses](#) through the passage of [time](#). In [capitalist](#) societies, this characterises as the dictatorship of the [bourgeoisie](#) or *capitalist class*, in which the economic and political system is designed to work in their interests collectively as a class, over those of the [proletariat](#) or [working class](#).

Marx devised this theory by adapting his forerunner-contemporary [Georg Wilhelm Friedrich Hegel](#)'s [notion of dialectics](#) into the framework of [materialism](#).

Main articles: [Union Council of Ministers](#) and [List of agencies of the government of India](#)

Organizational structure of a department in  
The Government of India



The organizational structure of a department of the Government of India.

The [Union Council of Ministers](#) includes the prime minister, [Cabinet Ministers](#) and [Ministers of State](#) (MoS).<sup>[31]</sup> Each minister must be a member of one of the houses of the parliament. The cabinet is headed by the [prime minister](#), and is advised by the [cabinet secretary](#), who also acts as the head of the [Indian Administrative Service](#) and other civil services. Other members of the council are either union cabinet ministers, who are heads of various ministries; or ministers of state, who are junior members who report directly to one of the cabinet ministers, often overseeing a specific aspect of government; or ministers of state (independent charges), who do not report to a cabinet minister. As per article 88 of the constitution, every minister shall have the right to speak in, and to take part in the proceedings of, either house, any joint sitting of the

houses, and any committee of parliament of which he may be named a member, but shall *not* be entitled to a vote in the house where he is not a member.

## Secretaries

### [Secretary to the Government of India](#)

A [secretary to the Government of India](#), a [civil servant](#), generally an [Indian Administrative Service](#) (IAS) officer,<sup>[32][33][34][35]</sup> is the administrative head of the ministry or department, and is the principal adviser to the minister on all matters of policy and administration within the ministry/department.<sup>[36][37]</sup> Secretaries to the Government of India rank 23rd on [Indian order of precedence](#).<sup>[38][39][40][41]</sup> Secretaries at the higher level are assisted by one or many [additional secretaries](#), who are further assisted by [joint secretaries](#).<sup>[37]</sup> At the middle they are assisted by directors/deputy secretaries and under secretaries.<sup>[37]</sup> At the lower level, there are section officers, assistant section officers, upper division clerks, lower division clerks and other secretarial staff.<sup>[37]</sup>

## Ministries and departments of the Government of India hide

Ministry	Department(s)
1 <u><a href="#">Prime Minister's Office</a></u>	<u><a href="#">Department of Atomic Energy</a></u> <u><a href="#">Department of Space</a></u>
2 <u><a href="#">Ministry of Agriculture and Farmers Welfare</a></u>	<u><a href="#">Department of Agriculture and Farmers Welfare</a></u> Department of Agricultural Research and Education
3 <u><a href="#">Ministry of Ayush</a></u>	Department of Chemicals and Petrochemicals
4 <u><a href="#">Ministry of Chemicals and Fertilizers</a></u>	Department of Fertilizers Department of Pharmaceuticals
5 <u><a href="#">Ministry of Civil Aviation</a></u>	
6 <u><a href="#">Ministry of Co-operation</a></u>	
7 <u><a href="#">Ministry of Coal</a></u>	
8 <u><a href="#">Ministry of Commerce and Industry</a></u>	<u><a href="#">Department for Promotion of Industry and</a></u>

9 [Ministry of Communications](#)

10 [Ministry of Consumer Affairs, Food and Public Distribution](#)

11 [Ministry of Corporate Affairs](#)

12 [Ministry of Culture](#)

13 [Ministry of Defence](#)

14 [Ministry of Development of North Eastern Region](#)

15 [Ministry of Earth Sciences](#)

16 [Ministry of Education](#)

17 [Ministry of Electronics and Information Technology](#)

18 [Ministry of Environment, Forest and Climate Change](#)

19 [Ministry of External Affairs](#)

[Internal Trade](#)

Department of Commerce

[Department of Posts](#)

[Department of Telecommunications](#)

Department of Consumer Affairs

Department of Food and Public Distribution

Department of Defence

Department of Defence Production

Department of Defence Research and Development

[Department of Ex-servicemen Welfare](#)

[Department of Military Affairs](#)

[Department of Higher Education](#)

Department of School Education and Literacy

- 20 [Ministry of Finance](#)
- Department of Economic Affairs
  - Department of Expenditure
  - Department of Financial Services
  - Department of Investment and Public Asset Management
  - Department of Public Enterprises
  - Department of Revenue
- 21 [Ministry of Fisheries, Animal Husbandry and Dairying](#)
- Department of Animal Husbandry, Dairying & Fisheries
- 22 [Ministry of Food Processing Industries](#)
- Department of Family Welfare
- 23 [Ministry of Health and Family Welfare](#)
- Department of Health
  - Department of Health Research
- 24 [Ministry of Heavy Industries](#)
- Department of Border Management
  - Department of Home
  - Department of Internal Security
- 25 [Ministry of Home Affairs](#)
- Department of Jammu, Kashmir and Ladakh Affairs
  - [Department of Official Language](#)
  - Department of States
- 26 [Ministry of Housing and Urban Affairs](#)
- [Central Public Works Department](#)
- 27 [Ministry of Information and Broadcasting](#)

- 28 [Ministry of Jal Shakti](#)
- 29 [Ministry of Labour and Employment](#)
- 30 [Ministry of Law and Justice](#)
- 31 [Ministry of Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises](#)
- 32 [Ministry of Mines](#)
- 33 [Ministry of Minority Affairs](#)
- 34 [Ministry of New and Renewable Energy](#)
- 35 [Ministry of Panchayati Raj](#)
- 36 [Ministry of Parliamentary Affairs](#)
- 37 [Ministry of Personnel, Public Grievances and Pensions](#)
- 38 [Ministry of Petroleum and Natural Gas](#)
- 39 [Ministry of Planning](#)
- 40 [Ministry of Ports, Shipping and Waterways](#)
- 41 [Ministry of Power](#)
- 42 [Ministry of Railways](#)
- 43 [Ministry of Road Transport and Highways](#)
- Department of Legal Affairs
- Department of Justice
- Legislative Department
- Department of Administrative Reforms & Public Grievances
- Department of Pension and Pensioners' Welfare
- Department of Personnel and Training

44	<a href="#">Ministry of Rural Development</a>	Department of Land Resources Department of Rural Development <a href="#">Department of Biotechnology</a>
45	<a href="#">Ministry of Science and Technology</a>	Department of Scientific and Industrial Research <a href="#">Department of Science and Technology</a>
46	<a href="#">Ministry of Skill Development and Entrepreneurship</a>	
47	<a href="#">Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment</a>	Department of Empowerment of Persons with Disabilities Department of Social Justice and Empowerment
48	<a href="#">Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation</a>	
49	<a href="#">Ministry of Steel</a>	
50	<a href="#">Ministry of Textiles</a>	
51	<a href="#">Ministry of Tourism</a>	
52	<a href="#">Ministry of Tribal Affairs</a>	
53	<a href="#">Ministry of Women and Child Development</a>	
54	<a href="#">Ministry of Youth Affairs and Sports</a>	Department of Youth Affairs Department of Sports

## **Civil services**

### [Civil Services of India](#)

The Civil Services of India are the civil services and the permanent [bureaucracy](#) of India. The [executive](#) decisions are implemented by the Indian civil servants.

[Cabinet Secretary Rajiv Gauba](#), an [Indian Administrative Service](#) officer meets with trainee officers of the [Indian Police Service](#); both arms of the [All India Services](#)

In the [parliamentary democracy](#) of India, the ultimate responsibility for running the administration rests with the elected representatives of the people which are the ministers. These ministers are accountable to the legislatures which are also elected by the people based on [universal adult suffrage](#). The ministers are indirectly responsible to the people themselves. But the handful of ministers is not expected to deal personally with the various problems of modern administration. Thus the ministers lay down the policy and it is for the civil servants to enforce it.

## **Cabinet secretary**

: [Cabinet Secretary of India](#)

The cabinet secretary (*IAST: Mamtrimaṇḍala Saciva*) is the top-most executive official and [senior-most civil servant](#) of the Government of India. The cabinet secretary is the *ex-officio* head of the Civil Services Board, the [Cabinet Secretariat](#), the [Indian Administrative Service](#) (IAS) and the head of all civil services under the rules of business of the government.

The cabinet secretary is generally the senior-most officer of the [Indian Administrative Service](#). The cabinet secretary ranks 11th on the [Indian order of precedence](#).<sup>[38][39][40][41]</sup> The cabinet secretary is under the direct charge of the [prime minister](#). Presently, the [Cabinet Secretary of India](#) is [Rajiv Gauba](#), [IAS](#).

## **Judiciary**

: [Judiciary of India](#)

India's independent union judicial system began under the British, and its concepts and procedures resemble those of [Anglo-Saxon countries](#). The [Supreme Court of India](#) consists of the [chief justice](#) and 33 associate justices, all appointed by the president on the advice of the [Chief Justice of India](#). The jury trials were abolished in India in the early 1960s, after the famous case *[KM Nanavati v. the State of Maharashtra](#)*, for reasons of being vulnerable to media and public pressure, as well as to being misled.

Unlike its United States counterpart, the Indian justice system consists of a unitary system at both state and union levels. The judiciary consists of the [Supreme Court of India](#), [high courts](#) at the state level, and [district courts](#) and [Sessions Courts](#) at the [district](#) level.

## **Supreme Court**

: [Supreme Court of India](#)



Complex of the [Supreme Court of India](#) in [New Delhi](#)

The [Supreme Court of India](#) is situated in [New Delhi](#), the capital region of [India](#).

The Supreme Court is the highest judicial forum and final court of appeal under the [Constitution of India](#), the highest constitutional court, with the power of [constitutional review](#). Consisting of the [Chief Justice of India](#) and 33 sanctioned other judges, it has extensive powers in the form of [original](#), [appellate](#) and [advisory jurisdictions](#).<sup>[42]</sup>

As the [final court of appeal](#) of the country, it takes up appeals primarily against verdicts of the [high courts](#) of various states of the Union and other courts and tribunals. It safeguards [fundamental rights](#) of citizens and settles disputes between various governments in the country. As an advisory court, it hears matters which may specifically be referred to it under the [constitution](#) by the president. It also may take cognisance of matters on its own (or 'suo moto'), without anyone drawing its attention to them. The law declared by the supreme court becomes binding on all courts within India and also by the union and state governments.<sup>[43]</sup> Per [Article 142](#), it is the duty of the [president](#) to enforce the decrees of the supreme court.

In addition, Article 32 of the constitution gives an extensive original jurisdiction to the supreme court concerning enforcing fundamental rights. It is empowered to issue directions, orders or writs, including [writs](#) in the nature of [habeas corpus](#), [mandamus](#), [prohibition](#), [quo warranto](#) and [certiorari](#) to enforce them. The supreme court has been conferred with power to direct the transfer of any civil or criminal case from one state high court to another state high court, or from a Court subordinate to another state high court and the supreme court. Although the proceedings in the supreme court arise out of the judgment or orders made by the subordinate courts, of late<sup>[when?]</sup> the supreme court has started entertaining matters in which the interest of the public at large is involved. This may be done by any individual or group of persons either by filing a [writ petition](#) at the filing counter of the court or by addressing a letter to the [Chief Justice of India](#), highlighting the question of public importance for redress. These are known as [public interest litigations](#).<sup>[44]</sup>

### [Elections in India](#) and [Politics of India](#) : [Election Commission of India](#)

India has a [quasi-federal](#) form of government, called "union" or "central" government,<sup>[45]</sup> with elected officials at the union, state and local levels. At the national level, the [head of government](#), the [prime minister](#), is appointed by the [president of India](#) from the party or coalition that has the majority of seats in the [Lok Sabha](#). The members of the Lok Sabha are directly elected for a term of five years by [universal adult suffrage](#) through a [first-past-the-post](#) voting system. Members of the [Rajya Sabha](#), which represents the [states](#), are elected by the members of State legislative assemblies by [proportional representation](#), except for 12 members who are nominated by the president.

India is currently the largest democracy in the world, with around 900 million eligible voters, as of 2019.<sup>[46]</sup>

In India, power is divided between the governments of the union and the [states of India](#),<sup>[47]</sup> the latter being ruled by the [chiefs ministers](#).<sup>[48]</sup> The state legislature is [bicameral](#) in [five states](#) and [unicameral](#) in the rest.<sup>[49]</sup> The lower house is elected with a five-year term, while in

the upper house one-third of the members in the house gets elected every two years with six-year terms.

Local governments function at the basic level. It is the third level of government apart from union and state governments. It consists of [panchayats](#) in rural areas and [municipalities](#) in urban areas. They are elected directly or indirectly by the people.

## Finance

: [Reserve Bank of India](#)

### Taxation

: [Taxation in India](#)



[Reserve Bank of India](#)'s headquarters in Mumbai, India's financial capital

India has a three-tier tax structure, wherein the [constitution](#) empowers the union government to levy [income tax](#), tax on capital transactions ([wealth tax](#), [inheritance tax](#)), [sales tax](#), service tax, customs and [excise](#) duties and the [state governments](#) to levy sales tax on intrastate sale of goods, tax on [entertainment](#) and [professions](#), excise duties on manufacture of [alcohol](#), [stamp duties](#) on transfer of property and collect land revenue (levy on land owned). The [local governments](#) are empowered by the state government to levy [property tax](#) and charge users for [public utilities](#) like [water supply](#), [sewage](#) etc.<sup>[50]</sup> More than half of the revenues of the union and state governments come from taxes, of which 3/4 come from [direct taxes](#). More than a quarter of the union government's tax revenues are shared with the state governments.<sup>[51]</sup>

The tax reforms, initiated in 1991, have sought to rationalise the tax structure and increase compliance by taking steps in the following directions:

- Reducing the rates of individual and corporate income taxes, excises, and customs and making it more progressive
- Reducing exemptions and concessions
- Simplification of laws and procedures
- Introduction of [permanent account number](#) (PAN) to track monetary transactions

- 21 of the 29 states introduced [value added tax](#) (VAT) on 1 April 2005 to replace the complex and multiple sales tax system<sup>[50][52]</sup>

The non-tax revenues of the central government come from [fiscal](#) services, interest receipts, public sector dividends, etc., while the non-tax revenues of the States are grants from the central government, interest receipts, dividends and income from general, economic and social services.<sup>[53]</sup>

Inter-state share in the union tax pool is decided by the recommendations of the [Finance Commission](#) to the president.

Total tax receipts of Centre and State amount to approximately 18% of national GDP. This compares to a figure of 37–45% in the OECD.

## Union budget

### [Union budget of India](#)

The Finance minister of India usually presents the annual [union budget](#) in the [parliament](#) on the last [working day](#) of February. However, for the F.Y. 2017–18, this tradition had been changed. Now the budget will be presented on the 1st day of February. The budget has to be passed by the [Lok Sabha](#) before it can come into effect on 1 April, the start of India's [fiscal year](#). The Union budget is preceded by an [economic survey](#) which outlines the broad direction of the budget and the economic performance of the country for the outgoing financial year<sup>[54]</sup>

India's non-development revenue expenditure had increased nearly five-fold in 2003–04 since 1990–91 and more than tenfold from 1985 to 1986. Interest payments are the single largest item of expenditure and accounted for more than 40% of the total non-development expenditure in the 2003–04 budget. Defence expenditure increased fourfold during the same period and has been increasing to defend from a difficult neighbourhood and external terror threats. In 2020–21, India's defence budget stood at ₹4.71 trillion (equivalent to ₹5.5 trillion or US\$66 billion in 2023).

## Issues

### Corruption

#### [: Corruption in India](#)

In 2009, several ministers are accused of corruption and nearly a quarter of the 543 elected members of parliament had been charged with crimes, including murder.<sup>[55]</sup> Many of the biggest scandals since 2010 have involved high-level government officials, including cabinet ministers and chief ministers, such as the [2010 Commonwealth Games scam](#) (₹700 billion (equivalent to ₹1.6 trillion or US\$19 billion in 2023)), the [Adarsh Housing Society scam](#), the [Coal Mining Scam](#) (₹1.86 trillion (equivalent to ₹4.2 trillion or US\$50 billion in 2023)), the [mining scandal in Karnataka](#) and the [cash-for-votes scandal](#)







**Comparative politics** is a field in [political science](#) characterized either by the use of the [comparative method](#) or other empirical methods to explore politics both within and between countries. Substantively, this can include questions relating to [political institutions](#), [political behavior](#), conflict, and the causes and consequences of [economic development](#). When applied to specific fields of study, comparative politics may be referred to by other names, such as **comparative government** (the comparative study of forms of [government](#)).

## Definition

Comparative politics is the systematic study and comparison of the diverse political systems in the world. It is comparative in searching to explain why different political systems have similarities or differences and how developmental changes came to be between them. It is systematic in that it looks for trends, patterns, and regularities among these political systems. The research field takes into account political systems throughout the globe, focusing on themes such as [democratization](#), [globalization](#), and integration. New theories and approaches have been used in political science in the last 40 years thanks to comparative politics. Some of these focus on [political culture](#), [dependency theory](#), developmentalism, [corporatism](#), indigenous theories of change, comparative political economy, state-society relations, and new institutionalism.<sup>[1]</sup> Some examples of comparative politics are studying the differences between presidential and [parliamentary systems](#), [democracies](#) and [dictatorships](#), parliamentary systems in different countries, multi-party systems such as [Canada](#) and two-party systems such as the [United States](#). Comparative politics must be conducted at a specific point in time, usually the present. A researcher cannot compare systems from different periods of time; it must be static.<sup>[1]</sup>

While historically the discipline explored broad questions in political science through between-country comparisons, contemporary comparative political science primarily uses subnational comparisons.<sup>[2]</sup> More recently, there has been a significant increase in the interest of subnational comparisons and the benefit it has on comparative politics. We would know far less about major credible issues within political science if it weren't for subnational research. Subnational research contributes important methodological, theoretical, and substantive ideas to the study of politics.<sup>[3]</sup> Important developments often obscured by a national-level focus are easier to decipher through subnational research. An example could be regions inside countries where the presence of state institutions have been reduced in effect or value.<sup>[3]</sup>

The name **comparative politics** refers to the discipline's historical association with the [comparative method](#), described in detail [below](#). [Arend Lijphart](#) argues that comparative politics does not have a *substantive* focus in itself, but rather a *methodological* one: it focuses on "the *how* but does not specify the *what* of the analysis."<sup>[4]</sup> [Peter Mair](#) and [Richard Rose](#) advance a slightly different definition, arguing that comparative politics is defined by a combination of a *substantive* focus on the study of countries' political systems and a *method* of identifying and explaining similarities and differences between these countries using common concepts.<sup>[5][6]</sup>

Sometimes, especially in the United States, the term "comparative politics" is used to refer to "the politics of foreign countries." This usage of the term is disputed.<sup>[7][8]</sup>

Comparative politics is significant because it helps people understand the nature and working of political frameworks around the world. There are many types of political systems worldwide according to the authentic, social, ethnic, racial, and social history. Indeed, even comparative constructions of political association shift starting with one country then onto the next. For instance, [India](#) and the United States are majority-rule nations; nonetheless, the U.S. has a liberal vote-based [presidential system](#) contrasted with the parliamentary system used in India. Even the political decision measure is more diverse in the United States when found in light of the Indian [popular government](#). The United States has a president as their leader, while India has a [prime minister](#). Relative legislative issues encourage us to comprehend these central contracts and how the two nations are altogether different regardless of being majority rule. This field of study is critical for the fields of international relations and conflict resolution. Near politics encourages international relations to clarify worldwide legislative issues and the present winning conditions worldwide. Although both are subfields of political science, comparative politics examines the causes of international strategy and the effect of worldwide approaches and frameworks on homegrown political conduct and working.

## History of the field

[Harry H. Eckstein](#) traces the history of the field of comparative politics back to Aristotle, and sees a string of thinkers from [Machiavelli](#) and [Montesquieu](#), to [Gaetano Mosca](#) and [Max Weber](#), [Vilfredo Pareto](#) and [Robert Michels](#), on to [James Bryce](#) - with his *Modern Democracies* (1921) - and [Carl Joachim Friedrich](#) - with his *Constitutional Government and Democracy* (1937) - contributing to its history.<sup>[9]</sup>

### Two traditions reaching back to Aristotle and Plato

[Philippe C. Schmitter](#) argues that the "family tree" of comparative politics has two main traditions: one, invented by Aristotle, that he calls "sociological constitutionalism"; a second, that he traced back to Plato, that he calls "legal constitutionalism".<sup>[10]</sup>

Schmitter places various scholars under each tradition:

- 1. *Sociological constitutionalism*: Some classic scholars in this tradition are: "[Polybius](#), [Machiavelli](#), [Montesquieu](#), [Benjamin Constant](#), [Alexis de Tocqueville](#), [Lorenz von Stein](#), [Karl Marx](#), [Moisei Ostrogorski](#), [Max Weber](#), [Emile Durkheim](#), [Robert Michels](#), [Gaetano Mosca](#), [Vilfredo Pareto](#), and [Herbert Tingsten](#)." Schmitter argues that, in the twentieth century, this tradition was known by the label of "historical [political sociology](#)" and included scholars such as "[Stein Rokkan](#), [T.H. Marshall](#), [Reinhard Bendix](#), [Otto Kirchheimer](#), [Seymour Martin Lipset](#), [Juan Linz](#), [Hans Daalder](#), [Mattei Dogan](#), [S.N. Eisenstadt](#), [Harry Eckstein](#), and [Dankwart Rustow](#)."<sup>[11]</sup>
- 2. *Legal constitutionalism*: Some classic scholars in this tradition are: "[Léon Duquít](#), [Georges Burdeau](#), [James Bryce](#), [A. Lawrence Lowell](#), and [Woodrow Wilson](#)." Schmitter argues that in the twentieth century this tradition was continued by: "[Maurice Duverger](#), [Herman Finer](#), [Samuel Finer](#), [Giovanni Sartori](#), [Carl J. Friedrich](#), [Samuel Beer](#), [Jean Blondel](#), [F.A. Hermens](#), and [Klaus von Beyme](#)."<sup>[11]</sup>

## Periodization as a field of political science

[Gerardo L. Munck](#) offers the following periodization for the evolution of modern comparative politics, as a field of [political science](#) - understood as an [academic discipline](#) - in the United States:<sup>[12]</sup>

- 1. The Constitution of Political Science as a Discipline, 1880–1920
- 2. The [Behavioral Revolution](#), 1921–66
- 3. The Post-Behavioral Period, 1967–88
- 4. The Second Scientific Revolution 1989–2005

## Contemporary patterns, 2000-present

Since the turn of the century, several trends in the field can be detected.<sup>[13]</sup>

- End of the pretense of rational choice theory to hegemonize the field
- Lack of a unifying [metatheory](#)
- Greater attention to [causal inference](#), and increased use of [experimental methods](#).
- Continued use of observation methods, including qualitative methods.
- New concern with a "hegemony of methods" as theorizing is not given as much attention.

## Substantive areas of research

By some definitions, comparative politics can be traced back to [Greek philosophy](#), as [Plato's Republic](#) and [Aristotle's The Politics](#).

As a modern sub-discipline, comparative politics is constituted by research across a range of substantive areas, including the study of:

- Politics of [democratic](#) states

- Politics of [authoritarian](#) states
- [Public goods](#) provision and distributive politics
- [Political violence](#)
- [Political identity](#), including [ethnic](#) and religious politics
- [Democratization](#) and [regime change](#)
- Elections and [electoral](#) and [party systems](#)
- Political economy of [development](#)
- [Collective action](#)
- [Voting behavior](#)
- Origins of the [state](#)
- Comparative political [institutions](#)
- [Methodologies](#) for comparative political research
- Quantitative politics with [democracy indices](#)

While many researchers, research regimes, and research institutions are identified according to the above categories or foci, it is not uncommon to claim geographic or country specialization as the differentiating category.

The division between comparative politics and international relations is artificial, as processes within nations shape international processes, and international processes shape processes within states.<sup>[14][15][16]</sup> Some scholars have called for an integration of the fields.<sup>[17][18]</sup> Comparative politics does not have similar "isms" as international relations scholarship.<sup>[19]</sup>

## Methodology

While the name of the subfield suggests one [methodological](#) approach (*the comparative method*), political scientists in comparative politics use the same diversity of social scientific methods as scientists elsewhere in the field, including experiments,<sup>[20]</sup> comparative historical analysis,<sup>[21]</sup> case studies,<sup>[22]</sup> [survey methodology](#), and ethnography.<sup>[23]</sup> Researchers choose a methodological approach in comparative politics driven by two concerns: ontological orientation<sup>[24]</sup> and the type of question or phenomenon of interest.<sup>[25]</sup>

### (Mill's) comparative

#### [Mill's Methods](#)

- [Most Similar Systems Design/Mill's Method of Difference](#): This method consists in comparing very similar cases which only differ in the *dependent variable*, on the assumption that this would make it easier to find those *independent variables* which explain the presence/absence of the dependent variable.<sup>[26]</sup>
- [Most Different Systems Design/Mill's Method of Similarity](#): This method consists in comparing very different cases, all of which however have in common the same *dependent variable*, so that any other circumstance which is present in all the cases can be regarded as the *independent variable*.<sup>[26]</sup>

### Subnational comparative analysis

Since the turn of the century, many students of comparative politics have compared units within a country. Relatedly, there has been a growing discussion of what Richard O. Snyder calls the "subnational comparative method"