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SOCIAL SCIENCE

Class : X

Study Material

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HISTORY-X

1. The Rise of Nationalism in Europe

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION AND THE IDEA OF A NATION, AND MAKING OF NATIONALISM IN EUROPE

- The first clear expression of nationalism came with the French Revolution in 1789.
- The French Revolution proclaimed that it was the people who would henceforth constitute the nation and shape its destiny.
- The revolutionary ideas spread in Europe after the outbreak of revolutionary wars and the rule of Napoleon.
- In early nineteenth century Europe, national unity was allied to the ideology of **Liberalism**.
- After the defeat of Napoleon in 1815, European governments were driven by a spirit of **Conservatism**, which led to repression and drove people to oppose monarchical governments.
- Giuseppe Mazzini, an Italian revolutionary, set up ‘Young Italy’ in Marseilles (France) and ‘Young Europe’ in Berne (Switzerland).
- Mazzini was described as ‘the most dangerous enemy of our social order’, by Metternich, the Austrian Chancellor, who hosted the Vienna Congress.

THE AGE OF REVOLUTION (1830–1848) AND THE UNIFICATION OF GERMANY AND ITALY

- **Liberalism** and nationalism became associated with revolution in many regions of Europe such as the Italian and German states, the provinces of the Ottoman Empire, Ireland and Poland.
- **The first upheaval** took place in France, in July 1830.
- **The Greek War of Independence** was another event which mobilised nationalist feelings among the educated elite in Europe.
- **Culture** played an important role in creating the idea of the nation. Art and poetry, stories, music helped express and shape nationalist feelings.
- **Romanticism** was a cultural movement which sought to develop a particular form of nationalist sentiment.
- Language too played an important role in developing nationalist sentiments.
- The 1830s saw a rise in prices, bad harvest, poverty in Europe. Besides the poor, unemployed and starving peasants, even educated middle classes, revolted.
- In 1848, an all-German National Assembly was voted for in Frankfurt.
- The issue of extending political rights to women became a controversial one.
- Conservative forces were able to suppress liberal movements in 1848, but could not restore the old order.
- After 1848, nationalism in Europe moved away from its association with democracy and revolution.
- In 1848, Germans tried to unite into a nation-state.
- Prussia took the lead under its Chancellor, Otto von Bismarck. Three wars over seven years with Austria, Denmark and France ended in victory for Prussia and a unified Germany.

- **In January 1871**, Prussian king, William I, was proclaimed German Emperor at a ceremony at Versailles.
- Italy was fragmented, before unification it was a part of the multinational Habsburg Empire in the north, centre under the Pope and the south under the Bourbon kings of Spain.
- **Three Men** – Giuseppe Mazzini, Chief Minister Cavour and Giuseppe Garibaldi played a leading role in unifying Italy during the 1830s.
- **In 1861**, Victor Emmanuel II was proclaimed the king of united Italy.
- In Britain, the formation of the nation state was **not** the result of a sudden upheaval but was the result of a long-drawn-out process.
- The Act of Union (1707) – united Scotland and England and “the United Kingdom of Great Britain” was formed.
- **Ireland** was forcibly incorporated into the United Kingdom in 1801. A new British nation was forged.

VISUALISING THE NATION: NATIONALISM AND IMPERIALISM

- People and artists in the 18th and 19th centuries personified a nation.
- In France, Marianne became the allegory of the French nation, while Germania became the allegory of the German nation.
- By the 1870s nationalism no longer retained its idealistic liberal democratic sentiment but became a narrow creed with limited ends.
- The major European powers, manipulated the nationalist aspirations of the subject peoples in Europe to further their own imperialist aims.
- People everywhere developed their own specific variety of nationalism.
- The idea that societies should be organized into nation-states came to be accepted as natural and universal.

Questions:

1. Write notes on: The role of women in nationalist struggles.
2. Describe the process of unification of Germany.
3. Explain any four economic hardships that Europe faced in the 1830s.
4. Who led the ‘Scholar Revolt’ in Vietnam in 1868?
5. What is the meaning of concentration camps?
6. Describe any five steps taken by the French for the development of the 'Mekong Delta Region'.
7. Describe the process of ‘Unification of Italy’.
8. What changes did Napoleon introduce to make the administrative system more efficient in the territories ruled by him?
9. Who were Marianne and Germania? What was the importance of the way in which they were portrayed?
10. How did United Kingdom incorporate Ireland?

2. The Nationalist Movement in Indo-China

EMERGING FROM THE SHADOW OF CHINA THE DILEMMA OF COLONIAL EDUCATION AND HYGIENE, DISEASE AND EVERYDAY RESISTANCE

- **Indo-China** comprises the modern countries of Vietnam, Laos and Cambodia.
- **Vietnam** followed a Chinese system of government as well as Chinese culture.
- **The French** colonised Vietnam. After defeating China, they assumed control of Tonkin and Anaam.
- **In 1887**, French Indo-China was formed.
- **Colonies** were considered essential to supply natural resources and other essential goods. The French built infrastructure projects to help transport goods for trade, move military garrisons and control the entire region.
- The colonial economy in Vietnam was based on **rice** cultivation and **rubber** plantations. Very little industrialization of Vietnam by France.
- To counter Chinese influence, the French systematically dismantled the traditional educational system and established French schools for the Vietnamese.
- The textbooks glorified French rule and culture.
- Students fought against discrimination against the Vietnamese in white collar jobs. Schools became important place for cultural and political battles. Education became an important part of the larger battle against colonialism and for independence.
- In 1902, the French part of Hanoi was hit by a rat menace. Vietnamese were paid to catch and kill the rats. Plague swept the area in 1903, as clever Vietnamese took to clipping the rats' tails as proofs. They let the rats go.
- Colonialism was fought in such resistant acts in everyday life.

RELIGION AND ANTI-COLONIALISM; THE VISION OF MODERNISATION; THE COMMUNIST MOVEMENT AND VIETNAMESE NATIONALISM

- **Religious beliefs** of Vietnam were a mixture of Buddhism, Confucianism and local practices.
- The French introduced Christianity, their Missionaries were hostile to the easy-going attitude of the Vietnamese towards religion.
- **Scholars' Revolt of 1868** : Led by officials of the Imperial Court. Uprising in Ngu An and Ha Tien provinces killed a thousand Catholics. By the middle of the 18th century 300,000 people converted to Christianity. Revolt suppressed by the French.
- **The Hoa Hao** Movement began in 1939 under its founder Huynh Phu So.
- He performed miracles, helped the poor, opposed sale of brides, gambling and use of opium and alcohol.
- The French declared him mad and sent him to a mental asylum. Freed in 1946, but exiled to Laos. Followers sent to concentration camps.
- **Vision of Modernisation** : Two opinions held (i) Vietnamese traditions had to be strengthened to resist western domination. (ii) The second school felt that the Vietnamese had to learn from the West, while resisting its domination.
- **Phan Boi Chau** (1867-1940) formed the 'Revolution Society' (Duy Tan Hoi) in 1903 with Prince Cuong De as the lead. He wrote a book, '*History of the Loss of Vietnam*' under the influence of the Chinese reformer **Liang Qichao** (1873-1929). He believed that the French should be driven out first and then monarchy should be restored in Vietnam.

- **Phan Chu Trinh** (1871-1926) differed strongly. He was totally opposed to monarchy and wanted to establish a democratic republic.
- **Go East Movement** : Some 300 Vietnamese students went to Japan in 1907-08 to acquire modern education. Their aim was to drive out the French and re-establish the Ngu Yen dynasty. They wanted Japanese help and established a **Restoration Society in Tokyo**. But after 1908, the Japanese closed the society, and sent many of them, including Phan Boi Chau to exile in China and Thailand.
- When Sun Yat Sen overthrew monarchy in China in 1911, a new association – Association for Restoration of Vietnam was formed. Their objective was to have a **Democratic Republic** and a **Constitutional Monarchy** in Vietnam.
- **The Communist Movement**
- The Great Depression of the 1930s led to unemployment, debts and rural uprisings in Vietnam.
- A new leader, **Ho Chi Minh**, appeared on the scene in 1930. He established the Vietnamese Communist (Vietnam Cong San Dang) Party, inspired by European communists.
- **Ho Chi Minh** (He who enlightens) was born in Central Vietnam; later became an active member of the committee. He met Lenin and other leaders. After 30 years stay in Europe, Thailand and China he returned to Vietnam in May 1941. He became President of Vietnam Democratic Republic.
- In 1940, Japan occupied Vietnam. The League for the Independence of Vietnam (known as the Viet Minh) fought the Japanese, recaptured Hanoi and Ho Chi Minh became the chairman of the Democratic Republic of Vietnam in September 1943.
- **Vietnamese Nationalism** : The French set up a puppet regime under Bao Dai as Emperor. After years of fighting, the French were finally defeated in 1954 at **Dien Bien Phu**.
- **The Battle of Dien Bien Phu** (1953-1954)
- On 7 May, 1954, more than 16,000 soldiers of the French army were either killed or captured. The entire French commanding staff, including a General, 16 Colonels, 1749 officers were taken prisoner.
- Vietnam was divided into North and South Vietnam. Ho Chi Minh and Bao Dai became rulers in north and south respectively.
- The division led to war. The Bao Dai regime was overthrown by Ngo Dinh Diem. The south united and formed the National Liberation Front (NLF) and fought for unification of the country under Ho Chi Minh.
- Fear of communism made the US intervene in Vietnam and a bitter war was fought during 1965-1972. Finally, peace was restored in 1974.

THE NATION AND ITS HEROES THE END OF WAR

- Women played no role in public life of the Vietnamese, but the freedom struggle led to an emerging new image of womanhood.
- Women like Trung sisters (39-43 CE) became idols. Same was the case with Trieu Au of 3rd century CE.
- In the 1960s, women were depicted as young, brave and dedicated. They were shown as warriors and workers.
- The image of the warrior woman was replaced with the image of worker woman, in the 1970s, when the end of the war was near.
- The US failed to achieve its objectives in the US Vietnam war.

- The US-Vietnam war was called the first television war.
- On 30 April, 1975 the North Liberation Front (NLF) occupied the presidential palace in Saigon and unified Vietnam.

Questions:

1. What was meant by the ‘civilising mission’ of the colonisers?
2. Explain any three features of the “go east movement” in Vietnam.
3. What was the major issue taken up by the liberal nationalists?
4. "The roles of women varied in the anti-imperialist movement in vietnam." Examine the statement.
5. Explain any four ideas of Liberal Nationalists in the economic sphere.
6. What was the role of religious groups in the development of anti-colonial feelings in Vietnam?
7. Describe the ideas behind the Tonkin Free School. To what extent was it a typical example of colonial ideas in Vietnam?
8. What were the features of the Tonkin Free School?
9. How were Phan Chau and Phan Trinh were different in opposing foreign domination in Vitenam?
10. Describe the major protest erupted in Saigon Native Girls School in 1926, in Vietnam.

3. NATIONALISM IN INDIA

THE FIRST WORLD WAR, KHILAFAT AND NON-COOPERATION

- **The First World War** (1914-1918) was a turning point in the history of Indian National Movement.
- It created a new political and economic situation.
- **National Movement** spread to new areas, influenced new social groups, developed new modes of struggle. Nationalists could demand new concessions from Great Britain.
- But the war did not end hardships caused by it to millions of the poor in India.
- **Hardships suffered during the war** – Huge defence expenditure, rise in prices, famines or crop failure (1918-19-20-21). Nearly 12 to 13 million people died (Census 1921) due to the famine.
- Anger caused by forced recruitment of army in the villages. At this stage Gandhiji emerged on the national scene.
- **New Ideas** – Satyagraha, a novel way of fighting the colonial rule in India. A non-aggressive, peaceful mass agitation against oppression and injustice. Gandhiji knew India could never match the British in arms.
- **Satyagraha** means insistence on truth. A moral force, not passive resistance.
- Gandhiji organised Satyagraha Movements in Champaran, Bihar (1916), Kheda district of Gujarat (1917) and amongst cotton mill workers in Ahmedabad (1918).
- These campaigns established him as the leader of the masses. Rowlatt Act (1919), Jallianwala Bagh massacre (13 April, 1919) and the Khilafat Movement led Gandhiji to start his Non-Cooperation Movement in 1920.

- **Khilafat** Movement was led by two brothers Shaukat Ali and Muhammad Ali; was founded to fight for Khilafat rights, and was against the harsh treatment given to the **Khalifa**, Emperor of the Turkish Empire, after the First World War.
- Gandhiji convinced the Congress to join hands with the Khilafat Movement and start a Non-Cooperation Campaign for Swaraj.
- Non-Cooperation with the British rule, programme adopted at the Nagpur Session of Congress in 1920.

DIFFERING STRANDS WITHIN THE MOVEMENT

- Non-Cooperation began in January 1921.
- Many groups joined it for their own specific reasons.
- **Swaraj** did mean the same to all.
 - **Movement in Towns** : Middle class took up the fight. Students, teachers, lawyers gave up studies, jobs, practice and joined it in thousands. Council elections boycotted. Foreign goods boycotted. Liquor shops picketed.
 - **Movement in the countryside** : Peasants and tribals took over the struggle which turned violent at times. In Awadh, **Baba Ramchandra** fought against landlords and *talukdars*. In 1920, Jawaharlal Nehru and Baba Ramchandra formed Oudh Kisan Sabha.
 - **In Andhra Pradesh** : The peasants of Gudem Hills led a guerilla movement against the British. Their leader, **Alluri Sitaram Raju**, advocated use of force. He was captured and executed in 1924.
 - **Movement in Plantations** : Workers in Assam agitated to move freely, a protest against the Inland Emigration Act (1859) which prevented them from leaving the plantation without permission.
- **The Chauri-Chaura** incident of 1922 made Gandhiji call off the movement.

TOWARDS CIVIL DISOBEDIENCE

- C.R. Das and Motilal Nehru founded the Swaraj Party within the Congress to fight elections for the Councils and demand reform.
- The Simon Commission (1928) led to protests throughout India.
- At the Lahore Session of the Congress (Dec. 1929) the Congress adopted the resolution of Complete Swaraj as its goal. 26th January, 1930 to be celebrated as Independence Day.
- Gandhiji gave the call for **Civil Disobedience Movement**.
- He chose 'Salt' as the symbol of unity of the nation. Called the 'Salt Tax' as most inhuman.
- The movement started on 31 January, 1930. He made eleven demands in a letter to the Viceroy Lord Irwin. His demands covered every class from industrialists to peasants.
- **Famous Dandi March** began on March 12, 1930. On 6th April 1930, Gandhiji reached Dandi, a village in Gujarat and broke the Salt Law by boiling water and manufacturing salt. Thus began the Civil Disobedience Movement.
- **The Non-Cooperation Movement (1920-22)** attempted to bring the government to a standstill by non-cooperating with the administration.
- **The Civil Disobedience Movement** aimed at paralysing the government by performing illegal acts.

- Boycott of foreign goods, non-payment of taxes, breaking forest laws were its main features.
- **The British Government** followed a policy of brutal repression. Arrested all the leaders including Gandhiji and Nehru. Nearly 100,000 people were arrested.
- **Lord Irwin, the Viceroy**, signed a pact with Gandhiji on 5 March, 1931. Gandhiji agreed to attend the Second Round Table Conference and the British agreed to release all political prisoners.
- **Gandhiji** returned from the Second Round Table Conference disappointed in December 1931. Civil Disobedience started again.
- By 1934 the Movement lost its momentum.
- **What Swaraj meant** to different social groups who joined the Civil Disobedience Movement.
 - **To the countryside** : Rich peasant communities expected the revenue tax to be reduced, when the British refused to do so, they did not rejoin the movement in 1932.
 - **The Poor** were the peasants who rented the land from landlords. Depression made them unable to pay rent and wanted it to be reduced. Their relationship with the Congress became uncertain.
 - **The Business Classes.** After the war, their huge profits were reduced, wanted protection against import of foreign goods. The failure of the Round Table Conference, curbed their enthusiasm for the Civil Disobedience Movement.
 - **The industrial working class** did not participate in a large number. They joined because of low wages and poor working conditions. Congress was reluctant to include workers' demands as it would alienate the industrialists.
 - **Women and the Civil Disobedience Movement.** 1930 was the year when women entered the struggle for Independence on a massive scale. During Gandhiji's Dandi March, they joined protest marches, picketed foreign clothes and shops. But Congress did not encourage them or gave them important posts in the organisation.
- **Limits of Civil Disobedience**
 - The Dalits or the Untouchables did not actively participate in the movement, they demanded reservation of seats, separate electorates. Dr B.R. Ambedkar, the leader of the
 - Dalits, formed an association in 1930, called the Depressed Classes Association. He clashed with Gandhiji.
 - Gandhiji began a fast unto death against separate electorate. Finally Poona Pact between the two leaders (1932) gave reserved seats in Provincial and Central Councils but were voted by general electorate.
 - Muslim political organisations also kept away from the Movement.
 - Congress seemed more visibly associated with Hindu religious nationalist groups. The leader of the Muslim League M.A. Jinnah wanted reserved seats for Muslims in Central Assembly. Civil Disobedience Movement started in an atmosphere of distrust and suspicion between the two communities.

THE SENSE OF COLLECTIVE BELONGING

- Collective belonging comes through experiences of common struggles. A common history and fiction, through folklore, songs and popular prints and symbols.
- Bharat Mata became the symbol of India.

- Bakim Chandra Chattopadhyay created the image in his song “Vande Mataram” in his novel ‘Anand Math’ (1870s). Abanindranath Tagore painted Bharat Mata as a calm, composed, divine and spiritual figure.
- Rabindranath Tagore of Bengal and Natesa Sastri of Madras compiled songs, ballads, myths and folklore.
- Reinterpretation of History : Indians delved in the past history and discovered India’s greatness and achievements in mathematics, literature, religion, culture, philosophy, crafts and trade.
- **Conclusion :** Gandhiji channelized the anger against colonial government into a common struggle for freedom in the first half of the 20th century. He saw the emergence of a nation wanting to liberate itself from the colonial rule, in spite of all its differences.

Questions:

1. Why did Mahatma Gandhiji decide to launch a nationwide Satyagraha against the proposed Rowlatt Act? Explain any three reasons.
2. "The Congress was reluctant to include the demands of industrial workers in its programme of struggle." Analyse the reasons.
3. Explain the idea of Satyagraha according to Gandhiji.
4. How could non-cooperation become a movement? Explain with examples.
5. How had the First World War created a new economic situation in India? Explain with three examples.
6. How was Rowlatt Act opposed by the people in India? Explain with examples.
7. “Dalit participation was limited in the Civil Disobedience Movement”. Examine the statement.
8. How did people and the colonial government react to the Civil Disobedience Movement? Explain.
9. Why did Gandhiji withdraw the Non co-operation Movement?
10. Describe the main features of the 'Salt March'.
11. How did different social groups conceive the idea of 'Non-Cooperation'? Explain with examples.

4. THE MAKING OF A GLOBAL WORLD

THE PRE-MODERN WORLD

- **Globalisation** is an economic system associated with the free movement of capital goods, technology, ideas and people across the globe. It developed mainly through trade, migration of those who were seeking better life and movement of capital.
- Travellers, traders, priests and pilgrims travelled vast distances in search of knowledge, opportunity, spiritual fulfilment or to escape persecution. They carried articles, values, skills and even diseases.
- **The Silk Route** is a pre-modern trade route over land and sea which affected cultures of China, Central Asia and the West. Besides trade, art, literature and philosophical ideas were also exchanged.
- **Food travelled :** Potatoes from North & South America and the Caribbean islands travelled to the rest of the world, when it was accidentally discovered by Christopher Columbus.

- Precious metals from mines of Peru and Mexico enhanced European trade with Asia. The Europeans conquered and carried diseases like “small pox,” to South America.
- Europe leaped ahead of other continents due to Renaissance, Industrial Revolution, capitalism, ideas of the French and American Revolutions.
- Colonies were established by Europeans all over the world.

THE 19TH CENTURY (1815–1914) ECONOMY

- The 19th century saw international economic exchange by 3 types of movements or flows – Trade flow, Labour flow and Capital flow.
- Industrial Revolution changed the consumption and production pattern of the people.
- Demand for food increased, England imposed Corn Laws but tried to withdraw them under pressure from urban dwellers and industrialists. It led to import of cheap agricultural products into England.
- Countries like Eastern Europe, Russia, America and Australia increased their food productivity to meet British needs, and became industrialised.
- **Global Migration** took place and nearly 50 million people migrated from Europe to America and Australia in the 19th century due to poverty, hunger and to escape religious persecution.
- Technology reached its highest peak in Europe with the invention of Railways, Steamships, Telegraph and Shipbuilding. Meat trade at this time is a fine example of interdependence of technology and economy.
- **Late 19th century** saw colonisation at huge scale by Britain, France and followed by Spain, Portugal, Germany and Belgium. The USA also became a colonial power by the 1890s. Most regions of Asia and Africa became colonies of the West.
- **Rinderpest or the Cattle Plague** arrived in Africa from Europe. It destroyed nearly 90% of the livestock and destroyed the livelihood of the Natives. Mine owners and colonial powers benefitted by it and Africa ceased to be a free continent.
- **A new system of slavery** — Indentured labour immigration from India started to the Caribbean Islands, Mauritius, Fiji, Ceylon and Malaya.
- Though cheated and treated badly, they adapted to their new environment and cultural fusion took place as a result of this process of migration.
- **Indian entrepreneurs**, some bankers like Nattukottai and Chettiars financed export of agriculture to Central and South-East Asia. They even followed the Europeans to Africa.
- Industrial Revolution in England changed the balance of trade between England and India. Indian handicraft and agriculture were destroyed and Britain enjoyed a trade surplus with India. Their exports increased and imports decreased.

THE INTER-WAR ECONOMY

- **The First World War (1914–1918)** transformed the socio-economic and political structure of the world.
- The war killed 9 million and injured 20 million people by using new, modern weapons of mass destruction.
- Economic Transformation took place in the form of shift in investment and capital distribution. The war encouraged war-related goods.
- The USA became international creditor of Europe, Russia became a communist country in 1917.
- The League of Nations was formed to end all future wars.

- **Post-war Recovery.** Britain faced a steep war-debt and her position as a world economic power ended. Unemployment increased, grain prices fell due to overproduction. After the war Eastern Europe revived its wheat production, leading to a glut.
- The US recovered from the post-war crisis at a great speed due to the introduction of mass production.
- Henry Ford introduced the assembly line production. His T-model Ford was the world's first mass produced car.
- Mass production lowered the costs and prices of engineered goods. These was a housing and consumer boom in the 1920s, which ultimately led to the **Great Depression of 1929**.
- Markets crashed in 1929, and led to failure of banks, and the American crisis affected other countries. By 1933, over 4000 banks closed and between 1929-32 about 110,000 companies collapsed.
- **India** was also affected by the Great Depression. Indian exports and imports declined extensively, prices fell. Bengal jute growers suffered the most. Large scale migration took place from villages to towns and cities.

REBUILDING OF A WORLD ECONOMY : THE POST-WAR ERA

- The Second World War (1939–1945) was even more devastating than the First. About 3% of the world population perished, more civilians than fighting soldiers.
- **Two countries** — USA and the USSR emerged as superpowers in the post-war scenario.
- **International** organisations like the UNO and others were established to maintain peace and stability.
- **Two lessons** were learnt by the economists and the politicians in the post-war system
 - (i) to ensure mass consumption in an industrial society by high and stable income.
 - (ii) to ensure full employment and government control of flows of goods, capital and labour.
- Bretton Woods Agreement (July 1944). To ensure a stable economy a framework was agreed upon at the United Nations Monetary and Financial Conference held at Bretton Woods in New Hampshire, USA. It established the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank.
- The IMF was to deal with external surpluses and deficits of its member nations.
- The World Bank was an International Bank for reconstruction and development and was to finance the post-war reconstruction.
- Bretton Woods System was based on a fixed exchange rate. National currencies were pegged to the American dollar at a fixed rate. The western powers, the USA specially, controlled the decision-making provisions such as the right to veto. It linked national currencies and the monetary system.
- The Bretton Woods System benefitted the Western industrial nations and Japan and brought immense trade and income to them.
- Post-war era saw rapid decolonisation and many countries in Asia and Africa became independent nations, supported by UNO and NAM.
- Group of 77 or G-77 was organised by developing countries to demand a new international economic order (NIEO) which would give these countries real control over their national resources, raw materials, manufactured goods in their markets.
- MNCs or multinational companies were established in the 1950s and 1960s and operated in several countries.

Questions:

1. Explain how the global transfer of disease in the pre-modern world helped in the colonisation of the Americas.
2. Why was the First World War termed as the first modern industrial war?
3. What is by meant Balance of Trade?
4. Explain Silk Routes.
5. Describe the main characteristics of indentured labour migration from India.
6. Examine the role of technology during the 19th century with example.
7. Why was a New International Economic Order demanded by Group 77 countries?
8. Nineteenth century indenture has been described on a 'new system of slavery'. Explain
9. What do you mean by 'Corn Laws' ? What happened when it was scrapped?
10. Explain what is referred to as the G-77 countries. In what ways can G-77 be seen as a reaction to the activities of the Bretton Woods twins?

5. THE AGE OF INDUSTRIALISATION

BEFORE THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

- **Proto-industrialisation** was the stage when large scale industrial production took place in the absence of modern factories for international market.
- **Acquisition of colonies** and expansion of trade in the 16th and 17th centuries led to greater demands for goods.
- **Trade guilds**, associations of producers, trained craftsmen and artisans. They restricted the entry of new people into the trade.
- A close relationship between town and countryside developed between farmers and merchants.
- Factories emerged in England in the 1730s. Changes brought about in the production process because of inventions in the 18th centuries, e.g. cotton mill by Richard Arkwright.
- Cotton and metal industry (iron and steel) grew rapidly from 2.5 million pounds import of raw cotton in 1760 to 22 million pounds in 1787. By 1873 iron and steel exports rose to 77 million pounds.
- Small and ordinary inventions contributed in many mechanised sectors like food processing, building, pottery, glasswork, tanning.
- Technological changes were slow and expensive till the late 19th century. Traditional craftsmen played an important role at this stage.

HANDLOOM AND STEAM POWER

- Machines played the following role in the 19th century.

Machines	Labour
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Machines played the following role in the 19th century. • They required large capital investment. • The wear and tear of machines made investors cautious and wary of dependence on them. • Seasonal industries related with gas work, breweries, ship repair, book binders also did not depend on machines. • Machines could produce only limited variety of products like uniforms or products meant for mass production. • Conflict between technology and tradition led to hostility of workers, machines became a target as they caused unemployment, specially among women workers. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There was no labour shortage. Wages were low. Human labour was more dependable and cheaper in those days. • Hand labour could be easily employed seasonally. • Handmade goods were more in demand among the rich and upper classes as a symbol of class and refinement.

- Invention of Spinning Jenny by James Mangreaves in 1764 reduced labour demand.
- Life improved after 1840s due to massive building activities involving road construction, railways, tunnels, sewers. Number of labour doubled in transport industry.

INDUSTRIALISATION IN THE COLONIES

- India started industrialisation under British rule.
- Pre-colonial industrialisation was slow. Silk and cotton textiles were traditional items of export.
- Exported as far as Afghanistan, Persia, Central Asia, South-East Asia from Surat in Gujarat, Masaulipatnam on Coromandel coast and Hooghly in Bengal.
- Number of merchants and bankers involved in the network of import and export.
- Europeans wrested monopoly of trade in the mid-18th century through concessions from rulers, monopoly rights etc.
- Old ports like Surat were replaced by new ports in Calcutta, Bombay and Madras.
- Textile industry changed dramatically after the conquest of Bengal and Carnatic in the 1760s and 1770s.
- Weavers suffered the most. Forced to work for the company, who acted through their agents called Gomasthas.
- After 1770s, the English controlled trade, eliminated competition, prevented the weavers from dealing with other buyers. They were severely punished for delays.
- There was desertion and migration by farmers of Carnatic and Bengal weavers.
- Manchester came to India in the form of cotton textiles produced in English factories.
- Imposition of import duties on Indian cotton and sale of British goods in Indian markets at cheaper rates led to decline in Indian exports of cotton piece goods.
- Exports fell from 33% in 1811-12 to 3% in 1850-51, whereas imports increased from 31% in 1850-51 to 50% in 1870.
- When Indian factories started producing cotton textiles, it spelt doom for Indian weavers. They were already reeling under the price rise in supply of raw cotton due to American War of Independence.

FACTORIES COME UP

- Industries were set up by different groups in different places. Most of the entrepreneurs began as investors in trade with China, Burma, Middle East and East Africa.
- Prominent entrepreneurs were :
 - Bengal : Dwarkanath Tagore
 - Bombay : Dinshaw Petit and Jamshedji Nusserwanjee Tata

- Calcutta : Seth Hukam Chand
- Father and grandfather of G. D. Birla

Time line of Indian Mills		
Year	Mills	Place
1854	1st Cotton Mill	Bombay
1855	1st Jute Mill	(East) Bengal
1860	Elgin Mill	Kanpur
1861	Cotton Mill	Ahmedabad
1862	4 cotton mills	Bombay
1874	1st spinning and weaving mills	Madras
1917	1st Jute Mill	Calcutta

- Europeans controlled a large section of Indian industries like the Bird Heiglers & Co., Andrew Yule and Jardine Skinner Co.
- Factory workers increased from 5,84,000 in 1901 to 24,36,000 in 1946.
- Workers came from neighbouring district of Ratnagiri to work in cotton industries. Peasants and artisans from Kanpur district came to work in Kanpur Mills and migrant workers from UP to work in Bombay textile mills or jute mills of Calcutta.
- Jobbers became a new group of workers who got villagers to work in cities. They gained importance through commissions and services like housing, rent etc.

THE PECULIARITIES OF INDUSTRIAL GROWTH

- Industrial production in India was dominated by European managing agencies. They produced items of export and not for sale in India—tea, coffee, indigo, jute and mining.
- To avoid competition with Manchester products, India produced coarse yarn (thread) in the late 19th century. Swadeshi activists, during national movement, mobilised people against use of foreign goods.
- The First World War led Britain to produce materials for war. Indian factories started producing and supplying war goods, such as jute bags, uniforms, leather boots, horse and mule saddles.
- After the war, the British lost their economic predominance. New technologies developed in Germany and Japan which took the lead. Small-scale industries predominated in India between 1900–1940.
- Large industries were located in Calcutta and Bombay. In 1911, 67% of them were in these two cities.

MARKET FOR GOODS

- A significant features of the 19th century Indian economy was the attempt to dominate it by foreign manufacturers.
- Indian weavers, craftsmen, traders and industries made collective demand for tariff protection, grants or concessions.
- Advertisements became popular as an attempt to increase the sales and win the consumer's confidence.

- Manchester industrialists used their labels on clothes sold in India — “Made in Manchester”
- was written in bold letters.
- Indians used images of Gods and Goddesses, Emperors and Nawabs on calendars to boost the sales.
- During the nationalist struggle and Swadeshi movement, Indians used advertisements very effectively on papers, journals and magazines.

Questions:

1. Explain the followings:
 - a) Women workers in Britain attacked the Spinning Jenny.
 - b) In the seventeenth century, merchants from towns in Europe began employing peasants and artisans within the villages.
 - c) The port of Surat declined by the end of the eighteenth century.
2. Where did the Industrial Revolution start first? Explain the effect of it on the living and working conditions of the working class?
3. Write any three important inventions in the field of transport and communication.
4. Write briefly on Spinning Jenny.
5. Why Indian cotton export had declined in the beginning of 19th century?
6. Explain what is meant by proto-industrialization.
7. Why did industrial production in India increase during the First World War?

6. WORK, LIFE AND LEISURE

CHARACTERISTICS OF A CITY

- Cities developed only when an increase in supply of food made it possible to support a wide range of non-food producers.
- They were often centres of political powers with administrative network, trade and industry. In medieval Europe, some towns and cities also emerged in the periphery of religious institutions like the church or important buildings.
- Majority of European countries remained rural long after the Industrial Revolution began in Britain.
- Migrants from rural areas were attracted to the textile mills of Manchester and Leeds in large numbers after 1850s.
- Special features of the city of London in the year 1750 were :
 - Colossal city or Metropolis, densely populated, the capital of the region.
 - Population 6,75,000.
 - Rate of growth of population from one million in 1810 to four million in 1880.
 - According to Gareth Stedman Jones, in the 19th century England, London was “A city of clerks, shopkeepers, small innsters, skilled artisans and a growing number of semi-skilled workers, soldiers, beggars, servants, casual labourers.”

- **Industries** : Shipping and dockyards, clothing and footwear, wood and furniture, metals and engineering, printing and stationery, precision products like surgical instruments, watches, precious metals. During First World War manufacture of motor cars and electrical goods.
- **Marginal groups** : Society transformed in terms of quality of life, morality and distinction between the rich and the poor. Crimes increased as cities expanded. Petty thieves, and poor people were estimated to be 20,000 in number in London during the 1870s.
- Remedial measures included high penalties for crimes and work offered to the deserving poor.
- Philanthropists concerned about social morality and industrialists watched and investigated the lives of criminals.
- Condition of the children and women worsened as industrial employees. Paid less wages, forced to work in mines and factories.
- Improvement with the passage of Compulsory Elementary Education Act in 1870 and the Factory Act of 1902, which prevented children from industrial work.
- **Housing** : Housing was a huge problem for urban population. Factory workers lived in tenements run-down and overcrowded houses in the poor section of large cities.
- Housing was a threat to public health, fire hazards were expected and there was a fear of rebellion and revolt by the working class (Russian Revolution of 1917 that led to communism in Russia).
- Mass housing schemes for workers were planned.
- **Cleaning London** : It was an immediate problem due to the growth of slums. Life expectancy of a worker was at an average 29, as compared to 55 among gentry. Steps taken to clean London were :
 - Decongestion of localities by introduction of rent control
 - Increasing green open space by building suburbs or countryside homes for the rich.
 - Landscaping and building cottages for single families etc.
- **Transport in the City** : To solve the problem of congestion of traffic, the first underground train opened on 10th January, 1863 between Paddington and Farrington Street in London. 10,000 passengers were carried on that day.
- Underground trains, though objects of cynicism in the beginning, partially solved housing crisis by carrying large masses to and from the city to the suburbs.
- By the 20th century, most large cities like New York, Tokyo, Chicago possessed underground
- train networks.

SOCIAL CHANGE IN THE CITY

- Family life affected in industrial cities, family ties loosened up due to industrialisation.
- Status of women changed and varied among the working class, middle class and upper class.
- The upper and middle classes faced higher levels of isolation. But their lives were made easier by the rising number of domestic maids who cooked, cleaned and cared for young children at lower wages.
- A quarter of a million domestic servants existed in London, according to an 1861 Census.
- Women of lower classes, who worked for wages, had more control of their lives.
- **Men, Women and Family** : Public spaces were male-dominated as women lost their industrial jobs and were forced to withdraw into their homes.
- Political movements like the Chartist Movement, demanded voting rights for all male adults and 10-hour movement for limiting the working hours in factories.

- Women's property rights, adult franchise came much later in the 1870s after a lot of struggle.
- Wars changed the urban family in the 20th century. Families turned nuclear.
- Industrial cities became centres of new market for goods, services as well as ideas.
- They provided mass work, demands for rests on Sundays and other common holidays were raised.
- Leisure and Consumption : Cultural events increased as a form of leisure. Operas, theatres, classical music performances were patronised by the wealthy Britishers during the London Season.
- London Season was a traditional celebration time for the upper class after Christmas and Easter.
- The Pubs were meeting places for drinks, news debates on different issues by the working class.
- Libraries, Art Galleries, Museums, etc. were established in the 19th century, which increased historic sense and pride in British identity and achievements.
- Music Halls and Theatres were popular places of entertainment for the lower classes. Holidays by the sea were encouraged for the working class.

POLITICS IN THE CITY

- **London Riots** : 1886 winter witnessed a 10,000 strong crowd of poor people marching to London from Deptford. They demanded relief from terrible conditions of poverty; dispersed by the police.

1887 riot or the Bloody Sunday of November was the brutal suppression by the police of a similar march.

1889 was the year when dockworkers went on a 12-day strike to gain recognition for their union.

Baron Haussmann's Paris : A forcible reconstruction of cities to enhance their beauty and impose order called Haussmannisation of Paris, it evicted the poor from the center of Paris to beautify the city and reduce possibility of political rebellion.

Baron Haussmann was the chief architect of Paris during the reign of King Louis Napoleon III (1852), one fifth of the streets of Paris were his creation. Buildings were designed on straight, broad avenues or boulevards and open spaces. Though his creation provoked criticism, but gained worldwide popularity and inspired many in the 20th century.

THE CITY IN COLONIAL INDIA

- Urbanisation was a slow process. Only 11% of Indians lived in cities by the beginning of the 20th century.
Only three Presidency cities – Bombay, Calcutta and Madras. They had common features like major ports, warehouses, homes, offices, army camps, educational institutions, museums and libraries.
- **Bombay – The Prime City**
 - Its size expanded from the late 19th century and population grew from 6,44,405 in 1872 to nearly 15,00,000 in 1941.
 - A group of seven islands, originally controlled by the Portuguese gifted to King Charles II of England as dowry by the Portuguese King in 1661. East India Company shifted its base to Bombay from Surat in Gujarat.
 - Bombay, a major outlet for textile goods in the beginning. By the end of 19th century, it became the centre of administrative and industrial control in western India.

- The defeat of the Marathas in the Anglo-Maratha wars led to Bombay becoming the capital of the Presidency in 1819.
- **Main settlers** : Bankers, traders, artisans and shopkeepers. Establishment of textile mills led to migrants coming to the city.
- **Bombay** grew in importance as a junction head of two railways.
- **Housing and neighbourhoods** : Not a planned city, housing and water crisis occurred by the mid-1850s.
 - There was less average space for an inhabitant, greater average density of persons per house in Bombay as compared to the city of London.
 - City planning began in Bombay from fear of plague, in London from fear of revolution.
 - In 1800s Bombay was divided into a native town where most Indians lived and a European or a White town where a European suburban and industrialised zone in the north developed.
- Richer elites like the Parsis, Muslim and upper caste traders lived in sprawling spacious bungalows like the Europeans.
- More than 70% of working people lived in the thickly populated chawls – multi-storeyed structures built in the native parts of the city. 90% of mill workers lived in Cirangaon, a mill village.
- 80% of the total population, according to a census, lived in one room tenements. Average number of occupants 4 and 5.
- Streets used for activities like cooking, washing and sleeping alongside liquor shops and akharas.
- A jobber acted as the village headman. He settled disputes, organised food supply and informal credits.
- **Bombay Improvement Trust** established in 1898 which focussed on clearing poorer homes out of city centre. 64,000 people lost their homes to trust schemes by 1918. **Rent Act** passed in 1918 to keep rents reasonable, created a housing crisis as landlords withdrew houses from markets.
- **Land Reclamation** : Expansion of land difficult due to scarcity of land. Land reclamation only solution.
 - Seven islands joined together
 - In 1784, under William Hornby, a great sea wall built to prevent floods.
 - The tip of Malabar Hill to the end of Colaba was reclaimed by a private company called the Back Bay Reclamations in 1864. The city expanded to about 22 square miles.
 - The Bombay Port Trust built a dry dock between 1914-1918 and created the 22 acre Ballard Estate, in which developed the famous Marine Drive.
- **Bombay as the City of Dreams** : Bollywood became the name of Bombay film industry – Mayapuri, a city of dreams – by 1925.
- Most actors were migrants from Lahore, Calcutta, Madras and other parts. They contributed to the lending of culture, dream, stars as well as slums of Bombay.
- The first film to appear was Harishchandra Sakharam Bhatwadekar's wrestling match in *Hanging Garden* in 1896. Dada Saheb Phalke made *Raja Harishchandra* in 1913.

CITIES AND THE CHALLENGES OF THE ENVIRONMENT

- Biggest impact on environment due to expansion of cities. Natural features transformed. Pollution of water, air and land due to housing, festivals etc.
- Excessive noise pollution due to vehicles, factories and crowds.
- Use of coal in homes and industries, common agents of pollution in 19th century England. Leeds, Bradford and Manchester the most polluted cities.
- Smoke Abatement Acts of 1847 and 1853 attempted to control pollution by legislation.
- Calcutta was the most polluted city in India due to dependence on dung and wood as fuels.
- Introduction of railway lines in 1855 led to more pollution in 1863. Calcutta became the first city to get smoke nuisance legislation.
- The inspectors of Bengal Smoke Nuisance Commission managed to control industrial smoke but domestic smoke continued unabated.
- The cities, however, continued to flourish as they provided freedom and individualism through many opportunities.

- **Similarities between Baron Haussmann in Paris and Lee Kuan Yew in Singapore.**

Paris :

Forcible reconstruction, the poor evicted, took 17 years to build with straight roads and avenues, one-fifth streets completed by 1870. Policemen employed for night patrols, shelters, taps and large numbers employed in building activities. About 3,500,000 people displaced from the centre of Paris. Met with criticism, but Paris became the toast of Europe, centre for new architectural, social and intellectual activities.

Singapore :

A rich, well planned city, a model for city planning worldwide. Before 1965 overcrowding, lacking in sanitation, poor housing and poverty like other Asian cities. Lee Kuan Yew began a massive housing and development programme in 1965, 85% of the population given home ownership. Well ventilated, tall housing blocks, well serviced. Buildings redesigned social lives, crimes reduced by external corridors. Aged housed alongside families, blocks for community services. Migration into city controlled. Chinese, Malays and Indians monitored to prevent racial conflicts. In spite of high material comfort, criticised for lacking a lively and challenging political culture.

Questions:

1. Give two reasons why the population of London expanded from the middle of the eighteenth century.
2. How did the condition of women workers change from 19th to 20th centuries in London?
3. Why a number of Bombay films were about the lives of migrants?
4. Explain the social changes in London which led to the need for the underground railway. Why was the development of the underground railway criticised?
5. How does the historian Gareth Stedman Jones describe the 19th century London?
6. How was the problem of planning and expansion done in Bombay?
7. "Cities developed at the cost of ecology and environment." Explain with examples.
8. Give three reasons why Bombay is known as the city of dreams.
9. Write about the pollution problems of Calcutta (Kolkata) in the 19th century
10. Explain in brief the history of land reclamation in Mumbai.

7. PRINT CULTURE AND THE MODERN WORLD

THE FIRST PRINTED BOOKS

- **Print technology** was developed in China, Japan and Korea first.
- It was a system of **handprinting**. From AD 594, books were printed by rubbing paper against the inked surface of wood blocks. Chinese books were folded and stitched at the sides.
- **Skilled craftsmen** duplicated, with remarkable accuracy, the beautiful calligraphy.
- China was a major producer of printed material for a long time.
- **17th century** : Print diversified. Merchants used print in their everyday life. Reading became a popular leisure activity. Rich women, wives of scholar-officials, published their plays and poetry.
- **By the 19th century** : Western powers started exporting new technology to China. Shift from hand printing to mechanical printing.
The oldest printed book known is a Japanese Buddhist book, the **Diamond Sutra** printed in AD 868.
- Buddhist missionaries from China introduced hand printing technology in Japan around 768-770 AD.
In the 18th century : Edo (Tokyo) published illustrated collection of paintings, showing urban culture; hundreds of books published on cooking, famous places, women, musical instruments, tea ceremony. etc.
From Japan, this art travelled to Europe and the USA.

PRINT COMES TO EUROPE

- In 1295, Marco Polo, a great Italian explorer, brought the art of wood block printing from China to Italy. From Italy it spread to other European countries.
- So far handwritten, expensive books were written on **vellum, a parchment made from the skin of animals**, for the rich only.
- Popularity of books led to book fairs in all parts of Europe but handwritten books were expensive, time-consuming, fragile and awkward to carry.
- **First Printing Press** – invented by Johann Gutenberg of Germany in the 1430s.
- Gutenberg, son of a merchant, mastered printing technique by **1448**. First book he printed was the Bible. It took him **3 years** to print **180 copies**.
- From 1450-1550 printing presses were set up in most countries of Europe. The second half of the **15th century** saw 20 million printed books in Europe, by the **16th century** the number was 200 million copies.
- William Caxton set up the first printing press in England.
- The shift from handprinting to mechanical printing led to the Print Revolution.

PRINT REVOLUTION AND ITS IMPACT

- **Print Revolution** transformed the lives of the people; changed their relationship to information and knowledge; opened up new ways of looking at things.
- **A New Reading Public** emerged due to low cost of books, multiple production of books quickly, reaching out to an evergrowing eager readership.

- Book reading led to a new culture of reading. **Common people heard** sacred **texts** in the forms of ballads recited and folk tales narrated, knowledge to them was given orally.
- **Oral Culture** was now replaced by **print culture**.
- Publishers chose themes which were enjoyed listening to, as rate of literacy was still low till the 20th century in most European countries. Books were sung and recited in gatherings in villages and **taverns** in towns.
- Print led to **religious debates** and **fear of print**.
- People could express their ideas in print and spread them. Fear of books spread.
- **Rebellious and irreligious** thoughts could be spread by new books.
- Many writers, artists, religious authorities and monarchs were worried about the loss of valuable literature due to uncontrolled printed works.
- **Martin Luther** wrote **Ninety Five Theses** in 1517, criticising the Roman Catholic Church for its many rituals. It ultimately led to a division within the Church and the beginning of **Reformation** and **Protestantism** in Christianity.
- **Luther** translated the New Testament into German and it sold 5,000 copies in a few weeks.
- **Dissent** became a part of print. The clergy became afraid of the new awakening.
- **Erasmus**, a Latin scholar and a Catholic reformer, expressed deep fear of printing, accusing the printers for filling the world with slanderous, irreligious and seditious books.
- Catholic Church began **inquisition** to repress **heretical ideas**.
- They began to maintain an **Index of Prohibited Books** from 1558.
- **The 17th and 18th centuries** saw the rise of literacy rates in almost all parts of Europe.
- This led to the reading mania. People wanted more books.
- **Ideas of Issac Newton, Thomas Paine, Voltaire and Rousseau** reached a larger public and their ideas about science, reason and nation became popular literature.
- **Result was** different types of books being published – Ballads, almanacs, newspapers, magazines, journals.
- They gave information about current affairs, prices of various commodities, new discoveries, socio-cultural and political functions.
- Booksellers sold books through hawkers, from village to village. **Chap books** (cheap books sold for a penny) were sold by hawkers called chapmen in England, low-priced books called **Biliotheque Bleue** sold in France.
- **By the mid-18th century** books were believed to be means of **spreading progress and enlightenment**. Books would **liberate society** from the **tyranny** and **despotism**. **Reason and intellect would reign**.
- Mercier, a French novelist, proclaimed : ‘Tremble, therefore, tyrants of the world! Tremble before the virtual writer!’
- **Many historians** believe that it was the **print culture** that created conditions which led to the **French Revolution**.
- **19th century** saw children, women and workers becoming new readers.
- Books for children, textbooks, folk tales were published.
- Women not only became important readers but also writers. Some of the best known novelists of the 19th century were women – Jane Austen, the Bronte sisters, George Eliot.
- **Lending libraries** in England became instruments of education for white-collar workers, artisans and lower middle-class people.

- **Innovations in Print** technology were made throughout the 19th century – (i) Power-driven cylindrical press produced 8000 sheets per hour, (ii) Offset press developed and printed up to six colours at a time (iii) electrically-operated presses accelerated printing operations.
- New strategies in selling – (i) Serialised novels (ii) Cheap series called the Shilling Series (iii) The dust cover jacket.
- The Great Depression of the 1930s led to cheap paperback editions.
- **Impact of Print Revolution** felt in reading, publishing, growth of ideas, knowledge and new ways of looking at things.

INDIA AND THE WORLD OF PRINT

- India has a very old and rich tradition of handwritten manuscripts – in Sanskrit, Arabic, Persian as well as vernacular languages.
- **Problems of Handwritten books** : (i) very expensive (ii) very fragile, (iii) had to be handled carefully and (iv) script written in different styles – could not be read easily.
- **Print comes to India** in the mid-16th century to Goa, brought by the Portuguese.
- In 1579, Catholics print first Tamil book at Cochin. In 1773, the first Malayalam book was printed by them. Dutch Protestant missionaries print 32 Tamil texts.
- First regular periodical in India, Hickey's *Bengal Gazette*, in English in the late 17th century.
- **First Indian Newspaper** to appear, the weekly, *Bengal Gazette* by Raja Rammohun Roy's associate Gangadhar Bhattacharya.
- **Early 19th century**, age of reforms, intense debates around religious issues.
- Traditional practices criticised, new ideas emerged.
- Hindu Orthodoxy debated widow remarriage, *sati*, monotheism, idolatry and Brahmanical priesthood.
- Rammohun Roy published *Sambad Kaunudi* from 1821. Hindu Orthodoxy published *Samachar Chandrika* to oppose his ideas.
- Two Persian newspapers published – *Jam-i-Jahan Nama* and *Shamsul Akhbar*.
- Gujarati newspaper *Bombay Samachar* was published from 1822.
- The Ulema, afraid of the English changing the Muslim Personal Laws, printed newspapers in Urdu and Persian.
- Deoband Seminary, founded in 1867, published *fatwas* telling Muslims how to behave.
- □□ *Ramcharitmanas* by Tulsidas was first printed from Calcutta in 1810.
- The Naval Kishore Press of Lucknow, known as the most prestigious publishing house in this period, made great contribution to Urdu publication.
- Shri Venkateshwar Press of Bombay, another famous firm, published literature in vernacular languages.
- Thus, print connected various people, communities, sects in different parts of the country.
- It contributed to the growth of pan-Indian identities.

NEW FORMS OF PUBLICATION

- Printing created a desire for new kinds of writing.
- The novel soon became a distinct form of print. Other genres of writing were lyrics, short stories, essays about social and political matters.

- A new visual culture was born – painters like Ravi Varma produced images for mass circulation.
 - People could decorate their houses with cheap prints and calendars, even the poor could
 - Cartoons and caricatures in pro-British publications lampooned nationalists and nationalist cartoons criticized imperial rule.
 - **Women** were affected by print culture. Literate fathers and brothers started educating them. Schools for women were set up.
 - There were dissenters too. Hindus believed that an educated woman **would be widowed** soon.
 - Muslims believed she would be corrupted by reading Urdu romances. Some rebellious women defied this prohibition.
 - Examples : A girl from conservative Muslim family learnt Urdu herself. (ii) In the early 19th century, Rashsundari Debi, a young married girl learnt to read in the secrecy of her kitchen. She later wrote her autobiography, *Amar Jiban* in 1876.
- Women Writers** from 1860 onwards were :
- Kailashbhashini Debi, a Bengali, wrote how women were imprisoned at home, denied education, forced to do hard domestic work and was treated unjustly.
- Tarabai Shinde and Pandita Ramabai of Maharashtra wrote in 1880s, about the plight of upper-caste Hindu women, specially widows, with great anger.
- A Tamil novel expressed through a woman character about reading denied to women.
- Begum Rokeya Sakhawat Hossein, a noted educationist and literary figure, condemned men for denying education to women.
- By the 1870s, Hindi printing progressed.
 - **In Punjab** : Early 20th century, Ram Chaddha's *Istri Dharam Vichar*, taught women to be obedient housewives. The Khalsa Tract Society published many cheap booklets with the same message. *Battala*, an entire area in Central Calcutta, was totally devoted to printing popular books, sold by pedlars from door to door.
 - **Print and Poor People** : Poor people could now buy cheap small books sold at crossroads. Public libraries were set up in early 20th century.
 - **Jyotiba Phule**, a Maratha reform pioneer, wrote on behalf of low-castes. His *Gulamgiri* (1871) highlighted the injustices of caste system.
 - **In the 20th century**, Dr B.R. Ambedkar of Maharashtra and E.V. Ramaswamy Naicker in Madras (known as Periyar) wrote against the caste system, read by people all over India.
 - **Workers** like Kashibaba wrote and published *Chhote Aur Bade Ka Sawal* in 1938. An expose' of caste and class distinctions.
 - **A millworker of Kanpur** wrote under the name of 'Sudarshan Chakra' between 1935-1955, a collection named *Sacchi Kavitayan*.
 - Millworkers of Bangalore cotton mills set up libraries to educate themselves.

PRINT AND CENSORSHIP

- Before 1798, colonial rulers (East India Company) did not impose censorship.
- The 1820s saw the Calcutta Supreme Court pass regulations to control freedom of press.
- The Revolt of 1857 changed the attitude of the British. Englishmen demanded repression of the 'Native Press'.
- In 1878, Vernacular Press Act was passed.

- It gave the government extensive rights to censor reports and editorials in vernacular newspapers.
- Militant protests and publication of more nationalist newspapers was the reaction.
- Punjab revolutionaries were deported in 1907. Bal Gangadhar Tilak was imprisoned in 1908 for writing against the deportation in his *Kesari*. Gandhiji condemned the Vernacular Press Act in 1922. He saw freedom of press as a powerful vehicle of expressing and cultivating public opinion.

Questions:

1. Why was China a major producer of printed material for a long time?
2. Why were Manuscripts not used widely in everyday life before the age of print in India?
3. Write a short note on the developments or innovations in the printing technology in the 19th century.
4. What were the difficulties faced by manuscripts in India?
5. Explain the terms Ulema and Fatwas.
6. Explain how print culture had assisted the growth of nationalism in India in the 19th century.
7. How did print culture affect women in the 19th century India? Explain.
8. Describe the salient features of Indian manuscripts before the age of print.
9. What role was played by the print culture in bringing the French Revolution?

8. NOVELS, SOCIETY AND HISTORY

THE RISE OF THE NOVEL

The Novel : A new form of literature in printed style, very closely related to the development of print culture/technology. Improved communications produced a number of common interests among the readers of the novel, they identified themselves with the lives and stories of the characters.

17th Century : Novels take firm root in England and France.

18th Century : Novels really develop from this period.

Readership expands, includes shopkeepers, clerks, along with aristocratic and gentlemanly classes. (people of high birth and social status)

Authors : As their earnings increased, they experimented with different literary styles.

Styles : Henry Fielding, a novelist of the early 18th century, claimed he was ‘the founder of a new province of writing’ where he could make his own laws. – *Tom Jones*.

Walter Scott wrote historical novels about wars between Scottish clans, collected Scottish ballads, which he used in his novels.

Samual Richardson wrote *Pamela* in 18th century in the form of letters. The first **epistolary novel**.

The publishing market was costly at the beginning. Henry Fielding’s *Tom Jones* (1749) was sold at three shillings for each of its six volumes – more than a labourer’s earnings in a week.

In 1836, first novel to be **serialised** in a magazine – Charles Dickens’ *The Pickwick Papers*. The suspense and discussion reminds you of the TV serials today.

Novels become one of the first mass-produced items to be sold.

The World of the Novel : In the 19th century was about ordinary people, reflected the industrial age of the 19th century, problems created by factories, unemployed poor, homeless people living in workhouses.

Examples :

Charles Dickens' novel *Hard Times* described the terrible conditions of urban life under capitalism.

Novel *Oliver Twist* - tale of a poor orphan caught up in a world of petty criminals.

Emile Zola's *Germinial* (1885) - Life of French miners, grim life led by them ends on a note of despair.

Community and Society : Thomas Hardy's novels e.g., *Mayor of Casterbridge* (1886) brought the vast majority of urban readers closer to the rural community through his stories.

Women writers explored the world of women, their emotions, identities, experiences and problems.

- Jane Austen's (1775–1817) *Pride and Prejudice* portrays life of women in genteel rural society in the early 19th century England.
- Charlotte Bronte's (1816–1855) *Jane Eyre* portrayed an independent and assertive girl who protests against hypocrisy and cruelty.
- George Eliot (1819–1880), *Mill on the Floss*, wrote about freedom given by novels to women to express themselves freely.

Novels for the young were written by **R.L. Stevenson**, e.g., *Treasure Island* (1883) which idealised a new type of man, powerful, assertive, daring and independent, novels full of adventure.

Rudyard Kipling wrote *Jungle Book* (1894). Colonisers were portrayed as heroic and honourable, confronting 'Natives', adapting themselves to strange places, colonizing territories and developing nations.

G.A. Henty (1832–1902) wrote popular, historical adventure novels for boys during the height of the British Empire – (*Under Drake's Flag*).

Helen Hunt Jackson (*Ramona* - 1884), **Sarah Wolsey** (*What Katy Did* - 1872) wrote love stories for girls.

Colonialism and after novels appeared in Europe which portrayed colonialists as a superior community. Colonised people were seen as primitive, barbaric and less than human.

Joseph Conrad (1857–1924) showed the darker side of colonial occupation only in later 20th century.

Daniel Defoe's *Robinson Crusoe* (1719) portrayed an adventurer who treats coloured people as inferior creatures. He rescues a 'native' and makes him his slave. Colonial rule was portrayed as necessary to civilise the natives, to make them human.

THE NOVEL COMES TO INDIA

Novels in prose unknown to India till the 19th century. Great epics written in verses. Fourth century AD stories written in Sanskrit, e.g., the *Panchtantra* and *Kadambari*. Earliest novels in Marathi and Bengali.

Baba Padmanji's *Yamuna Paryatan* (1857), a simple story about the plight of widows.

Lakshman Moreshwar Halbe's *Muktamala* (1861) – an imaginary 'romance' with a moral purpose.

Hari Narayan Apte wrote historical novels (1864-1919). His *Ushakala* is famous. Naro Sadashiv Rishud wrote *Manju Ghosha*, a novel full of amazing events. The writer found life dull and uninspiring, so wrote about the marvellous.

The Novel in South India

(i) **Kerala** : Many novels were translations of English novels. Chandu Menon's translation of Benjamin Disraeli's *Henrietta Temple*. Gave up as he realised English culture was difficult for people of Kerala to grasp. Published a delightful novel in Malayalam. *Indulekha* (1889) – First modern novel in Malayalam.

(ii) **Andhra Pradesh** : Kandukuri Viresalingam (1848–1919) began by translating Oliver Goldsmith's *Vicar of Wakefield* into Telugu, abandoned it and wrote *Rajashekhara Caritamu* in 1878 in Telugu.

The Novel in Hindi : Bharatendu Harishchandra was the pioneer of modern Hindi literature. The first modern novel was written by Srinivas Das of Delhi – *Pariksha-Guru* (1882). *Paariksha-Guru* portrayed the inner conflict and outer struggles of the newly emerging middle-class. They had to preserve their own culture and yet adapt to the new colonial society. Novel – a bit too moralising – was not very popular.

Chandrakanta by **Devaki Nandan Khatri** made Hindi really popular and attracted hundreds of readers. Writer for “the pleasure of reading,” it also gave insight into the fears and desires of people who read it.

Premchand wrote in popular Urdu, then shifted to Hindi. His *Sevasadan*, (1916) written in simple style, was influenced by Gandhiji and his ideas dealt with the position of women, dowry and child marriage.

Novels in Bengal were love stories based on historical or past events. Domestic novels portrayed the romantic relations between men and women, and social problems.

Bankim Chandra Chattopadhyaya – His first novel *Durgeshnandini* (1865) started a new trend, portrayed ordinary people with the strength and weaknesses of ordinary people.

Sarat Chandra Chattopadhyaya (1876–1938) was the most popular novelist in Bengal.

The Oriya Novel : First novel, *Saudamani* by **Ramashankar Ray** (1877-1918). Incomplete **Fakir Mohan Senapati** (1843–1918) wrote *Chha Man Atha Guntha* (1902). It means six acres and their two decimals of land. The novel deals with the question of land and its possessions.

The Novels in Assam

The first novels in Assam were written by missionaries. Two of them were translations of Bengali including *Phulmoni* and *Karuna*. In 1888, Assamese students in Kolkata formed the ‘Asamya Bhasar Unnatisadhan’ that brought out a journal called *Jonaki*. This journal opened up the opportunities for new authors to develop the novel. Rajanikanta Bardoloi wrote the first major historical novel in Assam called *Manomati* (1900). It is set in the Burmese invasion, stories of which the author had probably heard from old soldiers who had fought in the 1819 campaign. It is a tale of two lovers belonging to two hostile families who are separated by the war and finally reunited.

NOVELS IN THE COLONIAL WORLD

Uses of Novels

(a) Proved useful to colonial administrators. Vernacular novels, a valuable source of information on native customs and life. They could govern a large variety of communities and castes, with their help

missionaries translated novels into English.

(b) The novel was used by Indians to depict and criticise the defects of their society and how to remove them.

(c) Novels established a link with the past. A sense of national pride was created among readers by glorified accounts of the past.

(d) A sense of collective belonging created on the basis of one's language.

(e) Language of the novel became contemporary. Characters spoke in a manner that revealed their caste, class, region. Readers became familiar with different ways, the same language was spoken in other parts of India.

The Problem of Being Modern : The novels tried to portray how to be modern in a colonial world without losing **dignity, tradition** and **identity**.

Example : Chandu Menon's *Indulekha*.

The heroine Indulekha is portrayed as highly intelligent, artistic and educated in Sanskrit and English. She is very beautiful too. Madhavan, the hero is equally ideal – member of educated class of Nayers from the University of Madras, first-rate Sanskrit scholar. He dressed in Western clothes but kept a long tuft of hair, according to the Nayar tradition. They both represented characters who had taken the best of the colonial West without giving up the traditions of their own culture.

Pleasures of Reading :

(i) New form of entertainment.

(ii) Novels spread silent reading – at home while travelling in trains.

(iii) In Tamil flood of popular novels, detective mystery novels. 'Kalki' wrote popular historical novels.

(iv) *Kathanjali*, a Kannada magazine, published short stories regularly. *Indirabai*, a Kannada novel, written by **Gulawadi Venkata Rao** (1899), told the story of women's education, widow's plight and problems created by early marriages of girls.

WOMEN AND THE NOVEL

- Everyone did not approve of the novel. It was blamed for having an immoral influence on the readers.
- Women and children were specially warned as they could be easily corrupted.

Effect on Women : They did not remain only readers, started writing novels themselves, novels became a lot of expressing a new woman, they could control their own lives. They wrote about women who influenced world affairs.

Examples :

Rokeya Hossein (1880–1932), a widow who started a girl's school in Calcutta, wrote two books :

A fantasy in English – *Sultana's Dream* (1905), which shows a world where women take place of men. (ii) *Padmarag* – which exhorted women to improve their position by their own actions.

Hannah Mullens, a Christian missionary wrote *Karuna o Phulmonir Bibaran* (1852), in secret.

Sailabala Ghosh Jaya, a 20th century popular writer could write because her husband supported her.

- **Caste Practices, 'Lower Castes' and Minorities**
Novels like *Indirabai* (Kannada), and *Indulekha* (Malayalam) were written by members of the upper-castes and had upper-caste characters.
- **Potheri Kunjambu** wrote *Saraswativijayam* that made a strong attack on the oppression suffered by the lower castes, to which he himself belonged.

In Bengal from 1920, a new trend of novel emerged. It portrayed lives of poor peasants and 'low castes'.

Advait Mulla Burman (1914-51) wrote *Titash Ekti Nadir Naam* (1956) is an epic about a community of fisherfolk – the Mallas, who live by the river.

Vaikkom Muhammad Basheer (1908-96), a famous Muslim writer in Malayalam, had very little formal education, took part in **Salt Satyagraha**, travelled all over India, even up to Arabia, working in ship, living with *sufis* and *saniyasis*. He wrote about *poverty*, *insanity* and *life in prisons*, never written before in Malayalam.

THE NATION AND ITS HISTORY

- History in colonial times depicted Indians a weak, divided and totally dependent on the British.
- **Historical Novels of Bengal** were about Marathas and Rajputs, depicted a nation full of adventure, heroism, romance and sacrifice.
- Bhudeb Mukhopadhyay's (1827-94), *Anguriya Binimoy* (1857), was the first historical novel written in Bengal.
- Bankim Chandra's *Anandamath* (1882) is a novel about a Hindu militia that fought Muslims to establish a Hindu kingdom.
- **The Novel and Nation Making** – The novels brought a sense of belongingness by imagining the past.
- This they achieved by including various classes in the novel. For example : Premchand drew characters from all sections of society. In his novel *Rangbhumi*, Surdas – a visually impaired beggar – is the hero. In *Godan*, Hori and Dhania, a peasant couple, fight the oppression of the landlords, moneylenders, colonial rulers.

In short, (i) Novels produce a sense of sharing, (ii) promote understanding of different people (iii) portray different values and communities.

Rabindranath Tagore (1861–1941) was the great Bengali writer after Bankim Chandra. He started with writing historical novels and later wrote novels about domestic relationships. The themes of his novels were mainly condition of women and nationalism.

Questions:

1. Write the main contribution of Vaikkom Muhammad Basheer as a novelist to Malayalam literature.
2. Mention the main theme of *Oliver Twist* written by Charles Dickens.
3. What were the main themes of the novels in the 19th century?
4. Write short notes on :
 - (a) The Epistolary Novel
 - (b) The Serialised Novel
5. Why did novels become popular among women? Write three points.
6. State the significance of the novels of Premchand.
7. “Colonial administrators found vernacular novels a valuable source of information on native life and customs.” Support the statement with suitable examples.
8. Explain any three reasons for the popularity of the novel in the 18th century.
9. How was the involvement of women, the most important event of the novel in the 18th century?

ECONOMICS-X

1. DEVELOPMENT

- Development is the sum total of income plus quality of life. Besides seeking more income one way or another, people also seek things like equal treatment, freedom, security, respect of others etc.
- Different people have different goals in their life. What may be development for one may not be development for another. This can be understood by the following example : To get more electricity, an industrialist may want more dams. But this may submerge the land and disrupt the lives of people who are displaced, such as tribes.
- One common thing among all people is the desire for more income. With this income they buy goods and services for their daily needs. Quality of life depends on non-material things also. Example - A job may give you less pay but may offer regular employment that enhances your sense of security.
- Ideas of development differ at individual and national level. For example, a landless rural labourer may desire more days of work and better wages at individual level; but at national level he may want good educational and health facilities in local area.
- The average income can be calculated by dividing national income by the population. It is also called per capita income.
- Standard of living of people in a country depends on their per capita income. Countries with higher per capita income are more developed than others with less per capita income.
- Education and health also play an important role in the country's development. To know about other criteria we should be familiar with some terms :
Infant Mortality Rate (IMR) : It indicates the number of children who die before the age of one year, as a proportion of 1000 live children born in that particular year.
Literacy Rate : It measures the proportion of literate population in the 7 and above age group.
Net Attendance Ratio : It is the total number of children of age group 6-10 attending school as a percentage of total number of children in the same age group.
- Public facilities are those which are provided by the government to satisfy collective needs of the people. Example – schools, hospitals, community halls etc. It is the best and the cheapest way to provide these goods and services collectively.
- Human development index is the quality of life-index prepared by UNDP. It has mainly three indicators.

Life Expectancy at Birth : It denotes average expected length of life of a person at the time of birth.

Gross Enrolment Ratio : It shows enrolment ratio in primary schools, secondary schools and in higher education.

Per Capita Income : It is calculated in dollars for all countries so that it can be compared.

Adding all the three indicators and dividing by 3, gives the human development index :

$$\text{HDI} = \frac{\text{LE index} + \text{GER index} + \text{Per capita income index}}{3}$$

LE = Life expectancy

GER = Gross enrolment ratio

- Human Development Report published by UNDP is useful for comparison between different countries regarding the educational level of their people, their health status and real per capita income.
- Sustainable development is that process which fulfills the needs of present generation, without causing any harm to the ability of the future generation to meet their own needs.
- It requires preservation of stock of resources including exhaustible natural resources and environmental resources.
- Recent studies show that groundwater in India is exhausted because of overuse. 1/3 of the country is overusing its groundwater reserves.
Another area is exhaustion of natural resources. The resources of crude oil would last only for 43 years more.

Questions:

1. What are the various social indicators of development?
2. In what respect is the criterion used by UNDP for measuring development different from the one used by the World Bank?
3. Why are public facilities needed for the development of the country? Explain any four public facilities.
4. What do you mean by Human Development Index? What are its three components?
5. What are the two basic criteria used for comparing an underdeveloped countries with developed one?
6. What is development? What are the two aspects of development?
7. Why are countries of the Middle East not called 'developed' inspite of high per capita income?
8. Mention any three characteristics of development.
9. Why Kerala has a better human development ranking than Punjab in spite of lower per capita income?
10. What does Human Development Index (HDI) indicate? By whom HDI is prepared?

2. SECTORS OF THE INDIAN ECONOMY

- All activities that give an income in return are called economic activities. Example, people going for work in factories, banks, schools, etc.
- Economic activities can be classified into different sectors on the basis of nature of work.
- Primary sector : Goods which are produced by exploiting natural resources come under the category of primary sector. This sector is also called agriculture and related sector, e.g. - cotton which is a natural product.
- Secondary sector : Transformation of one good into another comes under the category of secondary sector. Manufacturing is one of the important components of this sector. Example : Transformation of sugarcane into sugar.
- Tertiary sector : All production units producing services which help in the development of primary and secondary sectors come under the category of tertiary sector. This is also known as service sector. Example – Services given by doctors, teachers, lawyers etc.
- These three sectors are highly interdependent on one another. This can be explained with the help of an example : Farmers buy goods such as tractors, pump sets, fertilisers

(manufacturing sector) to produce agricultural goods (primary sector). This shows dependence of primary sector on secondary sector. Now farmers want to sell their output. For this, they need transport facilities. It shows dependence of primary sector on tertiary sector.

- There are thousands of goods and services produced in an economy. We cannot add different types of goods in practice. So the value of these goods and services should be used rather adding up the actual numbers.
Comparison can be done among these three sectors on the basis of value of final goods and services produced.
- The value of final goods and services produced in each sector during a particular year provides the total production of the sector for that year and the sum of production in these sectors gives us gross domestic product (GDP) of a country.
- Tertiary sector has emerged as the largest sector because it helps in the development of primary and secondary sectors. Several services such as hospitals, banks, insurance companies, transport, educational institutions are the basic services which are required by primary and secondary sectors for their normal functioning.
- Organised sector covers those enterprises or places of work where the terms of employment are regular. They are registered by the government and have to follow its rules and regulations. Therefore people have job security.
- Unorganised sector covers small and scattered units which are largely outside the control of the government. There are rules and regulations but they are generally not being implemented by the unorganised sector. Employment is not secure in the unorganised sector.
- In unorganised sector protection and support is required for the workers for their economic and social development. Besides getting irregular and low paid work, they also face social discrimination.
- Public sector is the sector which is owned, controlled and managed by the government. Activities in the government sector are guided by the motive of social welfare and not to earn profit.
- In private sector ownership of production units is in the hands of private individuals. Activities in the private sector are mainly guided by the motive to earn profit. Example : TISCO and RIL.
- Employment is an activity from which a person earns the means of living, i.e. income in cash or in kind.
- Unemployment refers to a situation where the persons who are able to work and are willing to work, fail to secure work.
- Underemployment is a situation in which a worker gets work for less time than the time he can work. In other words, he remains unemployed for some months or a year or some hours every day.
- There was a big change in the share of three sectors in G.D.P. (from 1973 to 2000) but data show that such similar shift has not been taken place in terms of employment.
 - In secondary sector output went up by 8 times but in terms of employment it rose up by only 2.5 times.
 - In tertiary sector output went up 11 times whereas employment rose up 3 times.
- Government can create more employment opportunities by providing better infrastructure such as roads, dams, canals etc. Further, this can be enhanced by providing services like banks, transport and communication.

- Set up industries that process vegetables and agricultural produce like potatoes, rice, wheat, tomato, fruits which can be sold in outside markets. This will provide employment in industries located in semi-rural areas.
- Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Programme-2005 (NREGA-2005) This act is implemented as “Right to Work” in all the 604 districts of India. Under this act, all those who are able to work and are in need of work have been guaranteed 100 days of employment in a year by the government. However, only one person per family is entitled to this benefit.

Questions:

1. Using examples from your area compare and contrast the activities and functions of the private and public sectors.
2. Explain how public sector contributes to the economic development of a nation.
3. Explain the difference in employment condition in organised and unorganised sectors?
4. Explain the objectives of implementing the NREGA 2005.
5. Explain the primary, secondary and tertiary sectors by giving examples of each.
6. ‘Economic activities, though grouped into three different categories, are highly interdependent.’ - Discuss.
7. Write any three ways to increase employment opportunities for people in India.
8. Explain the term GDP. Why are only ‘final goods and services’ counted in GDP?
9. Why is agriculture an activity of unorganised sector in India?
10. What is an organised sector? Describe its working conditions.

3. MONEY AND CREDIT

- Money is anything which is commonly accepted as a medium of exchange and in discharge of debts.
- People exchange goods and services through the medium of money. Money by itself has no utility. It is only an intermediary. The use of money facilitates exchange.
- Direct exchange of goods against goods without use of money is called barter exchange (i.e. exchange of goods for goods). This is also known as CC economy (i.e. commodity for commodity economy).
- Simultaneous fulfillment of mutual wants by buyers and sellers is known as double coincidence of wants. Let us understand this concept with the help of an example : A shoe manufacturer wants to sell his shoes in the market and buy wheat. Now he has to directly exchange shoes for wheat without the use of money. He would have to look for a wheat growing farmer who not only wants to sell wheat but also wants to buy shoes in exchange.
- Before the introduction of coins, a variety of objects were used as money. For example, since the very early ages, Indians used grains and cattle as money. Thereafter came the use of metallic coins—gold, silver, copper coins. This process was finally taken over by the paper money (which means currency notes). As the volume of transactions increased, even paper money started becoming inconvenient because of time involved in its counting and space required for its safe keeping. This led to the introduction of bank money (credit money) in the forms of cheque, demand drafts, credit cards etc.
- The major function of a bank is to give loans, particularly to businessmen and entrepreneurs and thereby earn interest.

- Banks get money for providing loans by accepting the deposits from people. Deposits are the lifeline of a bank. These are of two types : time deposits and demand deposits. Time deposits can be withdrawn only after a specified period of time. Demand deposits in the bank can be withdrawn on demand by issuing cheques.
- The facility of cheques against demand deposits makes it possible to directly settle payments without the use of cash.
- Credit (i.e. giving loans) refers to an agreement in which the lender supplies the borrower with money, goods or services in return for the promise of future payments with interest. Credit plays a vital and positive role in the society. This can be explained further with the help of a suitable example. Saleem obtains loans to meet the needs of production. The credit helps him to meet the need of ongoing expenses of production, complete production in time and thereby increase his earnings.
- Sometimes, credit, instead of helping people, pushes them into a debt trap. In Swapana's case who is a farmer, the failure of crop made loan repayment impossible. Credit in this case pushes the borrower into a situation from which recovery is painful.
- Terms of credit include interest rate, collateral and documentation requirements and the mode of repayment. The terms of credit may vary depending on the nature of the lender and the borrower.
- **Collateral** is an asset that the borrower owns (such as land, building, vehicles, livestock etc.) and uses this as a guarantee to the lender until the loan is repaid.
- **Formal credit** is generally available with the banks and cooperatives. They charge lesser rates of interest than informal institutions. The Reserve Bank of India (RBI) supervises the functioning of formal sources of loan. Informal lenders include moneylenders, traders, employers, relatives and friends etc. They charge much higher interest on loans. There is no one to stop them from using unfair means to get their money back.
- The **idea** behind Self-Help Groups is to organise the rural poor into self-help groups and collect their savings. Saving per member varies from Rs 25 to Rs 100 or more depending on the ability of the people to save. Members can take small loans from the group itself to meet their own needs. The group charges less rate of interest on these loans. If the group is regular in savings, it becomes eligible for availing loan from the bank.

Questions:

1. Which are two major sources of formal sector credit in India? Why do we need to expand the formal sources of credit?
2. Write two main functions of a commercial bank.
3. Why should credit at reasonable rates be available for all?
4. What do you understand by "terms of credit"?
5. How is credit helpful for the country's development?
6. What is the main source of income for banks?
7. What do the banks do with the 'Public Deposits'? Describe their working mechanism.
8. Mention any three points of distinction between formal sector loan and informal sector loan.
9. Explain any two features each of formal sector loans and informal sector loans.
10. How does the Reserve Bank of India supervise the functioning of banks? Why is this necessary?

4. GLOBALISATION AND THE INDIAN ECONOMY

- Globalisation means integrating the economy of a country with the economies of other countries under conditions of free flow of trade and capital and movement of persons across borders.
- Integration of markets in different countries is known as foreign trade.
- Planning Commission in India has laid emphasis on the development of foreign trade in the five year plans due to the following reasons.
- A country can make efficient use of its natural resources :
- It can export its surplus production.
- Further, through effective regularisation of foreign trade, employment, output, prices and industrialisation, economic development of a country can properly accelerate.
- Investment made by Multinational Corporations (MNCs) is called foreign investment.
- MNCs are playing a major role in the process of rapid integration or interconnection between countries. Now more regions of the world are in closer contact with each other than a few decades back.
- MNCs play an important role in the Indian economy by setting up production jointly with some of the local companies. Example : MNCs can provide money for additional investments like buying new machines for faster production.
Take another example - Cargil foods, a very large American MNC, has bought smaller Indian companies such as Parakh Foods.
- Rapid improvement in information and communication technology has been one major factor that has stimulated the globalisation process. To access information instantly and to communicate from remote areas, devices such as telephones, mobiles and computers are very useful. Further, it has played a major role in spreading out production of services across countries.
- Impact of globalisation on the country is manifold. This can be understood by these examples.
- MNCs have increased their investment over the past 15 years, which is beneficial for them as well as for Indians also. This is because these MNCs provide employment opportunities to the masses and local companies supplying raw material to these industries have prospered. But globalisation has failed to solve the problem of poverty and it has widened the gap between the rich and the poor. Only skilled and educated class has benefited from globalisation.
- There is a greater choice for consumers, with a variety of goods and at cheap prices. Now they enjoy a much higher standard of living.
- Liberalisation of economy means to free it from direct or physical controls imposed by the government. In other words, it implies liberating the trade and industry from unwanted government control and restrictions.
- Let us see the effect of foreign trade through the example of Chinese toys in the Indian market. Chinese toys have become more popular in the Indian market because of their cheaper prices and new designs. Now Indian buyers have a greater choice of toys and at lower prices. Simultaneously, Chinese toy makers get the opportunity to expand business. On the other side, Indian toy makers face losses.
- World Trade Organisation (WTO) was started at the initiative of developed countries. The main objective of the World Trade Organisation is to liberalise international trade. At present 149 countries are members of the WTO.

- At present, central and state governments in India are taking special steps to attract foreign companies to invest in India. For this, Special Economic Zones (SEZs) are being set up. Special economic zones have world class facilities – electricity, telecommunication, broadband internet, roads, transport, storage and recreational facilities – to attract investment from MNCs and other companies.
- Globalisation and liberalisation have posed major challenges for small producers and workers. Small manufacturers have been hit hard due to competition. Several of the units have shut down rendering many workers jobless. Around 20 millions of workers are employed in small industries.
- Because of growing competition, most employers these days prefer to employ workers flexibly. This means that workers have no secure jobs. This can be explained with the help of an example : 35 year old Sushila got a job after searching for six months. She is a temporary worker. She did not get any benefit such as provident fund, medical allowance, bonus etc. A day off from work means no wage.
- Competition among the garment exporters has allowed the MNCs to make large profits, but workers are denied their fair share of benefits brought about by globalisation.

Questions:

1. Explain any three ways in which MNCs set up or control production in other countries.
2. How does foreign trade lead to integration of markets across the countries? Give any three examples.
3. Enumerate any three features of Multinational Corporations.
4. Why did India put barriers on foreign trade and investment after independence? Why was the policy changed in 1991? Mention any two reasons.
5. Should more Indian companies emerge as MNCs? How would it benefit the people in the country ?
6. Analyse any three impacts of globalization in India.
7. How has WTO affected Indian economy? What were its favourable and unfavourable impact?
8. ‘Globalisation and competition among producers have been of advantage to the consumers.’ Give arguments in support of this statement.
9. Mention any three steps which have been taken by the government of India to attract foreign investment in recent years?

5. CONSUMER RIGHTS

- When one pays money as the price of a commodity or services and uses it, he or she becomes a consumer. In this sense we all are consumers.
- Consumer buys goods and services because they have some utility and satisfy human wants directly.
- Markets do not work in a fair manner. Often producers are few and powerful whereas consumers purchase in small amounts and are scattered. Hence there is a need for rules and regulations to ensure protection for consumers.
- Consumer movement is basically a social force which originated with the necessity of protecting and promoting the interest of consumers against unethical and unfair trade practices.

- Consumer movement can be more effective only with the consumers' active involvement. It requires voluntary effort and struggle, involving the participation of one and all.
- UN guidelines are a tool for nations to adopt measures to protect consumers. In 1985 United Nations adopted some guidelines for consumer protection.
- Consumer Protection Act was introduced by the Indian Government in 1986. Popularly known as COPRA, it has led to the setting up of a separate department of consumer affairs in Central and State governments.
- The Consumer Protection Act, 1986, ensures the following rights which every consumer in India should possess :
 - Right to choice
 - Right to information
 - Right to redressed
 - Right to representation
 - Right to safety
 - Right to consumer education.
- ISI and Agmark logos represent quality standard for many products. However, for some products that affect the health and safety of consumers such as LPG cylinders, food colours and additives, cement or packed drinking water, it is mandatory on the part of the producers to get certified by these organisations.

Questions:

1. What do you mean by right to be informed? How it protects consumer interests?
2. How does logo with letters ISI, Agmark or Hallmark help consumers?
3. How government protects the interests of consumers?
4. What is the role of RTI Act in India? Explain.
5. Explain any three ways by which people may be exploited in the market.
6. What are the rights given under COPRA for the redressal of grievances ? Explain.
7. Describe any *three* features of Consumer Forum?
8. Explain the consumer's 'Right to Choose' with suitable example.
9. Who is a consumer? Explain five duties of a consumer.

GEOGRAPHY-X

1.RESOURCES AND DEVELOPMENT

- **Resource** : Natural endowments in the form of land, water, vegetation and minerals are called natural resources. Resources are materials which can be transformed in such a way that they become more valuable and useful for fulfilling human needs.
- **Types of Resources** : Resources are classified into various categories such as natural and human-made, renewable and non-renewable, individual, community, national and international resources.
- **Natural and Human-Made or Man-Made Resources** : Natural resources include land, soil, water, vegetation, wildlife, minerals and power resources. Resources created by humans are called human-made resources like engineering, technology, machines, buildings, monuments, paintings and social institutions.
- **Biotic and Abiotic Resources** : Resources obtained from the biosphere like forests, wildlife, fisheries, livestock, human beings, etc., which have life, are called biotic resources. Resources which are obtained from non-living things are called abiotic resources. Iron, copper, gold and lead are abiotic resources.
- **Human Resources** : These resources are made up of the human beings living in the world. They are the most important resource of a nation.
- **Renewable and Non-Renewable Resources** : Some resources have the ability to renew themselves in a given period of time. Plants and animals have the ability to regenerate. Minerals are non-renewable resources. They cannot be remade. Some of the important renewable resources are water, forests, solar, wind and tidal energy.
- **Resource Development** : Some natural resources cannot be used directly. While using the natural resources, we must keep in mind the nature, type and the size of the resources. Ocean water, solar energy, wind energy and climate are inexhaustible resources. Iron, tin, copper, gold and silver are exhaustible but reusable resources. We must reuse and recycle the resources.
- **Resource Planning** : This is a technique or skill of proper utilisation of resources.
Resource Planning consists of three stages —
 - **Preparation of inventory of resources** — This stage includes surveying, mapping and measurement of characteristics and properties of resources.
 - **Evaluation in terms of availability for development** — This stage includes the examination of resources from the point of view of technology, economy and need.
 - **Planning of exploitation of resources** — This stage is related with systematic planning which emphasizes on the use and reuse of the resources. Resource planning helps to reduce wastage and keeps the environment pollution free.
 - **Conservation of resources** — The management of resources by the humans is known as conservation. It is the judicious and planned use of the natural resources.
- **Land resources** — India has a variety of relief features like mountains, plateaus and plains. 43% of the country is covered by plains and they provide cultivable land for growing crops. 30% of the country is covered by mountains and they provide natural resources like forests and wildlife. 27% of the country is covered by plateaus which contain mineral resources, forests and some arable land.

- Total area of India is 3.28 million square kilometres. 44% of the total land area of India is the net sown area. 22% is covered by forests, 4% is culturable waste, 11% is fallow land, 4% are permanent pastures, 14% land is not available for cultivation and 1% is covered by miscellaneous tree crops.
- The landuse pattern in India is determined by both physical factors such as topography, climate, soil types as well as human factors such as population density, technological capability, and culture and traditions etc.
- The degradation of natural vegetation is caused by overgrazing by animals, deforestation, careless management of forests and degradation of land. At present, about 130 million hectares of degraded land exists in India.
- **Soil** : The uppermost layer of the earth's crust, which is loose, fragmented and useful for plants is called soil.
- **Soil Formation** : The factors that contribute to the formation and fertility of the soil are parent rocks, climate, plant, animal and local topography. The soils are made out of rocks. The rocks disintegrate and decompose under the processes of weathering and erosion.
- **Soil Types** : The soils of India are classified into the following types —

Alluvial Soil 2 Black Soil 3 Red Soil 4 Laterite Soil 5 Mountain Soil 6 Desert Soil.

- **Alluvial Soil** : It is of two types — *khadar* and *bangar*. It is found mainly in the Northern Plains and Coastal Strips of the Eastern Coast.
- **Black Soil** : It is derived from the Deccan Traps. It occurs in areas like Maharashtra, Western Madhya Pradesh and Gujarat. It is known for the cultivation of cotton.
- **Red Soil** : It is formed in areas of igneous and metamorphic rocks. It is found in parts of Tamil Nadu, Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh, Orissa and Jharkhand.
- **Laterite Soil** : It is the intensively leached soil of the monsoon climate. It is found in the hills of the Deccan, Karnataka, Kerala, Orissa and parts of Assam and Meghalaya.
- **Mountain Soil** : It is characterised by the deposition of organic materials derived from the vegetative cover. It is found in Meghalaya, Arunachal Pradesh, Eastern ranges, Uttarakhand, Himachal Pradesh and Jammu and Kashmir.
- **Desert Soil** : It is found in the arid areas of Rajasthan, Punjab and Haryana.
- **Soil Erosion** : The removal of soil from one place to another by some natural agent is called soil erosion. Conservation of lands and plantation of trees are the methods adopted to reduce soil erosion.

Questions:

1. Distinguish between potential resource and stock with the help of examples.
2. What does the term 'sustainable economic development' mean? How can we eradicate irrational consumption and over-utilisation of resources?
3. Distinguish between renewable and non-renewable resources
4. Distinguish between Khadar and Bangar. Name any two states where alluvial soils are found.
5. What is resource planning? Give three phases of resource planning.
6. Explain what is meant by national resources and individual resources?
7. Explain the resources on the basis of origin and exhaustibility.
8. What is soil erosion? Write two human activities that lead to soil erosion.

9. Explain the role of human in resource development.
10. Explain the importance of conservation of resources.
11. What are 'resources'? Distinguish between renewable and non-renewable resources. Give examples

2.FOREST AND WILDLIFE RESOURCES

- Humans and living organisms form a complex web of ecological system in which we are dependent on the system for our own existence.
- Forests play a key role in the ecological system as primary producers on which all other living things depend.
- India is one of the world's richest countries in terms of its vast array of biological diversity and has nearly 8% of the total number of species in the world.
- At least 10% of India's recorded wild flora and 20% of its mammals are on the threatened list.
- Based on the International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN) the existing plants and animal species can be classified as Normal, Endangered, Vulnerable, Rare, Endemic and Extinct species.
- The greatest damage inflicted on Indian forests was during the colonial period due to the expansion of the railways, agriculture, commercial and scientific forestry, and mining activities.
- Large-scale development projects have also contributed significantly to the loss of forests.
- The destruction of forests and wildlife is not just a biological issue but is strongly correlated with the loss of cultural diversity.
- Conservation in the background of rapid decline in wildlife population and forestry has become essential.
- Conservation preserves the ecological diversity and our life support systems — water, soil and air.
- The Indian Wildlife (Protection) Act was implemented in 1972.
- The conservation projects focus on biodiversity rather than on a few of its components.
- For the purpose of administration, forests have been classified into three types—
(i) Reserved forests (ii) Protected forests (iii) Unclassed forests.
- Reserved Forests are forests which are permanently earmarked and regarded as most valuable for the conservation of forests and wildlife resources either for the production of timber or other forest produce. Grazing and cultivation is seldom permitted in a reserved forest.
- In Protected Forests, these rights are allowed subject to a few minor restrictions.
- Unclassed Forests consist of inaccessible forests or unoccupied wastes belonging to both government and private individual and communities.
- In India, forests are also home to some of the traditional communities. Belief of tribes that all creations of nature must be protected have led to preservation of virgin forests in pristine form called Sacred Groves (the forests of Gods and Goddesses).
- In India, sacred qualities are often ascribed to springs, mountain peaks, plants and animals which are closely protected.
- Chipko Movement in the Himalayas resisted deforestation.
- Farmers, and citizens' groups like the *Beej Bachao Andolan* in Tehri and *Navdanya* have shown that adequate levels of diversified crop production without the use of synthetic chemicals are possible and economically viable.

- In India, Joint Forest Management (JFM) programme furnishes a good example for involving local communities in the management and restoration of degraded forests.

Questions:

1. What is Himalayan ‘Yew’? Why is it under great threat?
2. Write any three measures to conserve ecosystem?
3. Mention any three measures taken by the governments for protection of wild-life.
4. How many types of forest are classified in India ? Explain it.
5. Give three reasons why we need to save the biodiversity of our planet?
6. Write any three effective practices towards conserving forests and wildlife.
7. Write a brief note on ‘Project Tiger’.
8. Highlight any three differences between endangered species and extinct species.
9. With the help of three examples show how communities have carried out conservation of flora and fauna in India.
10. What is bio-diversity? Why is bio-diversity important for human life?
11. Which three human activities are responsible for the depletion of flora and fauna? Explain.

3.WATER RESOURCES

- The main source of water on earth is the **hydrological cycle**.
- India receives nearly 4% of the global precipitation to rank 133rd in the world in terms of water availability per person per annum.
- If water is not conserved, by 2025 a large part of India will face water scarcity.
- **Water scarcity** is caused by over-exploitation, excessive use of and unequal access to water among different social groups.
- In India, most of the energy required to run industries comes from hydroelectric power.
- The water around us needs to be conserved and managed to safeguard ourselves from health hazards, to ensure food security, continuation of our livelihoods and productive activities, and also to prevent degradation of our natural ecosystem.
- The **multipurpose projects** are meant to tackle various problems associated with river valleys in an integrated manner.
- They help to control flood, check soil erosion, provide water for irrigation and drinking purposes, generate electricity for industries, villages, cities, provide inland navigation, help in preservation of wildlife and development of fisheries.
- Damodar Valley Corporation — built on river Damodar — beneficiary states are Jharkhand and West Bengal.
Bhakra Nangal — built on river Sutlej — beneficiary states are Punjab, Haryana and Rajasthan, Himachal Pradesh
- Hirakud — built on river Mahanadi — beneficiary state is Orissa.
- Kosi — built on river Kosi — beneficiary state is Bihar and our neighbouring country Nepal.
- Chambal Valley — built on river Chambal — beneficiary states are Madhya Pradesh and Rajasthan.
- The greatest example of integrated water management is the building of multipurpose river projects.

- These include the dam which is built not just for irrigation and flood control but also for generation of hydroelectricity for industrial uses, recreation, inland navigation and fish breeding.
- Many such projects have caused environmental damages by inducing earthquakes, destroying natural habitats, causing water-borne diseases and water pollution.
- **Rainwater harvesting** is a technique of increasing the recharge of groundwater by capturing and storing rainwater by constructing wells, percolating pits and check dams.
The main objectives of the rainwater harvesting are :
 - to meet the increasing demand of water.
 - to reduce runoff.
 - to avoid the flooding of roads.

Questions:

1. What is rainwater harvesting? Explain any two different methods of rainwater harvesting in different regions of India.
2. **What is a multipurpose river valley project? Give any four objectives of the multipurpose river valley project.**
3. **Give three reasons for water scarcity in post-independence India**
4. **How have industrialisation and urbanisation aggravated water scarcity in India?**
5. Explain any three disadvantages of multipurpose projects.
6. Why are different water harvesting systems considered a viable alternative both socio - economically and environmentally in a country like India?
7. 'Large multi-purpose projects also lead to land degradation.' Explain.

4. AGRICULTURE

- Agriculture means land cultivation. It also includes animal husbandry and fishing.
- At present in different parts of India, the types of farming being carried out are primitive subsistence farming, intensive subsistence farming and commercial farming.
- Primitive subsistence farming is characterised by small and scattered landholdings and use of primitive tools. The farmers do not use fertilisers and high-yielding varieties of seeds.
- Intensive subsistence farming is carried out in the areas with high population pressure on land. Irrigation, fertilisers and pesticides are used to get maximum output from limited land. Various machines are introduced.
- Commercial farming is characterised by use of higher doses of modern inputs in order to obtain higher productivity.
- Plantation farming, a form of commercial farming, involves growing of a single crop on a large area.
- In India, there are three crop seasons —
- Kharif, Rabi, Zaid.
 - Kharif — It starts with the onset of the monsoon and continues till the beginning of winter (June-July to September-October). The kharif crops include rice, maize, millet, cotton, jute, groundnut, moong, urad, etc.
 - Rabi — It starts with the beginning of winter and continues till the beginning of summer (October-December to April-June). The rabi crops include wheat, barley, gram and oilseeds.

- Zaid — This is a short crop season in between the rabi and the kharif season. Crops like watermelons, muskmelons, cucumber, some vegetables and fodder crops are the major crops.
- India produces a wide variety of crops, namely cereals, pulses and oilseeds, fibre crops, beverage crops, cash crops.
 - Cereals — It covers about three-fourth of the total cropped area of the country. The principal cereals grown in India are — rice, wheat, millets, maize, pulses.
 - Rice — It requires a temperature between 20° to 27°C and a rainfall above 100 cm.
 - Wheat — It requires a temperature between 16° to 22°C and a rainfall between 50-75 cm.
 - Millets — Jowar, Bajra, Ragi.
 - Fibre crops — Cotton and jute are the two important fibre crops grown in India.
 - Beverage crops — Tea and coffee are important beverage crops.
 - Cash crops — The major cash crops are sugarcane, rubber, tobacco, spices and fruits and vegetables.
- Persian wheel has been replaced by water pump, the plough by tiller and harrow drawn by tractor, the bullock cart by truck.
- Flooding of fields is being replaced by drip irrigation. Chemical fertilisers took the place of farm manure.
- Chemical fertilisers are being replaced by bio-fertilisers.
- The technological advancements gave birth to Green Revolution, White Revolution or Operation flood.
- The Government abolished the Zamindari system.
- Radio and television inform the farmers about the new improved techniques of farming.
- Rural banks, cooperative societies and Kisan Credit Card ensure easy availability of funds to farmers.
- Agriculture is the backbone of the Indian economy.
- Considering the importance of agriculture the Government of India took steps to modernize agriculture.
- Indian Council of Agricultural Research (ICAR) was established.
- Indian farmers are facing a big challenge from international competition but our government is going ahead with reduction in the public investment in agriculture sector, particularly in irrigation power, rural roads, market and mechanisation.
- The foodgrain production has increased from 51 million tonnes in 1950-51 to 209.8 million tonnes in 1999-2000.
- A food stock of 44.7 million tonnes had been accumulated in 2001.
- In spite of the surplus foodgrains, many Indians do not have enough money to feed themselves.
- There has been a gradual shift from cultivation of food crops to cultivation of fruits, vegetables, oilseeds and crops which also act as industrial raw material.
- In 2000-01, India produced only 196.8 million tonnes of foodgrain.
- The use of more and more land for construction of factories, warehouses and shelters has reduced the land under cultivation and new fertile land for farming is no longer available.
- Fertilisers, pesticides and insecticides which once showed a dramatic result are now being held responsible for degrading soils.
- Periodic scarcity of water has led to reduction in area under irrigation. Inefficient water management has led to waterlogging and salinity.

- Biotechnology can be used to modify different crops genetically to increase the yield per hectare.
- Biotechnology is environmentally safe and sustainable.
- Globalisation is based on the philosophy of free and open international trade.
- Globalisation ensures that good quality goods at competitive prices alone will survive in the market.
- India has an abundance of human labour. Every effort will have to be made to raise their efficiency and equip them with new and advanced tools, implements and machines to enable them to compete with their counterparts in other parts of the world.
- India will have to develop techniques which the developed countries have been using.
- An unrestricted united national market for farm products within the country must be set up.
- This will require the development of roads, electricity, irrigation and credit facilities to farmers and traders.

Questions:

1. Define agriculture. Why has cultivation methods changed significantly over years?
2. What is plantation farming? What are its main characteristics? Name some plantation crops.
3. What are millets? Why are millets very important food crops in India?
4. What is the main cropping seasons of India? Distinguish between them.
5. Differentiate between the kharif and rabi crops.
6. State any four geographical conditions required for tea cultivation.
7. What geographical conditions are required for the cultivation of sugarcane? Name two largest producing states of sugarcane.
8. Explain rubber cultivation in India under the following heads.
(a) Importance (b) Geographical conditions (c) Any two rubber producing states
9. Why has Indian agriculture started a declining trend in food production? Explain any four reasons.

5. MINERALS AND ENERGY RESOURCES

1. Minerals : These are homogeneous naturally occurring substances normally found in solid, liquid and gaseous state.

2. Types of Minerals : Metallic and non-metallic.

3. Metallic Minerals : further sub-divided into ferrous and non-ferrous.

(i) Ferrous (containing iron) are iron ore, manganese ore, chromite, pyrite, nickel and cobalt.

(ii) Non-ferrous (containing metals other than iron) — gold, silver, copper, lead, bauxite, tin and magnesium.

4. Non-metallic Minerals : They are limestone, nitrate, potash, mica, gypsum, coal, petroleum.

5. Distribution of Minerals :

(a) Iron Ore : Basic mineral, backbone of industrial development. There are four varieties of iron ore :

- (i) magnetite (contains 70% iron) — Finest quality, with magnetic properties.
- (ii) haematite (contains 60% to 70% iron) – Most important industrial iron ore.
- (iii) limonite (contains 40% to 60% iron)
- (iv) siderite (contains 40% to 50% iron)

Magnetite and Haematite : These are found in Jharkhand, Chhattisgarh, Andhra Pradesh, Goa, Orissa, Karnataka and Maharashtra.

Well-known iron ore mines : Durg and Bastar districts of Chhattisgarh, Paschimi and Purbi Singhbhum districts of Jharkhand, Sundargarh, Keonjhar and Mayurbhanj districts of Orissa, North Goa, hikmagalur and Bellary districts of Karnataka, Ratnagiri of Maharashtra.

(b) Manganese Ore :

Use : Manganese ore is used for making iron and steel and preparing alloys. It is used to manufacture bleaching powder, insecticides, paints and batteries.

Reserves : The main reserves of manganese ore are found in Karnataka, Orissa, Madhya Pradesh, Andhra Pradesh, Jharkhand, Maharashtra and Goa. 97% of India's manganese ore is mined in the states of Maharashtra, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Karnataka and Andhra Pradesh.

(c) Copper :

Use — Copper is used for making utensils, electric wires and alloys.

Distribution — 90% of the copper reserves are concentrated in Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan, Jharkhand, Gujarat, Karnataka and Andhra Pradesh.

(d) Bauxite : It is an ore from which aluminium is obtained. Aluminium is used in manufacturing of aeroplanes, utensils and other household goods.

Distribution : Jharkhand, Orissa, Gujarat, Maharashtra, Chhattisgarh, Madhya Pradesh and Tamil Nadu. Orissa is the largest producer (45%) Panchpatmali deposits in Koraput, Orissa and Amarkantak, Maikal hills, Bilaspur-Katni plateau regions are important.

(e) Mica :

Use — It is used in electrical and electronic industries.

Distribution — Jharkhand, Bihar, Andhra Pradesh and Rajasthan.

(f) Limestone is composed of calcium carbonate or calcium and magnesium carbonates.

Use — Limestone is used in the cement industry, smelting of iron and in chemical industries.

Distribution — Madhya Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, Andhra Pradesh, Rajasthan, Gujarat, Karnataka and Himachal Pradesh.

6. Conservation of Minerals : They are non-renewable — should be conserved.

- Wastage in the process of mining and processing has to be reduced to the minimum.
- Export of minerals should be minimised.
- Substitutes should be used in order to save minerals.
-

7. Energy Resources : The sources of energy are — Coal, Petroleum, Natural Gas, Solar Energy, Wind Energy, Hydel Energy.

Conventional Energy — Coal, petroleum, natural gas and electricity.

Non-Conventional Energy — Solar, wind, tidal, geothermal, atomic energy and biogas.

Commercial Sources of Energy — Coal, petroleum, natural gas, hydroelectricity and nuclear energy.

Non-Commercial Sources of Energy — Firewood, charcoal, cowdung and agricultural wastes.

(a) Coal :

Use — Coal is the main source of power generation in India. 67% of the country's requirements of power is met by coal. It is used in the manufacture of iron and steel. It is also used as a raw material for the chemical industry.

Four Types of Coal — Anthracite, bituminous, lignite and peat.

Anthracite : It is found only in Jharia, Jharkhand.

Bituminous : It is found in Jharkhand, Orissa, West Bengal, Chhattisgarh and Madhya Pradesh.

Lignite : It is found in Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu, Assam, Jammu and Kashmir.

Coalfields : These are found in Jharkhand, West Bengal, Madhya Pradesh, Chhattisgarh and Orissa. Famous coal mines : Jharia in Jharkhand, Raniganj in West Bengal, Talcher in Orissa.

(b) Petroleum : Second most important energy source, raw materials for a number of industries.

Distribution : 63% of crude petroleum is produced from Mumbai High, 18% from Gujarat and 16% from Assam. Small quantity of oil is also produced in Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh and Arunachal Pradesh.

Important offshore oilfields — Mumbai High, Bassein and Aliabet.

Important oilfields in Gujarat — Ankleshwar, Lunej, Kalol.

Oil Refineries — Trombay, Koyali, Lunej and Kalol.

Important oilfields in Assam — Digboi, Naharkatiya, Moran, Hygrijan. Oil from these fields is refined at Digboi, Guwahati, Bongaigaon in Assam and Barauni in Bihar.

Questions:

1. What are minerals? How are they classified?
2. Describe the qualities of four different types of coal found in India. How is coal formed?
3. What are renewable resources? Why has it become necessary to use renewable energy resources?
4. What is mineral? Mention two types of formations in which they occur.
5. Explain why the use of non-conventional sources of energy is becoming necessary in our country? Give three reasons.
6. Describe any three factors which play a very important role in turning a mineral reserve into a mine.
7. 'Energy saved is energy produced'. Justify the statement by giving any six measures to conserve the energy resources.
8. "India is highly dependent on coal for meeting its commercial energy requirement." Support the statement with three arguments.
9. Why do we need to conserve energy resources? Write two ways to conserve energy resources?
10. Explain any three measures for the conservation of minerals.

6. MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES

1. Manufacturing is production of goods in large quantities after processing raw materials to more valuable products.

2. **Classification of Industries** is done on the basis of their main role, capital investment, ownership, source of raw materials and the bulk and weight of raw material and finished goods.

3. **Large Scale Industries** employ a large number of labourers.

4. **Small Scale Industries** employ a small number of labourers.

5. Heavy Industries use heavy and bulky raw materials.

6. Light Industries use light raw materials.

7. Manufacturing is considered the backbone of development in general and economic development in particular.

8. The NMCC (National Manufacturing Competitiveness Council) was set up when it was felt that, with appropriate policy interventions by the government and renewed efforts by the industry to improve productivity, manufacturing can achieve its target over the next decade.

9. Industrial locations are influenced by availability of raw materials, labour, capital, power and market. It is rarely possible to find all these factors available at one place.

10. Agro-based industries : Industries based on agricultural raw materials. For example, cotton textiles, jute textiles, woollen textiles, silk textiles, synthetic textiles, sugar industry.

11. Cotton textiles : It occupies a unique position in Indian economy, contributes 14% of industrial production. Provides employment to 35 million persons directly. Earlier the cotton textile industries were located in Maharashtra and Gujarat. Today, they are spread over 80 towns and cities of India. Scarcity of good-quality cotton, obsolete machinery, erratic power supply, low productivity of labour and stiff competition are some of the problems faced by the cotton textiles industry.

12. Jute textiles : There are about 70 jute mills in India and most of the jute is produced in West Bengal. Mainly in the Hugli basin produced in Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Assam and Tripura.

13. Sugar : There are 460 sugar mills in the country. 50% of them are found in Uttar Pradesh and Maharashtra. Karnataka, Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh and Gujarat are also important producers of sugar in the country.

14. Mineral-based Industries : Industries using minerals as their raw materials — iron and steel, cement, chemical industries, aluminium smelting, copper smelting, fertiliser industry, etc.

Iron and Steel Industry :

- The iron works of Kulti, Burnpur started local production in 1870.
- The first modern steel plant was set up at Jamshedpur in 1907.
- Today there are 10 primary integrated iron and steel plants and around 200 mini steel plants in the country.
- Raw materials used in this industry are iron ore, coal, limestone and manganese ore.
- The location of this industry is decided by the availability of raw materials. All the
- important iron and steel plants are located in the north-eastern and southern parts of the Indian Peninsula.
- Only Visakhapatnam has a coastal location.
- These plants are managed by the Steel Authority of India Ltd. (SAIL)
- India produces about 32.8 million tonne of steel and ranks ninth among the world crude steel producers.

Aluminium Smelting :

- Aluminium is a good conductor of heat and electricity.
- It is used as a substitute of steel, copper, zinc and lead.
- In the production of one tonne of aluminium, 6 tonnes of bauxite and 18,600 kwh of electricity is required.
- The availability of electricity and bauxite decides the location of this industry.
- The 8 aluminium plants in the country are located in Orissa, West Bengal, Kerala, Uttar
- Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, Maharashtra and Tamil Nadu.
- India produces over 600 million tonnes of aluminium per annum.

Chemical Industry :

- Heavy inorganic chemicals include sulphuric acid, nitric acid, alkalis, caustic soda and soda ash. They are widely spread around the country.

Sulphuric acid is used in the manufacture of fertilisers, synthetic fibres, plastics, paints and dyes.

Soda ash is used in the manufacture of glass, paper, soap and detergents.

- Heavy organic chemicals include petrochemicals which are used in the manufacture of synthetic fibres, synthetic rubber, plastics, dyestuffs, drugs and pharmaceuticals. These chemical plants are located near oil refineries and petrochemical plants.
- The chemical industries contribute 14% of the production of entire manufacturing sector.

Fertiliser Industry :

- The first plant was set up at Ranipet in Tamil Nadu.
- With the setting up of a plant at Sindri by the Fertiliser Corporation of India (FCI) in 1951, the production of fertilisers increased.
- With the onset of the Green Revolution, this industry was set up in Gujarat, Tamil Nadu, Uttar Pradesh, Punjab and Kerala.
- Other important producers are Andhra Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan, Bihar, Maharashtra, Assam, West Bengal, Goa, Delhi, Madhya Pradesh and Karnataka.
- There are 57 fertiliser units manufacturing nitrogenous fertilisers, 29 for urea and 9 for ammonium sulphate as a by-product, 68 other small units produce single super phosphate.

Cement Industry :

- Cement is used for the construction of buildings, houses, factories, roads and dams.
- The raw materials used are limestone, silica, alumina and gypsum, coal and electric power are also used.
- The first cement plant was set up at Chennai in 1904. At present, there are 119 large and over 300 mini cement plants in India.
- Indian cement is in great demand in South and East Asia, Middle East and Africa because of its superior quality.

15. Automobiles : Commercial vehicles like trucks, passenger buses, cars, motor cycles, scooters, etc., are manufactured in large numbers. India is the second largest producer of three wheelers. The industries producing bicycles, scooters and motorcycles are distributed around Delhi, Gurgaon, Mumbai, Pune, Chennai, Kolkata, Lucknow, Indore, Hyderabad, Jamshedpur and Bengaluru.

16. Electronic Industry : Bengaluru has emerged as the electronic capital of India. Other major electronic goods producing centres are Hyderabad, Delhi, Mumbai, Chennai, Kolkata, Kanpur, Pune, Lucknow and Coimbatore. Many Software Technology Parks have also developed.

17. Industries create four types of pollution, namely air, water, land and noise.

18. Air pollution is caused due to the presence of carbon monoxide and sulphur dioxide. Dust, fume, mist spray and smoke contain both types of particles.

19. Water pollution : Coal, dyes, soaps, pesticides, fertilisers, plastics and rubber are some common pollutants. The principal industries which create water pollution are paper pulp, textiles, chemical, petroleum, refinery, tannery and electroplating.

20. Thermal pollution of water occurs when hot-water from factories and thermal plants is drained into rivers and ponds before cooling.

21. Noise pollution means unwanted, extra, noise created due to industrial machineries etc.

22. Measures to Control Environmental Degradation :

- Proper fuel selection and utilisation.

- Use of oil instead of coal in the industries.
- Treatment of liquids in three phases :
 - Primary treatment by mechanical process.
 - Secondary treatment by biological process.
 - Tertiary treatment by biological, chemical and physical processes.
- Pollution of land and soil can be controlled by three activities :
 - Collection of wastes from different places.
 - Dumping and disposing the wastes by land-filling.
 - Recycling of wastes for further use.

Questions:

1. 'Agriculture and industry are complimentary to each other.' Justify the statement.
2. Why did the traditional cotton textile industry of India receive a setback during the colonial period?
3. Describe any three main features of chemical industry ?
4. Explain any three factors that influence the location of an industry.
5. What are the three main reasons for shifting of the sugar mills to Maharashtra in recent years.
6. What is natural gas ? What is its advantages ? Name one region of India where its reserves are found.
7. Examine how can the industrial pollution of freshwater resources.
8. What are software technology parks ? State any two points of significance of Information Technology industry in India ?
9. Distinguish between agro based and mineral based industries. Also give two examples of each.

7. LIFELINES OF NATIONAL ECONOMY

- **Transport** is divided into three modes — land, water and air transport. Land transport consists of roads and railways. Water transport consists of river or inland transport and sea or oceanic transport. The latest and the fastest mode of transport is air transport. There are five types of **transport systems in India** — roadways, railways, pipelines, waterways and airways.
- **Roads** : A number of roads were built during the Mughal rule. Sher Shah Suri built the Grand Trunk Road from Chittagong (now in Bangladesh) in the east to Peshawar (now in Pakistan) in the west.
- **Significance of Roads** :
Roads are cheap and easy, both in construction and maintenance.
They connect fields with markets, factories with farms and help in providing door to door service.
Roads are useful for short distances both for passengers and goods.
- **Types of Roads** : Roads in India are of different types — (i) national highways (ii) state highways (iii) district roads (iv) village roads (v) border roads.
- **Expressways** are highways with 4 to 6 lanes for long-distance, fast-moving traffic between one part of the country to another.
- **Length** : India has a road length of about 2.3 million kilometres, one of the largest road networks in the world. Of these 57% are surfaced roads.

- **National Highways** : Connect one state with another and are of national importance. There are about 65,000 km of national highways. They constitute 2% of the total road network but carry 40% of total road traffic. They are constructed and maintained by the Central public works department (CPWD).
- **State Highways** are constructed and maintained by the State public works department (PWD). They join state capitals with district headquarters and other places of the district.
- **Village Roads** connect the villages with the neighbouring towns and cities.
- **Border Roads** are maintained by the Border Roads Organisation.
- **The Expressway National Highways** : About 14,846 km of national highways will be constructed between 1999–2007. These roads with 4 or 6 lanes are named as—
Golden Quadrilateral will connect Delhi, Mumbai, Chennai, and Kolkata. It will have a length of 5,846 km.
North-South and East-West Corridors will connect Srinagar to Kanniyakumari and Silchar to Porbandar and it will have a length of 7,300 km.
- A road with a length of 1157 km will connect 10 major ports, namely Kandla, JawaharlalNehru Port, Marmagao, Tuticorin, Chennai and Ennore, Visakhapatnam, Paradip and Haldia.
All these national highways are based on the concept of Build, Operate and Transfer (BOT).
- **Railways** : The railways are now 157 years old in India. The total length of railways is about 63,221 km. India has the second largest railway network in Asia and the sixth largest railway network after USA, Russia, Canada, Germany and China. The Indian Railways carry 40,000 lakh passengers and 4,000 lakh tonnes of goods a year. It had a fleet of 7817 locomotives, 5321 passenger service vehicles, 4904 other coach vehicles and 228,170 wagons as on 3rd March 2004.
- **Improvement in Railways** : Metre gauge lines are being converted to broad gauge. Steam engines have been replaced by diesel and electric engines. Other improvements are being made in the area of track replacement, introduction of fast-moving trains and providing public amenities at the railway stations.
- **Three Gauges of the Railways** : Broad gauge (1.675 m), Metre gauge (1.000 m) and Narrow gauge (0.762 m and 0.610 m).
- **Unigauge System of Railways** has larger capacity, higher speed, cheaper transportation and reduction in trans-shipment. At present, 70.72% of rail routes are broad gauge, 23.92% metre gauge and 5.36% narrow gauge.
- **Pipelines** were earlier used for the transportation of water and now they are being used for the transportation of crude oil, petroleum products and natural gas.
- **Important Network of Pipelines** :
From oilfields in upper Assam to Kanpur.
From Salaya in Gujarat to Jalandhar in Punjab.
Gas pipelines from Hazira in Gujarat to Jagdishpur in Uttar Pradesh, via Bijaipur in Madhya Pradesh.
- **Inland Waterways** have a length of 14,500 km. The Government has declared the following waterways as National Waterways :
The Ganga river between Allahabad and Haldia (1,620 km). - National Waterway No. 1.
The Brahmaputra between Sadiya and Dhubri (891 km). — National Waterway No. 2.
 - Kollam and Kottapuram (168 km).
 - The Champakara Canal (14 km). — National Waterway. No. 3.
 - The Udyogamandal Canal (22 km).

- **Airways** are the fastest mode of transport but they are the costliest ones. In 1953, air transport was nationalised.
In India, domestic services are provided by Indian Airlines, Alliance Air, private scheduled airlines. Air India provides international air services. Pawan Hans Helicopters Ltd. provides helicopter services to Oil and Natural Gas Commission in its offshore operations. Indian Airlines operations also extend to neighbouring countries of South East Asia and Middle East.
- **Types of Airways :** There are two types of airports in India—
(i)International, and (ii) Domestic.
- **International Airports :** Delhi, Mumbai, Kolkata, Chennai, Thiruvananthapuram, Bengaluru, Amritsar, Hyderabad, Ahmedabad, Panaji, Guwahati and Cochin.
- **Domestic Airports :** There are 63 domestic airports in the country.
Airports are managed by the Airport Authority of India.
- **Seaports :** India has 12 major, 181 medium and minor seaports.
- **Major Ports on the West Coast :** Kandla, Mumbai, Jawaharlal Nehru (Nhava Sheva), Marmagao, New Mangalore and Cochin.
- **Major Ports on the East Coast :** Kolkata, Haldia, Paradip, Visakhapatnam, Chennai, Ennore and Tuticorin.
- **Biggest Port :** Mumbai.
- **Communication :** The means of communication are divided into two categories — personal and mass communication. **Personal communication** includes postcards, letters, telegrams, telephones and internet. **Mass communication** includes handbooks, journals, magazines, newspapers, radio, television and films. They are of two types (i) print media, (ii) electronic media.
- **Personal Written Communication :** Indian postal network — 1.5 lakh post offices in India.
- **First-Class Mail :** Mail that is air lifted between stations.
- **Second-Class Mail :** Mail that is carried by surface covering land and water transport.
- **Mass Communication :** Radio, television, newspapers including magazines, books and films.
- **International Trade :** Trade between two countries is called the international trade.
- **Trade :** Exchange of goods between two parties such as people, states and countries.
- **Economic Barometer :** International trade of a country.
- **Balance of Trade :** The difference between exports and imports.
Favourable balance of trade : If the value of exports is more than the value of imports.
Unfavourable balance of trade : If the value of imports is more than the value of exports.
- **Tourism as a Trade :** Tourism promotes national integration and develops an international understanding. It supports local handicrafts and cultural pursuits.
- Foreign tourists arrivals in the country witnessed an increase of 23.5% during the year 2004 as against the year 2003, thus contributing Rs 21,828 crore of foreign exchange.

Questions:

1. Write a short note on the Golden Quadrilateral and the North-South and East-West Corridors.
2. Which are the three important networks of pipeline transportation in the country? What is the significance of developing pipeline transportation in India?

3. What are the advantages of waterways as a means of transport? Mention the names of three National Waterways in India.
4. Why is international trade considered the economic barometers for a country?
5. What is meant by road density? Describe any four advantages Roadways have over Railways.
6. Explain any four factors responsible for the development of iron and steel industries.
7. Explain any four major problems faced by Indian Railways.
8. 'Transport, communication and trade are complementary to each other.' Explain with four examples.
9. What is meant by international trade. State any features of India's international trade.
10. What is the importance of railways transport ? Explain three major problems faced by Indian railways.

POL. SCIENCE-X

1. POWER SHARING

The lesson illustrates, with the examples of Belgium and Sri Lanka, how power-sharing is handled by democracies and we learn how necessary it is to share power in a democracy wisely.

BELGIUM

Geographical Position : Small country in Europe, bordered by the Netherlands, France and Germany.

Area and Population : Smaller in area than the Indian state of Haryana. Population a little over one crore, half of the state of Haryana.

Ethnic Composition : 59% live in Flemish region — speak **Dutch**
40% live in Wallonia region — speak **French**
1% speak **German**

Capital : Brussels-80% speak French, 20% Speak Dutch.

- In Brussels, the Dutch-speaking people are in a **minority** which is the opposite of the rest of the country, where they are in a **majority**.
- The minority population of French-speaking people was richer than the Dutch-speaking people. The majority community were given benefits much later. This led to tension between the two communities in the 1950s and 1960s. Tension was more acute in the capital city of Brussels.

SRI LANKA

Geographical Position : A small island in Asia, off the southern coast of Tamil Nadu.

Population : Same as Haryana's. About two crore people.

Ethnic Composition : 74% Sinhalese-speaking people
18% Tamil-speaking people, 13% are natives of Sri Lanka,
known as **Sri Lankan Tamils**.

The rest are called **Tamil Lankans** who are descendants of plantation workers, who came from India during the colonial period.

Religion : Most of the Sinhala-speaking people are **Buddhists**. Most of the Tamils are

Hindus or Muslims. Christians constitute 7% of the population and they belong to both Sinhala and Tamil communities.

- **Majoritarianism in Sri Lanka**

- **Meaning of Majoritarianism :** A belief that only the majority community should rule a country, make laws for everyone and with total disregard to the wishes and needs of the minority.

Sri Lanka became independent in 1948. It immediately adopted measures to impose Sinhala supremacy.

Examples :

- It made Sinhalese the official language of the country (by an Act in 1956), and ignored Tamil completely.
- Made a preferential policy to favour Sinhala-speaking people in all government jobs and educational institutions.
- It promoted and protected Buddhism.

Result. The Tamils felt alienated. No respect or recognition was given to their language, culture and religion. They began a struggle for equality in jobs, entry to the university, recognition of their language and culture. Slowly the conflict changed into a demand for regional autonomy. The Tamilians were grouped together in the North and East of Sri Lanka. Their demands were ignored, the conflict became more severe and by the 1980s, the Tamilian demand had changed. They wanted **TAMIL EELAM** in the North and East. A civil war ensued, which killed thousands on both sides. The flourishing economy of Sri Lanka has disappeared and the conflict has given a blow to social, cultural and economic life of Sri Lanka.

Accommodation in Belgium

Belgium, unlike Sri Lanka, has taken a totally different stand. It amended the Constitution to accommodate every ethnic community, with the result that it did not suffer from a civil war, demands for autonomy or partition of the country.

Why is Power-Sharing Desirable?

- **Power sharing** is a must in a democracy.
- There are two sets of reasons which make power-sharing desirable.

REASONS	
Prudential	Moral
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reduces the possibility of conflicts between different social groups. Social conflicts lead to violence, political instability 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The spirit of democracy calls for power sharing
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Prevents groups from overstepping their rights to enhance their own power 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • People who are affected by the policies must have a hand in shaping those policies
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No single group can subvert the constitution, power sharing unites the nation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Citizens' participation is a must
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • When power is not shared, it oppresses the minority and even the majority is ruined 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Moral reasons make power sharing essential and valuable

Forms of power sharing

- Power is shared **among different organs of government**, such as the
 - Legislature,
 - Executive and
 - Judiciary.
- Power can be shared among governments at different levels
 - a)
 - Central or Union Government
 - State Governments
 - b)
 - Municipality and Panchayat. Level
(Local Self Government)

The entire country is usually called federal government.

- **Different social groups**, such as the religious and linguistic groups : such as Belgium & Lebanon.
- **Social Movement**: Force to Government to change law- Dowry, Child Marriage etc.
- **Pressure Group**: Influence the Government and force them to change the policies. Farmers, Workers, Industrialists.
- **Political Parties**
 - Lead to Competition - ensures that power does not remain in one hand.
 - Coalition of government formed , if any party fails to get majority
 - Parties have to perform to remain in power

Questions:

1. Give three reasons for the civil war in Sri Lanka.
2. Why is power-sharing desirable in a democracy or any other system of government?
3. Describe with examples the way in which power can be shared among different social and linguistic groups?
4. Describe horizontal and vertical power sharing in modern democracies.
5. How have Belgium and Sri Lanka dealt with the question of power sharing differently.
6. Explain how Belgium was able to solve her ethnic problem.
7. Explain two reasons as why power sharing is desirable.
8. What were the reasons for the alienation of Sri Lankan Tamils? What was the effect of this on Sri Lankan Tamils? What was the effect of this on the country?

2. FEDERALISM

Features of Federalism

- There are two or more levels of Govt.
- Different tiers of Govt. govern the same citizens, but each tier has its own jurisdiction in specific matters of legislation, taxation and administration.
- The jurisdictions of the respective levels or tiers of Govt are specified in the constitution.
- Require the consent of both the levels of Govt.
- Courts have the power to interpret the constitution and the powers of different levels of Govt.

- An ideal federal system has both aspects : mutual trust and agreement to live together.
- The first route involves independent states coming together on their own to form a bigger unit.
- The second route is where a large country decides to divide its power between the constituent states and the national Govt.

Federalism in India

- The constitution originally provided for a two tier system of Govt the union Govt or what we call the Central Govt, representing the union of India and the state Govt. later, a third tier of federalism was added in the form of Panchayats and Municipalities.
- Constitution clearly provided a threefold distribution of legislative powers between the union Govt and the state Govt :
 - Union list :- Defence of the country foreign affairs, banking.
 - State List : Police, trade, commerce, agriculture.
 - Concurrent List : Education, Forest, Trade Union, Marriage.
 - Residuary Subject : Computer software
- Only Jammu & Kashmir has their own constitution.

Decentralization in India

- When power is taken away from central and State Govt. and given to local Govt. it is called decentralization.
- The basic idea behind decentralization is that there are a large number of problems and issues which are best settled at the local level.
- Local govt. gets constitutional importance in democracy.
- And representation of women may also increase with this role played by women in democracy became stronger.

Questions:

1. Give three reasons for decentralization of power.
2. What is the dual objective of the federal system? What is required to fulfill them?
3. What is the role of judiciary in implementing federalism?
4. Why was third-tier of the government created?
5. Explain the threefold distribution of legislative powers between the union government and the state governments.
6. Write a note on the local government bodies in urban areas.
7. How can you say that power-sharing is more effective today than it was in the early years after the Constitution came into force?

3. DEMOCRACY AND DIVERSITY

A Case Study — Mexico Olympics

- Two **African-American** athletes, Tommie Smith and John Carlos, won the gold and bronze medal respectively in the 200 mt. race. For the medal ceremony, both of them wore no shoes and stood in their black socks. They were representing Black poverty, and racial

discrimination against them in the USA. They also raised black-gloved clenched fists to symbolise **Black Power**. The athlete from Australia, Peter Norman, who won the silver medal, wore a human rights badge to declare his support to the two Americans.

- Do you know what was the result of their actions? The Olympic Committee took back their medals for making a political statement and thus violating the Olympic spirit.
- When they returned to USA, they had to face public criticism.
- Peter Norman was also penalised by not being included in the next Olympic.
- Martin Luther King started a movement called **Civil Rights Movement** in the USA (1954-1968) to abolish legal racial discrimination against the African Americans. They used a non-violent approach and used civil disobedience as a method against discrimination.
- Another movement, which started in 1966 and lasted till 1975, was called **The Black Power** movement. It was a militant movement and even advocated violence to end racism in USA.

Origin of Social Differences

This incident shows how people respond to social **divisions** and **inequalities**.

- Social divisions can have many forms.
 - Social divisions can be based on regional differences (as in Belgium and Sri Lanka- different languages spoken in different regions).
 - They can be based on different religions (Sri Lanka)
 - They can be based on racial discrimination (USA, South Africa)
 - Social divisions can lead to social inequalities.
 - Two kinds of social divisions: (i) Based on accident of birth, (ii) Based on people's own choices.
 - All social differences do not result in social divisions. Some can unite people also.
- Most of the social differences are not of our own making, they are based on an accident of birth. Our race, our colour, our religion, our gender or country of birth, are not chosen by us.
- But some social differences are made by us only by choice. For example –
- Non-belief in God, or to follow a different religion, (ii) where and what to study, (iii) which profession to follow (iv) also choose the games or cultural activities we want to follow, etc.
- Our choices lead to the formation of social groups.
- It is not necessary that all social differences should lead to social divisions. People belonging to different social groups share differences and similarities, which cut across all political boundaries.

Important : If religion creates similarities, it can divide people over the issue of caste or sect (Catholic or Protestant, Brahmin or Scheduled Caste).

- Rich and poor persons in the same family differ from each other and lack closeness to each other, for they feel they are different

Overlapping and Cross-Cutting Differences	
Why was there a social division between the Whites and Blacks in USA?	There was a division because the Blacks were poor, homeless and discriminated against. They were not given justice and this created social differences and divisions.
The same problem is faced by the Dalits in India. They are poor and landless	The Dalits face injustice and discrimination in India at the hands of the upper castes.

The above is an example of one difference **overlapping** other differences, people of the same religion feel they belong to different communities.

- Take another example : **In Ireland**, a Christian country, the division is because of religion between the **Protestants and Catholics**.
In Northern Ireland, if you are a **Catholic** you are bound to be **poor** and you may have been discriminated against. There have been conflicts between the two.

CROSS-CUTTING DIFFERENCES

- In Netherlands : Catholics and Protestants both can be either rich or poor, with the result they have never had any trouble. Unlike Ireland, there has never been any trouble in the Netherlands. There reason class and religion cut across each other.
- Which kind of division is more dangerous?
- Overlapping social differences. They can create deep social divisions.
Examples: (i) Led to ethnic war in Sri Lanka which has not yet ended. (ii) Led to the Partition of India in 1947.
- Cross-cutting social differences are easier to handle and accommodate.
- It is important to note here that social divisions of one kind or another exist in every country. No country, big or small, has a homogeneous society, i.e., a society with similar kind of people and hardly any ethnic differences.
- There is another reason — People from one region or country shift to another region or country (both within a country and another country) to seek better economic opportunities. These migrants create social differences and divisions.

RANGE OF OUTCOMES

1. (a) Violent Conflict

Example : Republic of Ireland and Northern Ireland.

(b) Reason : Ethno-religious with political fallout.

Example : Republic predominantly Catholic. Northern Ireland 53% Protestant, 44% Catholics. The Republic wanted them to unite.

(c) Parties : The Nationalists represented the Republic, the Unionists represented Northern Ireland and wanted to remain within U.K.

Example : Violent war where hundreds were killed. Republic of Ireland fought with Northern Ireland as well as with U.K.

Final Outcome : A peace treaty signed in 1998 which ended the armed struggle.

2. Yugoslavia also faced ethno-religious differences. They led to political competition. Civil war followed and Yugoslavia has been broken up now into seven independent nations, namely; Bosnia, Macedonia Croatia, Herzegovina, Kosovo, Serbia and Montenegro.

Conclusion : Social divisions should not be allowed to influence the politics of a country. We have seen the result in our own country — Partition into India and Pakistan.

In a democracy, how do social divisions affect the people?

(i) Social divisions will be reflected in politics (Example : India)

Questions:

1. What could be the two possible outcomes of politics of social divisions?
2. When does a social difference become a social division?
3. What was the Black Power movement? Explain.
4. How far is it correct to say that social divisions exist in only big countries like India? Explain.
5. How is political expression of social divisions in democracy beneficial?
6. What did the African-American athletes in Mexico Olympics do in order to draw international attention to social discrimination in the United States?
7. Write a brief note on two kinds of social differences.

4. GENDER, RELIGION AND CASTE

Public / Private Division

- In fact the majority of women do some sort of paid work in addition to domestic labour. But their work is not valued and does not get recognition.
- Although women constitute half of the humanity, their role in public life especially politics, is minimal in most societies.
- Women in different parts of the world organised and agitated for equal rights. There were agitation demanded enhancing the political and legal status of women and improving their educational and other opportunities. More radical women movements aimed at equality in personal and family life as well. These movements are called feminist movements.

Patriarchal Society : Mostly societies are male dominating even day to day participation of women may increase than also our society is a patriarchal society on the basis of :

- Literacy rate
- No wonder the proportion of women among the highly paid and valued jobs is still very small.
- Her work is not paid and therefore often not valued.
- Women are paid less than men.
- Girl child aborted before she is born.
- various kinds of harassment, exploitation and violence against women.

Religion, Communalism and Politics

- Unlike gender differences, the religious differences are often expressed in the field of politics.
- Communalism happens when beliefs of one religion are presented as superior to those of other religions, when the demands of one religious group are formed in opposition to another and when state power is used to establish domination of one religious group over the rest. This manner of using religious in politics is communal politics. Communalism can take various forms in politics :
- Stereo types of religious communities and belief in the superiority of one's religion over other religions.
- a desire to form a separate political unit.
- Often involves special appeal to the interests in preference to others.
- Ugly form of communal violence, riots and massacre.

Secular State

- No official religion - constitution does not give a special status to any religion.
- freedom to profess, practice and propagate any religion.
- The constitution prohibits discrimination on ground of religion.
- allows the state to intervene in the matter of religion.
- ensure equality within religious communities.

Caste and Politics :

- They keep in mind the caste composition of the electorate and nominate candidates from different castes.
- Political parties and candidates in elections make appeals to caste sentiments to muster support.
- No parliamentary constituency in the country has a clear majority of one single caste.
- No party wins the votes of all the voters of a caste or community.

Questions:

1. How does communalism create problems in politics?
2. What are the effects of communalism on politics?
3. What is secularism? Mention any four provisions of the Indian Constitution which makes it a secular state.
4. Define a feminist movement. What is their objective?
5. How are religious differences expressed in politics?
6. How does the Constitution of India ensure secularism?
7. Explain the sexual division of labour.

5. POPULAR STRUGGLES AND MOVEMENTS

MOVEMENT FOR DEMOCRACY IN NEPAL

CAUSE

- The movement began in 2006. It was a movement to restore democracy which was established in 1990.
- The king had become the head of the state then — but the real power was in the hands of the elected representatives.
- King Birendra, who had accepted Constitutional Monarchy, was killed in a mysterious massacre of the royal family in 2001.
- The new king, Gyanendra, refused to accept democratic rule. He dismissed the democratically elected government, dissolved the Parliament and seized power in February 2005. A movement began in April 2006 to take away power from the king.

MOVEMENT

- All major political parties formed a Seven Party Alliance (SPA).
- They called for a 'four day strike' in Kathmandu, the capital of Nepal.
- Maoist insurgents joined the strike along with other groups and turned it into an indefinite strike. People defied the curfew and took to streets. The security forces could not cope with more than a lakh people demanding democracy every day. On 21 April, they served an ultimatum to the king.

Their demands were : A new Constituent Assembly, restoration of Parliament and an All-Party Government.

Result : The king had to bow down on 24 April, 2006. The king agreed to all the three demands and lost most of his powers. The Maoists and SPA agreed to have a new Constituent Assembly. G.P. Koirala became the new Prime Minister of Nepal. From an absolute monarchy, Nepal became a democracy, after a second movement for democracy.

BOLIVIA’S WATER WAR

Establishing democracy is not enough (as in Poland or Nepal). Popular struggles combine even after establishment of democracy, as in Bolivia.

Bolivia, a poor country in Latin America, sold its municipal water supply rights to a multinational company (MNC). This she was forced to do by the World Bank. The city chosen was Cochabamba. The company raised the price of water four times. People who earned only Rs 5000 a month had to pay Rs 1000 a month for water.

People rose as one man joined by labour human rights and community leaders in January 2000. Strikes after strikes occurred which the Government suppressed brutally. It even imposed martial law in April.

Result : The officials of the MNC fled from the city. The government bowed to the people’s power and the water supply was restored to the Municipality. This event was known as Bolivia’s water war.

Differences and Similarities between the Two Countries

Nepal	Bolivia
Struggle to establish democracy.	Struggle against an elected democratic Government.
Struggle was a foundational challenge	Struggle was against a specific policy
Successful political struggle,	Same as Nepal. Both involved political mass mobilisation. organisations.

CONCLUSION

- Democracy evolves through political struggles.
- Conflict in a democracy between those who exercise power, and those who want a share in it.
- These conflicts happen when : (i) a country goes through a transition to democracy; (ii) expansion of democracy and (iii) deepening of democracy.
- The conflict in a democracy is solved through **mass mobilisation** or institutions like the **parliament** or the **judiciary**.
- Agencies of **organised politics** help these movements.
- Agencies : Political parties, Pressure groups and Movement groups.

Sectional Interest groups and Public Interest Group meaning of Interest Groups.

Usually interest groups seek to promote the interests of a particular section or group of society.

Sectional Interest Groups :- They are sectional because they represent a section of society-workers, employees, business, persons, industrialists, followers of religion, caste group etc.

Features : Their principal concern is the betterment and well being of their members, not society in general.

Public Interest Groups : Public interest group promote collective rather than selective goods. They aim to help groups other than their own members.

Example : BAMCEF (Backward and minorities community employees federation).

Questions:

1. Who were the MNCs? Why were people in Bolivia protesting against them?
2. Explain the difference between the two protests in Nepal and Bolivia.
3. Describe the Maoist party.
4. What conclusions do we draw from popular struggles in Nepal and Bolivia?
5. Differentiate between a pressure group and a people's movement.
6. What is the difference between a sectional interest group and public interest group?
7. What are public interest groups? How do they look after the public interests? Explain.
8. In what three ways can the pressure groups influence the government policies ? Explain.
9. Explain any three common features of the popular struggle in Nepal and Bolivia.
10. How have Pressure Groups and Movements deepened democracy?

6. POLITICAL PARTY

A political party is a group of people who come together to contest elections and hold power in govt and make public opinion among the people of country.

➤ The role of Political Parties to Shape Public Opinion :

- They raise and highlight issues.
- The parties clear the policies of govt. to people.
- The parties clear the policies of govt. to people.
- Political parties give their ideas in favour and against the govt.
- Political parties give their ideas about the new laws made by the govt.
- In this way the political parties help to create public opinion in people. So it is necessary for people if they want to establish democratic govt. they have to analyze for and against democracy.

➤ Challenges to Political Parties

Parties are for the working of democracy parties are the most visible face of democracy. It is natural that people blame parties, criticise them. Parties have to face many challenges :-

- Lack of Internal democracy :-
- Concentration of powers in one hand.

- Parties do not conduct internal election.
- Leaders assume greater power to make decision in name of party.
 - The second challenge of dynastic succession is related to the first one. Those who happen to be the leaders are in a position of unfair advantage to favour people close to them or even their family members.

➤ **Growing role of money and muscle power in parties :**

- The parties tend to nominate those candidates who have or can raise lots of money. In some cases parties support criminals.
 - The fourth challenge is that very often parties **do not seem to offer a meaningful choice**. In order to offer meaningful choice, parties must be significantly different.
 - There has been a decline in the ideological differences among parties.
 - The difference among all the major parties on the economic policies have reduced.
 - Those who want really different policies have no option available to them.
 - Lack of good leaders.

➤ **Reforming the Political Parties**

- The constitution was amended to prevent elected members from changing parties.
- The supreme court passed an order to reduce the influence of money and criminals.
- Now it is mandatory for every candidate who contests elections to file an affidavit giving details of his property.
- The election commission passed an order making it necessary for political parties to hold their organizational elections and file their income tax returns.
- A law is made to regulate the internal affairs of political parties.
- The govt. should give money to parties for election so that everyone who wants to participate in elections can do the same.

Questions:

1. How has multi-party system strengthened democracy in India? Explain.
2. What role has the Election Commission played in reforming political parties?
3. Do you think reforms can be forced on political parties by legal actions?
4. 'No system is ideal for all countries and all situations'. Explain.
5. Explain the terms DEFECTION and AFFIDAVIT.
6. What is the function of the Opposition party?
7. Mention challenges faced by political parties in India.

7. Outcomes of Democracy

➤ **Democracy is better than others**

We felt that democracy is better because it :

- Promotes equality among citizens.
- Enhance the dignity of the individual
- Improves the quality of decision making.
- Provides a method to resolve conflicts.
- Allows room to correct mistakes.

- The countries which have formal constitutions, they hold elections and form govts.
- They guarantee rights of citizens.
- Democracy solves the social and political and economic problems of the country.

➤ **Accountable responsive and Legitimate Govt.**

- **Accountable Govt. :** Democracy is a accountable govt because it is the govt. of the people and made by people and for the people. The representatives elected by the people are responsible to them. If the people are not happy with the govt they can change the leaders in coming elections.
- **Responsive Govt. :** A citizen who wants to know if a decision was taken through the correct procedures can find this out. She has the right and the means to examine the process of decision making. This type of transparency is not available in non-democratic Govts.
- **Legitimate Govt. :** Democratic govt is legitimate govt. It may be slow, less efficient, not always very responsive or clean. But a democratic govt is people's own govt's can not ignore the needs of people. So people wish to be ruled by representatives elected by them.

Questions:

1. How have democracies fallen short of people's expectations?
2. Which factors help economic growth in the country?
3. What is a must for a successful democratic government?
4. What do you understand by the term 'majority' in a democracy?
5. Why do people prefer democracy? Explain with four reasons.
6. How does democracy lead to peaceful and harmonious life among citizens? Explain.
7. How do political parties shape public opinion? Explain with three examples.
8. Why is a democratic government considered better than dictatorship? Explain any three reasons.
9. Discuss some merits and demerits of democracy in the light of your study of the chapter.

8. CHALLENGES TO DEMOCRACY

THINKING ABOUT CHALLENGES AND POLITICAL REFORMS

➤ **How do we define a challenge?**

A challenge means a situation that requires some action. It is a difficulty which has to be overcome. Broad challenges to democracy are —

- **Foundational challenges:** Some countries had to face the challenge of transition to the democratic style of government. They had to have laws and policies that would be followed in a democratic set-up.
- **Challenge of expansion:** Countries which are already democratic face the challenge of expanding it to all social groups and regions. All institutions should follow democracy in their functioning.

- **Deepening of democracy:** It means strengthening those institutions that have people's participation and control. It means bringing down the control of the rich and the powerful people in making government decisions.
 - Different countries have different challenges.
 - Challenges to democracy have to be dealt at the local or state level. All reforms cannot be made at the national level.
 - **Devising ways and means for political reforms in India.**
- A. (i) One way is legal reform, making new laws to ban undesirable things.
(ii) But legal-constitutional changes cannot overcome challenges to democracy.
(iii) The reforms have to be carried out mainly **by political activists, parties, movements and politically conscious citizens.**
- B. Legal changes** sometimes have a counter-productive result. But laws which empower people to carry out democratic reforms are best, e.g. the Right to Information Act.
- C. Democratic reforms are spread or brought about through political practice. Main focus of political reforms is **strengthening democracy.**
- D.** While proposing a political reform, one should be very clear about **who will implement it and how.** Political parties and MPs will never vote for a legislation that is against their interests.

CASE STUDY : Political funding

Challenge :

On an average, every candidate who contested the last Lok Sabha elections owned a property of more than one crore. There is a fear that only wealthy people or those with their support can afford to fight elections. Most of the political parties are dependent on money given by big business houses. The worry is that the role of money in politics will reduce whatever little voice the poor have in our democracy.

Reform proposals :

- The financial accounts of every political party should be made public. These accounts should be examined by government auditors.
- There should be state funding of elections. Parties should be given some money by the government to meet their election expenditure.
- Citizens should be encouraged to give more donations to parties and to political workers. Such donations should be exempt from income tax.

Reform Politics :

One cannot blame politicians for all the ills of our country. The politicians are no more corrupt than government officials, contractors or any middle-class professionals, politicians, but get more publicity. Laws cannot stop politicians, if they want to be corrupt. Only people and politicians together can stop corruption in politics and overcome wrong practices (e.g. appeals to caste and community).

Questions:

1. What do you understand by the term 'foundational challenges'?
2. What are the forms of challenges faced by different countries in respect to democracy?
3. Analyse three challenges before the countries which do not have a democratic form of government.

4. Explain the challenges faced by Indian democracy while holding free and fair elections.
 5. What is the lacuna in legal means of political reform?
 6. Examine the three challenges of democracy.
 7. Explain four ways to reform democracy in India.
 8. What is a 'challenge'? Explain the three major challenges before the countries of the world regarding democracy.
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