

Politics of Representation and Participation

Political Parties, Pressure Groups and Social Movements in Advanced Industrial and Developing Societies

Political representation and participation together form the backbone of modern democratic life. While representation ensures that diverse social interests find a voice in the political system, participation embodies the active involvement of citizens in shaping public policy.

In both advanced industrial societies and developing societies, political parties, pressure groups, and social movements act as key intermediaries between the state and society. Yet the forms, depth, and consequences of representation vary significantly depending on historical trajectories, economic structures, social cleavages, and institutional frameworks.

Politics of Representation

Representation is central to democracy, linking citizens to political power and translating private grievances into collective action. It is not a mechanical process but shaped by history, social divisions, cultural expectations, and the trust citizens place in leaders.

At its core, representation is about **making present those who cannot be present**. Early Greek city-states used envoys, and over time this evolved into modern legislatures. Thinkers like **Hobbes** emphasized authority, **Locke**

stressed consent, **Rousseau** warned of fragmented general will, and **Hanna Pitkin** framed it as a dynamic, negotiated relationship.

Representation raises key questions: **whose voices are heard, which demands are prioritized, and which identities—class, caste, ethnicity, gender—receive recognition?** Voting is only the start; ongoing responsiveness, accountability, and trust sustain representation.

Representation is a **two-way relationship**: citizens grant authority, and leaders must continually justify it. Movements for transparency and participatory governance—from **India's Right to Information Act** to **Brazil's participatory budgeting**—show that representation is always negotiated and contested.

Forms of Representation

Formalistic representation

Formalistic representation focuses on how leaders are given authority and held accountable through laws, rules, and institutions, rather than on their personal qualities or actions.

Authorization typically begins with elections, but voters rarely decide solely on manifestos. They consider class, caste, ideology, emotional attachment, and practical ability to deliver services. In rural **India**, voters often support candidates who ensure water supply, repair roads, or process crop insurance claims. Similar patterns appear in parts of **Africa** and **Latin America**, where MPs are valued for immediate welfare interventions rather than legislative debates.

Accountability works both vertically and horizontally. Citizens can remove leaders through elections (vertical), while institutions like courts, auditors, media, and ethics committees monitor actions (horizontal). The **UK parliamentary expenses scandal** showed how strong oversight forces

resignations. Where oversight is weak, accountability relies on personal pressure or electoral punishment.

In countries like **Scandinavia**, transparency and public scrutiny make accountability routine: budgets are open, decisions are justified publicly, and citizens can access government information easily. In many postcolonial states, bureaucratic opacity pushes citizens to rely on informal networks to get things done.

Descriptive representation

Descriptive representation means people feel better represented when their **leaders share similar social backgrounds, life experiences, or identities**. When representatives “look like” the community, trust increases, and policy priorities often shift to reflect their needs.

Gender provides a clear example. In the **Nordic countries**, party quotas and egalitarian politics allowed more women into parliament, influencing policies on parental leave, gender budgeting, and domestic violence protection. In **Rwanda**, post-genocide gender quotas brought women into leadership, shaping debates on community justice, education, healthcare, and social trust rebuilding.

Caste and ethnic representation also matters. In **India**, SC/ST reservations have improved local infrastructure, school access, and anti-discrimination enforcement, while inspiring marginalized youth to enter politics. In **Bolivia**, indigenous leaders reframed politics around land rights and cultural pride, creating a “plurinational” identity. In **New Zealand**, Māori representation has shaped environmental policies, tribal land management, and cultural preservation.

Symbolic representation

Symbolic representation captures the emotional and moral significance that leaders hold for their communities. It is less about laws or policies and more about **what leaders embody in collective memory**.

In the **United States**, the election of the first African American president symbolized recognition and dignity for Black communities, representing a milestone beyond legislative achievements. In **post-apartheid South Africa**, leaders who fought apartheid carried legitimacy through their personal histories, inspiring hope and reversing centuries of exclusion.

Among indigenous populations, symbolism is equally powerful. In **New Zealand**, the use of the Māori language in parliament signals that indigenous identity is central to national life. In **Canada**, the revival of tribal symbols in councils fosters healing and belonging.

Symbolic representation highlights that democracy is not only procedural—it relies on **recognition, memory, and emotional bonds** that sustain trust, unity, and legitimacy.

Substantive representation

Substantive representation focuses on **what leaders actually do**—the policies they advance, the protections they secure, and the tangible changes they bring to people's lives. It is about action, not just identity.

In **Western Europe**, twentieth-century social democratic parties exemplified this for working-class citizens. They built **welfare states, strengthened labor rights, and expanded social protections**. Even today, the social safety nets in countries like Sweden, Germany, and France reflect those earlier commitments.

In **Latin America**, indigenous movements in **Ecuador** and **Bolivia** transformed street protests into political power. Their representatives enacted **constitutional reforms recognizing cultural autonomy**, protecting

communal lands, and advancing environmental rights—directly addressing long-standing exclusion.

In **India**, substantive representation shapes Dalit, Adivasi, and OBC politics. Leaders prioritize **anti-discrimination measures, forest rights, reservations, and welfare schemes**. Similarly, leaders from outside a community—like a male MP advocating for stronger gender-violence laws—also perform substantive representation when their actions address public needs. Ultimately, substantive representation is measured by **policy impact and advocacy**.

Social cleavages

Social cleavages—based on **class, caste, religion, ethnicity, language, or region**—profoundly shape voting patterns, political demands, and the evolution of party systems.

In **postwar Europe, class was the dominant cleavage**. Industrial workers often supported social democratic parties, while business elites and the middle class leaned conservative. From the late twentieth century, however, new issues such as **immigration, cultural identity, environmental concerns, and globalization** began reshaping politics. This shift led to the rise of **Green parties**, bolstered right-wing populists, and sparked debates over multiculturalism and national identity.

In **postcolonial societies**, cleavages are often deeper and historically rooted. In **India**, caste continues to shape candidate selection, voting behavior, and welfare politics. In **Nigeria**, tribal and ethnic affiliations influence party coalitions and local governance. **Sri Lanka** has been defined by ethnolinguistic divisions between Sinhalese and Tamils, while **Lebanon** organizes political representation along religious sects. These patterns reflect colonial histories, uneven development, and contested nation-building.

Political Parties

Political parties are often described as the **architecture of modern democracy**, not merely accessories to electoral competition but foundational institutions shaping political communication, governance, and conflict resolution. Elections may be the visible moments of democratic life, but parties sustain democracy in its everyday functioning. **They channel public demands, construct political identities, recruit leaders, interpret social tensions**, and transform diverse public aspirations into workable policy agendas.

Political parties are organized groups seeking to capture and exercise power. Across democracies, from mature systems like **France** to emerging ones like **Nepal** they perform **four key functions**.

Representation: Aggregating Interests

Parties turn diverse social demands into political programs. European social-democratic parties **translated working-class struggles into welfare policies**. In **India**, parties representing marginalized communities articulated demands for reservations and political recognition. In multi-ethnic contexts, **Māori organizations in New Zealand** and indigenous parties in **Bolivia** converted suppressed voices into structured political influence.

Recruitment

Parties act as schools for political leadership. **U.S. primaries** allow grassroots candidates to rise, while **Japan's party schools** train bureaucratic leaders. In many post-colonial states, parties born from liberation movements institutionalized leadership pipelines from activists, students, or local notables.

Mobilization

Parties mobilize voters through rallies, door-to-door campaigns, and increasingly through digital platforms. The **2016 and 2020 U.S. elections** showed how

social media, micro-targeting, and psychographic analysis can influence voter behavior. Across **Europe and Asia**, apps, WhatsApp networks, and volunteer platforms enhance outreach and engagement.

Governance

Parties convert electoral promises into action. Institutionalized parties in **Scandinavia** or **East Asia** deliver consistent development policies, whereas weakly structured parties often produce erratic or short-term governance. Through these roles, parties remain central to democracy, linking citizens' voices to state power while shaping leadership, opinion, and policy.

Historical Evolution of Political Parties

From Elite Factions to Early Party Forms

In the 18th and early 19th centuries, politics was dominated by aristocratic factions rather than modern parties. Britain's **Whigs and Tories** and early American **Federalists and Democratic-Republicans** functioned as elite networks, where decisions were made in private and suffrage was restricted to a small, privileged group.

The Rise of Mass Parties

Industrialization and urbanization in Europe and North America created stark class divisions, giving rise to mass-based parties. **Socialist and labor parties**, often emerging from trade unions, demanded universal suffrage, workers' rights, and social welfare.

Meanwhile, **Christian Democratic and conservative parties** defended traditional institutions and property. This era established the **mass party model: large memberships, disciplined ideologies, and grassroots organization**. Thinkers like **Ralph Miliband** analyzed how these parties bridged civil society and state structures.

Post-Colonial Party Systems

After independence, nationalist movements in Asia, Africa, and Latin America became ruling parties. India's **Congress Party**, Ghana's **Convention People's Party**, and Indonesia's **PDI-P** combined nationalist narratives with promises of development.

In many cases, weak institutions and uneven social integration produced **dominant-party systems**, where one party maintained extended rule through patronage and charismatic leadership. Scholars such as **Barbara Geddes** highlight how post-colonial states often relied on strong personalities to stabilize governance.

The Emergence of New Party Forms

The late 20th and early 21st centuries saw a diversification of parties. **Green parties** responded to climate crises, **anti-corruption movements** gave rise to civic platforms like India's **Aam Aadmi Party**, and **right-wing populist parties** in Europe and the U.S. capitalized on globalization anxieties.

The digital revolution further reshaped politics: **online campaigns, virtual meetings, and social media mobilization** now allow parties to reach voters directly, as seen in Barack Obama's 2008 campaign or Emmanuel Macron's **En Marche!** in France.

Social Bases of Political Parties

Political parties are rooted in society; they grow out of divisions, aspirations, and shared experiences. They reflect the conflicts and alliances that shape social life.

Class and Economic Interests

The class has long structured party support. In **Scandinavia**, social-democratic parties thrived through historical alliances with workers, trade unions, and cooperative movements, delivering welfare states and labor protections.

In contrast, business-oriented or liberal parties like the **Republicans in the U.S.** or **Saenuri Party in South Korea** etc draw support from entrepreneurs, professionals, and the urban middle class, emphasizing market-friendly policies.

Caste, Ethnicity, and Identity

In societies with deep social hierarchies, parties often emerge to represent marginalized communities. In **India**, Dalit and tribal parties push for social justice and affirmative action. In **Latin America**, indigenous federations, like Bolivia's **MAS** under Evo Morales, mobilized historical grievances into national political power.

Similarly, **Kurdish parties in Turkey and Iraq** and regional ethnic movements in Southeast Asia illustrate how identity drives political organization. Works by **R. L. Heath** and **Donald Horowitz** emphasize the centrality of ethnic and identity politics in shaping party systems.

Regional Aspirations

When national parties fail to address local concerns, regional parties emerge. In **India**, parties like the **DMK** in Tamil Nadu and **Shiv Sena** in Maharashtra champion linguistic and cultural autonomy. In **Canada**, the **Bloc Québécois** represents Quebec's distinct identity. Such parties often wield outsized influence in coalition governments, shaping policy far beyond their geographic base.

New Social Movements

Modern parties also draw inspiration from social movements. **Green parties** in Europe and the Americas grew from **anti-nuclear and ecological activism**, now shaping climate policy and urban planning. **Feminist and LGBTQ+ movements** have catalyzed parties to champion gender equality and civil rights. Scholars like **Caren and Panebianco** highlight how these movements transform issue-based activism into lasting political institutions.

Political Parties in Advanced Industrial Societies

Political parties in advanced industrial democracies like **Western Europe, the US, Japan, South Korea, Australia, and New Zealand**—operate in highly institutionalized and complex political systems. These societies combine high literacy, urbanization, diversified economies, strong welfare states, and active civic cultures.

Parties here evolved gradually. In **19th-century Europe**, class-based mobilization gave rise to socialist and conservative parties. In the US, the **Federalists and Democratic-Republicans** laid early foundations for party competition, while 20th-century labor movements and social democratic parties expanded mass participation and welfare policies.

Today, parties face both stability and disruption. Traditional divides—like class, religion, or region—coexist with new cleavages around **identity, culture, education, and digital participation**. The rise of populist movements in the US, France, and Italy illustrates how parties must navigate declining trust in institutions, fragmented media, and online mobilization. Yet, countries like **Sweden, Norway, and Germany** demonstrate resilience, with parties adapting through coalition politics, institutional innovation, and engagement in digital and civic spaces.

In sum, advanced industrial democracies showcase **parties that are deeply embedded in society, continuously evolving to balance historical legacies, social change, and technological transformation**.

Historical Trajectory

Political parties in industrial societies first emerged from **urban working-class mobilization** during the 19th and early 20th centuries. As factories

concentrated in cities, workers formed **unions, cooperatives, and mutual aid groups**, which evolved into political arms such as **Labour Parties, Socialist Parties, and Christian Democratic Parties**.

In Britain, Germany, and Sweden, these parties did more than contest elections. They created parallel institutions, including youth clubs, educational associations, women's leagues, newspapers, and cooperatives. This dense organization, described as "**pillarization**" by scholars studying the Netherlands and Germany, made parties central to both political and social life, shaping industrial relations, cultural events, and community identity.

These party systems were stable because they mirrored **class, religious, and regional cleavages**, as theorized in **Lipset and Rokkan's cleavage theory**, which explained how historical social divisions structured voting and party loyalty.

After **World War II, rising prosperity, expanding education, and the growth of the middle class diluted old class loyalties**. With television and mass media transforming political communication, parties adapted by seeking **broad electoral appeal**, giving rise to the **catch-all party**.

Scholars like **Otto Kirchheimer** highlighted this shift: parties prioritized centrist policies, technocratic competence, and media-driven campaigns over grassroots ideological mobilization. Examples include **Germany's Christian Democrats, the US Democrats and Republicans post-1950s, and the Australian Labor Party reforms of the 1980s**. Parties increasingly relied on **consultants, pollsters, and professional campaign managers**, replacing older networks tied to unions or local clubs.

The **decline of traditional cleavages**—caused by deindustrialization, the shrinking of trade unions, and the rise of service economies—reshaped party systems. Class-based voting weakened, while **education, urban–rural divides, and identity politics** became more salient.

This opened space for **new parties: Green parties in Germany, En Marche in France**, and Italy's **Five Star Movement**. These movements addressed concerns the traditional parties struggled with, such as **environmental crises, digital transformation, migration, and sovereignty**.

In essence, political parties in advanced industrial societies evolved from **class-based mass organizations to broad catch-all formations**, continuously adapting to social, economic, and technological transformations.

Social Bases of Party Support

In advanced industrial democracies, voter behavior has become fluid, with loyalties shifting like consumer choices based on **economic insecurity, cultural anxieties, or charismatic leadership**. Traditional class-based alignment is no longer as stable as it once was.

Working-Class Realignment

The working class, historically the backbone of **Labour and Social Democratic Parties**, has increasingly supported **conservative or right-populist parties**. This trend is evident in the **US Rust Belt**, France's deindustrialized north, Sweden's industrial periphery, and the UK's "Red Wall" constituencies in the **2019 general election**.

Scholars such as **Kriesi and Inglehart** argue that **deindustrialization, automation, wage stagnation, and cultural resentment** explain this shift. Right-populist leaders capitalize on these frustrations, framing them around **national identity, immigration, and sovereignty**, showing that class is no longer only economic but also cultural.

Education and Post-Materialist Cleavages

Education has emerged as a key dividing line. Highly educated voters, often in urban knowledge economies, gravitate toward **liberal, centrist, or green**

parties, supporting climate action, gender equality, and digital freedoms.

Less-educated citizens, often in rural or post-industrial areas, lean toward **conservative or populist alternatives.** This is visible in the **US (college vs. non-college voters), Germany (urban Greens vs. AfD strongholds), and South Korea (young graduates supporting progressive parties).**

Urban–Rural Divide

Urban centers, hubs of diversity and innovation, tend to favor progressive politics, while rural areas maintain **traditional views,** shaped by slower demographic change and skepticism toward globalization. This divide influences **legislative outcomes, budget priorities, and coalition politics.**

Generational Change

Younger voters often embrace **environmentalism, digital rights, and post-materialist values,** while older generations remain anchors of **centre-right or centre-left establishments.** Generational tensions manifest in debates over **climate policy, housing affordability, and social welfare,** compelling parties to adapt their platforms.

Migration, Identity, and Cultural Politics

Immigration and identity politics have reshaped electoral competition. Parties in Europe, North America, and Asia navigate between **multiculturalist agendas** and **anti-immigration platforms.** Discussions on **integration, citizenship, secularism, and minority rights** now play a central role in political alignment, reflecting deep social and cultural cleavages unseen since **World War II.**

In short, party support in advanced industrial societies now depends on a **complex mix of class, education, urban–rural location, generational values, and identity politics,** requiring parties to constantly recalibrate their appeal.

Ideological Transformations

Political parties in advanced industrial societies are constantly reshaped by **social change, economic pressures, and cultural debates**. Traditional divides—left vs. right—have become more fluid, as parties adapt to new challenges.

Center-Left Parties: Crisis and Reinvention

Social democratic and labor parties, historically anchored in working-class support, face shrinking bases due to **deindustrialization and globalization**. In response, some embraced **Third Way centrism**, combining market efficiency with welfare protection—a strategy exemplified by **Tony Blair's New Labour in the UK** and **Gerhard Schröder's SPD in Germany**.

Others, like **Sweden's Social Democrats**, returned to classical redistributive policies, emphasizing **progressive taxation, public investment, and social welfare**, demonstrating the enduring appeal of traditional leftist values.

Scholars like **Giddens (1998)** analyze this balancing act between ideology and pragmatism.

Center-Right Parties: Markets and Identity

Conservative parties face tensions between **economic liberalization** and **cultural conservatism**. Internal divisions are clear in the **UK Conservative Party**, split between moderates and nationalist populists, and the **US Republican Party**, balancing **pro-business policies with populist rhetoric**. These dynamics reflect the challenge of reconciling market priorities with appeals to identity, tradition, and nationalism.

The Green Surge

Environmental politics has created new party landscapes. **Green parties** in Germany, France, and Scandinavia have shifted **climate change, energy policy, and sustainability** to the center of political debate. Their rise

demonstrates how social movements—anti-nuclear campaigns, climate activism, and youth mobilizations can be institutionalized as political forces. Scholars like **Meadowcroft (2007)** highlight the policy influence of these environmental actors.

Populist Right

Right-wing populist parties frame politics as a struggle between **ordinary citizens and corrupt elites**, blending economic grievances with cultural protectionism. The **French National Rally**, **Italy's Lega Nord**, and the **Alternative für Deutschland (AfD)** illustrate this global trend.

Their emergence reflects growing frustration with **inequality, immigration, and perceived failures of globalization**, echoing insights from scholars like **Cas Mudde and Cristóbal Rovira Kaltwasser (2017)**.

Liberal and Centrist Platforms

Centrist and liberal parties cater to urban, educated, and globally connected voters. Emphasizing **transparency, civil liberties, and digital rights**, they thrive in cosmopolitan centers, as seen in **En Marche in France** and **the Liberal Democrats in the UK**. These parties often act as mediators in fragmented parliamentary systems, balancing competing interests and ideological extremes.

In essence, party ideologies in industrialized democracies are **dynamic, responsive, and contested**, reflecting shifts in social structure, economic realities, and cultural anxieties.

Political Parties in Developing Societies

Political parties in developing societies operate within an environment shaped simultaneously by **postcolonial state-building, uneven modernization, identity pluralism, and fragile institutions**. Their character is far more

fluid, conflictual, and historically burdened compared to the relatively institutionalized party systems of advanced industrial states.

They perform the dual role of mediating societal conflict while also engaging in elite competition, often in conditions where **formal institutions coexist with deeply rooted traditional, ethnic, religious, or kinship-based structures.**

1. Structural Conditions

Colonial Legacies

Colonialism left behind **arbitrary borders, ethnically skewed administrative structures, and extractive economic arrangements.**

Parties in developing societies often emerged from **anti-colonial struggles**, acquiring traits such as charismatic leadership, centralized command, and emphasis on unity over ideology.

The political culture of early parties in countries like **India, Ghana, Tanzania, Kenya, and Indonesia** grew out of mass movements where leaders such as Nehru, Nkrumah, and Sukarno embodied national identity. This created a party style that merged **mass mobilization with elite negotiation.**

In regions like the **Middle East and Southeast Asia**, colonial administrations ruled indirectly through local elites. Postcolonial parties therefore inherited elite-dominated structures, visible in **Malaysia**, where ethnic-based parties grew around pre-existing communal elites, or in **Jordan and Morocco**, where monarchies created parties to support regime interests rather than democratic contestation.

Uneven Development

Industrialization in developing societies whether through import-substitution strategies in Latin America, Green Revolution driven transformations in South Asia, or mineral-based economies in Africa, was **uneven and regionally**

concentrated. Political parties became **brokers between the state and marginalized communities**, distributing benefits such as employment, welfare, and public works.

Patronage-heavy party machines thrived in countries like **Mexico (the PRI's corporatist networks)**, **India (state-level party machines in UP, Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh)**, and **Brazil (clientelistic municipal networks)**. These networks were neither entirely corrupt nor irrational; they acted as **informal welfare systems** in contexts where formal state capacity was limited.

Ethnic, Linguistic, and Religious Cleavages

Developing societies contain some of the world's most diverse populations. Parties often mobilize along **ethnic, caste, linguistic, or religious lines**, not merely due to manipulation but because these identities structure access to resources and representation.

Examples include:

- **Nigeria's party alignments** that mirror its Northern, Western, and Eastern regional blocs.
- **Malaysia's Barisan Nasional coalition**, built on Malay, Chinese, and Tamil parties sharing power through a consociational arrangement.
- **Sri Lanka's Sinhala–Tamil cleavage**, which shaped party politics from the 1950s onward and contributed to decades of ethnic conflict.
- **Nepal's Madhesi parties** articulate the grievances of marginalized plains communities.

Identity-based parties can democratize representation when institutions are inclusive, but when institutions are weak, identity mobilization **increases polarization** and narrows policy debates.

Ideology in Developing Societies

In many developing countries, political parties often build their identity around **developmentalism**—the promise of rapid economic growth, poverty reduction, and national modernization. Development becomes more than a policy goal; it becomes a central ideological frame. For instance, **Tanzania’s Chama Cha Mapinduzi (CCM)** combined **African socialism with modernization** to unite citizens around post-independence development.

Similarly, **Singapore’s People’s Action Party (PAP)** justified long-term technocratic governance through economic transformation, while **South Korea and Taiwan**, during their **authoritarian developmental** phases, emphasized **industrial policy and national modernization** as party priorities.

Populism and Majoritarian Politics have also shaped party ideologies. Populist parties portray politics as a struggle between the “pure people” and corrupt elites, often appealing to social grievances. Examples include **the Philippines’ law-and-order populism, Turkey’s majoritarian nationalist and religious appeals, India’s combination of identity-based welfare schemes, and left-populist movements in Latin America** resisting neoliberal policies.

Religious and Ethno-Nationalist Ideologies provide another ideological axis. Religious parties from **South Asian parties to Middle Eastern Islamist movements** articulate visions of moral governance and community welfare. Ethno-nationalist parties, drawing on shared histories and collective grievances, strengthen representation for marginalized groups but may also challenge pluralism if exclusivist narratives dominate.

In developing societies, ideology is therefore a mix of **development, populism, and identity**, shaping how parties mobilize citizens, claim legitimacy, and negotiate power.

Interest and Pressure Groups in Advanced Industrial Societies

In advanced industrial societies—such as Western Europe, North America, Japan, South Korea, Australia, and New Zealand—**interest and pressure groups are a normal and powerful part of democratic life**. These groups do not contest elections themselves, but they work continuously to **shape laws, budgets, and public debate**. Their influence reflects mature political systems marked by strong institutions, rule of law, free media, and high political awareness.

Unlike developing societies, where groups often have to fight for basic survival, interest groups here usually form around **economic roles, professions, identities, or public causes**. They operate through **courts, committees, expert reports, media campaigns, and negotiations** rather than through informal brokerage.

From Class Struggle to Organized Negotiation

Historically, the most influential interest groups emerged from **class-based conflicts** created by industrial capitalism. Trade unions represented workers facing long hours, unsafe factories, and job insecurity, while business associations defended property rights, market freedom, and profit incentives.

In post–World War II Europe, this produced a distinctive pattern. Organised labour, employers, and the state regularly negotiated wages, pensions, and welfare policies. Countries like **Germany and Sweden** institutionalised this system, where unions and employer groups became part of policymaking itself. Scholars often describe this as **neo-corporatism**, where conflict is managed through dialogue rather than confrontation.

Business and Corporate Power

Business groups are among the most resourceful pressure groups in advanced democracies. Chambers of commerce, industry lobbies, and multinational corporations influence decisions on **taxation, trade rules, environmental regulations, and digital markets**.

For example, technology firms have heavily lobbied governments in the United States and Europe on data protection, artificial intelligence regulation, and competition law. While such lobbying often provides technical expertise, critics argue that it can tilt policy towards corporate interests, raising concerns about **regulatory capture**.

High-profile lobbying scandals involving the “revolving door” between government and corporations have kept public attention focused on transparency and ethics.

Professional and Occupational Groups

Doctors, teachers, lawyers, engineers, and civil servants also organize collectively. Medical associations influence healthcare funding and reform; teachers’ unions shape curriculum, salaries, and public education policy.

In many European states, nationwide teachers’ strikes have forced governments to rethink education cuts. During the COVID-19 pandemic, doctors’ associations played a key role in shaping public health protocols and vaccination strategies—illustrating how expertise-based groups can guide state policy.

New Social Movement based groups

From the 1960s onward, advanced industrial societies witnessed the rise of **new social movement groups** that focused less on class and more on values, identity, and quality of life.

- **Environmental groups** pushed pollution and climate change into the political mainstream. Events like **Earth Day** and later climate protests forced governments to adopt environmental regulations.

- **Feminist organisations** helped secure equal pay laws, workplace protections, and reproductive rights.
- **LGBTQ+ groups** transformed public attitudes and law, contributing to the legal recognition of same-sex marriage in several democracies.

These groups rely heavily on **media activism, moral framing, litigation, and scientific or legal arguments**, rather than street confrontation alone.

Public Interest and Advocacy Groups

Some pressure groups claim to act not for members alone, but for society at large. Consumer groups, civil liberties organisations, transparency watchdogs, and human rights groups scrutinise state power and corporate behaviour.

For instance, civil liberties groups have challenged mass surveillance laws in courts, while consumer organisations monitor corporate pricing and safety standards. Their influence often comes from **research reports, legal challenges, and public campaigning**, rather than electoral politics.

Interest and Pressure Groups in Developing Societies

Interest and pressure groups in developing societies operate in contexts where **state capacity is uneven, institutions are partially formed, and social cleavages are politically charged**. The political landscape is neither fully pluralistic nor wholly authoritarian, producing a hybrid ecology in which groups may act as **instruments of empowerment, brokers of patronage, or agents of reform**.

In many African, South Asian, Latin American and Southeast Asian societies, the boundaries between **formal institutions, traditional authorities, and transnational actors** blur. Scholars studying democratic deepening across these regions note that political participation often flows as much through

community networks, identity-based organizations, and informal brokers as through parliaments or regulatory agencies.

The Political Ecology of Interest Aggregation

In developing societies, interest aggregation—the process by which citizens’ needs and demands are organized and represented—is shaped by uneven institutions and deep social segmentation.

Institutional Unevenness

State capacity is often uneven, strong in urban centers but weak in rural or frontier regions. Anthropologists and political scientists studying governance in the **Sahel, rural South Asia, and the Amazon Basin** have highlighted how **formal bureaucracies are frequently inaccessible**. Citizens rely on intermediaries, local associations, or informal networks to navigate the state.

In **India**, for example, farmers’ associations and caste-based sabhas often help villagers secure **land records, crop insurance claims, or ration cards**, performing functions that formal institutions cannot fully provide. Similarly, in **Kenya and Uganda**, women’s savings groups and microfinance cooperatives assist members in accessing **county health services, credit schemes, and welfare entitlements**. These networks not only mobilize resources but also aggregate local interests, acting as bridges between citizens and the state.

Identity Politics

Developing societies are often structured by ascriptive cleavages such as tribe, caste, ethnicity, language, and region thus making interest aggregation deeply intertwined with identity. Scholars like **Arend Lijphart** and **Francis Fukuyama** note that when state structures are weak, social networks and communal organizations often fill the gap.

In **Southeast Asia**, **ethnic chambers of commerce, clan-based hometown associations, and minority councils** combine civic, economic,

and political functions. In **Nigeria**, local tribal unions negotiate with both state officials and oil companies.

In **Nepal** and **Sri Lanka**, caste or ethnic federations coordinate collective action and mediate access to government resources. In **Ethiopia**, clan elders and communal associations play a central role in mediating disputes and lobbying regional administrations.

Across these cases, interest aggregation is **not just about formal politics**; it is a hybrid process where civic participation, identity preservation, and political brokerage merge. The result is a complex ecology in which citizens negotiate power, resources, and recognition in contexts of **institutional fragility and social diversity**.

Typology of Groups in Developing Societies

In developing societies, political interests are articulated not only through formal institutions but also via a diverse ecosystem of social, economic, and professional groups. These groups vary in resources, autonomy, and political influence, shaping policy, representation, and governance.

Trade Unions and Labour Federations

Trade unions remain crucial in representing workers' economic and social interests. In **South Africa**, the **Congress of South African Trade Unions (COSATU)** has historically shaped wage policies, labour law, and social welfare debates, closely linked to the African National Congress (ANC). In contrast, unions in **Bangladesh** or **Cambodia** often face suppression under factory owners or state oversight, especially in global supply chains for garments. When unions maintain autonomy, as seen in **Chile** during post-Pinochet labour reforms, they effectively negotiate minimum wages, workplace safety, and collective bargaining rights. Where fragmented, unions risk becoming instruments of patronage tied to political parties.

Business Associations

Business chambers can serve as development partners or rent-seeking lobbies. The **Keidanren** in Japan and **Federation of Korean Industries** illustrate how coordinated business groups supported export-oriented industrial policy. Conversely, scandals in **Brazil** (Car Wash corruption) or **Malaysia** (1MDB-linked conglomerates) show how business associations may capture regulators, influence public contracts, and undermine democratic oversight.

Peasant and Agrarian Movements

Peasant federations remain central in agrarian societies. In **India**, organizations like **Bharatiya Kisan Union** mobilized mass protests demanding minimum support prices and farm debt relief (notably the 2020–21 farmer protests). In **Latin America**, movements such as **Via Campesina** advocate land reform, resist corporate land grabs, and negotiate with governments on rural welfare. Their tactics range from dialogue with ministries to prolonged demonstrations, illustrating the diverse repertoires of agrarian politics.

Identity-Based Organizations

Caste federations, tribal councils, ethnic associations, and religious groups articulate claims for cultural recognition, political representation, and access to resources. In **India**, Scheduled Tribe federations lobby for forest rights and local governance autonomy, while in **Nigeria**, ethnic unions influence local politics and resource allocation. These groups often exert influence through coalition building, particularly in multi-ethnic or conflict-prone regions.

Professional Bodies

Professional associations—doctors, teachers, engineers, lawyers—shape sectoral policy. In **Nigeria** and **India**, nationwide strikes by doctors' and teachers' federations have pressured governments to improve salaries, infrastructure, and institutional accountability. Bar councils and accounting associations similarly influence judicial and fiscal reforms.

NGOs and Community-Based Organizations (CBOs)

NGOs and CBOs expand citizen voice and service delivery, particularly where the state is absent or weak. Organizations like **BRAC in Bangladesh** or **PRADAN in India** deliver health, education, and livelihood programs. During crises—cyclones in the Bay of Bengal, the COVID-19 pandemic, or political violence in Myanmar—NGOs often fill governance gaps, negotiating aid and relief in local communities.

Clientelism, Patronage and Brokerage

Clientelism arises where **public goods are scarce, bureaucracies discretionary, and elections competitive**. Patronage networks distribute cash transfers, food rations, job letters, or legal protection **in exchange for political loyalty**. Comparative research across South Asia, West Africa, and Latin America shows that such networks can **incorporate marginalized groups** into political processes but also **perpetuate inequality, short-termism, and policy distortions**.

For example, where land titling depends on local officials, community brokers become central to resolving disputes. In cities, slum associations negotiate electricity or water connections by aligning with councillors. Such arrangements strengthen **vote banks** but weaken programmatic politics.

State Responses: Co-optation, Repression, and Regulation

In developing societies, the state rarely remains a neutral arbiter of interest group activity. Instead, governments employ a mix of **co-optation, repression, and regulation** to manage social and political pressures, reflecting both strategic calculations and capacity constraints.

Co-optation

States often integrate interest group leaders into formal advisory roles, boards, or policy committees to align grassroots energies with government priorities. In **South Africa**, COSATU representatives were incorporated into labor policy councils during post-apartheid governance, ensuring that union perspectives influenced national economic policy.

Repression

Where groups challenge political authority, states may resort to coercion. Repression can take subtle forms—such as deregistering NGOs, restricting permits for public gatherings, or using digital surveillance—or overt measures like arrests and violent crackdowns. In **Bangladesh**, garment workers' strikes have sometimes faced police intervention. In **China**, labor activists and grassroots environmental NGOs have been surveilled, restricted, or shut down.

Regulation

Governments also deploy formal regulations to manage civil society, ranging from foreign-funding restrictions to mandatory reporting and oversight bodies. In **India**, the Foreign Contribution Regulation Act (FCRA) limits NGOs' receipt of international funds, shaping which organizations can operate freely. In **Russia**, the “foreign agent” law similarly curtails NGOs critical of the government, while in **Ethiopia**, CBOs must register and report activities to federal authorities.

Social Movements in Advanced Industrial Societies

Social movements in advanced industrial societies occupy a unique place in political life. They act as **engines of social transformation, sites of democratic experimentation, and sensitive indicators of public sentiment** in societies where the formal institutions of democracy often lag

behind social expectations. Movements reveal how **ordinary grievances evolve into organized politics**, demonstrating how workers resisting factory discipline in the nineteenth century, African Americans demanding desegregation in the 1960s, or youth protesting climate inaction in the 2020s all turned personal injustices into political pressure.

I. Chronological Evolution of Social Movements

Phase 1: Labour, Suffrage, Anti-Slavery

The industrial revolution concentrated workers in factories and cities, creating shared grievances around low wages, unsafe conditions, and long hours. Early **labour unions** and **socialist groups** organized strikes, mutual aid societies, and eventually political parties to demand legal protections and representation.

In Britain, the **Chartist movement** used mass petitions, rallies, and public meetings to press for voting rights, laying the groundwork for later reforms.

At the same time, movements for **abolition, temperance, and women's suffrage** reshaped moral and political life. The **British anti-slavery campaign** and U.S. abolitionist activism demonstrated coordinated advocacy, while women's suffrage movements employed marches, hunger strikes, and symbolic acts—precursors to modern feminist strategies. These nineteenth-century movements established enduring organizational patterns, or what scholars like **Charles Tilly** call the “**repertoires of contention.**”

Phase 2: Early 20th Century to Post-War Era

By the early twentieth century, movements began influencing mainstream institutions. Achievements like **women's suffrage** in New Zealand, the UK, and the U.S., labour protections, and public education became codified in policy.

Anti-colonial movements—such as India's nationalist struggle under Gandhi, African liberation movements in Ghana and Kenya, and Southeast Asian independence campaigns **shaped metropolitan politics and debates on citizenship, empire, and governance.**

Post-war labour activism in **Britain, Sweden, Germany, and the U.S.** contributed to social security systems, collective bargaining structures, and welfare states. By the 1950s, institutional channels for labour and citizen participation had matured, reducing the need for radical mass protests, while opening space for new rights-based and cultural movements.

Phase 3: New Social Movements and Cultural Politics

The 1960s–70s marked a shift toward identity and cultural politics. The **U.S. civil rights movement**, led by figures like **Martin Luther King Jr.**, combined non-violent protest, strategic litigation, and media-savvy campaigns, producing landmark legislation such as the **Civil Rights Act (1964)**.

Student activism surged globally, with the **Paris 1968 uprisings**, **Berkeley Free Speech Movement**, and anti-Vietnam protests challenging authority and imperialism. **Second-wave feminism** addressed workplace discrimination, reproductive rights, and patriarchal norms, while **LGBTQ+ activism**, catalyzed by the **Stonewall riots (1969)**, reframed debates around identity and equality. Environmental awareness rose with **Earth Day (1970)** and the first wave of ecological advocacy, emphasizing science-driven campaigns. Scholars like **Alain Touraine** and **Johan Galtung** framed these as “new social movements,” focused on culture, identity, and self-expression rather than traditional class struggle.

Phase 4: 1980s–1990s — Globalization

Movements became increasingly transnational. **Peace and anti-nuclear mobilizations** in Europe and North America attracted mass turnouts, while environmental, labour, and human-rights groups coordinated across borders, addressing Amazon deforestation, sweatshop labour, or climate concerns.

The **1999 Seattle WTO protests** highlighted opposition to neoliberal globalization, combining street demonstrations, alternative summits, and media campaigns. This era demonstrated the emergence of **issue-based networks**,

less tied to traditional ideologies and more to global solidarity and shared concerns.

Phase 5: 2000s–2025 — Networked Movements

Movements in the 21st century increasingly rely on digital tools and networked mobilization. **Occupy Wall Street (2011)** reframed economic inequality through the “1% vs 99%” narrative, while the **Arab Spring (2010–2011)** showed the potential of social media to coordinate protests across Tunisia, Egypt, and Bahrain, even if sustainable democratic outcomes were limited.

Black Lives Matter (2013–2020s) leveraged viral hashtags, cellphone videos, and decentralized structures to mobilize global protests after George Floyd’s killing, influencing debates on policing and racial justice worldwide. **Climate youth movements** like **Fridays for Future** and **Extinction Rebellion** mobilized millions, using scientific evidence, artistic protest, and synchronized global demonstrations to press governments on intergenerational justice.

Digital-native movements, including **MeToo 2.0**, protests against authoritarian populism, and anti-surveillance campaigns, demonstrate three key trends: leaderlessness, hybrid repertoires (mixing online and offline actions), and rapid global diffusion. These dynamics define contemporary activism in an interconnected, digital world.

Social Movements in Developing Societies

Social movements in developing societies have been some of the most transformative collective forces in modern history. They have shaped **anti-colonial revolutions, toppled authoritarian states, demanded redistribution**, articulated ethnic and cultural rights, contested inequality, and continuously redefined the meaning of citizenship. The movements in developing societies are deeply rooted in histories of colonial domination, agrarian

hierarchies, ethnic stratification, religious mobilization, and uneven development.

These movements grew within contexts marked by fragile states, exclusionary institutions, military rule, informal economies, patron–client networks, and dependency on global powers. Their organizational forms, ideologies, and repertoires of protest were therefore shaped by structural constraints as well as the agency of ordinary people.

I. Chronological Evolution

Phase 1: Early Resistance

Before modern nationalism, collective action in developing societies took diverse forms. Tribal and peasant uprisings—such as the **Santhal rebellion (1855–56, India)** and the **Maji Maji uprising (1905–07, Tanganyika)**—resisted land dispossession, taxation, and forced labour. Millenarian and religious movements, like the **Sudanese Mahdist revolt** or the **Taiping Rebellion in China**, combined spiritual narratives with political revolt, often led by charismatic leaders.

The emergence of semi-proletarian classes through plantations, mines, ports, and railways produced early labour unrest. Workers protested **forced labour, racialized wage systems, and harsh disciplinary regimes** in Indian textile mills, Caribbean sugar plantations, South African mines, and Burmese oil fields.

Phase 2: Anti-Colonial National Movements (1910s–1950s)

Anti-colonial struggles represent the most defining wave of social movements in developing societies. These movements achieved **mass participation across classes**—peasants, workers, students, and women—and employed civil disobedience, boycotts, guerrilla warfare, and underground organizing.

Iconic examples include:

- **Indian National Movement:** Gandhi and Nehru mobilized millions through satyagraha and nonviolent resistance.
- **Vietnamese Revolution:** Ho Chi Minh combined anti-colonial nationalism with socialist ideology.
- **Mau Mau Uprising (Kenya):** Land, race, and anti-colonial struggle intertwined.
- **African liberation movements:** Ghana (Kwame Nkrumah), Algeria (FLN), Mozambique (FRELIMO).
- **Latin American anti-imperialist movements:** Cuban Revolution, Sandinistas in Nicaragua, and Che Guevara's Bolivian campaign.

Phase 3: Post-Independence Mobilizations (1950s–1970s)

After independence, movements shifted focus to **development, land reform, and socio-economic justice**.

- **Peasant and land-reform movements:** Bhoodan–Gramdan in India, Bolivian agrarian revolutions, Brazilian peasant leagues, tenant struggles in Pakistan and the Philippines.
- **Ethnic, linguistic, and regional movements:** Tamil movement in Sri Lanka, Bengali language movement in East Pakistan, Biafra secession in Nigeria, Amazigh identity assertion in North Africa.
- **Revolutionary and guerrilla movements:** Maoist/Naxalite insurgencies in India and Nepal, Shining Path in Peru, FARC and ELN in Colombia, EPLF in Eritrea, TPLF in Ethiopia, and Palestinian armed groups. These combined Marxist-Leninist, Maoist, and nationalist ideologies.

Phase 4: Urban Movements

Urbanization created new spaces for collective action. Movements emerged to

claim **basic rights and services**: slum dwellers' rights, anti-eviction protests, and campaigns for water, sanitation, and electricity.

- **Human rights movements**: Mothers of the Plaza de Mayo in Argentina, anti-Pinochet mobilizations in Chile, People Power Revolution in the Philippines, democracy movements in Korea, Taiwan, Zambia, and Kenya.
- **Women's movements**: SEWA in India, Latin American feminist networks (later Ni Una Menos), women's coalitions across West Asia and North Africa.
- **Environmental and indigenous movements**: Chipko and Narmada Bachao Andolan in India, Amazonian indigenous struggles, Ogoni Movement in Nigeria, anti-dam/mining campaigns in SE Asia.

Phase 5: Globalization & Neoliberalism (1990s–2010s)

Structural adjustment programs and privatization triggered protests worldwide.

- **Bolivia's Water Wars, Argentina's IMF crisis protests**, and anti-displacement struggles in Africa and Asia.
- **Latin America's Pink Tide** (Bolivia, Brazil, Venezuela) challenged neoliberal policies.
- Colour revolutions in parts of Eurasia demonstrated the strategic power of civic mobilization.
- **Arab Spring uprisings (2010–2011)** showcased digital technologies as tools for rapid coordination, though repression and factionalism limited long-term democratic outcomes.

Phase 6: Contemporary Movement Waves (2010s–present)

Movements today are **networked, digital, and youth-led**, reflecting both global issues and local grievances.

- **Anti-corruption movements**: India (2011 Anna Hazare-led protests), Brazil (Lava Jato), Lebanon (YouStink).

- **Youth-led digital mobilizations:** Sudan (2019), Hong Kong pro-democracy protests, Nigeria (EndSARS), Senegal (Y'en a Marre).
- **Feminist waves:** Ni Una Menos, #MeToo across Asia and Africa, anti-rape protests in India and Bangladesh.
- **Climate and environmental justice:** Pacific Islands climate activism, African climate justice coalitions, anti-coal and anti-mining movements in India and the Philippines.

These contemporary movements combine **leaderless networks, hybrid online-offline strategies, and rapid transnational diffusion**, reflecting the challenges and possibilities of activism in a digital and globalized age.

II. Theoretical Lenses

Understanding social movements in developing societies requires moving beyond generic frameworks and considering the **structural, cultural, and political specificities** of post-colonial, unequal, and rapidly transforming states. Scholars have proposed multiple lenses to explain why movements arise, how they organize, and what shapes their successes or failures.

1. Dependency Theory and World-Systems Analysis

Movements in developing societies often emerge as reactions to **global capitalist exploitation**. According to scholars like **Samir Amin, Andre Gunder Frank, and Immanuel Wallerstein**, peripheral states are integrated into the global economy in ways that favor core countries, producing structural inequality. Resistance to structural adjustment programs, IMF-imposed austerity, or trade liberalization such as the **Bolivia Water Wars (2000)**, anti-privatization protests in Africa, and Latin American Pink Tide mobilizations etc. illustrates how economic dependency fuels collective action.

2. Peasant Studies

The peasant question remains central to developing societies. **James C. Scott's**

concept of the “**moral economy**” highlights how peasants resist injustices not only through large rebellions but also via everyday acts of avoidance, foot-dragging, and subtle defiance.

For example, rice farmers in colonial Burma hid crops or delayed tax payments as forms of everyday resistance. **Eric Wolf** emphasized how peasant revolts—like the **Vietnamese peasant uprisings against French colonial landlords**—arise from structural pressures and social networks.

3. Political Process Theory

Social movements require opportunities to succeed. According to scholars like **Doug McAdam**, movements flourish when **political opportunity structures**—elite divisions, weak states, transitions, or crises—open up space for collective action. For example, the **People Power Revolution in the Philippines (1986)** succeeded in part due to cracks in Marcos’ regime and elite defection, while democratic openings in post-apartheid South Africa allowed civil society to negotiate labor rights, housing, and land reforms.

4. New Social Movements — Southern Critiques

Unlike the North, where New Social Movement (NSM) theory emphasizes **post-materialist issues** like environmentalism, feminism, or cultural identity, movements in the Global South often combine **livelihood, survival, territory, and identity** concerns.

The **Narmada Bachao Andolan (India)** linked displacement, ecology, and local culture; the **Ogoni movement in Nigeria** combined environmental justice with ethnic rights and anti-corporate struggle. Scholars like **Donatella della Porta** and Southern critics argue that understanding NSMs in the South requires attention to **material inequalities alongside identity politics**.

5. Subaltern Studies

The **Subaltern Studies collective**, including **Ranajit Guha, Partha Chatterjee**, and **Gayatri Spivak**, emphasizes that movements emerge from the

margins, often invisible in elite-centric histories. Peasant revolts, women's struggles, and tribal mobilizations reveal **cultural narratives, local knowledge, and everyday resistance**. For instance, anti-colonial peasant mobilizations in Bengal or Maharashtra illustrate how subaltern agency shapes politics in ways not captured by formal institutions.

6. Postcolonial Theory

Colonial power continues to shape **identity, subjectivity, and mobilization**. Movements in developing societies—like **South African anti-apartheid campaigns, Indian Dalit movements, or Palestinian resistance networks**—cannot be fully understood without considering **historical subjugation, cultural imposition, and internalized hierarchies**. Scholars like **Frantz Fanon** and **Homi Bhabha** highlight how decolonization is both **material and psychological**, and how liberation struggles are shaped by colonial legacies.

Advanced Industrial vs Developing Societies: A Comparative Overview

Dimension	Advanced Industrial Societies	Developing Societies
Party Systems	Institutionalised, programmatic, challenged by populism	Identity-based, patronage-heavy, diverse regional formations
Pressure Groups	Strong, organised, professionalised	Uneven, fragmented, often clientelist
Social Movements	Issue-based, post-materialist	Survival-based, rights-based, anti-authoritarian

Participation	High digital and civic engagement, declining party loyalty	Expanding electoral turnout, uneven non-electoral participation
State Capacity	High administrative reach	Variable, often limited by socio-economic inequalities

PYQs

I. Politics of Representation and Participation

(Representation, participation, cleavages, democracy, legitimacy)

- **2015** – “Examine the tensions between descriptive and substantive representation in contemporary democracies.”
- **2017** – “Does descriptive representation necessarily lead to substantive representation? Illustrate with examples.”
- **2019** – “Representation is a ‘two-way moral relationship’ between rulers and the ruled. Explain.”
- **2021** – “How do informal modes of representation coexist with formal democratic institutions in developing societies?”
- **2023** – “Critically examine changing forms of political representation in the age of social movements and digital mobilisation.”

Participation and Democratic Engagement

- **2016** – “Discuss the relationship between participation, legitimacy, and democratic stability.”
- **2018** – “How do social inequalities shape political participation in developing societies?”
- **2020** – “Has digital media expanded political participation or intensified democratic inequalities?”
- **2022** – “Analyse institutional and non-institutional channels of political

participation in contemporary democracies.”

- **2024** – “Has political participation become episodic rather than sustained in the digital age?”

Cleavages and Representation

- **2014** – “Social cleavages play a decisive role in shaping party systems. Discuss with reference to Lipset and Rokkan.”

- **2017** – “Are social cleavages declining or merely transforming in advanced capitalist societies?”

- **2019** – “Caste continues to shape patterns of political representation in India. Discuss.”

- **2021** – “How do ethnic and religious cleavages affect democratic representation in postcolonial societies?”

- **2025** – “New cultural cleavages have reshaped democratic representation in the 21st century. Examine.”

II. Political Parties

(Organization, ideology, party systems, elections)

Parties in Advanced Industrial Societies

- **2018** – “Examine the rise of new party forms in advanced industrial societies.”

- **2020** – “How have globalization and digital media transformed party competition?”

- **2022** – “Discuss the crisis of traditional political parties in Western democracies.”

- **2024** – “Are populist parties a symptom of party system failure in advanced industrial societies?”

Parties in Developing Societies

- **2016** – “Discuss the role of dominant-party systems in postcolonial states.”

- **2017** – “Examine the relationship between political parties and patronage politics.”

- **2019** – “Leadership personalization has weakened party organizations in developing societies. Discuss.”
- **2021** – “How do ethnicity and region shape party systems in Africa and South Asia?”
- **2023** – “Do political parties in developing societies aggregate interests or merely distribute patronage?”

III. Pressure Groups and Interest Groups

Advanced Industrial Societies

- **2018** – “Compare pluralist and corporatist theories of interest group politics.”
- **2020** – “Has corporate lobbying undermined democratic accountability in advanced industrial societies?”
- **2022** – “Discuss the changing nature of interest groups in post-industrial societies.”

Developing Societies

- **2016** – “Discuss the role of clientelism in interest group politics in the Global South.”
- **2019** – “In developing societies, interest groups often substitute for weak state institutions. Examine.”
- **2021** – “How do informal brokers mediate interest articulation in developing societies?”
- **2023** – “NGOs in developing societies act both as agents of empowerment and instruments of control. Discuss.”

IV. Social Movements

Advanced Industrial Societies

- **2018** – “Evaluate the impact of digital platforms on social movements in advanced democracies.”
- **2020** – “Are contemporary social movements more expressive than

transformative?”

- **2022** – “Critically examine the contribution of environmental movements to policy change.”

Developing Societies

- **2017** – “Are social movements substitutes for political parties in developing societies?”

- **2019** – “How have globalization and neoliberal reforms reshaped social movements in the Global South?”

- **2021** – “Discuss the role of identity-based movements in democratization.”

- **2024** – “To what extent do digital technologies redefine social movements in developing societies?”