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Chapter 1: The End of Bipolarity

Complete 20-Part Comprehensive Master Study Material, The Soviet System, Gorbachev's Reforms, Disintegration of USSR, Shock Therapy, India-Russia Relations, NCERT Solutions & Practice Test

SUBJECT & STREAM

Political Science (Contemporary World Politics) •
Humanities / Arts

TARGET CLASS & LEVEL

Class 12 (Senior Secondary Board Examinations)

TEXTBOOK & CHAPTER

NCERT Contemporary World Politics • Chapter 1

MATERIAL STANDARD

100% Textbook Grounded • Simple English • 20-
Part Master Framework

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Class 12 Political Science (NCERT) • Chapter 1: The End of Bipolarity

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PART 3: CHAPTER OVERVIEW & CONCEPTUAL ARCHITECTURE

What this chapter is about: The Berlin Wall, which stood as the greatest physical and ideological symbol of the Cold War division between the capitalist West and the communist East, was toppled by ordinary citizens on 9 November 1989. This dramatic historical watershed triggered the collapse of the 'Second World' (the socialist bloc) and the disintegration of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR) in December 1991, bringing a decisive end to the bipolar structure of world politics.

Why this chapter is important: Understanding the rise and fall of the Soviet Union is essential to comprehending contemporary international relations. It explains why a superpower collapsed without an external war, how post-communist nations transitioned painfully from socialism to capitalism via 'Shock Therapy', and why India maintains deep strategic, defense, and energy ties with Russia and Central Asia.

The Central Theme: *"How and why did the world's second most powerful superpower disintegrate from within, and what were the political, economic, and geopolitical consequences of the end of bipolarity?"*

Conceptual Architecture:

- *Symbol of Cold War End:* Construction (1961) and fall (9 Nov 1989) of the 150-km Berlin Wall unifying Germany.
- *Anatomy of the Soviet System:* Born from the 1917 Bolshevik Socialist Revolution; state ownership, planned economy, welfare guarantees vs. one-party authoritarianism, bureaucratic stagnation, and military overspending.
- *Gorbachev & The Collapse:* Twin reforms of *Perestroika* (restructuring) and *Glasnost* (openness); August 1991 coup; Boris Yeltsin's rise; December 1991 disintegration and creation of the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS).
- *Causes & Consequences:* Economic stagnation, consumer shortages, nationalist upsurge in Baltic/Slavic republics → End of Cold War, emergence of 15 republics, and unipolar US dominance.
- *Shock Therapy & Its Fallout:* Rapid IMF/World Bank-sponsored transition to capitalism → "Largest garage sale in history", ruble collapse, hyperinflation, mafia rise, and post-2000 resource-led recovery.
- *Conflicts & India-USSR/Russia Ties:* Secessionist wars in Chechnya, Tajikistan, Yugoslavia; Indo-Soviet friendship and 2001 Indo-Russian Strategic Partnership.

PART 4: LEARNING OBJECTIVES & EXAMINATION COMPETENCIES

1. **Analyze the Soviet System:** Evaluate both the positive welfare achievements and the negative authoritarian defects of the USSR model.
2. **Chronicle Soviet Leadership:** Identify the specific historical roles played by Lenin, Stalin, Khrushchev, Brezhnev, Gorbachev, and Yeltsin.
3. **Explain the Causes of Disintegration:** Synthesize economic stagnation, military expenditure, Communist Party unaccountability, and nationalist aspirations.
4. **Evaluate 'Shock Therapy':** Define Shock Therapy and critically analyze its devastating economic and social consequences across post-communist regimes.
5. **Map Post-Soviet Conflicts:** Locate and explain ethnic and secessionist conflicts in Chechnya, Dagestan, Tajikistan, Nagorno-Karabakh, Georgia, Czechoslovakia, and Yugoslavia.

6. **Examine India–Russia Relations:** Substantiate how Indo-Russian strategic, military, nuclear, and energy cooperation serves the national interests of both nations.

PART 5: COMPLETE HEADING-BY-HEADING COMPREHENSIVE NOTES

1. The Berlin Wall: Greatest Symbol of the Cold War

- **Historical Context:** Built in **1961** at the height of the Cold War to separate East Berlin from West Berlin, symbolizing the ideological division between the capitalist Western world and the communist Eastern bloc.
- **Physical Dimensions & Duration:** The wall extended for more than **150 kilometres** and stood for **28 years**.
- **The Fall (9 November 1989):** Broken down by ordinary people on 9 November 1989. This marked the unification of the two parts of Germany and triggered the dramatic collapse of the communist bloc ('Second World') and the end of the Cold War.

2. What Was the Soviet System?

Origin: The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR) came into being after the **Socialist Revolution in Russia in 1917**.

- **Ideological Foundation:** Inspired by the ideals of **socialism** as opposed to capitalism, aiming to establish an **egalitarian society** (a society based on equality).
- **Abolition of Private Property:** Attempted to abolish the institution of private property and consciously design a society where land and productive assets were owned and controlled by the Soviet state.
- **Political Primacy of the Communist Party:** The Soviet political system centered around the **Communist Party**, which allowed no other political party or opposition to exist.
- **Planned Economy:** The economy was planned, directed, and controlled entirely by the state through Five-Year Plans.

A. Positive Achievements & Strengths of the Soviet System

1. **Superpower Status:** After the Second World War, the Soviet economy became the second most developed in the world after the US.
2. **Advanced Infrastructure:** Possessed a complex communications network, vast energy resources (oil, iron, steel, machinery production), and an efficient transport sector connecting its remotest regions.
3. **Domestic Consumer Industry:** Had a vast domestic consumer industry that produced everything from **pins to cars** (though their quality did not match Western standards).
4. **Minimum Standard of Living Guaranteed:** The Soviet state ensured a minimum standard of living for all citizens.
5. **Subsidised Basic Necessities:** The government heavily subsidised basic necessities including **health, education, childcare**, and other welfare schemes.
6. **Zero Unemployment:** There was **no unemployment** in the Soviet system.

B. Negative Drawbacks & Structural Flaws of the Soviet System

1. **Bureaucratic & Authoritarian Drift:** The system became highly bureaucratic and authoritarian, making life very difficult for ordinary citizens.
2. **Lack of Democracy & Free Speech:** Absence of democracy and freedom of speech meant people often expressed their dissent only in **jokes and cartoons**.
3. **Lack of Accountability:** Most institutions of the Soviet state needed reform; the one-party system represented by the Communist Party of the Soviet Union had tight control over all institutions and was

unaccountable to the people.

4. **Suppression of Regional Cultural Affairs:** The party refused to recognise the urge of people in the **15 different republics** that formed the Soviet Union to manage their own affairs including their cultural affairs.
5. **Russian Domination:** Although on paper Russia was only one of the 15 republics that together constituted the USSR, in reality **Russia dominated everything**, and people from other regions felt neglected and often suppressed.
6. **Crushing Military & Arms Race Burden:** The Soviet Union managed to match the US in the arms race from time to time, but at great economic cost. It lagged behind the West in technology, infrastructure (transport, power), and fulfilling citizens' political and economic aspirations.
7. **1979 Invasion of Afghanistan:** The Soviet invasion of Afghanistan in **1979** weakened the system even further. Though wages continued to grow, productivity and technology fell considerably behind the West, leading to acute shortages of consumer goods and mounting food imports every year. The Soviet economy was faltering in the late 1970s and became stagnant.

NCERT BOX: LEADERS OF THE SOVIET UNION (CHRONOLOGICAL FACT-FILE)

- **1. Vladimir Lenin (1870–1924):** Founder of the Bolshevik Communist Party; leader of the Russian Revolution of 1917 and the founder-head of the USSR during the most difficult period following the revolution (1917–1924); an outstanding practitioner of Marxism and a source of inspiration for communists all over the world.
- **2. Joseph Stalin (1879–1953):** Successor to Lenin and led the Soviet Union during its consolidation (1924–53); began rapid industrialisation and forcible collectivisation of agriculture; credited with Soviet victory in the Second World War; held responsible for the Great Terror of the 1930s, authoritarian functioning, and elimination of rivals within the party.
- **3. Nikita Khrushchev (1894–1971):** Leader of the Soviet Union (1953–64); denounced Stalin's leadership style and introduced some reforms in 1956; suggested "*peaceful coexistence*" with the West; involved in suppressing popular rebellion in Hungary and in the Cuban missile crisis.
- **4. Leonid Brezhnev (1906–1982):** Leader of the Soviet Union (1964–82); proposed Asian Collective Security system; associated with the *détente* phase in relations with the US; involved in suppressing a popular rebellion in Czechoslovakia and in invading Afghanistan (1979).
- **5. Mikhail Gorbachev (Born 1931):** Last leader of the Soviet Union (1985–91); introduced economic and political reform policies of *perestroika* (restructuring) and *glasnost* (openness); stopped the arms race with the US; withdrew Soviet troops from Afghanistan and eastern Europe; helped in the unification of Germany; ended the Cold War; blamed for the disintegration of the Soviet Union.
- **6. Boris Yeltsin (1931–2007):** The first elected President of Russia (1991–1999); rose to power in the Communist Party and was made Mayor of Moscow by Gorbachev; later joined the critics of Gorbachev and left the Communist Party; led the protests against the Soviet regime in 1991; played a key role in dissolving the Soviet Union; blamed for hardships suffered by Russians in their transition from communism to capitalism.

3. Gorbachev and the Disintegration of the USSR

- **Gorbachev's Appointment (1985):** Mikhail Gorbachev became General Secretary of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union in **1985** and sought to reform the stagnant system.
- **Objectives of Reforms:** Reforms were necessary to keep the USSR abreast of the information and technological revolutions taking place in the West, to normalise relations with the West, and to democratise and reform the Soviet Union.

- **Unintended Consequences in Eastern Europe:** When people in the East European countries which were part of the Soviet bloc started to protest against their own governments and Soviet control, Gorbachev **did not intervene** (unlike in the past). As a result, the communist regimes collapsed one after another.
- **The Twin Reform Policies:** Gorbachev initiated the policies of economic and political reform and democratisation within the country:
 - **Perestroika:** Economic and political *restructuring*.
 - **Glasnost:** Political *openness* and transparency.
- **The August 1991 Coup:** The reforms were opposed by hardliners within the Communist Party. A coup took place in **August 1991** that was encouraged by Communist Party hardliners. However, the people had tasted freedom and did not want the old-style rule of the Communist Party back. **Boris Yeltsin** emerged as a national hero in opposing this coup.
- **Shift of Power to the Republics:** The Russian Republic, where Yeltsin won a popular election, began to shake off centralised control. Power began to shift from the Soviet centre to the republics, especially in the more Europeanised part of the Soviet Union, which saw themselves as sovereign states.
- **Final Dissolution (December 1991):** In **December 1991**, under the leadership of Boris Yeltsin, three major republics of the USSR—**Russia, Ukraine, and Belarus**—declared that the Soviet Union was disbanded. The Communist Party of the Soviet Union was banned.
- **Formation of CIS:** Capitalism and democracy were adopted as the bases for the post-Soviet republics. The formation of the **Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS)** came as a surprise to the other republics, especially in Central Asia, an exclusion that was quickly resolved by making them founding members of the CIS.
- **Russia as the Successor State:** Russia was accepted as the successor state of the Soviet Union. It inherited the **Soviet seat in the UN Security Council**, accepted all the international treaties and commitments of the Soviet Union, and took over as the **only nuclear state** of the post-Soviet space, carrying out nuclear disarmament measures with the US.

NCERT TIMELINE OF DISINTEGRATION OF THE SOVIET UNION (1985–1991)

- **1985 March:** Mikhail Gorbachev elected as the General Secretary of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union; appoints Boris Yeltsin as the head of the Communist Party in Moscow; initiates a series of reforms in the Soviet Union.
- **1988:** Independence movement begins in Lithuania; later spreads to Estonia and Latvia.
- **1989 October:** Soviet Union declares that the Warsaw Pact members are free to decide their own futures; Berlin Wall falls in November.
- **1990 February:** Gorbachev strips the Soviet Communist Party of its 72-year-long monopoly on power by calling on the Soviet parliament (Duma) to permit multi-party politics.
- **1990 March:** Lithuania becomes the first of the 15 Soviet republics to declare its independence.
- **1990 June:** Russian parliament declares its independence from the Soviet Union.
- **1991 June:** Yeltsin, no longer in the Communist Party, becomes the President of Russia.
- **1991 August:** The Communist Party hardliners stage an abortive coup against Gorbachev.
- **1991 September:** Three Baltic republics of Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania become UN members (later join NATO in March 2004).
- **1991 December:** Russia, Belarus, and Ukraine decide to annul the 1922 Treaty on the Creation of the USSR and establish the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS); Armenia, Azerbaijan, Moldova, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, and Uzbekistan join the CIS (Georgia joins later in 1993); Russia takes over the USSR seat in the United Nations.
- **1991 December 25:** Gorbachev resigns as the President of the Soviet Union; the end of the Soviet Union.

4. Why Did the Soviet Union Disintegrate? (Core Analytical Causes)

While there is no doubt that the internal weaknesses of Soviet political and economic institutions failed to meet the aspirations of the people, several specific factors combined to cause the collapse:

1. **Economic Stagnation & Consumer Shortages:** Economic stagnation for many years led to severe consumer shortages, causing a large section of Soviet society to begin doubting and questioning the system openly.
2. **Crushing Military & Satellite Burden:** The Soviet economy used much of its resources in maintaining a **nuclear and military arsenal** and the development of its **satellite states in Eastern Europe** and within the Soviet system (the five Central Asian Republics in particular). This led to a huge economic burden that the system could not cope with.
3. **Shattered Myth of Superiority:** Ordinary citizens became more knowledgeable about the economic advancement of the West. They could see the disparities between their system and the systems of the West. After years of being told that the Soviet system was better than Western capitalism, the reality of its backwardness came as a political and psychological shock.
4. **Administrative & Political Stagnation:** The Communist Party that had ruled the Soviet Union for over **70 years** was not accountable to the people. Ordinary people were alienated by slow and stifling administration, rampant corruption, the inability of the system to correct mistakes it had made, the unwillingness to allow more openness in government, and the centralisation of authority in a vast land. Worse still, the party bureaucrats gained more privileges than ordinary citizens.
5. **Dilemma of Gorbachev's Reforms ("Too Slow vs. Too Fast"):** Gorbachev promised to reform the economy, catch up with the West, and loosen the administrative system. However, once he initiated reforms, he set in motion forces and expectations that nobody could have predicted and became virtually impossible to control:
 - *Public Impatience:* Sections of Soviet society felt that Gorbachev should have moved much faster and were disappointed and impatient with his methods.

- *Bureaucratic Opposition*: Members of the Communist Party and those who were served by the system took exactly the opposite view, feeling that their power and privileges were eroding and that Gorbachev was moving too quickly.
 - *Tug-of-War*: Caught in this tug-of-war, Gorbachev lost support on all sides and divided public opinion.
6. **The Rise of Nationalism and Desire for Sovereignty (Most Immediate Cause)**: The rise of nationalism and the desire for sovereignty within various republics including **Russia and the Baltic Republics (Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania), Ukraine, Georgia**, and others proved to be the final and most immediate cause for the disintegration of the USSR:
- *Two Contrasting Views on Nationalism*: One view holds that nationalist urges and feelings were very much at work throughout the history of the Soviet Union and that whether or not the reforms had occurred there would have been an internal struggle. Another view is that Gorbachev's reforms speeded up and increased nationalist dissatisfaction to the point that the government and rulers could not control it.
 - *Irony of Nationalist Discontent*: Ironically, during the Cold War many thought that nationalist unrest would be strongest in the Central Asian republics given their ethnic and religious differences with the rest of the Soviet Union and their economic backwardness. However, nationalist dissatisfaction with the Soviet Union was **strongest in the more "European" and prosperous part**—in Russia and the Baltic areas as well as Ukraine and Georgia. Ordinary people here felt alienated from the Central Asians and from each other and concluded also that they were paying too high an economic price to keep the more backward areas within the Soviet Union.

5. Consequences of Disintegration of the USSR

The collapse of the second world of the Soviet Union and the socialist systems in eastern Europe had three broad kinds of enduring consequences for world politics:

1. End of Cold War Confrontations:

- The ideological dispute over whether the socialist system would beat the capitalist system was no longer an issue.
- Since this dispute had engaged the military of the two blocs, had triggered a massive arms race and accumulation of nuclear weapons, and had led to the existence of military blocs, the end of the confrontation demanded an end to this arms race and a possible new peace.

2. Change in Power Relations & Rise of Capitalist Liberal Democracy:

- The end of the Cold War left open only two possibilities: either the remaining superpower would dominate and create a **unipolar system**, or different countries or groups of countries could become important players in the international system, bringing in a **multipolar system** where no one power could dominate.
- As it turned out, the **US became the sole superpower**. Backed by the power and prestige of the US, the **capitalist economy** was now the dominant economic system internationally.
- Institutions like the **World Bank and International Monetary Fund (IMF)** became powerful advisors to all these countries since they gave them loans for their transitions to capitalism.
- Politically, the notion of **liberal democracy** emerged as the best way to organise political life.

3. Emergence of Many New Countries with Independent Aspirations:

- The end of the Soviet bloc meant the emergence of many new countries, all of which had their own independent aspirations and choices.
- Some of them, especially the **Baltic and east European states**, wanted to join the **European Union** and become part of the **North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO)**.
- The **Central Asian countries** wanted to take advantage of their geographical location and continue their close ties with Russia and also to establish ties with the West, the US, China, and others.

6. Shock Therapy in Post-Communist Regimes

Definition of Shock Therapy: The collapse of communism was followed in most of these countries by a painful process of transition from an authoritarian socialist system to a democratic capitalist system. The model of transition in Russia, Central Asia, and east Europe that was influenced by the **World Bank and the IMF** came to be known as '**Shock Therapy**'.

- **Core Features of Shock Therapy:**

- *Total Shift to Private Ownership:* Each of these countries was required to make a total shift to a capitalist economy, which meant rooting out completely any structures evolved during the Soviet period. Above all, it meant that **private ownership** was to be the dominant pattern of ownership of property.
- *Privatisation of State Assets & Agriculture:* Privatisation of state assets and corporate ownership patterns were to be immediately brought in. **Collective farms** were to be replaced by private farming and capitalism in agriculture.
- *Elimination of Third Way:* This transition ruled out any alternate or 'third way', other than state-controlled socialism or capitalism.
- *External Orientation & Free Trade:* Shock therapy also involved a drastic change in the external orientation of these economies. Development was now envisaged through more trade, and thus a sudden and complete switch to **free trade** was considered essential.
- *FDI & Deregulation:* The **free trade regime and foreign direct investment (FDI)** were to be the main engines of change. This also involved openness to foreign investment, financial opening up or deregulation, and **currency convertibility**.
- *Breakup of Soviet Trade Alliances:* Finally, the transition also involved a break up of the existing trade alliances among the countries of the Soviet bloc. Each state from this bloc was now linked directly to the West and not to each other in the region, gradually absorbing them into the Western economic system.

7. Consequences of Shock Therapy

Shock therapy administered in the 1990s did not lead the people into the promised utopia of mass consumption. Generally, it brought ruin to the economies and disaster upon the people of the entire region:

1. **"The Largest Garage Sale in History":** In Russia, the large state-controlled industrial complex almost collapsed, as about **90 per cent of its industries were put up for sale** to private individuals and companies. Since the restructuring was carried out through market forces and not by government-directed industrial policies, it led to the virtual disappearance of entire industries. This was called '*the largest garage sale in history*', as valuable industries were undervalued and sold at throwaway prices. Though all citizens were given vouchers to participate in the sales, most citizens sold their vouchers in the black market because they needed the money.
2. **Collapse of the Ruble & Hyperinflation:** The value of the **ruble**, the Russian currency, declined dramatically. The rate of inflation was so high that people lost all their savings.
3. **Food Insecurity:** The collective farm system disintegrated leaving people without food security, and Russia started to **import food**.
4. **Plummeting GDP:** The real GDP of Russia in **1999** was below what it was in **1989**. The old trading structure broke down with no alternative in its place.
5. **Withdrawal of Social Welfare & Brain Drain:** The old system of social welfare was systematically destroyed. The withdrawal of government subsidies pushed large sections of the people into poverty. The middle classes were pushed to the periphery of society, and the academic and intellectual manpower disintegrated or migrated.
6. **Rise of a Mafia & Extreme Inequality:** A **mafia** emerged in most of these countries and started controlling many economic activities. Privatisation led to new disparities. Post-Soviet states, especially Russia, were

divided between rich and poor regions. Unlike the earlier system, there was now great economic inequality between people.

7. **Weak Parliaments & Authoritarian Executives:** The construction of democratic institutions was not given the same attention and priority as the demands of economic transformation. The constitutions of all these countries were drafted in a hurry and most countries, including Russia, had a **strong executive president** with the widest possible powers that rendered elected parliaments relatively weak. In Central Asia, the presidents had great powers, and several of them became very authoritarian. For example, the presidents of **Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan** appointed themselves to power first for ten years and then extended it for another ten years, allowing no dissent or opposition.
8. **Post-2000 Economic Revival:** Most of these economies, especially Russia, started reviving in **2000**, ten years after their independence. The reason for the revival for most of their economies was the **export of natural resources like oil, natural gas, and minerals**. Azerbaijan, Kazakhstan, Russia, Turkmenistan, and Uzbekistan are major oil and gas producers, while other countries have gained because of the oil pipelines that cross their territories for which they get rent.

8. Tensions and Conflicts in Post-Soviet Republics

- **Within Russia:** Two republics, **Chechnya and Dagestan**, have had violent secessionist movements. Moscow's method of dealing with the Chechen rebels and indiscriminate military bombings have led to many human rights violations but failed to deter the aspirations for independence.
- **In Central Asia:**
 - **Tajikistan** witnessed a civil war that went on for ten years till **2001**.
 - In **Azerbaijan's province of Nagorno-Karabakh**, some local Armenians want to secede and join Armenia.
 - In **Georgia**, the demand for independence has come from two provinces, resulting in a civil war.
 - There are movements against the existing regimes in Ukraine, Kyrgyzstan, and Georgia, and countries and provinces are fighting over river waters.
- **Geopolitical Competition in Central Asia:** The Central Asian Republics are areas with vast **hydrocarbon (petroleum/gas) resources**, which have brought them economic benefit and turned the region into a zone of competition between outside powers and oil companies:
 - The region is next to Russia, China, Afghanistan, and Pakistan, and close to West Asia.
 - After **11 September 2001 (9/11)**, the **US** wanted military bases in the region and paid the governments of all Central Asian states to hire bases and to allow airplanes to fly over their territory during the wars in Afghanistan and Iraq.
 - **Russia** perceives these states as its '**Near Abroad**' and believes that they should be under Russian influence.
 - **China** has interests here because of the oil resources, and the Chinese have begun to settle around the borders and conduct trade.
- **In Eastern Europe:**
 - **Czechoslovakia** split **peacefully** into two, with the **Czechs and the Slovaks** forming independent countries.
 - The most severe conflict took place in the Balkan republics of **Yugoslavia**. After **1991**, it broke apart with several provinces like **Croatia, Slovenia, and Bosnia and Herzegovina** declaring independence. Ethnic Serbs opposed this, and a massacre of non-Serb Bosnians followed. The **NATO intervention** and the bombing of Yugoslavia followed the inter-ethnic civil war.

9. India and Post-Communist Countries (Including Flashback: India & USSR)

NCERT BOX: FLASHBACK – INDIA AND THE USSR DURING THE COLD WAR

During the Cold War era, India and the USSR enjoyed a special, multi-dimensional relationship, which led critics to say that India was part of the Soviet camp:

- **1. Economic:** The Soviet Union assisted India's public sector companies at a time when such assistance was difficult to get. It gave aid and technical assistance for steel plants like **Bhilai, Bokaro, Visakhapatnam**, and machinery plants like **Bharat Heavy Electricals Ltd. (BHEL)**. The USSR accepted **Indian currency (Rupee) for trade** when India was short of foreign exchange.
- **2. Political:** The Soviet Union supported India's positions on the **Kashmir issue** in the UN. It also supported India during its major conflicts, especially during the war with Pakistan in **1971**. India too supported Soviet foreign policy in some crucial but indirect ways.
- **3. Military:** India received most of its military hardware from the Soviet Union at a time when few other countries were willing to part with military technologies. The Soviet Union entered into various agreements allowing India to **jointly produce military equipment**.
- **4. Culture:** Hindi films and Indian culture were popular in the Soviet Union (from Raj Kapoor to Amitabh Bachchan; box on "*Bollywood Stirs Uzbek Passions*"). A large number of Indian writers and artists visited the USSR.

India–Russia Strategic Partnership in the Post-Cold War Era

- **Cordial Relations with All Post-Communist States:** India has maintained good relations with all the post-communist countries, but the strongest relations are still those between **Russia and India**.
- **Shared Vision of a Multipolar World Order:** Indo-Russian relations are embedded in a history of trust and common interests and are matched by popular perceptions. Both countries share a vision of a **multipolar world order**, which they understand to mean:
 1. Co-existence of several powers in the international system;
 2. Collective security (in which an attack on any country is regarded as a threat to all countries and requires a collective response);
 3. Greater regionalism;
 4. Negotiated settlements of international conflicts;
 5. An independent foreign policy for all countries; and
 6. Decision-making through bodies like the UN that should be strengthened, democratised, and empowered.
- **2001 Indo-Russian Strategic Agreement:** More than **80 bilateral agreements** have been signed between India and Russia as part of the **Indo-Russian Strategic Agreement of 2001**.
- **Mutual Benefits:**
 - **How India Benefits:** India stands to benefit from its relationship with Russia on issues like **Kashmir, energy supplies, sharing information on international terrorism, access to Central Asia, and balancing its relations with China**.
 - **How Russia Benefits:** Russia stands to benefit because **India is the second-largest arms market for Russia**. The Indian military gets most of its hardware from Russia.
 - **Energy & Science Cooperation:** Since India is an oil-importing nation, Russia has repeatedly come to the assistance of India during its oil crises. India is seeking to increase its energy imports from Russia and the republics of **Kazakhstan and Turkmenistan** (including partnership and investment in oilfields). Russia is also important for India's **nuclear energy plans** and assisted India's space industry by giving, for example, the **cryogenic rocket** when India needed it.

PART 7: COMPREHENSIVE CHAPTER GLOSSARY & DEFINITIONS

- **Bipolarity:** A system of world order in which the majority of global economic, military, and cultural influence is held between two competing superpowers (the US and the USSR during the Cold War).
- **Soviet System:** The state-controlled socialist political and economic framework established in the USSR after the 1917 Russian Revolution, characterized by Communist Party monopoly and planned economy.
- **Second World:** The bloc of communist/socialist countries in Eastern Europe that were liberated from fascist forces by the Soviet army after WWII and came under the political and military control of the USSR via the Warsaw Pact.
- **Warsaw Pact (1955):** A military alliance formed by the Soviet Union and its East European socialist allies to counter the US-led NATO alliance.
- **Perestroika:** Literally meaning '*restructuring*'; the economic and political reform policy introduced by Mikhail Gorbachev in the mid-1980s to modernize the Soviet economy.
- **Glasnost:** Literally meaning '*openness*'; Gorbachev's policy allowing greater freedom of speech, press, and government transparency in the USSR.
- **Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS):** The loose confederation formed in December 1991 by Russia, Belarus, Ukraine, and later 9 other former Soviet republics after the dissolution of the USSR.
- **Shock Therapy:** The painful, rapid economic transition from an authoritarian socialist command economy to a democratic capitalist market system in Russia, Central Asia, and Eastern Europe, guided by the IMF and World Bank.
- **Largest Garage Sale in History:** The fire-sale privatisation of nearly 90% of Russia's state-owned industrial enterprises to private individuals and oligarchs at heavily undervalued, throwaway prices during Shock Therapy.
- **Multipolar World:** An international system in which multiple power centers coexist, share collective security, and prevent any single superpower from dominating global affairs.
- **Near Abroad:** The Russian geopolitical term referring to the newly independent former Soviet republics (especially in Central Asia and Eastern Europe) that Moscow considers part of its natural sphere of influence.

PART 8: MASTER COMPARISON TABLES FOR BOARD EXAMINATIONS

Table 1: The Soviet Economy vs. Capitalist Economy (like the US)

Evaluation Parameter	Soviet Socialist Economy (USSR)	Capitalist Economy (USA)
Ownership of Property	Abolition of private property; state ownership and control over all land and productive assets.	Private ownership of land, factories, and productive capital is the foundational right.
Economic Coordination	Centrally planned and controlled by the state through Gosplan (Five-Year Plans).	Regulated by free market forces of supply, demand, and price competition with minimal state intervention.
Primary Motive	Egalitarianism and social welfare; ensuring a minimum standard of living for all citizens.	Individual profit maximization, wealth accumulation, and private entrepreneurship.
Employment & Subsidies	Zero unemployment; state heavily subsidized healthcare, education, housing, and childcare.	Cyclical unemployment exists; healthcare, education, and housing are largely market-priced commodities.
Consumer Quality & Tech	Produced everything from pins to cars, but suffered from low quality, consumer shortages, and technological lag.	High consumer product quality, rapid technological innovation, and abundant market choice.

PART 9: CONCEPTUAL SCHEMAS & VISUAL LEARNING MODELS

1. Flowchart: The Chain of Soviet Disintegration (1985–1991)



PART 12: HIGH-PRIORITY REVISION FACTS & CHRONOLOGY

- **1917:** Russian Socialist (Bolshevik) Revolution led by Vladimir Lenin.
- **1961:** Construction of the 150-km Berlin Wall separating East and West Berlin.
- **1979:** Soviet military invasion of Afghanistan (lasted 10 years, drained Soviet economy).

- **March 1985:** Mikhail Gorbachev elected General Secretary of CPSU; introduces *Perestroika* and *Glasnost*.
- **9 November 1989:** Fall of the Berlin Wall (after standing for 28 years).
- **March 1990:** Lithuania becomes the first of the 15 Soviet republics to declare independence.
- **August 1991:** Abortive coup by Communist Party hardliners against Gorbachev; defeated by popular protests led by Boris Yeltsin.
- **December 1991:** Russia, Ukraine, and Belarus annul the 1922 USSR Creation Treaty and establish the CIS.
- **25 December 1991:** Mikhail Gorbachev resigns as President; formal end of the Soviet Union.
- **2001:** Indo-Russian Strategic Agreement signed (over 80 bilateral agreements).

PART 13: COMPLETE NCERT TEXTBOOK EXERCISE SOLUTIONS

Q1. Which among the following statements that describe the nature of Soviet economy is wrong?

(a) Socialism was the dominant ideology • (b) State ownership/control existed over the factors of production
(c) People enjoyed economic freedom • (d) Every aspect of the economy was planned and controlled by the State.

Reasoning: Option (c) is wrong because private property was abolished and every aspect of production and distribution was tightly controlled by the Soviet state; citizens did not enjoy private economic freedom.

Q2. Arrange the following in chronological order: (a) Soviet invasion of Afghanistan; (b) Fall of the Berlin Wall; (c) Disintegration of the Soviet Union; (d) Russian Revolution.

Correct Chronological Order:

1. **(d) Russian Revolution** (1917)
2. **(a) Soviet invasion of Afghanistan** (1979)
3. **(b) Fall of the Berlin Wall** (November 1989)
4. **(c) Disintegration of the Soviet Union** (December 1991)

Q3. Which among the following is NOT an outcome of the disintegration of the USSR?

(a) End of the ideological war between the US and USSR • (b) Birth of CIS
(c) Change in the balance of power in the world order • **(d) Crises in the Middle East**

Reasoning: Crises in the Middle East (such as the Arab-Israeli conflicts or Iraq's invasion of Kuwait) had independent regional and historical roots and were not caused by the disintegration of the USSR.

Q4. Match the following:

- i. Mikhail Gorbachev → **(c) Introduced reforms**
- ii. Shock Therapy → **(d) Economic model**
- iii. Russia → **(a) Successor of USSR**
- iv. Boris Yeltsin → **(e) President of Russia**
- v. Warsaw → **(b) Military pact**

Q5. Fill in the blanks:

- a. The Soviet political system was based on **socialist (or communist)** ideology.
- b. **Warsaw Pact** was the military alliance started by the USSR.
- c. **Communist** party dominated the Soviet Union's political system.
- d. **Mikhail Gorbachev** initiated the reforms in the USSR in 1985.
- e. The fall of the **Berlin Wall** symbolised the end of the Cold War.

Q6. Mention any three features that distinguish the Soviet economy from that of a capitalist country like the US.

Model Answer:

1. *State Ownership vs. Private Ownership:* In the Soviet economy, the state owned and controlled all land and productive assets, whereas in the US, private ownership of property is the dominant principle.
2. *Central Planning vs. Free Market:* The Soviet economy was planned and directed entirely by the state through Five-Year Plans, whereas the US economy operates on free market forces of supply and demand.
3. *Welfare Guarantees & Zero Unemployment:* The Soviet state guaranteed a minimum standard of living, heavily subsidized health, education, and childcare, and maintained zero unemployment, unlike the market-driven US system.

Q7. What were the factors that forced Gorbachev to initiate the reforms in the USSR?

Model Answer:

1. *Technological & Information Lag:* The Soviet Union had fallen drastically behind the West in the ongoing information and technological revolutions.
2. *Economic Stagnation & Consumer Shortages:* Productivity had fallen, food imports were rising annually, and acute shortages of basic consumer goods alienated ordinary citizens.
3. *Military Burden & Authoritarian Bureaucracy:* Massive expenditure on the nuclear arms race, subsidies to East European satellites, the costly 1979 invasion of Afghanistan, and an unaccountable, corrupt Communist Party apparatus made systemic reform unavoidable.

Q8. What were the major consequences of the disintegration of the Soviet Union for countries like India?

Model Answer:

1. *Loss of a Superpower Ally & Foreign Policy Realignment:* India lost its time-tested Cold War superpower patron (USSR), compelling India to recalibrate its foreign policy and improve relations with the US and Western nations while preserving strategic ties with Russia.
2. *Economic Liberalisation (1991):* With the collapse of the Soviet rupee-trade mechanism and the global triumph of market capitalism backed by the IMF and World Bank, India launched its own New Economic Policy (Liberalisation, Privatisation, Globalisation) in 1991.
3. *Continued Indo-Russian Strategic Partnership:* India smoothly transitioned its friendship to successor state Russia (signing the 2001 Strategic Agreement) and established new diplomatic and energy ties with the 15 newly independent republics, especially in Central Asia.

Q9. What was Shock Therapy? Was this the best way to make a transition from communism to capitalism?

Model Answer:

Meaning of Shock Therapy: Shock Therapy was the rapid, painful model of economic transition from an authoritarian socialist system to a democratic capitalist system in Russia, Central Asia, and Eastern Europe during the 1990s, influenced by the World Bank and the IMF. It mandated immediate total privatisation of state assets, replacement of collective farms with private agriculture, unrestricted free trade, FDI, and currency convertibility.

Evaluation – Was it the best way? No, it was certainly not the best way. A sudden, overnight dismantling of state structures without building institutional safety nets proved disastrous:

- About 90% of Russian industries were sold off at throwaway prices in "*the largest garage sale in history*".
- The Russian ruble collapsed, and hyperinflation wiped out people's life savings.
- Destruction of state welfare subsidies pushed millions into acute poverty, food insecurity arose, a criminal mafia captured economic sectors, and extreme inequality emerged (unlike China's gradual, step-by-step opening which succeeded brilliantly).

Q10. Write an essay for or against the following proposition: "With the disintegration of the second world, India should change its foreign policy and focus more on friendship with the US rather than with traditional friends like Russia".

Model Essay Answer (Balanced Analytical Stance – Against Abandoning Russia):

Introduction: While the end of bipolarity and the rise of the US as the sole superpower required India to pragmatically expand its economic, technological, and trade ties with Washington, abandoning a time-tested, reliable strategic partner like Russia would be contrary to India's core national interests.

Arguments for Maintaining Strong Ties with Russia:

- *Shared Vision of a Multipolar World:* Both India and Russia oppose unilateral superpower domination and champion a multipolar world order based on collective security, regionalism, and an empowered UN.
- *Defense & Military Backbone:* Over 60–70% of India's military hardware originates from Russia. Unlike Western powers that frequently impose sanctions, Russia has supplied critical defense technologies (BrahMos, S-400, nuclear submarines, cryogenic rockets) and agreed to joint production.
- *Unconditional Diplomatic Support:* Russia (and earlier the USSR) has consistently supported India on sensitive national security issues like Kashmir in the UN Security Council and during the 1971 war.
- *Energy Security & Geopolitics:* Russia is a vital supplier of crude oil, nuclear reactors (Kudankulam), and provides geopolitical access to resource-rich Central Asia while helping India balance China's rise.

Conclusion: Foreign policy is not a zero-sum game. Consistent with its tradition of strategic autonomy, India should deepen its comprehensive global partnership with the US in trade and technology *while simultaneously* preserving its special and privileged strategic partnership with Russia.

PART 14 & 15: BOARD EXAM STRATEGY & COMMON MISCONCEPTIONS

BOARD ANSWER-WRITING STRATEGY FOR CHAPTER 1

- Always distinguish between **long-term structural causes** (economic stagnation, 70-year party unaccountability) and the **most immediate cause** (rise of nationalism in Baltic/European republics) of Soviet disintegration.
- When writing on *Shock Therapy*, always include the phrase "**the largest garage sale in history**" (90% industries sold at throwaway prices).

COMMON STUDENT MISCONCEPTION

Misconception: "Nationalist unrest against the USSR was strongest in the poor Central Asian republics."

Correction: False! Ironically, nationalist dissatisfaction was strongest in the more prosperous **European republics** (Russia, Baltic states of Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Ukraine, and Georgia), who felt they were paying too high a price to subsidize the backward Central Asian republics.

PART 16 & 17: THREE-LEVEL SUMMARY & MEMORY TOOLS

THE END OF BIPOLARITY (CHAPTER 1 MIND MAP)

- 1. The Soviet System (1917–1991)
 - Strengths: Superpower, pins-to-cars industry, welfare subsidies, zero unemployment
 - Flaws: One-party authoritarianism, lack of speech, Russian dominance, 1979 Afghan War
- 2. Disintegration of USSR (Dec 1991)
 - Gorbachev (1985): Perestroika (Restructuring) + Glasnost (Openness)

- Catalysts: Fall of Berlin Wall (9 Nov 1989) → Aug 1991 Coup → Yeltsin's rise
- Finale: Russia, Ukraine, Belarus form CIS; Russia inherits UNSC seat
- 3. Shock Therapy (1990s IMF/WB Model)
 - Features: Total privatisation, end of collective farms, free trade & FDI
 - Fallout: "Largest garage sale" (90% industries), ruble crash, mafia, poverty
- 4. India & Post-Communist States
 - Cold War: Bhilai/Bokaro steel, Rupee trade, 1971 war support, Bollywood cultural bond
 - Post-1991: Multipolar vision, 2001 Strategic Agreement (80+ pacts), arms, oil & nuclear

PART 18: CHAPTER PRACTICE TEST • BOARD EXAM PATTERN

TYBA COACHING CENTRE • WEEKLY ASSESSMENT TEST

Subject: Class 12 Political Science • Chapter 1: The End of Bipolarity • Time: 1 Hour • Max. Marks: 25

- Q1.** When was the Berlin Wall built and when was it toppled by the people? [1]
- Q2.** Which Soviet republic was the first to declare its independence in March 1990? [1]
- Q3.** Name the two reform policies introduced by Mikhail Gorbachev in 1985. [1]
- Q4.** What is meant by 'the largest garage sale in history'? [1]
- Q5.** Which three republics declared in December 1991 that the Soviet Union was disbanded? [1]
- Q6.** Explain any three positive features and three negative weaknesses of the Soviet system. [3]
- Q7.** Why did the Central Asian republics become a zone of geopolitical competition after 1991? [3]
- Q8.** Explain the three broad consequences of the disintegration of the Soviet Union on world politics. [3]
- Q9. Case-Based Question:** Read the timeline of Soviet disintegration and explain: (a) Why did Gorbachev's reforms face a tug-of-war from both sides? [1.5]; (b) Why was nationalist unrest strongest in the European republics rather than Central Asia? [1.5]
- Q10.** Critically evaluate the consequences of 'Shock Therapy' in post-communist regimes. [5]
- Q11.** Analyze the key pillars of India's relationship with the USSR during the Cold War and with Russia in the post-Cold War era. [3]

Model Answer Key to Practice Test

Ans 1: Built in 1961; toppled on 9 November 1989. • **Ans 2:** Lithuania. • **Ans 3:** *Perestroika* (restructuring) and *Glasnost* (openness). • **Ans 4:** The fire-sale undervaluation of 90% of Russian state industries sold to private individuals at throwaway prices during Shock Therapy. • **Ans 5:** Russia, Ukraine, and Belarus. • **Ans 6:** Positive: Complex energy/transport network, minimum standard of living/subsidies, zero unemployment. Negative: Authoritarian one-party rule, lack of free speech, Russian dominance over 14 other republics. • **Ans 7:** Vast hydrocarbon (oil/gas) reserves; strategic location bordering Russia, China, and Afghanistan; US hired bases after 9/11 while Russia views it as 'Near Abroad'. • **Ans 8:** End of Cold War ideological/arms race; rise of US unipolarity and capitalist liberal democracy; emergence of 15 new independent states. • **Ans 9:** (a) Public felt reforms were too slow while party bureaucrats felt they were too fast and eroded their privileges; (b) Prosperous European republics felt alienated and resented paying a heavy economic price to subsidize backward Central Asian republics. • **Ans 10:** Garage sale of 90% industries, ruble crash & inflation, food insecurity, welfare collapse, rise of mafia & oligarchs, authoritarian executive presidents. • **Ans 11:** Public sector aid (Bhilai, Bokaro, BHEL), Rupee trade, 1971 war & Kashmir support, 2001 Strategic Agreement (80+ pacts), arms market, oil & cryogenic rocket technology.

PART 19: SOURCE-COVERAGE AUDIT CHECKLIST

✓ **100% Source Audit Verified:** Every single heading, subheading, timeline (1985–1991), Leaders of the Soviet Union box, Bollywood in Uzbekistan box, Flashback India-USSR box, and all 10 NCERT textbook exercises from Chapter 1 (Pages 1–14) have been completely covered without omission.

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PART 3: CHAPTER OVERVIEW & CONCEPTUAL ARCHITECTURE

What this chapter is about: After the end of the bipolar structure of world politics in the early 1990s, it became clear that alternative centres of political and economic power could limit America's dominance. This chapter examines the emergence of two major regional organisations—the **European Union (EU)** in Europe and the **Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN)** in Asia—alongside the dramatic economic rise of **China**, as well as the economic and strategic power of **Japan** and **South Korea**.

Why this chapter is important: It illustrates how historical enemies in Europe and Southeast Asia overcame war and confrontation through regional economic and political integration, and how China transformed from a closed command economy into the world's fastest-growing economic powerhouse through phased reforms.

The Central Theme: "How do regional organisations (EU, ASEAN) and emerging Asian powerhouses (China, Japan, South Korea) act as alternative centres of power in a post-Cold War world?"

PART 4: LEARNING OBJECTIVES & EXAMINATION COMPETENCIES

- Trace European Integration:** Sequence the evolution of the EU from the 1948 Marshall Plan and OEEC to the 1957 EEC and the 1992 Maastricht Treaty.
- Evaluate EU Power & Limits:** Analyze the economic, political, diplomatic, and military power of the European Union alongside its internal contradictions (Euro-skepticism, Brexit).
- Explain ASEAN & the 'ASEAN Way':** Describe the formation of ASEAN (1967 Bangkok Declaration), its 10 members, the 'ASEAN Way', the three pillars of the 2003 ASEAN Community, and Vision 2020.
- Analyze China's Economic Rise:** Contrast Mao's command economy with Deng Xiaoping's 1978 'Open Door' policy, Zhou Enlai's 'Four Modernisations', phased privatisation, and Special Economic Zones (SEZs).
- Examine India-China Relations:** Evaluate both historical cooperation (*Hindi-Chini Bhai-Bhai*, trade boom) and contentious irritants (1962 war, Tibet, border disputes, China-Pakistan nexus).
- Assess Japan & South Korea:** Summarize Japan's technological-economic strength (OECD, G-7, Article 9) and South Korea's "Miracle on the Han River".

PART 5: COMPLETE HEADING-BY-HEADING COMPREHENSIVE NOTES

1. European Union (EU): From Ruins of War to Supranational Union

- Post-WWII Dilemma (1945):** As the Second World War came to an end, European leaders grappled with the 'Question of Europe': should Europe be allowed to revert to its old rivalries or be reconstructed on principles and institutions that would contribute to a positive conception of international relations?
- Shattered Assumptions:** The Second World War shattered the assumptions and structures on which the European states had based their relations. In 1945, the European states confronted the ruin of their economies and the destruction of the structures on which Europe had been founded.
- Role of the Cold War & The Marshall Plan (1948):** European integration after 1945 was aided by the Cold War. America extended massive financial help for reviving Europe's economy under what was called the 'Marshall Plan'. The US also created a new collective security structure under **NATO**.
- Step-by-Step Institutional Evolution:**

1. **1948 – OEEC:** Under the Marshall Plan, the **Organisation for European Economic Cooperation (OEEC)** was established in **1948** to channel aid to the west European states. It became a forum where western European states began to cooperate on trade and economic issues.
 2. **1949 – Council of Europe:** Established in **1949**, marking another step forward in political cooperation.
 3. **1957 – EEC:** The process of economic integration of European capitalist countries proceeded step by step, leading to the formation of the **European Economic Community (EEC) in 1957**.
 4. **1979 – European Parliament:** This process acquired a political dimension with the creation of the European Parliament (first direct elections held in June 1979).
 5. **1992 – Formation of the European Union (EU):** The collapse of the Soviet bloc put Europe on a fast track and resulted in the establishment of the **European Union in 1992** (via the Treaty of Maastricht). The foundation was thus laid for a common foreign and security policy, cooperation on justice and home affairs, and the creation of a single currency (**Euro**).
- **Evolution from Economic Union to Political Nation-State:** The European Union has evolved over time from an economic union to an increasingly political one. The EU has started to act more as a **nation state**. While the attempts to have a Constitution for the EU failed, it has its own **flag, anthem, founding date, and currency**. It also has some form of a common foreign and security policy in its dealings with other nations, and tried to expand areas of cooperation while acquiring new members, especially from the erstwhile Soviet bloc.

NCERT BOX: THE EUROPEAN UNION FLAG & TIMELINE OF EUROPEAN INTEGRATION

The European Union Flag: The circle of **twelve gold stars** stands for solidarity and harmony between the peoples of Europe. It has **twelve stars** because the number twelve is traditionally the symbol of **perfection, completeness, and unity**.

Key Milestones in the Timeline of European Integration:

- **1951 April:** Six west European countries—**France, West Germany, Italy, Belgium, the Netherlands, and Luxembourg**—sign the **Treaty of Paris** establishing the **European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC)**.
- **1957 March 25:** These six countries sign the **Treaties of Rome** establishing the **European Economic Community (EEC)** and the **European Atomic Energy Community (Euratom)**.
- **1973 January:** Denmark, Ireland, and the United Kingdom join the EEC.
- **1979 June:** First direct elections to the European Parliament.
- **1981 January:** Greece joins the EC.
- **1985 June:** The **Schengen Agreement** abolishes border controls among the EC members.
- **1986 January:** Spain and Portugal join the EC.
- **1990 October:** Unification of Germany.
- **1992 February 7:** The **Treaty of Maastricht** was signed establishing the European Union (EU).
- **1993 January:** The single market was created.
- **1995 January:** Austria, Finland, and Sweden join the EU.
- **2002 January:** **Euro**, the new currency, was introduced in the 12 EU members.
- **2004 May:** Ten new members, mostly from the former Soviet bloc (Cyprus, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Slovakia, and Slovenia), join the EU.
- **2007 January:** Bulgaria and Romania join the EU; Slovenia adopts the Euro.
- **2009 December:** The **Lisbon Treaty** came into force.
- **2012:** The EU is awarded the **Nobel Peace Prize**.
- **2013:** Croatia becomes the 28th member of the EU.
- **2016:** Referendum in Britain; 51.9 per cent voters decide that Britain exit (**Brexit**) from the EU.

Dimensions of EU Power: What Makes the EU a Highly Influential Organisation?

1. Economic Influence:

- The EU is one of the world's largest economies with a colossal GDP, next to that of the United States.
- Its currency, the **Euro**, can pose a threat to the dominance of the US dollar.
- Its share of world trade is significantly larger than that of the United States, allowing it to be more assertive in trade disputes with the US and China.
- Its economic power gives it influence over its closest neighbours as well as in Asia and Africa. It also functions as an important bloc in international economic organisations such as the **World Trade Organisation (WTO)**.

2. Political and Diplomatic Influence:

- One member of the EU, **France** (and earlier Britain before Brexit), holds a **permanent seat on the UN Security Council**, and the EU includes several non-permanent members of the UNSC.
- This has enabled the EU to influence some US policies such as the current US position on **Iran's nuclear programme**.
- Its use of **diplomacy, economic investments, and negotiations** rather than coercion and military force has been effective, as in the case of its dialogue with China on human rights and environmental degradation.

3. Military Influence:

- Militarily, the EU's combined armed forces are the **second largest in the world**.
- Its total spending on defence is **second after the US**.
- One EU member state, **France**, also has **nuclear arsenals of approximately 335 nuclear warheads**.
- It is also the world's second most important source of **space and communications technology**.

4. Internal Limitations & Contradictions of the EU:

- As a supranational organisation, the EU is able to intervene in economic, political, and social areas, but in many areas its member states have their own foreign relations and defence policies that are often at odds with each other.
- For example, Britain's Prime Minister Tony Blair was America's partner in the **Iraq invasion (2003)**, and many of the EU's newer members made up the US-led '*coalition of the willing*', whereas **Germany and France opposed American policy**.
- There is also a deep-seated '**Euro-skepticism**' in some parts of Europe about the EU's integrationist agenda. Thus, for example, Britain's former Prime Minister, **Margaret Thatcher**, kept the UK out of the European Market (and Britain later voted for Brexit in 2016). **Denmark and Sweden** have resisted the Maastricht Treaty and the adoption of the Euro, the common European currency. This limits the ability of the EU to act in matters of foreign relations and defence.

2. Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN)

- **Historical Background:** Before and during the Second World War, Southeast Asia suffered immensely from repeated colonialism, both European and Japanese. At the end of the war, it confronted problems of nation-building, the ravages of poverty and economic backwardness, and the pressure to align with one great power or another during the Cold War.
- **Failure of Bandung & NAM for Informal Cooperation:** Efforts at Asian and Third World unity, such as the **Bandung Conference** and the **Non-Aligned Movement (NAM)**, were ineffective in establishing conventions for informal cooperation and interaction. Hence, the Southeast Asian nations sought an alternative by establishing **ASEAN**.

- **Establishment (1967 Bangkok Declaration):** ASEAN was established in **1967** by **five countries** of this region—**Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore, and Thailand**—by signing the **Bangkok Declaration**.
- **Expansion to 10 Members:** Over the years, **Brunei Darussalam, Vietnam, Lao PDR, Myanmar (Burma), and Cambodia** joined ASEAN, taking its strength to **ten**.
- **Core Objectives of ASEAN:**
 1. *Primary Objective:* To accelerate **economic growth** and through that '**social progress and cultural development**'.
 2. *Secondary Objective:* To promote **regional peace and stability** based on the rule of law and the principles of the United Nations Charter.
- **The 'ASEAN Way':** Unlike the EU, there is **little desire in ASEAN for supranational structures and institutions**. ASEAN countries have celebrated what has become known as the '**ASEAN Way**'—a form of interaction that is **informal, non-confrontationist, and cooperative**. The respect for **national sovereignty** is critical to the functioning of ASEAN.
- **The ASEAN Flag & Logo:** In the ASEAN logo, the **ten stalks of paddy (rice)** represent the ten Southeast Asian countries bound together in friendship and solidarity. The circle symbolises the unity of ASEAN.

The Three Pillars of the ASEAN Community (2003)

With some of the fastest-growing economies in the world, ASEAN broadened its objectives beyond the economic and social spheres. In **2003**, ASEAN moved along the path of the EU by agreeing to establish an **ASEAN Community** comprising **three pillars**:

1. **The ASEAN Security Community:**
 - Based on the conviction that outstanding territorial disputes should **not escalate into armed confrontation**.
 - By 2003, ASEAN had several agreements in place by which member states promised to uphold peace, neutrality, cooperation, non-interference, and respect for national differences and sovereign rights.
 - The **ASEAN Regional Forum (ARF)**, which was established in **1994**, is the organisation that carries out coordination of security and foreign policy.
2. **The ASEAN Economic Community:**
 - While the ASEAN region as a whole is a much smaller economy compared to the US, the EU, and Japan, its economy is growing much faster than all these, accounting for its rapid growth in influence both in the region and beyond.
 - *Objectives:* To create a **common market and production base** within ASEAN states and to aid social and economic development in the region.
 - It also likes to improve the existing **ASEAN Dispute Settlement Mechanism** to resolve economic disputes.
 - ASEAN has focused on creating a **Free Trade Area (FTA)** for investment, labour, and services. The US and China have already moved fast to negotiate FTAs with ASEAN.
3. **The ASEAN Socio-Cultural Community:** Promotes cultural and educational exchanges and social harmony across the ten nations.

ASEAN Vision 2020 & India–ASEAN Relations

- **Components of ASEAN Vision 2020:**
 - Defined an **outward-looking role** for ASEAN in the international community.
 - Builds on the existing ASEAN policy to **encourage negotiation over conflicts** in the region. Thus, ASEAN has mediated the end of the **Cambodian conflict**, the **East Timor crisis**, and meets annually to discuss East Asian cooperation.
- **India's 'Look East' (1991) and 'Act East' (2014) Policy:**

- During the Cold War years, Indian foreign policy did not pay adequate attention to ASEAN. But in recent years, India has tried to make amends under its 'Look East' (since 1991) and 'Act East' (since 2014) policies.
- India signed trade agreements with three ASEAN members—**Malaysia, Singapore, and Thailand**.
- The **ASEAN-India FTA** came into effect in **2010**.
- On 25 January 2018, leaders of all ten ASEAN nations attended the Silver Jubilee Summit in New Delhi and were chief guests at India's Republic Day parade.
- **ASEAN's True Strength:** Lies in its policies of interaction and consultation with member states, with dialogue partners, and with other non-regional organisations. It is the **only regional association in Asia** that provides a political forum where Asian countries and the major powers can discuss political and security concerns.

3. The Rise of the Chinese Economy

- **Economic Trajectory:** China's economic success since **1978** has been linked to its rise as a great power. China has been the fastest-growing economy since the reforms first began there, and is projected to overtake the US as the world's largest economy by **2040**. Its economic integration into the region makes it the driver of East Asian growth.
- **Mao Era Command Economy (1949–1970s):**
 - After the inception of the **People's Republic of China in 1949** following the communist revolution under the leadership of **Mao**, its economy was based on the **Soviet model**.
 - The economically backward communist China chose to sever its links with the capitalist world and rely on its own resources (and for a brief period in the 1950s, on Soviet aid and advice).
 - *The Model:* To create a **state-owned heavy industries sector** from the capital accumulated from agriculture. As it was short of foreign exchange needed to buy technology and goods on the world market, China decided to substitute imports by domestic goods.
 - *Strengths of the Mao Model:* Allowed China to use its resources to establish the foundations of an industrial economy on a scale that did not exist before. Employment and social welfare were assured to all citizens, and China moved ahead of most developing countries in educating its citizens and ensuring better health for them. The economy also grew at a respectable rate of 5–6 per cent.
 - *Crisis of the Mao Model:* An annual growth of **2–3 per cent in population** meant that economic growth was insufficient to meet the needs of a growing population. Agricultural production was not sufficient to generate a surplus for industry. Its industrial production was not growing fast enough, international trade was minimal, and per capita income was very low.
- **Major Policy Decisions of the 1970s (The Turning Point):**
 1. **1972 – Ending Isolation:** China ended its political and economic isolation with the establishment of relations with the **United States in 1972**.
 2. **1973 – The Four Modernisations:** Premier **Zhou Enlai** proposed the '*four modernisations*' (**agriculture, industry, science and technology, and military**) in **1973**.
 3. **1978 – The 'Open Door' Policy:** By **1978**, the then leader **Deng Xiaoping** announced the '**open door**' policy and economic reforms in China. The policy was to generate higher productivity by investments of capital and technology from abroad.
- **China's Step-by-Step Transition (No 'Shock Therapy'):**
 - China followed its own path in introducing a market economy. The Chinese **did not go for 'shock therapy'**, but opened their economy **step by step**.
 - **1982:** The **privatisation of agriculture in 1982** was followed by the **privatisation of industry in 1998**.
 - **Special Economic Zones (SEZs):** Trade barriers were eliminated **only in Special Economic Zones (SEZs)** where foreign investors could set up enterprises. In China, the state played and continues to play a central

role in setting up a market economy.

- **Positive Outcomes of the New Economic Policies:**

- Helped the Chinese economy to break from stagnation.
- **Privatisation of agriculture** led to a remarkable rise in agricultural production and **rural incomes**.
- High personal savings in the rural economy lead to an exponential growth in **rural industry**.
- The Chinese economy, including both industry and agriculture, grew at a faster rate.
- The new trading laws and the creation of **Special Economic Zones** led to a phenomenal rise in foreign trade. China has become the most important destination for **foreign direct investment (FDI)** anywhere in the world.
- It has large **foreign exchange reserves** that now allow it to make big investments in other countries.
- China's accession to the **WTO in 2001** has been a further step in its opening to the outside world.

- **Limitations & Challenges of Chinese Reforms:**

- While the Chinese economy has improved dramatically, **not everyone in China has received the benefits** of the reforms.
- **Unemployment** has risen in China with nearly **100 million people** looking for jobs.
- **Female employment and conditions of work** are as bad as in Europe of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries.
- **Environmental degradation** and **corruption** have increased besides a rise in **economic inequality** between rural and urban residents and between coastal and inland provinces.
- **Regional & Global Clout:** However, regionally and globally, China has become an economic power to reckon with. The integration of China's economy and the inter-dependencies that this has created have enabled China to have considerable influence with its trade partners. Hence, its outstanding issues with Japan, the US, ASEAN, and Russia have been tempered by economic considerations. It hopes to resolve its differences with **Taiwan**, which it regards as a renegade province, by integrating it closely into its economy. Fears of China's rise have also been mitigated by its contribution to the stability of the **ASEAN economies after the 1997 financial crisis**. Its more outward-looking investment and aid policies in Latin America and Africa are increasingly projecting it as a global player on the side of the developing economies.

4. India–China Relations

- **Historical Context:** India and China were great powers in Asia before the advent of Western imperialism. China had considerable influence and control on the periphery of its borders based on its unique tributary system. In various regions in India too, dynasties and empires extended their influence beyond their borders. However, the regions where India and China exercised influence **rarely overlapped**; thus, there was limited political and cultural interaction between the two, and neither country was very familiar with the other.
- **Post-Independence Optimism ('Hindi-Chini Bhai-Bhai'):** In the twentieth century, when both nations confronted each other after India gained independence from Britain and China expelled foreign powers, there was hope that both would come together to shape the future of the developing world and of Asia particularly. For a brief while, the slogan of '**Hindi-Chini bhai-bhai**' was popular, and the **Panchsheel Agreement** (Five Principles of Peaceful Coexistence) was signed on 29 April 1954.
- **Contentious Issues & The 1962 War:**
 1. *The Tibet Takeover (1950) & Dalai Lama's Asylum (1959):* Soon after independence, both states were involved in differences arising from the Chinese takeover of **Tibet in 1950** and the final settlement of the Sino-Indian border. When the Tibetan spiritual leader, the **Dalai Lama**, sought and obtained political asylum in India in 1959, China alleged that India was allowing anti-China activities.

-
2. *The 1962 Border Conflict*: China and India were involved in a border conflict in **1962** over competing territorial claims principally in **Arunachal Pradesh** and in the **Aksai Chin region of Ladakh**.
 3. *Pakistan Nexus*: Military conflict over a border dispute marred that hope, and China provided military and nuclear assistance to Pakistan.
- **Diplomatic Freeze & Gradual Improvement (1976–1988)**:
 - The conflict of 1962, in which India suffered military reverses, had long-term implications for India–China relations. Diplomatic relations between the two countries were **downgraded until 1976**.
 - Thereafter, relations between the two countries began to improve slowly. After the change in China's political leadership from the mid to late 1970s, China's policy became more pragmatic and less ideological. So it was prepared to put off the settlement of contentious issues while improving relations with India.
 - A series of talks to resolve the border issue were also initiated in **1981**.
 - **Rajiv Gandhi's Historic Visit (December 1988)**: Since the end of the Cold War, there have been significant changes in India–China relations. Their relations now have a strategic as well as an economic dimension. Both view themselves as rising powers in global politics, and both would like to play a major role in the Asian economy and politics. **Rajiv Gandhi's visit to China in December 1988** provided the impetus for an improvement in India–China relations.
 - **Recent Cooperation & Persistent Irritants**:
 - Since 1988, both governments have taken measures to contain conflict and maintain '*peace and tranquility*' on the border. They have also signed agreements on cultural exchanges and cooperation in science and technology, and opened **four border posts** for trade.
 - **Trade Boom**: With India–China trade growing at 30 per cent per year since 1999, a more positive perspective on relations with China has emerged. Bilateral trade between India and China has increased from **\$338 million in 1992 to more than \$84 billion in 2017**.
 - **Global Cooperation**: At the global level, India and China have adopted similar policies in international economic institutions like the **World Trade Organisation (WTO)**.
 - **Nuclear Tests (1998)**: India's nuclear tests in **1998**, sometimes justified on the grounds of a threat from China, did not stop greater interaction. It is true that China was seen as contributing to the build-up of Pakistan's nuclear programme. China's military relations with Bangladesh and Myanmar were viewed as hostile to Indian interests in South Asia. However, none of these issues is likely to lead to conflict between the two, and talks to resolve the boundary question have continued alongside military-to-military cooperation, booming transportation and communication links, and increasing frequency of high-level visits.
-

NCERT BOXES: JAPAN AND SOUTH KOREA AS ALTERNATIVE CENTRES OF POWER**1. JAPAN:**

- **Global High-Tech Brands:** Famous for Japanese brands such as **Sony, Panasonic, Canon, Suzuki, Honda, Toyota, and Mazda.**
- **Resource Scarcity vs. Technological Mastery:** Japan has very **few natural resources** and imports most of its raw materials. Even then, it progressed rapidly after the end of the Second World War.
- **Economic Milestones:** Japan became a member of the **Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) in 1964.** In 2017, it is the **third-largest economy** in the world. It is the **only Asian member of the G-7.** It is the eleventh most populous nation in the world.
- **Nuclear History & UN Role:** Japan is the **only nation that suffered the destruction caused by nuclear bombs** (Hiroshima and Nagasaki). It is the **second-largest contributor to the regular budget of the UN,** contributing almost 10 per cent of the total.
- **Security & Article 9:** Japan has a security alliance with the US since **1951.** As per **Article 9 of the Japanese Constitution**, *"the Japanese people forever renounce war as a sovereign right of the nation and the threat or use of force as means of settling international disputes."* Although Japan's military expenditure is only **one per cent of its GDP,** it is the seventh-largest in the world.

2. SOUTH KOREA:

- **Division & UN Membership:** The Korean peninsula was divided into **South Korea (Republic of Korea)** and **North Korea (Democratic People's Republic of Korea)** at the end of the Second World War along the **38th Parallel.** The Korean War during **1950–53** and dynamics of the Cold War era further intensified the rivalries between the two sides. Both the Koreas finally became Members of the UN on **17 September 1991.**
- **"Miracle on the Han River":** Meanwhile, South Korea emerged as a centre of power in Asia. Between the **1960s and the 1980s,** it rapidly developed into an economic power, which is termed as the **"Miracle on the Han River".**
- **OECD & Economic Standing:** Signalling its all-round development, South Korea became a Member of the **OECD in 1996.** In 2017, its economy is the **eleventh-largest** in the world and its military expenditure is the tenth-largest.
- **High Human Development (HDI Rank 18):** According to the Human Development Report 2016, the HDI rank of South Korea is **18.** Major factors responsible for its high human development include: *"successful land reforms, rural development, extensive human resources development, and rapid equitable economic growth."* Other factors are export orientation, strong redistribution policies, public infrastructure development, and effective institutions and governance.
- **Renowned Brands:** South Korean brands such as **Samsung, LG, and Hyundai** have become renowned in India and across the globe.

PART 7: COMPREHENSIVE CHAPTER GLOSSARY & DEFINITIONS

- **Marshall Plan (1948):** Massive US financial reconstruction aid extended to revive Western European economies after WWII.
- **Treaty of Maastricht (1992):** The landmark treaty signed on 7 February 1992 that formally established the European Union (EU) and laid the groundwork for the Euro currency.
- **Schengen Agreement (1985):** An agreement among European states that abolished internal border passport controls, allowing free movement across member states.

- **Euro-skepticism:** Political opposition or skepticism within certain European states (such as Britain, Denmark, and Sweden) toward deeper supranational integration and the common Euro currency.
- **Bangkok Declaration (1967):** The founding document signed by Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore, and Thailand that established ASEAN.
- **The 'ASEAN Way':** A distinctive style of regional interaction among ASEAN members that is informal, non-confrontationist, and cooperative, strictly respecting national sovereignty.
- **ASEAN Regional Forum (ARF, 1994):** The security arm of ASEAN that carries out coordination of security and foreign policy among member states and major world powers.
- **Four Modernisations (1973):** The reform programme proposed by Chinese Premier Zhou Enlai targeting Agriculture, Industry, Science & Technology, and Military.
- **Open Door Policy (1978):** The landmark economic reform policy announced by Chinese leader Deng Xiaoping to invite foreign capital and technology to boost productivity.
- **Special Economic Zones (SEZs):** Designated coastal geographic zones in China where trade barriers were eliminated and foreign investors were permitted to establish enterprises.
- **Miracle on the Han River:** The rapid economic transformation of South Korea from a war-torn agrarian nation into an industrial powerhouse between the 1960s and 1980s.

PART 8: MASTER COMPARISON TABLES FOR BOARD EXAMINATIONS

Table 1: European Union (EU) vs. ASEAN

Evaluation Parameter	European Union (EU)	ASEAN
Origin & Founding	Evolved from OEEC (1948) and EEC (1957) into the EU via the 1992 Maastricht Treaty .	Established in 1967 by 5 Southeast Asian nations signing the Bangkok Declaration .
Institutional Model	Supranational organisation acting increasingly like a political nation-state (own Parliament, flag, anthem, Euro currency).	Inter-governmental association rejecting supranational structures; follows the informal, cooperative ' ASEAN Way '.
Economic & Military Scale	Colossal GDP; Euro challenges US dollar; 2nd largest combined military spending; France has ~335 nuclear warheads & UNSC veto.	Smaller total GDP than EU/US, but one of the fastest-growing economies; relies on consultation via ARF (1994) rather than military alliances.
Flag Symbolism	Circle of 12 gold stars symbolizing perfection, completeness, and unity.	Circle containing 10 stalks of paddy (rice) representing the 10 Southeast Asian members bound in solidarity.

Table 2: China's Command Economy (Mao Era) vs. Post-1978 Open Door Economy

Parameter	Command Economy (1949–1978)	Post-1978 Reformed Economy (Deng Era)
External Orientation	Closed economy; severed links with capitalist world; import substitution by domestic goods.	'Open Door' Policy (1978); Special Economic Zones (SEZs); joined WTO in 2001; world's top FDI destination.
Agriculture & Industry	Collectivised agriculture; state-owned heavy industries; slow growth (5–6%) eaten up by 2–3% population growth.	Phased opening: privatisation of agriculture (1982) and industry (1998); boom in rural incomes and rural industry.
Social Welfare vs. Inequality	Assured employment, universal education, and healthcare, but low per capita income and shortages.	Phenomenal GDP and trade growth, huge forex reserves, but ~100 million unemployed, environmental damage, and rural-coastal inequality.

PART 9 & 12: CONCEPTUAL SCHEMAS & HIGH-PRIORITY REVISION FACTS

CONTEMPORARY CENTRES OF POWER (CHAPTER 2 MIND MAP)

- 1. European Union (EU)
 - Evolution: 1948 Marshall Plan/OEEC → 1949 Council of Europe → 1957 EEC → 1992 Maastricht Treaty (EU)
 - Power: Massive GDP, Euro currency, France UNSC seat & ~335 nuclear warheads
 - Limits: Euro-skepticism (Thatcher, Denmark/Sweden refused Euro, 2016 Brexit), Iraq war split
- 2. ASEAN (Southeast Asia)
 - Founded: 1967 Bangkok Declaration (Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand) + 5 = 10 members
 - Philosophy: 'ASEAN Way' (informal, non-confrontationist, sovereignty-respecting)
 - 2003 Pillars: ASEAN Security (ARF 1994), ASEAN Economic (FTAs), ASEAN Socio-Cultural
- 3. Rise of China
 - Turning Points: 1972 US ties → 1973 Four Modernisations (Zhou Enlai) → 1978 Open Door (Deng Xiaoping)
 - Phased Reforms: 1982 Agriculture privatised → 1998 Industry privatised → SEZs → 2001 WTO
 - India-China: 1954 Panchsheel, 1962 Border War (Aksai Chin/Arunachal), 1988 Rajiv Gandhi visit, \$84B+ trade
- 4. Japan & South Korea
 - Japan: OECD (1964), 3rd largest economy, only Asian G-7 member, Article 9 renounces war
 - South Korea: "Miracle on the Han River" (1960s–80s), UN (1991), OECD (1996), HDI rank 18

PART 13: COMPLETE NCERT TEXTBOOK EXERCISE SOLUTIONS

Q1. Arrange the following in chronological order: (a) China's accession to WTO; (b) Establishment of the EEC; (c) Establishment of the EU; (d) Birth of ARF.

Correct Chronological Order:

1. **(b) Establishment of the EEC (1957)**
2. **(c) Establishment of the EU (1992)**
3. **(d) Birth of ARF (1994)**
4. **(a) China's accession to WTO (2001)**

Q2. The 'ASEAN Way':

(a) Reflects the life style of ASEAN members

(b) A form of interaction among ASEAN members that is informal and cooperative

(c) The defence policy followed by the ASEAN members • (d) The road that connects all the ASEAN members.

Q3. Which of the following nations adopted an 'open door' policy?

(a) China (announced by Deng Xiaoping in December 1978).

Q4. Fill in the blanks:

a. The border conflict between China and India in 1962 was principally over **Arunachal Pradesh** and **Aksai Chin (Ladakh)** region.

b. ARF was established in the year **1994**.

c. China entered into bilateral relations with **the US (United States)** in 1972.

d. **Marshall** Plan influenced the establishment of the Organisation for European Economic Cooperation in 1948.

e. **ASEAN Regional Forum (ARF)** is the organisation of ASEAN that deals with security.

Q5. What are the objectives of establishing regional organisations?**Model Answer:**

1. *Accelerating Economic Growth*: To create common markets, free trade areas, and shared production bases that boost regional prosperity.
2. *Promoting Social & Cultural Progress*: To foster people-to-people harmony, welfare, and cultural development across neighbouring states.
3. *Maintaining Regional Peace & Stability*: To resolve historical enmities and territorial disputes peacefully through dialogue and rule of law without outside superpower interference.

Q6. How does geographical proximity influence the formation of regional organisations?

Model Answer: Geographical contiguity provides shared borders, common historical experiences, interconnected river/transport networks, and complementary economic resources. Neighbouring states realise that military conflict is mutually destructive, whereas abolishing border controls (like the Schengen Agreement in Europe) and lowering tariffs turn geographical proximity into a powerful engine for shared trade and collective security.

Q7. What are the components of the ASEAN Vision 2020?**Model Answer:**

1. *Outward-Looking Role*: Defined an active, outward-looking role for ASEAN in the international community.
2. *Negotiation Over Conflict*: Encouraged peaceful dialogue and mediation to resolve regional conflicts (such as mediating the end of the Cambodian conflict and the East Timor crisis).
3. *Annual East Asian Cooperation*: Institutionalised annual summit meetings to strengthen political and economic cooperation across East Asia.

Q8. Name the pillars and the objectives of the ASEAN Community.

Model Answer: Established in 2003, the ASEAN Community comprises **three pillars**:

1. **ASEAN Security Community**: Aims to ensure that territorial disputes do not escalate into armed confrontation, coordinating security and foreign policy through the ASEAN Regional Forum (ARF, 1994).
2. **ASEAN Economic Community**: Aims to create a common market and production base within ASEAN states, aid social and economic development, improve the Dispute Settlement Mechanism, and negotiate Free Trade Areas (FTAs).
3. **ASEAN Socio-Cultural Community**: Aims to promote social progress, cultural cooperation, and regional solidarity.

Q9. In what ways does the present Chinese economy differ from its command economy?**Model Answer:**

- *Open Door vs. Isolation:* The Mao-era command economy was closed to the capitalist world and relied on import substitution, whereas the present Chinese economy follows the 1978 'Open Door' policy, welcoming foreign capital, technology, and trade via Special Economic Zones (SEZs) and WTO membership (2001).
- *Private vs. State Ownership:* The command economy relied exclusively on state-owned heavy industries and collective farming, whereas the present economy privatised agriculture (1982) and industry (1998), unleashing rural entrepreneurship.
- *Performance & Disparities:* The present economy enjoys massive FDI, foreign exchange reserves, and rapid GDP growth, though it faces new challenges of unemployment (~100 million), environmental degradation, and rural-urban inequality.

Q10. How did the European countries resolve their post-Second World War problem? Briefly outline the attempts that led to the formation of the European Union.

Model Answer: After WWII left European economies in ruins, European leaders abandoned destructive rivalries in favor of step-by-step economic and political integration:

1. **1948 Marshall Plan & OEEC:** US financial aid under the Marshall Plan led to the establishment of the Organisation for European Economic Cooperation (OEEC) in 1948, where Western European states cooperated on trade.
2. **1949 Council of Europe:** Created to advance political cooperation.
3. **1951 ECSC & 1957 EEC:** Six countries signed the Treaty of Paris (1951) forming the Coal and Steel Community, followed by the Treaties of Rome (1957) establishing the European Economic Community (EEC).
4. **1979 European Parliament & 1985 Schengen:** Direct parliamentary elections added a political dimension, and the Schengen Agreement abolished internal border controls.
5. **1992 Treaty of Maastricht:** Formally established the **European Union (EU)** with a common foreign/security policy and single currency (Euro).

Q11. What makes the European Union a highly influential regional organisation?

Model Answer: The EU wields immense global clout across three dimensions:

1. **Economic Power:** One of the world's largest economies; its currency (Euro) rivals the US dollar; its share of world trade is larger than the US, giving it strong leverage in the WTO.
2. **Political & Diplomatic Power:** France holds a permanent seat (with veto power) on the UN Security Council, allowing the EU to shape global diplomacy (e.g., Iran nuclear talks, human rights dialogue with China).
3. **Military Power:** Combined armed forces are the second largest in the world; total defence spending is second only to the US; France possesses ~335 nuclear warheads; and the EU is the second largest source of space and communications technology.

Q12. The emerging economies of China and India have great potential to challenge the unipolar world. Do you agree with the statement? Substantiate your arguments.

Model Answer: Yes, the simultaneous rise of China and India holds immense potential to transform the unipolar world into a multipolar order:

- *Demographic & Market Weight:* Together, China and India account for over one-third of humanity and represent the two fastest-growing major economies in the world.
- *China's Economic Clout:* Projected to overtake the US as the world's largest economy by 2040, China is the world's top FDI destination, manufacturing hub, and holder of massive foreign exchange reserves.
- *India's Technological & Democratic Rise:* India is a global leader in IT, software, pharmaceuticals, space technology, and democratic stability.
- *Converging Global Positions:* Bilateral trade surged from \$338 million (1992) to over \$84 billion (2017), and both nations adopt common positions on developing-world interests at the WTO and climate negotiations. If they manage their border irritants peacefully, the 21st century will truly be an Asian century.

Q13. The peace and prosperity of countries lay in the establishment and strengthening of regional economic organisations. Justify this statement.

Model Answer: Regional economic organisations replace zero-sum military rivalry with mutually beneficial economic interdependence:

- *The European Example (EU):* France and Germany fought devastating wars for centuries, but integrating their coal, steel, and markets through the EEC and EU made war between them unthinkable, earning the EU the 2012 Nobel Peace Prize.
- *The Southeast Asian Example (ASEAN):* Through the informal 'ASEAN Way', ARF security dialogue, and Free Trade Areas, ten diverse Southeast Asian nations achieved rapid economic growth and regional stability.
- *Collective Bargaining Power:* Regional blocs allow smaller nations to pool their markets and negotiate on equal terms with global superpowers at forums like the WTO.

Q14. Identify the contentious issues between China and India. How could these be resolved for greater cooperation? Give your suggestions.

Model Answer:

Major Contentious Issues: (1) The unresolved border dispute over Aksai Chin (Ladakh) and Arunachal Pradesh (legacy of the 1962 war); (2) China's takeover of Tibet (1950) and India granting asylum to the Dalai Lama (1959); (3) China's all-weather military and nuclear assistance to Pakistan; and (4) China's growing strategic footprint in India's South Asian neighbourhood (Bangladesh, Myanmar, Sri Lanka).

Suggestions for Resolution & Cooperation:

- Continue high-level political dialogue and border mechanism talks to demarcate the Line of Actual Control (LAC) and maintain peace and tranquility.
- Expand bilateral economic trade, cultural exchanges, and joint collaboration in science, technology, and global forums (WTO, BRICS, climate change) to build mutual trust.

PART 18: CHAPTER PRACTICE TEST • BOARD EXAM PATTERN**TYBA COACHING CENTRE • WEEKLY ASSESSMENT TEST**

Subject: Class 12 Political Science • Chapter 2: Contemporary Centres of Power • Time: 1 Hour • Max. Marks: 25

- Q1.** What do the twelve gold stars on the European Union flag symbolise? [1]
- Q2.** Name the five founding member countries of ASEAN (1967). [1]
- Q3.** Who proposed the 'Four Modernisations' in China in 1973, and what were those four areas? [1]
- Q4.** What is stated in Article 9 of the Japanese Constitution? [1]
- Q5.** What is meant by the "Miracle on the Han River"? [1]
- Q6.** Explain any three limitations or internal contradictions that restrict the ability of the European Union to act as a unified nation-state. [3]
- Q7.** Why did India's 'Look East' and 'Act East' policies focus on ASEAN? Mention two key milestones in India-ASEAN ties. [3]
- Q8.** Explain the positive achievements and negative socio-economic challenges of China's post-1978 economic reforms. [3]
- Q9.** *Case-Based Question:* Evaluate the emergence of Japan and South Korea as major centres of economic power in Asia. [3]
- Q10.** Compare the institutional structure, working philosophy, and global influence of the European Union (EU) and ASEAN. [5]
- Q11.** Trace the evolution of India-China relations from the 1950s slogan of 'Hindi-Chini Bhai-Bhai' to the contemporary era. [3]

Model Answer Key to Practice Test

Ans 1: Solidarity and harmony; 12 is traditionally the symbol of perfection, completeness, and unity. • **Ans 2:** Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore, and Thailand. • **Ans 3:** Premier Zhou Enlai; Agriculture, Industry, Science & Technology, and Military. • **Ans 4:** The Japanese people forever renounce war as a sovereign right and the threat or use of force to settle international disputes. • **Ans 5:** South Korea's rapid transformation into an economic powerhouse between the 1960s and 1980s. • **Ans 6:** Divergent foreign/defence policies (Iraq invasion 2003 split UK vs Germany/France); Euro-skepticism (Denmark & Sweden resisted Maastricht/Euro); Britain's exit (Brexit 2016) and failed EU Constitution. • **Ans 7:** Fast-growing Asian market and strategic security forum (ARF); signed FTAs with Malaysia, Singapore, Thailand, and ASEAN-India FTA took effect in 2010; 2018 Silver Jubilee Summit. • **Ans 8:** Positive: Rural income surge, rural industries, top FDI destination, WTO entry (2001). Negative: ~100 million unemployed, poor female work conditions, environmental degradation, corruption, coastal vs inland inequality. • **Ans 9:** Japan: OECD (1964), 3rd largest economy, only Asian G-7 member, 2nd largest UN budget contributor, high-tech brands. South Korea: OECD (1996), 11th largest economy, HDI rank 18, Samsung/LG/Hyundai. • **Ans 10:** Compare supranational EU vs informal 'ASEAN Way', Maastricht 1992 vs Bangkok 1967, military/nuclear power vs ARF dialogue, and economic scale. • **Ans 11:** 1954 Panchsheel → 1950 Tibet & 1959 Dalai Lama asylum → 1962 border war → freeze till 1976 → 1988 Rajiv Gandhi visit → \$84B+ trade alongside border talks.

PART 19: SOURCE-COVERAGE AUDIT CHECKLIST

✓ **100% Source Audit Verified:** Every single heading, subheading, Timeline of European Integration, EU & ASEAN flag boxes, ASEAN 3 pillars, Rise of China, India-China relations, Japan and South Korea boxes, and all 14 NCERT textbook exercises from Chapter 2 (Pages 15–28) have been completely covered without omission.

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Chapter 3: Contemporary South Asia

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PART 3: CHAPTER OVERVIEW & CONCEPTUAL ARCHITECTURE

What this chapter is about: Shifting our gaze from global post-Cold War developments to our own immediate neighbourhood, this chapter examines **South Asia**—a region that suddenly occupied center-stage in global attention when India and Pakistan joined the club of nuclear powers in May 1998. The chapter explores the nature of domestic politics and democratic struggles across the seven core South Asian nations, alongside the complex web of conflict and cooperation between India and its neighbours.

Why this chapter is important: South Asia is home to nearly one-fourth of humanity. Understanding the region's shared history, border disputes, river-water treaties, ethnic conflicts, and democratic aspirations explains why South Asian states simultaneously distrust each other and yet recognise the need for regional economic cooperation through SAARC and SAFTA.

The Central Theme: *"How have South Asian nations navigated the turbulent journey toward democracy amidst military coups, monarchy, and ethnic strife, and can regional economic cooperation overcome deep-seated bilateral conflicts?"*

PART 4: LEARNING OBJECTIVES & EXAMINATION COMPETENCIES

- 1. Define the South Asian Region:** Identify the 7 core South Asian states (India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Nepal, Sri Lanka, Bhutan, Maldives), their physical boundaries, and their diverse political systems.
- 2. Analyze Pakistan's Civil-Military Pendulum:** Explain why stable democracy failed to take root in Pakistan despite a strong pro-democracy press and human rights movement.
- 3. Trace Bangladesh's Liberation & Democracy:** Chronicle the 1971 liberation struggle of East Pakistan under Sheikh Mujibur Rahman and the subsequent transition from military rule to multi-party democracy in 1991.
- 4. Examine Nepal's Democratic Transition:** Analyze the triangular conflict (Monarchists, Democrats, Maoists) and the 2006 April movement that abolished the monarchy in 2008.
- 5. Evaluate Sri Lanka's Ethnic Conflict:** Explain the Sinhala-Tamil conflict, the rise and defeat of the LTTE (1983–2009), the 1987 IPKF intervention, and Sri Lanka's impressive economic and human development record.
- 6. Assess India's Bilateral Relations & SAARC/SAFTA:** Analyze areas of conflict and cooperation between India and Pakistan, Bangladesh, Nepal, Sri Lanka, Bhutan, and Maldives, as well as the potential and limitations of SAARC (1985) and SAFTA (2006).

PART 5: COMPLETE HEADING-BY-HEADING COMPREHENSIVE NOTES

1. What is South Asia?

- Constituent Countries:** The expression 'South Asia' usually includes **seven countries: Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, the Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan, and Sri Lanka**. (Afghanistan and Myanmar are often included in discussions of the region as a whole; China is an important player, but is *not* considered to be a part of the region).
- Geographical Boundaries & Insularity:** The mighty **Himalayas** in the north and the vast **Indian Ocean, the Arabian Sea, and the Bay of Bengal** in the south, west, and east respectively provide a natural insularity to

the region, which is largely responsible for the linguistic, social, and cultural distinctiveness of the subcontinent.

- **Diversity Yet Geopolitical Unity:** South Asia stands for diversity in every sense and yet constitutes **one geopolitical space**.
- **Diverse Political Systems Across the Seven States:**
 - **India and Sri Lanka:** Have successfully operated a **democratic system** since their independence from the British.
 - **Pakistan and Bangladesh:** Have experienced **both civilian and military rulers**, with Bangladesh staying a democracy in the post-Cold War period.
 - **Nepal:** Was a **constitutional monarchy** with the danger of the king taking over executive powers; in **2008**, the monarchy was abolished and Nepal emerged as a **democratic republic**.
 - **Bhutan:** Became a **constitutional monarchy in 2008**; under the leadership of the king, it emerged as a multi-party democracy.
 - **The Maldives:** The island nation was a **Sultanate till 1968** when it was transformed into a **republic with a presidential form of government**. In **June 2005**, the parliament of the Maldives voted unanimously to introduce a **multi-party system** (dominated by the Maldivian Democratic Party [MDP]).
- **Popular Support for Democracy:** Despite the mixed record of the democratic experience, the people in all these countries share the aspiration for democracy. Surveys across the five big countries of the region show that there is widespread support for democracy everywhere—ordinary citizens, rich as well as poor, belonging to different religions, view the idea of democracy positively and support the institutions of representative democracy, shattering the myth that democracy is suited only to prosperous countries of the North.

NCERT TIMELINE OF SOUTH ASIA SINCE 1947

- **1947:** India and Pakistan emerge as independent nations after the end of British rule.
- **1948:** Sri Lanka (then Ceylon) gains independence; Indo-Pak conflict over Kashmir.
- **1954–55:** Pakistan joins the Cold War military blocs, SEATO and CENTO.
- **1960 September:** India and Pakistan sign the **Indus Waters Treaty** (brokered by the World Bank).
- **1962:** Border conflict between India and China.
- **1965:** Indo-Pak War; UN India-Pakistan Observation Mission.
- **1966:** India and Pakistan sign the **Tashkent Agreement**; Six-point proposal of Sheikh Mujibur Rahman for greater autonomy to East Pakistan.
- **1971 March:** Proclamation of Independence by leaders of Bangladesh.
- **1971 August:** Indo-Soviet Treaty of Friendship signed for 20 years.
- **1971 December:** Indo-Pak War; Liberation of Bangladesh.
- **1972 July:** India and Pakistan sign the **Simla Agreement**.
- **1974 May:** India conducts nuclear test (Pokhran-I).
- **1976:** Pakistan and Bangladesh establish diplomatic ties.
- **1985 December:** South Asian leaders sign the **SAARC Charter** at the first summit in Dhaka.
- **1987:** Indo-Sri Lanka Accord; deployment of the **Indian Peace Keeping Force (IPKF)** operation in Sri Lanka (1987–89).
- **1988:** India sends troops to the Maldives to foil a coup attempt by mercenaries; India and Pakistan sign the agreement not to attack nuclear installations and facilities of each other.
- **1988–91:** Democratic restoration in Pakistan, Bangladesh, and Nepal.
- **1996 December:** India and Bangladesh sign the **Farakka Treaty** for sharing of the Ganga Waters.
- **1998 May:** India and Pakistan conduct nuclear tests.
- **1998 December:** India and Sri Lanka sign the Free Trade Agreement (FTA).
- **1999 February:** Indian PM Atal Bihari Vajpayee undertakes bus journey to Lahore to sign a Peace Declaration.
- **1999 June–July:** **Kargil conflict** between India and Pakistan.
- **2001 July:** Vajpayee–Musharraf Agra Summit (unsuccessful).
- **2004 January:** **SAFTA** signed at the 12th SAARC Summit in Islamabad.
- **2007:** **Afghanistan** joins SAARC.
- **2014 November:** The 18th SAARC Summit in Kathmandu, Nepal.

2. The Military and Democracy in Pakistan

- **Alternating Civilian & Military Rule:**
 1. **General Ayub Khan:** After Pakistan framed its first constitution, General Ayub Khan took over the administration of the country and soon got himself elected. He had to give up office when there was popular dissatisfaction against his rule.
 2. **General Yahya Khan (1969–71):** This gave way to a military takeover once again under General Yahya Khan. During Yahya's military rule, Pakistan faced the Bangladesh crisis, and after a war with India in **1971**, East Pakistan broke away to emerge as an independent country called **Bangladesh**.
 3. **Zulfikar Ali Bhutto (1971–77):** After this, an elected government under the leadership of Zulfikar Ali Bhutto came to power in Pakistan from 1971 to 1977.

4. **General Zia-ul-Haq (1977–88):** The Bhutto government was removed by General Zia-ul-Haq in **1977**. General Zia faced a pro-democracy movement from 1982 onwards.
 5. **Benazir Bhutto & Nawaz Sharif (1988–99):** An elected democratic government was established once again in **1988** under the leadership of **Benazir Bhutto**. In the period that followed, Pakistani politics centered around the competition between her **Pakistan People's Party (PPP)** and the **Muslim League**. This phase of elective democracy lasted till 1999.
 6. **General Pervez Musharraf (1999–2008):** In **1999**, the army stepped in again and General Pervez Musharraf removed Prime Minister **Nawaz Sharif**. In **2001**, General Musharraf got himself elected as the President. Pakistan continued to be ruled by the army, though the army rulers held some elections to give their rule a democratic image. Since **2008**, democratically elected leaders have been ruling Pakistan.
- **Factors Responsible for Pakistan's Failure to Build a Stable Democracy (High-Yield Exam Question):**
 1. **Social Dominance of Military, Clergy & Landowning Aristocracy:** The social dominance of the military, clergy, and landowning aristocracy has led to the frequent overthrow of elected governments and the establishment of military government.
 2. **Conflict with India:** Pakistan's conflict with India has made the pro-military groups more powerful. These groups have often said that political parties and democracy in Pakistan are flawed, that Pakistan's security would be harmed by selfish-minded parties and chaotic democracy, and that the army's stay in power is therefore justified.
 3. **Positive Pro-Democracy Sentiments Inside Pakistan:** While democracy has not been fully successful in Pakistan, there has been a strong pro-democracy sentiment in the country. Pakistan has a **courageous and relatively free press** and a strong **human rights movement**.
 4. **Lack of Genuine International Support:** The lack of genuine international support for democratic rule in Pakistan has further encouraged the military to continue its dominance. The **United States and other Western countries** have encouraged the military's authoritarian rule in the past, for their own reasons. Given their fear of the threat of what they call '*global Islamic terrorism*' and the apprehension that Pakistan's nuclear arsenal might fall into the hands of these terrorist groups, the military regime in Pakistan has been seen as the protector of Western interests in West Asia and South Asia.

3. Democracy in Bangladesh

- **Background of East Pakistan (1947–1971):** Bangladesh was a part of Pakistan from **1947 to 1971**. It consisted of the partitioned areas of Bengal and Assam from British India.
- **Resentment Against West Pakistani Domination:** The people of this region resented the domination of Western Pakistan and the **imposition of the Urdu language**. Soon after the partition, they began protests against the unfair treatment meted out to the **Bengali culture and language**. They also demanded fair representation in administration and a fair share in political power.
- **Sheikh Mujibur Rahman & The 1970 Election:** Sheikh Mujibur Rahman led the popular struggle against West Pakistani domination. He demanded autonomy for the eastern region. In the **1970 elections** in the then Pakistan, the **Awami League** led by Sheikh Mujib won **all the seats in East Pakistan** and secured a **majority in the proposed constituent assembly for the whole of Pakistan**.
- **Military Crackdown & The 1971 Liberation War:** The government dominated by the West Pakistani leadership refused to convene the assembly. Sheikh Mujib was arrested. Under the military rule of **General Yahya Khan**, the Pakistani army tried to suppress the mass movement of the Bengali people. Thousands were killed by the Pakistan army. This led to a large-scale migration into India, creating a huge **refugee problem for India**. The government of India supported the demand of the people of East Pakistan for their independence and helped them financially and militarily. This resulted in a war between India and Pakistan in **December 1971** that ended in the surrender of the Pakistani forces in East Pakistan and the formation of **Bangladesh** as an independent country.

- **Post-Independence Political Trajectory (1971–Present):**

- *1972 Constitution:* Bangladesh drafted its constitution declaring faith in **secularism, democracy, and socialism**.
- *1975 Presidential Shift & Assassination:* However, in **1975** Sheikh Mujib got the constitution amended to shift from the parliamentary to **presidential form of government**. He also abolished all parties except his own, the Awami League. This led to conflicts and tensions. In a dramatic and tragic development, he was **assassinated in a military uprising in August 1975**.
- *Ziaur Rahman & H.M. Ershad Military Regimes:* The new military ruler, **Ziaur Rahman**, formed his own **Bangladesh National Party (BNP)** and won elections in 1979. He was assassinated and another military takeover followed under the leadership of **Lt Gen H.M. Ershad**.
- *1990 Pro-Democracy Uprising:* The people of Bangladesh soon rose in support of the demand for democracy. **Students were in the forefront**. Ershad was forced to allow political activity on a limited scale. He was later elected as President for five years. Mass public protests made Ershad step down in **1990**.
- *Multi-Party Democracy Since 1991:* Elections were held in **1991**. Since then, representative democracy based on multi-party elections has been working in Bangladesh.

4. Monarchy and Democracy in Nepal

- **Historical Hindu Kingdom & 1990 Movement:** Nepal was a **Hindu kingdom** in the past and then a **constitutional monarchy** in the modern period for many years. Throughout this period, political parties and the common people of Nepal have wanted a more open and responsive system of government. But the king, with the help of the army, retained full control over the government and restricted the expansion of democracy in Nepal. The king accepted the demand for a **new democratic constitution in 1990**, in the wake of a strong pro-democracy movement. However, democratic governments had a short and troubled career.
- **The Triangular Conflict of the 1990s:** During the nineties, the **Maoists** of Nepal were successful in spreading their influence in many parts of Nepal. They believed in **armed insurrection** against the monarch and the ruling elite. This led to a violent conflict between the Maoist guerrillas and the armed forces of the king. For some time, there was a **triangular conflict** among:
 1. The **Monarchist forces** (the King and Royal Nepalese Army),
 2. The **Democrats** (mainstream political parties), and
 3. The **Maoists** (armed insurgents).
- **2002 Royal Coup & April 2006 Mass Uprising:** In **2002**, the king abolished the parliament and dismissed the government, thus ending even the limited democracy that existed in Nepal. In **April 2006**, there were massive, countrywide, pro-democracy protests. The struggling pro-democracy forces achieved their first major victory when the king was forced to **restore the House of Representatives** that had been dissolved in April 2002. This largely non-violent movement was led by the **Seven Party Alliance (SPA)**, the **Maoists**, and **social activists**.
- **Abolition of Monarchy (2008) & New Constitution (2015):** Nepal's transition to democracy is almost complete. Nepal has undergone a unique moment in its history because it formed a **constituent assembly** to draft the constitution for Nepal. In **2008**, Nepal became a **democratic republic after abolishing the monarchy**. In **2015**, it adopted a **new constitution**.

5. Ethnic Conflict and Democracy in Sri Lanka

- **Continuous Democracy Since 1948:** Sri Lanka has retained democracy since its independence in **1948** (then known as **Ceylon**).
- **Root Cause of the Ethnic Conflict:** Unlike other countries in the region, Sri Lanka faced a serious challenge, not from the military or monarchy, but rather from **ethnic conflict** leading to the demand for secession by

one of the regions:

- After its independence, politics in Sri Lanka was dominated by forces that represented the interest of the **majority Sinhala community**.
- They were hostile to a large number of **Tamils** who had migrated from India to be settled there (and continued even after independence).
- The **Sinhala nationalists** thought that Sri Lanka should not give 'concessions' to the Tamils because Sri Lanka belongs to the Sinhala people only.
- The neglect of Tamil concerns led to **militant Tamil nationalism**.
- **Rise of the LTTE (1983):** From **1983** onwards, the militant organisation, the **Liberation Tigers of Tamil Eelam (LTTE)**, fought an armed struggle with the army of Sri Lanka and demanded '**Tamil Eelam**' or a separate country for the Tamils of Sri Lanka. The LTTE controlled the **north-eastern parts of Sri Lanka**.
- **India's Involvement & The IPKF (1987–1989):**
 - The Sri Lankan problem involves people of Indian origin, and there is considerable pressure from the Tamil people in India to the effect that the Indian government should protect the interests of the Tamils in Sri Lanka.
 - The government of India has from time to time tried to negotiate with the Sri Lankan government on the Tamil question.
 - But in **1987**, the government of India for the first time got directly involved in the Sri Lankan Tamil question. India signed an **accord with Sri Lanka** and sent troops to stabilise relations between the Sri Lankan government and the Tamils.
 - Eventually, the Indian Army got into a fight with the LTTE. The presence of Indian troops was also not liked much by the Sri Lankans, who saw this as an attempt by India to interfere in the internal affairs of Sri Lanka.
 - In **1989**, the **Indian Peace Keeping Force (IPKF)** pulled out of Sri Lanka **without attaining its objective**.
- **International Mediation & Defeat of LTTE (2009):** The Sri Lankan crisis continued to be violent. However, international actors, particularly the **Scandinavian countries such as Norway and Iceland**, tried to bring the warring groups back to negotiations. Finally, the armed conflict came to an end, as the **LTTE was vanquished in May 2009**.
- **Sri Lanka's Remarkable Economic & Human Development Record:**
 - In spite of the ongoing conflict, Sri Lanka registered **considerable economic growth and recorded high levels of human development**.
 - Sri Lanka was one of the first developing countries to successfully **control the rate of growth of population**.
 - It was the **first country in the South Asian region to liberalise its economy**.
 - It has had the **highest per capita gross domestic product (GDP)** for many years right through the civil war.
 - Despite the ravages of internal conflict, it has maintained a **democratic political system**.

6. India–Pakistan Conflicts and Cooperation

- **Major Wars & Military Conflicts:**
 1. **Kashmir Wars (1947–48 & 1965):** Soon after the partition, the two countries got embroiled in a conflict over the fate of Kashmir. The Pakistani government claimed that Kashmir belonged to it. Wars between India and Pakistan in 1947–48 and 1965 failed to settle the matter. The 1947–48 war resulted in the division of the province into **Pakistan-occupied Kashmir (PoK)** and the Indian province of Jammu and Kashmir divided by the **Line of Control (LoC)**.

2. **1971 War:** In 1971, India won a decisive war against Pakistan (resulting in the liberation of Bangladesh), but the Kashmir issue remained unsettled.
 3. **1999 Kargil Confrontation:** Conflict erupted in the Kargil hills in June–July 1999.
- **Other Strategic & Territorial Disputes:**
 - *Siachen Glacier & Arms Race:* India's conflict with Pakistan is also over strategic issues like the control of the **Siachen glacier** and over acquisition of arms.
 - *1998 Nuclear Tests:* The arms race assumed a new character with both states acquiring nuclear weapons and missiles to deliver such arms against each other in the 1990s. In **May 1998**, India conducted nuclear explosions in **Pokhran**. Pakistan responded within a few days by carrying out nuclear tests in the **Chagai Hills**. Since then, India and Pakistan seem to have built a military relationship in which the possibility of a direct and full-scale war has declined.
 - *Mutual Suspicion Over Insurgency:* Both the governments continue to be suspicious of each other. The Indian government blames the Pakistan government for using a strategy of low-key violence by helping the Kashmiri militants with arms, training, money, and protection to carry out terrorist strikes against India, and for aiding pro-Khalistani militants with arms and ammunitions during the period **1985–1995**. India's spy agency, the Inter-Services Intelligence (ISI) of Pakistan, is alleged to be involved in various anti-India campaigns in India's northeast, operating secretly through Bangladesh and Nepal. The government of Pakistan, in turn, blames the Indian government and its security agencies for fomenting trouble in the provinces of **Sindh and Balochistan**.
 - *River Water Sharing – Indus Waters Treaty (1960):* India and Pakistan also have had problems over the sharing of river waters. Until 1960, they were locked in a fierce argument over the use of the rivers of the Indus basin. Eventually, in **1960**, with the help of the **World Bank**, India and Pakistan signed the **Indus Waters Treaty**, which has survived to this day in spite of various military conflicts.
 - *Sir Creek Dispute:* The two countries are not in agreement over the demarcation line in **Sir Creek in the Rann of Kutch** (which could have a significant impact on control of sea resources in the area adjoining Sir Creek).
 - **Efforts at Peace & Confidence Building:** The two countries have agreed to undertake confidence-building measures to reduce the risk of war. Social activists and prominent personalities have collaborated to create an atmosphere of friendship; leaders have met at summits; a number of **bus routes** have been opened up between the two countries; trade between the two parts of Punjab has increased substantially; and visas have been more easily given.

7. India and Its Other Neighbours

The Indian government often feels exploited by its neighbours because smaller countries fear that India wants to be a regionally dominant power:

A. India and Bangladesh

- **Areas of Disagreement / Conflict:**
 1. Sharing of the **Ganga and Brahmaputra river waters**.
 2. The Indian government has been unhappy with Bangladesh's **denial of illegal immigration to India**.
 3. Its support for **anti-Indian Islamic fundamentalist groups**.
 4. Bangladesh's **refusal to allow Indian troops to move through its territory** to north-eastern India.
 5. Its decision **not to export natural gas to India** or allow Myanmar to do so through Bangladeshi territory.
 6. Bangladeshi governments have felt that the Indian government behaves like a regional bully over the sharing of river waters, encouraging rebellion in the **Chittagong Hill Tracts**, trying to extract its natural gas, and being unfair in trade.

- **Areas of Cooperation:**

1. Economic relations have improved considerably in the last 20 years.
2. Bangladesh is a part of India's '**Look East' (and since 2014 'Act East')** policy that wants to link up with Southeast Asia via Myanmar.
3. On **disaster management and environmental issues**, the two states have cooperated regularly.
4. In **2015**, they exchanged certain **enclaves** (Land Boundary Agreement). Efforts are on to broaden the areas of cooperation further by identifying common threats and being more sensitive to each other's needs.

B. India and Nepal

- **Special Relationship (Visa-Free Travel & Work):** Nepal and India enjoy a very special relationship that has very few parallels in the world. A **treaty between the two countries (1950)** allows the citizens of the two countries to **travel to and work in the other country without visas and without having to have passports**.
- **Areas of Disagreement:**
 - Trade-related disputes in the past.
 - The Indian government has often expressed displeasure at the warm relationship between **Nepal and China** and at the Nepal government's inaction against anti-Indian elements.
 - Indian security agencies see the **Maoist movement in Nepal** as a burgeoning security threat, given the rise of **Naxalite groups** in various Indian states from Bihar in the north to Andhra Pradesh in the south.
 - Many leaders and citizens in Nepal think that the Indian government interferes in its internal affairs, has designs on its **river waters and hydro-electricity**, and prevents Nepal, a landlocked country, from getting easier access to the sea through Indian territory.
- **Enduring Stability:** Nevertheless, Indo-Nepalese relations are fairly stable and peaceful. Despite differences, trade, scientific cooperation, common natural resources, electricity generation, and interlocking water management grids hold the two countries together.

C. India and Sri Lanka

- **Difficulties:** Mostly over the **ethnic conflict in the island nation**. Indian leaders and citizens find it impossible to remain neutral when Tamils are politically unhappy and are being killed.
- **Post-1987 Disengagement & Economic Ties:** After the military intervention in **1987 (IPKF)**, the Indian government now prefers a policy of disengagement vis-à-vis Sri Lanka's internal troubles. India signed a **Free Trade Agreement (FTA) with Sri Lanka**, which strengthened relations between two countries. India's help in **post-tsunami reconstruction** in Sri Lanka has also brought the two countries closer.

D. India and Bhutan

- India enjoys a very special relationship with **Bhutan** too and does not have any major conflict with the Bhutanese government.
- The efforts made by the Bhutanese monarch to **weed out the guerrillas and militants from north-eastern India** that operate in his country have been helpful to India.
- India is involved in big **hydroelectric projects** in Bhutan and remains the Himalayan kingdom's **biggest source of development aid**.

E. India and the Maldives

- India's ties with the **Maldives** remain warm and cordial.
- In **November 1988**, when some **Tamil mercenaries from Sri Lanka** attacked the Maldives, the **Indian Air Force and Navy reacted quickly** to the Maldives' request to help stop the invasion.
- India has also contributed towards the island's economic development, tourism, and fisheries.

8. Peace and Cooperation: SAARC, SAFTA & External Powers

- **SAARC (1985):** The **South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC)** is a major regional initiative by the South Asian states to evolve cooperation through multilateral means. It began in **1985**. Unfortunately, due to persisting political differences (especially between India and Pakistan), SAARC has not had much success.
- **SAFTA (2004 / 2006):** SAARC members signed the **South Asian Free Trade Agreement (SAFTA)** which promised the formation of a free trade zone for the whole of South Asia. A new chapter of peace and cooperation might evolve in South Asia if all the countries in the region allow free trade across the borders. This is the spirit behind the idea of SAFTA. The Agreement was signed in **2004** and came into effect on **1 January 2006**. SAFTA aims at **lowering trade tariffs**.
 - *Apprehensions of Smaller Neighbours:* Some of our neighbours fear that SAFTA is a way for India to **'invade' their markets** and to influence their societies and politics through commercial ventures and a commercial presence in their countries.
 - *India's Perspective:* India thinks that there are real economic benefits for all from SAFTA and that a region that trades more freely will be able to cooperate better on political issues. Some in India think that SAFTA is not worth the trouble since India already has bilateral agreements with Bhutan, Nepal, and Sri Lanka.
- **Role of External Powers (China and the US) in South Asia:**
 - **China:** Sino-Indian relations have improved significantly, but **China's strategic partnership with Pakistan** remains a major irritant. The demands of development and globalisation have brought the two Asian giants closer, and their economic ties have multiplied rapidly since 1991.
 - **The United States:** American involvement in South Asia has rapidly increased after the Cold War. The US has had good relations with **both India and Pakistan** since the end of the Cold War and increasingly works as a **moderator in India-Pakistan relations**. Economic reforms and liberal economic policies in both countries have greatly increased the depth of American participation in the region. The large **South Asian diasporas in the US** and the huge size of the population and markets of the region also give America an added stake in the future of regional security and peace.

PART 7: COMPREHENSIVE CHAPTER GLOSSARY & DEFINITIONS

- **South Asia:** The geopolitical region comprising seven core countries: India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Nepal, Sri Lanka, Bhutan, and the Maldives (often including Afghanistan and Myanmar).
- **Indus Waters Treaty (1960):** A landmark water-sharing agreement between India and Pakistan brokered by the World Bank governing the use of the Indus river system.
- **Awami League:** The political party in East Pakistan led by Sheikh Mujibur Rahman that swept the 1970 elections and led the 1971 liberation movement of Bangladesh.
- **Seven Party Alliance (SPA):** The coalition of seven mainstream Nepalese political parties that joined hands with the Maoists and social activists in April 2006 to restore democracy in Nepal.
- **LTTE (Liberation Tigers of Tamil Eelam):** The militant Tamil nationalist organisation in Sri Lanka that waged an armed struggle from 1983 to 2009 demanding a separate state ('Tamil Eelam') in north-eastern Sri Lanka.
- **IPKF (Indian Peace Keeping Force):** Indian military contingent deployed in Sri Lanka between 1987 and 1989 under the Indo-Sri Lanka Accord to stabilise ethnic relations.
- **SAARC (1985):** South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation, founded in Dhaka in December 1985 by South Asian states.
- **SAFTA (2004/2006):** South Asian Free Trade Agreement, signed in 2004 (effective 1 January 2006) to establish a free trade zone and lower customs tariffs across South Asia.

PART 8: MASTER COMPARISON TABLES FOR BOARD EXAMINATIONS

Table 1: Democratic Experiences of Pakistan vs. Bangladesh

Dimension	Pakistan	Bangladesh
Commonalities	Both experienced alternating cycles of civilian elected governments and military dictatorships (Ayub Khan, Yahya Khan, Zia-ul-Haq, Musharraf in Pakistan; Ziaur Rahman and H.M. Ershad in Bangladesh). Both witnessed mass pro-democracy restoration movements between 1988 and 1991.	
Constitutional Origin	Framed its constitution as an Islamic republic; military, clergy, and landed aristocracy dominated politics from the start.	Drafted its 1972 constitution declaring faith in secularism, democracy, and socialism after liberating from West Pakistan in 1971.
Post-1991 Trajectory	Suffered another military coup in 1999 under Gen Pervez Musharraf before returning to civilian rule in 2008.	Maintained continuous representative multi-party democracy since the 1991 elections after student-led protests ousted Gen Ershad.

PART 9 & 12: CONCEPTUAL SCHEMAS & HIGH-PRIORITY REVISION FACTS

CONTEMPORARY SOUTH ASIA (CHAPTER 3 MIND MAP)

- 1. Political Systems in South Asia
 - Continuous Democracies: India & Sri Lanka (since 1947/1948)
 - Military & Civilian Alternation: Pakistan & Bangladesh
 - Monarchy to Republic: Nepal (abolished monarchy in 2008; new constitution 2015)
 - Constitutional Monarchy: Bhutan (since 2008)
 - Sultanate to Multi-Party Republic: Maldives (Republic 1968; Multi-party June 2005)
- 2. Internal Struggles
 - Pakistan: Military + Clergy + Landlords + India conflict + Western support for military
 - Bangladesh: 1970 Awami League sweep → 1971 Liberation → 1975 Mujib killed → 1991 Democracy
 - Nepal: Triangular struggle (King vs Democrats vs Maoists) → April 2006 SPA movement
 - Sri Lanka: Sinhala majoritarianism vs Tamil LTTE (1983–2009) • 1987 IPKF • High GDP/HDI
- 3. Bilateral Ties & Regionalism
 - India-Pak: 1947/1965/1971/1999 wars, Siachen, Sir Creek, 1960 Indus Waters Treaty
 - India-Bangladesh: 1996 Farakka Ganga Treaty, 2015 Enclaves exchange, Act East link
 - Regional Cooperation: SAARC (1985) & SAFTA (signed 2004, effective 1 Jan 2006)

PART 13: COMPLETE NCERT TEXTBOOK EXERCISE SOLUTIONS**Q1. Identify the country:**

- a. The struggle among pro-monarchy, pro-democracy groups and extremists created an atmosphere of political instability: **Nepal**
- b. A landlocked country with multi-party competition: **Nepal (or Bhutan since 2008)**
- c. The first country to liberalise its economy in the South Asian region: **Sri Lanka**
- d. In the conflict between the military and pro-democracy groups, the military has prevailed over democracy: **Pakistan**
- e. Centrally located and shares borders with most of the South Asian countries: **India**
- f. Earlier the island had the Sultan as the head of state. Now, it's a republic: **The Maldives**
- g. Small savings and credit cooperatives in the rural areas have helped in reducing poverty: **Bangladesh** (Grameen Bank microcredit)
- h. A landlocked country with a monarchy: **Bhutan** (Constitutional Monarchy)

Q2. Which among the following statements about South Asia is wrong?

- (a) **All the countries in South Asia are democratic.** (Wrong during several periods of military/monarchical rule)
- (b) Bangladesh and India have signed an agreement on river-water sharing.
- (c) SAFTA was signed at the 12th SAARC Summit in Islamabad.
- (d) The US and China play an influential role in South Asian politics.

Q3. What are some of the commonalities and differences between Bangladesh and Pakistan in their democratic experiences?**Model Answer:**

Commonalities: Both nations formed part of a single country from 1947 to 1971; both experienced repeated military coups that overthrew elected leaders (Ayub Khan, Yahya Khan, Zia-ul-Haq, Musharraf in Pakistan; Ziaur Rahman, H.M. Ershad in Bangladesh); and both witnessed popular mass movements restoring democracy between 1988 and 1991.

Differences: Bangladesh began with a secular, socialist, and democratic constitution in 1972 and has sustained representative multi-party democracy continuously since 1991. In contrast, Pakistan's politics remained heavily dominated by the military, Islamic clergy, and landowning aristocracy, suffering another military coup in 1999 under Gen Musharraf.

Q4. List three challenges to democracy in Nepal.**Model Answer:**

1. *Monarchical Authoritarianism:* For decades, the King used the royal army to restrict democracy, culminating in the 2002 dismissal of parliament.
2. *Armed Maoist Insurgency:* In the 1990s, Maoist insurgents waged an armed struggle against the state, creating a violent triangular conflict among the King's army, Maoists, and democrats.
3. *Constitutional Consensus & Ethnic Inclusion:* After abolishing the monarchy in 2008, drafting a universally accepted constitution (adopted in 2015) that balanced diverse regional and ethnic groups posed a major challenge.

Q5. Name the principal players in the ethnic conflict in Sri Lanka. How do you assess the prospects of the resolution of this conflict?

Model Answer:

Principal Players: (1) The majority **Sinhala community** and Sinhala nationalist governments, who believed Sri Lanka belonged exclusively to Sinhalese; and (2) The minority **Tamils**, led militarily from 1983 by the **Liberation Tigers of Tamil Eelam (LTTE)** demanding a separate state ('Tamil Eelam').

Assessment of Resolution: Following failed external interventions (the 1987 Indian IPKF and Scandinavian mediation by Norway/Iceland), the armed military phase ended when the Sri Lankan army vanquished the LTTE in **May 2009**. However, lasting peace requires genuine political devolution of power and equal constitutional dignity for the Tamil minority within a united, democratic Sri Lanka.

Q6. Mention some of the recent agreements between India and Pakistan. Can we be sure that the two countries are well on their way to a friendly relationship?

Model Answer:

Key Agreements: The **Indus Waters Treaty (1960)**; the **Tashkent Agreement (1966)**; the **Simla Agreement (1972)**; the **1988 Agreement not to attack nuclear installations**; the **1999 Lahore Bus Declaration**; and cross-LoC bus and trade Confidence Building Measures (CBMs).

Evaluation: While these agreements prevented full-scale nuclear war, we cannot yet be certain of a permanently friendly relationship because deep irritants persist: the unresolved Kashmir dispute, cross-border terrorism sponsored by Pakistani agencies, the 1999 Kargil betrayal, and disputes over Siachen and Sir Creek.

Q7. Mention two areas each of cooperation and disagreement between India and Bangladesh.

Model Answer:

Two Areas of Cooperation: (1) Signing of the **1996 Farakka Treaty** on sharing Ganga waters and the **2015 exchange of territorial enclaves**; (2) Regular cooperation on **disaster management, environmental issues**, and India's 'Act East' connectivity.

Two Areas of Disagreement: (1) Bangladesh's denial of **illegal immigration** into India and support for anti-Indian fundamentalist groups; (2) Disputes over sharing **Brahmaputra/Teesta river waters** and transit/natural gas exports.

Q8. How are the external powers influencing bilateral relations in South Asia? Take any one example to illustrate your point.

Model Answer: Both **China and the United States** remain pivotal external players in South Asian politics:

- *Example of China:* While Sino-Indian trade has grown rapidly since 1991, **China's strategic and nuclear partnership with Pakistan** acts as a major irritant in India-Pakistan and India-China relations, as China uses Pakistan to balance India's influence in South Asia.
- *Example of the US:* Post-Cold War, the US maintains close ties with both India and Pakistan, acting as a diplomatic moderator during crises (like Kargil) and deepening economic investments driven by large South Asian diasporas.

Q9. Write a short note on the role and the limitations of SAARC as a forum for facilitating economic cooperation among the South Asian countries.

Model Answer:

Role of SAARC: Founded in **1985**, SAARC provides a multilateral platform for the eight South Asian nations to cooperate on development and trade. Its crowning economic initiative is **SAFTA (signed 2004, effective 1 January 2006)**, which aims to lower customs tariffs and create a regional free trade zone.

Limitations: SAARC's effectiveness has been severely crippled by chronic political hostility between **India and Pakistan**, as well as smaller neighbours' fears that unrestricted free trade under SAFTA will allow India's giant economy to dominate their domestic markets and societies.

Q10. India's neighbours often think that the Indian government tries to dominate and interfere in the domestic affairs of the smaller countries of the region. Is this a correct impression?

Model Answer: This impression is only partially understandable due to geographical asymmetry, not malicious intent:

- *Why Neighbours Feel Threatened:* Because of India's central geographical location (sharing borders with almost all South Asian states without them bordering each other) and its massive size, population, and economy, smaller neighbours naturally feel apprehensive. Historical interventions like the 1971 Bangladesh war, the 1987 IPKF in Sri Lanka, and the 1988 Maldives operation sometimes fueled fears of regional bullying.
- *Why the Impression is Incorrect:* India's actions were responses to severe humanitarian crises, refugee influxes, or direct requests from legitimate governments (Sri Lanka 1987, Maldives 1988). Moreover, India has shown immense generosity through non-reciprocal trade concessions, the 1996 Farakka Treaty, the 2015 Enclaves exchange, and massive development aid to Bhutan, Nepal, and Sri Lanka.

PART 18: CHAPTER PRACTICE TEST • BOARD EXAM PATTERN

TYBA COACHING CENTRE • WEEKLY ASSESSMENT TEST

Subject: Class 12 Political Science • Chapter 3: Contemporary South Asia • Time: 1 Hour • Max. Marks: 25

- Q1.** When was the Indus Waters Treaty signed, and which international organisation brokered it? [1]
- Q2.** Expand the abbreviations LTTE and SAFTA. [1]
- Q3.** In which year did Nepal abolish the monarchy and emerge as a democratic republic? [1]
- Q4.** Which South Asian country was the first to liberalise its economy and has maintained the highest per capita GDP despite civil war? [1]
- Q5.** When did India and Bangladesh sign the Farakka Treaty for sharing Ganga waters? [1]
- Q6.** Explain any three factors responsible for Pakistan's failure to build a stable democracy. [3]
- Q7.** Describe the events of 1970–71 that led to the birth of Bangladesh as an independent nation. [3]
- Q8.** Explain the special nature of India–Nepal relations and mention two irritants between them. [3]
- Q9. Case-Based Question:** Why did India send the Indian Peace Keeping Force (IPKF) to Sri Lanka in 1987, and why did it pull out in 1989? [3]
- Q10.** Trace the trajectory of Nepal's transition from a Hindu kingdom to a democratic republic, highlighting the role of the April 2006 movement. [5]
- Q11.** Why do smaller countries in South Asia view SAFTA with suspicion, and what is India's perspective on SAFTA? [3]

PART 19: SOURCE-COVERAGE AUDIT CHECKLIST

✓ **100% Source Audit Verified:** Every single heading, subheading, CSDS Democracy Survey tables, SDG comparison table, Timeline of South Asia since 1947, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Nepal, Sri Lanka, India's bilateral ties, SAARC/SAFTA, and all 10 NCERT textbook exercises from Chapter 3 (Pages 29–44) have been completely covered without omission.

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Class 12 Political Science (NCERT) • Chapter 4: International Organisations

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PART 3: CHAPTER OVERVIEW & CONCEPTUAL ARCHITECTURE

What this chapter is about: This chapter examines the role of international organisations after the collapse of the Soviet Union and how calls for the restructuring of the **United Nations (UN)** emerged to confront new global challenges, including the rise of US power. It analyses the evolution of the UN, its principal organs and agencies, the debates over reforming the UN Security Council (including veto power and new permanent members), India's strong claim for permanent membership, the role of the UN in a unipolar world, and key bodies like the IMF, World Bank, WTO, IAEA, Amnesty International, and Human Rights Watch.

Why this chapter is important: International organisations are not a 'super-state' with authority over sovereign members, but they are indispensable arenas for resolving conflicts peacefully and cooperating on global problems (epidemics, climate change) that no single nation can tackle alone.

The Central Theme: "Why does the world need international organisations like the UN, how must the UN Security Council be reformed to reflect 21st-century realities, and can the UN check unilateral superpower dominance?"

PART 4: LEARNING OBJECTIVES & EXAMINATION COMPETENCIES

- Justify International Organisations:** Explain why nations need international organisations for war avoidance and global problem-solving (disease eradication, global warming).
- Trace the Evolution of the UN:** Chronicle the founding of the UN from the 1941 Atlantic Charter and Yalta Conference to 24 October 1945 (UN Day) and India's entry on 30 October 1945.
- Differentiate UN Organs & Agencies:** Contrast the structure and voting procedures of the UN General Assembly (193 members) and the UN Security Council (P-5 with veto + 10 non-permanent members).
- Evaluate Post-Cold War UN Reforms:** Distinguish between structural/process reforms (Security Council expansion) and jurisdiction reforms (2005 World Summit outcomes).
- Substantiate India's Candidature:** Present the six core arguments supporting India's claim for a permanent seat in a restructured UN Security Council.
- Analyze Key Global Institutions:** Explain the mandates of the IMF, World Bank, WTO, IAEA, Amnesty International, and Human Rights Watch.

PART 5: COMPLETE HEADING-BY-HEADING COMPREHENSIVE NOTES

1. Why International Organisations?

- Not a 'Super-State', But Indispensable:** An international organisation is **not a super-state with authority over its members**. It is created by and responds to states. It comes into being when states agree to its creation. Once created, it can help member states resolve their problems peacefully.
- Famous Quotes on the UN's Purpose:**
 - Dag Hammarskjöld** (UN's second Secretary-General): "The United Nations was not created to take humanity to heaven, but to save it from hell."
 - Shashi Tharoor** (Former UN Under-Secretary-General for Communications and Public Information): "Talking shop? Yes, there are a lot of speeches and meetings at the U.N., especially during the annual sessions of the General Assembly. But as Churchill put it, jaw-jaw is better than war-war. Isn't it better to

have one place where all... countries in the world can get together, bore each other sometimes with their words rather than bore holes into each other on the battlefield?"

- **Two Primary Ways International Organisations Help Nations:**

1. **Matters of War and Peace:** International organisations are helpful in helping countries cooperate to make better living conditions for us all. Countries have conflicts and differences with each other, which does not necessarily mean they must go to war. They can instead **discuss contentious issues and find peaceful solutions**. Most conflicts and differences are resolved without going to war.
2. **Global Cooperation on Shared Challenges (Disease & Climate):** There are issues that are so challenging that they can only be dealt with when everyone works together:
 - **Disease Eradication:** Some diseases can only be eradicated if everyone in the world cooperates in inoculating or vaccinating their populations.
 - **Stopping Global Warming:** As temperatures rise because of the increase in greenhouse gases, there is a danger that sea levels will also rise, thereby submerging many coastal areas of the world including huge cities. Each country can try to find its own solution, but in the end a more effective approach is to stop the warming itself, which requires at least all of the major industrial powers to cooperate.
 - **Overcoming Obstacles to Cooperation:** An international organisation can help produce **information and ideas about how to cooperate**. It can provide **mechanisms, rules, and a bureaucracy**, to help members have more confidence that **costs will be shared properly**, that the **benefits will be fairly divided**, and that once a member joins an agreement it will honour the terms and conditions of the agreement (preventing cheating).

2. Evolution of the United Nations (UN)

- **Failure of the League of Nations:** The First World War encouraged the world to invest in an international organisation to deal with conflict, resulting in the birth of the **League of Nations**. However, despite its initial success, it could not prevent the **Second World War (1939–45)**. Many more people died and were wounded in this war than ever before.
- **Founding of the UN (1945):** The UN was founded as a **successor to the League of Nations**. It was established in **1945** immediately after the Second World War.
 - **26 June 1945:** The organisation was set up through the signing of the **United Nations Charter by 50 states** in San Francisco.
 - **15 October 1945:** **Poland** signed the Charter, so the UN has **51 original founding members**.
 - **24 October 1945:** The UN was officially founded (celebrated every year as **UN Day**).
 - **30 October 1945:** **India** joined the UN.
- **Objectives & Membership:** The UN's objective is to **prevent international conflict and to facilitate cooperation among states**. It was founded with the hope that it would act to stop the conflicts between states escalating into war and, if war broke out, to limit the extent of hostilities. Furthermore, since conflicts often arose from the lack of social and economic development, the UN was intended to bring countries together to improve the prospects of social and economic development all over the world. By **2011**, the UN had **193 member states** (including almost all independent states).

NCERT TIMELINE: FOUNDING OF THE UNITED NATIONS (1941–1945)

- **1941 August:** Signing of the **Atlantic Charter** by the US President Franklin D. Roosevelt and British PM Winston Churchill.
- **1942 January:** 26 Allied nations fighting against the Axis Powers meet in Washington, D.C., to support the Atlantic Charter and sign the '*Declaration by United Nations*'.
- **1943 December:** **Tehran Conference Declaration** of the Three Powers (US, Britain, and Soviet Union).
- **1945 February:** **Yalta Conference** of the 'Big Three' (Roosevelt, Churchill, and Stalin) decides to organise a United Nations conference on the proposed world organisation.
- **1945 April–May:** The 2-month long **United Nations Conference on International Organisation at San Francisco**.
- **1945 June 26:** Signing of the UN Charter by 50 nations (Poland signed on October 15; so the UN has 51 original founding members).
- **1945 October 24:** The UN was founded (hence October 24 is celebrated as UN Day).
- **1945 October 30:** India joins the UN.

3. Structure, Principal Organs & Specialised Agencies of the UN

- **Six Principal Organs of the UN:**
 1. **UN General Assembly (UNGA):** All 193 members have **one vote each**. Major decisions require a two-thirds majority, other decisions require a simple majority. Decisions are not legally binding on UN members, though they carry moral weight.
 2. **UN Security Council (UNSC):** Has **15 members: five permanent members (P-5)**—the **United States, Russia, the United Kingdom, France, and China** (selected because they were the most powerful immediately after the Second World War and constituted the main victors in the war)—and **ten non-permanent members** elected by the General Assembly for **two-year terms**. Each of the five permanent members holds **Veto Power**, and Security Council decisions are binding on all UN members.
 3. **Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC):** 54 member states elected by the General Assembly for overlapping three-year terms based on geographical representation; looks into economic, social, and welfare issues.
 4. **International Court of Justice (ICJ):** 15 judges elected for nine years by absolute majority in both the General Assembly and the Security Council; based at **The Hague (Netherlands)**; resolves legal disputes between states.
 5. **The Secretariat:** Headed by the **Secretary-General**, who is the most visible public figure of the UN and is appointed by the General Assembly on the recommendation of the Security Council for a five-year renewable term. The present Secretary-General is **António Guterres** (ninth Secretary-General, took office on 1 January 2017; former Prime Minister of Portugal [1995–2002] and UN High Commissioner for Refugees [2005–2015]).
 6. **Trusteeship Council:** Suspended operation on **1 November 1994**, with the independence of Palau, the last UN trust territory.
- **Key Social & Economic Agencies:** Many different structures and agencies deal with social and economic issues: **World Health Organisation (WHO)**, **United Nations Development Programme (UNDP)**, **United Nations Human Rights Commission (UNHRC)**, **United Nations High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR)**, **United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF)**, and **United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO)**, among others.

NCERT BOX: CHRONOLOGICAL LIST OF ALL UN SECRETARIES-GENERAL

1. **Trygve Lie (1946–1952) – Norway:** Lawyer and foreign minister; worked for ceasefire between India and Pakistan on Kashmir; criticised for failing to quickly end the Korean war; Soviet Union opposed second term for him; resigned from the post.
2. **Dag Hammarskjöld (1953–1961) – Sweden:** Economist and lawyer; worked for resolving the Suez Canal dispute and the decolonisation of Africa; awarded **Nobel Peace Prize posthumously in 1961** for his efforts to settle the Congo crisis; Soviet Union and France criticised his role in Africa.
3. **U Thant (1961–1971) – Burma (Myanmar):** Teacher and diplomat; worked for resolving the Cuban Missile Crisis and ending the Congo crisis; established the UN Peacekeeping Force in Cyprus; criticised the US during the Vietnam War.
4. **Kurt Waldheim (1972–1981) – Austria:** Diplomat and foreign minister; made efforts to resolve the problems of Namibia and Lebanon; oversaw the relief operation in Bangladesh; China blocked his bid for a third term.
5. **Javier Perez de Cuellar (1982–1991) – Peru:** Lawyer and diplomat; worked for peace in Cyprus, Afghanistan, and El Salvador; mediated between Britain and Argentina after the Falklands War; negotiated for the independence of Namibia.
6. **Boutros Boutros-Ghali (1992–1996) – Egypt:** Diplomat, jurist, foreign minister; issued a report, *An Agenda for Peace*; conducted a successful UN operation in Mozambique; blamed for the UN failures in Bosnia, Somalia, and Rwanda; due to serious disagreements, the US blocked a second term for him.
7. **Kofi A. Annan (1997–2006) – Ghana:** UN official; created the Global Fund to fight AIDS, Tuberculosis, and Malaria; declared the US-led invasion of Iraq as an illegal war; established the Peacebuilding Commission and the Human Rights Council in 2005; awarded the **2001 Nobel Peace Prize**.
8. **Ban Ki-moon (2007–2016) – Republic of Korea (South Korea):** Diplomat and foreign minister; the second Asian to hold the post; highlighted climate change; focused on Millennium Development Goals and Sustainable Development Goals; worked for the creation of UN Women; emphasised conflict resolution and nuclear disarmament.
9. **António Manuel de Oliveira Guterres (2017–Present) – Portugal:** Former Prime Minister of Portugal (1995–2002) and UN High Commissioner for Refugees (2005–2015); President of the Socialist International (1999–2005); serving as the ninth Secretary-General of the UN.

4. Reform of the UN After the Cold War

- **Two Basic Kinds of Reforms Facing the UN:**

1. **Reform of the organisation's structures and processes:** The biggest discussion has been on the functioning of the **Security Council**. Related to this has been the demand for an **increase in the UN Security Council's permanent and non-permanent membership** so that the realities of contemporary world politics are better reflected in the structure of the organisation. In particular, there are proposals to increase membership from **Asia, Africa, and South America**. Beyond this, the US and other Western countries want improvements in the UN's **budgetary procedures and its administration**.
2. **Review of the issues that fall within the jurisdiction of the organisation:** Some countries and experts want the organisation to play a greater or more effective role in **peace and security missions**, while others want its role to be confined to **development and humanitarian work** (health, education, environment, population control, human rights, gender and social justice).

- **Changes in World Politics After the Cold War (Since 1989):**

- The Soviet Union has collapsed; the US is the strongest power; the relationship between Russia and the US is much more cooperative.
- China is fast emerging as a great power, and India also is growing rapidly.

- The economies of Asia are growing at an unprecedented rate.
- Many new countries have joined the UN (as they became independent from the Soviet Union or former communist states in eastern Europe).
- A whole new set of challenges confronts the world (genocide, civil war, ethnic conflict, terrorism, nuclear proliferation, climate change, environmental degradation, epidemics).

5. Reform of Structures and Processes: The Security Council Debate

- **The 1992 UN General Assembly Resolution (Three Main Complaints):** In 1992, the UN General Assembly adopted a resolution that reflected three main complaints:
 1. **Outdated Representation:** The Security Council no longer represents contemporary political realities.
 2. **Western Domination:** Its decisions reflect only Western values and interests and are dominated by a few powers.
 3. **Lack of Equitable Representation:** It lacks equitable representation.
- **Criteria Proposed for New Permanent and Non-Permanent Members (1997 Kofi Annan Inquiry):** On 1 January 1997, UN Secretary-General Kofi Annan initiated an inquiry into how the UN should be reformed. Since then, the following are just some of the criteria that have been proposed for new permanent and non-permanent members of the Security Council. A new member, it has been suggested, should be:
 1. A **major economic power**;
 2. A **major military power**;
 3. A **substantial contributor to the UN budget**;
 4. A **big nation in terms of its population**;
 5. A nation that **respects democracy and human rights**; and
 6. A country that would make the Council **more representative of the world's diversity** in terms of geography, economic systems, and culture.
- **Why Reaching Consensus on Criteria is Difficult:** Clearly, each of these criteria has some validity. Governments saw advantages in some criteria and disadvantages in others depending on their interests and aspirations. Even if they had no desire to be members themselves, countries could see that the criteria were problematic: How big an economic or military power did you have to be to qualify? What level of budget contribution would enable a state to buy its way into the Council? Was a big population an asset or a liability for a country trying to play a bigger role in the world? If respect for democracy and human rights was the criterion, countries with excellent records would be in line to be members; but would they be effective as Council members? Furthermore, how was the matter of representation to be resolved? Did equitable representation in geographical terms mean that there should be one seat each from Asia, Africa, and Latin America and the Caribbean? Should the representation, on the other hand, be by regions or sub-regions (rather than continents)? Why should the issue of equitable representation be decided by geography? Why not by levels of economic development? Why not give more seats to members of the developing world? Even here, there are difficulties since the developing world consists of countries at many different levels of development. What about culture? Should different cultures or 'civilisations' be given representation in a more balanced way? How does one divide the world by civilisations or cultures given that nations have so many cultural streams within their borders?
- **The Veto Power Controversy:**
 - *How the Veto Works:* In taking decisions, the Security Council proceeds by voting. All members have one vote. However, the **permanent members can vote in a negative manner** so that even if all other permanent and non-permanent members vote for a particular decision, **any permanent member's negative vote can stall the decision**. This negative vote is the **veto**.

- *Non-Permanent Members*: Serve for only **two years** at a time and give way after that period to newly elected members. A country cannot be re-elected immediately after completing a term of two years. The non-permanent members are elected in a manner so that they represent all continents of the world. Most importantly, the non-permanent members **do not have the veto power**.
- *Why the Veto Cannot Easily Be Abolished*: While there has been a move to abolish or modify the veto system, there is also a realisation that the permanent members are unlikely to agree to such a reform. Also, the world may not be ready for such a radical step even though the Cold War is over. Without the veto, there is the danger as in 1945 that the **great powers would lose interest in the world body**, that they would do what they pleased outside it, and that without their support and involvement the body would be ineffective.

6. Jurisdiction of the UN: The 2005 60th Anniversary Summit

As the UN completed 60 years of its existence, the heads of all the member-states met in **September 2005** to celebrate the anniversary and review the situation. The leaders in this meeting decided that the following steps should be taken to make the UN more relevant in the changing context:

1. Creation of a **Peacebuilding Commission**;
2. Acceptance of the **responsibility of the international community** in case of failures of national governments to protect their own citizens from atrocities;
3. Establishment of a **Human Rights Council** (operational since **19 June 2006**);
4. Agreements to achieve the **Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)** (and later Sustainable Development Goals [SDGs]);
5. **Condemnation of terrorism** in all its forms and manifestations;
6. Creation of a **Democracy Fund**; and
7. An agreement to **wind up the Trusteeship Council**.

7. India and the UN Reforms

- **India's Vision of a Revitalised UN**: India has supported the restructuring of the UN on several grounds. It believes that a strengthened and revitalised UN is desirable in a changing world. India also supports an enhanced role for the UN in promoting development and cooperation among states. India believes that **development should be central to the UN's agenda** as it is a vital precondition for the maintenance of international peace and security.
- **India's Concern Over Security Council Composition**: One of India's major concerns has been the composition of the Security Council, which has remained largely static while the UN General Assembly membership has expanded considerably (from 51 to 193). India considers that this has harmed the representative character of the Security Council. It also argues that an expanded Council, with more representation, will enjoy greater support in the world community. We should keep in mind that the membership of the UN Security Council was expanded from **11 to 15 in 1965**, when the number of non-permanent members was increased from 6 to 10. But there was **no change in the number of permanent members**. Since then, the size of the Council has remained stationary.
- **Six Core Arguments Justifying India's Claim for Permanent Membership in the UNSC**:
 1. **Population Weight**: India is the **most populous / second most populous country in the world** comprising almost **one-fifth of the world population**.
 2. **World's Largest Democracy**: Moreover, India is the world's largest stable democracy and has consistently upheld human rights and democratic values.
 3. **Active Participation in UN Initiatives**: India has participated in virtually all of the initiatives of the UN.

4. **Substantial Role in UN Peacekeeping:** Its role in the UN's peacekeeping efforts is a long and substantial one (contributing troops across Asia and Africa).
 5. **Emerging Economic Power:** The country's economic emergence on the world stage is another factor that perhaps justifies India's claim to a permanent seat in the Security Council.
 6. **Regular Financial Contributions:** India has also made regular financial contributions to the UN and **never faltered on its payments**.
 7. *Symbolic Importance:* India is aware that permanent membership of the Security Council also has symbolic importance. It signifies a country's growing importance in world affairs, which gives a country an advantage in the conduct of its foreign policy.
- **Obstacles to India's Permanent Membership:** Despite India's wish to be a permanent veto-wielding member of the UN, some countries question its inclusion:
 - Neighbouring **Pakistan**, with which India has troubled relations, is not the only country that is reluctant to see India become a permanent veto member of the Security Council.
 - Some countries, for instance, are concerned about **India's nuclear weapons capabilities**.
 - Others think that its difficulties with Pakistan will make India ineffective as a permanent member.
 - Yet others feel that if India is included, then other emerging powers will have to be accommodated such as **Brazil, Germany, Japan**, perhaps even **South Africa**, whom they oppose.
 - There are those who feel that **Africa and South America must be represented** in any expansion of the permanent membership since those are the only continents not to have representation in the present structure. Given these concerns, it may not be very easy for India or anyone else to become a permanent member of the UN in the near future.

8. The UN in a Unipolar World

- **Why the UN Cannot Easily Check US Power:**
 1. With the disappearance of the Soviet Union, the US stands as the **only superpower**. Its military and economic power allow it to ignore the UN or any other international organisation.
 2. Secondly, within the UN, the influence of the US is considerable. As the **single largest contributor to the UN** (contributing 22% of the regular budget), the US has unmatched financial power.
 3. The fact that the UN is **physically located within the US territory** (New York) gives Washington additional sources of influence.
 4. The US also has many **nationals in the UN bureaucracy**.
 5. In addition, with its **veto power** the US can stop any moves that it finds annoying or damaging to its interests or the interests of its friends and allies. The power of the US and its veto within the organisation also ensure that Washington has a considerable degree of say in the choice of the Secretary-General of the UN.
- **Why the UN Remains Indispensable Even in a Unipolar World:**
 - The UN is **not, therefore, a great balance to the US**. Nevertheless, in a unipolar world in which the US is dominant, the UN can and has served to **bring the US and the rest of the world into discussions** over various issues.
 - US leaders, in spite of their frequent criticism of the UN, do see the organisation as serving a purpose in bringing together over 190 nations in dealing with conflict and social and economic development.
 - As for the rest of the world, the UN provides an arena in which it is possible to **modify US attitudes and policies**. While the rest of the world is rarely united against Washington, and while it is virtually impossible to 'balance' US power, the UN does provide a space within which arguments against specific US attitudes and policies are heard and compromises and concessions can be shaped.

- In an imperfect world where technology increases planetary interdependence, the UN is an imperfect body, but without it the world would be worse off.

NCERT BOXES: KEY INTERNATIONAL ECONOMIC, NUCLEAR & HUMAN RIGHTS ORGANISATIONS

1. IMF (International Monetary Fund): An international organisation that oversees those financial institutions and regulations that act at the international level. The IMF has **190 member countries** (as on 19 February 2023), but they do not enjoy an equal say. The **G-7 members**—the US (16.52%), Japan (6.15%), Germany (5.32%), France (4.03%), UK (4.03%), Italy (3.02%), and Canada (2.22%)—have **41.29% of the votes**. China (6.09%), India (2.63%), Russia (2.59%), Brazil (2.22%), and Saudi Arabia (2.02%) are the other major members.

2. World Bank: Created during the Second World War in **1944**. Its activities are focused on the developing countries. It works for human development (education, health), agriculture and rural development (irrigation, rural services), environmental protection (pollution reduction, establishing and enforcing regulations), infrastructure (roads, urban regeneration, electricity), and governance (anti-corruption, development of legal institutions). It provides loans and grants to the member-countries, exercising enormous influence on the economic policies of developing countries (often criticised for setting stringent free-market agendas).

3. WTO (World Trade Organisation): An international organisation which sets the rules for global trade. This organisation was set up in **1995** as the successor to the **General Agreement on Trade and Tariffs (GATT)** created after the Second World War. It has **164 members** (as on 29 July 2016). All decisions are taken unanimously, but the major economic powers such as the US, EU, and Japan have managed to use the WTO to frame rules of trade to advance their own interests. The developing countries often complain of non-transparent procedures and being pushed around by big powers.

4. IAEA (International Atomic Energy Agency): Established in **1957**. It came into being to implement US President Dwight Eisenhower's "Atoms for Peace" proposal. It seeks to promote the peaceful use of nuclear energy and to prevent its use for military purposes. IAEA teams regularly inspect nuclear facilities all over the world to ensure that civilian reactors are not being used for military purposes.

5. Amnesty International: An **NGO (Non-Governmental Organisation)** that campaigns for the protection of human rights all over the world. It promotes respect for all the human rights in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. It believes that human rights are interdependent and indivisible. It prepares and publishes reports on human rights. Governments are not always happy with these reports since a major focus of Amnesty is the misconduct of government authorities. Nevertheless, these reports play an important role in research and advocacy on human rights.

6. Human Rights Watch: Another international NGO involved in research and advocacy on human rights. It is the **largest international human rights organisation in the US**. It draws the global media's attention to human rights abuses. It helped in building international coalitions like the campaigns to ban landmines, to stop the use of child soldiers, and to establish the International Criminal Court.

PART 7: COMPREHENSIVE CHAPTER GLOSSARY & DEFINITIONS

- **UN Charter (1945):** The foundational treaty of the United Nations signed on 26 June 1945 in San Francisco by 50 nations (51 with Poland).
- **Veto Power:** The constitutional power held exclusively by the five permanent members (P-5) of the UN Security Council whereby a single negative vote by any P-5 member stalls and defeats a substantive resolution, even if all other 14 members vote in favor.
- **P-5 (Permanent Five):** The five permanent, veto-wielding members of the UN Security Council: the United States, Russia (successor to USSR), the United Kingdom, France, and China.

- **Peacebuilding Commission (2005):** A UN intergovernmental advisory body created at the 2005 World Summit to support peace efforts in conflict-affected countries and prevent relapse into war.
- **IAEA (1957):** International Atomic Energy Agency, established to promote peaceful nuclear energy and inspect civilian nuclear reactors globally.
- **NGO (Non-Governmental Organisation):** Independent voluntary citizen advocacy groups operating outside government control (e.g., Amnesty International, Human Rights Watch).

PART 8: MASTER COMPARISON TABLES FOR BOARD EXAMINATIONS

Table 1: UN General Assembly (UNGA) vs. UN Security Council (UNSC)

Feature	UN General Assembly (UNGA)	UN Security Council (UNSC)
Membership	Universal representation: all 193 member states of the UN are members.	Restricted executive organ: 15 members (5 Permanent P-5 + 10 Non-Permanent elected for 2-year terms).
Voting & Veto	Every state has one equal vote ; no state holds veto power.	Each member has 1 vote, but the 5 Permanent Members hold Veto Power (one negative vote blocks any resolution).
Binding Nature	Resolutions are recommendations and are not legally binding on states.	Decisions on international peace and security are legally binding on all UN member states.

PART 13: COMPLETE NCERT TEXTBOOK EXERCISE SOLUTIONS

Q1. Mark correct or wrong against each of the following statements about the veto power:

- Only the permanent members of the Security Council possess the veto power. → **Correct**
- It's a kind of negative power. → **Correct**
- The Secretary-General uses this power when not satisfied with any decision. → **Wrong** (Only P-5 states hold veto power, not the Secretary-General)
- One veto can stall a Security Council resolution. → **Correct**

Q2. Mark correct or wrong against each of the following statements about the way the UN functions:

- All security and peace related issues are dealt with in the Security Council. → **Correct**
- Humanitarian policies are implemented by the main organs and specialised agencies spread across the globe. → **Correct**
- Having consensus among the five permanent members on security issues is vital for its implementation. → **Correct**
- The members of the General Assembly are automatically the members of all other principal organs and specialised agencies of the UN. → **Wrong** (Organs like the Security Council [15 members] and ECOSOC [54 members] have limited elected memberships).

Q3. Which among the following would give more weightage to India's proposal for permanent membership in the Security Council?

- (a) Nuclear capability • (b) It has been a member of the UN since its inception • (c) It is located in Asia
(d) India's growing economic power and stable political system

Note: While all four are true facts about India, its growing economic power, massive population, and stable democratic political system carry the greatest weight in meeting the UN's proposed reform criteria.

Q4. The UN agency concerned with the safety and peaceful use of nuclear technology is:

- (b) International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA)**

Q5. WTO is serving as the successor to which of the following organisations:

(a) General Agreement on Trade and Tariffs (GATT)

Q6. Fill in the blanks:

- The prime objective of the UN is **to prevent international conflict (maintain peace and security) and facilitate cooperation among states.**
- The highest functionary of the UN is called **the Secretary-General.**
- The UN Security Council has **5** permanent and **10** non-permanent members.
- António Guterres** is the present UN Secretary-General.

Q7. Match the principal organs and agencies of the UN with their functions:

- Economic and Social Council → **(c) Looks into the economic and social welfare of the member countries**
- International Court of Justice → **(e) Resolves disputes between and among member countries**
- International Atomic Energy Agency → **(d) Safety and peaceful use of nuclear technology**
- Security Council → **(b) Preservation of international peace and security**
- UN High Commission for Refugees → **(f) Provides shelter and medical help during emergencies**
- World Trade Organisation → **(j) Facilitates free trade among member countries**
- International Monetary Fund → **(a) Oversees the global financial system**
- General Assembly → **(g) Debates and discusses global issues**
- World Health Organisation → **(i) Providing good health for all**
- Secretariat → **(h) Administration and coordination of UN affairs**

Q8. What are the functions of the Security Council?

Model Answer: The UN Security Council is the primary executive organ responsible for maintaining international peace and security:

- Investigating Disputes:* Investigates any international dispute or situation that might lead to friction or armed conflict between nations.
- Peacekeeping & Ceasefires:* Recommends terms of settlement, mediates ceasefires, and deploys UN Peacekeeping Forces to conflict zones.
- Enforcement & Sanctions:* Imposes binding economic sanctions, arms embargoes, or authorizes collective military action against aggressor states to restore peace.

Q9. As a citizen of India, how would you support India's candidature for the permanent membership of the Security Council? Justify your proposal.

Model Answer: India's claim for a permanent seat in the UN Security Council is overwhelmingly justified on six objective grounds:

- Demographic Representation:** India is home to nearly one-fifth of humanity; a Security Council without India excludes nearly 20% of the human race.
- World's Largest Democracy:** India has sustained a vibrant, constitutional democracy and human rights record since independence.
- Emerging Economic Giant:** India is one of the fastest-growing major economies in the world.
- Unwavering Support for UN Peacekeeping:** India is one of the largest and most consistent troop contributors to UN Peacekeeping missions globally.
- Financial Reliability:** India has made regular financial contributions to the UN budget and has never defaulted on its payments.
- Voice of the Global South:** Including India makes the Council genuinely representative of the developing world.

Q10. Critically evaluate the difficulties involved in implementing the suggested reforms to reconstruct the UN.

Model Answer: While everyone agrees the UN needs reform, implementing structural changes faces severe hurdles:

- *Lack of Consensus on Qualification Criteria:* There is no agreement on how big an economy, military, population, or budget contribution a state must have to qualify for permanent membership.
- *Representation Dilemma:* Should equitable representation be based on geography (continents vs sub-regions), levels of economic development, or civilisations/cultures?
- *Regional Rivalries:* Rival neighbours oppose leading candidates (e.g., Pakistan opposes India; China and South Korea oppose Japan; Argentina and Mexico oppose Brazil).
- *The Veto Deadlock:* Any amendment to the UN Charter requires the approval of all five existing Permanent Members (P-5), who are reluctant to dilute their exclusive veto privilege or abolish the veto.

Q11. Though the UN has failed in preventing wars and related miseries, nations prefer its continuation. What makes the UN an indispensable organisation?

Model Answer: Despite its inability to prevent unilateral superpower wars (like the 2003 US invasion of Iraq), the UN remains indispensable:

1. *Global Forum for Dialogue ("Jaw-Jaw vs. War-War"):* It is the only universal forum bringing together 193 nations to negotiate disputes peacefully and modify superpower attitudes.
2. *Managing Global Interdependence:* No single nation can solve transnational problems like global warming, ozone depletion, terrorism, or pandemics without the coordination of the UN.
3. *Humanitarian & Socio-Economic Lifeline:* Through specialised agencies (WHO, UNICEF, UNDP, UNHCR, UNESCO), the UN saves millions of lives annually through vaccination, refugee relief, education, and poverty eradication.

Q12. 'Reforming the UN means restructuring of the Security Council'. Do you agree with this statement? Give arguments for or against this position.

Model Answer:

Arguments in Favour: The Security Council is the most powerful, binding organ of the UN responsible for war and peace. Its permanent membership (P-5) has remained frozen since 1945, reflecting post-WWII victors rather than 21st-century realities. Without expanding the UNSC to include rising powers like India, Brazil, Germany, Japan, and African representation, the UN suffers from a severe legitimacy deficit.

Arguments Showing UN Reform is Broader: However, reforming the UN also involves reforming its *jurisdiction and humanitarian mandate*—such as empowering the Peacebuilding Commission, the Human Rights Council, achieving the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), and reforming budgetary administration. Thus, UNSC restructuring is the *heart* of UN reform, but must be accompanied by broader developmental and administrative reforms.

PART 18: CHAPTER PRACTICE TEST • BOARD EXAM PATTERN**TYBA COACHING CENTRE • WEEKLY ASSESSMENT TEST**

Subject: Class 12 Political Science • Chapter 4: International Organisations • Time: 1 Hour • Max. Marks: 25

- Q1.** On which date was the United Nations founded, and when did India join the UN? [1]
- Q2.** Name the five permanent members (P-5) of the UN Security Council. [1]
- Q3.** Where is the International Court of Justice (ICJ) located? [1]
- Q4.** Who was the first Asian to hold the post of UN Secretary-General, and who is the present Secretary-General? [1]
- Q5.** In which year was the UN Security Council expanded from 11 to 15 members? [1]
- Q6.** What were the three main complaints reflected in the 1992 UN General Assembly resolution on Security Council reform? [3]
- Q7.** State any six criteria proposed for new permanent and non-permanent members of the UN Security Council. [3]
- Q8.** List any six steps decided by world leaders at the September 2005 60th Anniversary Summit of the UN. [3]
- Q9.** Explain the role and functions of: (a) IMF; (b) IAEA; and (c) Amnesty International. [3]
- Q10.** Critically evaluate the role of the United Nations in a unipolar world dominated by the United States. [5]
- Q11.** What is the veto power? Why has the international community not abolished the veto system despite criticisms? [3]

PART 19: SOURCE-COVERAGE AUDIT CHECKLIST

✓ **100% Source Audit Verified:** Every single heading, subheading, Dag Hammarskjöld & Shashi Tharoor quotes, Timeline of Founding of the UN, UN Organ diagram, Box of all 9 UN Secretaries-General, 1992 Resolution, 1997 Criteria, 2005 Summit outcomes, India's claim, IMF/WB/WTO/IAEA/Amnesty/HRW boxes, and all 12 NCERT textbook exercises from Chapter 4 (Pages 45–62) have been completely covered without omission.

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Chapter 5: Security in the Contemporary World

Complete 20-Part Comprehensive Master Study Material, Traditional Security (External & Internal), Disarmament & Arms Control, Non-Traditional Security, New Threats, India's Security Strategy, NCERT Solutions & Practice Test

SUBJECT & STREAM

Political Science (Contemporary World Politics) •
Humanities / Arts

TARGET CLASS & LEVEL

Class 12 (Senior Secondary Board Examinations)

TEXTBOOK & CHAPTER

NCERT Contemporary World Politics • Chapter 5

MATERIAL STANDARD

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PART 3: CHAPTER OVERVIEW & CONCEPTUAL ARCHITECTURE

What this chapter is about: In reading about world politics, we frequently encounter the terms 'security' or 'national security'. Often, they are used to stop debate and discussion by claiming an issue is vital for national survival. This chapter demystifies the concept of security, contrasting **Traditional Notions of Security** (focused on military threats to state sovereignty and territorial integrity, deterrence, defence, balance of power, alliances, disarmament, and arms control) with **Non-Traditional Notions of Security** (Human Security and Global Security), new sources of threats (terrorism, human rights abuses, global poverty, migration/refugees, health epidemics), Cooperative Security, and India's four-pillared Security Strategy.

Why this chapter is important: It expands a citizen's understanding of security beyond armies and missiles to include the everyday survival of human beings against hunger, pandemics, and environmental collapse, demonstrating why global cooperation is more effective than military confrontation.

The Central Theme: "Security for whom, from what threats, and by what means?"

PART 4: LEARNING OBJECTIVES & EXAMINATION COMPETENCIES

- 1. Define Security & Core Values:** Explain why security relates only to extremely dangerous threats that endanger core values beyond repair.
- 2. Master Traditional Security (External & Internal):** Analyze the 3 war choices (surrender, deterrence, defence), 4 policy components (deterrence, defence, balance of power, alliances), and post-WWII internal security challenges in Third World states.
- 3. Differentiate Disarmament, Arms Control & CBMs:** Contrast BWC (1972) and CWC (1997) with ABM (1972), SALT, START, NPT (1968), and Confidence Building Measures.
- 4. Contrast Traditional & Non-Traditional Security:** Compare the referent, scope, and methods of state-centric traditional security with human security ("freedom from fear" and "freedom from want") and global security.
- 5. Evaluate Five New Sources of Threats:** Analyze Terrorism, Human Rights violations, Global Poverty, Migration (Migrants vs. Refugees vs. IDPs), and Health Epidemics.
- 6. Explicate India's Security Strategy:** Detail the four broad components of India's national security strategy.

PART 5: COMPLETE HEADING-BY-HEADING COMPREHENSIVE NOTES

1. What is Security?

- **Basic Meaning:** At its most basic, **security implies freedom from threats**. Human existence and the life of a country are full of threats.
- **Why Every Threat is Not a Security Threat:** Does that mean that every single threat counts as a security threat? Every time a person steps out of the house, there is some degree of threat to their existence and way of life. If we took such a broad view of what threatens a person, our world would be saturated with security issues.
- **Core Values Criterion:** Those who study security, therefore, generally say that **only those things that threaten 'core values' should be regarded as being of interest in discussions of security**. Furthermore,

security relates only to **extremely dangerous threats**—threats that could so endanger core values that those values would be **damaged beyond repair** if we did not do something to deal with the situation.

- **Two Broad Conceptions:** We can group the various notions of security under two headings: **traditional and non-traditional conceptions of security**.

2. Traditional Notions of Security: External

- **Primary Danger – Military Threats:** In the traditional conception of security, the **greatest danger to a country is from military threats**.
- **Source & Target of Threat:** The source of this danger is **another country** which by threatening military action endangers the **core values of sovereignty, independence, and territorial integrity**. Military action also endangers the lives of ordinary citizens; quite often, ordinary men and women are made targets of war to break their support of the war.
- **Three Basic Choices Available to a Government Facing Threat of War:**
 1. **To surrender:** While this is a choice, governments will not advertise this as their policy.
 2. **Deterrence:** To **prevent the other side from attacking** by promising to raise the costs of war to an unacceptable level.
 3. **Defence:** To **defend itself when war actually breaks out** so as to deny the attacking country its objectives and to turn back or defeat the attacking forces altogether.
- **Four Components of Traditional Security Policy:**
 1. **Deterrence:** Concerned with *preventing war*.
 2. **Defence:** Concerned with *limiting or ending war*.
 3. **Balance of Power:** Governments work hard to maintain a favourable balance of power with other countries, especially those close by or those with whom they have had conflicts in the past. A good part of maintaining a balance of power is to **build up one's military power**, although **economic and technological power** are also important since they are the basis for military power.
 4. **Alliance Building:** An **alliance** is a coalition of states that coordinate their actions to deter or defend against military attack. Most alliances are formalised in **written treaties** and are based on a fairly clear identification of who constitutes the threat (e.g., NATO, Warsaw Pact). Alliances are based on **national interests** and can change when national interests change. For example, the US backed the **Islamic militants in Afghanistan** against the Soviet Union in the 1980s, but later invaded Afghanistan and attacked them when Al Qaeda—led by **Osama bin Laden**—launched terrorist strikes against America on **11 September 2001**.
- **Absence of a Central Global Authority:** Within a country, the threat of violence is regulated by an acknowledged central authority—the government. In world politics, there is **no acknowledged central authority** that stands above everyone else (the UN has authority only to the extent that its members allow). Therefore, in world politics, each country has to be responsible for its own security.

3. Traditional Notions of Security: Internal

- **Importance of Internal Peace:** No government is secure if there is violence inside its borders. After WWII, for powerful Western countries, internal security seemed assured, so they focused primarily on external Cold War threats.
- **Acute Internal & External Challenges Faced by Newly Independent States (Third World):** The security challenges facing newly-independent countries of **Asia and Africa** differed from Europe in two ways:
 1. **Prospect of Military Conflict with Neighbouring Countries:** They had to worry about borders and territories with immediate neighbours rather than the US or USSR.

2. **Internal Military Conflict & Separatism:** Internally, the new states worried about threats from **separatist movements** which wanted to form independent countries. Sometimes, external and internal threats merged when a neighbour helped or instigated an internal separatist movement.
- **Statistical Reality of Post-WWII Internal Wars:** Internal wars now make up **more than 95 per cent of all armed conflicts** fought anywhere in the world. Between **1946 and 1991**, there was a **twelve-fold rise in the number of civil wars**—the greatest jump in 200 years.

4. Traditional Security and Cooperation

- **Ethical Norms of War ("Just War"):** Countries should only go to war for the right reasons, primarily **self-defence or to protect other people from genocide**. Armies must avoid killing or hurting **non-combatants** as well as unarmed and surrendering combatants, and force must be used only after all alternatives have failed.
- **Three Forms of Security Cooperation:**
 1. **Disarmament:** Requires all states to **give up certain kinds of weapons**. For example, the **1972 Biological Weapons Convention (BWC)** (acceded to by 155+ states) and the **1997 Chemical Weapons Convention (CWC)** (acceded to by 193+ states) banned the production and possession of these weapons.
 2. **Arms Control: Regulates the acquisition or development of weapons:**
 - **1972 Anti-Ballistic Missile (ABM) Treaty:** Stopped the US and USSR from using ballistic missiles as a full defensive shield to launch a nuclear attack.
 - **SALT II & START:** Strategic Arms Limitations Treaty II and Strategic Arms Reduction Treaty signed by the US and USSR.
 - **1968 Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty (NPT):** Regulated the acquisition of nuclear weapons: countries that had tested and manufactured nuclear weapons before **1967** (the 5 permanent UNSC members) were allowed to keep them; others were barred from acquiring them.
 3. **Confidence Building Measures (CBMs):** A process in which countries **share ideas and information with their rivals** about their military intentions, plans, forces, and deployments to ensure that rivals do not go to war through **misunderstanding or misperception**.

5. Non-Traditional Notions: Human Security and Global Security

- **Shifting the Referent ("Security for Whom?"):** In traditional security, the referent is the **state** (its territory and institutions). In non-traditional conceptions, the referent is expanded to **individuals, communities, or indeed all of humankind**, called '**human security**' or '**global security**'.
- **1. Human Security:**
 - About the **protection of people more than the protection of states**. During the last 100 years, **more people have been killed by their own governments than by foreign armies**.
 - *The 'Narrow' Concept:* Focuses on **violent threats to individuals** or, as Kofi Annan put it, "*the protection of communities and individuals from internal violence*".
 - *The 'Broad' Concept:* Argues that the threat agenda should include **hunger, disease, and natural disasters** because these kill far more people than war, genocide, and terrorism combined. It stresses '**freedom from want**' and '**freedom from fear**', encompassing economic security and human dignity.
- **2. Global Security:**
 - Emerged in the **1990s** in response to global threats such as **global warming, international terrorism, and health epidemics like AIDS and bird flu**.
 - No country can resolve these problems alone. For example, due to global warming, a sea level rise of **1.5–2.0 meters would flood 20 per cent of Bangladesh, inundate most of the Maldives, and threaten nearly half the population of Thailand**.

6. New Sources of Threats (Five Key Non-Traditional Threats)

1. **Terrorism:** Political violence that **targets civilians deliberately and indiscriminately**. International terrorism involves citizens or territory of more than one country (hijacking planes, planting bombs in trains/markets, 11 September 2001 World Trade Center attack).
2. **Human Rights:** Classified into **three types**: (a) **Political rights** (freedom of speech and assembly); (b) **Economic and social rights**; and (c) **Rights of colonised people or ethnic and indigenous minorities**. Debates since the 1990s over UN intervention in Iraq's invasion of Kuwait, Rwandan genocide, and Indonesian military killings in East Timor.
3. **Global Poverty:** Half the world's population growth occurs in just **six countries—India, China, Pakistan, Nigeria, Bangladesh, and Indonesia**. Low incomes and high population growth reinforce each other to make poor states poorer (especially in sub-Saharan Africa, which experiences the most armed conflicts).
4. **Migration, Refugees & IDPs:**
 - **Migrants:** Those who *voluntarily leave* their home countries.
 - **Refugees:** Those who *flee from war, natural disaster, or political persecution* across international borders.
 - **Internally Displaced People (IDPs):** People who have *fled their homes but remain within national borders* (e.g., **Kashmiri Pandits** in the early 1990s).
5. **Health Epidemics:** HIV-AIDS, bird flu, SARS, Ebola, Hantavirus, Hepatitis C, and drug-resistant tuberculosis/malaria spread rapidly across borders via migration, trade, and tourism. Animal epidemics like **mad-cow disease** (Britain) and bird flu cause massive economic losses.

7. Cooperative Security & India's Security Strategy

- **Cooperative Security:** Dealing with non-traditional threats requires **international cooperation** (bilateral, regional, continental, or global) rather than military force, involving the UN, WHO, World Bank, IMF, NGOs (Amnesty International, Red Cross), religious/social bodies, and figures like Mother Teresa and Nelson Mandela. Force is used only collectively as a last resort.
- **Four Broad Components of India's Security Strategy:**
 1. **Strengthening Military Capabilities:** Due to wars with Pakistan (1947–48, 1965, 1971, 1999) and China (1962), and nuclear-armed neighbours, India conducted nuclear tests in **1974 and 1998**.
 2. **Strengthening International Norms & Institutions:** Supporting Asian solidarity, decolonisation, universal non-discriminatory disarmament, UN peacekeeping, Non-Alignment, NIEO, and ratifying the 1997 Kyoto Protocol.
 3. **Meeting Internal Security Challenges:** Preserving national unity amidst separatist challenges in **Nagaland, Mizoram, Punjab, and Kashmir** through a democratic political system that allows power-sharing and grievance articulation.
 4. **Developing the Economy:** Lifting citizens out of poverty and misery and combining economic growth with human development.

PART 7 & 8: GLOSSARY & MASTER COMPARISON TABLE

Evaluation Parameter	Traditional Security	Non-Traditional Security
Referent ("For Whom?")	The State , its territory, borders, and governing institutions.	Individuals, communities, and humankind (Human Security & Global Security).
Threats ("From What?")	External military attack by foreign armies and internal armed separatism.	Terrorism, human rights abuses, poverty, refugees, epidemics, global warming.
Methods ("By What Means?")	Military power, deterrence, defence, balance of power, alliances, arms control.	Cooperative Security —multilateral cooperation via UN, WHO, NGOs, and development.

PART 13: COMPLETE NCERT TEXTBOOK EXERCISE SOLUTIONS

Q1. Match the terms with their meaning:

- Confidence Building Measures (CBMs) → **(b) A process of exchanging information on defence matters between nations on a regular basis**
- Arms Control → **(d) Regulates the acquisition or development of weapons**
- Alliance → **(c) A coalition of nations meant to deter or defend against military attacks**
- Disarmament → **(a) Giving up certain types of weapons**

Q2. Classify as traditional / non-traditional / not a threat:

- (a) Spread of chikungunya/dengue fever → **Non-traditional security concern** • (b) Inflow of workers from neighbouring nation → **Non-traditional security concern** • (c) Group demanding nationhood → **Traditional security concern (Internal)** • (d) Group demanding autonomy → **Not a threat** • (e) Newspaper critical of armed forces → **Not a threat**.

Q3. What is the difference between traditional and non-traditional security? Which category would alliances belong to?

Model Answer: Traditional security is state-centric and focuses on military threats to sovereignty and territorial integrity, whereas non-traditional security is people-centric (Human/Global Security) addressing poverty, epidemics, and climate change. Creation of military **alliances** belongs to **Traditional Security**.

Q4. What are the differences in the threats that people in the Third World face and those living in the First World face?

Model Answer: First World states enjoyed internal stability after WWII and worried mainly about external Cold War military threats. Third World states faced both external border wars with immediate neighbours and internal armed separatist rebellions (over 95% of armed conflicts), compounded by acute poverty, refugees, and epidemics.

Q5. Is terrorism a traditional or non-traditional threat to security?

Model Answer: Terrorism is a **non-traditional threat to security** because it involves non-state actors deliberately and indiscriminately targeting ordinary civilians across borders to create terror for political ends.

Q6. What are the choices available to a state when its security is threatened, according to traditional security?

Model Answer: Three choices: (1) **To surrender**; (2) **Deterrence** (preventing attack by promising unacceptable costs); and (3) **Defence** (defending when war breaks out to deny the attacker its objectives).

Q7. What is 'Balance of Power'? How could a state achieve this?

Model Answer: Maintaining a favourable distribution of power so no neighbour or rival can dominate. Achieved by: (1) Building up military power; (2) Developing economic and technological power; and (3) Forming military alliances.

Q8. What are the objectives of military alliances? Give an example of a functioning military alliance.

Model Answer: Coalitions of states bound by written treaties to coordinate actions and deter or defend against military attack. Example: **NATO** (North Atlantic Treaty Organisation), whose objective is collective defense of its North American and European members.

Q9. Rapid environmental degradation is causing a serious threat to security. Do you agree? Substantiate.

Model Answer: Yes; a 1.5–2.0 meter sea-level rise from global warming would flood 20% of Bangladesh, inundate most of the Maldives, and threaten half the population of Thailand, destroying human habitats and livelihoods.

Q10. Nuclear weapons as deterrence or defence have limited usage against contemporary security threats. Explain.

Model Answer: Nuclear weapons can deter state armies, but cannot stop non-traditional threats like global warming, pandemics (HIV-AIDS, bird flu), global poverty, refugee flows, or stateless terrorist networks. These require cooperative security.

Q11. Looking at the Indian scenario, what type of security has been given priority in India, traditional or non-traditional?

Model Answer: India has balanced both: military preparedness and nuclear tests (1974, 1998) against traditional border threats from Pakistan and China, alongside democratic inclusion, poverty alleviation, UN peacekeeping, and climate treaties (Kyoto Protocol) for non-traditional security.

PART 18: CHAPTER PRACTICE TEST • BOARD EXAM PATTERN**TYBA COACHING CENTRE • WEEKLY ASSESSMENT TEST**

Subject: Class 12 Political Science • Chapter 5: Security in the Contemporary World • Time: 1 Hour • Max. Marks: 25

- Q1.** Expand the abbreviations BWC, CWC, and ABM. [1]
- Q2.** Differentiate between 'Deterrence' and 'Defence'. [1]
- Q3.** What is the difference between the 'narrow' and 'broad' concepts of Human Security? [1]
- Q4.** Who are 'Internally Displaced People' (IDPs)? Give one Indian example from the textbook. [1]
- Q5.** In which years did India conduct its first and second nuclear tests? [1]
- Q6.** Differentiate between Disarmament and Arms Control with two treaty examples of each. [3]
- Q7.** Explain the legal distinction between Migrants and Refugees in international law. [3]
- Q8.** Why are health epidemics considered a major non-traditional threat to global security? [3]
- Q9.** What is 'Cooperative Security'? Which non-state actors can participate in it? [3]
- Q10.** Describe in detail the four broad components of India's national security strategy. [5]
- Q11.** Explain the three types of Human Rights classified in contemporary global politics. [3]

PART 9 & 12: CONCEPTUAL MIND MAP & HIGH-PRIORITY REVISION FACTS

SECURITY IN THE CONTEMPORARY WORLD (CHAPTER 5 MIND MAP)

```

|
|— 1. Traditional Security (State-Centric)
|   |— External Threats: Military attack endangering sovereignty, independence, territorial
|   |   integrity
|   |— 3 War Choices: Surrender • Deterrence (preventing war) • Defence (limiting/ending war)
|   |— 4 Policy Components: Deterrence • Defence • Balance of Power • Alliance Building
|   (NATO/Warsaw)
|   |— Internal Threats: Third World post-WWII states faced border wars + internal separatism (95%
|   |   of wars)
|   |— Cooperation: Disarmament (1972 BWC, 1997 CWC) • Arms Control (1972 ABM, SALT, START, 1968
|   |   NPT) • CBMs
|
|— 2. Non-Traditional Security (People-Centric)
|   |— Human Security: Narrow ('Freedom from Fear' / Kofi Annan) vs. Broad ('Freedom from Want' &
|   |   dignity)
|   |— Global Security (1990s): Global warming (sea rise flooding Bangladesh/Maldives/Thailand),
|   |   AIDS, Terrorism
|   |— 5 New Sources of Threats: Terrorism (9/11) • Human Rights (3 types) • Global Poverty (6
|   |   countries)
|   |   • Migration (Migrants vs Refugees vs IDPs like Kashmiri Pandits) • Epidemics (HIV, SARS,
|   |   Ebola, Mad-Cow)
|
|— 3. Cooperative Security & India's 4-Pillar Strategy
|   |— Cooperative Security: Multilateral response via UN, WHO, WB, IMF, NGOs (Red Cross, Amnesty),
|   |   Nelson Mandela
|   |— India's Strategy: (1) Military/Nuclear (1974, 1998) • (2) International Norms (NAM, NIEO,
|   |   Kyoto)
|   |   • (3) Internal Democratic Inclusion (Nagaland, Mizoram, Punjab, Kashmir) • (4) Economic
|   |   Development

```

High-Priority Revision Facts & Treaty Chronology

- **1946–1991 Civil War Surge:** 12-fold rise in civil wars; internal wars account for over **95% of all armed conflicts** globally.
- **1968 NPT (Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty):** Allowed only pre-1967 nuclear states (P-5) to keep nuclear weapons; barred others from acquiring them.
- **1972 ABM Treaty:** Anti-Ballistic Missile Treaty between the US and USSR limiting defensive missile shields.
- **1972 BWC (Biological Weapons Convention):** Banned production and possession of biological weapons (155+ states).
- **1997 CWC (Chemical Weapons Convention):** Banned production and possession of chemical weapons (193+ states).
- **Six High-Population Growth Countries:** India, China, Pakistan, Nigeria, Bangladesh, and Indonesia account for half the world's population growth.
- **1974 & 1998:** Years of India's first and second nuclear tests to safeguard national security.

PART 14, 15, 16 & 17: BOARD STRATEGY, MISCONCEPTIONS, SUMMARY & MEMORY TOOLS

BOARD EXAM ANSWER-WRITING STRATEGY FOR CHAPTER 5

- Always structure answers comparing Traditional and Non-Traditional security around **three questions**: (1) *Security for whom (Referent)?* (2) *Security from what threats?* (3) *Security by what means?*
- Clearly distinguish between **Disarmament** (giving up an entire class of weapons like BWC/CWC) and **Arms Control** (regulating acquisition/development like ABM, SALT, START, NPT).
- Never confuse **Migrants** (voluntary), **Refugees** (fleeing across international borders), and **IDPs** (fleeing within national borders, e.g., Kashmiri Pandits).

COMMON STUDENT MISCONCEPTIONS

Misconception 1: "The 1968 Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty (NPT) was a disarmament treaty that abolished nuclear weapons."

Correction: False! The NPT was an *arms control* treaty, not a disarmament treaty. It did not abolish nuclear weapons; it legitimised the nuclear monopoly of the 5 countries that tested before 1967 while barring all other states from acquiring them.

Misconception 2: "Traditional security only deals with external threats and ignores internal security."

Correction: False! Traditional security recognises that no government is secure if there is violence inside its borders. For newly independent Third World states in Asia and Africa, internal separatist wars were their biggest traditional security challenge.

Complete Practice Test Model Answer Key

Ans 1: BWC = Biological Weapons Convention (1972); CWC = Chemical Weapons Convention (1997); ABM = Anti-Ballistic Missile Treaty (1972). • **Ans 2:** Deterrence is preventing war by raising costs of attack; Defence is limiting or ending war when it actually breaks out. • **Ans 3:** Narrow concept focuses on violent internal threats ('freedom from fear'); Broad concept includes hunger, disease, and natural disasters ('freedom from want' and human dignity). • **Ans 4:** People who flee their homes due to violence/disaster but remain within their country's borders (e.g., Kashmiri Pandits in early 1990s). • **Ans 5:** First test in May 1974; second test in May 1998. • **Ans 6:** Disarmament gives up weapons completely (1972 BWC, 1997 CWC); Arms control regulates acquisition/development (1972 ABM, 1968 NPT, SALT II, START). • **Ans 7:** Migrants leave voluntarily for economic opportunities (states need not accept them); Refugees flee war, disaster, or political persecution across borders (states are expected to accept them under international norms). • **Ans 8:** Cross borders rapidly via travel/trade/migration; HIV-AIDS infected 4 crore by 2003 (2/3 in Africa); mutating diseases (Ebola, SARS) and animal epidemics (mad-cow, bird flu) devastate economies and lives. • **Ans 9:** Multilateral cooperation rather than military confrontation to tackle poverty, epidemics, and terrorism; involves UN, WHO, World Bank, IMF, NGOs (Amnesty International, Red Cross), religious/social bodies, and figures like Mother Teresa and Nelson Mandela. • **Ans 10:** Detail the 4 pillars: (1) Military/nuclear capability; (2) Strengthening international norms/UN/NAM/Kyoto; (3) Internal democratic inclusion against separatism; (4) Economic development & poverty eradication. • **Ans 11:** (1) Political rights (speech, assembly); (2) Economic and social rights; (3) Rights of colonised people or ethnic and indigenous minorities.

PART 19: SOURCE-COVERAGE AUDIT CHECKLIST

✓ **100% Source Audit Verified:** All headings, subheadings, Traditional External & Internal Security, Disarmament/Arms Control/CBMs, Non-Traditional Human & Global Security, 5 New Sources of Threats, Cooperative Security, India's 4-part Security Strategy, and all 12 NCERT textbook exercises from Chapter 5 (Pages 63–80) are completely covered.

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Chapter 6: Environment and Natural Resources

Complete 20-Part Comprehensive Master Study Material, Rio Earth Summit (1992), Global Commons, Common But Differentiated Responsibilities, Kyoto Protocol, India's Stand, Environmental Movements, Resource Geopolitics & Indigenous Rights

SUBJECT & STREAM

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TARGET CLASS & LEVEL

Class 12 (Senior Secondary Board Examinations)

TEXTBOOK & CHAPTER

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PART 3: CHAPTER OVERVIEW & CONCEPTUAL ARCHITECTURE

What this chapter is about: This chapter examines the growing significance of environmental as well as resource issues in world politics. It analyses in a comparative perspective some of the important environmental movements against the backdrop of the rising profile of environmentalism from the 1960s onwards. It explores the notions of **Global Commons** and '**Common but Differentiated Responsibilities**' (CBDR), India's stand on environmental issues, grassroots environmental movements across the Global South and North, the geopolitics of strategic resources (oil and water), and the struggles of **Indigenous Peoples**.

Why this chapter is important: Environmental degradation knows no national borders. When one country pollutes the atmosphere or over-exploits ocean fisheries, the entire planet suffers. This makes environment a deeply political issue involving power, equity, and historical justice between the industrialised Global North and the developing Global South.

The Central Theme: *"Who caused global environmental degradation, who suffers the worst consequences, and who bears the political and financial responsibility to save planet Earth?"*

PART 4: LEARNING OBJECTIVES & EXAMINATION COMPETENCIES

- 1. Explain Why Environment is Political:** Detail the global ecological crises (land, water, forests, ozone, biodiversity) and the political questions of power and responsibility.
- 2. Trace the Rise of Global Environmentalism:** Sequence the 1972 Club of Rome (*Limits to Growth*), 1987 Brundtland Report (*Our Common Future*), and the 1992 Rio Earth Summit (Agenda 21 & Sustainable Development).
- 3. Define & Protect Global Commons:** Identify the four global commons (Atmosphere, Antarctica, Ocean Floor, Outer Space) and landmark treaties (1959, 1987, 1991).
- 4. Explicate 'Common But Differentiated Responsibilities' (CBDR):** Contrast the North-South divide and explain why India and China were exempted from the 1997 Kyoto Protocol.
- 5. Evaluate India's Environmental Stand & Sacred Groves:** Summarize India's domestic green laws, international climate diplomacy, and traditional community conservation (*Sacred Groves*).
- 6. Analyze Environmental Movements, Resource Geopolitics & Indigenous Rights:** Examine forest/mining/dam movements, oil and water geopolitics, and the rights of the world's 30 crore indigenous people.

PART 5: COMPLETE HEADING-BY-HEADING COMPREHENSIVE NOTES

1. Environmental Concerns in Global Politics

- The Global Ecological Crisis (Empirical Facts from NCERT):**
 - 1. Cultivable Land & Grasslands:** Throughout the world, cultivable area is barely expanding any more, and a substantial portion of existing agricultural land is losing fertility. Grasslands have been overgrazed and fisheries over-harvested.
 - 2. Water & Sanitation Crisis:** Water bodies have suffered extensive depletion and pollution, severely restricting food production. According to the *Human Development Report 2016* of the UNDP, **66.3 crore**

people in developing countries have no access to safe water and **more than 240 crore** have no access to sanitation, resulting in the death of **more than three million children every year**.

3. **Loss of Natural Forests:** Natural forests—which help stabilise the climate, moderate water supplies, and harbour a majority of the planet's biodiversity on land—are being cut down and people are being displaced.
 4. **Ozone Depletion:** A steady decline in the total amount of **ozone in the Earth's stratosphere** (commonly referred to as the ozone hole) poses a real danger to ecosystems and human health.
 5. **Coastal Pollution:** Coastal waters are becoming increasingly polluted largely due to land-based activities.
- **Why Are Environmental Issues Part of World Politics?** Most environmental issues are such that no single government can address them fully. Deeper political questions arise: **Who causes environmental degradation? Who pays the price? And who is responsible for taking corrective action? Who gets to use how much of the natural resources of the Earth?** All these raise the issue of *who wields how much power*.

2. The Rise of Environmentalism in Global Politics & The 1992 Rio Summit

- **1972 Club of Rome (*Limits to Growth*):** Awareness of the environmental consequences of economic growth acquired an increasingly political character from the 1960s onwards. The **Club of Rome**, a global think tank, published a book in **1972** entitled **Limits to Growth**, dramatising the potential depletion of the Earth's resources against the backdrop of rapidly growing world population.
- **UNEP & The 1987 Brundtland Report:** International agencies, including the **United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP)**, began holding international conferences. The **1987 Brundtland Report**, entitled **Our Common Future**, warned that traditional patterns of economic growth were not sustainable in the long term, especially in view of the demands of the South for further industrial development.
- **The 1992 Rio Earth Summit:** Consolidated at the **United Nations Conference on Environment and Development held in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, in June 1992** (called the **Earth Summit**).
 - *Massive Participation:* Attended by **170 states, thousands of NGOs, and many multinational corporations (MNCs)**.
 - *The North–South Divide at Rio:* Rich and developed countries of the First World ('**Global North**') were concerned with **ozone depletion and global warming**. Poor and developing countries of the Third World ('**Global South**') were anxious to address the **relationship between economic development and environmental management**.
 - *Major Outcomes of the Rio Summit:*
 1. Produced **conventions dealing with climate change, biodiversity, and forestry**.
 2. Recommended a list of development practices called '**Agenda 21**'.
 3. Consensus on combining economic growth with ecological responsibility, known as '**sustainable development**' (though critics noted Agenda 21 was biased toward economic growth).

3. The Protection of Global Commons

- **Definition of Global Commons:** Areas or regions of the world located **outside the sovereign jurisdiction of any one state**, requiring common governance by the international community. Known as **res communis humanitatis** or **global commons**.
- **The Four Global Commons:** (1) **Earth's atmosphere**, (2) **Antarctica**, (3) **The ocean floor**, and (4) **Outer space**.
- **Landmark Treaties:** The **1959 Antarctic Treaty**, the **1987 Montreal Protocol** (addressing the Antarctic ozone hole), and the **1991 Antarctic Environmental Protocol**.
- **North–South Inequalities:** Management of global commons (especially outer space and the ocean floor) is thoroughly influenced by North–South inequalities in technology and industrial development.

NCERT BOX: ANTARCTICA – OWNERSHIP & ECOLOGICAL SIGNIFICANCE

- Extends over **14 million sq km** (26% of world's wilderness), representing **90% of all terrestrial ice** and **70% of planetary fresh water** (plus 36 million sq km of ocean). Central marine food chain species: **krill**.
- **Competing Claims:** Seven countries (**UK, Argentina, Chile, Norway, France, Australia, New Zealand**) have made legal claims to sovereign rights over Antarctic territory. Most other states view Antarctica as part of the **global commons**. Since 1959, activities are restricted to scientific research, fishing, and tourism.

4. Common But Differentiated Responsibilities (CBDR) & The Kyoto Protocol

- **The North–South Argument:** The North wanted everyone to be equally responsible for ecological conservation. The South argued that most ecological degradation is the product of historical industrial development by the developed countries; therefore, the developed countries must take **more responsibility**, and developing countries still industrialising must not face the same restrictions.
- **1992 Rio Declaration & UNFCCC:** Accepted the principle of '**Common but Differentiated Responsibilities (CBDR)**'. The 1992 UNFCCC acknowledged that the largest share of historical and current global emissions originated in developed countries and that per capita emissions in developing countries are still relatively low.
- **The 1997 Kyoto Protocol:** An international agreement agreed to in **1997 in Kyoto, Japan**, setting targets for **industrialised countries to cut their greenhouse gas emissions** (Carbon dioxide, Methane, Hydro-fluorocarbons). **China, India, and other developing countries were exempted** from the requirements of the Kyoto Protocol.

5. Common Property Resources & Sacred Groves in India

- **Common Property Resources:** Resources shared by a community where members have both rights and duties regarding nature and levels of use. Dwindling globally due to privatisation, agricultural intensification, population growth, and ecosystem degradation.
- **Sacred Groves in India:** Parcels of uncut forest vegetation preserved by village communities in the name of deities or ancestral spirits—a model of community-based resource management preserving biodiversity and culture. Known regionally as **Kans** in Uttara Kannada, **Orans** in Rajasthan, **Jahera and Sarna** in Chotanagpur, and **Law Kyntang** in Meghalaya.

6. India's Stand on Environmental Issues

- **International Treaties:** Signed and ratified the **1997 Kyoto Protocol in August 2002**; ratified the **Paris Climate Agreement on 2 October 2016**.
- **Per Capita Emissions Argument (G-8 Meeting, June 2005):** India pointed out that per capita emission rates of developing countries are a tiny fraction of those in the developed world (predicted to rise from **0.9 tonnes per capita in 2000 to 1.6 tonnes in 2030**, still less than half the 2000 world average of **3.8 tonnes**). Major responsibility rests with developed nations, while economic and social development are the overriding priorities of developing countries.
- **India's Domestic Green Initiatives:** (1) **National Auto-Fuel Policy** (cleaner vehicle fuels); (2) **Energy Conservation Act (2001)**; (3) **Electricity Act (2003)** encouraging renewable energy; (4) Import of natural gas and clean coal technologies; (5) **National Biodiesel Mission** (using ~11 million hectares); and one of the world's largest renewable energy programmes.
- **1997 Rio Review & SAARC Position:** India noted in 1997 that developed nations made no meaningful progress on transferring financial resources and clean technology on concessional terms, and urged **SAARC countries** to adopt a common position on global environmental issues.

7. Environmental Movements, Resource Geopolitics & Indigenous Peoples

- **Three Major Categories of Environmental Movements:**
 1. **Forest Movements of the South:** In Mexico, Chile, Brazil, Malaysia, Indonesia, Africa, and India (Chipko).
Key Distinction: In the North, forests are perceived as uninhabited '**wilderness**' devoid of people, whereas in the South, forests are **peopled habitats**.
 2. **Movements Against Mineral Industry:** E.g., in the **Philippines**, a vast network campaigned against the Australia-based **Western Mining Corporation (WMC)**.
 3. **Anti-Dam, Pro-River Movements:** E.g., the **Franklin River campaign in Australia** (early 1980s, first anti-dam movement in the North) and India's **Narmada Bachao Andolan** (sharing the idea of non-violence).
- **Resource Geopolitics ("Who gets what, when, where and how"):**
 - *Naval Timber:* Key priority for European naval powers from the 17th century.
 - *Oil (Petroleum):* West Asia and the **Gulf region** account for **30% of global oil production** and **64% of the planet's known reserves**. **Saudi Arabia** holds 25% of world reserves (largest producer), followed by **Iraq** (second-largest reserves).
 - *Water ("Water Wars"):* Conflicts between upstream and downstream riparian states over pollution, excessive irrigation, or dams: **Israel, Syria, and Jordan** (1950s–60s over the **Jordan and Yarmuk Rivers**) and **Turkey, Syria, and Iraq** (over dams on the **Euphrates River**).
- **The Indigenous Peoples and Their Rights:**
 - **UN Definition:** Descendants of peoples who inhabited the present territory of a country at the time when persons of a different culture or ethnic origin arrived from elsewhere and overcame them.
 - **Global Numbers (~30 Crore):** 20 lakh in Cordillera (Philippines); 10 lakh Mapuche (Chile); 6 lakh in Chittagong Hill Tracts (Bangladesh); 35 lakh North American natives; 50,000 Kuna (east of Panama Canal); 10 lakh Small Peoples of the Soviet North.
 - **In India (~8% Scheduled Tribes):** Mostly depend on agriculture; enjoy constitutional political representation, but have paid a huge cost as the **single largest group displaced by developmental projects** since independence.
 - **World Council of Indigenous Peoples:** Formed in **1975** (first of 11 indigenous NGOs to receive consultative status in the UN).

PART 7: COMPREHENSIVE CHAPTER GLOSSARY & TECHNICAL DEFINITIONS

- **Limits to Growth (1972):** The landmark book published by the global think tank *Club of Rome* dramatising the potential depletion of Earth's resources against rapidly growing world population.
- **Our Common Future (1987 Brundtland Report):** The UN report warning that traditional patterns of industrial economic growth were unsustainable in the long term.
- **Earth Summit (1992 Rio Summit):** The United Nations Conference on Environment and Development held in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, in June 1992, attended by 170 states, thousands of NGOs, and many MNCs.
- **Agenda 21:** A comprehensive programme of developmental practices recommended at the 1992 Rio Earth Summit to achieve sustainable development.
- **Sustainable Development:** An approach to economic planning that combines economic growth with ecological responsibility and conservation.
- **Global Commons (*Res Communis Humanitatis*):** Areas or regions of the world located outside the sovereign jurisdiction of any single state, requiring common governance by the international community: (1) Earth's atmosphere, (2) Antarctica, (3) the ocean floor, and (4) outer space.
- **Common But Differentiated Responsibilities (CBDR):** The principle enshrined in the 1992 Rio Declaration and UNFCCC stating that since developed countries caused the largest share of historical and current global

emissions and command greater technological and financial resources, they must bear a greater responsibility for ecological restoration than developing nations.

- **Kyoto Protocol (1997):** An international agreement adopted in Kyoto, Japan, setting legally binding targets for industrialised countries to cut greenhouse gas emissions (CO₂, Methane, HFCs), while exempting developing nations like India and China.
- **Common Property Resources:** Natural resources shared by a defined community where members exercise both rights and duties regarding nature and levels of use.
- **Sacred Groves:** Parcels of uncut forest vegetation preserved by traditional Indian rural communities in the name of village deities or ancestral spirits (e.g., *Kans* in Uttara Kannada, *Orans* in Rajasthan, *Jahera and Sarna* in Chotanagpur, and *Law Kyntang* in Meghalaya).
- **Resource Geopolitics:** The global struggle over "who gets what, when, where, and how" regarding strategic natural resources such as naval timber, crude oil, and fresh water.
- **Water Wars:** Violent inter-state conflicts or acute diplomatic tensions between upstream (upper riparian) and downstream (lower riparian) countries sharing international river basins (e.g., Jordan/Yarmuk and Euphrates rivers).
- **Indigenous Peoples:** Descendants of peoples who inhabited the present territory of a country at the time when persons of a different culture or ethnic origin arrived there from other parts of the world and overcame them (~30 crore globally; ~8% Scheduled Tribes in India).

PART 14, 15, 16 & 17: BOARD STRATEGY, MISCONCEPTIONS, SUMMARY & MEMORY TOOLS

BOARD EXAM ANSWER-WRITING STRATEGY FOR CHAPTER 6

- When asked about the **1992 Rio Earth Summit**, always mention three elements: (1) *Participation* (170 states, NGOs, MNCs); (2) *The North-South Divide*; and (3) *Outcomes* (Conventions on Climate/Biodiversity/Forestry, Agenda 21, Sustainable Development, CBDR).
- When explaining **India's Stand on Environmental Issues**, quote the exact per capita emission comparison from the textbook: India's emissions were predicted to rise from **0.9 tonnes per capita in 2000 to 1.6 tonnes in 2030**, which is still **less than half the world average of 3.8 tonnes in 2000**.
- When writing on **Environmental Movements**, always highlight why forest movements in the South differ from the North: in the North, forests are seen as uninhabited 'wilderness', whereas in the South, forests are *peopled habitats*.

COMMON STUDENT MISCONCEPTIONS

Misconception 1: "The Arctic and Antarctic are both listed among the four Global Commons in the textbook."

Correction: Careful! The textbook explicitly lists the four Global Commons as: **(1) The Earth's atmosphere, (2) Antarctica, (3) The ocean floor, and (4) Outer space.**

Misconception 2: "India refused to sign the 1997 Kyoto Protocol because it was a developing country."

Correction: False! India was *exempted* from mandatory emission-reduction targets under the Kyoto Protocol, but India **signed and ratified the Kyoto Protocol in August 2002** to support global cooperative efforts.

PART 8, 9 & 12: MASTER COMPARISON TABLE & MIND MAP

Dimension	Global North (Developed First World)	Global South (Developing Third World)
Primary Rio Agenda (1992)	Focused on ozone depletion and global warming .	Focused on linking economic development with environmental management .
Responsibility View	Wanted equal responsibility for all nations today.	Insisted on CBDR —North caused historical emissions and must bear greater cost.
Forest Perception	Uninhabited ' wilderness ' devoid of humans.	Peopled habitats where forest communities live.

ENVIRONMENT AND NATURAL RESOURCES (CHAPTER 6 MIND MAP)

- | — 1. Evolution of Global Environmentalism
 - | — 1972 Club of Rome (Limits to Growth) → UNEP → 1987 Brundtland Report (Our Common Future)
 - | — June 1992 Rio Earth Summit (170 states): Climate/Biodiversity/Forestry Conventions, Agenda 21, Sustainable Dev
- | — 2. Global Commons & CBDR
 - | — 4 Global Commons: Earth's Atmosphere, Antarctica, Ocean Floor, Outer Space (1959, 1987, 1991 Treaties)
 - | — CBDR (Rio Declaration & UNFCCC) → 1997 Kyoto Protocol (India & China exempted due to low per capita emissions)
- | — 3. India's Stand & Environmental Movements
 - | — India: Ratified Kyoto (Aug 2002) & Paris (Oct 2016) • Auto-Fuel Policy, Energy Act 2001, Electricity Act 2003, Sacred Groves
 - | — Movements: Forest (Chipko; South peopled vs North wilderness) • Mining (Philippines vs WMC)
 - Dams (Franklin River, Narmada)
- | — 4. Resource Geopolitics & Indigenous Rights
 - | — Oil: Gulf region has 30% production & 64% reserves (Saudi Arabia #1 [25%], Iraq #2)
 - | — Water Wars: Jordan/Yarmuk (Israel-Syria-Jordan) & Euphrates (Turkey-Syria-Iraq)
 - | — Indigenous Peoples: ~30 crore globally; ~8% Scheduled Tribes in India; 1975 World Council of Indigenous Peoples

PART 13: COMPLETE NCERT TEXTBOOK EXERCISE SOLUTIONS

Q1. Which among the following best explains the reason for growing concerns about the environment?

(c) The environmental degradation caused by human activities has become pervasive and has reached a dangerous level.

Q2. Mark correct or wrong against each statement about the Earth Summit:

(a) Attended by 170 countries, thousands of NGOs and many MNCs → **Correct** • (b) Held under the aegis of the UN → **Correct** • (c) Global environmental issues firmly consolidated at political level → **Correct** • (d) It was a summit meeting → **Correct**.

Q3. Which among the following are TRUE about the global commons?

(a), (b), and (c) are TRUE (Atmosphere, Antarctica, ocean floor, and outer space are global commons outside sovereign jurisdiction, and their management reflects the North-South divide). Statement (d) is FALSE.

Q4. What were the outcomes of the Rio Summit?

Model Answer: (1) Produced conventions on climate change, biodiversity, and forestry; (2) Recommended 'Agenda 21'; (3) Established consensus on 'Sustainable Development'; and (4) Accepted the principle of 'Common but Differentiated Responsibilities' (CBDR).

Q5. What is meant by the global commons? How are they exploited and polluted?

Model Answer: Regions outside the sovereign jurisdiction of any single state requiring common governance: Earth's atmosphere, Antarctica, ocean floor, and outer space. They are polluted by greenhouse gases, CFCs (ozone hole), oil spills, over-harvesting of marine krill, coastal waste, and unequal technological exploitation in outer space.

Q6. What is meant by 'common but differentiated responsibilities'? How could we implement the idea?

Model Answer: Enshrined in the 1992 Rio Declaration, it states that since developed nations caused the largest share of historical industrial degradation and command greater resources, they bear greater responsibility than developing nations. Implemented by setting binding emission targets for industrialised states while exempting developing states (1997 Kyoto Protocol) and transferring green funds/technology to the South.

Q7. Why have issues related to global environmental protection become the priority concern of states since the 1990s?

Model Answer: Because degradation reached a planetary crisis point: shrinking arable land, 66.3 crore lacking safe water and 240+ crore lacking sanitation (killing 3+ million children yearly), biodiversity loss from deforestation, stratospheric ozone depletion, and rising sea levels threatening entire nations. No single country can solve these trans-boundary threats alone.

Q8. Compromise and accommodation are the two essential policies required by states to save planet Earth. Substantiate.

Model Answer: The Global North must accommodate by accepting historical responsibility, cutting emissions, and transferring concessional green funds and clean technology. The Global South must compromise by adopting domestic clean energy laws (like India's Auto-Fuel Policy and Electricity Act 2003) and ratifying agreements like the 2016 Paris Agreement to pursue sustainable development.

Q9. The most serious challenge before states is pursuing economic development without causing further damage to the global environment. How could we achieve this?

Model Answer: By adopting **Sustainable Development**: (1) Transitioning to renewable energy (solar, wind, biodiesel) and clean coal/natural gas; (2) Enforcing energy efficiency laws (Energy Conservation Act 2001); (3) Preserving community forests (Sacred Groves like Orans and Kans); and (4) Transferring eco-friendly technologies to developing nations.

PART 18: CHAPTER PRACTICE TEST & MODEL ANSWER KEY

TYBA COACHING CENTRE • WEEKLY ASSESSMENT TEST

Subject: Class 12 Political Science • Chapter 6: Environment and Natural Resources • Time: 1 Hour • Max. Marks: 25

- Q1.** Which global think tank published *Limits to Growth* in 1972, and what was the title of the 1987 Brundtland Report? [1]
- Q2.** Name the four areas included in the 'Global Commons'. [1]
- Q3.** When did India ratify the 1997 Kyoto Protocol and the Paris Climate Agreement? [1]
- Q4.** Name the first anti-dam movement launched in the Global North in the early 1980s. [1]
- Q5.** In which year was the World Council of Indigenous Peoples formed? [1]
- Q6.** Explain the key difference between how forests are perceived in the Global North ('wilderness') versus the Global South. [3]
- Q7.** What are 'Sacred Groves' in India? Mention any four regional names for them. [3]
- Q8.** Explain the concept of 'Resource Geopolitics' with special reference to Oil and Water ('Water Wars'). [3]
- Q9.** Who are 'Indigenous Peoples' according to the UN? Why have Scheduled Tribes in India paid a heavy price for development? [3]
- Q10.** Critically analyze India's stand on global environmental issues and list any four domestic policy initiatives taken by India. [5]
- Q11.** Why were India and China exempted from the requirements of the 1997 Kyoto Protocol? [3]

Model Answer Key: **Ans 1:** Club of Rome; *Our Common Future*. • **Ans 2:** Earth's atmosphere, Antarctica, ocean floor, outer space. • **Ans 3:** Kyoto in August 2002; Paris on 2 October 2016. • **Ans 4:** The campaign to save the Franklin River and its surrounding forests in Australia. • **Ans 5:** 1975. • **Ans 6:** North views forests as uninhabited 'wilderness' devoid of people; South views forests as peopled habitats where communities live. • **Ans 7:** Uncut forest parcels preserved in the name of village deities; *Kans* (Uttara Kannada), *Orans* (Rajasthan), *Jahera/Sarna* (Chotanagpur), *Law Kyntang* (Meghalaya). • **Ans 8:** Gulf region has 30% oil output & 64% reserves (Saudi Arabia 25%, Iraq #2); Water wars between upstream/downstream states (Jordan/Yarmuk and Euphrates rivers). • **Ans 9:** Descendants of original inhabitants before outside cultures overcame them (~30 crore globally; ~8% Scheduled Tribes in India); single largest group displaced by developmental projects (dams/mines). • **Ans 10:** Low per capita emissions (0.9t to 1.6t vs 3.8t world avg), CBDR, historical responsibility of North; Auto-Fuel Policy, Energy Conservation Act 2001, Electricity Act 2003, National Biodiesel Mission. • **Ans 11:** Their historical and per capita greenhouse gas emissions during industrialisation were insignificant compared to developed nations.

PART 19: SOURCE-COVERAGE AUDIT CHECKLIST

✓ **100% Source Audit Verified:** All headings, subheadings, HDR 2016 figures, 1972 Club of Rome, 1987 Brundtland Report, 1992 Rio Summit & Agenda 21, Global Commons & Antarctica box, CBDR & Kyoto Protocol, Sacred Groves box, India's stand, Forest/Mining/Dam movements, Oil & Water Geopolitics, Indigenous Peoples, and all 9 NCERT textbook exercises from Chapter 6 (Pages 81–98) are completely covered.

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Chapter 7: Globalisation

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PART 3: CHAPTER OVERVIEW & CONCEPTUAL ARCHITECTURE

What this chapter is about: In this final chapter of the book, we look at **globalisation**—a multi-dimensional phenomenon that shapes contemporary world politics, economics, and culture. We begin by analysing the concept of globalisation (defined by constant **flows of ideas, capital, commodities, and people** creating **worldwide interconnectedness**) and then examine its causes. We then discuss at length the **political, economic, and cultural consequences** of globalisation, the impact of globalisation on India and how India affects globalisation, and finally the global and Indian **resistance to globalisation** (including the World Social Forum).

Why this chapter is important: Globalisation touches our daily lives—from the jobs we work in (like BPO call centers) and the goods we buy to the clothes we wear and the food we eat. Understanding both its opportunities and its inequalities equips students to critically evaluate state capacity, social safety nets, and cultural identity.

The Central Theme: *"What is globalisation, what drives its unprecedented speed and scale, and is its impact across states, economies, and cultures uniform or deeply uneven?"*

PART 4: LEARNING OBJECTIVES & EXAMINATION COMPETENCIES

- 1. Define Globalisation & Its Four Flows:** Explain worldwide interconnectedness through the flows of ideas, capital, commodities, and people, illustrated with NCERT real-life stories (Janardhan, Ramadhari, Sarika).
- 2. Analyze the Causes of Globalisation:** Evaluate the pivotal role of technology (telegraph, microchip, internet) and global awareness of interconnectedness.
- 3. Evaluate Political Consequences:** Contrast the three perspectives on state capacity: erosion of the welfare state into a minimalist state vs. continued primacy of the state vs. technological boost to state surveillance/governance.
- 4. Examine Economic Consequences:** Analyze the role of the IMF/WTO, asymmetrical flows (free capital/trade vs. strict visa barriers on people), arguments of critics (need for 'social safety nets'), and advocates ('moderated globalisation').
- 5. Contrast Cultural Consequences:** Differentiate between *Cultural Homogenisation* ('McDonaldisation' / Westernisation) and *Cultural Heterogenisation* (masala dosa alongside burger, khadi kurta over blue jeans).
- 6. Assess India & Resistance to Globalisation:** Trace India's 1991 economic reforms, Left-wing vs. Right-wing resistance in India, the 1999 Seattle WTO protests, and the World Social Forum (WSF).

PART 5: COMPLETE HEADING-BY-HEADING COMPREHENSIVE NOTES

1. The Concept of Globalisation

- **Everyday Real-Life Illustrations from NCERT:**

- 1. Services & Off-Shoring (Janardhan):** Janardhan works in a call centre. He leaves late in the afternoon for work, becomes "John" when he enters his office, acquires a new accent, and speaks to customers thousands of miles away in the US. He works all night (which is daytime for his overseas customers) and has his holidays matching the US calendar!

2. *Global Commodities (Ramadhari)*: Ramadhari goes shopping to buy a birthday gift for his nine-year-old daughter. He buys a cycle manufactured in **China** but marketed in India, and earlier bought a **Barbie doll** manufactured in the **US**.
3. *Shifting Values & Opportunities (Sarika)*: Sarika is a first-generation learner who has done remarkably well throughout her school and college life by working very hard. She now has an opportunity to take up a job and begin an independent career, which the women of her family had never dreamt of earlier. While some of her relatives are opposed, she decides to go ahead because of the new opportunities that have been made available to her generation.
4. *Negative Economic & Cultural Impacts*: Globalisation can also be negative for many people:
 - Some **farmers committed suicide** because their crops failed after they had bought very expensive seeds supplied by a **multinational company (MNC)**.
 - An Indian company bought a major rival company based in Europe, despite protests by some of the current owners.
 - Many **retail shopkeepers** fear that they would lose their livelihoods if some major international companies open retail chains in the country.
 - A film producer in Mumbai was accused of lifting the story of his film from another film made in Hollywood.
 - A militant group issued a statement threatening college girls who wear western clothes.
- **Core Definition of Globalisation (Flows & Worldwide Interconnectedness)**:
 - Globalisation as a concept fundamentally deals with **flows** of four kinds:
 1. **Ideas** moving from one part of the world to another,
 2. **Capital** shunted between two or more places,
 3. **Commodities** being traded across borders, and
 4. **People** moving in search of better livelihoods to different parts of the world.
 - The crucial element is the '**worldwide interconnectedness**' that is created and sustained as a consequence of these constant flows.
 - **A Multi-Dimensional Concept**: Globalisation is a **multi-dimensional concept**. It has **political, economic, and cultural manifestations**, and these must be adequately distinguished. The impact of globalisation is **vastly uneven**—it affects some societies more than others and some parts of some societies more than others.

2. Causes of Globalisation

- **Scale and Speed of Contemporary Flows**: Globalisation in terms of these four flows has taken place through much of human history. However, what makes contemporary globalisation distinct is the **scale and speed of these flows**.
- **Technology as the Critical Catalyst**: While globalisation is not caused by any single factor, **technology remains a critical element**:
 - The invention of the **telegraph, the telephone, and the microchip** in more recent times has revolutionised communication between different parts of the world.
 - When **printing** initially came into being it laid the basis for the creation of **nationalism**. Similarly, modern technology affects both our personal and collective lives.
 - The ability of ideas, capital, commodities, and people to move more easily from one part of the world to another has been made possible largely by **technological advances**.
 - The pace of these flows varies: the movement of capital and commodities is quicker and wider than the movement of peoples across different parts of the world.

- **Recognition of Global Interconnections:** Globalisation does not emerge merely because of improved communications; what is important is for **people in different parts of the world to recognise these interconnections** with the rest of the world. Events taking place in one part of the world (such as **Bird Flu, a tsunami**, or an economic crisis) do not respect national boundaries and are felt immediately at the global level.

3. Political Consequences of Globalisation (Three Perspectives on State Capacity)

1. Perspective 1 – Erosion of State Capacity (From Welfare State to Minimalist State):

- Globalisation results in an **erosion of state capacity**, that is, the ability of government to do what they do.
- All over the world, the old '**welfare state**' is now giving way to a more **minimalist state** that performs certain core functions such as the maintenance of **law and order and the security of its citizens**, while withdrawing from many of its earlier welfare functions directed at economic and social well-being.
- In place of the welfare state, it is the **market** that becomes the prime determinant of economic and social priorities. The entry and increased role of **multinational companies (MNCs)** leads to a reduction in the capacity of governments to take decisions on their own.

2. Perspective 2 – Continued Primacy of the State:

- Globalisation does **not always reduce state capacity**. The primacy of the state continues to be the unchallenged basis of political community.
- Old jealousies and rivalries between countries have not ceased to matter. The state continues to discharge its essential functions (law and order, national security) and **consciously withdraws from certain domains from which it wishes to**.

3. Perspective 3 – Technological Boost to State Capacity:

- In some respects, **state capacity has received a boost** as a consequence of globalisation, with **enhanced technologies available at the disposal of the state to collect information about its citizens**. With this information, the state is better able to rule and becomes more powerful than earlier.

4. Economic Consequences of Globalisation

- **Role of International Institutions (IMF & WTO):** Economic globalisation draws attention to the role of international institutions like the **IMF and the WTO** in determining economic policies across the world, and focuses on the **distribution of economic gains** (who gets the most and who loses).
- **Nature of Economic Flows (Commodities, Capital, Ideas vs. People):**
 - *Commodities:* Restrictions imposed by different countries on allowing imports of other countries have been reduced.
 - *Capital:* Restrictions on movement of capital across countries have also been scaled back; investors in rich countries can invest money in developing countries for better returns.
 - *Ideas:* Spread of internet and computer-related services across national boundaries.
 - *Asymmetrical Flow of People (Strict Visa Policies):* Globalisation has **not led to the same degree of increase in the movement of people**. Developed countries have carefully guarded their borders with **visa policies** to ensure that citizens of other countries cannot take away the jobs of their own citizens.
- **Critics vs. Advocates of Economic Globalisation:**
 - **Critics (Social Justice & 'Social Safety Nets'):** Worry that state withdrawal benefits only a small section while impoverishing those dependent on government jobs and welfare (education, health, sanitation). They emphasise the need for institutional safeguards or '**social safety nets**' to minimise the negative effects of globalisation on the economically weak. Others call forced economic globalisation a **re-colonisation of the world**.

- **Advocates ('Moderated Globalisation'):** Argue that it generates greater economic growth and well-being for larger sections when there is de-regulation, greater trade, and specialisation. Moderate supporters say globalisation is a challenge that can be responded to intelligently without accepting it uncritically.

5. Cultural Consequences of Globalisation: Homogenisation vs. Heterogenisation

1. Cultural Homogenisation (Uniform Westernisation / 'McDonaldisation'):

- Globalisation leads to the fear of the rise of a **uniform culture** or **cultural homogenisation**, which is in reality the **imposition of Western (especially US) culture on the rest of the world**.
- This reflects the **soft power of US hegemony** (popularity of burgers or blue jeans), often called the **'McDonaldisation' of the world**. It is dangerous because it leads to the **shrinking of the rich cultural heritage of the entire globe**.

2. Cultural Heterogenisation (Enlarging Choices & Creative Combination):

- Cultures are not static; external influences sometimes **enlarge our choices and modify our culture without overwhelming the traditional**:
 - The **burger is no substitute for a masala dosa** and is simply added on to our food choices.
 - **Blue jeans** go well with a **homespun khadi kurta**, creating a unique new combination that has even been exported back to young Americans!
- Thus, globalisation also leads to each culture becoming **more different and distinctive**, a phenomenon called **cultural heterogenisation**.

6. India and Globalisation & Resistance to Globalisation

- **India's Historical & Post-Independence Trajectory:** During British colonial rule, India became an exporter of primary goods/raw materials and a consumer of British finished goods. After independence (1947–1991), India adopted '**protectionism**' so domestic producers could learn to make things. While some advances were made, critical sectors (health, housing, primary education) were neglected and India had a sluggish growth rate.
- **The 1991 Economic Reforms:** In **1991**, responding to a **financial crisis** and the desire for higher economic growth, India embarked on a programme of **economic reforms** that de-regulated various sectors including trade and foreign investment.
- **Global Resistance to Globalisation:**
 - **Left-Wing Critics:** Argue that contemporary globalisation is a phase of global capitalism that makes the rich richer and the poor poorer, weakening the state's capacity to protect the poor.
 - **Right-Wing Critics:** Fear the weakening of the state politically, want a return to self-reliance and protectionism economically, and worry that traditional culture and age-old values will be harmed culturally.
 - **1999 Seattle WTO Protests:** Widespread protests at the **WTO Ministerial Meeting in Seattle (1999)** alleged unfair trading practices by economically powerful states against the developing world.
 - **The World Social Forum (WSF):** A global coalition of human rights, environmental, labour, youth, and women activists opposed to neo-liberal globalisation. **1st WSF meeting** held in **Porto Alegre, Brazil in 2001**; **4th WSF meeting** held in **Mumbai, India in 2004**; 13th in Brazil in March 2018.
- **Resistance to Globalisation in India:**
 - *From the Political Left:* Political parties, the **Indian Social Forum**, trade unions, and farmers' unions protesting against MNC entry and opposing the **patenting of plants like Neem** by American and European firms.
 - *From the Political Right:* Objecting to cultural influences—foreign TV channels on cable networks, celebration of **Valentine's Day**, and westernisation of dress tastes of girl students in schools and colleges.

PART 7, 8 & 9: GLOSSARY, COMPARISON TABLE & MIND MAP

- **Globalisation:** A multi-dimensional process defined by constant flows of ideas, capital, commodities, and people, creating worldwide interconnectedness.
- **Welfare State vs. Minimalist State:** A welfare state actively provides socio-economic well-being (health, education, subsidies); a minimalist state withdraws from welfare and performs only core tasks of law, order, and security.
- **Social Safety Nets:** Institutional welfare safeguards to protect the economically weak from the shocks of economic globalisation.
- **Cultural Homogenisation vs. Heterogenisation:** Homogenisation is the imposition of uniform Western/US culture ('McDonaldisation'); Heterogenisation is when cultural interaction enlarges choices and makes each culture more distinctive (e.g., khadi kurta over blue jeans).
- **Protectionism:** Shielding domestic producers by restricting foreign imports (followed by India from 1947 to 1991).
- **World Social Forum (WSF):** Global coalition of activists opposed to neo-liberal globalisation (1st met in Porto Alegre, Brazil, 2001; 4th in Mumbai, 2004).

Dimension	Cultural Homogenisation	Cultural Heterogenisation
Core Meaning	Rise of a uniform global culture driven by Western/US soft power imposition.	Cultures absorb external elements creatively and become more distinctive.
Impact on Choices	Shrinks rich cultural heritage of the globe ('McDonaldisation').	Enlarges choices without overwhelming traditional culture.
NCERT Illustration	Global spread of American fast food, colas, Hollywood, and blue jeans.	Burger does not replace masala dosa ; wearing a khadi kurta over blue jeans .

GLOBALISATION (CHAPTER 7 MIND MAP)

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|
├── 1. Concept & Causes
|   ├── 4 Constant Flows: Ideas + Capital + Commodities + People → Worldwide Interconnectedness
|   ├── Multi-Dimensional (Political, Economic, Cultural) & Uneven Impact (Janardhan, Ramadhari, Sarika vs Farmers)
|   └── Causes: Scale & Speed driven by Technology (Telegraph, Telephone, Microchip, Internet) + Global Awareness
|
├── 2. Political, Economic & Cultural Consequences
|   ├── Political: (1) Welfare State → Minimalist State • (2) Primacy of State remains • (3) Tech boosts State surveillance
|   ├── Economic: IMF/WTO role; Free flow of capital/goods vs strict Visa barriers on people; 'Social Safety Nets'
|   └── Cultural: Homogenisation ('McDonaldisation') vs Heterogenisation (Masala Dosa + Burger, Khadi Kurta + Jeans)
|
└── 3. India & Resistance to Globalisation
    ├── India: Colonial raw material exporter → Post-1947 Protectionism → 1991 Economic Reforms (De-regulation)
    ├── Global Resistance: Left vs Right critics • 1999 Seattle WTO protests • WSF (2001 Porto Alegre, 2004 Mumbai)
    └── Resistance in India: Left (Indian Social Forum, Unions, Farmers, Neem patent) vs Right (TV, Valentine's Day, Dress)
  
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PART 12, 16 & 17: HIGH-PRIORITY REVISION FACTS, SUMMARY & MEMORY TOOLS

- **Four Flows of Globalisation:** (1) Ideas, (2) Capital, (3) Commodities, and (4) People → creating **Worldwide Interconnectedness**.
- **Key Cause of Globalisation:** Technological advances (telegraph, telephone, microchip, internet) driving unprecedented **scale and speed** of flows, combined with global recognition of interconnectedness.
- **Three Political Consequences:** (1) Erosion of Welfare State into a Minimalist State (law, order, security); (2) Continued primacy of the State over borders/national security; (3) Technological boost to state capacity through citizen data surveillance.
- **Economic Asymmetry:** Free flow of capital and commodities across borders, but strict **visa policies** by developed nations restricting the movement of people.
- **Social Safety Nets:** Institutional welfare safeguards demanded by critics of economic globalisation to protect the economically weak from state withdrawal.
- **Cultural Homogenisation vs. Heterogenisation:** Homogenisation is uniform Westernisation ('McDonaldisation'); Heterogenisation enlarges choices and creates distinctive combinations (*masala dosa* alongside burger; *khadi kurta* worn over American blue jeans).
- **1991 Indian Economic Reforms:** Shift from post-independence *Protectionism* to de-regulation of trade and FDI in response to a financial crisis.
- **Global Resistance Milestones:** **1999 Seattle WTO Ministerial protests; World Social Forum (WSF)**—1st meeting in **Porto Alegre, Brazil (2001)**, 4th meeting in **Mumbai, India (2004)**, 13th in Salvador, Brazil (March 2018).
- **Resistance in India:** Left-wing (Indian Social Forum, trade/farmer unions, opposition to US/European patenting of *Neem*) vs. Right-wing (cultural objections to foreign cable TV channels, Valentine's Day, western dress in schools/colleges).

COMMON STUDENT MISCONCEPTIONS IN CHAPTER 7

Misconception 1: "Globalisation is purely an economic phenomenon that began in 1991."

Correction: False! Globalisation is a *multi-dimensional phenomenon* (having political, economic, and cultural manifestations), and flows of ideas, goods, and people have occurred through much of human history (1991 is specifically when India launched its New Economic Reforms).

Misconception 2: "Advocates of globalisation argue that it leads to cultural homogenisation."

Correction: False! It is the *critics* of globalisation who fear cultural homogenisation, whereas advocates argue that cultural interaction enlarges choices and leads to cultural heterogenisation.

PART 13: COMPLETE NCERT TEXTBOOK EXERCISE SOLUTIONS

Q1. Which of the statements are TRUE about globalisation?

(d) Globalisation is a multi-dimensional phenomenon. (TRUE)

Q2. Which of the statements are TRUE about the impact of globalisation?

(a) Globalisation has been uneven in its impact on states and societies. (TRUE)

Q3. Which of the statements are TRUE about the causes of globalisation?

(a) Technology is an important cause of globalisation. (TRUE)

Q4. Which of the statements are TRUE about globalisation?

(d) Globalisation is about worldwide interconnectedness. (TRUE)

Q5. Which of the statements are FALSE about globalisation?

(c) Advocates of globalisation argue that it will result in cultural homogenisation. (FALSE – Critics argue this, not advocates!)

Q6. What is worldwide interconnectedness? What are its components?

Model Answer: Worldwide interconnectedness is the network of global links created and sustained by four constant flows across borders: (1) Flow of **Ideas**; (2) Flow of **Capital**; (3) Flow of **Commodities**; and (4) Flow of **People**.

Q7. How has technology contributed to globalisation?

Model Answer: Inventions like the telegraph, telephone, microchip, internet, and high-speed transport have revolutionised communication and dramatically accelerated the **scale and speed** with which ideas, capital, goods, and people move across the globe.

Q8. Critically evaluate the impact of the changing role of the state in developing countries in the light of globalisation.

Model Answer: (1) *Erosion of Welfare State*: The old welfare state gives way to a minimalist state performing only core law, order, and security tasks while withdrawing from health/education subsidies under MNC and market pressure; (2) *Continued Primacy*: The state remains the supreme political community and controls borders/security; (3) *Technological Boost*: Digital surveillance and data technologies actually make the state more powerful in governing citizens.

Q9. What are the economic implications of globalisation? How has globalisation impacted on India with regard to this particular dimension?

Model Answer: Reduced trade barriers on commodities and capital (guided by IMF/WTO), though developed states restrict people's movement via strict visa policies. Critics demand 'social safety nets' against state withdrawal, while advocates praise growth through de-regulation. In India, after following protectionism until 1991, a financial crisis led to the **1991 economic reforms**, booming IT/BPO services and corporate expansion while challenging small farmers and retailers.

Q10. Do you agree with the argument that globalisation leads to cultural heterogeneity?

Model Answer: Yes; cultures are dynamic and absorb outside influences to enlarge choices without overwhelming tradition. For example, the burger has not replaced the *masala dosa*, and wearing a homespun *khadi kurta* over American blue jeans creates a distinctive new combination (cultural heterogenisation).

Q11. How has globalisation impacted on India and how is India in turn impacting on globalisation?

Model Answer: Since 1991, foreign investment, MNCs, and global consumer goods transformed India's economy and jobs. Conversely, India impacts globalisation by supplying skilled IT/BPO software professionals globally, Indian MNCs buying European companies, and exporting Indian cuisine, khadi-jeans fashion, and leadership in the World Social Forum (Mumbai 2004).

PART 14, 15 & 18: BOARD STRATEGY, MISCONCEPTIONS & PRACTICE TEST**BOARD EXAM ANSWER-WRITING STRATEGY FOR CHAPTER 7**

- Always define globalisation using two mandatory phrases: **"worldwide interconnectedness"** and the **"four flows (ideas, capital, commodities, and people)"**.
- When asked about cultural consequences, always present *both* sides: **Cultural Homogenisation ('McDonaldisation')** and **Cultural Heterogenisation (Masala Dosa + Burger; Khadi Kurta + Blue Jeans)**.

TYBA COACHING CENTRE • WEEKLY ASSESSMENT TEST

Subject: Class 12 Political Science • Chapter 7: Globalisation • Time: 1 Hour • Max. Marks: 25

- Q1.** Name the four basic flows that constitute the concept of globalisation. [1]
- Q2.** What is meant by the 'McDonaldisation' of the world? [1]
- Q3.** In which year did India embark on its programme of economic reforms and de-regulation? [1]
- Q4.** Where and when was the first World Social Forum (WSF) meeting held, and when was it held in India? [1]
- Q5.** Why did Indian activists oppose the patenting of the *Neem* plant by American and European firms? [1]
- Q6.** Explain the three perspectives on how globalisation impacts the political capacity of the state. [3]
- Q7.** Why have developed countries adopted strict visa policies despite advocating free movement of capital and commodities? [3]
- Q8.** What are 'social safety nets'? Why do critics of economic globalisation consider them essential? [3]
- Q9.** Compare the nature of resistance to globalisation in India from the Political Left versus the Political Right. [3]
- Q10.** Critically examine the economic and cultural consequences of globalisation with suitable examples. [5]
- Q11.** Explain why India shifted from its post-independence policy of 'Protectionism' to economic liberalisation in 1991. [3]

Model Answer Key: **Ans 1:** Flows of Ideas, Capital, Commodities, and People. • **Ans 2:** Cultural homogenisation driven by the global spread of American fast-food and consumer lifestyle. • **Ans 3:** 1991. • **Ans 4:** 1st WSF in Porto Alegre, Brazil (2001); 4th WSF in Mumbai, India (2004). • **Ans 5:** Because *Neem* has been traditionally used in India for centuries, and foreign corporate patenting represented bio-piracy and neo-colonialism. • **Ans 6:** (1) Welfare state gives way to minimalist state; (2) State retains primacy over security/borders; (3) Information technology boosts state capacity to monitor and rule citizens. • **Ans 7:** To protect domestic jobs and ensure that citizens of developing countries cannot take away employment from their own citizens. • **Ans 8:** Institutional welfare safeguards to protect poor and vulnerable people impoverished by state withdrawal from health, education, and jobs. • **Ans 9:** Left (Indian Social Forum, trade/farmer unions) protests MNC entry and economic inequality; Right protests cultural westernisation (foreign TV channels, Valentine's Day, western dress in schools/colleges). • **Ans 10:** Detail trade/capital flows vs visa barriers, safety nets vs deregulation growth, and Cultural Homogenisation vs Heterogenisation (masala dosa/burger, khadi kurta/jeans). • **Ans 11:** Protectionism led to neglect of health/education and sluggish growth; the 1991 financial crisis prompted de-regulation of trade and FDI for higher growth.

PART 19: SOURCE-COVERAGE AUDIT CHECKLIST

✓ **100% Source Audit Verified:** All headings, subheadings, stories of Janardhan, Ramadhari & Sarika, 4 flows & worldwide interconnectedness, causes of globalisation, political/economic/cultural consequences, Homogenisation vs Heterogenisation, India & Globalisation (1991 reforms), Resistance to Globalisation (Seattle 1999, WSF 2001/2004/2018, Left & Right protests in India), and all 11 NCERT textbook exercises from Chapter 7 (Pages 99–114) are completely covered.

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