

UNIT – I: INDIA AND THE CONTEMPORARY WORLD-I

(SECTION-I : EVENTS AND PROCESSES)

CHAPTER-1

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

Topic-1 French Society During the Late Eighteenth Century

Revision Notes

- On the morning of 14th July 1789, the city of Paris was in a state of alarm. The King had commanded the troops to move into the city. Rumours spread that the King would soon order the army to open fire upon the citizens. Some 7,000 men and women gathered in front of the town hall and decided to form a peoples' militia. They broke into a number of government buildings in search of arms.
- Finally, a group of several hundred people marched towards the eastern part of the city and stormed the fortress-prison, the Bastille, where they hoped to find hoarded ammunition. In the armed fight that followed, the commander of the Bastille was killed and the prisoners were released.
- The days that followed saw more rioting both in Paris and the countryside. Most people were protesting against the high price of bread. Actually, it was the beginning of a chain of events that ultimately led to the execution of the king in France, though most people at that time did not anticipate this outcome.
- In 1774, Louis XVI of the Bourbon family of Kings ascended the throne of France.
- Causes for an empty treasury of France under Louis XVI:
 - (i) Long years of war had drained the financial resources of France.
 - (ii) High cost of maintaining an extravagant court at the immense Palace of Versailles.
 - (iii) Under Louis XVI, France helped the thirteen American colonies to gain their independence from the common enemy, Britain.
 - (iv) The war added more than a billion Livres to a debt that had already risen to more than 2 billion Livres.
 - (v) Lenders, who gave the state credit, now began to charge 10 per cent interest on loans.
- The French Society in the eighteenth century was divided into three Estates, and only members of the Third Estate paid taxes.
 - (i) The members of the First Estate, that is the clergy, enjoyed certain privileges by birth. The most important of these was exemption from paying taxes to the State.
 - (ii) The members of the Second Estate were the nobility. They enjoyed feudal privileges by birth. These included feudal dues, which they extracted from the peasants. They were also exempted from paying taxes.
 - (iii) The Third Estate comprised of peasants, artisans, landless labour, servants, lawyers, doctors, administrative officials, traders, etc., they had to pay all taxes to the State.
- Peasants made up about 90 per cent of the population. However, only a small number of them owned the land they cultivated.
- Peasants were obliged to render services to the lord, work in his house and fields, serve in the army or to participate in building roads.
- The Church too extracted its share of taxes called 'tithes' from the peasants.
- All members of the Third Estate had to pay taxes to the state including a direct tax, called 'taille' and a number of indirect taxes which were levied on articles of everyday consumption like salt or tobacco.

The Struggle to Survive

- Increasing population of France led to a rapid increase in the demand for food grains. But the production of grains could not keep pace with the demand. So, the price of bread rose rapidly.
- Wages of the workers did not keep pace with the rise in prices. So, the gap between the poor and the rich widened.

- Things became worse whenever drought or hail reduced the harvest. This led to a subsistence crisis, something that occurred frequently in France during the Old Regime.

A Growing Middle Class Envisages an End to Privileges

- The eighteenth century witnessed the emergence of social groups, termed the middle class. They earned their wealth through an expanding overseas trade and from the manufacture of goods such as woollen and silk textiles that were either exported or bought by the richer members of society.
- Members of the middle class were educated and believed that no group in the society should be privileged by birth. Rather, a person's social position must depend on his merit.
- These ideas envisaging a society based on freedom and equal laws and opportunities for all, were put forward by philosophers such as John Locke and Jean Jacques Rousseau.
- In his Two Treatises of Government, Locke sought to refute the doctrine of the divine and absolute right of the monarch. Rousseau carried the idea forward, proposing a form of government based on a social contract between people and their representatives.
- In *The Spirit of the Laws*, Montesquieu proposed a division of power within the government between the legislative, the executive and the judiciary.



Key Terms

- **Bastille:** The Bastille was a fortress in Paris that was used as a state prison by the Kings of France.
- **Bourbon family:** It is the name of the Royal family of French origin, members of which became rulers of several European countries.
- **Taille:** Tax to be paid directly to the state.
- **Tithes:** A tax levied by the church, comprising one-tenth of the agricultural produce.
- **Constitutional Monarchy:** Form of government in which a king or queen acts as Head of State.
- **Clergy:** Group of persons vested with special functions in the Church.
- **Livre:** Unit of currency of France from discontinued in 1794.



Key Dates

- **Between 1715 and 1771:** French commerce had increased eight fold; it was exporting sugar, coffee and indigo.
- **10th May, 1774:** Louis XVI ascended the throne after the death of Louis XV.

Topic-2 The Outbreak of the Revolution



Revision Notes

- Louis XVI planned to impose further taxes to be able to meet the expenses of the state.
- In France of the Old Regime, the monarch did not have the power to impose taxes according to his will alone. Rather he had to call a meeting of the Estates General to pass the proposals for new taxes.
- On 5th May 1789, Louis XVI called together an assembly of the Estates General to pass proposals for new taxes. Peasants, artisans and women were denied entry to the assembly and from participating in the meeting.
- Voting in the Estates General in the past had been conducted according to the principle that each estate had one vote. But this time, members of the third estate demanded that voting now be conducted by the assembly as a whole, where each member would have one vote. When the King rejected this proposal, members of the third estate walked out of the assembly in protest.
- On 20th June 1789, the representatives of the third estate assembled in the hall of an indoor tennis court in the grounds of Versailles under the leadership of Mirabeau and Abbé Sieyès. They declared themselves a National Assembly and swore not to disperse till they had drafted a constitution for France that would limit the powers of the monarch.

- Because of bad harvest, increase in demand for food grains and high price of bread, people of France were becoming angry day by day. At the same time, the King ordered the troops to move into Paris. Finally, on 14th July, the agitated crowd stormed and destroyed the Bastille.
- On the night of 4th August, 1789, the Assembly passed a decree abolishing the feudal system of obligations and taxes. Members of the clergy too were forced to give up their privileges. Tithes were abolished and lands owned by the Church were confiscated. As a result, the government acquired assets worth at least 2 billion Livres.

France Becomes a Constitutional Monarchy

- The National Assembly completed the draft of the constitution in 1791. Its main objective was to limit the powers of the monarch.
- These powers were now separated and assigned to different institutions – The Legislature, Executive and Judiciary. This made France a constitutional monarchy.
- Not all citizens, however, had the right to vote. Only men above 25 years of age who paid taxes equal to at least 3 days of a labourer's wage were given the status of active citizens and were entitled to vote. The remaining men and all the women were classed as Passive Citizens.
- The constitution began with a Declaration of the Rights of Man and Citizen. Rights such as the Right to Life, Freedom of Speech, Freedom of Opinion, Equality before the Law, were established as 'Natural and Inalienable Rights'. These rights belonged to each human being by birth and could not be taken away.

France Abolishes Monarchy and Becomes a Republic

- Although Louis XVI had signed the constitution, he entered into secret negotiations with the King of Prussia.
- The National Assembly voted in April 1792 to declare war against Prussia and Austria. Thousands of volunteers thronged from the provinces to join the army.
- Political clubs became an important rallying point for people who wished to discuss government policies and plan their own forms of action. The most successful of these clubs was that of the Jacobins, which got its name from the former convent of St. Jacob in Paris.
- The members of the Jacobin club belonged mainly to the less prosperous sections of society. They included small shopkeepers, artisans such as shoemakers, pastry cooks, watch-makers, printers, as well as servants and daily-wage workers. Their leader was Maximilian Robespierre.
- These Jacobins came to be known as the Sans-culottes, literally meaning, those without knee breeches. Sans-culottes men wore long striped trousers similar to those worn by dock workers, in addition to the red cap that symbolized liberty. Women, however, were not allowed to do so.
- On the morning of August 10th, 1792, they stormed the Palace of the Tuileries, massacred the King's guards and held the King himself as a hostage for several hours. Later, the assembly voted to imprison the Royal Family. Elections were held.
- From then onwards, all men of 21 years and above, regardless of wealth got the right to vote.
- The newly elected assembly was called the Convention. On 21st September, 1792, it abolished the monarchy and declared France a Republic.
- A Republic is a form of government where the people elect the government including the Head of the Government. There is no hereditary monarchy.
- Louis XVI was sentenced to death by a Court on the charge of treason. On 21st January, 1793, he was executed publicly at the Place de la Concorde.

The Reign of Terror

- Robespierre' rule in France (1793 to 1794) is known as the 'Reign of Terror'
- Robespierre followed a policy of severe control and punishment. All those whom he saw as being enemies of the Republic for e.g. the Ex-nobles and clergy, members of other political parties, and even members of his own party who did not agree with his methods, were arrested, imprisoned and then tried by a revolutionary tribunal.
- Robespierre' government issued laws placing a maximum ceiling on wages and prices.
- Meat and bread were rationed.
- Peasants were forced to transport their grain to the cities and sell it at prices fixed by the government.
- The use of more expensive white flour was forbidden; all citizens were required to eat the *pain d'égalité* (equality bread) a loaf made of whole wheat.
- Equality was also sought to be practiced through forms of speech and address.

- Churches were shut down and their buildings were converted into barracks or offices.
- Finally, he was convicted by a court in July 1794, he was arrested, and on the next day, sent to the guillotine.

A Directory Rules France

- The fall of the Jacobin Government allowed the wealthier middle classes to seize power.
- A new Constitution was introduced which denied the vote to non- property Sections of society.
- The political instability of the Directory paved the way for the rise of a military dictator, Napoleon Bonaparte.



Key Terms

- **Guillotine:** A device consisting of two poles and a blade with which a person was beheaded.
- **Deputy:** A Parliamentary Representative in many countries.
- **Democracy:** A form of government in which power is vested in the people, who rule either directly or through freely elected representatives.
- **Sceptre:** Symbol of royal power.
- **Sans-culottes:** Group of people in France.
- **Treason:** The action of betraying one's country or a government.
- **Convent:** Building belonging to a community devoted to a religious life.
- **Chateaux:** A large French country house or stately Residence belonging to a king or a nobleman.



Key Dates

- **1791:** The National Assembly completed the draft of the constitution.
- **21th January, 1793:** King Louis XVI was executed at the Guillotine.
- **5th May, 1789:** The Estates General met after a gap of almost two centuries.
- **17th June, 1789:** Representatives of the Third Estate declared themselves as the National Assembly of the people of France, not of the Estates.
- **14th July, 1789:** Storming of the Bastille; Beginning of the French Revolution.
- **4th August, 1789:** The National Assembly passed a decree abolishing feudal privileges and system of obligations and taxes.

Topic-3 Women Revolution and the Abolition of Slavery



Revision Notes

Did women have a Revolution?

- From the very beginning, women were active participants in the events which brought about so many important changes in the French Society.
- Condition of women during the French Revolution:
 - The women hoped that their involvement would pressurise the revolutionary government to introduce measures to improve their lives.
 - Most women of the Third Estate had to work for a living. They worked as seamstresses or laundresses and sold flowers, fruits and vegetables in the market.
 - They were employed as domestic servants in the houses of prosperous people.
 - Most women did not have access to education or job training. Only daughters of nobles or wealthier members of the Third Estate could study at a convent.
 - Working women had also to care for their families, i.e., cook, fetch water, queue up for bread and look after the children.
 - Their wages were lower than those of men.
- In order to discuss and voice their interests, women started their own political clubs and newspapers. **The Society of Revolutionary and the Republican Women** was the most famous club.

- Women of France demanded the Right to vote, to be elected to the assembly and to hold political offices.
- **Laws introduced by the revolutionary government to improve the lives of women in France:**
 - Together with the creation of state schools, schooling was made compulsory for all the girls.
 - Their fathers could no longer force them into marriage against their will.
 - Marriage was made into a contract entered into freely and registered under civil law.
 - Divorce was made legal and could be applied for by both women and men.
 - Women could now be trained for jobs, become artists, or run small businesses.
- Women's struggle for equal political rights, however, continued. It was finally in 1946 that women in France won the right to vote.

The Abolition of Slavery

- One of the most revolutionary social reforms of the Jacobin regime was the abolition of slavery in the French Colonies.
- A triangular slave trade began in the seventeenth century between Europe, Africa and America.
- The exploitation of slave labourers made it possible to meet the growing demand in European markets for sugar, coffee and indigo. Port cities like Bordeaux and Nantes owed their economic prosperity to the flourishing slave trade.
- Slavery was finally abolished in French colonies in 1848.

The Revolution and Everyday Life

- The years following 1789 in France saw many changes in the daily lives of men, women and children.
- The revolutionary governments took it upon themselves to pass laws that would translate the ideals of Liberty and Equality into everyday practice.
- One important law that came into effect soon after the storming of the Bastille in the summer of 1789 was the abolition of censorship.
- **Effects of abolition of censorship:**
 - Now, the Declaration of the Rights of Man and Citizen proclaimed Freedom of Speech and Expression to be a natural right.
 - Newspapers, pamphlets, books and printed pictures flooded the towns of France from where they travelled rapidly into the countryside.
 - They all described and discussed the events and changes taking place in France.
 - Freedom of the Press also meant that opposing views of events could be expressed.
 - Plays, songs and festive processions attracted large numbers of people.
- In 1804, Napoleon Bonaparte crowned himself as the Emperor of France.
- Napoleon saw his role as a modernizer of Europe. He introduced many laws, such as :
 - The protection of private property and
 - A uniform system of weights and measures provided by the decimal system.
- Napoleon was finally defeated at Waterloo in 1815.
- The ideas of liberty and democratic rights were the most important legacy of the French Revolution. These ideas spread from France to the rest of Europe during the nineteenth century, where feudal systems were abolished.
- Tipu Sultan and Raja Ram Mohan Roy are the two examples of individuals who responded to the ideas coming from revolutionary France.



Key Terms

- **Dictator:** A ruler who wields absolute authority.
- **Negroes:** A term used for the indigenous people of Africa in the South of Sahara region. It is a derogatory term, not in common use any longer.
- **Feudalism:** A social system, in which the king would give a piece of land to the nobles who fought for him. While the peasants were obliged to live on their landlord's land and serve him.
- **Jacobin club:** A political club that existed during the French Revolution.



Key Dates

- **1789:** Abolition of censorship came into effect.
- **10th August, 1792:** Anti-monarchy Jacobins rallied together with Sans-cullotes.
- **1804:** Napoleen crowned himself Emperor of France.
- **1815:** Napoleon was finally defeated in the Battle of Waterloo.
- **1946:** Women in France won the Right to Vote.
- **1848:** Abolition of slavery in French colonies.

Example

"Robespierre's rule in France was known as the Reign of terror." Justify the statement.

Answer:

Step 1: The period from 1793 to 1794 is referred to as the 'Reign of Terror'. Robespierre followed a policy of severe control and punishment.

Step 2: All those whom he saw as being 'Enemies' of the Republic—ex-nobles and clergy, members of other political parties, and even the members of his own party who did not agree with his methods,

were arrested, imprisoned and then tried by a revolutionary tribunal.

Step 3: If the Court found them 'guilty', they were guillotined.

Step 4: Robespierre's Government issued laws, placing a maximum ceiling on wages and prices. Meat and bread were rationed. Peasants were forced to transport their grain to the cities and sell it at prices fixed by the Government.

Step 5: Churches were shut down and their buildings converted into barracks or offices.

CHAPTER-2

SOCIALISM IN EUROPE AND THE RUSSIAN REVOLUTION

Topic-1 The Age of Social Change



Revision Notes

- The French Revolution opened up the possibility of creating a dramatic change in the way in which society was structured.
- Through the Revolution in Russia, Socialism became one of the most significant and powerful ideas to shape society in the twentieth century.

View of Liberals, Radicals and Conservatives

- One of the groups, which looked to changed society were the liberals.
 - Liberals wanted a nation which tolerated all religions.
 - Liberals also opposed the uncontrolled power of dynastic rulers.
 - They wanted to safeguard the rights of individuals against governments.
 - They argued for a representative, elected Parliamentary Government, subject to laws interpreted by a well-trained Judiciary that was independent of Rulers and Officials.
 - However, they were not 'democrats'. They did not believe in Universal Adult Franchise.
- **Views of Radicals:**
 - The Radicals wanted a nation in which government was based on the majority of a country's population.
 - Unlike Liberals, they opposed the privileges of big landowners and wealthy factory owners.
 - They were not against the existence of private property, but disliked concentration of property in the hands of a few.
- **Views of Conservatives:**
 - Conservatives were opposed to Radicals and Liberals. After the nineteenth century, they accepted changes but also believed that the past needed to be respected and change should begin slowly.

Industrial Society and Social Change

- These political trends were signs of a new time. It was a time of profound social and economic changes. It was a time when the Industrial Revolution took place.

- Industrialization brought men, women and children to factories. Working hours were often long and wages were poor. Unemployment was common.
- Liberals and Radicals searched for solutions to these issues. Many working men and women who wanted changes in the world, rallied around liberal and radical groups and parties in the early nineteenth century.
- After 1815, Giuseppe Mazzini, an Italian nationalist, conspired with others to form Italy where all citizens would have equal rights.

The Coming of Socialism to Europe

- By the mid-nineteenth century in Europe, Socialism was a well-known body of ideas that attracted widespread attention.
- Socialists were against private property and saw it as the root of all social ills of that time.
- Some Socialists believed in the idea of 'cooperatives'. Robert Owen (1771-1858), a leading English manufacturer, sought to build a cooperative community called New Harmony in Indiana (USA).
- In France, for instance, Louis Blanc (1813-1882) wanted the government to encourage cooperatives and replace capitalist Enterprises. These cooperatives were to be associations of people who produced goods together and divided the profits according to the work done by Members.
- Karl Marx (1818-1883) and Friedrich Engels (1820-1895) added other ideas to this body of arguments. Marx argued that industrial society was capitalist.
- **Idea of Communist Society:**
 - Industrial Society was capitalist. Capitalists owned the capital invested in factories and the profit of Capitalists was produced by workers.
 - The conditions of workers could not improve as long as this profit was accumulated by private capitalists.
 - Workers had to overthrow Capitalism and the rule of Private Property.
 - Marx believed that to free themselves from capitalist exploitation, workers had to construct a radically socialist Society where all properties were socially controlled. This would be a 'communist Society.'
 - He was convinced that workers would triumph in their conflict with Capitalists. A communist society was the natural society of the future.

Support for Socialism

- By the 1870s, socialist ideas spread through Europe. To coordinate their efforts, socialists formed an international body—namely, the Second International. Workers in England and Germany began forming associations to fight for better living and working conditions.
- By 1905, socialists and trade unionists formed a Labour Party in Britain and a Socialist Party in France. However, till 1914, socialists never succeeded in forming a government in Europe.



Key Terms

- **Autocracy:** A country ruled by a person who has complete power.
- **Autonomy:** The right to govern themselves.
- **Suffragette movement:** A movement to give women the right to vote.

Topic-2 The Russian Revolution



Revision Notes

- Socialists took over the Government in Russia through the October Revolution of 1917. The fall of monarchy in February 1917 and the events of October are normally called the Russian Revolution.

The Russian Empire in 1914

- In 1914, Tsar Nicholas II ruled over Russia and its empire. Besides the territory around Moscow, the Russian empire included present-day Finland, Latvia, Lithuania, Estonia, parts of Poland, Ukraine and Belarus. It stretched to the Pacific and comprised today's Central Asian states, as well as Georgia, Armenia and Azerbaijan.
- The majority religion was Russian Orthodox Christianity.

Economy and Society

- In the beginning of the twentieth century, the vast majority of Russia's people were agriculturists.
- Russia was a major exporter of grain.
- Industry was found in pockets. Prominent industrial areas were St. Petersburg and Moscow.

- Most industries were the private properties of industrialists. Government supervised large factories to ensure minimum wages and limited hours of work.
- In craft units and small workshops, the working day was sometimes of 15 hours, compared with 10 or 12 hours in factories.
- Women made up 31 per cent of the factory labour force by 1914, but they were paid less than men (between half and three-quarters of a man's wage).
- Peasants cultivated most of the land but the nobility, the Crown and the Orthodox Church owned large properties.
- Nobles got power and position through their services to the Tsar.
- In Russia, peasants wanted the land of the nobles.

Socialism in Russia

- The Russian Social Democratic Labour Party was founded in 1898 by the socialists who respected Marx's ideas. It set up a newspaper, mobilized workers and organized strikes.
- Socialists formed the Socialist Revolutionary Party in 1900. This party struggled for peasants' rights and demanded that land belonging to nobles be transferred to peasants.
- Vladimir Lenin (who led the Bolshevik group), thought that in a repressive society like Tsarist Russia, the party should be disciplined and should control the number and quality of its members.

A Turbulent Time : The 1905 Revolution

- Russia was an Autocracy.
- The year 1904 was a particularly bad one for Russian workers. Prices of essential goods rose so rapidly that real wages declined by 20 per cent. The membership of workers' associations rose dramatically.
- When four members of the 'Assembly of Russian Workers' which had been formed in 1904, were dismissed at the Putilov Iron Works, there was a call for industrial action.
- Over the next few days, more than 110,000 workers in St. Petersburg went on strike demanding a reduction in the working day to eight hours, an increase in wages and improvement in working conditions.
- When the procession of workers led by Father Gapon reached the Winter Palace, it was attacked by the police and the Cossacks. Over 100 workers were killed and about 300 wounded. The incident, known as Bloody Sunday, started a series of events that became known as the 1905 Revolution.
- Strikes took place all over the country and Universities closed down when student bodies staged walkouts, complaining about the lack of civil liberties.
- Lawyers, doctors, engineers and other middle-class workers established the Union of Unions and demanded a Constituent Assembly.
- During the 1905 Revolution, the Tsar allowed the creation of an elected consultative Parliament or Duma.

The First World War and the Russian Empire

1. In 1914, war broke out between two European alliances –Germany, Austria and Turkey (the Central Powers) and France, Britain and Russia (later Italy and Romania). This was the First World War.
2. In Russia, the war was initially popular and people rallied around Tsar Nicholas II.
3. Defeats were shocking and demoralizing. Russia's armies lost badly in Germany and Austria between 1914 and 1916. There were over 7 million casualties by 1917.
4. The war also had a severe impact on industry. Russia's own industries were few in number and the country was cut off from other suppliers of industrial goods by German control of the Baltic Sea.
5. By 1916, Railway Lines began to break down.
6. Able-bodied men were called up to the war. As a result, there was labour shortage and small workshops producing essentials were shut down.
7. Large supplies of grain were sent to feed the army. For the people in the cities, bread and flour became scarce.



Key Terms

- **Bolsheviks:** A fraction of the Russian Social Democratic Labour Party led by Lenin based on the ideology of Marx and Engels. It seized power in the October Revolution of 1917.
- **Bloody Sunday:** A mass of peaceful workers were fired upon by the Russian troops when they went to the Winter Palace to present a petition to the Tsar. This incident occurred on Sunday 22nd January, 1905.
- **Collective farms:** A farm or a group of farms organized as a unit and managed and worked cooperatively by a group of farmers under government supervision.
- **Duma:** Russian Parliament of Legislature.

- **Divine Right Theory:** The theory that believed that the King was the Representative of the God on Earth and no one has the right to deny him.
- **Exiled:** Forced to live away from one's own country.
- **Jadidists:** Muslim reformers in the Empire of Russia.
- **Real wage:** Reflects the quantities of goods which the wages will actually buy.



Key Dates

- **1855:** Tsar Alexander II started his reign as Tsar of Russia.
- **1861:** Alexander issued a manifesto wherein Serfs were emancipated.
- **1881:** Alexander II was assassinated.
- **1883:** Formation of first Russian Marxist group.
- **1898:** Formation of Russian Social Democratic Labour Party.
- **1900:** Formation of Socialist Revolutionary Party.
- **1903:** Second Congress of Russian Social Democratic Labour Party.
- **1904-1905 :** Russo- Japanese War.
- **1905:** Russian Revolution. A strike began at the Putilov Iron Works in St. Petersburg.
- **3rd January, 1905:** Russian Revolution.
- **22nd January, 1905:** (Bloody Sunday) peaceful demonstrators arrived at the Winter Palace in St. Petersburg to present a petition to the Tsar.
- **April 1905:** The first Duma was called.
- **July 1905:** The first Duma was dissolved.

Topic-3 The February Revolution in Petrograd



Revision Notes

- In the winter of 1917, conditions in the capital, Petrograd, were grim.
- The layout of the city seemed to emphasize the divisions among its people. The Workers' quarters and factories were located on the right bank of the River Neva. On the left bank were the fashionable areas, the Winter Palace, and official buildings, including the palace where the Duma met.
- In February 1917, food shortages were deeply felt in the workers' quarters.
- On 22nd February, a lockout took place at a factory on the right bank. The next day, workers in fifty factories called a strike in sympathy.
- In many factories, women led the way to strikes. This came to be called the 'International Women's Day.'
- Finally, on Sunday, 25th February, the Government suspended the Duma.
- Demonstrators returned in force to the streets of the left bank on the 26th February. On the 27th February, the Police Headquarters were ransacked. The streets thronged with people raising slogans about bread, wages, better hours and democracy.
- By that evening, soldiers and striking workers had gathered to form a 'Soviet' or 'Council' in the same building as the Duma met. This was the Petrograd Soviet.
- Finally the Tsar abdicated on 2nd March.
- Soviet leaders and Duma leaders formed a Provisional Government to run the country.
- Petrograd had led the February Revolution that brought down the monarchy in February 1917.

After February

- Army Officials, landowners and industrialists were influential in the Provisional Government. But the liberals as well as socialists among them worked towards an elected government.
- In April 1917, the Bolshevik leader Vladimir Lenin returned to Russia from his exile.
- Three demands of Lenin's 'April Theses':
 - He felt, it was time for the Soviets to take over power. He declared that the war be brought to a close.

- Land should be transferred to the peasants.
- Banks should be nationalized.

The Revolution of October 1917

- As the conflict between the Provisional Government and the Bolsheviks grew, Lenin feared the Provisional Government would set up a dictatorship.
- On 16th October 1917, Lenin persuaded the Petrograd Soviet and the Bolshevik Party to agree to a socialist seizure of power.
- A Military Revolutionary Committee was appointed by the Soviet under Leon Trotsky to organize the seizure.
- At a meeting of the All Russian Congress of Soviets in Petrograd, the majority approved the Bolshevik action.



Key Terms

- **Red Army:** The army of revolutionary Russia who fought against the Tsar's Army.
- **Romanov:** The Second dynasty after Rurik which ruled over Russia until the abdication of Tsar Nicholas II in 1917.



Key Dates

- **22nd to 27th February, 1917:** February Revolution
- **2nd March, 1917:** Abdication of the Tsar
- **3rd April 1917:** Return of Lenin and April Theses
- **5th May 1917:** Formation of new Provisional Government
- **3rd June 1917:** First All- Russian Congress of Soviets announced in Petrograd

Example

How was a Socialist State established by Lenin?
Explain.

Answer:

Step 1: Centralized planning with a system of five-year plan.

Step 2: Private property were abolished and property was socially controlled.

Step 3: An extended schooling system was developed.

Topic-4 Changes after October and the Global influence



Revision Notes

Changes after October

- The Bolsheviks were totally opposed to private property. Most industries and banks were nationalised in November 1917.
- Land was declared social property and Peasants were allowed to seize the land of the nobility.
- In cities, Bolsheviks enforced the partition of large houses according to family requirements. They banned the use of the old titles of aristocracy.
- The Bolshevik Party was renamed as the Russian Communist Party (Bolshevik).
- In November 1917, the Bolsheviks conducted the elections to the Constituent Assembly, but they failed to gain majority support.
- In the years that followed, the Bolsheviks became the only party to participate in the elections to the All Russian Congress of Soviets, which became the Parliament of the country. Russia became a One-Party State.

The Civil War

- Non- Bolshevik socialists, liberals and supporters of autocracy condemned the Bolshevik uprising. Their leaders moved to south Russia and organised troops to fight the Bolsheviks (the 'Reds').

- During 1918 and 1919, the 'Greens' (Socialist Revolutionaries) and 'Whites' (Pro- Tsarists) controlled most of the Russian Empire.
- As these troops and the Bolsheviks fought a civil war, looting, banditry and famine became common.
- By January 1920, the Bolsheviks controlled most of the former Russian Empire. They succeeded due to cooperation with non- Russian nationalities and Muslim Jadidists.
- Most non- Russian nationalities were given political autonomy in the Soviet Union (USSR) – the state the Bolsheviks created from the Russian Empire in December 1922.

Making a Socialist Society

- A process of centralised planning was introduced. Officials assessed how the economy could work and set targets for a five-year period. On this basis, they made the Five Year Plans.
- Industrial production increased between 1929 and 1933 by 100 per cent in the case of oil, coal and steel.
- An extended schooling system developed and arrangements were made for factory workers and Peasants to enter universities.
- Crèches were established in factories for the children of women workers.
- Cheap public health care was provided. Model living quarters were set up for workers.

Stalinism and Collectivisation

- By 1927- 1928, the towns in Soviet Russia were facing an acute problem of grain supplies. The Government fixed prices at which grain must be sold, but the peasants refused to sell their grain to government buyers at these prices.
- Stalin, who headed the party after the death of Lenin, introduced firm emergency measures.
- In 1928, Party Members toured the grain-producing areas, supervising enforced grain collections, and raiding 'Kulaks', – the name given to well-to-do peasants.
- To develop modern farms and run them along industrial lines with machinery, it was necessary to 'eliminate Kulaks', take away land from peasants, and establish state-controlled large farms.
- From 1929, the Party forced all peasants to cultivate in collective farms (Kolkhoz).
- The bulk of land and implements were transferred to the ownership of collective farms.
- Those who resisted collectivisation were severely punished. Many were deported and exiled.
- In spite of collectivisation, production did not increase immediately and due to bad harvests of 1930-1933 over 4 million people died.
- Throughout the country, accusations were made, and by 1939, over 2 million were in prisons or labour camps.

The Global Influence of the Russian Revolution and the USSR

- In many countries, communist parties were formed like the Communist Party of Great Britain.
- Many non- Russians from outside the USSR participated in the Conference of the Peoples of the East (1920) and the Bolshevik-founded Comintern (an international union of pro-Bolshevik socialist parties).
- By the time of the outbreak of the Second World War, the USSR had given socialism a global face and world stature.



Key Terms

- **Monk:** A member of a religious community of men typically living under vows of poverty, chastity and obedience.
- **Tsar:** Emperor of Russia.
- **Refugee:** A person who has been forced to leave his/her country in order to escape war, persecution, or natural disaster.
- **Soviet:** Council of workers.
- **Suffragette:** A Movement to give woman the Right to Vote.
- **Serfdom:** Russian type of feudalism under which peasants worked for the landlord in exchange for food and shelter.



Key Dates

- **28th July 1914:** Beginning of the First World War.
- **11th November 1918:** End of the First World War.
- **1917-1920:** Civil War broke out in Russia.
- **1919:** Formation of Comintern.
- **1929:** Beginning of collectivization.
- **1991:** Break up of Soviet Union.

CHAPTER-3

NAZISM AND THE RISE OF HITLER

Topic-1 Birth of the Weimar Republic



Revision Notes

- Germany, a powerful Empire in the early years of the twentieth century, fought the First World War (1914-1918) alongside the Austrian empire and against the Allies (England, France and Russia.)
- The defeat of Imperial Germany and the abdication of the Emperor gave an opportunity to parliamentary parties to recast German polity.
- A National Assembly met at Weimar and established a democratic constitution with a federal structure.
- Deputies were now elected to the German Parliament or Reichstag, on the basis of equal and universal votes cast by all adults including women.
- The War Guilt Clause held Germany responsible for the war and damages the Allied countries suffered. The Allied armies occupied Rhineland in the 1920s.
- Many Germans held the new Weimar Republic responsible for not only the defeat in the war but the disgrace at Versailles.

The Effects of the War

- The war had a devastating impact on the entire continent both psychologically and financially.
- From a continent of creditors, Europe turned into one of the debtors.
- Supporters of the Weimar Republic, mainly Socialists, Catholics and Democrats, became easy targets of attack in the conservative nationalist circles. They were mockingly called the 'November Criminals'.
- The First World War left a deep imprint on European society and polity.
- Soldiers came to be placed above civilians. Politicians and publicists laid great stress on the need for men to be aggressive, strong and masculine.

Political Radicalism and Economic Crisis

- The birth of the Weimar Republic coincided with the revolutionary uprising of the Spartacist League on the pattern of the Bolshevik Revolution in Russia.
- Those opposed to this – such as the Socialists, Democrats and Catholics – met in Weimar to give shape to the Democratic republic.
- The Weimar Republic crushed the uprising with the help of a war veterans organisation called 'Free Corps'.
- Both revolutionaries and militant nationalists craved for radical solutions. Political Radicalisation heightened by the economic crisis of 1923.
- The image of Germans carrying cart loads of currency notes to buy a loaf of bread was widely publicised evoking worldwide sympathy. This crisis came to be known as hyperinflation, a situation when prices arise phenomenally high.

The Years of Depression

- The years between 1924 and 1928 saw some stability. German investments and industrial recovery were totally dependent on short-term loans, largely from the USA. This support was withdrawn when the Wall Street Exchange crashed in 1929.
- On one single day, 24th October, 13 million shares were sold. This was the start of the 'Great Economic Depression'.
- Over the next three years, between 1929 and 1932, the national income of the USA fell by half. Factories shut down, exports fell, farmers were badly hit and speculators withdrew their money from the Market. The effects of this recession in the US economy were felt worldwide.
- The German economy was worst hit by the economic crisis. Workers lost their jobs or were paid reduced wages. The number of unemployed touched an unprecedented 6 million.

- As jobs disappeared, the youth took to criminal activities and total despair became common place.
- Politically too, the Weimar Republic was fragile. The Weimar constitution had some inherent defects, which made it unstable and vulnerable to dictatorship.
- Another defect was Article 48, which gave the President the powers to impose emergency, suspend civil rights and rule by decree.
- Yet, the crisis could not be managed. People lost confidence in the democratic parliamentary system, which seemed to offer no solutions.



Key Terms

- **Wall Street Exchange:** The name of the world's biggest stock exchange located in the USA.
- **The Great Depression:** A worldwide economic slump lasting from 1929 to 1935.
- **Reichstag:** Name given to the German Parliament.
- **Reparation:** Compensate for a wrong doing.
- **Proletarianisation:** Process of becoming impoverished to the level of working classes.



Key Dates

- **1918:** Establishment of Weimar Republic.
- **1919:** Germany signed the Treaty of Versailles.
- **1929:** Wall street exchange crashed.
- **1929:** The Economic Depression occurs in USA.

Topic-2 Hitler's Rise to Power



Revision Notes

- This crisis in the economy, polity and society formed the background to Hitler's rise to power. Born in 1889 in Austria, Hitler spent his youth in poverty.
- In 1919, he joined a small group called the 'German Workers' Party. He subsequently took over the organisation and renamed it as the 'National Socialist German Workers' Party. This party later came to be known as the 'Nazi Party'.
- The Nazis could not effectively mobilise popular support till the early 1930s. It was during the Great Depression that Nazism became a mass movement.
- By 1932, the Nazi Party had become the largest party with 37 per cent votes.
- Hitler effectively mobilised popular support in Germany:
 - (i) Hitler was a powerful speaker. His passion and his words moved people.
 - (ii) He promised to build a strong nation.
 - (iii) He also promised to undo the injustice of the Versailles Treaty and restore the dignity of German People.
 - (iv) He promised employment for those looking for work and a secure future for the youth.
 - (v) He promised to weed out all foreign influences and resist all foreign conspiracies against Germany.
 - (vi) He understood the significance of rituals and spectacle in mass mobilisation. Nazis held massive rallies and public meetings to demonstrate the support for Hitler and instil a sense of unity among the people.
 - (vii) The red banners with the Swastika, the Nazi salute, and the ritualised rounds of applause after the speeches were all part of this spectacle of power.

The Destruction of Democracy

- On 30th January, 1933, President Hindenburg offered the Chancellorship, the highest position in the Cabinet of Ministers, to Hitler.
- The Fire Decree of 28th February, 1933 indefinitely suspended civic rights like Freedom of Speech, Press and Assembly that had been guaranteed by the Weimar Constitution.
- On 3rd March, 1933, the famous 'Enabling Act' was passed. This Act established dictatorship in Germany. It gave Hitler all powers to sideline parliament and rule by decree.

- Special surveillance and security forces were created to control and order society in ways that the Nazis wanted.
- Apart from the already existing regular police in green uniform and the SA or the 'Storm Troopers', these included the Gestapo (Secret State Police), the SS (The Protection Squads), Criminal Police and the Security Service (SD).

Reconstruction

- In foreign policy also, Hitler acquired quick successes. He pulled out of the League of Nations in 1933, reoccupied the Rhineland in 1936, and integrated Austria and Germany in 1938 under the slogan, '*One People, One Empire and One Leader*'.
- In September 1940, a 'Tripartite Pact' was signed between Germany, Italy and Japan, strengthening Hitler's claim to international power.
- By the end of 1940, Hitler was at the pinnacle of his power. He attacked the Soviet Union in June 1941.
- Meanwhile, the USA had resisted involvement in the war. It was unwilling to once again face all the economic problems that the First World War had caused.
- When Japan extended its support to Hitler and bombed the US base at Pearl Harbour, the US entered the Second World War.
- The war ended in May 1945 with Hitler's defeat and the US dropping of the atom bomb on Hiroshima in Japan.



Key Terms

- **Axis Powers:** A group of countries, namely, Italy, Germany and Japan, Bulgaria, Hungary, Romania and Yugoslavia who opposed the Allied Power.
- **Allied Powers:** Formed by Britain, France, Russia and the USA.
- **Second World War:** Global war that took place from September 1939 to May 1945. About 50 million people were killed in this war.
- **Pearl Harbour:** Situated on the Hawaiian Island of Honolulu. It was the main base of the US Pacific Fleet.
- **Gestapo:** The Secret State Police in Nazi Germany.
- **Holocaust:** The persecution and mass murder of Jews by German Nazis between 1933 and 1945.
- **Propaganda:** Specific type of message directly aimed at influencing the opinion of people through the use of posters, films and speeches.
- **Persecution:** Systematic and organised punishment of those belonging to a group or religion.
- **Concentration camp:** A camp where people were isolated and detained without due process of law. Typically, it was surrounded by electrified barbed wire fences.



Key Dates

- **1889:** Adolf Hitler was born in Austria.
- **1933:** Hitler was made Chancellor of Germany.
- **1934:** Hitler became the President of Germany.
- **1935:** World War II, Italy attacked Ethiopia, German Rearmament. Hitler announced Germany would rebuilt its Military.
- **1936:** Hitler reoccupied Rhineland.
- **1937:** Attack of Japan on China during the Second World War.
- **1938:** German troops entered Austria. Integration of Germany and Austria.
- **1939:** Germany attacked Czechoslovakia.
- **1940:** Declaration of war by Italy on Britain and France and surrender of France.
- **1940-1944:** Ghettoisation of Jews.
- **8th April 1941:** Germany invaded the Balkans.
- **June, 1941:** Germany attacked the USSR.
- **1942:** United Nations Declaration signed by the representatives of 26 nations.
- **1943:** Defeat of Italy and Germany by the Allied Powers in North Africa.
- **1945:** Hitler committed suicide by gunshot in Berlin.

Example

How was the Nazi Party formed?

Answer:

Step 1: The disintegration of Weimar Republic led to the formation of Nazi Party after the First World War.

Step 2: Hitler enrolled for the army when the First World War broke. He also earned medals for bravery.

Step 3: The German defeat horrified him and Versailles Treaty made him furious. Later, he joined a small group called the 'German Workers' Party.

Step 4: Subsequently, he took over the organisation and renamed it the 'National Socialist German Workers' Party'. This party came to be known as 'Nazi Party'.

Topic-3 The Nazi Worldview

Revision Notes

- Nazi ideology was synonymous with Hitler's world view. According to this, there was no equality between people, but only a racial hierarchy.
- In this view blond, blue-eyed, Nordic German Aryans were at the top, while Jews were located at the lowest rung. They came to be regarded as an anti-race, the arch-enemies of the Aryans.
- All other coloured people were placed in between, depending upon their external features.
- The other aspect of Hitler's Ideology related to the geopolitical concept of *Lebensraum*, or living space. He believed that new territories had to be acquired for settlement. This would enhance the area of the mother country, while enabling the settlers on new lands to retain an intimate link with the place of their origin.

Establishment of the Racial State

- Nazis wanted only a society of 'pure and healthy Nordic Aryans'. They alone were considered 'desirable'. Only they were seen as worthy of prospering and multiplying against all others who were classed as 'undesirable'.
- Jews were not the only Community classified as 'undesirable', many Gypsies and Blacks living in Nazi Germany were considered as racial 'inferiors' who threatened the biological purity of the superior Aryan Race.
- Even Russians and Poles were considered subhuman, and hence undeserving of any humanity.
- Jews remained the worst sufferers in Nazi Germany. They had been stereotyped as killers of Christ and usurers. They lived in separately marked areas called 'Ghettos'.
- From 1933 to 1938, the Nazis terrorised, pauperised and segregated the Jews, compelling them to leave the country.
- The next phase, 1939-1945, aimed at concentrating them in certain areas and eventually killing them in gas chambers in Poland.

The Racial Utopia

- Genocide and War became two sides of the same coin. Poland was divided and much of North-Western Poland was annexed to Germany.
- People of Poland were forced to leave their homes and properties.
- Members of the Polish intelligentsia were murdered in large numbers. Polish children who looked like Aryans were forcibly snatched from their mothers and examined by 'race experts'.



Key Terms

- **Genocidal:** Killing on a large-scale leading to destruction of large sections of people.
- **Jungvolk:** A separate section for Nazi boys upto 14 years of age.
- **Gypsy:** The groups that were classified as 'Gypsy' had their own community identity. Sinti and Roma were two such communities. Many of them traced their origin to India.
- **Pauperised:** Reduce to absolute poverty.
- **Persecution:** Systematic, organised punishment of those belonging to a group or religion.

- **Usurers:** Moneylenders charging excessive interest; often used as a term of abuse.

Topic-4

Youth, Ordinary people and the Crimes against Humanity

Revision Notes

- Hitler was fanatically interested in the youth of the Country. He felt that a strong Nazi society could be established only by teaching children Nazi ideology. This required a control over the child both inside and outside school.
- **Effects of Nazism on the School System:**
 - (i) All schools were 'cleansed' and 'purified'. This meant that teachers who were Jews or seen as politically unreliable were dismissed.
 - (ii) Children were first segregated – Germans and Jews could not sit together or play together.
 - (iii) Subsequently, undesirable children – Jews, the physically handicapped, Gypsies were thrown out of schools.
 - (iv) 'Good German' children were subjected to a process of Nazi schooling, a prolonged period of ideological training.
 - (v) School textbooks were rewritten. Racial science was introduced to justify Nazi ideas of race.
 - (vi) Children were taught to be loyal and submissive, hate Jews and worship Hitler.
 - (vii) Even the function of sports was to nurture a spirit of violence and aggression among children. Hitler believed that boxing could make children iron-hearted, strong and masculine.
- Youth organisations were made responsible for educating German youth in the 'The Spirit of National Socialism'. Ten year old German kids had to enter Jungvolk.
- At 14, all boys had to join the Nazi Youth Organisation – Hitler Youth – where they learnt to worship war, glorify aggression and violence, condemn democracy, and hate Jews, Communists, Gypsies and all those categorised as 'undesirable'.
- At the age of 18, the youth had to serve in the Armed Forces and enter one of the Nazi organisations. The Youth League of the Nazis was founded in 1922.

The Nazi Cult of Motherhood

- In Nazi Germany, children were told women were different from men.
- Boys were taught to be aggressive, masculine and steel-hearted and girls were told to become good mothers and rear pure-blooded Aryan children.
- Girls had to maintain purity of the race, distance from Jews, look after their home and teach their children Nazi values. But all mothers were not treated equally.
- Honour Crosses were awarded to encouraged women to produce more children.
- Bronze Cross for four children, silver for six and gold for eight or more. Women who maintained contact with Jews, Poles and Russians were paraded through the town with shaved heads, blackened faces and placards hanging around their necks announcing 'I have sullied the honour of the nation'.

The Art of Propaganda

- Nazis termed mass killings as special treatment, final solution (for the Jews), euthanasia (for the Disabled), selection and disinfections.
- 'Evacuation' meant deporting people to gas chambers. Gas Chambers were labelled as 'disinfection-areas', and looked like bathrooms equipped with fake shower heads.
- Nazi ideas were spread through visual images, films, radio, posters, catchy Slogans and leaflets.
- Orthodox Jews were stereotyped and marked and were referred to as vermin, rats and pests.
- The Nazis made equal efforts to appeal to all the different sections of the population.

Nazi's Propaganda

- They sought to win their support by suggesting that Nazis alone could solve all their problems.
- Many saw the world through Nazi eyes and spoke their mind in Nazi language. They felt hatred and anger surge inside them when they saw someone who looked like a Jew. But not every German was a Nazi.

Knowledge about the Holocaust

- The Nazi killing operation was also called the Holocaust. It comes from the Greek word 'Holo' and 'Kaustos', which literally means completely burnt. It is used to describe the mass murder of Jews by German Nazis between 1933 and 1945.



Key Terms

- **Jungvolk:** A separate section for Nazi boys upto 14 years of age.
- **Holocaust:** Mass murder of Jews by German Nazis between 1933 and 1945.



Key Date

- **1933 to 1945:** The mass murder of Jews by German Nazis.

SECTION-II : LIVELIHOODS, ECONOMIES AND SOCIETIES

CHAPTER-4

FOREST SOCIETY AND COLONIALISM

Topic-1 Why Deforestation?



Revision Notes

Uses of Forests:

- Forests give us a mixture of things to satisfy our different needs — fuel, fodder, leaves, trees suitable for building ships or railways and trees that can provide hard wood.
- Forest products like roots, fruits, tubers, herbs are used for medicinal purposes.
- Forests also provide bamboo, grass, charcoal, fruits, flowers, animals, birds and many other things.
- In the Amazon forests or in the Western Ghats, it is possible to find as many as 500 different plant species in one forest patch.
- A lot of this diversity is fast disappearing. Between 1700 and 1995, during the period of Industrialization, 13.9 million sq km of forest or 9.3 per cent of the world's total area was cleared for industrial uses, cultivation, pastures and fuel wood.
- **Deforestation:** Deforestation is cutting down of trees indiscriminately in a forest area. Under the colonial rule, it became very systematic and extensive.

Why Deforestation:

- As population increased over the centuries and the demand for food went up, peasants extended the boundaries of cultivation by clearing forests.
- The British encouraged the production of commercial crops like jute, sugar, wheat and cotton for their industries as raw materials.
- The British thought that forests were unproductive land as they yielded neither revenue nor agricultural produce. Cultivation was viewed as a sign of progress.
- Oak forests in England were disappearing. There was no timber supply for the Ship Building Industry. Forest resources of India were used to make ships for the Royal Navy.
- Spread of Railways required two things : Land to be cleared to lay railway tracks, wood as fuel for locomotives and for railway line sleepers.
- Large areas of natural forests were cleared for Tea, Coffee and Rubber Plantations. Thus, land was given to Planters at cheaper rates.



Key Terms

- **Forests:** Forests refer to natural ecosystem, consisting mainly of trees of different species and vegetation of different kinds providing habitat to different species of animals.
- **Deforestation:** Clearing of trees or the act of cutting down or burning the trees in the forest area for agricultural or commercial purpose is known as Deforestation.
- **Sleepers:** Wooden planks laid across railway tracks are called sleepers. They hold the tracks in position.



Key Dates

- **1600:** Approximately one-sixth of India's landmass was under cultivation.
- **1700–1995:** 9.3% of the world's total area was cleared for industrial use, cultivation of pastures and fuel wood.
- **1850:** The spread of Indian Railways.
- **1880–1920:** India's cultivated area rose by 6.7 million hectares. Terrible famines.
- **1946:** The length of railway tracks laid down was over 7,65,000 km.

Topic-2 The Rise of Commercial Forestry



Revision Notes

Introduction of Commercial Forestry:

- The British were worried that the use of forests by local people and the reckless felling of trees by traders would destroy forests.
- A German expert, Dietrich Brandis, was made the first Inspector General of Forests in India.
- Brandis realised that a proper system had to be introduced to manage the forests and people had to be trained in the Science of Conservation.
- So the Indian Forest Service was set up in 1864 which helped to formulate the Indian Forest Act of 1865. The Imperial Forest Research Institute was set up at Dehradun in 1906. The system they taught here was called 'Scientific Forestry.'
- Scientific Forestry encouraged Plantation Agriculture.
- The Forest Act of 1865 was amended twice in 1878 and 1927.
- The 1878 Act divided forests into three categories : Reserved, Protected and Village forests. The best forests were called 'Reserved Forests.'

How were the Lives of People Affected?

- Forest Management had a great impact on shifting cultivators. In Shifting Cultivation, parts of the forest are cut and burnt in rotation. European Foresters regarded this practice as harmful for the forests. They felt that such land could not be used for growing trees for Railway timber and was dangerous while being burnt as it could start a forest fire. This type of cultivation also made difficult for the Government to calculate taxes.
- The shifting cultivation or swidden agriculture has many local names such as *lading* in Southeast Asia, *milpa* in Central America, *chitemene* or *tavy* in Africa, and *chena* in Sri Lanka. In India, *dhya*, *penda*, *bewar*, *neavad*, *jhum*, *podu*, *khandad* and *kumri* are some of the local terms for swidden agriculture.
- In shifting cultivation, parts of the forest are cut and burnt in rotation. Seeds are sown in the ashes after the first monsoon rains, and the crop is harvested by October-November.

Who could Hunt?

- The new forest laws changed the lives of forest dwellers. Now the customary practice like hunting deer, partridges and a variety of small animals was prohibited by the forest laws.

- Now, the British enjoyed hunting the large animal and they believed that by killing dangerous animals the British would civilise India.
- Over 80,000 tigers, 150,000 leopards and 200,000 wolves were killed during the period 1875-1925. Gradually, the tiger came to be seen as a sporting trophy. The Maharaja of Sarguja alone shot 1,157 tigers and 2,000 leopards up to 1957.

New Trades, New Employments and New Services

- Many communities left their traditional occupations and started trading in forest products.
- This happened not only in India but across the world. For example, the Mundurucu peoples of the Brazilian Amazon gradually involved in trading posts and became completely dependent on traders.
- The British government gave many large European trading firms the sole right to trade in the forest products of particular areas. Grazing and hunting by local people were restricted. In the process, many pastoralist and nomadic communities like the Korava, Karacha and Yerukula of the Madras Presidency lost their livelihoods. Some of them began to be called 'criminal tribes', and were forced to work instead in factories, mines and plantations, under government supervision.
- In Assam, both men and women from forest communities like Santhals and Oraons from Jharkhand, and Gonds from Chhattisgarh were recruited to work on tea plantations. Their wages were low and conditions of work were very bad. They could not return easily to their home villages from where they had been recruited.

Key Terms

- **Scientific Forestry:** A system of cutting trees controlled by the Forest Department in which old trees are cut and new ones are planted.
- **Plantation:** A Plantation was a large area where one type of tree was planted in straight rows for commercial purpose.
- **Taungya Cultivation:** A system in which local farmers were allowed to cultivate temporarily within a plantation.
- **Swidden Agriculture:** A traditional agricultural practice in many parts of Asia, Africa and South America where parts of forests are cut and burnt in rotation. This is also known as Shifting Cultivation.

Key Personalities

- **Dietrich Brandis:** He was the First Inspector General of Forests in India.
- **George Yule:** A British Administrator who killed 400 Tigers.

Key Dates

- **1864:** The Indian Forest Service was set up by Dietrich Brandis.
- **1865:** The Indian Forest Act came into being.
- **1878:** The Indian Forest Act divided forests into three categories : Reserved, Protected and Village forests.
- **1906:** The Imperial Forest Research Institute was set up at Dehradun.

Topic-3

Rebellion in the Forest and Forest Transformations in Java



Revision Notes

- **The people of Bastar**
 - Bastar is located in the southernmost part of Chhattisgarh and on the borders of Andhra Pradesh, Odisha and Maharashtra. The central part of Bastar is situated on a plateau.

- A number of different communities live in Bastar, such as Maria and Muria Gonds, Dhurwas, Bhatras and Halbas. They speak different languages but share common customs and beliefs.
- The people of Bastar believe that each village was given its land by the Earth, and in return, they look after the Earth by making some offerings at each Agricultural Festival. They show respect to the spirits of the river, the forest and the mountain.
- Since each village knows where its boundaries lie, the local people look after all the natural resources within that boundary. If people from a village want to take some wood from the forests of another village, they pay a small fee called 'devsari', 'dand' or 'man' in exchange.
- Some villages also protect their forests by engaging watchmen and each household contributes some grain to pay them. Every year there is one big hunt where the headmen of villages meet and discuss issues of concern, including that of forests.

➤ **The Fears of the People**

- When the Colonial Government proposed to reserve two-thirds of the forest in 1905 and stop Shifting Cultivation, hunting and collection of forest produce the people of Bastar got very worried.
- Some villages were allowed to stay in the Reserved Forests on the condition that they worked free for the Forest Department in cutting and transporting trees, and protecting the forest from fire. So, these came to be known as *Forest Villages*.
- People of other villages were displaced without any notice or compensation. Villagers had been suffering from increased land rents and frequent demands for free labour and goods by Colonial Officials.
- Then the terrible famines came in 1899-1900 and again in 1907-1908. Rebellion became inevitable.

➤ **Results**

- In a major victory for the rebels, work on reservation was temporarily suspended.
- The area to be reserved was reduced to roughly half of that planned before 1910.
- Java is an island in Indonesia covered mostly with forests.
- There were many communities living in the mountains and practising shifting cultivation.
- In 1755, a community known as 'Kalanga' divided into two kingdoms and was later attacked by Dutch.

➤ **Forest Transformations in Java**

- The Dutch wanted timber from Java to build ships. The Dutch enacted Forest Laws in Java, restricting villagers' access to forests.
- Now, wood could only be cut for specified purposes like making River Boats or Constructing Houses, and only from specific forests under close supervision.
- Villagers were punished for grazing cattle in young stands, transporting wood without a permit, or travelling on forest roads with horse carts or cattle.
- As in India, the need to manage forests for Ship Building and Railways led to the introduction of a Forest Service by the Dutch in Java.
- The Dutch first imposed rents on land being cultivated in the forest and then exempted some villages from these rents if they worked collectively to provide free labour and buffaloes for cutting and transporting timber. This was known as the 'Blandongdiensten System'.

➤ **Samin's Challenge**

- In 1890s, Surontiko Samin, a Teak Forest Villager, began questioning State Ownership of the Forest. He argued that the state had not created the wind, water, earth and wood, so it could not own it.
- Soon, a widespread movement developed. Amongst those who helped to organize it was Samin's sons-in-law.
- By 1907, 3,000 families were following his ideas. Some of the Saminists protested by lying down on their land when the Dutch came to survey it, while others refused to pay taxes or fines or perform labour.

➤ **Wars and Deforestation**

- The First World War and the Second World War had a major impact on forests. In India, working plans were abandoned at this time, and the Forest Department cut trees freely to meet the British war needs.
- In Java, just before the Japanese occupied the region, the Dutch followed a scorched earth policy, destroying sawmills, and burning huge piles of giant teak logs so that they would not fall into Japanese hands.

- The Japanese then exploited the forests recklessly for their own war industries, forcing forest villagers to cut down forests.
 - After the war, it was difficult for the Indonesian Forest Service to get this land back. As in India, people's need for Agricultural Land has brought them into conflict with the Forest Department's desire to control the land and exclude people from it.
- **New Developments in Forestry**
- Since the 1980s, governments across Asia and Africa have begun to see that scientific forestry and the policy of keeping forest communities away from forests has resulted in many conflicts. Conservation of forests rather than collecting timber has become a more important goal.
 - The government has recognised that in order to meet this goal, the people who live near the forests must be involved. In many cases, across India, from Mizoram to Kerala, dense forests have survived only because villages protected them in sacred groves known as sarnas, devarakudu, kan, rai, etc.
 - Some villages have been patrolling their own forests, with each household taking it in turns, instead of leaving it to the forest guards.



Key Terms

- **Java:** Rice producing island, where Dutch started Forest Management.
- **Kalangs of Java:** Community of skilled Forest Cutters and Shifting Cultivators.
- **Blandongdiensten System:** This system was introduced by the Dutch in Java under which some villages were exempted from the taxes in terms of free labour and animals for cutting and transporting timber from forests.



Key Personalities

- **Gunda Dhur:** An inhabitant of Nethanar village, he was an important figure in the Bastar Rebellion.
- **Surontiko Samin:** An inhabitant of Randublatung village who started Movement against the State Ownership of Forests.



Key Dates

- **1755:** The Mataram Kingdom of Java split into two kingdoms.
- **1770:** The Kalangs rose in rebellion against Dutch but were suppressed.
- **1865:** Surontiko Samin started a Movement against the State Ownership of Forests.
- **1899–1908:** Terrible famines.
- **1910:** The Bastar Rebellion first started in the Kanger forest area.
- **1980:** Introduction of Scientific Forestry and restrictions imposed on the forest communities resulted in many conflicts.

Example

Describe the introduction of the Forest Service in Java under the Blandongdiensten System.

Answer:

Step 1: In Java, the need to manage forests for Ship Building and Railways led to the introduction of a Forest Service.

Step 2: In 1882, 280,000 sleepers were exported from Java alone. However, all this required labour to cut the trees, transport the logs and prepare the sleepers.

Step 3: The Dutch first imposed rents on land being cultivated in the forest and then exempted some villages from these rents if they worked collectively to provide free labour and buffaloes for cutting and transporting timber. This was known as the Blandongdiensten System.

Step 4: Later, instead of rent exemption, forest villagers were given small wages, but their right to cultivate on forest land was restricted.

CHAPTER-5

PASTORALISTS IN THE MODERN WORLD

Topic-1 Pastoral Nomads and their Movements

Revision Notes

Pastoralism as a way of life:

- Pastoralists are people who rear animals, birds and move from place to place in search of green pastures.
- They are nomadic tribes who need to move from one place to another to save their animals from adverse climatic conditions and to provide meadows or pastures regularly.
- Some of the pastoral nomads move to combine a range of activities – cultivation, trade and herding – to make their living easy.
- Continuous movement of nomadic tribes is useful for the environment.
- Pastoral nomadism is a form of life that is perfectly suited to many hilly and dry regions of the world. Pastoral movement allows time for the natural restoration of vegetational growth.
- Pastoralists play a very important role as moving traders.
- In search of good pasture land for their cattle, the pastoralists move over long distances for selling plough cattle and other goods to villagers in exchange for grain and fodder.

Different Pastoral Nomads and their Movements:

- **On the Mountains:**
 - **The Gujjar Bakarwals of Jammu and Kashmir :** They are pastoral nomads who move in groups called 'Kafila'. Their movements are governed by cold and snow. In winters, when the high mountains are covered with snow, these Gujjars move down to the low hills of the Shivalik range. On the onset of summer, when the snow melts and the mountains become lush and green, these pastoralists move back to the mountains.
 - **The Gaddi Shepherds of Himachal Pradesh** have a similar cycle of movement. They also spend the winter in the lower Shivalik hills and the summers in Lahaul and Spiti.
 - **The Gujjar cattle herders of Kumaon and Garhwal** spend their summers in the 'bugyals', and their winters in the 'bhabar'.
 - **The Bhotias, Sherpas and Kinnauri** follow the cyclic movement which helps them to adjust to seasonal changes and make best use of pastures.
- **On the plateaus, plains and deserts:**
 - **The Dhangars of Maharashtra:** The Dhangars stay in the central plateau of Maharashtra during the monsoon. This is a semi-arid region. By October, they begin their movement towards Konkan. Here, their cattle help to manure the fields and hence they are welcomed by the Konkani peasants. As soon as the monsoon sets in, they retreat back to the semi-arid land of Maharashtra.
 - **The Gollas** who herd cattle and the Kurumas and Kurubas who reared sheep and goat are from Karnataka and Andhra Pradesh. They live near the woods and in the dry periods they move to the coastal tracts.
 - **The Banjaras** of Uttar Pradesh, Punjab, Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh and Maharashtra move to different places in search of good pastures.
 - **The Raikas** of Rajasthan combine cultivation with pastoralism. When their grazing grounds become dry, they move to new and greener pastures.
 - Pastoral life was sustained by their sense of judgment:
 1. To know how long one must stay in an area.
 2. To know where they could find food and water.
 3. To assess and calculate the timings of their movement.
 - Their ability to set up a relationship with the farmers so that the herds could graze on the harvested fields.



Key Terms

- **Pastoralism:** The branch of agriculture concerned with the raising of livestock. It is a form of animal husbandry where the caring, tending and extraction of animal products is done from animals such as camels, goats, cattle, yaks, llamas, and sheep.
- **Nomads:** People who move from one place to another to earn their living.
- **Bugyal:** Vast meadows in the high mountains of Garhwal and Kumaon.
- **Gujjar:** Pastoral agricultural tribe of Kangra, great herders of goat and sheep.
- **Kafila:** Groups of many people who come together for a certain journey.
- **Raikas:** Pastoralists of Rajasthan.
- **Banjaras:** Well-known group of graziers, found in the villages of Uttar Pradesh, Punjab, Rajasthan and Madhya Pradesh.
- **Kharif:** The summer or monsoon crop, usually harvested between September and October.
- **Rabi:** The winter crop, usually harvested after March.
- **Stubble:** Lower ends of grain stalks left in the ground after harvesting.

Topic-2 Colonial Rule and Pastoral Life



Revision Notes

What happens to Pastoralism under colonialism and modern state?

- Colonial rule had far-reaching effects on the pastoralists and their lives. With the advent of colonialism, the pastoralists found that their movements became restricted, the grazing grounds for their cattle reduced in size and the revenue they had to pay increased.
- In addition, their agricultural stock dwindled and their trade and crafts were on the verge of destruction.
- Land was very important for the colonial state. It brought revenue as well as produced crops, both food as well as cash crops. Land revenue was the main source of finance for the state and cash crops were required for the British industries in England. Hence, all such land that was not cultivated, was regarded as wasteland, which could be brought under cultivation.
- During the mid-19th century onwards, 'Wasteland Rules' were enacted to bring cultivated land under cultivation. This greatly reduced the area of land which was being used as pastures by pastoral herds.
- Pastures began to decline at an alarming speed.

Introduction of Forest Acts:

- Certain Forest Acts were enacted in different provinces. This happened in the middle of the 19th century. According to these Acts, forests were categorised as 'Reserved' and 'Protected.' Those forests which produced commercial timber were known as 'Reserved,' while those in which some customary pastoral rights were granted but their movements were severely restricted were known as 'Protected'.
- These Acts changed the lives of pastoralists. Their entry into the forests was restricted. They were issued permits which had details of their entry and exit from the forest areas. These passes also specified the dates so that they could enter the forest. They could not remain in the forest at their will and in areas of their choice.
- The colonial government wanted to rule over a settled population and not a nomadic one. They were highly suspicious of the nomadic pastoralists.
- The colonial government passed the 'Criminal Tribes Act' in 1871 by which certain communities were classified as criminal by nature and birth. They had to live within a notified area and could not move without a permit. They were constantly under the supervision of the village policemen.
- The colonial government imposed taxes on land, water, trade goods, etc. They even imposed a tax on animals. Grazing tax was also introduced in the grazing tracts. The pastoralists had to pay a tax on every animal they had, in addition to the grazing tax. The system of tax collection was very rigid.

➤ Coping with changes:

- (1) Some reduced the number of cattle in their herds.
- (2) Some discovered new pastures.

- (3) Richer pastoralists started buying land and gave up their nomadic life.
- (4) Most lost their cattle and became labourers.
- (5) While some became settled peasants, others took to more extensive trading.



Key Terms

- **Wasteland Rules:** Wasteland Rules were enacted in various parts of the country. By these rules, uncultivated land was taken over and given to selected individuals.
- **Reserved forest:** Those forests which produced commercial timber were known as Reserved forests.
- **Protected forest:** Those forests in which some customary pastoral rights were granted but their movements were severely restricted were known as 'Protected'.
- **Criminal Tribes Act:** The Criminal Tribes Act was passed in 1871 by which many nomadic communities were declared as criminal tribes.

Example

Describe five main features of the Criminal Tribes Act introduced by the colonial government in India.

Answer:

Step 1: By this Act, many communities of craftsmen, traders and pastoralists were classified as Criminal Tribes. They were stated to be criminal by nature and birth.

Step 2: These communities were expected to live only in notified village settlements. They were not allowed to move out without permit.

Step 3: The village police kept a continuous watch on them. Settled groups were considered peaceful and law abiding.

Step 4: Nomads were considered criminals. Because of their movement, the nomads could not be taxed, identified or controlled.

Topic-3 Pastoralism in Africa

Revision Notes

- Even today, over 22 million Africans depend on some form of pastoral activity for their livelihood. They include communities like Bedouins, Berbers, Maasai, Somali, Boran and Turkana. Most of them now live in the semi-arid grasslands or arid deserts where rainfed agriculture is difficult.
- They raise cattle, camels, goats, sheep and donkeys; and they sell milk, meat, animal skin and wool. Some also earn through trade and transport, others combine pastoral activity with agriculture; still others do a variety of odd jobs to supplement their meagre and uncertain earnings from pastoralism.
- The Maasai cattle herders live primarily in east Africa: 300,000 in southern Kenya and another 150,000 in Tanzania.
- These cattle herders live primarily in the East Africa. Rules, laws and regulations have changed their way of life. There are many problems which they have faced, the most prominent one being continuous loss of their grazing grounds.

Where have the Grazing Lands gone?

- The Maasais have faced the continuous loss of their grazing lands. Before colonial times, Maasailand stretched over a vast area from north Kenya to the steppes of northern Tanzania.
- In the late nineteenth century, European imperial powers scrambled for territorial possessions in Africa, slicing up the region into different colonies. In 1885, Maasailand was cut into half with an international boundary between British Kenya and German Tanganyika.
- Subsequently, the best grazing lands were gradually taken over for people and the Maasai were pushed into a small area in Kenya and south Kenya and north Tanzania.

- **Reasons :** In the 19th century, European imperial powers scrambled for territorial possessions in Africa. They divided the region into different colonies. The best grazing grounds were taken over by the white settlements. Grazing grounds were converted to cultivated land and national parks and *game reserves*. The Kaokoland herders have faced a similar fate.
- From the late nineteenth century, the British colonial government in east Africa also encouraged local peasant communities to expand cultivation. As cultivation expanded, pasture lands were turned into cultivated fields. In pre-colonial times, the Maasai pastoralists had dominated their agricultural neighbours both economically and politically. By the end of colonial rule, the situation had reversed.
- Large areas of grazing land were also turned into game reserves like the Maasai Mara and Samburu National Park in Kenya and Serengeti Park in Tanzania.
- The loss of the finest grazing lands and water resources created pressure on the small area of land that the Maasai were confined within.
- **The Borders are Closed**
 - From the late nineteenth century, the colonial government began imposing various restrictions on their mobility. Like the Maasai, other pastoral groups were also forced to live within the confines of special reserves. Those found guilty of disobeying the rules were severely punished.
 - The new territorial boundaries and restrictions imposed on them suddenly changed the lives of pastoralists. This adversely affected both their pastoral and trading activities.
- **When Pastures Dry**
 - Drought affects the life of pastoralists everywhere. When rains fail and pastures are dry, cattle are likely to starve unless they can be moved to areas where forage is available.
 - But from the colonial period, the Maasai were bound down to a fixed area, confined within a reserve, and prohibited from moving in search of pastures. In just two years of severe drought, 1933 and 1934, over half the cattle in the Maasai Reserve died.
- **Not All were Equally Affected**
 - In pre-colonial times Maasai society was divided into two social categories – elders and warriors. The elders formed the ruling group and met in periodic councils to decide on the affairs of the community and settle disputes.
 - The warriors consisted of younger people, mainly responsible for the protection of the tribe.
 - Raiding was important in a society where cattle was wealth. Young men came to be recognised as members of the warrior class when they proved their manliness by raiding the cattle of other pastoral groups and participating in wars. They, however, were subject to the authority of the elders.
 - To administer the affairs of the Maasai, the British introduced a series of measures that had important implications. They appointed chiefs of different sub-groups of Maasai, who were made responsible for the affairs of the tribe. The British imposed various restrictions on raiding and warfare. Consequently, the traditional authority of both elders and warriors was adversely affected.
 - The chiefs appointed by the colonial government often accumulated wealth over time. They had a regular income with which they could buy animals, goods and land. They lent money to poor neighbours who needed cash to pay taxes. Many of them began living in towns, and became involved in trade.
 - The social changes in Maasai society occurred at two levels. First, the traditional difference based on age, between the elders and warriors, was disturbed, though it did not break down entirely. Second, a new distinction between the wealthy and poor pastoralists was developed.



Key Terms

- **Pastoral community in Africa :** Bedouins, Berbers, Maasai, Somali, Boran and Turkana.
- **Maasai :** The Maasai are nomadic people inhabiting in Southern Kenya and Northern Tanzania.

UNIT – II: CONTEMPORARY INDIA-I

CHAPTER-6

INDIA: SIZE & LOCATION

Topic-1 Location and Size



Revision Notes

- India is considered as one of the ancient civilizations in the world.
- India has achieved multifaceted socio-economic progress in the varied domains like: field of agriculture, industry, technology, overall economic development etc.

Location

- India lies in the Northern Hemisphere.
- The mainland extends between latitudes 8°4'N and 37°6'N and longitudes 68°7'E and 97°25'E.
- The Tropic of Cancer (23°30'N) passes through the centre of India and divides the country into almost two equal halves.
- The North-South extent of India is approximately 3,200 km.
- The East-West extent of the country is 2,933 km approximately.
- Indira Point is the southernmost point of the Indian Union. It got submerged under the sea water in 2004 during the Tsunami.

Size

- The total area of Indian landmass is 3.28 million square km.
- India's total area accounts for about 2.4 per cent of the total geographical area of the world.
- India is the seventh largest country of the world.
- India has a land boundary of about 15,200 km and the total length of the coast line of the mainland including the Andaman and Nicobar and the Lakshadweep is 7,516.6 km.
- The Northwest, North and Northeast boundaries of India are characterized by the young fold mountains.
- South of about 22° north latitude extends towards the Indian Ocean which is dividing it into two seas, in west its the Arabian Sea and the Bay of Bengal on its east.
- The latitudinal and longitudinal extent of the mainland is about 30°.
- Time measurement from the Standard Meridian of India (82°30'E) which passes through Mirzapur in Uttar Pradesh, is taken as the standard time for the whole country. It is also called IST.



Key Terms

- **Equator:** An imaginary line drawn around the middle of the earth that divides it into two equal halves.
- **Latitude:** The angular distance from the equator of a point (north or south) on the earth's surface, measured on the meridian of the point. It ranges from 0° at the Equator to 90° (North or South) at the Poles.
- **Longitude:** The angular distance on the earth's surface, measured East or West from the Prime Meridian at Greenwich, England, to the meridian passing through a position, expressed in degrees (or hours), minutes, and seconds.
- **Indian Standard Time (IST):** The time which is applicable all over India is called Indian Standard Time. The Standard Meridian of India is 82°30'E longitude, passing through Mirzapur in Uttar Pradesh. It is five and half hours ahead of Greenwich Mean Time (GMT).
- **Strait:** A narrow channel of sea which separates two land masses.

Example

India has a long coastline which is advantageous. Explain.

Answer

Step 1: The total length of the coastline of the mainland, including Andaman and Nicobar and Lakshadweep, is 7,516.6 km.

Step 2: It is advantageous because of the following reasons:

Step 3: India's central location and long coastline have helped in interacting with the world.

Step 4: Major ports on the Eastern and the Western Coast help in the import and export of goods from India, developing its trade.

Step 5: The coastline has contributed in the exchange of ideas and commodities.

Topic-2 India and the World; India's Neighbours

Revision Notes

India and the World

- Location of India in the world plays an important role because of the following reasons:
 - The Indian landmass has a central location between the East and West Asia.
 - India is a Southward extension of the Asian continent.
 - The Trans-Indian Ocean routes connecting the countries of Europe in the West and the countries of East Asia provide a strategic central location to India.
 - The Deccan Peninsula protrudes into the Indian Ocean which helps it to establish close contact with West Asia, Africa and Europe from the western coast and with Southeast and East Asia from the eastern coast.
 - No other country has such a long coastline on the Indian Ocean as India has, and indeed, it is India's strategic position in the Indian Ocean which justifies the naming of an ocean after it.
- Distance between India and Europe has been reduced by 7,000 km after the opening of the Suez Canal in 1869.
- India is connected with Europe, North America and South America with the Suez Canal and the Cape of Good Hope through the sea routes.

India's neighbours

- India has 28 states and 8 Union Territories.
- India shares its land boundaries with Pakistan and Afghanistan in the Northwest, China (Tibet), Nepal and Bhutan in the North along with Myanmar and Bangladesh in the East.
- Our southern neighbours across the sea consist of the two island countries *i.e.*, Sri Lanka and Maldives.
- Sri Lanka is separated from India by a narrow channel of sea formed by the Palk Strait and the Gulf of Mannar.
- India has had strong geographical and historical links with its neighbours.



Key Terms

- **Tropic of Cancer:** It runs to the parallel of latitude which is approximately 23°30'N of the Equator.
- **Peninsular Plateau:** It is a tableland composed of the old crystalline, igneous and metamorphic rocks.
- **Provinces:** States ruled directly by British officials who were appointed by the Viceroy.
- **Princely States:** States ruled by local, hereditary rulers, who acknowledged sovereignty in return for local autonomy.

CHAPTER-7

PHYSICAL FEATURES OF INDIA

Topic-1 Major Physiographic Divisions



Revision Notes

- India is a large landmass formed during different geological periods which has influenced its relief.
- Besides geological formations, a number of processes such as weathering, erosion and deposition are also responsible for creating and modifying the relief to its present form.
- The Gondwana land includes today Africa, South America, Australia, Antarctica, the Indian subcontinent and the Arabian Peninsula.
- Geologically, the Peninsular Plateau constitutes one of the ancient landmasses on the earth's surface. The Himalayas and the Northern Plains are the most recent landforms.
- Most volcanoes and earthquakes in the world are located at plate margins, but some do occur within the plates.

Major Physiographic Divisions

- The physical features of India can be grouped under the following physiographic divisions:
 - The Himalayan Mountains
 - The Northern Plains
 - The Peninsular Plateau
 - The Indian Desert
 - The Coastal Plains
 - The Islands



Key Terms

- **Gondwana Land:** It was an ancient supercontinent that broke up about 180 million years ago. The continent eventually split into landmasses that we recognise today as Africa, South America, Australia, Antarctica, the Indian subcontinent and the Arabian Peninsula.

Topic-2 The Himalayan Mountains



Revision Notes

The Himalayan Mountains

- The Himalayas, geologically young and structurally fold mountains, stretch over the northern borders of India.
- These mountain ranges run in a West–East direction from the Indus to the Brahmaputra.
- An arc is formed by the mountains that cover a distance of about 2,400 km.
- The altitudinal variations are greater in the eastern half than those in the western half.
- The Himalayas consist of three parallel ranges in its longitudinal extent.
 - **Great or Inner Himalayas or the Himadri :** The northern-most range, consisting of the loftiest peaks with an average height of 6,000 m.

- **Himachal or Lesser Himalaya :** The range lying to the South of the Himadri forms the most rugged mountain system. The altitude varies between 3,700 to 4,500 metres and the average width is 50 km. The ranges are mainly composed of highly compressed and altered rocks.
- **Shiwaliks:** The outermost range of the Himalayas. Their width varies from 10–50 km and has an altitude varying between 900 to 1,100 m. These ranges are composed of unconsolidated sediments brought down by rivers from the main Himalayan ranges located farther north.
- The longitudinal valleys lying between the lesser Himalayas and the Shiwaliks are known as 'Duns'.
- Apart from longitudinal divisions, the Himalayas have also been divided by river valleys on the basis of regions from West to East.



Key Terms

- **Himadri:** The northern-most range is known as the Greater or Inner Himalayas or the 'Himadri'.
- **Himachal:** The range lying to the South of the Himadri forms the most rugged mountain system and is known as Himachal or Lesser Himalaya.
- **Purvanchal:** Mountains along the eastern boundary of India are called the Purvanchal.
- **Shiwaliks:** The outer-most range of Himalayas is called the Shiwaliks.

Topic-3 The Northern Plains and The Peninsular Plateau



Revision Notes

The Northern Plains

- The Northern Plains have been formed by the interplay of the three major river systems, i.e., the Indus, Ganga and Brahmaputra along with their tributaries.
- This densely populated physiographic division spreads over an area of 7 lakh sq. km.
- With rich soil cover, combined with adequate water supply and favourable climate, it is agriculturally a very productive part of India.
- The Northern Plains are broadly divided into three sections—Punjab Plain, Ganga Plain and Brahmaputra Plain.
- Bhangar is the largest part of the Northern Plains, formed of older alluvium.
- Majuli in the Brahmaputra River is the largest inhabited riverine island in the world.

The Peninsular Plateau

- The Peninsular Plateau is a tableland composed of the old crystalline, igneous and metamorphic rocks.
- This plateau consists of two broad divisions — the Central Highlands and the Deccan Plateau.
- The part of the Peninsular Plateau lying to the North of the Narmada River covering a major area of the Malwa Plateau is known as the Central Highlands.
- The Deccan Plateau is a triangular landmass that lies to the South of the River Narmada.
- The Western Ghats and the Eastern Ghats mark the western and the eastern edges of the Deccan Plateau respectively.
- The continuous Western Ghats lie parallel to the western coast.
- The discontinuous and irregular Eastern Ghats stretch from the Mahanadi Valley to the Nilgiris in the South.
- The highest peaks of the Western Ghats are the Anai Mudi (2,695 metres) and the Doda Betta (2,637 metres).
- Mahendragiri (1,501 m) is the highest peak in the Eastern Ghats.
- The Deccan Trap, the region of black soil, is one of the distinct features of the Peninsular Plateau.



Key Terms

- **Bhabar:** Bhabar is a belt of pebbles extending from 8-16 km in width in which stream disappears.
- **Terai:** Terai is a wet, swampy, marshy region with thick forests and wildlife.
- **Bhangar:** Bhangar is a terrace-like feature made of old alluvium. It contains calcareous deposits called Kankar.
- **Khadar:** Khadar is the flood plain which is renewed every year and is very fertile.
- **Central Highlands:** The part of the Peninsular Plateau which lies to the North of the Narmada River.
- **Deccan Plateau:** The part of the Peninsular Plateau which lies to the South of the Narmada River.
- **Doab:** It is made up of two words- 'do' meaning two and 'ab' meaning water.

Example

Q. Give an account of the Deccan Plateau.

Answer:

- Step 1:** It is a triangular landmass that lies to the South of the River Narmada. The Satpura range flanks its broad base in the North, while the Mahadev forms its eastern extensions.
- Step 2:** The Deccan Plateau is higher in the West and slopes gently Eastwards. It is separated by a fault from the Chota Nagpur Plateau. Three prominent

hill ranges from the West to East are the Garo, Khasi and the Jaintia Hills. The Western Ghats and the Eastern Ghats mark the western and eastern edges of the Deccan Plateau respectively. The Western Ghats lie parallel to the Western Coast and Eastern Ghats lie parallel to the Eastern Coast.

Step 3: An extension of the plateau is also visible in the Northeast. It is locally known as the Meghalaya, Karbi-Anglong Plateau and North Cachar Hills.

Topic-4

The Indian Desert , The Coastal Plains and The Islands



Revision Notes

The Indian Desert

- The Indian Desert lies towards the western margins of the Aravalli Hills. It is an undulating sandy plain covered with sand dunes.
- The region is characterized by arid climate, very low rainfall below 150 mm per year with scanty vegetation cover.
- Luni is the only large river in this region.
- Barchans or the crescent-shaped dunes and longitudinal dunes are very prominent near the Indo-Pakistan boundary. For example; in Jaisalmer there are groups of barchans seen here.

The Coastal Plains

- The Peninsular Plateau is flanked by stretch of narrow coastal strips, running along the Arabian Sea in the west and the Bay of Bengal in the east.
- The Western Coast consists of three sections— Konkan Coast, Kannad Plain and Malabar Coast.
- The Eastern Coast is divided into the Northern Circars and Coromandel Coasts.
- The Chilika Lake is the largest salt water lake in India.

The Islands

- The small coral islands, the Lakshadweep Islands group, lies close to the Malabar Coast of Kerala.
- Kavaratti Island is the administrative headquarters of Lakshadweep.
- There is a bird sanctuary in the Pitti Island.
- The elongated chain of islands extending from north to south is located in the Bay of Bengal. These are Andaman and Nicobar Islands.

- These islands lie close to the Equator and experience equatorial climate and have thick forest cover.
- India's only active volcano is found on the Barren Island in Andaman and Nicobar group of Islands.
- The diverse physical features of the land have immense future possibilities of development.



Key Terms

- **Stream:** A natural flow of water that is smaller than a river.
- **Barchan:** A crescent-shaped sand dune with the convex side in the direction of the wind.
- **Western Coastal Plain:** A thin strip of coastal plain between the Western Ghats and the Arabian Sea.
- **Eastern Coastal Plain:** A wide stretch of landmass of India, lying between the Eastern Ghats and the Bay of Bengal.
- **Island:** A piece of land that is completely surrounded by sea, a river or lake.
- **Coral polyps :** Short-lived microscopic organisms, which live in colonies.
- **Flora:** The plants of a particular region or period.
- **Fauna:** The collective term for the species of animals in a particular region or period.

CHAPTER-8

DRAINAGE

Topic-1 Major Rivers and Tributaries

Revision Notes

Drainage Patterns

- The term Drainage describes the River system of an area.
- The area drained by a single river system is called a Drainage Basin.
- Any elevated area, such as a mountain or upland, separates two drainage basins. Such upland is known as a Water Divide.
- The world's largest Drainage Basin is that of the Amazon River.

Drainage System in India

- The Drainage systems of India are mainly controlled by the broad relief features of the subcontinent.
- The Indian rivers are divided into two major groups: the Himalayan rivers and the Peninsular rivers.
- Most of the Himalayan rivers are perennial, therefore, they have water throughout the year.
- The Himalayan rivers have long courses from their source to the sea.
- A large number of Peninsular rivers are seasonal, as their flow is dependent on rainfall.

The Himalayan Rivers

- The major Himalayan Rivers include the Indus, the Ganga and the Brahmaputra. These rivers are long and are joined by many large and important tributaries.
- A river along with its tributaries is called a River System.

The Ganga River System

- The headwaters of the Ganga, called the Bhagirathi, is fed by the Gangotri Glacier and joined by the Alaknanda at Devaprayag in Uttarakhand.
- The Ganga is joined by many tributaries from the Himalayas, such as the Yamuna, the Ghaghara, the Gandak and the Kosi.

- The main tributaries, which come from the peninsular uplands, are the Chambal, the Betwa and the Son.
- The river bifurcates in West Bengal and the Bhagirathi – Hooghly flows Southwards through the deltaic plains into the Bay of Bengal.
- The delta formed by the Ganga and the Brahmaputra rivers is known as the Sunderban Delta.
- The Sunderban Delta is the world's largest and fastest growing delta. It is also the home of the Royal Bengal Tiger.
- The length of the river Ganga is over 2,500 kms.

The Brahmaputra River System

- The Brahmaputra rises in Tibet, east of Mansarovar Lake, very close to the sources of the Indus and the Satluj.
- Brahmaputra is known as Tsang Po in Tibet and Jamuna in Bangladesh.
- The Brahmaputra has a braided channel in its entire length in Assam and forms many Riverine Islands.
- Every year, during the rainy season, the river overflows its banks, causing widespread devastation due to floods in Assam and Bangladesh.

The Peninsular Rivers

- The main water divide in Peninsular India is formed by the Western Ghats, which runs from North to South, close to the Western Coast.
- Major rivers of the peninsula are the Narmada and the Tapi, Mahanadi, Godavari, Krishna and Kaveri. They flow eastwards and drain into the Bay of Bengal. These rivers make deltas at their mouths.
- The Narmada and the Tapi are the only long rivers, which flow westward and make estuaries.

The Narmada Basin

- The Narmada rises in the Amarkantak Hills in Madhya Pradesh.
- The Marble Rocks, near Jabalpur, where the Narmada flows through a deep gorge, and the Dhuadhar Falls, where the river plunges over steep rocks, are some of the notable locations along the Narmada River.
- The Narmada basin covers parts of Madhya Pradesh and Gujarat.

The Tapi Basin

- The Tapi rises in the Satpura ranges, in the Betul district of Madhya Pradesh.
- Its basin covers parts of Madhya Pradesh, Gujarat and Maharashtra.

The Godavari Basin

- The Godavari is the largest Peninsular River.
- It rises from the slopes of the Western Ghats in the Nashik District of Maharashtra. Its length is about 1,500 km.
- The drainage basin of the Godavari River is the largest among the Peninsular rivers.
- Important tributaries of the Godavari are the Purna, Wardha, Pranhita, Manjra, Wainganga and Penganga.
- The Godavari River is also known as the 'Dakshin Ganga' because of its length and the area it covers.

The Mahanadi Basin

- The Mahanadi rises in the highlands of Chhattisgarh.
- It flows through Odisha to reach the Bay of Bengal.

The Krishna Basin

- Rising from a spring near Mahabaleshwar, the Krishna flows for about 1,400 km and reaches the Bay of Bengal.
- Tungabhadra, Koyana, Ghatprabha, Musi and Bhima are some of its tributaries.

The Kaveri Basin

- The Kaveri rises in the Brahmagiri range of the Western Ghats and it reaches to the Bay of Bengal.
- The main tributaries are the Amravati, the Bhavani, the Hemavati and the Kabini.
- Its basin drains parts of Karnataka, Kerala and Tamil Nadu.
- The River Kaveri makes the second biggest waterfall in India, known as Sivasamudram.



Key Terms

- **Basin:** A part of the earth's surface consisting of rock strata that slopes down to a common centre.
- **Drainage Basin:** The area drained by a single River System is called a Drainage Basin.

- **Water Divide:** Any elevated area, such as a mountain or an upland, separating two drainage basins. Such an upland is known as a Water Divide.
- **Perennial:** It is a stream or river that exhibits continuous flow of water throughout the year.
- **Dendritic:** The stream with its tributaries which resembles the branches of a tree. Thus, the name Dendritic.
- **Trellis:** A river joined by its tributaries, at approximately right angles, develops a Trellis pattern.
- **Rectangular:** A drainage pattern that develops on a strongly joint rocky terrain.
- **Radial:** The Radial pattern develops when streams flow in different directions from a central peak or dome-like structure.
- **River System:** A River System is a way of defining the larger networks of streams, lakes and rivers that are part of a larger river's network of tributaries and distributaries.
- **Distributary:** A stream or small river that splits off from a larger river and flows in a different direction.
- **Sunderban Delta:** The World's largest and fastest growing delta. It is also the home of the Royal Bengal Tiger.
- **Peninsula:** A large area bounded by the sea on three sides.
- **Delta:** A piece of land shaped like a triangle that is formed when a river splits into smaller rivers before it flows into an ocean.
- **Tributary:** A river or stream that flows into a larger river or lake.
- **Estuary:** The tidal mouth of a large river, where the tide meets the stream.

Topic-2 Lakes

Revision Notes

Lakes

- Lake is a large area of water surrounded by land. Lakes of large extent are called the Seas, like the Caspian, the Dead and the Aral Sea.
- India has many lakes. These differ from each other in the size and other characteristics. Most lakes are permanent, while others contain water only during the rainy season.
- Lakes are formed by the following processes: the action of glaciers and ice sheets, by wind, river action and human activities.
- Most of the freshwater lakes are in the Himalayan region. They are of glacial origin.
- The Wular Lake in Jammu and Kashmir is the largest freshwater lake in India.
- Apart from natural lakes, the damming of the rivers for the generation of Hydel Power has also led to the formation of lakes such as Guru Gobind Sagar Lake (Bhakra Nangal Project).
- **Importance of lakes:**
 - A lake helps to regulate the flow of a river.
 - During heavy rainfall, it prevents flooding, and during the dry season, it helps to maintain an even flow of water.
 - Lakes can also be used for developing Hydel Power.
 - They moderate the climate of the surroundings; maintain the aquatic ecosystem, enhance natural beauty, help develop tourism and provide recreation.



Key Terms

- **Ox-bow lake:** It is a U-shaped water body formed when a meandering river is cut off from the mainstream.
- **Lagoon:** When the lake is formed by spits and bars in coastal areas, it is called a lagoon.
- **Glacial lake:** A lake formed by melting of the glacier is called a glacial lake.

Topic-3 Role of Rivers in the Economy and River Pollution

Revision Notes

Role of Rivers in the Economy

- Rivers are of great value to human beings:
 - Rivers have been of fundamental importance throughout the human history.
 - Water from the rivers is a basic natural resource, essential for various human activities.
 - The river banks have attracted settlers from ancient times. These settlements have now become big cities.
 - Using rivers for Irrigation, Navigation, Hydro-Power Generation is of special significance – particularly to a country like India, where Agriculture is the major source of livelihood of the majority of its population.

River Pollution

- The growing domestic, municipal, industrial and agricultural demand for water from rivers naturally affects the quality of water.
 - As a result more and more water is being drained out of the rivers reducing their volume.
 - On the other hand, a heavy load of untreated sewage and industrial effluents are emptied into the rivers.
 - This affects not only the quality of water but also the self-cleaning capacity of the river.
- The increasing urbanisation and industrialisation are responsible for the rising pollution level of many rivers.
- Concern over rising pollution in our rivers led to the launching of various action plans to clean the rivers.



Key Terms

- **Irrigation:** Supply of water for agriculture purpose from canals, wells and tanks artificially or manually.
- **Navigation:** Travel or traffic by vessels, especially commercial shipping.
- **Hydro-power:** Power derived from running or falling water.
- **River pollution:** It is a form of water pollution which occurs due to the direct or indirect discharge of pollutants into the river.
- **Urbanisation:** The process by which towns and cities are formed and become larger, as more and more people begin living and working in central areas.
- **Industrialisation:** The development of industries in a country or region on a wide scale.

Example

Describe the major steps taken by the Government of India to control the pollution level in the River Ganga.

Answer:

Step 1: Major steps taken by Government of India to control the pollution level in the River Ganga.

Step 2: Treating of waste before dumping in the river.

Step 3: Taking projects to control River water pollution like Ganga Action Plan. The activities of Ganga Action Plan (GAP) Phase-I, initiated in 1985, were declared closed on 31st March, 2000.

Step 4: The Steering Committee of the National River Conservation Authority reviewed the

progress of the GAP and did necessary correction on the basis of lesson learnt and experiences gained from GAP Phase-I. These have been applied to the major polluted rivers of the country under the NRCP. The Ganga Action Plan (GAP) Phase-II, has been merged with the NRCP. The expanded NRCP now covers 152 towns located along 27 interstate rivers in 16 states.

Step 5: Under this action plan, pollution abatement works are being taken up in 57 towns. A total of 215 schemes of pollution abatement have been sanctioned. So far, 69 schemes have been completed under this action plan. A million litres of sewage is targeted to be treated.

CHAPTER-9

CLIMATE

Topic-1 Climate of India

Revision Notes

Concept:

- Weather describes the day-to-day meteorological conditions such as wind, temperature, cloudiness, moisture, rainfall, etc., affecting a place. Climate is the average weather, usually taken over 30-years period for a particular region and time. The basic elements of weather are wind, temperature, air pressure, precipitation and moisture.
- 'Monsoon' refers to the seasonal reversal in the wind direction during the year. The two important elements of climate are temperature and precipitation.

Indian Climate:

- In some parts of the Rajasthan Desert, the temperature in summers is 50°C, whereas summer temperature in Jammu and Kashmir is 20°C. On a winter night, temperature at Drass in Ladakh may be as low as minus 45°C. Thiruvananthapuram, on the other hand, may have a temperature of 22°C. Drass is the second coldest inhabited place in the world.
- In India, the Tropic of Cancer passes through the central part of the country, from the Rann of Kutch in the West to Mizoram in the East. India has both tropical and subtropical types of climate.
- Contrasts in temperature are experienced more in the interior of the country. The rainfall in India varies in its form, types, amount and seasonal distribution. In the upper parts of the Himalayas, precipitation is mostly in the form of snowfall, whereas the remaining parts of the country receive rains.
- The annual precipitation varies from over 400 cm in Meghalaya to less than 10 cm in Ladakh and western Rajasthan. Most parts of the country receive rainfall from June to September. But some parts like the Tamil Nadu coast gets a large portion of its rain during October and November.
- There is a decrease in the rainfall generally from East to West in the Northern Plains. Climatic variations also affect the way people live, i.e., depends on the food, the clothes and the kind of houses they live in.
- In India, the elevation of land ranges from 30 metres to 6,000 metres. The Himalayan mountains to the North of India have an average height of about 6,000 metres. The average summer temperature on the Himalayas can vary from 0°C to 14°C, while winters can see the temperature dipping below freezing point along with heavy snowfall. The Himalayas prevent the cold winds from Central Asia from entering the subcontinent. The rainfall in India is governed mainly by pressure and surface winds, upper air circulation and western cyclonic disturbances and tropical cyclones.
- Because of the Coriolis Force, these winds move on towards the equatorial low-pressure area. The Coriolis Force also known as 'Ferrel's Law,' is an apparent force caused by the Earth's rotation. This force deflects winds towards the right in the Northern Hemisphere and towards the left in the Southern Hemisphere.
- The north-easterly winds are land-bearing winds; hence, they carry very little moisture and bring little or no rain in India.
- During winter, a high-pressure area is created in the north of the Himalayas. In summer, a low-pressure area develops over interior Asia as well as over North-western India. This causes a complete reversal of the direction of winds during summer.
- Winds move from the high-pressure area over the southern Indian Ocean, cross the Equator and turn right towards the low-pressure areas over the Indian subcontinent. These winds are known as the South-west monsoon winds.
- An important component of the flow is the Jet Stream. Jet Streams are a narrow belt of high altitude westerly winds that blow in the Troposphere. Their speed varies from about 110 kilometres per hour in summer to about 184 kilometres per hour in winter.

- A number of separate Jet streams have been identified. The most constant are the mid-latitude and the sub-tropical Jet streams. They originate from the Mediterranean Region and are known as Subtropical Westerly Jet Streams. An Easterly Jet Stream, called the Tropical Easterly Jet Stream, blows over peninsular India, approximately over 14°N during the summer months. The movement of water in the oceans is called Currents.



Key Terms

- **Climate:** General weather conditions over a period of thirty years is said to be the Climate of a place.
- **Elements of weather:** Temperature, Atmospheric pressure, Wind, Humidity and Precipitation are the elements of Weather and Climate.
- **Monsoon:** Monsoon is basically a seasonal reversal in the wind through the year.
- **South-West Monsoons:** Winds move from the high-pressure area over the southern Indian Ocean, cross the Equator and turn right towards the low-pressure areas over the Indian subcontinent. These winds are known as the South-West Monsoon winds.
- **Subtropical Westerly Jet Streams:** The most constant are the mid-latitude and the Sub-tropical Jet Streams. They originate from the Mediterranean region and are known as Subtropical Westerly Jet Streams.
- **Easterly Jet Stream:** An Easterly Jet Stream, called the Tropical Easterly Jet Stream, blows over Peninsular India, approximately over 14°N during the summer months.
- **Currents:** The movement of water in the oceans is called Currents.
- **Coriolis Force:** It is an apparent force caused by the Earth's rotation. This force deflects winds towards the right in the Northern Hemisphere and towards the left in the Southern Hemisphere.

Topic-2 Climate Controls



Revision Notes

- The day-to-day changes that we experience are referred to as Weather. Weather is the state of the atmosphere of a particular area at any point of time. Atmospheric conditions that describe the weather include elements like Temperature, Precipitation, Pressure, Wind and Humidity.
- During a year, the Weather changes in cycles, the cyclic changes in the atmospheric conditions are called Seasons. By observing the weather pattern for longer periods, usually over 30 years, the Climate of a place can also be determined. The basic elements of Weather are Wind, Temperature, Air pressure, Precipitation and Moisture.
- Climate describes the long-term pattern of weather that generally prevails over an area. Based on climatic differences, the world can be divided into a number of climatic regions. Each climatic region has its own characteristic vegetation and wildlife. The climatic conditions also influence the lifestyles of the people living in these regions.

Factors Affecting India's Climate:

- The factors affecting the climate of a place are referred to as 'controls' and they are: Latitude, Altitude, Pressure and Wind System, Distance from the Sea (continentally), Ocean Currents and Relief Features.
- Altitude is another factor controlling the climate of a place. Altitude refers to the height of a place above sea level. The higher one travels into the Troposphere, the lower the temperature becomes. The rate at which the temperature drops is known as the Lapse Rate.
- The variations in air temperature control the pressure and wind system of a place. Warm air rises, creating low pressure areas, while cold air sinks, creating high pressure areas. As a result, winds blow outward from a high pressure location towards lower pressures.
- The differences in air pressures near the Equator and the Poles are the main factors that influence Global Pressure and Wind Systems. In India, the Tropic of Cancer passes through the central part of the country, from the Rann of Kutch in the west to Mizoram in the east. India has both Tropical and Subtropical types of Climate.
- The distance of a place from the sea is another important factor that regulates the climate of a place.
- As the Distance from the Sea increases, the Weather conditions become extreme. Places away from the sea have very hot summers and very cold winters. This condition is known as Continentality.

- Another important control of climate is the circulation of water and air. The air in the atmosphere and the water in the oceans are in constant motion, distributing heat around the world in regular patterns. Warm air and water move towards the Poles, while cool air and water move towards the Equator.
- Another major control of climate is the Relief of a Place. Mountains often act as natural barriers of wind and moisture, affecting the climate of the areas around it.
- The Himalayas influence the climate of the Indian subcontinent by protecting it from the cold air mass of Central Asia.
- The Climate and related Weather conditions in India are controlled by the following Atmospheric conditions : Pressure and surface winds, Upper air circulation, Western cyclonic disturbances and Tropical cyclones.



Key Terms

- **Weather:** Weather is the state of the atmosphere of a particular area at any point of time in context to heat, cloudiness, dryness, sunshine, wind, rain, etc.
- **Atmospheric Conditions:** Atmospheric conditions describes the weather including elements like temperature, precipitation, pressure, wind and humidity.
- **Climate controls:** The interplay of latitude, altitude, distance from the sea, pressure and wind system, ocean currents and relief features determine climatic conditions of a place.
- **Altitude:** Altitude refers to the height of a place above the sea level.
- **Continentiality:** As the distance from the sea increases, the weather conditions become extreme. Places away from the sea have very hot summers and very cold winters. This condition is known as continentality.

Topic-3 Mechanisms of the Indian Monsoon



Revision Notes

- The climate of India is strongly influenced by the Monsoon winds. It refers to a season in which the wind system reverses completely. The monsoons are experienced in the tropical area roughly between 20°N and 20°S.
- Various atmospheric conditions influence the monsoon winds. The first condition is the differential heating and cooling of land and water. This creates low pressure on the landmass, while high pressure is created over the seas around during day time, but is reversed during the night time.
- The second condition is the shift in the position of Inter-Tropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ). In summer, the equatorial trough, normally positioned about 5°N of the Equator, moves over the Ganga Plain creating a monsoon trough during the Monsoon Season.
- The third condition is the presence of the high-pressure area that develops east of Madagascar. It is approximately at 20°S over the Indian Ocean. The intensity and position of this high-pressure area affects the Indian Monsoon.
- The fourth condition develops during the summer. The Tibetan Plateau gets intensely heated resulting in strong vertical air currents and high pressure over the plateau about 9 km above sea level. The fifth condition develops during the summer because of the movement of the westerly jet streams to the North of the Himalayas and the presence of the tropical easterly jet stream over the Indian Peninsula.
- Changes in pressure over the southern oceans also affect the monsoons. In certain years, there is a reversal in the pressure conditions. This periodic change in pressure conditions is known as the Southern Oscillation or SO.
- The Southern Oscillation is connected to El Nino, which is a warm ocean current that flows past the Peruvian Coast. It flows every two to five years in place of the cold Peruvian Current. The phenomenon is referred to as ENSO (El Nino Southern Oscillations). In India, the monsoon lasts for 100 to 120 days from early June to mid-September. The monsoon winds encounter various atmospheric conditions on their way and hence, are pulsating in nature and not steady.
- The Monsoon arrives with a sudden downpour of rainfall that continues for several days. This is known as the 'Burst' of the Monsoon.

The Onset of the Monsoon and withdrawal

- The Monsoon arrives at the southern tip of the Indian Peninsula generally by the first week of June. By early September, the Monsoon starts to withdraw or retreat and is a more gradual process. By mid-October, it withdraws completely from the northern half of the Peninsula. The withdrawal takes place progressively from North to South from the first week of December to the first week of January. This is the start of the Winter Season.

- The Retreating Monsoon Winds move over the Arabian Sea and the Bay of Bengal, and collect moisture on the way. These Monsoon Winds reach the southern states of India by October, and are responsible for a second round of rainfall. These are called the Winter Monsoons. The Winter Monsoon is experienced in the states of Tamil Nadu, Kerala and Andhra Pradesh in the first week of January.



Key Terms

- **Southern Oscillation:** Changes in pressure over the southern oceans also affect the monsoons. In certain years, there is a reversal in the pressure conditions. This periodic change in pressure conditions is known as the Southern Oscillation or SO.
- **Burst of Monsoon:** The monsoon arrives with a sudden downpour of rainfall that continues for several days. This is known as the 'Burst' of the Monsoon.

Topic-4 The Seasons of India



Revision Notes

- The changes in weather conditions of India can be broadly categorised into four distinct patterns. These are the Cold Weather Season, the Hot Weather Season, the Advancing Monsoon and the Retreating Monsoon.

The Cold Weather System:

- India has Cold Weather in the winter that begins in mid-November and lasts till February. The Northern parts of India are the first to experience the cold. December and January are the coldest months in Northern India. The southern parts of India do not experience very low temperatures.
- Frost is a common phenomenon in the Northern plains, while the higher slopes of the Himalayas experience snowfall.
- During Winter, the north-east trade winds blow over the country. In most parts of India, the weather during the winter is dry. In some parts, like the coast of Tamil Nadu, the winds blow from the sea to the land. Hence, these places receive some amount of rainfall during the Winter.
- Other characteristic feature of the Winter Season experienced over the Northern Plains is the inflow of Cyclonic Disturbances from the West and the North-West. The Winter Rainfall is locally known as Mahawat.

The Hot Weather System:

- The sea has a moderating influence over the Peninsular region of India. Hence, there are no drastic seasonal variations in temperature pattern, and winters are not as distinct as in the north. The hot weather season in India refers to the Summers that begin in March and lasts till Mid-June.
- In India, Summer is caused due to the apparent northward movement of the sun, which shifts the Global Heat Belt northward. 'Loo' are strong, gusty, hot, dry winds that blow during the day over North and North-western India.
- In Northern India, Dust Storms are also very common during the month of May. This is also the season for localised thunderstorms, associated with violent winds, torrential downpours, often accompanied by hail. Pre-monsoon showers are common, especially in Kerala and Karnataka and are often referred to as 'Mango Showers,' as they help in the early ripening of mangoes.

Advancing Monsoon:

- The Advancing Monsoon in India refers to the Rainy Season that lasts for a period of four months from June to September. The Trade winds from the Southern Hemisphere, which originate over the warm subtropical areas of the southern oceans, bring the South-West Monsoon Winds into India.
- Another characteristic feature of the Monsoon is the 'Breaks' in rainfall and refers to the alternating wet and dry spells of rains. The Indian Monsoon is very unpredictable. These Breaks occur due to the movement of the Monsoon Trough.
- The Farming schedule of millions of farmers all over the country, which is dependent on the monsoons, can sometimes get disturbed.

Retreating Monsoon:

- The Retreating Monsoon refers to the transition season that lasts from October to December.
- The months of October–November form a period of transition from the Hot Rainy Season to Dry Winter conditions. The main cause of this transition is the movement of the Sun towards the South. By the beginning of

October, the Monsoon withdraws from the Northern Plains. The Retreating Monsoon Season is marked by clear skies and a rise in the temperatures. The land is still moist and the weather becomes hot and humid. The days can become quite oppressive. This is commonly known as 'October Heat'.

- Parts of western coast and northeastern India receive over about 400 cm of rainfall annually. However, it is less than 60 cm in western Rajasthan and adjoining parts of Gujarat, Haryana and Punjab.
- Rainfall is equally low in the interior of the Deccan plateau, and east of the Sahyadris.
- A third area of low precipitation is around Leh in Jammu and Kashmir.
- The rest of the country receives moderate rainfall. Snowfall is restricted to the Himalayan region.
- Owing to the nature of monsoons, the annual rainfall is highly variable from year to year. Variability is high in the regions of low rainfall, such as parts of Rajasthan, Gujarat and the leeward side of the Western Ghats.
- As such, while areas of high rainfall are liable to be affected by floods, areas of low rainfall are drought-prone.

Monsoon as a Unifying Bond:

- Because of the unpredictable nature of the Monsoon, the distribution of rainfall varies drastically from region to region. Major variations can also be seen in the Annual Precipitation from year to year. The Phenomenon of monsoon is an integral part of the Indian landscape, animal and plant life, agricultural calendar, and the life of the people and their festivities.
- Year after year, people of India from north to south and from east to west, eagerly awaits the arrival of the monsoon.
- These monsoon winds bind the whole country water to set the agricultural activities in motion.



Key Terms

- **Mahawat:** The winter rainfall is locally known as Mahawat.
- **Frost:** A state in freezing, frozen dew.
- **Loo:** 'Loo' are strong, gusty, hot, dry winds that blow during the day over North and North-Western India.
- **Mango Showers:** Pre- monsoon showers are often referred to as 'Mango Showers,' as they help in the early ripening of mangoes.
- **Advancing Monsoon:** An Advancing Monsoon in India refers to the Rainy Season that lasts for a period of 4 months from June to September.
- **Retreating Monsoon:** The Retreating Monsoon refers to the transition season that lasts from October to December.

CHAPTER-10

NATURAL VEGETATION AND WILD LIFE

Topic-1 Types of Vegetation



Revision Notes

- A plant community that has naturally grown naturally without human aid is called National Vegetation.
- Natural Vegetation that has been left undisturbed by human for a long time is called Virgin Vegetation.
- The major types of vegetation in India are tropical evergreen forests, tropical deciduous forests, tropical thorny and scrubs forests, montane forests and mangrove forests.
- Tropical evergreen forests are characterized by heavy rainfall and a warm climate. The commercially important trees grown in this area are ebony, mahogany, rosewood, rubber and cinchona. These forests also have a variety of animals like elephants, monkey, lemur and deer and various birds, bats, sloth, scorpions and snails. These forests are restricted to heavy rainfall areas of the Western Ghats and the island groups of Lakshadweep, Andaman and Nicobar, upper parts of Assam and Tamil Nadu coast.
- Tropical deciduous forests make up most of the forest area in India. These forests depend on the monsoon, and are also known as monsoon forests. Rainfall in these areas ranges from 70 to 200 cm. The areas that receive

between 100 and 200 cm rains are known as moist deciduous, like along the foothills of the Himalayas, Jharkhand, Western Odisha, Chhattisgarh and the eastern slopes of the Western Ghats. Commercially important trees here include teak, bamboo, sal, shisham, sandalwood, khair, kusum, arjun and mulberry. They have a long dry season followed by a season of heavy rainfall. The trees in a monsoon forest usually shed their leaves during the dry season and come into leaf at the start of the rainy season.

- The areas that receive between 70 and 100 cm rainfall are classified as dry deciduous forests, like the plains of Bihar and Uttar Pradesh. These are sparsely populated with the teak, sal, peepal and neem trees. The animals found here are elephants, lions, tigers and deer with a variety of birds, lizards, snakes and tortoises.
- Unlike evergreen and deciduous forests, the vegetation in thorny forests and scrubs is restricted to thorn plants and scrubs due to scanty rainfall. The rainfall is below 70 cm like the semi-arid areas of Gujarat, Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, Uttar Pradesh and Haryana.
- The stems of these plants are fleshy to conserve water for a longer period. The leaves are like thorns to minimise evaporation. Trees like the acacias, palms, euphorbias and cacti are common here, along with animals like rabbits, foxes, wolves, tigers, lions, horses and camels.
- Montane forests are found in mountainous regions primarily in Jammu and Kashmir and Arunachal Pradesh. These are very different in their make-up from other types of forests, as the temperature and soil conditions vary on different altitudes.
- The animals found here are the Kashmir stag, spotted deer, wild sheep, jack rabbit, Tibetan antelope, yak and snow leopard.
- A snow-line is the edge of the habitat, beyond which there is no vegetation due to severe weather conditions.
- The mangrove forests are usually found in coastal areas. Mangroves are a variety of plants and trees with their roots submerged in water. Dense mangrove forests are found in the deltas of the Ganga, the Mahanadi, the Godavari, the Krishna and the Kaveri. Wild animals such as the Royal Bengal Tiger, crocodile, gharial, turtle and snake are found here.



Key Terms

- **Monsoon forests:** These forests depend on the monsoon and are also known as tropical deciduous forests. Rainfall in these areas ranges from 70 to 200 cm.
- **Deciduous forests:** Deciduous forests are forests that are dominated by trees that lose their leaves each year. These types of forest are found in areas with warm, moist summers and fairly mild winters.
- **Coniferous forests:** They are evergreen cone-bearing trees with needle shaped leaves found between 1,600 and 3,000 metre above the sea level, e.g., pine, spruce, cedar, etc.
- **Thorny and Scrub forests:** Because of dominance of thorny trees, bushes and scrubs, they are called thorn and scrub forests. They grow in dry areas of less than 75 cm of annual rainfall.
- **Montane forests:** These are very different in their make-up from other types of forests, as the temperature and soil conditions vary on different altitudes.
- **Mangrove forests:** Mangrove forests are usually found in coastal areas. Dense mangrove forests are found in the deltas of the Ganga, Mahanadi, Godavari, Krishna and Kaveri. Wild animals such as the Royal Bengal Tiger, crocodile, gharial, turtle and snake are found here.

Topic-2 Wildlife



Revision Notes

- India has a rich biodiversity and is home to around 1.6 million or nearly 8% of all the species of flora and fauna found in the world. India is also home to over 90,000 species of fauna, including birds, insects and land and water animals.
- Besides being the only country to have both lions and tigers in its forests, India is one of the few countries that have a habitat to support large land animals like the elephant.

- The Himalayas harbour some large land animals like the yak and the shaggy-horned wild ox found in the freezing high altitudes of Ladakh. Some rare species of wild animals include the snow leopard, the red panda, the ibex and the Himalayan brown bear.
- The wildlife in the Indian rivers, lakes and coastal areas is equally rich with various species of reptiles like crocodiles and gharials, water snakes and turtles. There are over 940 different species of fishes in India.
- The elephants are the most majestic animals among the mammals. They are found in the hot wet forests of Assam, Karnataka and Kerala. One-horned rhinoceroses are the other animals, which live in swampy and marshy lands of Assam and West Bengal.
- Arid areas of the Rann of Kachchh and the Thar Desert are the habitat for wild ass and camels respectively. Indian bison, nilgai (blue bull), chousingha (four-horned antelope), gazel and different species of deer are some other animals found in India. It also has several species of monkeys.
- India is the only country in the world that has both tigers and lions. The natural habitat of the Indian lion is the Gir forest in Gujarat.
- Tigers are found in the forests of Madhya Pradesh, the Sundarbans of West Bengal and the Himalayan region. Leopards, too, are members of the cat family. They are important among animals of prey.
- The Himalayas harbour a hardy range of animals, which survive in extreme cold. Ladakh's freezing high altitudes are a home to yak, the shaggy horned wild ox weighing around one tonne, the Tibetan antelope, the bharal (blue sheep), wild sheep, and the kiang (Tibetan wild ass).
- In the rivers, lakes and coastal areas, turtles, crocodiles and gharials are found. The latter is the only representative of a variety of crocodile, found in the world today.
- Bird life in India is colourful. Peacocks, pheasants, ducks, parakeets, cranes and pigeons are some of the birds inhabiting the forests and wetlands of the country.
- Every species has a role to play in the ecosystem. Hence, conservation is essential.
- Due to excessive exploitation of plant and animal resources by human beings, the ecosystem has been disturbed.
- About 1,300 plant species are endangered and 20 species are extinct. Quite a few animal species are also endangered and some have become extinct.
- The main causes for this major threat to nature are hunting by greedy hunters for commercial purposes. Pollution due to chemical and industrial waste, acid deposits, introduction of alien species and reckless cutting of the forests to bring land under cultivation and habitation, are also responsible for the imbalance.



Key Terms

- **Biosphere Reserves:** It is a forest area where all types of flora and fauna are preserved in their natural environment, e.g., Nanda Devi.
- **National Parks:** They are relatively large areas where one or several ecosystems exist and where plants and animals species, geomorphological sites and habitats are of special educative and recreative interests, e.g., Jim Corbett Park.
- **Wildlife Sanctuary:** It is similar to national park but is dedicated to protect wildlife and conserve species, e.g., Gir Lion Sanctuary.

CHAPTER-11

POPULATION

Topic-1

Population: Size and Distribution



Revision Notes

➤ Population Size and Distribution:

- People are producers and consumers of resources. It is the people who form a nation and help to develop its economy. Population is the point of reference from which all other elements are observed.
- A Census is an official enumeration of the population of a country that is recorded periodically. The Indian Census is the most comprehensive source of demographic, social and economic data of India. The First census in India was held in 1872. Census has been held regularly after every 10 years.

- The Census provides answers to three primary questions about the population:
 - Population size and distribution
 - Population growth and processes of population change
 - Characteristics or qualities of the population
- As per the Census of March 2011, India's population stood at 1210.6 million and accounted for 17.5% of the World's population.
- Almost half of India's population lives in the following five states: Uttar Pradesh, Maharashtra, Bihar, West Bengal and Andhra Pradesh. Uttar Pradesh is the most populated state of India with 199 million people, according to the Census of 2011. Population density is the number of persons that live in one square kilometre of an area. India is one of the most densely populated countries of the World.
- On the other hand, the Himalayan state of Sikkim has a population of just about 0.6 million and Lakshadweep has only 64,429 people.
- Population density is calculated as the number of persons per unit area.
- India is one of the most densely populated countries of the world. The population density of India in the year 2011 was 382 persons per sq km.
- Rugged terrain and unfavourable climatic conditions are the main reasons for the sparse population in some areas. Moderate to low rainfall and less fertile soils also influence the population density.



Key Terms

- **Population:** The total number of inhabitants of a specific area, like city, country or any other location.
- **Census:** A Census is an official enumeration of the population of a country that is recorded periodically.
- **Population Density:** Population density is calculated as the number of persons per unit area.

Topic-2

Population Growth and Processes of Population Change



Revision Notes

Different patterns of Population Growth:

- In a population, some people are born, some die, some migrate internally or internationally. These three processes are known as birth rate, death rate and migration, respectively.
- **Birth rate:** It is the number of live births per thousand persons in a year.
 - **Death rate:** It is the number of deaths per thousand persons in a year.
 - **Migration:** Migration is the movement of people across regions and territories. It can be internal as well as international.

Factors affecting the size of a population:

- Population grows through births and immigration and declines through deaths and emigration.
- Internal migration influences the distribution of population within the nation.
- In India, most migrations have been from rural to urban areas because of the "Push" factor in rural areas.
- These are adverse conditions of poverty and unemployment in the rural areas and the "pull" of the city in terms of increased employment opportunities and better living conditions.
- The urban population has increased from 17.29% of the total population in 1951 to 31.80% in 2011.
- There has been a significant increase in the number of 'million plus cities' from 35 to 53 in just one decade, i.e., 2001 to 2011.

Age Composition of Population:

- Age composition indicates the number of people that belong to different age groups.
- The population of a nation is generally grouped into three broad categories :
 - Children (Below 15 years)

- Working age adults (15-59 years)
- Aged (Above 59 years)
- **Dependency ratio** is the ratio of the dependent population to the working-age population of the country. The percentage of children and the aged affect the dependency ratio.
- **Sex ratio** is the ratio of males to females in a population. It is calculated as the number of females per 1000 males of the population. The sex ratio in India has always remained unfavourable to females.



Key Terms

- **Population growth:** The change in the number of inhabitants of a country during a specific period of time.
- **Annual growth rate:** The rate or pace of population increase. It is studied in per cent per annum.
- **Birth rate:** Birth rate is the number of live births per thousand persons in a year.
- **Death rate:** It is the number of deaths per thousand persons in a year.
- **Migration:** Migration is the movement of people across regions and territories.
- **Immigration:** When people come to a country, it is called immigration.
- **Emigration:** When people of a country leave that country, it is called emigration.
- **Million plus cities:** Cities with a population of more than one million or 10 lakh.
- **Sex ratio:** Sex ratio is defined as the number of females per thousand males in the population.
- **Dependency ratio:** Dependency ratio is the ratio of the dependent population to the working-age population of the country.
- **Composition of population:** The age composition of a population refers to the number of people in different age groups in a country.

UNIT – III: DEMOCRATIC POLITICS-I

CHAPTER-12

WHAT IS DEMOCRACY? WHY DEMOCRACY?

Topic-1 Democracy and its Features



Revision Notes

What is Democracy?

- The word 'Democracy' has been derived from a Greek word 'Demokratia'. 'Demos' means people and 'Kratia' means rule. So, democracy is the rule by the people.
- Democracy is a form of government in which the rulers are elected by the people.

Democratic Government

- (i) Government formed by people's representatives.
- (ii) Representatives elected by free and fair election.
- (iii) Citizens have right to oppose any government action and policy.
- (iv) Citizens have right to protest, as long as the mode of protest is within the boundaries of law.

Non-Democratic Government

- (i) Rule by force, by a person or by a group of person.
- (ii) No opposition is permitted.
- (iii) Citizens have no rights.

- (iv) Citizens cannot resort to any method of protest.

Features of Democracy

Major Decisions by Elected Leaders

- In Pakistan, General Pervez Musharraf led a military coup in October 1999. He overthrew a democratically elected government and declared himself the 'Chief Executive' of the country. Later, he changed his designation to the President and in 2002 held a referendum in the country that granted him five-year extension.
- In August 2002, he issued a 'Legal Framework Order' that amended the Constitution of Pakistan. According to this Order, the President can dismiss the national and provincial assemblies.
- Though Pakistan has had elections — the elected representatives have some powers. But the final power vests with military officers and General Musharraf himself.
- Clearly, there are many reasons why Pakistan under General Musharraf should not be called a democracy. Among many reasons, the most significant is the power to take final decision rests with army officials and with General Musharraf and none of them was elected by the people.
- But in a democracy, the final decision-making power must vest with those who are elected by the people.

Free and Fair Electoral Competition

- In China, elections are regularly held after every five years for electing the country's parliament, called Quanguo Renmin Daibiao Dahui (National People's Congress). The National People's Congress has the power to appoint the President of the country.
- Only those, who are members of the Chinese Communist Party or eight smaller parties allied to it, were allowed to contest elections held in 2002–2003. The government is always formed by the Communist Party.
- Mexico got its independence in 1930, holds elections after every six years to elect its President. The country has never been under a military or dictator's rule. But in the year 2000, every election was won by a party called PRI (Institutional Revolutionary Party).
- Opposition parties in Mexico did contest elections, but never managed to win. It was because the PRI played many dirty tricks to win elections. Those were:
 - All those who were employed in government offices had to attend its party meetings.
 - Teachers of the government schools used to force parents to vote for the PRI.
 - Media largely ignored the activities of opposition political parties except to criticise them.
 - Sometimes, the polling booths were shifted from one place to another in the last minute, which made it difficult for people to cast their votes.
 - The PRI spent a large sum of money in the campaign for its candidates.
 - But in a democracy, there must be a free and fair election where those currently in power have a fair chance of losing.

One Person, One Vote, One Value

- Many instances of denial of equal right to vote in the world:
 - Until 2015, in Saudi Arabia women did not have the right to vote.
 - Estonia has made its citizenship rules in such a way that people belonging to Russian minority find it difficult to get the right to vote.
 - In Fiji, the electoral system is such that the vote of an indigenous Fiji has more value than that of an Indian-Fijian.
- Democracy is based on a fundamental principle of political equality. Thus, in a democracy, each adult citizen must have one vote and each vote must have one value.

Rule of Law and Respect for Rights

- Zimbabwe attained independence from White minority rule in 1980. Since then, the country has been ruled by ZANU-PF the party that led the freedom struggle. Its leader, Robert Mugabe, ruled the country since independence till 2017. Elections have been held regularly and always won by ZANU-PF.
- Over the years, his government changed the constitution several times to increase the powers of the President and make him less accountable. Opposition party workers were harassed and their meeting disrupted. He was forced out of office in 2017.
- The example of Zimbabwe shows that popular approval of the rulers is necessary in a democracy, but it is not sufficient. Popular governments can be undemocratic. Popular leaders can be autocratic. If we wish to assess a democracy, it is important to look at the elections.
- Thus, in a democratic government, rules within limits are set by constitutional law and citizens' rights.

Features of Democracy

- Rulers elected by the people take all the major decisions.
- Elections offer a choice and fair opportunity to the people to change the current rulers.
- This choice and opportunity is available to all the people on an equal basis.
- The exercise of this choice leads to a government to be limited by basic rules of the constitution and citizens' rights.



Key Terms

- **Democracy:** A form of government which is chosen by the people to work for their welfare and can be voted out by them.
- **Universal Adult Franchise:** Any person who is above 18 years of age has the right to vote, irrespective of caste, colour, status, religion, etc.
- **Constitutional monarchy:** A government headed by a king or queen whose powers are limited by a Constitution.
- **Non-democratic Government:** A form of government in which people do not elect their rulers and have no right in decision making.

Topic-2 Need and Broader meaning of Democracy

Revision Notes

Arguments against Democracy

- Leaders keep changing in a democracy. This leads to instability.
- Democracy is all about political competition and power play. There is no scope for morality.
- So many people have to be consulted in a democracy that it leads to delays.
- Elected leaders do not know the best interest of the people. It leads to bad decisions.
- Democracy leads to corruption as it is based on electoral competition.
- Ordinary people don't know what is good for them; they should not decide anything.

Arguments for Democracy

- A democratic government is a better government because it is a more accountable form of government.
- Democracy improves the quality of decision making.
- Democracy provides a method to deal with differences and conflicts.
- Democracy enhances the dignity of citizens. Democracy is better than other forms of government because it allows us to correct its own mistakes.

Broader Meaning of Democracy

- In the countries which we call as democratic, all the people do not rule. A majority is allowed to take decisions on behalf of all the people. Even the majority does not rule directly. The majority of people rule through their elected representatives.
- This has become necessary because:
 - Modern democracies involve such a large number of people that it is physically impossible for all of them to sit together and take a collective decision.
 - Even if they could, the citizens do not have the time, the desire or the skills to take part in all the decisions.
- It gives us a clear but minimal understanding of democracy and helps us to distinguish democracies from non-democracies.
- A democratic decision involves consultation with and consent of all those who are affected by that decision.
- This can apply to a government or a family or any other organisation. Thus, democracy is also a principle that can be applied to any sphere of life.
- In a democracy, every citizen must be able to play an equal role in decision making.



Key Terms

- **Corruption:** An inducement to do wrong by bribery or other unlawful means.
- **Poverty:** Condition where people's basic needs for food, clothing and shelter are not being met.
- **Accountable government:** The government elected by the people and therefore responsible to them.
- **Dictatorship:** Under dictatorship all the powers are vested in a single person or in a group of people.
- **Minimal democracy:** A system of government in which citizens give teams of political leaders, the right to rule in periodic elections.

- **Representative democracy:** A type of democracy founded on the principle of elected officials representing a group of people, as opposed to direct democracy.

Example

'Democracy is an ideal form which is not limited to the government alone. It goes far beyond and has a broader meaning.' Justify.

Answer:

Step 1: In order to justify the statement, we can make use of the term democracy for the organization other than the government.

Step 2: Democratic family: All sit down and take a decision. Everyone's opinion matters.

Step 3: Democratic temperament: The teacher should allow students to ask questions in class.

Step 4: One leader and his family members take decisions – this is not democracy.

Step 5: True democracy will come to the country only when no one goes hungry to bed.

CHAPTER-13

CONSTITUTIONAL DESIGN

Topic-1 Democratic Constitution in South Africa



Revision Notes

There are certain basic rules that the citizens and the government have to follow. All such rules together are called the Constitution. As the supreme law of the country, the Constitution determines the rights of citizens, the powers of the government and how the government should function.

Democratic Constitution in South Africa

Struggle against Apartheid

- Apartheid was the system of racial discrimination or segregation on the grounds of race unique to South Africa. The white Europeans imposed this system on South Africa. The system of apartheid divided the people and labelled them on the basis of their skin colour. The white rulers treated all non-whites as inferiors.
- The apartheid system was particularly oppressive for the blacks.
 - The non-whites did not have the voting rights.
 - They were forbidden from living in white areas.
 - They could work in white areas only if they had a permit.
 - Trains, buses, taxis, hotels, hospitals, schools and colleges, libraries, cinema halls, theatres, beaches, swimming pools, public toilets, were all separate for the whites and blacks. This was called 'segregation'.
 - They could not even visit the churches where the whites worshipped.
 - Blacks could not form associations or protest against the terrible treatment.
- The African National Congress (ANC) was the umbrella organization that led the struggle against the policies of segregation. This included many workers' unions and the Communist Party. Many sensitive whites also joined the ANC to oppose apartheid and played a leading role in this struggle.

Towards a New Constitution

- Finally, at the midnight of 26 April 1994, the new national flag of the Republic of South Africa was unfurled, marking the democracy in the world. The apartheid government came to an end, paving way for the formation of a multi-racial government.
- After two years of discussion and debate, they came out with one of the finest constitutions the world has ever had. The characteristics of the South African Constitution are :
 - This constitution gave its citizens the most extensive rights available in any country.
 - Together, they decided that in the search for a solution to the problems, nobody should be excluded; no one should be treated as a demon.
 - They agreed that everybody should become part of the solution.

 **Key Terms**

- **African National Congress (ANC):** The umbrella organization that led the struggle against the policies of segregation.
- **Treason:** The offence of attempting to overthrow the government of the state for which the offender owes allegiance.
- **Constitution:** Supreme law of a country, containing fundamental rules governing the policies and society in a country.
- **Apartheid:** The official policy of racial separation and ill-treatment of blacks followed by the Government of South Africa between 1948 and 1989.

Topic-2**Why do we Need a Constitution? Making of the Indian Constitution.****Revision Notes**

- When we see the example of South Africa, then we understand why we need the constitution and what constitutions do.

How was this compromise to be implemented?

- The only way to build and maintain trust in such a situation was to write down some rules of the game that everyone would abide by. These supreme rules that no government would be able to ignore are called a constitution.
- The constitution of a country is a set of written rules that are accepted by all people living together in a country. The constitution is the supreme law that determines the relationship among people living in a territory and also the relationship between the people and government.
- A constitution does many things:
 - It generates a degree of trust and coordination that is necessary for different kind of people to live together.
 - It specifies how the government will be constituted, who will have power to take which decisions.
 - It lays down limits on the powers of the government and tells us the rights of the citizens.
 - It expresses the aspirations of the people about creating a good society.
- All countries that have constitutions are not necessarily democratic. But, all countries that are democratic will have constitutions.
- The Constitution of India was drawn up under very difficult circumstances.
- The country was born through a partition on the basis of religious differences and was a traumatic experience for the people of India and Pakistan.
- The British had left it to the rulers of the princely states to decide whether they wanted to merge with India or with Pakistan or remain independent.
- The merger of these princely states was a difficult and uncertain task.
- When the Constitution was being written, the future of the country did not look as secure as it does today.

The Path of the Constitution

- In 1928, Motilal Nehru and the eight other Congress leaders drafted a Constitution for India.
- In 1931, the resolution at the Karachi session of the Indian National Congress dwelt on how independent India's Constitution should look like. Both these documents were committed to the inclusion of universal adult franchise, right to freedom and equality and to protecting the rights of minorities in the Constitution of independent India.
- Our leaders gained confidence to learn from other countries, but on our own terms. Many of our leaders were inspired by the ideals of the French Revolution, the practice of parliamentary democracy in Britain and the Bill of Rights in the US. The Socialist Revolution in Russia had inspired many Indians to think of shaping a system based on social and economic equality. Yet, they were not simply imitating what others had done. All these factors contributed to the making of our Constitution.

The Constituent Assembly

- The drafting of the document called the constitution was done by an assembly of elected representatives called the Constituent Assembly.

- Elections to the Constituent Assembly were held in July 1946. The Assembly adopted the Constitution on 26th November 1949, but it came into effect on 26th January 1950. To mark this day, we celebrate January 26 as Republic Day every year.
- We accept the Constitution made by this Assembly more than 60 years ago because :
 - The Constitution does not reflect the views of its members alone. It expresses a broad consensus of its time.
 - The second reason for accepting the Constitution is that the Constituent Assembly represented the people of India. There was no universal adult franchise at that time. So, the Constituent Assembly could not have been chosen directly by all the people of India. It was elected mainly by the members of the existing Provincial Legislatures.
 - Finally, the manner in which the Constituent Assembly worked gives sanctity to the Constitution. The Constituent Assembly worked in a systematic, open and consensual manner.
- The Assembly was dominated by the Indian National Congress, the party that led India's freedom struggle.
- Mahatma Gandhi was not a member of the Constituent Assembly.



Key Terms

- **Privilege:** A right reserved exclusively by a particular person or group (especially a hereditary or official right).
- **Political party:** A group of people with a definite agenda and who intends to acquire power in the government.
- **Minority:** A small group of people within a community or country, differing from the main population in race, religion, language, or political persuasion.
- **Clause:** A distinct section of a document.
- **Constituent Assembly:** An assembly of people's representatives that drafts a Constitution for a country.
- **Constitutional Amendment:** A change in the Constitution made by the supreme legislative body in a country.
- **Draft:** A preliminary version of a legal document.
- **Philosophy:** The most fundamental principles underlying one's thoughts and actions.
- **Preamble:** An introductory statement in a constitution which states the reasons and guiding values of the Constitution.
- **Universal Adult Franchise:** Every adult, rich or poor, irrespective of their religion-caste or education , colour , race, economic conditions, is free to vote.

Example

Assess the Constitution made by the Constituent Assembly of India.

Answer:

Step 1: It worked in a systematic, open and consensual manner.

Step 2: Basic principles were decided and Drafting Committee prepared a draft of the constitution.

Step 3: Discussions of several rounds occurred, clause by clause.

Step 4: They worked for 114 days, spread over three years.

Step 5: Every document was recorded and preserved to form twelve bulky volumes of the Constituent Assembly debates.

Topic-3 Guiding Values of the Indian Constitution



Revision Notes

Guiding Values of the Indian Constitution

- First, understand the overall philosophy of what our Constitution is all about.
- Read the views of some of our major leaders on our Constitution and read what the Constitution says about its own philosophy.
- This is what the preamble to the Constitution does.

The Dream and the Promise

- There were many members who followed the vision of Mahatma Gandhi.

- This dream of an India that has eliminated inequality was shared by Dr. Ambedkar.
- Dr Ambedkar played a key role in the making of the Constitution, but his vision of removing inequalities from India was different from Gandhiji.

Philosophy of the Constitution

- Values that inspired and guided the freedom struggle and were, in turn, nurtured by it, formed the foundation for India's democracy. These values are embedded in the Preamble of the Indian Constitution.
- The Constitution of India begins with a short statement of its basic values. This is called the Preamble to the Constitution.
- Taking inspiration from American model, most countries in the contemporary world have chosen to begin their constitutions with a preamble.

Institutional Design

- A constitution is not merely a statement of values and philosophy. It is mainly about embodying these values into institutional arrangements.
- It is a very long and detailed document. Therefore, it needs to be amended quite regularly to keep it updated. Those who drafted the Indian Constitution felt to make provisions to incorporate changes from time to time. These changes are called Constitutional Amendments.



Key Terms

- **Philosophy:** The most fundamental principles underlying one's thought and actions.
- **Tryst:** A meeting or meeting place that has been agreed upon.

CHAPTER-14

ELECTORAL POLITICS

Topic-1

Why Elections?



Revision Notes

➤ *Why do we need elections?*

- In any democracy, elections take place regularly. There are more than one hundred countries in the world in which elections take place to choose people's representatives. But elections are also held in many countries that are not democratic.
- It is not possible in any large community. Nor is it possible for everyone to have the time and knowledge to take decisions on all matters and also not possible for the people to sit together everyday and take all the decisions to run the country. Therefore, in most democracies, people rule through their representatives.
- The process by which people choose their representatives at regular intervals is known as Election. Therefore, elections are considered essential in our times for any representative democracy.
- In an election the voters make many choices:
 - They can choose who will make laws for them.
 - They can choose who will form the government and take major decisions.
 - They can choose the party whose policies will guide the government and law making.

➤ *What Makes an Election Democratic?*

- The process of election in democratic countries differs from that of non-democratic countries. In a democratic election, the preferred contestant is elected. The elections are carried out in a free and fair manner.
- A simple list of the minimum conditions of a democratic election are:

- Everyone should be able to choose his/her representative, *i.e.*, everyone should have one vote and every vote should have equal value. This is termed as Universal Adult Franchise.
- There should be parties and candidates to choose from, freedom to contest and a wide choice for people.
- Elections must be held at regular intervals.
- Candidate preferred by the people should be elected.
- Elections should be held in a fair and free atmosphere to be democratic.

➤ *Is it good to have political competition ?*

- Actually, elections are all about the political competition. This competition takes various forms. The most obvious form is the competition among political parties. At the constituency level, it takes the form of competition among several candidates. If there is no competition, elections will become pointless.
- There are some demerits and merits of the political competition.

Demerits:

- Creates a sense of disunity and 'party politics'.
- Parties level allegations against each other by using dirty tricks to win elections.
- Long-term policies cannot be formulated.
- Good people do not enter politics.

●

Merits:

- Elections are good because they force the ruling party to perform. The government is aware that it will be voted out of power if it does not perform as the people expected.
- It forces parties and leaders to perform, so competition is good.



Key Terms

- **Election:** The process by which people choose their representatives at regular intervals is known as election.
- **Constituency:** A particular area from where voters elect a representative to the Lok Sabha/ Vidhan Sabha.
- **Electorate:** It refers to the entire body of people who are qualified to vote in the elections for the legislatures or local bodies.
- **Franchise:** It refers to the right of people to vote and elect their representatives to make laws.

Topic-2 What is Our System of Elections?



Revision Notes

- An election is carried out every five years to the Lok Sabha or the Vidhan Sabha, it is known as a general election.
- Sometimes, the Lok Sabha and the Vidhan Sabha are dissolved and an election is held before the expiry of their full term of five years. Such an election is called a mid-term election. An election may need to be held for a single constituency, due to the untimely death or resignation of an elected member. The election carried out to fill this vacancy is known as a by-election.
- **Electoral constituencies**
 - In India, we follow an area based system of representation. The country is divided into different areas for purposes of elections. These areas are called Electoral Constituencies. The voters who live in an area elect one representative.
 - For Lok Sabha elections, the country is divided into 543 constituencies. The representative elected from each constituency is called a Member of Parliament or an MP.
 - Similarly, each state is divided into a specific number of Assembly constituencies. In this case, the elected representative is called the Member of Legislative Assembly or an MLA.
 - The same principle applies for Panchayat and Municipal elections. Each village or town is divided into several 'wards' that are like constituencies. Each ward elects one member of the village or the urban local body.
 - Sometimes these constituencies are counted as 'seats', for each constituency represents one seat in the assembly.

➤ ***Reserved Constituencies:***

- The Constitution of India entitles every citizen to elect her/his representative and to be elected as a representative. However, the Constitution makers were worried that in an open electoral competition, certain weaker sections may not stand a good chance to get elected to the Lok Sabha and the state Legislative Assemblies.
- The Constitution of India states a special system of reserved constituencies for the Scheduled Castes (SC) and Scheduled Tribes (ST) as well as Other Backward Classes (OBC).
- One-third of the seats are reserved in rural and urban local bodies for women candidates.

➤ ***Voters' list:***

- In a democratic election like in our country, the list of those who are eligible to vote is prepared much before the election and given to everyone. This list is officially called the Electoral Roll and is commonly known as the Voters' List.
- All the citizens of age 18 years and above can vote in an election. Every citizen has the right to vote, regardless of his or her caste, religion or gender. Some criminals and persons with unsound mind can be denied the right to vote, but only in rare situations.
- The Indian Government has introduced the Election Photo Identity Card [EPIC] System. Every eligible voter on the list is issued a Photo Identity Card. Carrying this EPIC is not mandatory. Instead, voters can provide proof of identity like ration card or driving licence to exercise their right to vote.

➤ ***Nomination of candidates:***

- Any citizen of India who can be a voter can also become a candidate in elections. The only difference is that in order to be a candidate, the minimum age is 25 years.
- Political parties nominate their candidates who get the party symbol and their party worker's support. Party's nomination is often called 'party ticket'.
- Every person who wishes to contest an election has to fill a 'nomination form' and give some money as 'security deposit'. Every candidate has to make a legal declaration, giving full details of:
 - Serious criminal cases pending against the candidate.
 - Details of the assets and liabilities of the candidate and his or her family.
 - Educational qualifications of the candidate.

➤ ***Election Campaign:***

- The main purpose of election campaign is to have a free and open discussion about who is a better representative, which party will make a better government or what is a good policy.
- Some of the successful slogans given by different political parties in various elections :
 - The Congress party led by Indian Gandhi gave the slogan of Garibi Hatao (Remove poverty) in the Lok Sabha elections of 1971.
 - Save Democracy was the slogan given by Janata Party under the leadership of Jayaprakash Narayan, in the Lok Sabha election held in 1977.
 - The Left Front used the slogan of Land to the Tiller in the West Bengal Assembly elections held in 1977.
 - 'Protect the Self-Respect of Telugus' given by Desam Party in Andhra Pradesh Assembly elections in 1983.
- During campaign sometimes it is necessary to regulate campaigns to ensure that every political party and candidate gets a fair and equal chance to compete.

According to our election law:

- Political parties or candidates cannot bribe or threaten voters.
- They cannot ask for votes on the grounds of caste or religion.
- They cannot make use of government resources or places of worship for campaigning.
- They cannot spend more than ₹ 25 lakh per constituency for a Lok Sabha election or more than ₹ 10 lakh per constituency in a state legislative assembly election.

➤ The Indian Constitution provides equal rights of representation to all the citizens of India.

➤ There is a common Code of Conduct for election campaigns, which all political parties in India have to follow. According to it, no political party or candidate can :

- Use any place of worship for election propaganda.
- Use government vehicles, air crafts and officials for elections.
- Once elections are announced, Ministers shall not lay foundation stones of any projects, take any big policy decisions or make any promises of providing public facilities.

➤ ***Polling and Counting of Votes***

- The final stage of an election is the day when the voters cast or 'poll' their vote. That day is usually called the election day.

- Every person whose name is on the voters' list can go to a nearby polling booth, and cast his/her votes. Nowadays, electronic voting machines (EVM) are used to record votes.
 - Once the polling is over, all the EVMs are sealed and taken to a secured place.
 - A few days later, on a fixed date, all the EVMs from a constituency are opened and the votes secured by each candidate are counted. Within a few hours of counting, all the results are declared and it becomes clear as to who will form the next government.
- There is a common Code of Conduct for election campaigns, which all political parties in India have to follow.



Key Terms

- **General Elections:** Elections held after the term of 5 years of Lok Sabha are called general elections.
- **Mid-Term Election:** Sometimes, the Lok Sabha and the Vidhan Sabha are dissolved and an election is held before the expiry of their full term of five years. Such an election is called a mid-term election.
- **By-election:** An election may need to be held for a single constituency, due to the untimely death or resignation of an elected member. The election carried out to fill this vacancy is known as a by-election.
- **Universal Adult Franchise:** In our country, all the citizens who are 18 years and above can vote in an election.
- **Campaigning:** It refers to a process by which a candidate tries to persuade the voter to vote for him rather than for others.
- **Election Photo Identity Card:** The voters are required to carry this card when they go out to vote.
- **Voter's List:** List of those who are eligible to vote, that is prepared before the election.
- **Electoral Roll:** Voter's list is also known as Electoral Roll.
- **Election Manifesto:** A document published by every political party before elections containing the policies and programmes of that party.
- **Electronic Voting Machine:** A device used to record votes on an election day.
- **Ballot Paper:** A sheet on which the names of the candidates along with the party names and symbols are listed.
- **Election day:** The day when the voters cast or poll their vote is usually called the election day.
- **Code of Conduct:** A set of norms and guidelines to be followed by political parties and contesting candidates during the election time.

Example

Analyse the concept of one person, one vote, one value.

Ans.

Step 1: The Indian Constitution provides equal rights of representation to all the citizens of India in elections and to choose their representatives.

Step 2: All citizens of age 18 years or above are eligible to vote and a citizen aged 25 years or above is also eligible for contesting an election.

Step 3: According to universal adult franchise, everyone should have one vote and each note

should have equal value. No one should be denied the right to vote without a good reason.

Step 4: Citizens differ from one another in many ways : some are rich, some are poor, some are highly educated, some are not so educated or not educated at all, some are kind, others are not. But all of them are human beings with their own needs and views.

Step 5: That is why all of them deserve to have an equal say in decisions that affect them especially politics.

Topic-3 What Makes Election in India Democratic?



Revision Notes

Independent Election Commission:

- During the election process, many political parties adopt unfair practices to get votes. No political party can win an election through such unfair practices.

- India has a democratic election system. The election system in India is controlled and governed by an independent and very powerful body called the Election Commission (EC). The EC is headed by the Chief Election Commissioner, who is assisted by several Election Commissioners. The present Election Commissioner is Shri Sushil Chandra.
- The Election Commission of India performs several functions, starting from the announcement of the elections to the final declaration of the result.
- It drafts and implements the Model Code of Conduct for elections and takes disciplinary action against parties violating it.
- The Election Commission is authorized to advise the government on decisions affecting the election and control the transfer of government officials. The Election Commission also has the function of controlling the work of government officials on election duty. The Election Commission has the power to order a re-poll in case it finds evidence of unfair practices during polling.
- The people's participation can be measured through the voter turnout on polling day.

Popular Participation:

- The quality of the election process can also be checked by seeing the participation of people. Same conclusions about Participation in India:
 1. People's participation in the election is measured by voter turnout figures. Turnout indicates the percentage of eligible voters, who actually cast their vote.
 2. In India, the poor, illiterate and underprivileged people vote in larger proportion as compared to the rich and privileged sections.
 3. Common people in India feel that through elections they can bring pressure on political parties to adopt policies and programmes favourable to them.
 4. The interest of voters in election related activities has been increasing over the years.

Acceptance of Election Outcome:

- One final test of the free and fairness of the election is the outcome of the election.
 1. The ruling parties routinely lose elections in India both at the national and state level.
 2. In the US, an incumbent or 'sitting' elected representative rarely loses an election. In India, about half of the sitting MPs or MLAs lose elections.
 3. Candidates who are known to have spent a lot of money on 'buying votes' and those with known criminal connections often lose elections.
 4. Barring very few disputed elections, the electoral outcomes are usually accepted as 'people's verdict' by the defeated party.

Challenges to Free and Fair Elections

- Elections in India are basically free and fair. Sometimes this may not be true for every constituency.
- There are many limitations and challenges to Indian elections. These include :
 1. Candidates and parties with a lot of money enjoy a big and unfair advantage over smaller parties.
 2. Candidates with criminal connections have been able to push others out of the electoral race and to secure a 'ticket' from major parties.
 3. Tickets are distributed to relatives from their families.
 4. Elections offer little choice to ordinary citizens as major parties are quite similar to each other, both in policies and practice.
 5. Smaller parties and independent candidates suffer a huge disadvantage compared to bigger parties.



Key Terms

- **Incumbent:** The current holder of a political office.
- **Impersonation:** An electoral malpractice in which a person assumes the identity of another for unlawful purposes is called impersonation.
- **Election Commission:** A parliamentary body constituted to conduct free and fair elections in the country.

CHAPTER-15

WORKING OF INSTITUTIONS

Topic-1 How is the major policy decision taken?

Revision Notes

A Government Order

- On August 13, 1990, the Government of India issued an Order.
- It was called an Office Memorandum.
- According to this order, other than SC and ST the 27% job reservation benefit will be given to a new third category called Socially and Educationally Backward Classes (SEBC).
- Only persons who belong to backward classes, were eligible for this quota.

The Decision Makers

- In a Democratic Government, the decision making power is divided in three separate organs – the legislature, the executive and the judiciary.
- The legislature makes the laws, the executive implements them, and the judiciary resolves disputes that arise out of major policy decisions. It consists of an assembly of the people's representatives which has the power to enact laws for a country.
- The executive is a group of persons with the authority to initiate major policies, make decisions and implement them on the basis of constitutional laws. The judiciary is an institution that administers justice and resolves legal disputes. All the courts in the country are collectively called the judiciary. Any major policy decision is conveyed through a government order. A government order is also called an office memorandum. This Office Memorandum was the culmination of a long chain of events.
- The Second Backward Classes Commission in India was established in 1979 by the Janata Party Government under the then Prime Minister Morarji Desai. It was popularly known as the Mandal Commission.
- As per the Mandal Commission recommendations, a government order announced that 27 percent of vacancies in civil posts and services under the Government of India would be reserved for Socially and Economically Backward Classes (SEBC). The reservations issue was strongly protested by the people stating that this largely affected everyone's job opportunities.
- Some people felt that reservations were necessary to balance the inequality among people of different castes in India. Others felt that reservations were unfair and would deny equal opportunities to those who did not belong to backward communities. These cases were grouped together and called the 'Indira Sawhney and others Versus the Union of India case'.
- The Supreme Court ordered that the well-to-do persons from backward classes be excluded from receiving the benefits of reservation. Thus, the issue was resolved and a modified office memorandum was issued.

Need for the Political Institution

- A democracy works well when political institutions perform functions assigned to them.
- Institutions involve meetings, committees and routines.
- This often leads to delays and complications.
- Some of the delays and complications introduced by institutions are very useful as they provide an opportunity for a wider set of people to be consulted.
- Institutions make it difficult to have a good decision taken very quickly. But, they also make it equally difficult to rush through a bad decision.
- There are several such institutions at work : The Prime Minister and the Cabinet are institutions that make all the important policy decisions. The civil servants are responsible for taking steps to implement the policy decisions effectively. The Supreme Court, as an institution, resolves the disputes between the citizens and the government.



Key Terms

- **Legislature:** The legislature makes the laws. It consists of an assembly of the people's representatives with the power to enact laws for a country.
- **Executive:** An executive is a group of people with the authority to initiate major policies, make decisions and implement them on the basis of constitutional laws.
- **Political institutions:** A set of procedures for regulating the conduct of government and political life in the country.
- **Office memorandum:** A communication issued by an appropriate authority stating the policy or decision of the government.
- **Reservations:** A policy that declares some positions in government employment and educational institutions 'reserved' for people and communities who have been discriminated against, are disadvantaged and backward.
- **Judiciary:** The judiciary is an institution that administers justice and resolves legal disputes.
- **President:** The President is the head of the State.
- **Supreme Court:** The Supreme Court is the highest judicial court in our country. It resolves the disputes between the citizens and the government.

Topic-2 Parliament



Revision Notes

Why Do We Need Parliament

- The Parliament is a national assembly of elected representatives of the people. The assembly of elected representatives of the people at the state level is called the Legislature or the Legislative Assembly. The Parliament has the authority of enacting laws. It can add new laws, and change or abolish existing laws. National policy and important public issues are discussed and debated in the Parliament.

Two Houses of Parliament

- The Parliament consists of the office of the President of India and two houses—the Rajya Sabha or the Council of States, and the Lok Sabha or the House of the People.
- The Rajya Sabha is the Upper House of the Parliament of India. It consists of 250 members, of which 12 are nominated by the President of India. The remainder of the Rajya Sabha is elected by state and territorial legislatures. The term of office is 6 years, and 1/3rd of the members retire every 2 years. The Vice President is the ex-officio Chairman of the Rajya Sabha.
- The Lok Sabha is directly elected by the people of India. The Lok Sabha can have a maximum of 552 members, including 20 members from the Union Territories and 2 from the Anglo Indian community. The Speaker presides over the sessions.
- Though the Rajya Sabha has some special powers, the Lok Sabha has supreme powers. The Lok Sabha can be dissolved by the President. Due to a large number of members, the view of the Lok Sabha matters a lot. Once the Lok Sabha passes the budget or a law related to money, the Rajya Sabha cannot reject it.



Key Terms

- **Parliament:** The Parliament is a national assembly of elected representatives of the people.
- **Lok Sabha:** It is the Lower House of the Parliament. The Lok Sabha is directly elected by the people of India.
- **Rajya Sabha:** The Rajya Sabha is the Upper House of the Parliament of India. The Rajya Sabha is indirectly elected by members of state assemblies.

- **Speaker:** He is the presiding officer of the Lok Sabha and is responsible for the efficient conduct of business in the Lok Sabha.
- **Question Hour:** During a parliamentary session, a time is fixed for asking questions and answering them only.
- **Prorogue:** To discontinue a meeting of Parliament for a time without dissolving it.
- **Adjourn:** To terminate the sitting of the House which meets again at the time appointed for the next sitting.
- **Ordinance:** Temporary law promulgated by the President of India on the recommendations of the Union Cabinet. It can only be issued when the Parliament is not in session. It has to be approved by the Parliament within six weeks of its first sitting otherwise the ordinance would be considered null and void.
- **Money Bills:** Bills dealing with money matters like taxes, income, expenditure and grants.

Example

"Parliament is the supreme legislature of India."
Justify the statement.

Answer:

Step 1: In all democracies, an assembly of elected representatives exercises supreme political authority on behalf of the people.

Step 2: In India, such a national assembly of elected representatives is called Parliament. At the state level, it is called Legislature or Legislative Assembly.

Step 3: Parliament is the final authority for making laws in any country.

Step 4: Parliaments all over the world can make new laws, change existing laws or abolish existing laws and make new ones in their place.

Topic-3 Political Executive

Revision Notes

Political and Permanent Executive

- A group of functionaries is called the executive. The executive has two categories: political and permanent. The political executive consists of political leaders who are elected by the people for a specific term.
- The permanent executive includes members who are appointed on a long-term basis. The permanent executive is also called the civil services. The political executive has more powers and the final say in all important decisions, as they are the representatives of the people.

Prime Minister and Council of Ministers

- The political executive includes the Prime Minister and the Council of Ministers. The President appoints the leader of the majority, or the coalition party that has a majority in the Lok Sabha, as the Prime Minister. Prime Minister is the most important political institution in the country.
- The remaining ministers are appointed by the President based on the Prime Minister's advice. These ministers are usually from the party or the coalition that has a majority in the Lok Sabha. The group of minister is called the Council of Ministers. It usually has 60 to 80 Ministers of different ranks. The Council of Ministers includes Cabinet Ministers, Ministers of State with independent charge and other Ministers of State.
- A Union Cabinet Minister is a senior minister, from the ruling party, in charge of a ministry. A Cabinet Minister may also hold additional charges of other ministries. The cabinet is the inner ring of the Council of Ministers. It consists of around 25 members.
- A Minister of State is a junior minister with an overseeing cabinet minister, usually having specific responsibility in that ministry. Most important decisions are taken in the cabinet meetings. Due to this reason, parliamentary democracy in most countries is also known as the cabinet form of government.
- Ministers of State with independent charge are usually in-charge of smaller Ministries. They participate in the Cabinet meetings only when specially invited.

Powers of Prime Minister

- The Prime Minister has several powers as the Head of the Government. He chairs cabinet meetings, and assigns work to the other ministers. He also has the power to dismiss ministers. If the Prime Minister resigns, the entire ministry is supposed to resign.

- The Prime Minister is the most powerful member in the Cabinet. The powers of the Prime Minister in all parliamentary democracies of the world has increased so much in the recent decades that parliamentary democracies are sometimes seen as the Prime Ministerial form of Government.

The President

- The President is the Head of the State, and has nominal powers. The President supervises the overall functioning of all political institutions in the country to achieve the objectives of the state. The President is not directly elected by the people. All the Members of Parliament (MPs) and the members of the state legislative assemblies elect the President.

Powers of President

- All major government activities, policy decisions and laws are issued in the name of the President. The President takes all major decisions based on the advice of the council of ministers.
- One major decision that the President makes on his or her own is to appoint the Prime Minister. The President appoints the leader of the majority party or coalition that enjoys a majority support in the Lok Sabha as the Prime Minister.



Key Terms

- **Council of ministers:** A body of ministers who are collectively responsible to the Lok Sabha.
- **Cabinet :** A body of senior ministers who controls important ministers.
- **Collective responsibility:** For any decision or action of the Cabinet, the Council of Ministers is collectively responsible. If any cabinet decisions is not approved by the Parliament, the entire Council of Ministers has to resign.
- **Emergency:** Extraordinary or abnormal situation in a country which can pose threat to the constitution or security.
- **Cabinet Secretariat:** The Cabinet as a team is assisted by the Cabinet Secretariat. This includes many senior civil servants who try to coordinate the working of different ministries.

Topic-4 The Judiciary



Revision Notes

- The judiciary includes all the courts at different levels in a country and consists of the Supreme Court, High Courts and District Courts. The Supreme Court is the top legal organisation.
- The Indian courts of law are further divided into two groups : civil courts and criminal courts. The civil courts deal with general disputes regarding land, property and rights. The criminal courts deal with cases of murder, riot and looting.
- The Supreme Court controls the judicial administration in the country and resolves disputes between citizens and the government, between two or more states and between states and the union governments.
- The Supreme Court is the highest court of appeal in civil and criminal cases. It can hear appeals against the decisions of the High Courts.
- The Indian judiciary is known for being independent of the legislature and the executive and is non-partisan. The judges do not act on the direction of the government or the ruling party. The judges for the Supreme Court and High Courts are appointed by the President on the advice of the Prime Minister and in consultation with the Chief Justice of Supreme Court.
- The senior judges of the Supreme Court select the new judges of the Supreme Court and the High Courts. There is very little scope for interference by the political executive. The senior most judge of the Supreme Court is usually appointed as the Chief Justice. Once a person is appointed as judge of the Supreme Court or the High Court, it is nearly impossible to remove him or her from that position. It is as difficult as removing the President of India.
- A judge can be removed only when an impeachment motion is passed separately by a two-third majority of members of each of the two houses of the Parliament.

Powers of Judiciary

- The Supreme Court and the High Courts have the power to interpret the Constitution. If the courts feel that any law or action of the government is against the Constitution, they can declare it invalid. The Supreme Court has ruled that the basic principles of the Constitution which cannot be changed by the Parliament. It acts like a guardian of the fundamental rights.

- The judiciary can review laws and government actions. The Indian judiciary is independent in the appointment and removal of judges, and in the execution of its powers.
- Anyone can approach the court if public interest and human rights are affected by the actions of the government. This is called a Public Interest Litigation. The courts can intervene to ensure that the government and its officials are not misusing the powers.



Key Terms

- **Judiciary:** The judiciary is an institution that administers justice and resolves legal disputes.
- **Impeachment:** A special parliamentary procedure to prosecute or to remove the President and other judges for the violation of the constitution.

CHAPTER-16

DEMOCRATIC RIGHTS

Topic-1 Life Without Rights; Rights in a Democracy



Revision Notes

➤ **Violation of Citizens' Rights by the USA:**

- About 600 people were secretly picked up by the US forces from all over the world and put in a prison in Guantanamo Bay, an area near Cuba controlled by the American Navy.
- The American Government said that they were enemies of the US and linked to the attack on New York on 11th September, 2001.
- Families of prisoners, media or even UN representatives were not allowed to meet them. The US Army arrested them, interrogated them and decided to keep them there. There was no trial before any magistrate in the US.
- Amnesty International, an International human rights organization, collected information on the condition of the prisoners in Guantanamo Bay and reported that the prisoners were being tortured in ways that violated the US laws.
- Prisoners were not released even after they were officially declared not guilty. An independent inquiry by the UN supported these findings. The UN Secretary General said the prison in Guantanamo Bay should be closed down. The US Government refused to accept these pleas.

➤ **Violation of Citizens' Rights in Saudi Arabia:**

- The country is ruled by a hereditary king and the people have no role in electing or changing their rulers.
- The king selects the legislature as well as the executive. He appoints the judges and can change any of their decisions.
- Citizens cannot form political parties or any political organization. Media cannot report anything that the monarch does not like.
- There is no freedom of religion. Every citizen is required to be Muslim. Non-muslim residents can follow their religion in private, but not in public.
- Women are subjected to many public restrictions. The testimony of one man is considered equal to that of two women.

➤ **Violation of Citizens' Rights in Yugoslavia (Kosovo):**

- Kosovo was a province of Yugoslavia before its split. In this province, the population was overwhelmingly ethnic Albanian Muslims. But in the entire country, Serbs (Christians) were in majority.

- A narrow-minded Serb nationalist Milosevic had won the election. His government was very hostile to the Kosovo Albanians. He wanted the Serbs to dominate the country. Many Serb leaders thought that ethnic minorities like Albanians should either leave the country or accept the dominance of the Serbs.
- 74 year old Batisha Hoxha was sitting in her kitchen with her 77 year old husband Izet, staying warm by the stove. She knew five or six soldiers had burst through the front door and were demanding her children.
- They shot Izet three times in the chest. When her husband was dying, the soldiers pulled the wedding ring off and even before she came out of the house, they burnt her house.
- This was typical of what happened to thousands of Albanians in that period. This was one of the worst instances of killings based on ethnic prejudices in the recent times. Finally, Milosevic lost power and was tried by an International Court of Justice for crimes against humanity.
- Rights are reasonable claims of persons recognised by society and sanctioned by law.
- Rights are necessary for the very sustenance of democracy.
- In a democracy, every citizen has to have the right to vote and the right to be elected to government.
- For democratic elections to take place, it is necessary that citizens should have the right to express their opinion, form political parties and take part in political activities.
- Rights protect minorities from the oppression of the majority. They ensure that the majority cannot do whatever it likes. Rights are guarantees which can be used, when things go wrong.
- The government should protect the citizens' rights. But sometimes, elected governments may not protect or may even attack the rights of their own citizens.
- That is why some rights are needed to be placed higher than the government so that the government cannot violate them. In most democracies, the basic rights of the citizen are written down in the Constitution.



Key Terms

- **Amnesty International:** Amnesty International is an international organization of volunteers who campaign for human rights. This organization brings out independent reports on the violation of human rights all over the world.
- **Ethnic Group:** An ethnic group is a human population whose members usually identify with each other based on a common ancestry. People of an ethnic group are united by cultural practices, religious beliefs and historical memories.

Topic-2

Rights in the Indian Constitution; Expanding scope of Rights



Revision Notes

- The Indian Constitution has given us six Fundamental Rights. They are the basic features of the Indian Constitution.
- **The Fundamental Rights guaranteed by the Indian Constitution are:** (i) Right to Equality, (ii) Right to Freedom, (iii) Right against Exploitation, (iv) Right to Freedom of Religion, (v) Cultural and Educational Rights and (vi) Right to Constitutional Remedies.
- Right to Equality:*
- Right to Equality means that the laws apply in the same manner to all, regardless of a person's status. This is called the Rule of Law. Rule of Law is the foundation of democracy.
- It means that no person is above the law. There cannot be any distinction between a political leader, government official and an ordinary citizen.
- The government shall not discriminate against any citizen on the grounds of religion, caste, ethnicity, sex or place of birth.

- Every citizen shall have access to public places like shops, restaurants, hotels and cinema halls. Similarly, there shall be no restriction with regard to the use of wells, tanks, bathing ghats, roads, playgrounds and places of public resorts maintained by government or dedicated to the use of general public.
- The same principle applies to public jobs. All citizens have equality of opportunity in matters relating to employment or appointment to any position in the government. No citizen shall be discriminated against or made ineligible for employment on the grounds mentioned above.
- The Constitution mentions one extreme form of social discrimination, the practice of untouchability and clearly directs the government to put an end to it. The practice of untouchability has been forbidden in any form.

Right to Freedom:

Right to Freedom means the absence of interference in our affairs by others – be it other individuals or the government.

Under the Indian Constitution, all citizens have the right to freedom of speech and expression:

- (i) Freedom to assemble in a peaceful manner.
- (ii) Freedom to form associations and unions.
- (iii) Freedom to move freely throughout the country.
- (iv) Freedom to reside in any part of the country.
- (v) Freedom to practice any profession, or to carry on any occupation, trade or business.
- (vi) Citizens have the freedom to hold meetings, processions, rallies and demonstrations on any issue.
- (vii) Your freedom should not cause public nuisance or disorder. You are free to do everything which injures no one else.

Right against Exploitation:

- Right against Exploitation prevents the exploitation of weaker sections of society.
- Our Constitution forbids human trafficking.
- The Constitution bans practices of bonded or forced labour.
- The Constitution also prohibits child labour. Under this a child who is below 14 yrs, is restricted to work.

Right to Freedom of Religion:

- As India is a secular country, every citizen is free to profess, propagate and practice any religion he/she believes in.
- This ensures that no one can force anyone to convert his/her religion, but a person is free to convert religion on his/her own will.
- It does not mean that one can do whatever he/she wants in the name of religion.
- Also, the government cannot pressurise any person to pay any tax for promotion of any religion or religious institutions.

Cultural and Educational Rights:

- This protects the right of every citizen to maintain their culture, language or script.
- Admission to any educational institution maintained by government or receiving government aid cannot be refused to anyone on the ground of religion or language.
- This ensures right of minorities to establish and administer educational institutions of their choice.

Right to Constitutional Remedies:

- The Fundamental Rights in the Constitution are important because they are enforceable. We have a right to seek the enforcement of the above mentioned rights. This is called the Right to Constitutional Remedies.
- This Fundamental Right makes other rights effective. It is possible that sometimes our rights may be violated by fellow citizens, private bodies or by the government. When any of our rights are violated we can seek remedy through courts. If it is a Fundamental Right, we can directly approach the Supreme Court or the High Court of a state. That is why Dr. Ambedkar called the Right to Constitutional Remedies, 'the heart and soul' of our Constitution.
- Courts also enforce the Fundamental Rights against private individuals and bodies. The Supreme Court and High Courts have the power to issue directions, orders or writs for the enforcement of the Fundamental Rights.
- A person can go to court against the violation of a Fundamental Right. If it is of social or public interest, it is called Public Interest Litigation (PIL). Under the PIL, any citizen or group of citizens can approach the Supreme Court or a High Court for the protection of public interest against a particular law or action of the government.

Additional Rights Guaranteed by Indian Constitution

- While Fundamental Rights are the source of all rights, our constitution and law offers a wider range of rights. Over the years the scope of rights has expanded. From time to time, the courts gave judgments to expand the scope of rights.
- Now, school education has become a right for Indian citizens. The governments are responsible for providing free and compulsory education to all children up to the age of 14 years.
- Parliament has enacted a law giving the right to information to the citizens. We have a right to seek information from government offices.
- Recently, the Supreme Court has expanded the meaning of the right to life to include the right to food.
- The right to property and right to vote in elections are important Constitutional Rights.

Constitution of South Africa guarantees its citizens several kinds of new rights:

- Right to privacy, so that citizens or their homes cannot be searched, their phones cannot be tapped, their communication cannot be opened.
- Right to an environment that is not harmful to their health or well being.
- Right to have access to adequate housing.
- Right to have access to health care services, sufficient food and water; no one must be refused of emergency medical treatment.

Human right activists all over the world seek a set of rights as a standard of human rights. These include:

- **Right to work:** opportunity to everyone to earn livelihood by working.
- Right to safe and healthy working conditions, fair wages that can provide decent standard of living for the workers and their families.
- Right to adequate standard of living including adequate food, clothing and housing.
- Right to social security and insurance.
- **Right to Health:** Medical care during illness, special care for women during childbirth and prevention of epidemics.
- **Right to education:** Free and compulsory primary education, equal access to higher education.



Key Terms

- **Dalit:** A person who belongs to the castes which are considered low and not touchable by others. Dalits are also known by other names such as the scheduled castes, deprived classes, etc.
- **Trafficking:** Selling and buying of men, women or children for immoral purposes.
- **Summon:** An order issued by a court asking a person to appear before it.
- **Writ:** A formal document containing an order of the court to the government issued only by the High Court or the Supreme Court.
- **National Human Rights Commission:** It is an independent organization established in 1993. Its main work is to focus on human rights and help the victims, whose rights are violated.
- **Covenant:** It is a promise made by individuals, groups or countries to uphold a rule or principle. It is legally binding on the signatories to the agreement or statement.

Example

Explain the Right to Culture and Education for minorities.

Ans.

Step 1: The Constitution specifies the cultural and educational rights of the minorities. Any section of citizens with a distinct language or culture has a right to conserve it.

Step 2: Admission to any educational institution maintained by government or receiving government

aid cannot be denied to any citizen on the ground of religion or language.

Step 3: All minorities have the right to establish and administer educational institutions of their choice. Here minority does not mean only religious minority at the national level.

Step 4: In some places, people speaking a particular language are in majority while, people speaking a different language are in a minority.

UNIT – IV: ECONOMICS

CHAPTER-17

THE STORY OF VILLAGE PALAMPUR

Topic-1 Organization of Production

Revision Notes

- Palampur is well-connected with neighbouring villages and towns. This village has about 450 families belonging to several different castes.
 - Farming is the main activity in Palampur, whereas several other activities such as small scale manufacturing, dairy, transport, etc. are carried out on a limited scale. These production activities need various types of resources — natural resources, man made items, human effort, money, etc.
- Organization of Production**
- The aim of production is to produce the goods and services that we want.
 - There are four requirements for production of goods and services:
 - **Land:** This category includes land and other natural resources such as water, forests and minerals.
 - **Labour:** People who do the work for others. Some production activities require highly educated workers to perform the necessary tasks. Other activities require workers who can do manual work.
 - **Physical capital:** This refers to the variety of inputs required at every stage during production. Tools, machines, buildings (fixed capital) and raw materials and money in hand (working capital) come under physical capital.
 - **Human capital:** Human capital is the economic value of a worker's experience skill and knowledge.
 - Every production is organized by combining land, labour, physical capital and human capital, which are known as factors of production.



Key Words

- **Capital:** It is the form of money or assets, taken as a sign of the financial strength of an individual and assumed to be available for development or investment.
- **Fixed capital:** The part of physical capital which can be used in the process of production over many years and cannot be altered in short periods. Tools, machines, buildings can be used in production over many years, and are called fixed capital.
- **Working capital:** Raw materials and money in hand are known as working capital.

Topic-2 Farming in Palampur

Revision Notes

➤ **Land is fixed**

- 75 per cent of the people of Palampur are dependent on farming for their livelihood.
- The well-being of these people is closely related to production on the farms.
- But one of the main problems of the Palampur village is that the land area under cultivation is practically fixed. Since 1960 in Palampur, there has been no expansion in land area under cultivation.
- By then, some of the wastelands in the village had been converted to cultivable land.

- The standard unit of measuring land is hectare.

➤ **Is there a way one can grow more from the same land?**

- All land is cultivated in Palampur. No land is left idle.
- During the rainy season (kharif) farmers grow jowar and bajra. These plants are used as cattle feed.
- It is followed by cultivation of potato between October and December. In the winter season (rabi), fields are sown with wheat. From the wheat produced, farmers keep enough wheat for the family's consumption and sell the surplus wheat at the market at Raiganj.
- A part of the land area is also devoted to sugarcane which is harvested once every year.
- To grow more than one crop on a piece of land during the year is known as multiple cropping. It is the most common way of increasing production on a given piece of land.
- All farmers in Palampur grow at least two main crops; many are growing potato as the third crop in the past fifteen to twenty years.

➤ **Will the land sustain?**

- Land being a natural resource, it is necessary to be very careful in its use.
- The modern farming methods have overused the natural resource base.
- In many areas, the Green Revolution is associated with the loss of soil fertility due to increased use of chemical fertilizers.
- Continuous use of groundwater for tube well irrigation has reduced the water table below the ground.
- Chemical fertilizers provide minerals which dissolve in water and are immediately available to plants. But these may not be retained in the soil for long. They may escape from the soil and pollute groundwater, rivers and lakes.
- Chemical fertilizers can also kill bacteria and other microorganisms in the soil.
- Therefore, soil becomes less fertile and degraded by overusing of chemical fertilizers.
- The consumption of chemical fertilizers in Punjab is the highest in the country.

➤ **How is land distributed among the farmers of Palampur?**

- All the people engaged in agriculture do not have sufficient land for cultivation in Palampur.
- In Palampur, about one third of the 450 families are landless, i.e. 150 families, most of them are dalits, who have no land for cultivation.
- Of the remaining families who own land, 240 families cultivate on small plots of land which are less than 2 hectares in size.
- The large number of small plots scattered around the village are cultivated by the small farmers.
- On the other hand, in Palampur, there are 60 families of medium and large farmers who cultivate on more than 2 hectares of land. A few of the large farmers have land extending over 10 hectares or more.

➤ **Who will provide the labour?**

- Small farmers along with their families cultivate their own field. Thus, they provide the labour required for farming themselves.
- Medium and large farmers hire farm labourers to work on their fields.
- Farm labourers come either from landless families or families cultivating small plots of land.
- A farm labourer might be employed on a daily basis, or for one particular farm activity like harvesting, or for the entire year.
- The minimum wages for a farm labourer set by the government is ₹ 115 (April, 2011) per day.

➤ **The capital needed in farming:**

- Most of the small farmers have to borrow money to arrange for the capital. They borrow from large farmers or the village moneylenders or the traders.
- Since the rate of interest on such loans is very high, they are put to great distress to repay the loan.
- The medium and large farmers have their own savings from farming. They are thus able to arrange for the capital needed.

➤ **Sale of surplus farm products:**

- The farmers retain a part of the wheat for the family's consumption and sell the surplus.
- The traders at the market buy the crop and sell it further to shopkeepers in the towns and cities.
- The large farmers are able to sell the entire produced crop at the market and earn good income.
- They can save most of their money in the bank account and later use the savings for lending to small farmers. They can even buy tools, machines, cattle or trucks for improving agriculture.



Key Terms

- **Agriculture:** The art of cultivating the land.
- **Irrigation:** Supply of water to agriculture from canals, wells and tube wells artificially or manually.
- **Soil fertility:** The ability of soil to grow and support plant life.

Example

Why do modern farming methods require more capital? Explain.

Ans.

Step I: In traditional method, the farmers use cow-dung as natural fertilizer, which they do not need to buy while chemical fertilizers need more cash to buy from the market. Hence, farmers need more capital to purchase them.

Step II: Modern farming is machine-oriented. To operate the machines, semi-skilled or skilled

manpower is required which need more investments.

Step III: In modern farming methods, HYV seeds are used which require more irrigation.

Step IV: Modern farming methods need inputs like chemical fertilizers, pesticides, tractors, etc. which are manufactured in industry. So, they require the farmer to start with more cash than before.

Topic-3 Non- Farming Activities in Palampur

Revision Notes

- Only 25 per cent of the people working in Palampur are engaged in activities other than agriculture.
- Dairy, small-scale manufacturing, shop keeping and transportation are different types of non-farming activities practiced in the village.
- Dairy is a common activity in many families of Palampur.
- People involved in trade (exchange of goods) are not many in Palampur. The traders of Palampur are shopkeepers who buy various goods from wholesale markets in the cities and sell them in the village.
- There are variety of vehicles on the road connecting Palampur to Raiganj. Rickshawallahs, tongawallahs, jeep, tractor, truck drivers and people driving the traditional bullock cart and bogey are people in the transport services.
- As more villages get connected to towns and cities through roads, transport and telephone, it is possible that the opportunities for non-farming activities in the village would increase in the coming years.



Key Terms

- **Manufacturing:** The process through which raw materials are transformed into a final product.
- **Yield:** Agricultural yield is measured as a crop produced on a given piece of land during single season.
- **Non-farming activity:** It refers to the activities in a village other than farming. This includes manufacturing and transportation.

Example

What can be done so that more non-farm production activities can be started in villages?

Answer

Step 1: The villagers must be made aware of the non-farm production activities and their benefits. They must also be taught the methods of doing such activities.

Step 2: The villagers who have the impression that they can earn only by farming, must be given proper guidance and help to do such activities.

Step 3: The government should also set up schemes whereby landless labourers and small farmers are able to get cheap loans to start small individual/community businesses.

CHAPTER-18

PEOPLE AS RESOURCE

Topic-1

Economic Activities by Men and Women and Quality of Population



Revision Notes

Economic Activities by Men and Women

- Various activities have been classified into three main sectors: Primary, Secondary and Tertiary.
 - Primary sector includes agriculture, forestry, animal husbandry, fishing, poultry farming, mining, and quarrying.
 - Manufacturing is included in the secondary sector.
 - Trade, transport, communication, banking, education, health, tourism, services, insurance, etc., are included in the tertiary sector. The activities in this sector result in the production of goods and services.
- Since these activities add value to the national income, they are called economic activities.
 - Economic activities have two parts – market activities and non- market activities.
 - Market activities involve remuneration to anyone who performs, i.e., activity performed for pay or profit. These include production of goods or services including government service.
 - Non- market activities are the production for self-consumption. These can be consumption and processing of primary products and own account production of fixed assets.
 - A division of labour exists between men and women in the family because of the historical and cultural reasons.
 - The household work done by women is not recognized in the national income.
 - Among the organized sector, teaching and medicine attract the women the most. Some women have entered administrative and other services including job that needs high levels of scientific and technological competence.

Quality of Population

- The quality of population depends upon:
 - The literacy rate.
 - Health of a person is indicated by life expectancy.
 - Skill formation acquired by the people of the country.

Education

- Education is an important input for the growth of a person.
 - It opens new horizons for the person.
 - Provides new aspiration.
 - Develops values of life.
 - Contributes towards the growth of the society.
 - Enhances the national income and cultural richness.
 - Increases the efficiency of governance.
- The policies that can add to the literate population of India:
 - There is a provision made for providing universal access, retention and quality in elementary education along with a special emphasis on girls.
 - Schools like Navodaya Vidyalaya have been established in each district.
 - Vocational streams have been developed to equip large number of high school students with occupations related to knowledge and skills.
 - “Sarva Siksha Abhiyan” is a significant step towards providing elementary education to all children in the age group of six to fourteen years by 2010.
 - The bridge courses and back-to-school camps have been initiated to increase the enrolment in elementary education.

- Mid-day meal scheme has been implemented to encourage attendance and retention of children and improve their nutritional status.
- The eleventh plan endeavoured to increase the enrolment in higher education of the 18 to 23 years age group to 15 percent by 2011–2012 and to 21 percent by twelfth plan.
- The strategy focuses on increasing access, quality, adoption of states: specific curriculum modification, vocational and networking on the use of information technology.
- The plan also focuses on distant education, convergence of formal, non-formal, distant and IT educational institutions.

Health

- The health of a person helps him to realize his potential and provides the ability to fight illness.
- Improvement in the health status of the population has been the priority of the country.
- Our national policy aims at improving the accessibility of health care, family welfare and nutritional service, with a special focus on the under-privileged segment of the population.
- Increase in longevity of life is an indicator of the good quality of life marked by self-confidence.
- Reduction in infant mortality involves the protection of children from infection, ensuring nutrition along with mother and child care.
- There are only 460 medical colleges in the country and 342 dental colleges. Just four states *i.e.*, Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka, Maharashtra and Tamil Nadu have maximum number of colleges.



Key Terms

- **Economic activities:** The activities which have monetary value and add value to the National Income.
- **Non-economic activities:** The activities which do not have monetary value and their work is not accounted in the national Income of the country.
- **GNP (Gross National Product):** It is the sum total of all the final goods and services produced by the normal residents of a country during an accounting year.
- **Human capital formation:** When the existing human resource is further developed by becoming more educated and healthy, human capital formation takes place. It adds to the productive power of the country, just like physical capital formation.
- **Literacy rate:** Percentage of people above a certain age, who can, along with understanding, both read and write short simple statements in everyday life.
- **Infrastructure:** The physical framework required to provide different types of services.
- **Infant mortality rate:** The number of death of infants under one year of age occurring among the live births per thousand of the births in a year.
- **Death rate:** Death rate is the number of deaths per thousand persons in a year.
- **Birth Rate:** It is the number of babies born for every 1,000 people during a particular period of time.
- **Life expectancy:** The average period that a person may expect to live.
- **Literate:** A person of seven years of age or above who is able to read and write along with a certain level of understanding.
- **Population:** The total number of inhabitants of a specific area like city, country or any other location is termed to be population.

Example

"Health should be treated as an important asset for human capital". Analyse the statements with reference to our national health policy.

Ans.

Step 1: Improvement in the health status of the population has been the priority of the country.

Step 2: The country has a well structured three tier public health infrastructure comprising Community Health Centres, Primary Health Centres and Sub-Centres spread across rural and semi-urban areas and tertiary medical care providing multi-speciality hospitals and medical colleges located almost exclusively in the urban areas.

Step 3: The National Health Policy 2002 aims at achieving an acceptable standard of health for the general population of the country.

Step 4: To achieve the objective, a comprehensive approach was advocated, which included improvements in individual health care, public health, sanitation, clean drinking water, access to food and knowledge of hygiene and feeding practices.

Step 5: Over the last five decades India has built up a vast health infrastructure and has developed manpower required at primary, secondary and tertiary sector in Government as well as in the private sector.

Topic-2**Unemployment: As a Form of Non-Utilization of Human Resource****Revision Notes**

- Unemployment is said to exist when people who are willing to work at the prevailing wages cannot find jobs.
- The workforce population includes people from 15 years to 59 years.
- In case of India, we have unemployment in rural and urban areas. However, the nature of unemployment differs in rural and urban areas. In case of rural areas, there is seasonal and disguised unemployment. Urban areas mostly have educated unemployment.
- Seasonal unemployment takes place when people are not able to find jobs during some months of the year. People, dependent upon agriculture, usually face such kind of problem.
- In case of disguised unemployment, people appear to be employed. They have an agricultural plot where they find work. This usually happens among family members engaged in agricultural activity. The work requires the service of five people, but engages eight people. Three people are extra. These three extra people are disguised unemployed.
- Unemployment leads to wastage of manpower resource. People who are an asset for the economy turn into a liability.
- There is a feeling of hopelessness and despair among the youth. People do not have enough money to support their family.
- Unemployment has a detrimental impact on the overall growth of an economy.
- Unemployment tends to increase economic overload. The dependence of the unemployed on the working population increases. The quality of life of an individual as well as of society is adversely affected.
- Increase in unemployment is an indicator of a depressed economy.
- In case of India, statistically, the unemployment rate is low. A large number of people represented with low income and productivity are counted as employed.
- The employment structure is characterized by self-employment in the primary sector. Agriculture is the most labour absorbing sector of the economy, though the rate has been declining in recent years because of disguised unemployment.
- Some of the surplus labour in agriculture has moved to either the secondary or the tertiary sector.

**Key Terms**

- **Educated Unemployment:** This type of unemployment occurs in urban areas when the educated and qualified youth is not able to get employment.

CHAPTER-19**POVERTY AS A CHALLENGE****Topic-1****Poverty—Introduction, Indicators and Estimates****Revision Notes**

- Poverty can be defined as the lack of common things like food, clothing, shelter, safe drinking water, medical care and education, which determine the quality of life. Nearly 25% of our entire population lives in poverty. Poverty exists in both urban and rural areas of India.

- There are certain things that are common in the life of poor people in urban and rural India. These include hunger and malnutrition, lack of proper housing and shelter, no healthcare in case of illness and no regular job and income, lack of sanitation and safe drinking water, no education for children, hopelessness and ill-treatment.
- Social scientists use different types of indicators to understand poverty. The most commonly-used indicators related to the levels of income of people and their consumption of goods.
- Poverty is looked through other social indicators like illiteracy level, lack of general resistance due to malnutrition, lack of access to health care, lack of job opportunities, lack of access to safe drinking water, sanitation, etc.
- The concept of social exclusion states that poor people have to live in poor surroundings excluded from neighbourhoods of people who are better off. Social exclusion leads to lack of social equality and exclusion from facilities, benefits and opportunities enjoyed by others.
- Social exclusion can be both an effect and a cause of poverty. A person may be forced to live in poor surroundings, because he or she is poor. Social exclusion excludes people from equal opportunities of education, healthcare, employment and general quality of life. Vulnerability is the measure of the probability of certain groups of people becoming poor or remaining poor in future.
- Vulnerability to poverty is a measure, which describes the greater probability of certain communities (say, members of a backward caste) or individuals (such as a widow or a physically handicapped person) of becoming, or remaining poor in the coming years.
- Vulnerability is determined by the availability of options for employment, education, healthcare, etc. It is also determined by the ability of people to handle hard times and natural disasters like earthquakes, floods and tsunamis. Poor people are more vulnerable to poverty.

➤ **Poverty line and Vulnerable groups (Indicators)**

- When the income or consumption of a person falls below this minimum level, the person is considered to be poor. The minimum levels of requirement to determine the poverty line are different in different countries. In India, the determination of the poverty line takes into consideration the minimum requirements of food, clothing, footwear, fuel, power, education and healthcare for the subsistence of an individual.
 - Minimum requirement of food is done by taking the minimum calorie requirement into consideration. In India, the minimum daily requirement is fixed at 2,400 calories per person in rural areas and 2,100 calories per person in urban areas.
 - The cost of each item in the minimum requirements of food, clothing, footwear, fuel, power, education and healthcare is added up to find the minimum income required for a person to survive. In the year 2000, the monthly poverty line income was fixed at 328 rupees per person in rural areas, and 454 rupees per person in urban areas.
 - Though the calorie requirement for the people in rural areas is more, their poverty line income is less than the people in urban areas. The poverty line income is fixed on per person basis. To find the poverty line for a family, this monthly income is divided by the number of members in the family.
 - The poverty line is revised periodically to accommodate rising prices and the changing requirements of people through nationwide surveys conducted by the National Sample Survey Organization. The percentage of population living under poverty line in India has reduced. Percentage of poor in rural areas is higher than that in urban areas. Some groups and communities are more vulnerable to poverty than others.
 - The groups most vulnerable to poverty are people belonging to the scheduled castes and tribes, casual labourers in urban areas and landless farm labourers in rural areas.
 - Even within a family, some people are more vulnerable and suffer more than the others due to poverty, like the elderly, women and children, especially the girls. One of the biggest social evils associated with poverty is negligence towards the girl child.
- **Estimates of Poverty :** The incidence of poverty in India was around 55 per cent in 1973 which declined to 36 per cent in 1993 and further to 26 per cent in 2000.



Key Terms

- **Poor:** A poor person is the one who is lacking sufficient money to live at a standard considered comfortable or normal level in a society. Some of the examples of poor people are : daily wage workers at construction sites, child labourers in dhabas, rickshaw pullers, domestic servants, cobblers, beggars, etc.
- **Poverty line:** It is a measure based on levels of income and consumption by people to identify poor. The concept of poverty line is based on the fact that a person must have a minimum level of income and consumption to satisfy the basic needs of food, clothing, clean water, education and healthcare.

Topic-2**Inter-State Disparities and Global Poverty Scenario****Revision Notes**

- Poverty in India also has another aspect or dimension. The proportion of poor people is not the same in every state. Although state level poverty has witnessed a secular decline from the levels of early seventies. The success rate of reducing poverty varies from state to state.
- The poverty ratio or the percentage of population living in poverty is not uniform all over the country. It varies across different states.
- Odisha with a poverty ratio of 47 percent and Bihar with a poverty ratio of 43 percent are the two poorest states in India. The poverty ratios in Madhya Pradesh, Assam, Tripura and Uttar Pradesh are also much higher.
- The states that have shown the most significant decline in poverty are Jammu and Kashmir, Punjab, Haryana, Gujarat, West Bengal, Andhra Pradesh, Tamil Nadu and Kerala. The decline in poverty in Punjab and Haryana was driven by high agricultural growth rates after the Green Revolution in India.
- In West Bengal, the decline in poverty is associated with land reforms that aimed to improve the condition of small farmers and agricultural workers. In Andhra Pradesh and Tamil Nadu, a well-implemented public distribution system of food grains is the cause of the decline in poverty.
- Kerala has the highest literacy rate in India for both its male and female population. The focus on education and training and development of human resources has led to the decline of poverty of Kerala.
- **Global Scenario:**
- The proportion of people in developing countries living in extreme economic poverty—defined by the World Bank as living on less than \$1.25 per day—has fallen from 43 per cent in 1990 to 22 per cent in 2008.
- Poverty has declined in most regions of the world like China, East Asia and Pacific, South Asia, Latin America and the Caribbean. Poverty in China, East Asia and Pacific regions have declined more rapidly than in South Asia. The rapid decline in poverty in China, East Asia and Pacific is associated with rapid economic growth and huge investments in human resource development in these regions.
- In Sub-Saharan Africa, poverty in fact rose from 51 per cent in 1981 to 47 per cent in 2008. In Latin America, the ratio of poverty remained the same. It has declined from 11% in 1981 to 6.4 % in 2008. Poverty has also resurfaced in some of the former socialist countries like Russia, where officially it was non-existent earlier.
- The poverty ratio for India as per the World Bank standard appears higher than our national estimate of 26%. In the United Nations Millennium Summit held in September 2002, leaders from 189 countries signed a declaration pledging to reduce the number of people living below \$1 a day to half of its 1990 figure by 2015.

**Key Terms**

- **Inter-state disparities:** The proportion of poor people is not the same in every state. In 20 states and union territories, the poverty ratio is less than the national average. Odisha and Bihar are the poorest states of India with poverty ratios of 47 percent and 43 percent respectively. The lowest incidence of poverty is found in Jammu and Kashmir with poverty ratio of just 3.5 per cent.
- **Global poverty scenario:** There has been a substantial decline in global poverty. However, it is marked with great regional differences. Poverty has declined more in China and South-East Asian countries.

Topic-3**Causes of Poverty, Anti-Poverty Measures and the Challenges Ahead****Revision Notes**

- The main causes of poverty in India include low economic growth during the colonial rule, population explosion, lack of job opportunities, irregular low-paying employment, inequitable distribution of resources and indebtedness.
- Anti-poverty measures taken by the Indian Government are based on two main objectives: Increasing economic growth in the country and launching anti-poverty programmes for specific groups of people. Economic growth provides more resources and opportunities for human resource development like education, training and healthcare.

- The Government of India has launched several anti-poverty programmes like the Prime Minister Rozgar Yojna, Rural Employment Guarantee Programme and Swarnajayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojna which are aimed at generating self-employment opportunities in rural areas.
- The Prime Minister Rozgar Yojna was launched in 1993 to create self-employment opportunities for educated, unemployed youths in rural areas and small towns. This programme assists such people in setting up small industries and business.
- The Rural Employment Guarantee Programme launched in 1995 also aims to generate self-employment opportunities in rural areas and small towns. The Swarnajayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojna started in 1999 aims at organising poor families into self-help groups and providing them bank loans and government subsidies to start small businesses and industries.
- The Antyodaya Anna Yojna was started in 2000 to provide food grain to poor families at subsidised rates. The National Food for Work Programme was launched in 2004 in the 150 most backward districts of the country. The National Rural Employment Guarantee Act was passed in 2005. This act provides assured employment of 100 days per year to every household in rural areas. One-third of these jobs are reserved for women.
- Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act, 2005 (MGNREGA) aims to provide 100 days of wage employment to every household to ensure livelihood security in rural areas.
- A person not provided employment within 15 days of registering under the National Rural Employment Guarantee Act, is entitled to a daily unemployment allowance.
- Human poverty extends beyond the traditional definition of poverty to include lack of housing, education, healthcare, job security, and lack of equal opportunities or dignity, due to discrimination based on caste, colour or gender.
- India's future in combating poverty appears bright. Rising economic growth, falling population growth rate, radical schemes for free elementary education for all and empowerment of women and the weaker sections of society, should result in an appreciable reduction of poverty in the years to come.



Key Terms

- **Swarnajayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana (SGSY):** SGSY was started in 1999. The programme aims at bringing the assisted poor families above the poverty line.
- **Pradhan Mantri Gramodaya Yojana (PMGY):** It was launched in 2000.
- **National Food for Work Programme (NFWP):** It was launched in 2004.
- **National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (NREGA):** It was passed in September 2005 and implemented on February 2, 2006. The Act provides 100-days assured employment every year to every rural household in 625 districts initially but now extends to all districts of India.

Example

NREGA 2005 is an important anti-poverty programme. Explain.

Answer

Step 1: NREGA stands for National Rural Employment Guarantee Act, 2005.

Step 2: It aims at providing 100 days assured employment every year to every rural household. If an applicant is not provided employment within 15 days he/she will be entitled to a daily unemployment allowance.

Step 3: It initially started for 625 districts, but later on it was extended to all districts of India. One-third of the proposed jobs were reserved for women.

Step 4: The central government established National Employment Guarantee Funds and state government established State Employment Guarantee Funds for implementation of the scheme.

CHAPTER-20

FOOD SECURITY IN INDIA

Topic-1 Introduction to Food Security



Revision Notes

➤ What is food security?

- Food is as essential for living as air is for breathing. But food security means something more than getting two square meals.
- Food security means availability, accessibility and affordability of food to all people at all times.

➤ Why food security?

- People living in poverty suffer from lack of food security most of the time as they cannot afford food. In situations of natural disasters like flood, drought and earthquake, the problem of food security assumes larger proportions and affects a larger number of people.
- Natural calamities like flood and drought destroy crops and existing food stocks triggering a chain reaction. Destruction and decrease in the production of food causes decrease in the availability of food. A decrease in the availability of food causes food prices to rise. The rise in food prices decreases the afford ability, and more people are unable to buy food.
- A natural calamity affecting a large area for a long duration of time leads to starvation and conditions of famine.
- A famine is characterized by wide spread deaths due to starvation and epidemics caused by forced use of contaminated water or decaying food and loss of body resistance due to weakening from starvation.
- The worst famine in Indian history was the Bengal Famine that hit the Bengal province of British India in 1943.
- In India, deaths due to starvation are often reported from Kalahandi and Kashipur in Odisha, Baran in Rajasthan and Palamau in Jharkhand. Therefore, food security is needed in a country to ensure food at all times.

➤ Who are food-insecure?

- A large section of people suffers from food and nutrition insecurity in India, the worst affected groups are landless people with little or no land to depend upon, traditional artisans, providers of traditional services, petty self-employed workers and destitute including beggars.
- In the urban areas, the food insecure families are those whose working members are generally employed in ill-paid occupations and casual labour market.
- The people affected by natural disasters, who have to migrate to other areas in search of work, are also among the most food insecure people.
- A large proportion of pregnant and nursing mothers and children under the age of 5 years constitute an important segment of the food insecure population.
- Hunger is another aspect indicating food insecurity. Hunger has chronic and seasonal dimensions. Chronic hunger is a consequence of diets persistently inadequate in terms of quantity and/or quality. Seasonal hunger is related to cycles of food growing and harvesting.
- India is aiming at self-sufficiency in food grains since Independence. India adopted a new strategy in agriculture, which resulted in the 'Green Revolution' especially in the production of wheat and rice.

➤ **Food Security in India**

- India has become self-sufficient in food grains during the last thirty years because of a variety of crops grown all over the country.
- The introduction of modern farming methods brought about the Green Revolution in India and was marked by a dramatic increase in the production of food grains.
- The availability of food grains at the country level has further been ensured with a carefully designed food security system by the government. This system has two components: buffer stock and public distribution system.
- Buffer Stock is the stock of food grains, namely wheat and rice procured by the government through Food Corporation of India (FCI).
- The food procured by the FCI is distributed through government regulated ration shops among the poorer section of the society. This is called the public distribution system (PDS).
- Public Distribution System (PDS) is the most important step taken by the Government of India (GoI) towards ensuring food security.



Key Terms

- **Green Revolution:** It is a programme under which HYV varieties of wheat and rice seedlings are planted in the fields of poor farmers.
- **Food Corporation of India:** Since the Green Revolution, food grain production in India has increased manifold. The food security system in India consists of the creation of buffer stocks of food grains and their distribution through the public distribution system. Every year, after the harvest of food grains like wheat and rice, the government buys food grains from farmers through the Food Corporation of India.
- **Rationing:** It is a term given to the government-controlled distribution of resources and scarce goods or services. It restricts how much people are allowed to buy or consume at a particular time in a particular period.
- **Malnutrition:** It is a state of not having enough food or not getting nutritious food.
- **Wheat Revolution:** It was a special stamp released in July 1968 by Indira Gandhi, the Prime Minister of India, to officially record the impressive achievement of the Green Revolution.
- **Hunger:** Hunger is both a cause and effect of poverty and indicates food insecurity.

Example

What are the problems of the functioning of ration shops?

Answer:

Step 1: The public distribution system (PDS) is the most important step taken by the Indian government towards ensuring food security. However, there have been several problems related to the functioning of ration shops.

Step 2: The food grains supplied by the ration shops are not enough to meet the consumption needs of the poor. As a result, they have to depend on markets instead.

Step 3: The average all-India level of consumption of PDS grains is only 1 kg per person per month.

Step 4: Most public-distribution-system dealers' resort to malpractices like diverting food grains to

open market to make profits, selling poor quality grains at ration shops, irregular opening of the shops, etc. Such actions make safe and nutritious food inaccessible and unaffordable for many of the poor.

Step 5: Under the targeted public distribution system, there are three kinds of ration cards: Antyodaya cards (for the poorest of the poor), BPL cards (for those below poverty line) and APL cards (for all others). Prices of the food materials are fixed accordingly. Under this system, any family above the poverty line gets very little discount at the ration shop. The price of food items for an APL family is almost as high as in the open market, so there is little incentive for them to buy the items from the ration shop.

Topic-2 Role of Cooperatives in Food Security



Revision Notes

- Cooperative societies in India are playing a significant role in ensuring food security and are more active in western and southern regions of the country. In Tamil Nadu, around 94% of all fair price shops run under the Public Distribution System are managed by cooperatives.
- Mother Dairy is a cooperative that sells milk and vegetables at fixed rates decided by the Delhi Government.
- Anand Milk Union Limited or Amul, Gujarat is one of the most successful cooperatives in India. Amul gave a tremendous boost to milk production leading to the White Revolution in India. Amul not only encourages dairy farming, but also provides a variety of milk products to consumers all over the country.
- The Academy of Development Studies in Maharashtra is a society devoted to welfare of tribal and rural communities. ADS has set up grain banks in tribal and rural areas with the help of local NGOs to food security.
- A grain bank functions like a normal bank. The members can make deposits of surplus grain after the harvest and make withdrawals during lean periods. Grain bank members can also take loans in the form of grain and repay the loans with interest at the time of the next harvest.

