UNIT-I: INDIA AND THE CONTEMPORARY WORLD-II SECTION-I EVENTS AND PROCESSES CHAPTER-1

THE RISE OF NATIONALISM IN EUROPE

Topic-1

French Revolution and Making of Nationalism

Concepts Covered • The French Revolution and The Idea of The Nation.



Revision Notes

Idea of the Nation

- The concept of nationalism emerged in Europe during the nineteenth century.
- It marked the downfall of feudalism and the beginning of Renaissance which literally means 'Rebirth'.

© ₩ Key Terms

Nationalism: An ideology which emphasizes faithfulness, devotion, or allegiance to a nation or nation-state and holds that such obligations out-weigh other individual or group interests.

Feudalism: A social system existing in medieval Europe in which people worked and fought for nobles who gave them protection and land in return.

Renaissance: The revival of European art and literature under the influence of classical models in the 14th–16th centuries.

Liberty, Equality, Fraternity: These words are regarded as the most famous slogan of the French Revolution. Men and women are born and remain free and equal in rights. Social distinctions may be founded only upon the common good.

- The feeling of **nationalism** was illustrated by a French artist named **Frédéric Sorrieu**. In 1848, he prepared a series of four prints visualising his dream of a world made up of 'Democratic and Social Republics', as he called them.
- The painting depicted his dream of a world free of the absolutist institutions and the establishment of democratic and social republics. It also illustrated the Statue of Liberty holding a torch of Enlightenment and the Charter of the Rights of Man.
- The concepts of liberty, equality, fraternity and nationalism dominated the social and political scene of Europe in the 19th century.

© Key Terms

Absolute Monarchy: A monarchy in which the monarch holds the supreme or absolute powers. A monarchy that is not limited or restrained by laws or a constitution.

Constitutional Monarchy: It is a system of government in which a monarch shares power with a constitutionally organized government.

La patrie: It is a French word used for fatherland.

Le citoyen : It is the French word used for the citizens.

Napoleonic Code: The Civil Code of 1804 intro-duced by Napoleon, is known as the Napoleonic Code. This Code did away with all the privileges based on birth, established equality before the law and secured the right to property.

Liberalism: It is a political and moral philosophy which is based on liberty, equality before the law and consent of the governed.

Conservatism: It is a political and social philosophy promoting traditional social institutions in the context of culture and civilisation.

Giuseppe Mazzini: A famous Italian revolutionary who was born in 1807 in Genoa. He was part of a secret society called Carbonari and founded two underground societies called Young Italy in Marseilles and Young Europe in Berne.

French Revolution: Beginning and Salient Features

- Till 1789 France was under absolute monarchy.
- However, the **French Revolution** in 1789 was an

influential event that marked the age of revolutions in Europe. The major outcome of the revolution was the formation of a **constitutional monarchy**, thereby, a remarkable reduction in the royal and feudal privileges.

- It paved the way for the achievement of bigger goals of national identity and national pride, which can aptly be called as Nationalism.
- The revolution transferred the sovereignty from the monarch to the people.
- The ideas of la patrie (the fatherland) and le citoyen (the citizen) were adopted.
- The Estates General was renamed as the National Assembly, which was elected by the body of active citizens.
- French armies moved into Holland, Belgium, Switzerland and Italy in the 1790s with a promise of liberating the people from their despotic rulers.

© Key Facts

The **French Revolution** was primarily caused due to the financial crisis and it began with the *Storming of the Bastille*, 14th July 1789.

In October 1815, **Napoleon** was exiled to the remote island of St. Helena in the South Atlantic Ocean, where he remained until he died on May 5, 1821, at the age of 51.

Napoleon (1769-1821)

- Ruled France from 1799 to 1815.
- Assumed absolute power in 1799 by becoming the First Consul.
- Introduced the Civil Code in 1804 which also came to be known as the Napoleonic Code.
- The Code established equality before the law and abolished all privileges based on birth.
- It also abolished the feudal system and freed peasants from serfdom.
- Transport and communication system were approved.
- Taxation and censorship were imposed and military services were made mandatory.

© ₩ Key Dates

1789: French Revolution.

- **1797:** Napoleon invaded Italy; Napoleonic wars began.
- 1799 to 1815: Napoleon ruled France.
- **1804:** Napoleonic Code was introduced, that did away with all the privileges based on birth. It upheld equality before the law
- **1807:** Mazzini was born in Genoa.
- **1814-15:** Fall of Napoleon; the Vienna Peace Settlement.
- **1815:** Napoleon defeated by the European powers.
- **1821:** Greek struggle for independence began.
- **1831:** Mazzini sent into exile for attempting a revolution in Liguria

Rise of Conservatism and Revolutionaries

- The middle class believed in freedom and equality of all individuals before the law. Liberalism was used to end aristocracy and clerical privileges. After the defeat of Napoleon Bonaparte in 1815, the European government adopted the idea of Conservatism.
- Conservatism was a political philosophy that stressed the importance of tradition, established institutions and customs, and preferred gradual development to quick change.
- After 1815, several liberals began working in secret societies all over Europe to propagate their views and train revolutionaries. Revolutionaries were seen as a threat to the restored monarchies, and hence, were repressed.
- Giuseppe Mazzini, a famous Italian revolutionary was born in 1807 in Genoa. He was the part of a secret society called Carbonari and founded two underground societies called Young Italy in Marseilles, and Young Europe in Berne.
- In 1831, Mazzini was sent into exile for attempting a revolution in Liguria. Mazzini believed in the unification of the small kingdoms and principalities in Italy. These societies were joined by like-minded young men from Poland, France, Italy and the German states.

Topic-2

The Age of Revolutions (1830-1848)

<u>Concepts Covered</u> ● The upheavals that took place in France ● Romantic imagination and national feeling.



Revision Notes

National Feeling

- Liberalism and Nationalism became associated with the 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 Bourbon kings who had been restored to power during the conservative reaction after 1815, were now overthrown by liberal revolutionaries.
- 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, poetry, stories and music helped express and shape nationalist feelings.
- Romanticism was a cultural movement which sought to develop a particular form of nationalist sentiments.
- Language too played an important role in developing nationalist sentiments.

© Key Terms

The Greek War of Independence: It was a successful war waged by the Greeks to win independence for Greece from the Ottoman Empire.

Romanticism: A cultural movement that rejected science and reason and introduced heart and emotions. The concern of the romantics was to create a sense of shared collective heritage and a common cultural past for arousing nationalism.

- Russian language was imposed everywhere.
- The 1830s saw a rise in prices, bad harvest and poverty in Europe. Besides the poor, unemployed and starving peasants and even educated middle classes revolted.

© ─ Key Dates

1830: The first upheaval took place in France in July 1830; Period of Economic Crisis in Europe.

1832: Greece gained independence.

1834: Zollverein or the Customs Union was formed in Prussia to abolish tariff barriers.

1848: Revolutions in Europe; Artisans, industrial workers and peasants revolt against economic hard-ships; middle classes demanded constitutions and representative governments; Italians, Germans, Magyars, Poles, Czechs, etc., demanded nation-states.

- In 1848, a large number of political associations came together in Frankfurt and decided to vote for an all-German National Assembly.
- 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.

Topic-3

Nation States – Unification of Italy, Germany and Britain

<u>Concepts Covered</u> ● The making of Germany and Italy, ● The strange case of Britain.



Revision Notes

After 1848, nationalist sentiments were often mobilised by conservatives for promoting state power and achieving political domination over Europe. The unification of Italy and Germany came about through this process.

Unification of Germany (1866-1871)

- In 1848, middle-class Germans tried to unite the different regions of the German confederation into a nation-state under an elected parliament.
- In Prussia, nation-building acts were repressed by the combined forces of the monarchy and the

military and were supported by the large landowners called **Junkers**.

 Prussia took over the leadership of the movement.

© ── Key Terms

Nation-state: A state that establishes itself as a separate political and geographical entity and functions as a complete and sovereign territorial unit. This concept emerged in 19th century Europe as a result of the development of nationalism.

Prussia: A former kingdom in north-central Europe including present-day northern Germany and northern Poland.

- Otto von Bismarck, Chief Minister of Prussia, was the architect in the process of nationbuilding.
- Prussia emerged victorious after fighting three wars over seven years against the combined forces of Austria, Denmark and France and the process of unification of Germany was completed.
- On 18th January, 1871, the new German Empire headed by the German Emperor Kaiser William I was declared in the Hall of Mirrors in the Palace of Versailles.
- The unification of Germany established Prussian dominance in Europe.
- The new German Empire focused on modernizing the currency, banking, legal and judicial systems.

Unification of Italy

- Italy was divided into seven states.
- Only Sardinia-Piedmont was ruled by an Italian princely house.
- North Italy was under Austrian Habsburgs.
- The central part was under the Pope.
- The southern regions were under the Bourbon Kings of Spain.
- During the 1830s, Giuseppe Mazzini formed a coherent programme for uniting the Italian Republic and formed a secret society called Young Italy.
- The failure of revolutionary uprisings both in 1831 and 1848 prompted King Victor Emmanuel II from Sardinia-Piedmont to unify the Italian states.
- Chief Minister of Sardinia-Piedmont, Count Cavour, led the movement for the unification of Italy
- In the year 1859, Sardinia-Piedmont with an alliance with France defeated the Austrian forces.

- In 1860, Sardinia-Piedmont's forces marched into southern Italy and the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies, and drove out the Spanish rulers.
- In 1861, Victor Emmanuel was declared as the king of united Italy and Rome was declared the capital of Italy.
- Britain has a different history of how it consolidated as a nation-state without uprisings and revolutions.
- ► The British Isles was inhabited by ethnic English, Welsh, Scot or Irish. The English nation grew more in power and wealth, and it began to exert influence over the other nations of the islands.
- The concept of **nation states**, with England as the centre, came in 1688 after the Parliament snatched power from the monarchy. In 1707, the **Act of Union** between England and Scotland resulted in the formation of the 'United Kingdom of Great Britain'.

© Key Terms

Otto von Bismarck: He was the architect of a Prussian consolidation that was also a form of German unification. Once the empire was established, he actively and skillfuly pursued pacific policies in foreign affairs, succeeding in preserving the peace in Europe for about two decades.

Emperor Kaiser William I: He was King of Prussia from 2 January 1861 and German Emperor from 18 January 1871 until his death in 1888.

Victor Emmanuel II: He was King of Sardinia from 1849 until 17 March, 1861, when he assumed the title of King of Italy and became the first king of an independent, united Italy since the 6th century.

The Union Jack: It is the de facto national flag of the United Kingdom.

- To ensure the growth of British identity, Scotland's cultural and political institutions were suppressed. The British imposed control over Ireland as well. Ireland was deeply divided into two groups, Catholics and Protestants. The English favoured the Protestants and helped them establish their dominance over a largely Catholic Ireland.
- In 1801, Ireland was forcibly incorporated into the United Kingdom after a failed Irish revolt. The symbols of new Britain were the English language, the British flag (Union Jack) and the British national anthem (God Save Our Nobel King).

()=WP	Key Dates
1707:	The Act of Union was passed.
1801:	Ireland was forcibly incorporated into
	the United Kingdom a failed Irish revolt.
1848:	Middle-class Germans tried to unite
	the different regions of the German
	confederation into Nation-state.
1855:	The Kingdom of Sardinia participated
	from the sides of British and French in
	the Crimean War.
1858:	Cavour formed an alliance with
	France.
1859-1870: Unification of Italy.	

1859: Sardinia-Piedmont formed an alliance with France and defeated the Austrian forces. Large number of people under the leadership of Giuseppe Garibaldi joined the movement.

1860: Sardinia-Piedmont's forces marched into South Italy and the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies and drove out the Spanish rulers.

1861: Victor Emmanuel II was declared as the King of United Italy and Rome was declared the capital of Italy.

1866-1871: Unification of Germany.

1871: The Prussian King, William I was proclaimed the German Emperor.

Topic-4

Visualising the Nation: Nationalism and Imperialism

Concepts Covered ● Personification of nation into female



Revision Notes



Visualising the Nation:

- Nation was personified in the female form by the artists of the 19th century.
- Female allegories such as that of liberty, justice and republic were invented.
- In Germany, Germania became the allegory of the nation.
- In France, the idea of a people's nation was Christened Marianne. She was characterized by the ideas of Liberty and Republic.

© ₩ Key Terms

Female allegories: They were invented by artists in the nineteenth century to represent the nation.

Allegory: It is a poem, story, play, etc. in which characters and events represent qualities or ideas relating to morals, religion or politics. There is hidden meaning implied to be interpreted by the readers.

Imperialism: The policy of extending a country's power and influence through colonization, use of military force or other means.

 Marianne's fasces or a bundle of rods with an axe in the middle was used to symbolise strength in unity. The red Phrygian cap signified freedom of a slave. It was also known as the Liberty Cap. French people

- wore these caps a few days before the storming of the Bastille.
- These symbols were usually popular images from everyday life that uneducated masses could easily identify with.

© Key Personalities

Marianne and Germania: Marianne and Germania were the female allegories of France and Ger-man nations respectively. These were an allegory of nation in the same way as Bharat Mata, a female figure is imagined in India. The characteristics of Marianne were drawn from those of Liberty and the Republic—the red cap, the tricolour and the cockade. The Statues of Marianne were made and erected at public places and a picture of Marianne printed on postage stamps. Germania wears a crown of oak leaves because that tree stands for heroism. She holds a sword in her hand.

 During revolutions, artists represented a nation as a person. This personification gave life to an abstract concept like a nation.

Nationalism and Imperialism:

• Through the 18th and the mid 19th century, Europe was marked by a lot of chaos and turmoil. After 1871, there was a significant change in the concept of nationalism in Europe.



Marianne is displayed in many places in France and holds a place of honour in town halls and law courts.

 Nationalist groups in Europe had become increasingly incompatible with each other and were constantly in conflict. The major European powers, namely Russia, Germany, England and Austro-Hungary began taking

- advantage of nationalism in Europe to materialise their aims for **Imperialism**.
- The European powers sighted the muchdisturbed Balkan region to fulfil their imperialist goals. The Balkan region consisted of the following countries of our times – Romania, Bulgaria, Albania, Greece, Macedonia, Croatia, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Slovenia, Serbia and Montenegro.





Topic-1

The First World War, Khilafat and Non-Cooperation Movement

<u>Concepts Covered</u> • The Effect of the First World War on India • The Idea of Satyagraha



Revision Notes

Effects of First World War:

The First World War led to a huge increase in defence expenditure. This was financed by war loans and by increasing taxes. Custom duties were raised and income tax was introduced to raise extra revenue. Prices of items increased during the war years. The prices doubled between 1914 and 1918. The common people were the worst sufferers because of the price rise. Forced recruitment of rural people in the army was another cause of widespread anger amongst people.

Key Dates 1885: The first meeting of the Indian National Congress in Bombay. 1905: The Partition of Bengal officially came into existence. 1906: Formation of the Muslim League. 1914-1918: The war years-prices increased in

- Crop failure in many parts of India resulted in an acute shortage of foods. Influenza epidemic further aggravated the problem. According to the 1921 census, about 12 to 13 million people died because of famines and epidemic.
- ► The Idea of Satyagraha

double.

 Mahatma Gandhi returned to India in January 1915. His heroic fight for the Indians in South Africa was well-known. His noble method of mass agitation known as satyagraha had yielded good results.

- The idea of satyagraha emphasised the power of truth and the need to search for truth. In 1916, Gandhi travelled to Champaran in Bihar to inspire the peasants to struggle against the oppressive plantation system.
- The method of satyagraha was based on the idea that if someone is fighting for a true cause, there is no need to use any physical force to fight the oppressor. Gandhiji believed that a satyagrahi could win a battle through nonviolence, i.e., without being aggressive or revengeful.

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- **1914 1918:** The First World War.
- **1915:** Mahatma Gandhi returns to India.
- **1916:** Gandhi travelled to Champaran in Bihar to inspire the peasants to struggle against the oppressive plantation system.
- **1917:** Mahatma Gandhi organised Satyagraha Movement in Kheda District (Gujarat) and Champaran (Bihar).
- **1918:** Mahatma Gandhi organised Satyagraha Movement in Ahmedabad.
- **1919:** The Rowlatt Act was passed by the Imperial Legislative Council.

March, **1919**: Khilafat Committee was founded in Bombay.

6th April, 1919: Gandhiji launched a nationwide Satyagraha against the proposed Rowlatt Act.

13th April, 1919: Jallianwala Bagh Massacre took place.

September, 1920: Congress Session held in Calcutta decided to start a Non-Cooperation Movement in support of Khilafat, as well as, for Swaraj.

- Some early satyagraha movements organised by Gandhiji:
 - Peasants' Movement in Champaran (Bihar) in 1917.
 - Peasants' Movement in Kheda district (Gujarat) in 1918.
 - Mill Workers' Movement in Ahmedabad in 1918.
- ► The Rowlatt Act (1919):
 - The Rowlatt Act was passed by the Imperial Legislative Council in 1919. The Indian members did not support the Act, but it was passed nevertheless. The Act gave enormous powers to the British Government to repress political activities. It allowed the detention of political prisoners without trial for two years.

© Key Terms

Satyagraha: The policy of passive political resistance was inaugurated by Mohandas Karamchand Gandhi during his stay in South Africa. It is based on the ideals of truth and non-violence.

Rowlatt Act: It was an Act which gave the British government enormous power to repress political activities. It allowed that government could arrest anybody without a trial for two years.

Non-Cooperation Movement: Began in January 1921, the main aim of this movement was not to cooperate with the British. It included surrendering of government titles, boycott of Civil Services, Army, Police, Courts and Legislative Councils, school and foreign goods; and a full Civil Disobedience Campaign would be launched.

Begar: It is a practice where the worker is forced to render service to the 'master' free of charge or at a nominal charge.

 On 6th April 1919 Gandhiji launched a nationwide satyagraha against the proposed Rowlatt Act. The call for a strike on 6th April got a huge response. People came out in support in various cities, shops were shut down and workers in railway workshops went on strike. The British administration decided to clamp down on the nationalists. Several local leaders were arrested. Mahatma Gandhi was barred from entering Delhi.

Jallianwala Bagh Incident:

- On 10th April, 1919, two nationalist leaders-Dr Saifuddin Kitchlew and Dr Satya Pal were arrested in Punjab under the infamous Rowlatt Act. Martial Law was imposed in Amritsar and the command of the area was given to General Dyer.
- The infamous (shocking) Jallianwala Bagh Massacre took place on 13th April 1919 when the peaceful gathering was attended by men, women and children to protest against these arrests. It was enclosed from all sides with narrow entry points.
- General Dyer blocked the exit points and opened fire on the crowd. Hundreds of people were killed in that incident. Public reaction to the incident took a violent turn in many north Indian towns.
- Mahatma Gandhi to bring the Hindus and Muslims on a common platform. Ottoman Turkey was badly defeated in the First World War. There were rumours about a harsh peace treaty likely to be in the Ottoman Emperor; who was the spiritf the Islamic world (the Khalifa). A Khilafat comiittee wasA formed in Bombay in March 1919 to defend the Khalifa. This committee had leaders like the brothers Muhammad Ali and Shaukat Ali. They also wanted Mahatma Gandhi to take up the cause to build a united mass action. At the Calcutta session of the Congress in September 1920, the resolution was passed to launch a Non-Cooperation Movement in support of Khilafat and also for swaraj.
- book Hind Swaraj (1909), Mahatma Gandhi declared that British rule was established in India with the cooperation of Indians and had survived only because of this cooperation. If Indians refused to cooperate, British rule in India would collapse within a year and swaraj would be established. Gandhiji believed that if Indians begin to refuse to cooperate, the British rulers will have no other way than to leave India.

Some of the proposals of the Non-Cooperation:

- Surrender the titles which were awarded by the British Government.
- Boycott of Civil Services, Army, Police, Courts, Legislative Councils and Schools.
- Boycott of foreign goods.

• Launch a full civil disobedience campaign, if the government persisted with repressive measures.

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December 1920: Congress Session at Nagpur—a compromise was worked out and the Non-Cooperation programme was adopted.

October 1920: Setup of Oudh Kisan Sabha headed by J. L. Nehru.

January 1921: Start of the Non-Cooperation-Khilafat Movement.

1922: Chauri Chaura incident at Gorakhpur.

▶ Differing Strands within the Movement: The Non- Cooperation-Khilafat Movement began in January 1921. Various social groups participated in this movement, each with its own specific aspiration. All of them responded to the call of swaraj, but the term meant different things to different people.

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Key Terms

The Peasant's Movement: It was a social movement involved with the agricultural policy, aiming to protect peasants' rights.

Inland Emigration Act of 1859: Under the Inland Emigration Act of 1859, without permission, plantation labourers were not allowed to leave tea gardens.

- Awadh: The Peasants' movement in Awadh was led by Baba Ramchandra. He was a Sanyasi who had earlier worked in Fiji as an indentured labourer. The peasants were against the high rents and many other cesses, which were demanded by talukdars and landlords. The peasants demanded reduction of revenue, abolition of the and social boycott of oppressive landlords.
- Tribal Peasants: Tribal peasants gave their own interpretation of Mahatma Gandhi and the idea of swaraj. The tribals were prevented from entering the forests to graze cattle or to collect fruits and firewood. The new forest laws were a threat to their livelihoods. The government forced them to do the begar on road construction.
 - Many rebels from the tribal areas became violent and often carried guerrilla warfare against the British Officials.
- Swaraj in the Plantations: The plantation workers were not permitted to leave the tea gardens without permission; as per the Indian Emigration Act of 1859. When the news of Non-Cooperation Movement spread to the plantations, many workers began to defy the authorities. They left plantations and headed towards their homes. But they got stranded on the way because of a railway and steamer strike. They were caught by the Police and brutally beaten up.

Topic-2

Civil Disobedience Movement; Sense of Collective Belonging; Role of Mahatma Gandhi and other leaders in the two movements (CDM & NCM)

<u>Concepts Covered</u> ● The advent of the Simon Commission ● Features of the Civil Disobedience Movement ● The famous Dandi March



Revision Notes

Simon Commission

The British Government constituted a **Statutory Commission** under **Sir John Simon.** The Commission was made to look into the functioning of the constitutional system in India and suggest changes. But since all the members in the Commission were British, the Indian leaders opposed the Commission.

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Key Terms

Dominion status: It meant giving a semi autonomous status to India and not full

independence where India would still accept the British sovereignty and the British monarch as the head of the state.

Salt March or Dandi March: It was an act of civil disobedience led by Mohandas Gandhi to protest British rule in India.

Gandhi-Irwin Pact: It was a political agreement signed by Mahatma Gandhi and Lord Irwin, Viceroy of India, on 5 March, 1931, before the Second Round Table Conference in London.

 The Simon Commission arrived in India in 1928. It was greeted with the slogan 'Go back, Simon'. All parties joined the protest. In October 1929, Lord Irwin announced a vague offer of 'Dominion Status' for India but its timing was not specified. He also offered to hold a Round Table Conference to discuss the future Constitution.

- Salt March (Beginning of Civil Disobedience Movement)
 - Mahatma Gandhi believed that salt could be a powerful symbol to unite the whole nation. Most of the people; including the British scoffed at the idea. Abolition of the Salt Tax was among many demands which were raised by Gandhiji through a letter to Viceroy Irwin.

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1920: The Indian Industrial and Commercial Congress was formed.

1927: The Federation of the Indian Chamber of Commerce and Industries (FICCI) was formed.

1928: Simon Commission arrived in India.

Oct, 1929: Lord Irwin announced a vague offer of 'Dominion Status' for India.

December, **1929**: Lahore Session of the Congress—Demand for Purna Swaraj.

January 31, 1930: Gandhiji sent a letter to Viceroy Irwin stating 11 demands.

12th **March**, **1930**: Salt /Dandi March was started by Gandhiji.

6th April, 1930: Gandhiji ceremonially violated the law by manufacturing a fistful of salt.

April, 1930: Abdul Ghaffar Khan was arrested.

5th March, 1931: Gandhi-Irwin Pact is signed.December, 1931: Gandhiji went to Second Round Table Conference.

The Salt March or Dandi March was started by Gandhiji on 12th March, 1930. He was accompanied by 78 volunteers. They walked for 24 days to cover a distance of 240 miles from Sabarmati to Dandi. Many more joined them on the way. On 6th April, 1930, Gandhiji ceremonially violated the law by taking a fistful of salt.

Lord Irwin : He was a senior British Conservative politician of the 1930s and the Viceroy of British In- dia from 3 April 1926 – 18 April 1931.

Dr. B. R. Ambedkar: He is the father of the Indian Constitution, was an ambitious leader, journal- ist, economist and social reformer

who fought for discrimination against the untouchables.

- The Salt March marked the beginning of the Civil Disobedience Movement. Thousands of people broke the salt law in different parts of the country. People demonstrated in front of government salt factories. Foreign cloths were boycotted. Peasants refused to pay revenue. Village officials resigned. Tribal people violated forest laws.
- Response of British Rulers: The Colonial Government began to arrest the Congress leaders. This led to violent clashes in many places. The Government's repression was quite brutal. Even women and children were beaten up. About 100,000 people were arrested.
- Round Table Conference: When things began to take a violent turn, Mahatma Gandhi called-off the movement. He signed a pact with Irwin on 5th March, 1931. This was called the Gandhi-Irwin Pact. As per the Pact, Gandhiji agreed to participate in the Round Table Conference in London. In lieu of that, the government agreed to release the political prisoners. Gandhiji went to London in December 1931. The negotiations broke down and Gandhiji had to return with disappointment. When Gandhiji came back to India, he found that most of the leaders were put in jail. Congress had been declared illegal. Many measures were taken to prevent meetings, demonstrations and boycotts. Mahatma Gandhi relaunched the Civil Disobedience Movement. By 1934, the movement had lost its momentum.
- Farmers: For the farmers, the fight for Swaraj was a struggle against high revenues. When the Movement was called off in 1931; without the revenue rates being revised; the farmers were highly disappointed.
- Businessmen: The Indian merchants and industrialists could grow their Business during the First World War. They were against those colonial policies which restricted their business activities. They wanted protection against imports and a Rupee-Sterling Foreign Exchange ratio which would discourage imports. The Indian Industrial and Commercial Congress was formed in 1920 and the Federation of the Indian Chamber of Commerce and Industries (FICCI) was formed in 1927. These were the results of attempts to bring the common business interests on a common platform. For the Businessmen, Swaraj meant an end to oppressive colonial policies. They wanted an environment which could allow the Business to flourish. They were apprehensive of militant activities and of growing influence of Socialism among the younger members of the Congress.

© Key Terms

ICCI: Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce and Industry (FICCI), association of Indian business organizations, dedicated to

promoting the growth and global competitiveness of Indian businesses.

Poona Pact: It was an agreement between Hindu leaders in India granting new rights to Dalits.

Nationalism: It is a political, social and economic ideology or a movement characterised by the promotion of the interests of a nation, as a whole.

Swadeshi Movement: It was a movement for national independence in India boycotting foreign goods and encouraging the use of domestic products.

- Industrial Workers: The Industrial workers showed a lukewarm response to the Civil Disobedience Movement. Since, industrialists were closer to the Congress, workers kept a distance from the Movement. But some workers selectively participated in the Movement. Congress did not want to alienate the Industrialists and hence, preferred to keep the workers' demands at bay.
- Depressed Classes: Dr. B. R. Ambedkar demands for separate electorates for dalits. This made a clash between Gandhiji and Ambedkar. When British accepted their demand, Gandhiji began a fast unto death as he believed that it would slow down the process of their integration into society. As a result Ambedkar and Gandhiji signed an agreement known as Poona pact of September 1932 in which dalits got reservation in Provincial and Central Legislative councils.

© ─ Key Dates

1931: Second Round Table Conference; Gandhi- Irwin Pact; Census of India.

1932: Suppression of the Congress movement; Third Round Table Conference. Civil Disobedience Movement is relaunched.

September 1932: Poona Pact was signed.

1934: Civil Disobedience Movement lost its momentum and came to a stop.

Women's Participation: Women also participated in the Civil Disobedience Movement in large numbers. However, most of the women was from High-Caste families in the urban areas and from rich peasant households in rural areas. But for a long time, the Congress was reluctant to give any position of authority to women within the organisation. The Congress was just keen on the symbolic presence of women.

The Sense of Collective Belonging

 Nationalist Movement spreads when people belonging to different regions and communities begin to develop a sense of collective belongingness. The identity of a

- nation is most often symbolized in a figure or an image.
- This image of Bharat Mata was first created by Bankim Chandra Chattopadhyay in 1870 when he wrote 'Vande Mataram' for our motherland. Indian folk songs and folk tales sung by bards played an important role in making the idea of nationalism. In Bengal, Rabindranath Tagore and in Madras, Natesa Sastri Made collection of folk tales and songs which led the Movement for folk revival.
- During the Swadeshi Movement, a tri-color (red, green and yellow) flag was designed in Bengal. It had eight lotuses representing eight provinces and a crescent moon representing Hindus and Muslims.

○ Key Personalities

Bankim Chandra Chattopadhyay: He wrote 'Vande Mataram' and created the image of Bharat Mata.

Rabindranath Tagore: He was a poet, writer, playwright, composer, philosopher, social reformer and painter.

Natesa Sastri: He published a massive four-volume collection of Tamil folk tales.

- Means of creating a feeling of nationalism was through reinterpretation of history. The nationalist writers urged the readers to take pride in India's great achievements in the past and struggle to change the miserable conditions of life under British rule.
- Role of Mahatma Gandhi and other leaders in Non-cooperation & Civil disobedience movement
 - Mahatma Gandhi played a crucial role in both the Non-Cooperation Movement and the Civil Disobedience Movement. He was the central figure and the driving force behind both these movements that aimed to challenge British rule in India.
 - During the Non-Cooperation Movement, which took place from 1920 to 1922, Gandhi called for Indians to withdraw their cooperation with the British government and institutions the main driving force behind these movements.
 - In the Non-Cooperation Movement, which began in 1920, Gandhi called on Indians to boycott British goods and institutions and to refuse to pay taxes. He advocated the use of non-violent means of protest, such as strikes, peaceful demonstrations, and civil disobedience, to bring about change. The aim of the movement was to force the British

- government to grant more autonomy to India's people and to work towards independence from British rule.
- Gandhi's leadership and message of nonviolence appealed to Indians from all walks of life. The movement gained widespread support and led to the growth of indigenous businesses and institutions as a result of the boycott of imported goods. The movement helped to awaken the Indian public's desire for independence and served as a precursor to the later Civil Disobedience Movement.
- In the Civil Disobedience Movement, which began in 1930, Gandhi once again called on Indians to reject unjust laws and government policies. He encouraged people to disobey British laws and to refuse to pay taxes as a way of peacefully protesting against colonial rule. This movement gained even more publicity and support than the Non-Cooperation Movement.
- Gandhi's role in the movement was instrumental in galvanizing public sentiment against the British. It resulted in large-scale

- arrests of Indian leaders and activists and exposed the widespread brutalities of British rule, including the infamous Jallianwala Bagh Massacre. Through the movement, Gandhi hoped to create a mass movement of nonviolent resistance, which would ultimately lead to India's independence.
- Other leaders such as Jawaharlal Nehru, Sardar Vallabhbhai Patel, and Maulana Abul Kalam Azad also played important roles in both the Non-Cooperation and Civil Disobedience Movements. They helped to mobilize public support and worked together with Gandhi to achieve independence for India
- In conclusion, Mahatma Gandhi played a critical role in both the Non-Cooperation and Civil Disobedience Movements. His leadership and nonviolent philosophy inspired a generation of Indians to resist British rule and work towards independence. The movements served as a turning point in India's history and laid the foundation for its eventual independence in 1947.

CHAPTER-3

THE MAKING OF GLOBAL WORLD

The Pre-Modern World

<u>Concepts Covered</u> • How traders and travellers led to spread of trade, cultural exchange and diseases • Onset of globalization.



Revision Notes

The Pre-Modern World

- **Globalisation** refers to an economic system that has emerged in the last 50 years.
- From ancient times, travellers, traders, priests and pilgrims travelled vast distances for knowledge, opportunity, spiritual fulfilment or to escape persecution.

© Key Terms

Globalisation: It is generally associated with the economy as the free movement of capital, goods, technology, ideas and people across the globe. Globalisation in a broader sense also includes cultural exchanges between different countries of the world.

Silk Route: The route taken by traders to carry silk cargoes from China to the West, which affected the cultures of China, Central Asia and the West.

- The Silk Routes are a good example of Premodern trade and cultural links between distant parts of the world.
- The name 'Silk Routes' points to the importance of West-bound Chinese silk cargoes along this route
- Trade and cultural exchange always went hand in hand.
- Traders and travellers introduced new crops to the lands that they travelled.
- Europe's poor began to eat better and live longer with the introduction of the humble potato.

- Ireland's poorest peasants became so dependent on potatoes that when disease destroyed the potato crop in the mid-1840s, hundreds of thousands died of starvation.
- European sailors found a sea route to Asia and also successfully crossed the western ocean to America.

© ─ Key Fact

The Corn Laws prevented the import of wheat until the domestic price exceeded a certain figure. The result was to keep the price of bread high.

- Precious metals, particularly silver, from mines located in present-day Peru and Mexico also enhanced Europe's wealth and financed its trade with Asia.
- The Portuguese and Spanish conquest and colonisation of America was decisively underway by the mid-sixteenth century.
- The most powerful weapon of the Spanish conquerors were the germs such as those of smallpox that they carried on their person.
- Due to their long isolation, America's original inhabitants had no immunity against these diseases that came from Europe. Smallpox, in particular proved to be fatal.
- Until the 19th century, poverty and hunger were common in Europe. Cities were crowded and deadly diseases were widespread.
- In the 18th century, China and India were among the world's richest countries. They were also pre-eminent in Asian trade.
- However, from the 15th century, China is said to have restricted overseas contacts and retreated into isolation.
- China's reduced role and the rising importance of the America gradually moved the centre of world trade Westwards.
- Europe now emerged as the centre of world trade.

• The laws allowing the government to do this were commonly known as the 'Corn Laws'.

©≕ Key Dαtes

3000 BCE: An active coastal trade linked the Indus Valley Civilization with present day West Asia.

15th Century: Existence of Silk Routes.

Mid 16th Century Portuguese and Spanish con-quest and Colonisation of America.

1845-1849: Potato Famine in Ireland. During this famine, around 1,000,000 people died of starvation in Ireland.

1880s: Rinderpest (Cattle Plague) had a terrifying impact on livelihoods of the African people and the local economy.

1885: The big European powers met in Berlin to complete the carving up of Africa between them.

1890: Global agricultural economy took shape.

1892: Rinderpest reached Africa's Atlantic coast.

©≕ Key Terms

Colonisation: It occurs when one nation subjugates another, conquering its population and ex-ploiting it, often while forcing its own language and cultural values upon its people.

Colonial Powers: A country which possesses, or formerly possessed, colonies in different parts of the world.

Cattle Plague or Rinderpest: It was a disease caused by the rinderpest virus which primarily infected cattle and buffalo.

CHAPTER-4

PRINT CULTURE AND THE MODERN WORLD

Topic-1

Print Culture and the Modern World

Concepts Covered • The beginning of print technology. • Spread and growth of print technology in Europe.



Revision Notes

Beginning of Printing

The earliest kind of print technology was developed in China, Japan and Korea. This was a system of Hand Printing.

Books in China were printed by rubbing the paper against the inked surface of woodblocks.

- China was the major producer of printed materials.
- The skilled craftsmen could duplicate, with remarkable accuracy and the different style of writing called Calligraphy.
- Shanghai was the hub of the new print culture.
- The oldest Japanese Buddhist book, the **Diamond Sutra** was printed in AD 868.
- In medieval Japan, poems and prose were regularly published and books were cheap and abundant.

Print Comes to Europe:

- For centuries, silk and spices from China flowed into Europe through the Silk Route.
- In the 11th century, Chinese paper reached Europe through the Silk Route.
- **Gutenberg**, son of a merchant, mastered the printing technique by 1448. The first book printed by him was the Bible. One hundred eighty copies of this book were printed in three years.
- Printed books at first closely resembled the written manuscripts in appearance and layout.
- Luxury editions were still written by hand on very expensive 'Vellum', meant for aristocratic circles.

The Print Revolution:

The Print Revolution transformed the lives of people.



Key Terms

Woodblock: It is a form of relief printing and is based on the principle that parts that are not to be printed are cut out. Instead colours are pressed on the raised parts,

applied like a relief and this would then be rubbed onto a piece of paper or pushed through the press, in which case, the reliefs would be reversed.

Calligraphy: It is an ancient writing technique using flat edged pens to create artistic lettering using thick and thin lines depending on the direction of the stroke.

Diamond Sutra: The oldest Japanese book printed in AD 868 containing six sheets of texts and woodcut illustrations.

Print Revolution: The shift from hand printing to mechanical printing is known as the print revolution.

Hand Printing: Printed, or put on a surface by hand rather than by machine.

Penny Magazines: They were illustrated magazines which were read extensively by working class and women in 19th century Britain. They dealt with teaching proper manners and techniques related to housekeeping for women.

Cylindrical Press: A printing press in which a rotating cylinder rolls the paper against a printing surface lying on a flat usually horizontal reciprocating bed.

- In 1517, the religious reformer Martin Luther wrote 'Ninety-Five Theses' criticising the Catholic Church. Printing helped to spread the new ideas of reformation.
- The Roman Church imposed severe controls over publishers and booksellers.

The Reading Mania:

- In England, **Penny Chapbooks** were carried, by petty pedlars known as 'Chapmen sold for a Penny'.
- In France, small books printed on poor quality paper were called the 'Bibliothèque Bleue', and were sold at low-price.

- The periodical press, newspapers and journals carried information about wars, trade as well as news of development in other places.
- The ideas and writings of the scientists and thinkers like Isaac Newton, Thomas Paine, Voltaire and Jean-Jacques Rousseau were printed and read by a large number of audience.

©⇒ Key Dαtes

594 CE: Books in China were printed by rubbing paper against the inked surface of woodblocks.

768-770 CE: Hand printing technology was intro-duced in Japan.

868 CE: The first Japanese book, 'The Diamond Sutra' was printed.

11th Century: Paper reached Europe from China.

1439-1440: Marco Polo brought the knowledge of producing books with woodblocks to Europe from China.

1448 CE: Johann Gutenberg invented the Printing Press.

1450-1550 AD: Printing Press set up in most countries of Europe.

1517 CE: Religious reformer Martin Luther printed 'Ninety-Five Theses', criticizing many of the practices and rituals of the Roman Catholic Church, starting the 'Protestant Reformation'.

1558 CE: The Roman Church began maintaining an index of prohibited books.

The French Revolution occurred as printing helped in spreading the ideas of liberty, freedom and nationalism.

- Primary education became compulsory from the late 19th century; children became an important category of readers.
- A children's press, devoted to literature for children, was set up in France in 1857.
- Penny magazines were especially meant for women. The best-known novelists were Jane Austen, the Bronte Sisters and George Eliot.
- In the 19th century, libraries in England became instruments for educating factory workers, artisans and lower-middle-class people.

© ™ Key Personalities

Gutenberg: He was a German goldsmith and inventor, credited with the invention of the movable type printing in Europe.

Isaac Newton, Thomas Paine, Voltaire and Jean-Jacques Rousseau: Scientists and thinkers.

Bronte Sisters: They are well known as poets and novelists.

- Self-educated working-class people wrote political tracts and autobiographies.
- By the late 18th century, the press came to be made out of metal.
- Richard M. Hoe of New York made the power-driven **Cylindrical Press**, which was capable of printing 8,000 sheets per hour. This press was particularly used for printing newspapers.
- In the late 19th century, the Offset Press was developed.
- In the 1930s, publishers brought out cheap paperback
- Printers and publishers continuously developed new strategies to sell their products. In the 1920s in England, popular works were sold in cheap series, called the Shilling Series.

Topic-2

The Growth of Press in 19th Century India

<u>Concepts Covered</u> ● The beginning of the print technology. ● Spread and growth of print technology in Europe.

Beginning of Printing in India

India had a very rich and old tradition of handwritten manuscripts in Sanskrit, Arabic, Persian as well as in various vernacular languages.

©≕ Key Terms

Manuscript: Book or document written by hand. It can also be termed as the original copy – hand- written or typed but not printed.

Vernacular language: It refers to the language or dialect that is spoken by the inhabiting people of a particular country or region.

Ulama: A body of Muslim scholars who are recognized as having specialist knowledge of Islamic sacred law and theology.

Vernacular Press Act: Vernacular Press Act enacted in 1878s in British India was to curtail the freedom of the Indian language press.

- In India, manuscripts were copied on palm leaves and on handmade paper.
- The printing press first came to Goa with the Portuguese Missionaries in the mid-16th century.
- In 1710, Dutch Protestant Missionaries had printed 32 Tamil texts.

© Key Personality

James Augustus Hicky: He was an Irishman who launched the first printed newspaper in India, Hicky's Bengal Gazette

Raja Ravi Varma: He was also known as 'The Father of Modern Indian Art. He was an Indian painter of the 18th century who attained fame and recognition for portraying scenes from the epics of the Mahabharata and Ramayana.

Kailashbashini Debi : She wrote books highlight- ing the experiences of women, about how women were imprisoned at home, kept in ignorance, forced to do hard domestic labour and treated unjustly by the menfolk they served.

Bal Gangadhar Tilak: He started the newspaper named Kesari.

- From 1780, James August us Hickey began to edit the 'Bengal Gazette', a weekly magazine.
- By the close of the 18th century, printing of many newspapers and journals started.

Religious Reform:

- In the early 19th century, there were intense debates around existing religious issues.
- Some groups wanted to reform, while others were against them.
- This was a time of intense controversies between social and religious reformers.
- The reformers were focused on the Hindu Orthodoxy over matters like widow immolation, monotheism, Brahmanical priesthood and idolatry.

© ─ Key Dαtes

1710: The Dutch Protestant Missionaries had printed 32 Tamil texts .

1780: James August us Hickey began to edit the 'Bengal Gazette', a weekly magazine.

1810: The first printed edition of the Ramcharit- manas written by Tulsidas came out from Calcutta.

1822: Two Persian newspapers 'Jam-e-Jahan Nama' and 'Shamsul Akhbar' was published.

1867: Deoband Seminary was founded

1878: The Vernacular Press Act was passed in India.

1880: Tarabai Shinde and Pandita Ramabai wrote about the miserable lives of upper-caste Hindu women, especially widows.

1926: Begum Rokeya Sakhawat Hossain, an educationist and literary figure, strongly condemned men for withholding education from women.

1907: Bal Gangadhar Tilak wrote with great sympathy about Punjab revolutionaries in his newspaper "Kesari".

- Many newspapers such as "Sambad Kaumudi" in 1821 by Ram Mohan Roy "Samachar Chandrika" (Hindu Orthodoxy), "Jam-e-Jahan Nama" and "Shamsul Akhbar" from 1822 (Persian newspaper) focused on this matter.
- In North India, the 'Ulama' used lithographic presses, published Persian and Urdu translations of holy scriptures, and printed religious newspapers and tracts to spread their religion.
- In 1867, Deoband Seminary was founded which published thousands of 'Fatwas' telling the Code of Conduct of Muslims and explaining the meanings of Islamic doctrines.
- Print encouraged the reading of religious texts, especially in the vernacular languages.
- The first printed edition of the Ramcharitmanas written by Tulsidas came out from Calcutta in 1810. Naval Kishore Press at Lucknow and the Shri Venkateshwar Press in Bombay published numerous religious texts in vernacular languages.

New forms of Publication

- At the end of the 19th century, a new visual culture was started.
- Painters like Raja Ravi Varma produced images for mass circulation.
- Cheap prints and calendars were easily available in the market.
- By the 1870's, caricatures and cartoons were being published in journals and newspapers.
- In 1860, a few Bengali women like Kailashbashini Debi wrote books highlighting the experiences of women.

- Hindi printing began seriously in the 1870s.
- In Punjab, folk literature was printed from the early 20th century.
- In Bengal, the Battala was devoted to the printing of popular books; pedlars took the Battala publications to homes, enabling women to read in their leisure time.
- Public libraries were set up in the early 20th century.
- Print and Censorship

- Local protest movements created a lot of popular journals.
- After the Revolt of 1857, the attitude to freedom of the press changed.
- In 1878, the **Vernacular Press Act** was passed.
- In 1907, **Bal Gangadhar Tilak** wrote with great sympathy about Punjab revolutionaries in his newspaper "Kesari". This led to his imprisonment in 1908.

UNIT-II : CONTEMPORARY INDIA-II CHAPTER-1

RESOURCES AND DEVELOPMENT

Topic-1

Resource Planning

<u>Concepts Covered</u> • Judicious use of resources and their conservation.



Revision Notes

What are Resources?

- Everything available in our environment which can be used to satisfy our needs, provided it is technologically accessible, economically feasible and culturally acceptable can be termed as 'Resource'.
- Resources are materials which can be transformed in such a way that they become more valuable and useful for fulfilling human needs.
- Natural endowments in the form of land, water, vegetation and minerals are called **natural** resources.
- For a sustained quality of life and global peace, it is essential that resources should be distributed equally.
- Sustainable Economic Development: It means development should take place without damaging the environment and development in the present should not compromise with the needs of the future generations.
- Rio de Janeiro Earth Summit, 1992: In June 1992, for achieving sustainable development in the 21st century, more than 100 heads of states participated in the first International Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro in Brazil. The main focus of this summit

was to protect the environment and socioeconomic development at the global level. The leaders of the states signed the Declaration on Global Climate Change and Biological Diversity.

© Key Terms

Natural Resource: A natural resource is something that is found in nature and can be used by people for economic gain. Earth's natural resources include sunlight, air, water, plants, animals, soil, stone, minerals, fossil fuels, etc.

Resource Planning: It is a blueprint for judicious utilization of resources.

- Resource Planning and Conservation: Resource planning is a technique for the proper utilization of resources.
- Resource planning involves the following steps:
 - Identification and inventory of resources, which involves surveying, mapping and quantitative as well as qualitative estimation and measurement of resources.
 - Implementation of resource development plans, which involves creating a planning

- structure equipped with appropriate technology, skill and institutional setup.
- Matching resource development plan with overall national development plans.
- Resource development and planning reduce wastage, keeps the environment pollution free,

and take care of future needs. The management of resources by humans is known as Conservation of resources combined with a judicious and planned use of resources. Optimum exploitation is a must, but overexploitation should be checked.

Topic-2

Land and Soil as Resources

Concepts Covered • Land Resources, Soil and Types of Soil.



Revision Notes

Land resources and their uses:

- India has a variety of relief features like mountains, plateaus and plains. 43% of the country is covered with 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.
- Land resources are used for the following purposes:
 - Forests
 - Land not available for cultivation:
 - (a) Barren and wasteland
 - (b) Land put to non- agricultural uses, e.g. buildings, roads, factories, etc.

© Key Terms

Land Use Pattern: It is the arrangement for the uses of land for different purposes.

Khadar: It has been formed by the deposition of the new alluvial soil and is found in the low land.

Bangar: It consists of older alluvial soil which is higher in sandy loam content.

- Other uncultivated land (excluding fallow land):
 - (a) Permanent pastures and grazing land,
 - (b) Land under miscellaneous tree crops, groves (not included in net sown area),
 - (c) Culturable waste land: left uncultivated for more than 5 agricultural years.
- Fallow land:
 - (a) Current fallow: Left without cultivation for one or less than one agricultural year.
 - **(b) Other than current fallow:** Left uncultivated for the past 1 to 5 agricultural years.
- Net sown area: Net Sown Area is the amount of area that is covered with the crop throughout the area but is only taken into account once.

- The total geographical area of India is 3.28 million sq km. Land use data, however, is available only for 93% of the total geographical area.
- At present there are about 130 million hectares of degraded land in India of which 28% belong to the forest degraded area, 56% of it is water eroded and the rest is affected by saline and alkaline deposits.
- The **land use pattern** in India is determined by both physical factors such as topography, climate, soil types; human factors such as population density, technological capability, culture, traditions, etc.
- Human activities that caused degradation of land in India:
 - Deforestation
 - Overgrazing
 - Mining and quarrying
- Other factors that led to degradation of land in India:
 - Over irrigation making land saline and alkaline
 - Dust generated from cement and ceramic industry
 - Industrial effluents
- Suggestions for conservation of land:
 - Afforestation
 - Proper control on grazing
 - Planting of shelter belts of plants
 - Stabilisation of sand dunes by planting thorny bushes
 - Proper utilization of wasteland; Control on mining
 - Discharge of industrial effluents and wastes after treatment
- Soil: It is the most important renewable natural resource. It is the medium of plant growth and supports different types of living organisms on the earth.

- Relief, parent rock or bedrock, climate, vegetation and other forms of life and time are important factors in the formation of soil.
- Soil also consists of organic material (humus) and inorganic materials.
- Factors responsible for the formation of the soil:
 - Colour of the soil
 - Thickness of the soil
 - Texture of the soil
 - Age of the soil
 - Chemical and physical properties of the soil
- **Soils of India can be classified on the following basis:** India has varied relief features, landforms, climatic realms and vegetation types. These features contributed to the development of various types of soils.
- Types of soils found in India:
 - * Alluvial soil:
 - Widely spread in north Indian plains, alluvial soil as a whole is very fertile.
 - It is classified as: Khadar (new alluvial) and Bangar (old alluvial).

© ─ Key Facts

- The soil in India is influenced by the altitude, climate and disproportionate rainfall.
- Soil is a living system. A single gram of healthy soil contains millions of organisms including earthworms, nematodes, mites, insects, fungi and bacteria.
 - This soil contains adequate proportion of potash, phosphoric acid and lime.
 - This soil is ideal for the growth of sugarcane, paddy, wheat and other cereal and pulse crops.

Black soil:

- Also called regur soil, this soil is black.
- This soil is ideal for growing cotton.
- This soil is found in the plateaus of Maharashtra, Saurashtra, Malwa, Madhya Pradesh and Chhattisgarh and extends in the south-east direction along the Godavari and the Krishna valleys.
- This soil is rich in soil nutrients, such as calcium carbonate, magnesium, potash and lime, but poor in phosphorus contents.
- The black soil is made up of extremely fine, i.e., clayey material. It is well-known for its capacity to hold moisture.

Red and yellow soil:

 This soil develops in areas of low rainfall or crystalline igneous rocks.

- It is found in Odisha, Chhattisgarh and the piedmont zone of the Western Ghats.
- Due to the diffusion of iron in crystalline and metamorphic rocks, its colour becomes reddish.

Laterite soil:

- This soil develops in areas of high temperature and heavy rainfall.
- Humus content in the soil is low.
- It is mainly found in Karnataka, Kerala, Tamil Nadu, Madhya Pradesh and hilly areas of Assam and Odisha.
- It is good for tea, coffee, cashew nut, etc.

© Key Terms

Denudation: It is the wearing away of the terrestrial surface by processes including weathering and erosion.

Badland: They are a type of arid terrain with clay-rich soil that has been extensively eroded by wind and water.

Ravine: A small narrow steep-sided valley that is larger than a gully and smaller than a canyon and that is usually worn by running water.

Plugging of gullies: It means building temporary dams or planting trees to check fast flowing water or to prevent flood.

Arid soil:

- This soil is generally sandy in texture and saline in nature.
- This soil lacks humus and moisture.
- This soil is found in Western Rajasthan, Punjab and Haryana.
- The lower horizons of the soil are occupied by *Kankar*.

***** Forest soil:

- This soil is found in hilly and mountainous regions.
- This soil is loamy and silty in valley sides, while coarse grained in the upper slopes.

Soil Erosion:

- The denudation and subsequent washing down of topsoil which is covered by agents of nature. E.g. wind, water, glacier and air is called soil erosion.
- Natural forces like wind, glaciers, and water lead to soil erosion.
- Sometimes, human activities like deforestation, overgrazing, construction and mining also lead to soil erosion.

Types of soil erosion:

 Gully Erosion: Sometimes running water cuts through the clayey soils and makes deep

- channels as gullies. The land becomes unfit for cultivation and is known as **bad land**.
- Sheet Erosion: In the Chambal basin, such lands are called ravines. Sometimes water flows as a sheet over large areas down a slope. In such cases, the topsoil is washed away. This is known as sheet erosion.
- Wind Erosion: When wind blows loose soil off flat or sloping land, it is known as wind erosion.
- Defective Farming Methods: Soil erosion is also caused by defective methods of farming.

For example, ploughing in a wrong way, *i.e.*, up and down the slope forms channels for the quick flow of water, leading to soil erosion.

- Measures for soil conservation:
 - Contour ploughing
 - Terrace farming
 - Strip cropping
 - Shelter belts of trees
 - Plugging of gullies
 - Afforestation
 - Control of mining activities

CHAPTER-2 FOREST AND WILDLIFE

Topic-1

Conservation of Forest and Wildlife in India

Concepts Covered • Role played by local community and government in conservation of forests and wildlife.



Revision Notes

What are Resources?

- Conservation in the scenario of rapid decline in wildlife population and forestry has become essential.
 - **Conservation** preserves the ecological diversity and our life support systems water, air and soil.
- Some estimates suggest that at least 10 per cent of India's recorded wild flora and 20 per cent of its mammals are on the threatened list.
- Fisheries too are heavily dependent on the maintenance of **aquatic biodiversity**. In the 1960s and 1970s, conservationists demanded a national wildlife protection programme.
- ► The Indian Wildlife (Protection) Act was implemented in 1972, with various provisions for protecting habitats.

© Key Terms

Conservation: Safeguarding natural resources on earth for present and future generations.

Aquatic biodiversity: It is the rich and wonderful variety of plants and animals that live in Aquatic habitats.

The Wildlife Protection Act: It is legislation that has been implemented for the protection of wild animals, birds, and plants with a view of ensuring the ecological and environmental security of India.

Protected species: Certain species that are protected by law, meaning that it can be illegal to kill, injure or capture birds or animals or to pick or damage certain wild plants.

Threatened list species: The species which are vulnerable to endangerment in the near future.

- An All India list of **protected species** was also published. The thrust of the programme was towards protecting the remaining population of certain endangered species by banning hunting, giving legal protection to their habitats, and restricting trade in wildlife.
- The Central Government also announced several projects for protecting specific animals, which were gravely threatened, including the tiger, the one- horned rhinoceros, the Kashmir stag or hangul, three types of crocodiles fresh water crocodile, saltwater crocodile and the Gharial, the Asiatic lion, and others.
- Most recently, the Indian elephant, black buck (chinkara), the great Indian bustard (godawan) and the snow leopard, etc. have been given full or partial legal protection against hunting and trade throughout India.

Topic-2

Land and Soil as Resources

Concepts Covered • Land Resources, Soil and Types of Soil.



Revision Notes

Types and Distribution of Forest and Wildlife Resources:

- In India, much of its forest and wildlife resources are either owned or managed by the government through the Forest Department or other government departments. These are classified under the following categories:
 - (i) Reserved Forests: More than half of the total forest land has been declared reserved forests. Reserved forests are regarded as the most valuable as far as the conservation of forest and wildlife resources are concerned.
 - (ii) Protected Forests: Almost one-third of the total forest area is protected forest, as declared by the Forest Department. This forest land are protected from any further depletion.
 - (iii) Unclassed Forests: These are other forests and wastelands belonging to both government and private individuals and communities.
- Reserved and protected forests are also referred to as **permanent forest** estates maintained for the purpose of producing timber and other forest produce, and for protective reasons.
- Madhya Pradesh has the largest area under permanent forests, constituting 75 per cent of its total forest area. Jammu and Kashmir, Andhra Pradesh, Uttarakhand, Kerala, Tamil Nadu, West Bengal, and Maharashtra have large percentages of reserved forests of its total forest area whereas Bihar, Haryana, Punjab, Himachal Pradesh, Odisha and Rajasthan have a bulk of it under protected forests.
- All North-eastern states and parts of Gujarat have a very high percentage of their forests as **unclassed forests** managed by local communities.

Community and Conservation:

- Conservation strategies are not new in our country. We often ignore that in India, forests are also home to some of the traditional communities.
- In some areas of India, local communities are struggling to conserve these habitats along with

- government officials, recognising that only this will secure their own long-term livelihood.
- In Sariska Tiger Reserve, Rajasthan, villagers have fought against mining by citing the Wildlife Protection Act.
- The famous **Chipko movement** in the Himalayas has not only successfully resisted deforestation in several areas but has also shown that community afforestation with indigenous species can be enormously successful.
- In India joint forest management (JFM) programme furnishes a good example for involving local communities in the management and restoration of degraded forests.
- The programme has been in formal existence since 1988 when the state of Odisha passed the first resolution for joint forest management.
- The clear lesson from the dynamics of both environmental destruction and reconstruction in India is that local communities everywhere have to be involved in some kind of natural resource management. But there is still a long way to go before local communities are at the centre stage in decision-making.

© Key Terms

Reserved forests: They are the protected forests with the natural habitat that has high degree of protection from any kind of hunting and poaching.

Protected Forest: It is a land that is a reserved forest, and over which the government has property rights, as declared by a state government under section 29 of the Indian Forest Act 1927.

Unclassed forest: Forests that are owned by both the government and private individuals or communities.

Chipko movement: It was a non-violent social and ecological movement by rural villagers, particularly women, in India in the 1970s, aimed at protecting trees and forests slated for government-backed logging.

Joint Forest Management: It is concept of developing relationships between fringe forest groups and forest department on the basis of mutual trust and jointly defined roles and responsibilities for forest protection and development.

CHAPTER-3

WATER RESOURCES

Topic-1

Water Scarcity and Water Conservation; Multipurpose River Projects

<u>Concepts Covered</u> ● Water scarcity and its reasons, ● Multi-purpose river <u>projects and</u> integrated water resource management



Revision Notes

- The main source of water on Earth is the hydrological cycle.
- 3/4th of the Earth's surface is covered with water, but fresh water accounts for a small proportion. Fresh water is mainly obtained from surface run off and ground water which is continually renewed and recharged through the hydrological cycle.
- Water scarcity: It is caused by over-exploitation, excessive use of and unequal access to water among different social groups.
- An area having ample water resources can have to face water scarcity due to the following reasons:

© Key Terms

Hydrological cycle: It involves the continuous circulation of water in the Earth-Atmosphere system.

Surface run off: It is the flow of water occurring on the ground surface when excess rainwater, storm water, melt water, or other sources, can no longer sufficiently rapidly infiltrate in the soil.

Dam: It is a barrier across flowing water that obstructs, directs or retards the flow, often creating a reservoir, lake or impoundment.

- Greater demand for water by large and growing population and unequal access to it.
- Water resources are being over-exploited to expand agriculture and consequently ground water levels are falling.
- Post independent India has witnessed intense industrialisation and urbanisation, exerting increasing pressure on fresh water resources.
- Multiplying urban centers with large and dense populations have further aggravated the problem of water scarcity.
- In housing societies or colonies, most of the houses have their own ground water pumping devices to

- meet the water needs. Thus, water resources are being overexploited.
- The history reveals use of many sophisticated hydraulic structures from ancient times, such as dams of stone, reservoirs or lakes, embankments and canals for irrigation.
- Some ancient hydraulic structures are listed below:
 - Sringaverapura near Allahabad had a sophisticated water harvesting system, which channelised the flood water of the Ganga River. It dates back to 1st century B.C.
 - There are many extensively built dams, lakes and irrigation systems. The most important lake is Sudarshan lake at Junagarh in Gujarat.
 - Bhopal Lake is one of the largest artificial lakes built in the 11th century A.D.
 - In the 14th century, the tank in Hauz Khas, Delhi was constructed by Iltutmish for supplying water to the Siri Fort area.
- Multi-purpose river projects and integrated water resource management:

Dams

- A dam is a barrier across flowing water that obstructs, directs or retards the flow, often creating a reservoir, lake or impoundment.
- "Dam" refers to the reservoir rather than the structure.
- Uses of dams: Dams are built
 - To impound rivers and rainwater that can be used later to irrigate agricultural fields.
 - For electricity generation.
 - Water supply for domestic and industrial uses.
 - Flood control.
 - Recreation, inland navigation and fish breeding.
- Dams are referred to as multipurpose projects. Jawaharlal Nehru proudly proclaimed dams as the temples of modern India because of their potential to integrate development of agriculture and the village

- economy with rapid industrialisation and growth of the urban economy.
- 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 Odisha.
- 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.
- Reasons for opposing multi-purpose projects:
 - (i) Poor sediment flow.

- (ii) Excessive sedimentation at the bottom of the reservoir.
- (iii) Poorer habitats for the rivers' aquatic life.
- (iv) Difficult for aquatic fauna to migrate.
- (v) Submerge the existing vegetation and soil leading to its decomposition over a period of time.
- (vi) Any time local people had to give up their land, livelihood and their control over resources for the construction of the dam.

© Key Terms

Multipurpose project: It is a massive project which serves a variety of purposes like-flood con-trol, fish breeding, irrigation, generation of electricity, soil conservation, etc.

Aquatic fauna: It refers an animal that lives in water for most or all of its life.

Topic-2

Rainwater Harvesting

<u>Concepts Covered</u> • Rainwater harvesting, • Various methods of rainwater harvesting.



Revision Notes

- Rain water harvesting system was a viable alternative of multipurpose projects both socioeconomically and environmentally.
- In hilly and mountainous regions, people build diversion channels like the 'guls' or 'kuls' of the Western Himalayas for agriculture.
- In arid and semi-arid regions of Rajasthan, almost all houses traditionally had underground tanks for storing drinking water.
- Rain water is also referred to as Palarpani and it is considered as the purest form of natural water.
- Today, in western Rajasthan, the practice of rooftop rainwater harvesting is on the decline as plenty of water is available due to the perennial Rajasthan Canal.
- In Gendathur, a remote and backward village in Mysore, Karnataka, villagers have installed in their household's rooftop, rainwater harvesting system, to meet their water needs.
- **Roof-top rain water harvesting** is the most common practice in Shillong in Meghalaya.
- In Meghalaya, a 200-year-old system of tapping stream and spring water by using bamboo pipes is prevalent.

© Key Terms

Rain water harvesting: It is gathering, accumulating and storing rainwater for different uses.

Guls or Kuls: In hilly and mountainous regions, people build diversion channels like the 'Guls' or 'Kuls' of Western Himalayas for agriculture

Rooftop Rain Water Harvesting: It is the technique through which rain water is captured from the roof catchments and stored in reservoirs.

- Tamil Nadu is the first and the only state in India which has made **roof-top rain water harvesting** structures compulsory. There are legal provisions to punish the defaulters.
- It is commonly practised in Rajasthan to store drinking water.
- **Roof-top rain water harvesting** is done through the following ways:
 - Roof top rain water is collected using a PVC pipe.
 - Filtered using sand and bricks.
 - Underground pipe takes water to sump for immediate usage.
 - Excess water from the sump is taken to the well.
 - Water from the well recharges the underground tanka.
 - Later on, they take water from the well.

CHAPTER-4

AGRICULTURE

Topic-1

Role of Agriculture in Indian Economy; Types of Farming, Cropping Pattern and Major Crops

<u>Concepts Covered</u> • Various kinds of farming and methods are involved. • The spatial distribution of major crops and the relationship between rainfall regimes and cropping patterns.



Revision Notes

- India an Agriculture Economy: Two-thirds of India's population is engaged in agricultural activities. Hence, agriculture is the primary occupation of the people in India.
- ▶ Role of Agriculture in Indian Economy: Agriculture plays a significant role in the Indian economy. Here are some key contributions of the agricultural sector to the Indian economy:
 - Employment: Agriculture is the largest employer in India, providing jobs for over 50% of the country's population. This sector directly or indirectly employs millions of people, including farmers, farm laborers, traders, and processors, among others.
 - GDP Contribution: The agricultural sector in India contributes around 17% of the country's Gross Domestic Product (GDP). It is the source of income for millions of households in rural India and the mainstay of the Indian economy, particularly in terms of livelihood and food security.
 - Export Earnings: India is one of the leading agricultural nations in the world, with a host of crops being grown in different parts of the country. The surplus production from India is exported to various countries, earning valuable foreign exchange for the nation.
 - **Food security:** The agricultural sector plays a critical role in ensuring food security in India by producing food grains, fruits, vegetables, dairy, and livestock. A reliable and sustainable agricultural system is a prerequisite for feeding the country's growing population.
 - Input to other industries: The agricultural sector is the primary source of raw materials for various downstream industries like textiles, paper, leather, and food processing. This directly or indirectly contributes to the growth of these allied industries, and the economy as a whole.

Overall, the agricultural sector plays a vital and contributory role in the Indian economy in terms of employment, livelihood, GDP, foreign exchange,

- food security, and intermediary inputs to other industries.
- Since **agriculture** is an **age-old** economic activity in India, farming varies from subsistence to commercial type.

©≒₩ Key Term

Agriculture: It is the science or practice of farming, including the cultivation of the soil for the growing of crops and the rearing of animals to provide food, wool, and other products.

Types of Farming System Practiced in India:

- At present, in different parts of India, the following farming systems are practised:
 - Primitive Subsistence Farming: It is practised on small patches of land with the help of primitive tools like hoe, dao and digging sticks. It depends upon monsoon, natural fertility of the soil and availability of other environmental conditions suitable to the crops grown. It is also called 'slash and burn agriculture'.
 - Intensive Subsistence Farming: This type of farming is practised in areas of high population. Under this type of farming, high doses of biochemical inputs and irrigation are used for obtaining higher production.
 - Commercial Farming: The main characteristic of this type of farming is the use of higher doses of modern inputs, e.g., high yielding variety (HYV) seeds, chemical fertilisers, insecticides and pesticides to obtain higher productivity. The main purpose of this type of farming is to earn a profit by selling the product. The amount of commercialisation of farming varies from one area to another, depending on climatic conditions, irrigation facilities and other factors.

© Key Terms

Slash and Burn Agriculture: It is a widely used method of growing food in which wild or forested land is cleared and any remaining vegetation is burned. The resulting layer of ash provides the newly-cleared land with a nutrient-rich layer to help fertilize crops.

High Yielding Variety Seeds: These are specialised seeds with the potential to produce significant crop yields, including rice and wheat.

Commercialisation of Farming: It is a phenomenon in which certain specialised crops began to be grown not for consumption

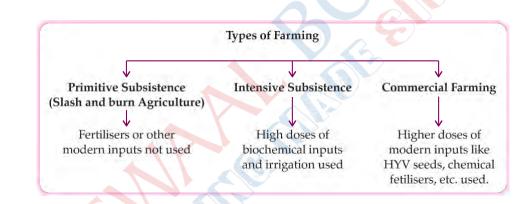
in the village but for sale in national and even in international market.

Percolated: The process by which water moves downward through the soil under gravitational forces. **India** ranks 2nd in the world in agriculture production.

Jute is a vegetable fibre. It is very cheap to produce, and its production levels are similar to that of cotton.

Millet is one of the oldest human foods and is believed to be the first domesticated cereal grain.

© ─ Key Diagram



Cropping Seasons in India:

- (i) Rabi season: It starts with the beginning of winter and continues until the beginning of summer (October-December to April-June). The rabi crops include wheat, barley, gram, and oilseeds. The crops are grown either with rainwater that has percolated into the ground or using irrigation. These crops are mainly grown in Punjab, Haryana, Uttar Pradesh, Himachal Pradesh, Uttarakhand, etc.
- (ii) Kharif season: It starts with the onset of the monsoon and continues until the beginning of winter (June-July to September-October). The kharif crops include rice, maize, millets, cotton, jute, groundnut, moong, urad, etc. Unlike Rabi crops, Kharif crops require good rainfall. The output of these crops depends upon the time and amount of rainwater. These crops are mainly grown in Assam, West Bengal, Andhra Pradesh, Tamil Nadu, coastal regions of Odisha, Kerala and Maharashtra.
- (iii) Zaid season: This is a short crop season in between the rabi and the kharif season. Crops like watermelon, muskmelon, cucumber, some vegetables and fodder crops are the major crops of this season.
- Major Crops, Pulses, and Millets are grown in India: Major crops grown in India are rice, wheat, millets, pulses, tea, coffee, sugarcane, oilseeds, cotton, and iute.
- Major pulses that are grown in India are tur (ar- har), urad, moong, peas and gram.
- Jowar, bajra and ragi are the important millets grown in India. Though these are known as coarse grains, they have very high nutritional value. For example, ragi is very rich in iron, calcium, other micro-nutrients and roughage.
- Oilseeds: India is the largest producer of oil seeds in the world. Main oil seeds produced in India are groundnut, mustard, coconut, sesamum (til), soyabean, castor seeds, cotton seeds, linseed and sunflower.

- Most of these are edible and used as cooking mediums.
- Horticulture and Sericulture: Horticulture is the science and art of growing plants (fruits, vegetables, flowers and any other cultivar). India is the largest producer of fruits and vegetables in the world. In-dia is a producer of tropical as well as temperate fruits.
- India produces about 13 % of the world's vegetables. It is an important producer of peas, cauliflower, onion, cabbage, tomato, brinjal and potato.
- The **non-food crops** grown in India are rubber; fibre crops like, cotton, jute, hemp, natural silk, etc. Jute is known as the golden fibre. Due to its high cost, it is losing market to synthetic fibres and pack- ing materials, particularly the nylon.
- Sericulture, or silk farming, is the cultivation of silk worms to produce silk.

©=₩

Key Terms

Pulses: They are a versatile group of 12 leguminous crops.

Millets: They are a group of highly variable small-seeded grasses, widely grown around the world as cereal crops or grains for human food and as fodder.

Coarse grains: They are a broad sub-group of several short-duration warm weather (Kharif) crops like Jowar (Sorghum), Bajra (Pearl Millet) Maize, Ragi (Finger Millet), etc.

Oilseed crops: They are a high-value agricultural commodity for use in refined edible oil products.

Non-food crop: It is a crop grown to produce goods for manufacturing.

Topic-2

Challenges faced by Farming Community & Technological and Institutional Reforms

<u>Concepts Covered</u> ● Various government policies for institutional as well as technological reforms since independence. ● Food security



Revision Notes

Changing the Face of Indian Agriculture

- Agriculture, provides livelihood for more than 60% of population, needs some serious technical and institutional reforms.
- Collectivisation, consolidation of holding, cooperation and abolition of zamindari, etc, were given priority to bring about institutional reforms in the country after Independence.
- Special weather bulletins and agricultural programmes for farmers were introduced on the radio and television.

© Key Terms

Consolidation of holding: It means to bring together different pieces of land and merge them into one land.

Collectivisation: It meant that peasants would work together on larger, supposedly more productive farms. Almost all the crops they produced would be given to the government at low prices to feed the industrial workers.

Green Revolution: It was a period that began in the 1960s during which agriculture in India was converted into a modern industrial system by the adoption of technology.

Crop insurance: It is a type of protection policy that covers agricultural producers against unexpected loss of projected crop yields or profits from products sales at the market.

Introduction of Various Policies and Reforms

- India's **food security policy** has a primary objective to ensure the availability of food grains to the common people at an affordable price. It has enabled the poor to have access to the food.
- The **Green Revolution** promised improvement in the condition of marginal and small farmers.
- In the 1980s and 1990s, a comprehensive land development programme was initiated, which included both institutional and technical reforms.
- Provision for crop insurance against drought, flood, cyclone, fire and disease, the establishment of the Grameen banks, cooperative societies and banks for providing loan facilities to the farmers at lower rates

of interest were some important steps in this direction.

© Key Facts

Norman Borlaug is known as the Father of the Green Revolution.

The Green Revolution was the notable increase in cereal-grains production in Mexico, India, Pakistan, the Philippines, and other developing countries in the 1960s and 1970s.

Challenges Faced by the Farmers

- Today, Indian farmers are facing a big challenge from international competition.
- The growth rate in agriculture is decelerating which is an alarming situation.
- Subsidy on fertilisers is decreased leading to an increase in the cost of production.
- Reduction in import duties on agricultural products has proved detrimental to agriculture in the country.
- Farmers are withdrawing their investment from agriculture causing a downfall in the employment in agriculture.

What is Food Security System?

- In order to ensure the availability of food to all sections of society, our government carefully designed a **national food security system**. It consists of two components—(a) buffer stock and (b) **public distribution system** (PDS).
- Food Security means availability, accessibility and affordability of food to all people at all times. The poor households are vulnerable to food insecurity whenever there is a problem of production or distribution of food crops. Food security depends on the **Public Distribution System (PDS)** and government vigilance and action at times, when this security is threatened.
- In the 1970s, food security was understood as the "availability at all times of adequate supply of basic foodstuffs" (UN, 1975).
- The FCI procures food grains from the farmers at the government announced minimum support price (MSP).
- India's food security policy has a primary objective to ensure availability of food grains to the common people at an affordable price. It has enabled the poor to have access to the food.

Food security has following dimensions:

- (a) Availability of food means food production within the country, food imports and the previous years stock stored in government granaries.
- **(b)** Accessibility means food is within reach of every person.
- (c) Affordability implies that an individual has enough money to buy sufficient, safe and nutritious food to meet one's dietary needs.

Thus, food security is ensured in a country only if

- (1) Enough food is available for all the person
- (2) All person have the capacity to buy food of acceptable quality and
- (3) There is no barrier on access to food
- The high MSP, subsidies in input and committed FCI purchases have distorted the cropping pattern. Wheat and paddy crops are being grown more for the MSP they get. Punjab and Haryana are the foremost examples. This has also created a serious imbalance in inter-crop parities.
- There has been a gradual shift from cultivation of food crops to cultivation of fruits, vegetables, oilseeds and industrial crops.

© Key Terms

National food security system: It is an Indian Act of Parliament which aims to provide subsidized food grains to approximately two thirds of the country's 1.2 billion people.

Public distribution system: It is a government-sponsored chain of shops entrusted with the work of distributing basic food and non-food commodities to the needy sections of the society at very cheap prices.

Minimum Support Price (MSP): It is the minimum guaranteed price of a crop, fixed and announced by the government before the start of a cropping season.

CHAPTER-5

MINERAL AND ENERGY RESOURCES

Topic-1

Minerals and their Mode of Occurrence

<u>Concepts Covered</u> • Meaning of minerals and its importance, • Mode of its occurrence.



Revision Notes

- ► What is a Mineral?
- Mineral: An inorganic element or compound that occurs naturally and has certain physical, chemical, and crystal properties as well as an organized internal structure is called a mineral
- Importance of Minerals:
 - Everything we use, eat and drink has **minerals**.
 - Economic development of people or nations can be vastly accelerated by the presence of valuable minerals.
 - They make our life comfortable and convenient.
 - They are also responsible for all the biological processes on earth.

Mode of Occurrence of Minerals

Minerals are usually found in "ores". The term ore is used to describe an accumulation of any mineral mixed with other elements. Minerals generally occur in the following forms:

© ≪ Key Term

Minerals: They are substances that are formed naturally in the Earth.

- In igneous and metamorphic rocks, minerals may occur in the cracks, crevices, faults or joints. Examples: tin, copper, zinc, lead, etc.
- In sedimentary rocks, a number of minerals occur in beds or layers. Coal, iron ore, gypsum, potash salt and sodium salt are the minerals found in sedimentary rocks.
- The decomposition of surface rocks and the removal of soluble constituents also forms the minerals. Bauxite is formed in this way.
- Minerals also occur as alluvial deposits in sands of valley floors and the base of hills. Examples; gold, silver, tin, platinum, etc.

 The ocean waters contain vast quantities of minerals. But common salt, magnesium and bromine are mainly derived from ocean waters.

Rocks Containing Minerals:

- Compacted substances that comprise the earth's crust are called **rocks**.
- Rocks are the naturally formed aggregate of mineral particles. It is the minerals that impart their texture, colour, shape, hardness or softness to rocks. For example; limestone is a rock which consists of a single mineral.
- Majority of rocks on the earth's crust are a combination of or an aggregate of different minerals.
- Over 2000 minerals have been identified so far; only a few are abundantly found.

© Key Terms

Ores: The minerals which have a very high percentage of a particular metal and the metal can be profitably extracted from it.

Crevices: A narrow opening or fissure, especially in a rock.

Alluvial deposits: They are material deposited by rivers. It consists of silt, sand, clay, and gravel, as well as much organic matter.

Bromine: It is the only liquid non-metallic element, which is a deep-red fuming substance. This rare element is extracted from ocean water and salt lakes.

© ─ Key Facts

All rocks are constantly passing through a recycling process.

85% of the Earth's rocks and minerals are made of crystals.

Topic-2

Metallic Minerals and their Conservation

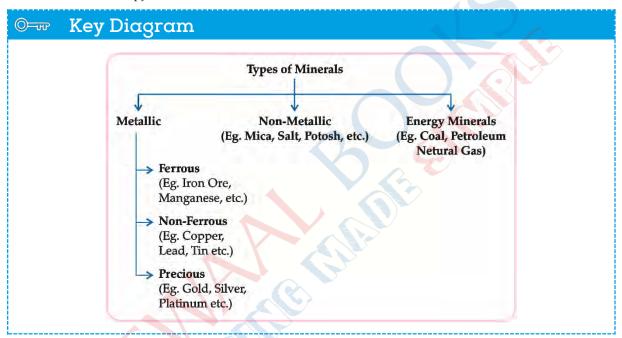
Concepts Covered ● Various types of metallic minerals available. ● Need for conservation of minerals.



Revision Notes

- Metallic Minerals: They can be further sub-divided into ferrous and non-ferrous.
 - (a) Ferrous (containing iron) are iron ore, manganese ore, chromite, pyrite, nickel and cobalt.

Ferrous minerals account for about three-fourths of the total value of the production of metallic minerals.



- Some of the **ferrous minerals** are:
 - (i) Iron Ore
 - India is endowed with fairly abundant resources of iron ore.
 - Magnetite is the finest iron ore with a very high content of iron, up to 70%. It has excellent magnetic qualities.
 - Haematite ore is the most important industrial iron ore. It contains 50 to 60% iron.
 - The major iron ore belts in India are:
 - Odisha-Jharkhand belt
 - Durg-Bastar-Chandrapur belt
 - Bellary-Chitradurga-Chikkamagaluru-Tumkur belt Maharashtra-Goa belt
 - (ii) Manganese
 - It is mainly used in the manufacturing of steel and ferro-manganese alloy.
 - Nearly 10 kg of manganese is required to manufacture 1 tonne of steel.
 - It is also used in manufacturing bleaching powder, insecticides and paints.

 The main reserves of manganese ore are found in Karnataka, Odisha, Madhya Pradesh, Andhra Pradesh, Jharkhand, Maharashtra and Goa.

© Key Terms

Metallic Minerals: They are minerals which contain one or more metallic elements. Metals are hard substances that conduct heat and electricity and have a characteristic lustre or shine. Iron ore, bauxite, manganese ore are some examples of such minerals.

Ferrous minerals: These minerals contain iron content. Examples- Iron ore, manganese, etc.

Non-ferrous minerals: These minerals do not contain iron content. Examples-Copper, aluminium, etc.

Ferro-manganese alloy: An alloy of iron and manganese containing usually about 80 percent manganese and used in the manufacture of steel.

Malleable: A mineral that may be flattened or deformed by hammering without breaking, for example, native copper or gold.

(b) Non-ferrous (containing metals other than iron)

Non-ferrous minerals include copper, bauxite, lead, zinc and gold. These minerals play a vital role in a number of metallurgical, engineering and electrical industries.

(i) Copper

- Malleable, ductile and good conductor of heat and electricity.
- Mainly used in electrical cables, electronics and chemical industries. It is also used for making utensils, electric wires and alloys.
- The Balaghat mines in Madhya Pradesh, Khetri mines in Rajasthan and Singhbhum district of Jharkhand are leading producers of copper.

Copper was the first metal to be worked by man, along with gold and meteoritic iron.

The Statue of Liberty is made from 179,000 pounds of copper.

Along with gold, it's the only naturally-occurring metal with a distinct color of its own.

(ii) Bauxite

- It is an ore from which aluminium is obtained.
- Bauxite deposits are formed by the decomposition of a wide variety of rocks rich in aluminium silicates.
- Aluminium is obtained from bauxite.
 Aluminium has good conductivity and great malleability.
- Deposits are mainly found in the Amarkantak plateau, Maikal hills and the plateau region of Bilaspur-Katni.

© Key Terms

Non-Metallic Minerals: These minerals do not contain metals. Limestone, mica and gypsum are examples of such minerals. The mineral fuels like coal and petroleum are also non-metallic minerals.

Dielectric strength: It is the ability of a dielectric material of specified thickness to withstand high voltages without breaking down

© ₩ Key Facts

There are 37 different mica minerals.

2. Non-Metallic Minerals:

(i) Mica:

- Mica is a mineral that can be clear, black, green, red, yellow or brown.
- Mica is the most indispensable minerals used in electric and electronic industries.
- It has excellent di-electric strength, low power loss factor, insulating properties and resistance to high voltage.
- It is used in electrical and electronic industries.
- Jharkhand, Bihar, Andhra Pradesh and Rajasthan are major producers.

(ii) Limestone:

- It is composed of calcium carbonate or calcium and magnesium carbonates.
- It is used in the cement industry, smelting of iron and in chemical industries.
- Reserves are found in Madhya Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, Andhra Pradesh, Rajasthan, Gujarat, Karnataka and Himachal Pradesh.

Conservation of Minerals

- Minerals are a non-renewable resource. It takes thousands of years for the formation and concentration of minerals.
- Continued extraction of ores leads to the depletion of minerals.
- So, it's important to take the necessary steps so that mineral resources can be used in a planned and sustainable manner.
- Various ways to conserve the minerals are:
 - (i) Minerals must be used in a planned and sustainable manner.
 - (ii) Recycling of metals.
 - (iii) Use of alternative renewable substitutes.
- **(iv)** Technology should be advanced to use the low-grade ores efficiently.

Topic-3

Conventional Sources of Energy

Concepts Covered ● Conventional sources of energy and its types.



Revision Notes

Energy Resources:

Energy is the ability to do work. It's unit is joule. The rate of doing work is called Power. The modern unit of measurement of power is Watt. Energy is required for all activities. It is needed to cook, to provide light and heat, to propel vehicles and to drive machinery in industries.

Conventional Sources of Energy:

The energy sources which cannot be renewed are known as **conventional sources of energy**.

- It includes firewood, cattle dung cake, coal, petroleum, natural gas and electricity.
- Some of the important conventional sources of energy are:

O-THP Key Diagram Sources of energy (Non-conventional souces Conventional souces Bio energy Solar energy Commercial Non-commercial Wind energy Coal Fire Wood Tidal energy Petroleum Straw Energy from-Electricity Dried dung urban waste

- (i) Coal:
- Coal is the prime source of energy, often called the "Mother of Industries" or "Black Gold".
- It was the basis of the Industrial Revolution.
- It is used as a raw material in the iron and steel and chemical industries.
- It is the main fuel for producing thermal power.
- India ranks 7th in the world in coal reserves.
- ▶ It is the most abundantly available **fossil fuel**.

© ≪ Key Terms

Thermal power: Electrical power produced by converting heat into electricity.

Fossil fuel: Any naturally occurring carbon or hydrocarbon fuel, such as coal, petroleum, peat, and natural gas, formed by the decomposition of prehistoric organisms.

Crude oil: It is a naturally occurring, unrefined petroleum product.

Natural gas: It is a non-renewable hydrocarbon used as a source of energy for heating, cooking, and electricity generation.

Hydro electricity: It is a form of energy that harnesses the power of water in motion—such as water flowing over a waterfall—to generate electricity.

Renewable resource of energy: These energy resources can be replenished. They may be renewed after use. Example-solar energy, wind energy, etc.

Four types of coal:

- (a) Anthracite: Contains 80% carbon, hard, black and compact, found only in Jammu and Kashmir. It is the highest quality hard coal.
- **(b) Bituminous:** 60-80% carbon, widely used.
- (c) Lignite: 60% of carbon, low grade. It is called "brown coal".
- (d) Peat: <50% carbon and burns like wood.

©=₩ Key Facts

It takes roughly 1 million years to form coal. Coal is the second most consumed fossil fuel in the world.

Most petroleum is found by drilling down through rocks on land or off-shore on the continental shelf. Petroleum is the most important world fuel source. It supplies 38% of

the world's energy and is also used to make petrochemicals.

- (ii) Petroleum: Liquid fossil fuel, wells are dug or drilled on land or offshore to bring oil to the surface. This crude oil is transported to refineries where it is changed into gasoline and petrochemicals. Petroleum refineries serve as 'nodal industries' for chemical, fertilizer and synthetic textile industries as various products are obtained during refining petroleum. It provides fuel for heating, lighting, running machineries, vehicles, lubricants and raw materials for manufacturing some plastics, chemicals, etc.
- Mumbai High, Gujarat and Assam are major petroleum production areas in India.

(iii) Natural Gas:

- Natural gas is an important clean energy resource. It is considered an environment-friendly fuel.
- The power and fertilizer industries are the key users of natural gas.
- Compressed Natural Gas (CNG) is used in vehicles to replace liquid fuels.
- Large reserves of natural gas have been discovered in the Krishna-Godavari basin.

(iv) Electricity:

- It is a renewable resource of energy. India has a number of multi-purpose projects like the Bhakra Nangal, Damodar Valley Corporation, the Kopili Hydel Project.
- (a) Electricity is generated mainly in two ways:
- By running water which drives hydro turbines to generate hydro electricity.
- (b) By burning other fuels such as coal, petroleum and natural gas to drive turbines to produce thermal power.
- It uses non-renewable **fossil fuels** for generating electricity.

Topic-4

Non-Conventional Sources of Energy

Concepts Covered ● Non-conventional source of energy and its types.



Revision Notes

Non-Conventional Sources of Energy:

The potential of nonconventional sources of **energy** is large. They use renewable resources for energy generation. Following are the six main non-conventional sources of energy: namely, solar energy, wind energy, biomass energy, geothermal energy, tidal energy and hydro power.

Scan to know more about this topic



Conventional Source

(i) Solar Energy: Photovoltaic technology converts sunlight directly into electricity.

Solar energy is used for cooking, pumping, heating of water, refrigerator and street lighting.

© Key Terms

Non-conventional sources of energy: They are the sources present in the environment in large quantity but are used for limited purposes only.

Biogas energy: Biogas is an environmentallyfriendly, renewable energy source. It's produced when organic matter, such as food or animal waste, is broken down by microorganisms in the absence of oxygen.

Tidal energy: It is a form of power produced by the natural rise and fall of tides caused by the gravitational interaction between Earth, the sun, and the moon.

(ii) Wind Energy: India has a wind power potential of 20,000 MW. Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka, Gujarat, Kerala, Maharashtra and Lakshadweep have important wind farms.

- (iii) Biogas: Shrubs, farm wastes, animal and human wastes are used to produce biogas for domestic consumption in the rural areas.
- (iv) Other non-conventional sources include geothermal energy, tidal energy and wave energy.

Conservation of Energy Resources:

- Energy is a basic requirement for economic development. Every sector of the economy needs inputs of energy for its development.
- Most of the energy resources are limited.
- Due to industrialisation, modernisation and urbanisation, the consumption of energy in all forms has been steadily rising all over the country.

How can we conserve energy resources?

- Need to develop a sustainable path of energy development, i.e., energy development but not at the cost of environment or needs of future generation.
- Judicious use of limited energy resources.
- Wastage of minerals should be minimised.
- Modern technology should be used for the exploitation of energy resources.
- Export of energy resources should be minimised.
- Use of substitutes in order to save energy resources.
- Encourage recycling of energy resources.

© Key Facts

Hydro power costs less than most energy sources. Some hydro power facilities can quickly go from zero power to maximum output, making them ideal for meeting sudden changes in demand for electricity.

Solar energy is the cheapest source of energy in the world.

CHAPTER-6

MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES

Topic-1

Manufacturing Industries – Introduction, Location and Classification

<u>Concepts Covered</u> • Importance and classification of manufacturing industries, • Contribution of manufacturing industries in the development of the country.



Revision Notes

Introduction

- Manufacturing is the production of goods in large quantities after processing raw materials into more valuable products. Industries that manufacture finished products from primary materials are called manufacturing industries.
- Importance of Manufacturing
 - Manufacturing industries help in modernizing agriculture; which forms the backbone of our economy.
 - Manufacturing industries also reduce the heavy dependence of people on agricultural income because of the creation of new jobs in secondary and tertiary sectors.
 - Industrial development helps in the eradication of unemployment and poverty.
 - Export of manufactured goods expands trade and commerce and brings in much needed foreign exchange.
 - A country with a high level of manufacturing activities becomes prosperous.
- Contribution of Industry to National Economy
 - The share of manufacturing sector in the GDP (Gross Domestic Product) has stagnated at 17% over the last two decades.
 - The total contribution of industry to the GDP is 27% out of which 10% comes from mining, quarrying, electricity and gas.

© ── Key Terms

Agglomeration economies: They are the benefits that gets accrued when firms and people are placed near one another together in cities and industrial clusters.

Industrial agglomeration: It is defined as a cluster of companies in one or some interconnected industries concentrated in a

certain area, which is united by common interests and complementary.

Basic Industries: There are industries, on which many other industries depend for their manufacturing processes.

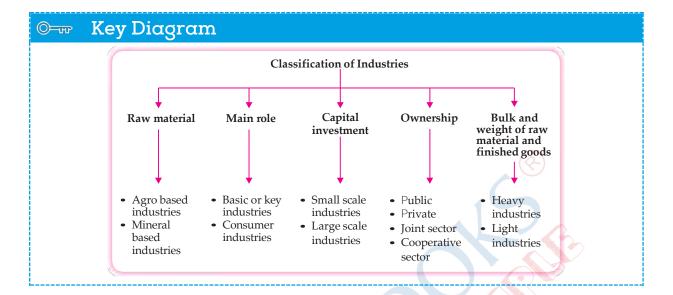
- The growth of the **manufacturing sector** had been 7% in the last decade. Since 2003, the growth rate has been 9 to 10% per annum. The desired growth rate over the next decade is 12%.
- The National Manufacturing Competitiveness Council (NMCC) has been set up with the objectives of improving productivity through proper policy interventions by the government and renewed efforts by the industry.
- Factors which Affect the Industrial Location
 - Availability of raw materials
 - Availability of labour
 - Availability of capital
 - Availability of power
 - Availability of market
 - Infrastructure

© ₩ Key Fact

China is the world's manufacturing powerhouse.

Manufacturing Industry and Urbanisation

- A manufacturing industry promotes the urbanisation of its neighbourhood. Already urbanised areas also attract industries, since they provide ready facilities for transport, banking, labour, consultancy, etc. If an urban centre offers sufficient facilities and advantages, several industries come up there together to form an industrial agglomeration. These industries together form an agglomeration economy.
- Before Independence, most industries in India were located in port cities to enable easy overseas trade.



Classification of Industries

- 1. On the basis of raw materials:
 - (i) Agro Based Industries: Cotton, woollen, jute, silk textile, rubber, sugar, tea, coffee, etc.
 - (ii) Mineral-Based Industries: Iron and steel, cement, aluminium, petrochemicals, etc.
- 2. According to their main role:
 - (i) Basic or Key Industries: These industries supply their products or raw materials to manufacture other goods, e.g., iron and steel, copper smelting and aluminium smelting.
 - (ii) Consumer Industries: These industries produce goods which are directly used by consumers, e.g., sugar, paper, electronics, soap, etc.
- 3. On the basis of capital investment:
 - (i) Small Scale Industry: If the invested capital is up to ₹1 crore, then the industry is called a small scale industry.
 - (ii) Large Scale Industry: If the invested capital is more than ₹ 1 crore, then the industry is called a large scale industry.

© Key Terms

Large Scale Industries: Industries which employ a large number of labour in each unit.

Heavy industries: They are very capital-intensive, it means that they require a lot of machinery and equipment for production.

Light industries: Any manufacturing or construction industry that doesn't involve heavy and capital intensive products or production equipment.

4. On the basis of ownership:

- (i) **Public Sector:** These industries are owned and operated by government agencies, e.g., SAIL, BHEL, ONGC, etc.
- (ii) Private Sector: These industries are owned and operated by individuals or a group of individuals, e.g., TISCO, Reliance, Mahindra, etc.
- (iii) **Joint Sector:** These industries are jointly owned by the government and individuals or a group of individuals, e.g., Oil India Limited.
- (iv) Cooperative Sector: These industries are owned and operated by the producers or suppliers of raw materials, workers or both. The resources are pooled by each share holder and profits or losses are shared proportionately. AMUL which is a milk cooperative is a good example. The sugar industry in Maharashtra is another example.
- 5. Classification of industries on the basis of bulk and weight of raw materials and finished goods:
 - (i) Heavy Industries: Iron and steel.
 - (ii) Light Industries: Electronics industry.

Topic-2

Agro-Based & Mineral Based Industries

<u>Concepts Covered</u> ● Types of agro-based industries, ● Types of mineral based industries.



Revision Notes

Agro Based Industries

 Industries based on agricultural raw materials are called agro based industries. For example, cotton textiles, jute textiles, woollen textiles, silk textiles, synthetic textiles, sugar industry, etc

Types of Agro Based Industries

1. Textile Industry:

- The textile industry contributes 14% to industrial production in India.
- 35 million persons are directly employed in the textiles industry in India.
- In terms of employment generation, this industry is the second largest after agriculture.
- It earns approximately 24.6% of the foreign exchange.
- The contribution of **textiles industry** to **GDP** is
- This is the only industry in the country which is self-reliant and complete in the value chain.

© Key Terms

Gross domestic product (GDP): It is the most commonly used measure for the size of an economy.

Heavy industry: It relates to a type of business that typically carries a high capital cost (capital-intensive), high barriers to entry, and low transportability.

Aluminium smelting: It is the process of extracting aluminium from its oxide, alumina.

Mineral Based Industries

Manufacturing industries that use minerals as raw material are called mineral-based industries. The iron and steel industry is the basic industry on which all other industries depend. The production and per capita consumption of steel is a measure of a country's economic development.

Types of Mineral Based Industries

The main raw materials used in the iron and steel industry are iron ore, coal and limestone. The raw materials and finished products of iron and steel industries are quite bulky; these industries must be located near the mining areas of the required minerals and must be connected by a good transport network.

1. Aluminium Smelting:

- Aluminium Smelting is the second most important metallurgical industry in India. It is used to manufacture aircraft, utensils and wires. Bauxite is the raw material used in the smelters.
- Aluminium has gained popularity as a substitute for steel, copper, zinc and lead in a number of industries. It exhibits the following properties:
 - (i) Light in weight
 - (ii) Resistant to corrosion
 - (iii) A good conductor of heat
 - (iv) Malleable
 - (v) Becomes strong when it is mixed with other metals

2. Chemical Industries

- The **chemical industry** comprises both large and small scale manufacturing units.
- Rapid growth has been recorded in both inorganic and organic sectors.

3. Fertilizer Industry

- The **fertilizer industries** are centred around the production of nitrogenous fertilizers (mainly urea), and complex fertilizers which have a combination of nitrogen (N), phosphate (P), and potash (K).
- Gujarat, Tamil Nadu, Uttar Pradesh, Punjab and Kerala contribute towards half of the fertilizer production.

4. Automobile Industry

- This industry deals with the manufacturing of trucks, buses, cars, motorcycles, scooters, threewheelers and multi-utility vehicles.
- These industries are located around Delhi, Gurugram, Mumbai, Pune, Chennai, Kolkata, Lucknow, Indore, Hyderabad, Jamshedpur and Bengaluru.

5. Information Technology and Electronics Industry

- The electronics industry covers a wide range of products from transistor sets to television, telephones, cellular telecom, telephone exchange, radars, computers and many other equipment required by the telecommunication industry.
- This industry has generated employment in India. Bengaluru is known as the electronic capital of India.

Topic-3

Industrial Pollution and Environmental Degradation

Concepts Covered ● Industrial pollution and environmental degradation,

• Control of environmental degradation



Revision Notes

Types of Pollution Caused by Industries:

- Air pollution: It is caused by the presence of a high proportion of undesirable gases, such as sulphur dioxide and carbon monoxide. Smoke is emitted by chemical and paper factories, brick kilns, refineries and smelting plants, and burning of fossil fuels leads to air pollution. It adversely affects human health, animals, plants, buildings and the atmosphere as a whole.
- 2. Water pollution: It is caused by organic and inorganic industrial wastes and effluents discharged into rivers. The industries which are mainly responsible for water pollution are paper, pulp, chemical, textile and dyeing, petroleum refineries, tanneries and electroplating industries.
- 3. **Thermal pollution:** Pollution of water occurs when hot water from factories and thermal plants is drained into rivers and ponds before cooling.
- 4. Noise pollution: It is the propagation of noise with harmful impact on the activity of human or animal life. It results in irritation, anger, cause hearing impairment, increased heart rate and blood pressure.

© Key Terms

Thermal pollution: It is the rise or fall in the temperature of a natural body of water caused by human influence.

Noise pollution: It is the propagation of noise with ranging impacts on the activity of human or animal life, most of them harmful to a degree.

Environmental degradation: It is the deterioration of the environment through depletion of resources such as quality of air, water and soil; the destruction of ecosystems; habitat destruction; the extinction of wildlife; and pollution.

Steps to Control Environmental Degradation

- One of the most important steps for the control of environmental degradation is treating hot and polluted waste water from industries before releasing it into our rivers and lakes.
- Treated waste water can be recycled for reuse in industrial processes.
- Rainwater harvesting can be used to meet the requirements of water for industrial processes.
- Legal provisions must be made to regulate the use of groundwater for industrial use. Smoke stacks, filters, scrubbers, and electrostatic and inertial separators remove a large number of harmful particles from industrial smoke. The emission of smoke itself from industries can be reduced by using more efficient fuels like oil and natural gas in place of coal.
- Industrial and generator silencers, and soundabsorbing material are available to reduce the noise level in industries. Industrial workers can use earphones and earplugs for individual protection of health and hearing.
- National Thermal Power Corporation or NTPC is a major electricity generation and distribution company in India.
- NTPC has demonstrated how conservation of environment and natural resources can happen simultaneously with industrial growth by:
 - (i) Adopting latest technical know how
 - (ii) Minimising waste
 - (iii) Providing green cover
 - (iv) Reducing environmental pollution
 - (v) Continuous monitoring

UNIT-III : DEMOCRATIC POLITICS-II CHAPTER-1 POWER SHARING

Topic-1

Belgium and Sri Lanka and Majoritarianism in Sri Lanka

<u>Concepts Covered</u> • Majoritarianism in Sri Lanka • Reasons behind it and its consequences.



Revision Notes

- ▶ Belgium is a small European country. Brussels is the capital of this country.
- The ethnic composition of Belgium is very complex. In Belgium, people speak mainly three languages— Dutch (59 per cent), French (40 per cent) and German (1 per cent).
- In Brussels, the Dutch-speaking people are in minority which is the opposite of the rest of the country, where they are in majority.
- Sri Lanka is an island country. It has a diverse population.
- In Sri Lanka, 74 per cent of people speak Sinhala and 18 per cent people speak Tamil.
- In Sri Lanka, there are four religions:
 - Buddhism
 - Islam
 - Hinduism
 - Christianity
- In 1956, an Act was passed to recognize Sinhala as the only official language of Sri Lanka, thus disregarding Tamil.

- The leaders of the Sinhala community sought to secure dominance over the government by virtue of their majority and thus, the democratically elected government adopted a series of majoritarian measures to establish Sinhala supremacy.
- It followed majoritarianism.
- By 1980s several political organizations were formed demanding an independent **Tamil Eelam** (state) in northern and eastern parts of Sri Lanka.
- The distrust between the two communities turned into widespread conflict which resulted in a Civil War.

© Key Terms

Majoritarianism: The philosophy or practices where the outcome of a decision is determined by the numerical majority of its members.

Supremacy: The state of being the most Powerful.

Tamil Eelam: Tamil State

Topic-2

Accommodation in Belgium and Forms of Power Sharing

Concepts Covered • Accommodation of Belgium in Power sharing, • Forms of Power sharing.



Revision Notes

- A strategy wherein all the major segments of the society are provided with a permanent share of power in the governance of the country is known as power sharing.
- Political equality implies that all citizens should have the same political rights and should have equal access to all offices of authority.

- Government is the institution, through which the will of the State is created, expressed and implemented.
- The three main organs of the Government are (i) Legislature, (ii) Executive and (iii) Judiciary.
- The broad divisions of reasons for power sharing are **prudential** reason and moral reason.
- Ethnicity is a population of human beings whose members identify with each other on the basis of common cultural, behavioral, linguistic and religious traits.
- A government in which different social groups are given the power to handle the affairs related to their communities is known as **community government.**
- The Belgian leaders worked out to make an arrangement that would enable everyone to live together within the same country, which is very innovative.
- The constitution of Belgium prescribes that the number of Dutch and French-speaking ministers shall be equal in the Central Government.
- The State Governments are not subordinate to the Central Government.
- Brussels has a separate government in which both the communities have equal representation.
- Apart from the Central and the State Government, there is a third kind of government called the 'Community Government'.
- Power sharing is desirable because :
 - It helps to reduce the possibility of conflict between social groups.
 - It is the very spirit of democracy.

- In modern democracies, power sharing arrangements can take many forms :
 - 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 general government for the entire country and governments at the provincial or regional level.
 - Power may also be shared among different social groups, such as the religious and linguistic groups.
 - Power sharing arrangements can also be seen in the way political parties, pressure groups and movements control or influence those in power.

Prudential: Based on prudence, or on a careful calculation of gains and losses. Prudential decisions are usually contrasted with those decisions that are based purely on moral considerations.

Community Government: Community govern ment is an elected body by the people belonging to one language, one culture or any common property no matter where they live.

Pressure Groups: Pressure groups are those organization's that attempt to influence the policies of the government to safeguard their own interests.

CHAPTER-2

FEDERALISM

Topic-1

Federalism and India as a Federal Country

<u>Concepts Covered</u> • What is Federalism, • What makes India a Federal

Country?



- The sharing of power among the central, state, regional and local governments is known as federalism.
- In the federal form of government, there is a clearcut division of powers between the central authority and various constituent units of the country.
- The key features of federalism are:
 - There are two or more levels (or tiers) of government.
 - Different tiers of government 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 government are specified in the Constitution.
- The fundamental provisions of the Constitution cannot be unilaterally changed by one level of government. Such changes require the consent of both the levels of government.
- Courts have the power to interpret the Constitution and the powers of different levels of government.

Jurisdiction: A jurisdiction is a state or other area in which a particular court and system of laws have authority.

Legislation: The process of enrolling, enacting or promulgating law by a legislative body.

Autonomy: A region or territory to govern itself independently.

- Sources of revenue for each level of government are clearly specified to ensure its financial autonomy.
- The federal system thus, has dual objectives: To safeguard and promote the unity of the country and at the same time, accommodate the regional diversity.
- Argentina, Austria, Australia, Belgium, Brazil, Canada, Germany, India, Mexico, Switzerland and the United States have federal governments.

- Constitution clearly provided a three-fold distribution of legislative powers between the Union Government and the State Governments. Thus, it contains three lists:
 - Union List: It includes subjects of national importance such as defense of the country, foreign affairs, banking, communications and currency. The Union Government alone can make laws relating to the subjects mentioned in the Union List.
 - State List: It contains subjects of State and local importance such as police, trade, commerce, agriculture and irrigation. The State Governments alone can make laws relating to the subjects mentioned in the State List
 - Concurrent List: It includes subjects of common interest to both the Union Government as well as the State Governments, such as education, forest, trade unions, marriage, adoption and succession. Both the Union as well as the State Governments can make laws on the subjects mentioned in this list. If their laws conflict with each other, the law made by the Union Government will prevail.
- Some units of the Indian Union are smaller in size in comparison to other states to become an independent state and they also cannot be merged with other existing states. Such units are known as Union Territories.

Topic-2

Federalism in Practice and Decentralization in India

<u>Concepts Covered</u> • How is federalism Practiced in India? • Decentralization in India/Local Government.



- The creation of linguistic states was the first and a major test for democratic politics in our country.
- Hindi was identified as the official language. There are 22 other languages recognized as Scheduled Languages by the Constitution.
- States like Nagaland, Uttarakhand and Jharkhand were created not on the basis of language, but to recognize differences based on Culture, Ethnicity or Geography.
- Restructuring the Centre-State relations is one more way in which Federalism has been strengthened in practice.
- When no Single Party gets a clear majority in the Lok Sabha, the Major National Parties enters into an Alliance with many parties including several Regional parties to form a Government at the Centre called the Coalition Government.
- A major step towards Decentralisation was taken in 1992.
- The Constitution was amended to make the Thirdtier of Democracy more powerful and effective. The following measures were taken regarding this:
 - It is constitutionally mandatory to hold regular elections for Local Government Bodies.

- Seats are reserved in the elected bodies and the executive heads of these institutions for the Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Other Backward Classes.
- At least one-third of all positions are reserved for women.
- An independent institution called the State Election Commission has been created in each State to conduct Panchayat and Municipal elections.
- The State Governments are required to share some powers and revenue with Local Government Bodies.
- Rural local government is popularly known by the name Panchayati Raj. Each village, or a group of villages in some states, has a Gram Panchayat.
- ► The functions of Gram Panchayats are :
 - It is the decision-making body for the entire village.
 - The Panchayat works under the overall supervision of the **Gram Sabha**. All the voters in the village are its members.
 - It has to meet at least thrice in a year to approve the annual budget of the Gram Panchayat.
 - To review the performance of the Gram Panchayat.

- A few Gram Panchayats are grouped together to form what is usually called a Panchayat Samiti or Block or Mandal.
- All the **Panchayat Samitis** or Mandals in a District together constitute the Zila (District) Parishad.
- Zila Parishad Chairperson is the Political Head of the Zila Parishad.

Scheduled Languages: 22 languages which are listed in the Eighth Schedule of the Constitution are known as the scheduled languages.

Gram Sabha: The body for the supervision of Gram Panchayats.

Panchayat Samiti: It is a local government body at the tehsil or taluka level in India, which is a link between Gram Panchayat and Zila Parishad.

- Municipalities are set up in towns. Big cities are constituted into Municipal Corporations.
- Both Municipalities and Municipal Corporations are controlled by elected bodies consisting of people's representatives.
- Municipal Chairperson is the Political Head of the Municipality. In a Municipal Corporation, such an officer is called the Mayor.

CHAPTER-3

GENDER, RELIGION AND CASTE

Topic-1

Gender and Politics

<u>Concepts Covered</u> • Public/Private division, • Women's Political Representation



Revision Notes

- Gender division is a form of hierarchical social division which can be seen everywhere.
- Sexual division of labour means the work is divided amongst people according to their sex.
- Social division of the Indian society is clearly indicated by casteism, gender inequality and communal divisions.
- Earlier, only men were allowed to participate in public affairs, vote and contest for public offices. Gradually, the gender issue was raised in politics.
- Women in different parts of the world organised themselves into groups and demanded for equal rights.

These agitations demanded to enhance the political and legal status of women and improving their educational and career opportunities.

© Key Terms

Hierarchical: Of the nature of a hierarchy *i.e.*, arranged according to people's or thing's level of importance. **Patriarchal Society:** A society in which the domination of the males are there in all the important matters.

 Women face disadvantage, discrimination and oppression in various ways They are less literate,

- though they work equally yet they are sometimes paid lesser than men; mostly son is preferred by
- A man or a woman who believes in equal rights and opportunities for women is called a feminist.
- Most of the women's movements aim at equality in personal and family life, of women. These movements are called feminist movements.
- India is still a male-dominated patriarchal society.
- Women face disadvantage, discrimination and oppression in various ways They are less literate, though they work equally yet they are sometimes paid lesser than men; mostly son is preferred by

- In India, the proportion of women in the legislature has been very low.
- To solve this problem a fair proportion of women in the elected bodies has been legally made in the Panchayati Raj in India.
- One-third of seats in local government bodies
 in panchayats and municipalities are now reserved for women.
- Patriarchal Society: Society ruled by the hypothetical social system in which the father or a male elder has absolute authority over the family group.
- Legislature: An assembly with the authority to make laws for a political entity such as a country or city.

Topic-2

Religion, Communalism and Politics

Concepts Covered • Communalism and Communal Politics.



Revision Notes

- Indian democracy faces the problem of casteism, communalism, illiteracy, unemployment and poverty.
- Communities having a relatively small population in a society are called Minorities.
- When one religion and its followers are pitted against each other politically on the basis of the belief that one's religion is better than other religions, such usage of religion in politics is known as communal politics.
- A system of separate electorate and representation for people belonging to different communities is known as Communal Representation.
- The laws that deal with family-related matters, such as marriage, divorce, etc., are known as Family Laws.
- Buddhism is the major religion of Sri Lanka and Hinduism is the major religion of Nepal.
- The use of religion in politics is known as Communal Politics.
- Ideas, ideals and values are drawn from different religions and perhaps should play a role in politics.
- People should be able to express in politics their needs, interests and demands as a member of a religious community.
- Communal politics is based on the idea that religion is the principal basis of social community.
- Communalism can take various forms in politics:
 - The most common expression of communalism is in everyday beliefs.
 - A communal mind often leads to a quest for political dominance of one's own religious community.

- **Political mobilisation** on religious lines is another frequent form of communalism.
- Sometimes communalism takes its most ugly form of communal violence, riots and massacre.
- In a **secular state** like India, there is no official religion for the Indian state.
- The Constitution provides to all individuals and communities freedom to profess, practice and propagate any religion, or not to follow any.

Some of its features are:

- The Constitution prohibits discrimination on grounds of religion.
- At the same time, the Constitution allows the State to intervene in the matters of religion in order to ensure equality within religious communities.

© Key Terms

Political Mobilisation: Set of organised activities in order to create a favourable environment for national and international political or policy change.

Secular State: A state which guarantees individual and corporate its freedom of religion; a state officially neutral in matters of religion.

Discrimination: Unfair or prejudicial treatment of people and groups based on characteristics such as race, gender, age, etc.

Topic-3

Caste and Politics

Concepts Covered • Caste Inequalities, • Caste in Politics, • Politics in caste.



Revision Notes

- A behaviour which inspires the high caste people to hate the lower caste people is known as Casteism.
- Caste system was based on the exclusion of and discrimination against the 'outcaste' groups. They were subjected to the inhuman practice of untouchability.
- Gandhiji was against untouchability.
- Jyotiba Phule, Dr. B. R. Ambedkar, Mahatma Gandhi and Periyar Ramaswami Naicker worked to end the caste system in India.
- With economic development, large scale **urbanisation**, the growth of literacy and education, occupational mobility and the weakening of the position of landlords in the villages, the old notions of caste hierarchy are breaking down.
- Constitution of India prohibited any caste-based discrimination and laid the foundation of policies to reverse the injustices of the Caste System.
- Caste can take various forms in politics:
 - When parties choose candidates in elections, they keep in mind the caste composition of the electorate and nominate candidates from different castes. So as to muster necessary support to win elections.
 - Political parties and candidates in elections make appeals to caste sentiment to muster support.
 - Universal Adult Franchise and the principle of one-person-one-vote compelled political leaders to gear up to the task of mobilising and securing political support.
- No parliamentary constituency in the country has a clear majority of one single caste.

- Politics too can influence the caste system and caste identities by bringing them into the political arena.
- It is not politics that gets caste ridden; it is the caste that gets politicised. This takes several forms:
 - Each caste group tries to become bigger by incorporating within its neighboring castes or sub-castes which were earlier excluded from it.
 - New kinds of caste groups have come up in the political arena like 'Backward' and 'Forward' caste groups.

Several political and non-political organizations have been demanding and agitating for an end to discrimination against particular castes, for more dignity and more access to land, resources and opportunities.

Exclusive attention to caste can divert attention from other pressing issues like poverty, development and **corruption**.

In some cases, caste division leads to tensions, conflict and even violence.

© Key Terms

Untouchability: The practice of not being given equal status due to that person's caste, class, habits, culture, language, etc.

Urbanization: Shift of population from rural areas to urban areas.

Corruption: A form of dishonest or illegal behavior undertaken by a person or an organisation entrusted with a position of authority.

CHAPTER-4

POLITICAL PARTIES

Topic-1

An Introduction of Political Parties and Types of Party Systems

<u>Concepts Covered</u> • Why do we need political parties? • Meaning and Functions of political parties • How many parties should we have? • Types of party systems.



Revision Notes

What is a political party?

- A political party is a group of people who come together to contest elections and hold power in the government.
- It mobilises voters to support common sets of interests, concerns and goals.
- A political party fixes the political agenda and policies and tries to persuade people by claiming that their policies are better than those of other parties.
- A **political party** is the means through which people can speak to the government and have a say in the governance of any country.
- A political party has three components:
 - the leaders,
 - the active members, and
 - the followers.

©≕ Key Term

Political party: A political party is a group of people with a definite agenda and who come together to contest elections and hold power in the government.

Functions:

- Parties contest elections by putting up candidates.
- In some countries, candidates are selected by members and supporters of a party, e.g., the USA.
- In other countries, candidates for contesting elections are chosen by top party leaders, e.g., India.
- Parties put forward different policies and programmes and voters choose from them. In a democracy, a large number of people with similar opinions group together and form a party and then give a direction to the policies followed by the government.

- The parties that lose elections form the opposition and voice different views and criticize the government for their failures and wrong policies.
- They shape public opinion. Parties with the help of pressure groups launch movements for solving problems faced by the people.
- Parties provide people access to government machinery and welfare schemes implemented by the government. For an ordinary citizen, it is easy to approach a local party leader than a government officer.
- Need for political parties :
 - The democracies cannot exist without political parties being clear about the functions they perform.
- If there were no political parties then :
 - All candidates in an election would become independent candidates. They cannot promise any major policy changes to the people. No one will be responsible for how the country runs.
 - In large societies, only representative democracy can work. Political parties become an agency to gather different views on various issues and present them to the government.

Party Systems

- There are three types of party systems:
 - (i) One-party system or Mono party
 - (ii) Two-party system or Bi-party and
 - (iii) Multi-party system
 - (i) One-Party System (Mono party): In some countries, only one party is allowed to control and run the government. There is no competition in this system. The mono party nominates the candidates and the voters have only two choices (a) Not to vote at all or (b) write 'yes' or 'no' against the name of the candidates nominated by the party. This system

has been popular in Communist countries and other authoritarian regimes, e.g., China, North Korea and Cuba. This system was also prevalent in USSR till Communism collapsed.

- (ii) Two-Party System (Bi-party): Power changes between two major, dominant parties. In this system, to win elections, the winner has to get a maximum number of votes, but not necessarily a majority of votes. The smaller parties usually merge with the bigger parties or they drop out of elections. This parliamentary system prevails in Great Britain and the United States of America, in which only two parties hold significant numbers of seats. Supporters of this system believe that this prevents dangers of fragmentation (too many parties winning seats from different constituencies) and the government can run smoothly.
- (iii) Multi-Party System: It is the most common type of party system. In this system, more than two parties have the capacity to gain control of the government separately or in the coalition. When no party gains a majority of the legislative seats in a Multi-Party Parliamentary System, then several parties join hands and form a Coalition Government. Supporters of this system point out that it allows more points of views to be represented in the government. Critics of this

- system point out that the Multi-Party System sometimes leads to political instability.
- In this system, an **alliance** contest election to win power. Such as, in 2004 and 2009 India had three such alliances for Parliamentary Elections:
 - National Democratic Alliance,
 - The United Progressive Alliance and
 - Left Front.

Proportion of Participation:

- Level of participation in the activities of the parties—very high in India.
- Advanced countries like Canada, Japan, Spain and South Korea—much less.
- The proportion of people in India who feel close to a political party is very high—membership of political parties has also gone up.

© Key Terms

Election: An election is a formal group decision-making process by which a population chooses an individual to hold public office and run the government.

Alliance: When several parties in a Multi-Party System join hands for the purpose of contesting elections and winning power, it is called an alliance or a front.

Topic-2

National and Regional Parties And Their Challenges and Reforms

Concepts Covered ● National Political parties, ● State Parties, ● Challenges to Political Parties, ● How cam Parties be reformed?



Revision Notes

- Every party in India has to register with the **Election Commission.** The Commission treats every party as equal to the others, but it offers special facilities to large and established parties.
- They are given a unique symbol and are called, "recognised political parties."
- A registered party is recognised as a National Party only if it fulfils any one of the following three conditions:
 - The party wins 2% of seats in the Lok Sabha (as of 2014, 11 seats) from at least 3 different states.
 - At a General Election to Lok Sabha or Legislative Assembly, the party polls 6% of the total valid votes in at least four states and in addition it wins 4 Lok Sabha seats.

- A party gets recognition as a State Party in four or more states.
- Introduction to Major Political Parties in India :
 - Indian National Congress (INC): Founded in 1885. After Independence, it became free India's premier political party. In the first five general elections held, the Congress virtually controlled the politics of the country.

© Key Terms

Election Commission: An autonomous constitutional authority responsible for administering election processes in a country.

National Party: A party that secures at least 6% of the total votes in Lok Sabha elections or wins four seats in the Lok Sabha is recognized as a National Party.

- Bharatiya Janata Party (BJP): Created in 1980, it champions the socio-religious values of India. Since its formation, the BJP has been a strong rival of the Indian National Congress. It is now in government, and the leading party within the National Democratic Alliance (NDA).
- Bahujan Samaj Party (BSP): The Bahujan Samaj Party is a party formed to represent the OBCs, SCs, STs, and religious minorities, those which are at the bottom of India's caste system. The BSP was formed in 1984 by two leaders, Kanshiram and Mayawati. It draws inspiration from the teachings of Sahu Maharaj, Mahatma Phule, Periyar Ramaswami Naicker.
- Communist Party of India Marxist (CPI-M):
 The Communist Party of India (Marxist),
 usually known as CPI-M, split from the
 Communist Party of India in 1964. It believes
 in Marxism- Leninism and supports socialism,
 secularism and democracy. It opposes
 imperialism and communalism. Its
 supporters are farmers, agricultural labourers
 and intelligentsia.
- Communist Party of India (CPI): It was formed in 1925, believes in Marxism-Leninism, Secularism and Democracy. It is opposed to the forces of communalism and secessionism. It believes that parliamentary democracy helps the interests of farmers, the working class, and the poor.
- Nationalist Congress Party (NCP): It was formed on May 25, 1999, by Sharad Pawar, P.A. Sangma and Tariq Anwar after they were thrown out of the Congress Party. NCP has a major support in Maharashtra state. The NCP claims that it supports democracy, Gandhian secularism, equity, social justice and federalism.

State or Regional Political Parties:

- Regional parties need not be regional in their ideology or outlook. Some of these parties are all India parties that happen to have succeeded only in some states.
- Parties like the Samajwadi Party, (Janata Dal-United) Samta Party and Rashtriya Janata Dal have national level political organisation with units in several states.
- Some of these parties like Biju Janata Dal, Sikkim Democratic Front and Mizo National Front are conscious about their state identity.

Lack of internal democracy within parties

- Power concentrated in the hands of one or few leaders at the top.
- No organisational meetings. No keeping of membership registers.
- No internal, regular elections.
- Ordinary members do not have access to information. So, they cannot influence decisions.

 Disagreement with the leadership leads to ouster from the party.

Dynastic succession

- Leaders on top have an unfair advantage to favour people close to them or family members.
- Top positions controlled by family members of one family in most parties.
- Bad for democracy.
- Tendency seen all over the world, even in the older democracies.

Money and muscle power

- During elections this power is very visible.
- Candidates who can raise money are nominated.
- Rich people and companies who give funds have an influence on policies.

Parties do not offer a meaningful choice to the voters.

- There is not much difference in ideology among parties. Example: Labour Party and Conservative Party of Britain. They only differ on details of implementation rather than fundamental principles.
- In India also there is not much difference among parties on economic issues.

Reforms:

As political parties face these challenges, there is a growing need to reform the system. Some of the reform measures taken by the government are: Anti-defection law, affidavit requirement and organisational meetings for political parties.

Some suggestions made to reform political parties and its leaders:

- A law should be made to regulate the internal affairs of political parties. It should be made compulsory for political parties to maintain a register of its members, follow its own Constitution and hold open elections to the highest posts.
- It should be made mandatory for political parties to give a minimum number of tickets, about one-third, to women candidates.
- There should be state funding of elections.
 The government should give parties money, petrol, paper, telephone, etc., to support their election expenses.

©≒₩ Key Terms

Defection: Changing party allegiance from the party on which a person got elected (to a Legislative body) to a different party.

Affidavit: A signed document submitted to an officer where a person makes a sworn statement regarding his/her personal information including property and criminal cases pending against him.

CHAPTER-5

OUTCOMES OF DEMOCRACY

Topic-1

How do we assess Democracy's outcomes and Political outcomes of Democracy

<u>Concepts Covered</u> • How do we assess Democracy's outcomes? • Why Democracy is better form of government? • Accountable, responsive and legitimate government.



Revision Notes

Is Democracy a better form of government when compared with Dictatorship or any other alternative?

Democracy is a better form of government because:

- It promotes equality among citizens.
- It enhances the dignity of the individual.
- It improves the quality of decision-making.
- It provides a method to resolve conflicts.
- It allows room to correct mistakes.
- Is the Democratic government efficient? Is it effective?
 - Imagine that other form of government may take decisions very fast. But it may take decisions which are not accepted by the people and may, therefore, face problems.

© Key Term

Dictatorship: Under Dictatorship, all the powers are vested in a single person or in a group of people.

- Democracy is based on the idea of deliberation and negotiation. So, some delay is bound to take place.
- In contrast, the democratic government will take more time to follow procedures before arriving at a decision.
- But because it has followed procedures, its decisions may be both more acceptable to the people and more effective.
- So, the cost of time that Democracy pays is perhaps worth it

Outcomes of every Democracy:

- As a political outcome of democracy, we expect an accountable, responsive and legitimate government.
- As an economic outcome, we expect that democracies produce economic growth and development, and reduce poverty and inequality.

 As a social outcome, we expect democracy to accommodate the social diversity in a society, and provide dignity and freedom to all citizens.

Political Outcomes of Democracy

- Democracy is an Accountable, Responsive and Legitimate government:
 - Democracy ensures that decision-making is based on norms and procedures. So, a citizen has the right and the means to examine the process of decision-making. This is known as **transparency**. Democracy follows standard procedures and is accountable to the people.
 - Democratic governments have a much better record than any non-democratic regime when it comes to sharing information with citizens. Democracy is attentive to the needs and demands of the people and is largely free of corruption.
 - There is one respect in which democratic government is certainly better than its alternatives. Democratic government is a legitimate government. It may be slow, less efficient, not always very responsive or clean. But a Democratic government is people's own government.
- The reasons behind gap that occurs in conversion of expected outcomes into actual outcomes of democracy in various respects are as follows:

• Quality of government :

- (i) Weak institutions and corruption can hinder the effectiveness of democracy.
- (ii) Politicians may prioritize personal interests over the welfare of the public, leading to a lack of trust in government and dissatisfaction with democratic outcomes.

Economic well-being:

- (i) Democracy does not necessarily guarantee economic prosperity.
- (ii) Economic inequality and disparities may persist even in democratic societies, leading to poverty and limited opportunities for some segments of the population.

(iii) The global economic system may also perpetuate inequality and hinder economic development in some countries.

Inequality:

- Democracy may not address all forms of social inequality such as gender, race, ethnicity, and caste.
- (ii) Marginalized and historically disadvantaged communities may continue to face discrimination and injustice in democratic societies.
- (iii) Structural inequalities in the economic, political, and social spheres can limit access to resources and opportunities for certain groups.

Social differences and conflict:

- Democracy may exacerbate existing social divisions and tensions between different groups.
- (ii) Competition for resources and power may lead to conflicts and violence in a democratic society.
- (iii) Polarization and divisiveness in politics can make it difficult to address the roots of social differences and conflicts.

Freedom and dignity:

- (i) Democracy may not guarantee individual freedom, dignity, and human rights.
- (ii) Authoritarian tendencies, censorship, and surveillance can threaten the rights of citizens in democratic societies.
- (iii) Minority rights may also be at risk in the face of majority rule.

International factors:

- Global power dynamics and geopolitical tensions can limit the ability of democracies to achieve their expected outcomes.
- (ii) International actors may interfere in the domestic affairs of democratic countries, leading to instability and undermining democratic processes.
- (iii) Global economic trends and policies may also have an impact on democracies and their ability to provide for their citizens.

Historical legacies:

- (i) Legacy of colonialism, imperialism and slavery may linger and influence the outcomes of democracy.
- (ii) Historical injustices and trauma can affect democratic processes and outcomes.
- (iii) The heritage of authoritarianism, dictatorship, and repression can make democratization complicated.

© Key Terms

Accountable Government: The Government elected by the people and therefore responsible to them.

Responsive Government: The Government in which people have the right to know the process of Decision- making.

Legitimate Government: Legally chosen government is called a legitimate government.

Transparency: To examine the process of decision making in a democracy.

Topic-2

Economic and Social Outcomes of Democracy

Concepts Covered ● Concepts Covered ● Economic growth and development,

■ Reduction of Inequality and Poverty,
 ■ Accommodation of social diversity,

Dignity and freedom of the citizens.



Revision Notes

Economic Outcomes of Democracy Economic growth and development

- Economic development depends on several factors—country's population size, global situation, cooperation from other countries, economic priorities adopted by the country, etc.
- However, the difference in the rates of economic development between less developed countries with Dictatorships and Democracies is negligible.
- Overall, we cannot say that Democracy is a guarantee of economic development. But we can expect Democracy not to lag behind Dictatorships in economic development.

Democracy reduces economic inequality and poverty

- Democracies have growing economic inequalities. A small number of ultra-rich enjoy a lion share of wealth and those at the bottom of the society have very little to depend upon and find very difficult to meet their basic needs of life, such as food, clothing, house, education and health.
- Democratically elected governments address the question of poverty by making various welfare schemes to remove poverty.
- Democracies not only make welfare schemes but also give reservations for socially and economically backward people in jobs, elections and educational institutions.

- Social Outcomes of Democracy
- Democracy accommodates social diversity
 - Democracies usually develop a procedure to accommodate various social groups. This reduces the possibility of social tensions becoming explosive or violent.
 - No society can fully and permanently resolve conflicts among different groups. But democracy is best to handle social differences, social divisions and conflicts.
- Example of Sri Lanka reminds us that democracy must fulfil two conditions in order to achieve the accommodation of social divisions:
 - It is necessary to under-stand that Democracy is not simply ruled by the majority opinion.
 The majority always needs to work with the minority so that Governments function to represent the general view.
 - It is also necessary that rule by majority does not become rule by the majority community in terms of religion or race or linguistic group, etc. Rule by majority means rule by the majority's choice.
- Democracy promotes the dignity and freedom of the citizens
 - Democracy stands much superior to any other form of government in promoting the dignity and freedom of the individual by providing Fundamental Rights. Every individual wants to receive respect from fellow beings.
 - The passion for respect and freedom are the basis of Democracy. Democracies throughout the world have recognised this, at least in principle. This has been achieved in various degrees in various democracies.

Economic Development: It is the development of economic wealth of countries, regions or communities for the well-being of their inhabitants.

Dictatorship: A form of government in which one person or a small group possesses absolute power without any effective constitutional limitations.

Social Diversity: It is all of the ways that people within a single culture are set apart from each other. Elements of social diversity can include ethnicity, lifestyle, religion, language, tastes and preferences.

Social Divisions: When social differences amongst different communities increase and one community is discriminated because of the differences, it becomes a social division. For example, the social difference between the upper castes and lower castes becomes a social division as the dalits are generally poor and face injustice and discrimination.

- Take the case of dignity of women, most societies across the world were historically male-dominated societies.
- Long struggles by women have created some sensitivity today that respect for equal treatment of women are necessary ingredients of a democratic society.
- Democracy in India has strengthened the claims of the disadvantaged and discriminated castes for equal status and equal opportunity.

Conclusion

- A Democracy always strives towards a better goal. People constantly demand more benefits in a Democracy. There are always more expectations.
- People now look critically at the work of those who hold power. They express their dissatisfaction loudly. It shows they are no longer subjects but citizens of a Democratic country.

UNIT-IV: UNDERSTANDING ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT CHAPTER-1

DEVELOPMENT

Topic-1

National Development, Income and other Criteria to Compare Different Nations

<u>Concepts Covered</u> • National Development, • Different Goals of different people, • Income and other criteria to compare different states or nation



Revision Notes

- Development is the sum total of income plus the quality of life like equal treatment, freedom, security, respect of others, etc.
- Development is also known as progress. Its idea has always been with us.
- Everyone has his own aspirations and desires about what he would like to do and how he would like to spend his life.
- People want regular work, better wages and decent price for their crops or other products. In other words, they want more income.
- Besides seeking more income, people also want equal treatment, freedom, security and respect from others.
 They resent discrimination.
- Different people can have different developmental goals. For example, an urban unemployed youth would aspire for a good salaried job, promotions, etc., and on the other hand, a rural unemployed youth would want better job opportunities in the village, job security and dignity of labour.
- Income is the most important component of development.
- To make a comparison among various countries, their national income and per capita income is considered as a base point.
- Individuals seek different goals and thus, their notion of national development is also likely to be different.
- World Bank considers only the per capita income as an indicator of the development.
- UNDP considers health, educational levels and the per capita income of the citizens as an indicator of development.

- Countries with per capita income of US \$ 12,056 per annum and above in 2017, are called rich countries and those with per capita income of US \$ 955 or less are called low income countries.
- India falls under the category of low middle-income countries because its per capita income in 2017 was just US \$ 1820 per annum.
- The other criteria for comparing two states or countries are their Infant Mortality Rate (IMR), Literacy Rate, Net Attendance Ratio, Human Development Index, available facilities, etc.
- Income by itself is not an adequate indicator of material goods and services that the people are able to use. For example, income cannot buy a pollution-free environment.
- Kerala has a low Infant Mortality Rate and high Literacy Rate because it has adequate provisions of health care and educational facilities.

© ── Key Term

UNDP: United Nations Development programme is an institution to measure the development of different countries.

© Key Facts

- (i) India is considered as a developing country.
- (ii) The headquarter of World Bank is Situated in Washington, D.C., in the U.S.A.

Topic-2

Public Facilities and Sustainable Development

<u>Concepts Covered</u> ● Public facilities, ● Human Development Index, ● Meaning of Sustainable Development, Importance of sustainability for economic welfare.



Revision Notes

- Public facilities are the facilities that are provided to the people by the government.
- The provision of public services and facilities in the urban environment has a significant impact on the quality of life that residents and others enjoy.
- Public facilities play an essential role in providing support services to create viable, sustainable, healthy and cohesive communities, overcoming social barriers and increasing achievements.
- Money alone cannot buy all the goods and services that one may need to live well.
- Income by itself is not a completely adequate indicator of material goods and services that citizens are able to use.
- Government has to provide certain essential facilities like healthcare, sanitation, electricity, public transport and educational institutions.
- Kerala has a low Infant Mortality Rate because it has adequate provision of basic healthcare and educational facilities.
- In some states, the Public Distribution System (PDS) functions well. If a PDS shop, i.e., ration shop, does not function properly at any place, people of that place face difficulty even to get the basic meal to survive their life who cannot even afford the bread of two times at the market price. Health and nutritional status of people of such states in which PDS system functions well certainly likely to be better.
- Human Development Report published by UNDP compares countries based on the educational levels of the people, their health status and per capita income.
- Through Human Development Index (HDI), which is a composite statistic of life expectancy, education, and per capita income indicators, is used to rank countries into four tiers of human development
- Human Development Index is the quality of lifeindex prepared by UNDP. It has mainly three indicators:
 - (i) Life Expectancy at Birth: It denotes the average expected length of life of a person at the time of birth.

- (ii) Gross Enrolment Ratio: It shows enrolment ratio in primary schools, secondary schools and in higher education.
- (iii) **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:

$$HDI = \frac{LE \text{ index} + GER \text{ index} + PCI \text{ index}}{3}$$

HDI = Human Development Index

PCI = Per Capita Income

LE = Life Expectancy

GER = Gross Enrolment Ratio

- In 2021, India stands 131 in the HDI rank in the world.
- Through the democratic political process, these developmental goals of different sections of society can be achieved.
- Human Development Index published by the UNDP indicates the level of development of a country, how far it has reached and how far it is yet to reach to achieve high ranks in matters such as per capita income of the people, welfare elements such as life expectancy, literacy, educational level of people and health status.
- Sustainable economic development means development should take place without damaging the environment and development in the present should not compromise with the needs of the future generation.
- The various measures for sustainable development are :
 - Controlling over-exploitation and creating an awareness to provide sustainable development.
 - Increased use of renewable resources.
 - Less use of fossil fuels.
 - Introduction of organic farming.
 - Adopting measures to reduce global warming.
- Sustainable development is all about judicious use of resources at present, keeping in mind the future

- requirements of the coming generation *e.g.*, groundwater.
- Groundwater is overused for agriculture; since water is a renewable resource, we must help in replenishing water.
- Sustainable developmentis important for economic growth because:
 - Environment must be conserved while development is taking place.
 - Resources must be used in such a way that they are conserved for the future generations.
 - The standard of living of all people must be raised.
- Mahatma Gandhi said, 'The earth has enough resources to meet the needs of all but not enough to satisfy the greed of even one person'.

- Consequences of environmental degradation do not respect national or state boundaries.
- Sustainability of development is comparatively a new area of knowledge in which scientists, economists, philosophers and other social scientists are working together.

Infant mortality Rate: The number of infant deaths for every 1,000 live births.

Life Expectancy: A statistical measure of the average time an organism is expected to live.

© Fundamental Facts

Dictatorship: Hong kong has the highest life expectancy rate around the world.

CHAPTER-2

SECTORS OF THE INDIAN ECONOMY

Topic-1

Sectors of Economic Activities and ways to create more Employment

<u>Concepts Covered</u> • Classification of economic activities into three sectors, • Comparison of the three sectors, • Ways to generate more employment, • Objectives of implementing MGNREGA 2005.



- All activities that give an income in return are called economic activities. Example, people going to work in factories, banks, schools, etc.
- People are engaged in various economic activities of producing goods and services.
- Economic activities can be classified into three sectors:
 - Primary Sector: Goods which are produced by utilizing natural resources come under the category of primary sector.
 - Secondary Sector: Transformation of one good into another comes under the category of secondary sector. For example: transformation of sugarcane into sugar.
- Tertiary Sector: All service providers which help in the development of primary and secondary sectors come under the category of the tertiary sector. For example, doctors, teachers, lawyers, etc.
- Economic activities, though, are grouped into three different categories, are very much interdependent.

- The various production activities in primary, secondary and tertiary sectors produce a large number of goods and services and employ a large number of people.
- ▶ 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.
- More than half of the workers in the country are engaged in the primary sector, especially in agriculture.
- The sum of production in all three sectors is known as the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of a country. The contribution of agriculture in the GDP is only one–fourth whereas, the secondary and tertiary sector contributes three-fourth of the GDP.
- In the year 2013-14, the tertiary sector emerged as the largest producing sector in India replacing the primary sector.
- The tertiary sector is becoming very important in India due to several reasons:
 - The government has taken responsibility for the provision of services such as hospitals,

- educational institutions, post and telegraph services, etc.
- Agriculture and industry have developed that has ultimately resulted in the development of services.
- As income levels rise in big cities, certain sections of people start demanding many more services like eating out, tourism, shopping, private hospitals, etc.
- Over the past decade or so, certain new services such as those based on information and communication technology have become important and essential.
- Service sector in India employs many different kinds of people like highly skilled and educated workers on one side, and a very large number of workers engaged in services such as small shopkeepers, repair persons, transport persons, etc., on the other side.
- Underemployment or disguised unemployment means more people engaged in a job than needed. More employment can be created in a country like
- India by building more dams and canals to provide water to the farmers, by providing cheap credit facilities and crop insurance, by spending more money on transport and storage, technical training and by providing cheap bank loan at cheaper interests.
- A study conducted by the erstwhile Planning Commission of India (now known as NITI Aayog) estimates that nearly 20 lakh jobs can be created in the education sector alone.

- Agriculture and industry have developed that
- In our country, the Central Government made a law implementing the Right to Work in 200 districts and expanded to an additional 130 districts. It is called National Rural Employment Guarantee Act, 2005 (NREGA, 2005).
- The objectives of implementing MGNREGA 2005 were:
 - To give employment opportunities to the people who live in rural areas.
 - To raise the standard of living of the people.
 - To implement the right to work.

Service: A service is an 'act' or use for which a consumer, firm or government is willing to pay.

© Key Facts

Tertiary Sector contributes the most in the GDP of India. It accounts for 53.89% of Indian GDP by 2021.

The chairman of NITI Aayog is Prime Minister of India. Current chairman is Mr. Narendra Modi.

Topic-2

Division of Sectors in Terms of Organised & Unorganised and Public and Private sectors

Concepts Covered ● Classification of sectors in terms of organised and unorganized, Public and Private Sectors



- On the basis of the nature of economic activities, there are two types of sectors:
 - Organized Sector
 - Unorganized Sector.
- Workers in the organized sector enjoy the security of employment. They are expected to work only for a fixed number of hours.
- The unorganized sector is characterised by small and scattered units which are largely outside the control of the government. Jobs here are low-paid and often not regular.
- In the urban areas, unorganized sector comprises mainly of workers in the small-scale industry, casual workers in construction, trade and

- transport, etc. In an unorganised sector, jobs are not secure, workers are not paid a fair wage and earnings are low. Thus, there is a need to protect and support the workers.
- In our country, majority of workers from scheduled castes, tribes and backward communities are working in the unorganised sector.
- On the basis of ownership, economic activities can be classified into two sectors :
 - Public Sector
 - Private Sector.

- In the public sector, the government owns most of the assets and provides all the services, e.g., railways or post office.
- ▶ In the private sector, ownership of assets and delivery of services is in the hands of private individuals or companies, e.g., Tata Iron and Steel Company Limited (TISCO) or Reliance Industries Limited (RIL).
- There are large number of activities which are the primary responsibility of the government. The government must spend on these activities.
- ► In India, nearly half of the children are malnourished and a quarter of them are critically ill.
- Government needs to pay attention on the availability of safe drinking water, housing facilities for the poor, food and nutrition, etc.
- Running proper schools and providing quality education, particularly elementary education is the duty of the government.

CHAPTER-3 MONEY AND CREDITS



- In the early times, people used to exchange one commodity for another, depending on their requirement under the barter system. However, exchanging goods in the barter system required a double coincidence of wants.
- However, money eliminates the need for double coincidence of wants. Since money enables the exchange process, it is also called a medium of exchange.
- Money is anything which is commonly accepted as a medium of exchange and in the discharge of debts.
- 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 the use of metallic coinsgold, silver, copper coins came into existence.
- Modern currency :
 - Uses paper notes and coins made of relatively inexpensive metals.
 - Has no value of its own.
 - Has a value only because it is authorised by the government of the country.
- In India, the Reserve Bank of India is the only legal authority that can issue currency notes (except one rupee note) and coins on behalf of the central government. The rupee is India's currency and nobody can refuse to accept a payment made in rupees in India.
- People deposit their additional cash in the bank. A bank in addition to accepting deposits, also pays interest on the deposit to the depositor. Thus, bank deposits are also called demand deposits.
- A person simply needs to have an account with the bank to deposit money. A cheque can be used to

- make payment directly from a bank deposit without using cash.
- A cheque is a written instruction to a bank by an account holder to pay a specific sum to a specific person from his deposit. A cheque has all the information about the person to whom payment is to be made, the amount and date of payment and signature of account holder issuing the cheque.
- As per the Reserve Bank of India, banks hold about 15% of their deposits as cash to arrange for daily withdrawals by depositors.
- A major portion of the remaining deposits is used by banks to give loans to people. The depositors of a bank are allowed to withdraw their deposits on demand and are paid interest on their deposits. The borrowers take loans to repay it to the bank along with interest.
- The interest charged on loans is more than the interest paid by the banks on deposits. The difference between the interest charged on loans and the interest paid on deposits is the bank's income or profit.
- The loan given by a bank is also referred to as a credit.
- The idea behind Self-Help Groups is to organise the rural poor into self-help groups and collect their savings. Members can take small loans from the group itself to meet their own needs.
- A loan or credit is subject to certain conditions that the borrower must agree to. These conditions are called terms of credit and include:
 - A specified rate of interest.
 - Security against the loan to recover the money if the borrower fails to repay it. This security is called collateral.

- The assets accepted as collateral are land or property, vehicles, livestock, standing crops and bank deposits.
- A borrower needs to submit certain documents like proofs of identity, residence, employment and income to avail a loan.
- The lender reserves the right to sell the collateral in case of non-repayment to recover the loan amount.
- 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.
- The different sources of credit are:
 - Banks
 - Traders
 - Cooperative societies
 - Landlords
 - Moneylenders
 - Relatives and friends

Formal and Informal Credit

 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 the 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.

© ── Key Term

Livestock: The stock of animals with a person is called livestock.

© Fundamental Fact

- (i) As per a survey, most of the informal sources of credit are used by rural people and they take loan for unproductive purposes like marriage.
- (ii) A cheque can be dishonoured by a bank but it cannot dishonour bank draft.

CHAPTER-4

GLOBALISATION AND THE INDIAN ECONOMICS



Revision Notes

Globalization and Significance Role of G20

- Globalisation means integrating or interconnecting the economy of a country with the economies of other countries under conditions of free flow of trade, services, technology, capital and movement of people across international borders.
- Globalisation is this process of rapid integration or interconnection between countries. MNCs are playing a major role in the globalisation process.
- More and more goods and services, investments and technology are moving between countries.

Factors That Enabled Globalization

- (i) Technology: Rapid improvement in information and communication technology has been a 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.
- (ii) Liberalisation: Liberalisation of economy means to free it from direct or physical controls imposed by the government. In other words, removing

barriers or restrictions set by the government is what is known as liberalisation.

Impact of globalisation on the country is manifold: 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.

Globalisation and liberalisation have posed major challenges for small producers and workers.

The government can take steps to ensure that the benefits of globalisation reach everyone:

- Formulate labour laws that are effective and watertight to ensure the rights of workers.
- Have policies to protect the interests of the small producers against the MNCs.

- Trade barriers to protect the domestic economy from foreign trade and unfair competition from developed countries.
- Align with other developing countries to negotiate with WTO to impose trade restrictions like imposition of tariff and quotas.

Factors that supported globalisation in India are as follows:

- Reduction of trade barriers with a view to allowing free flow of goods to and from other countries.
- Involvement of various local producers with MNCs in various ways.
- Some of the large Indian companies like Tata Motors, Infosys (IT), Ranbaxy, Asian Paints, etc. emerged as MNCs and started working globally.

► The Role of G20

- G20 is an intergovernmental forum which is a grouping of 19 countries and the European Union that came into existence in the year 1999.
- The member nations of the G20 are Argentina, Australia, Brazil, Canada, China, France, Germany, India, Indonesia, Italy, Japan, Mexico, South Korea, Russia, Saudi Arabia, South Africa, Turkey, United Kingdom, United States, and European Union.
- The major issues addressed by the G20 are related to the global economy. It works tirelessly for maintaining and improving the financial stability in the world.
- G20 has been playing an active role in the area of mitigating the risks that have been generated due to climate change in the world.
- The grouping has been an advocate of the idea of sustainable development whose aim is to secure development without compromising the needs of future generations.
- G20 is one of the most powerful economic blocs of the world and contributes around 80% of the Gross World Product (GWP).
- Two-third of the global population of the world are the inhabitants of the G20 Member nations.
- The nations of the G20 cover more than 60% of the total land area of the world.

 Since the year 2008 when the global financial crisis hits the world, G20 has been carrying out regular summits between Finance Ministers and the Central Bank Governors of its members. This is done to ensure the prudent working of the global financial system.

India's G20 Presidency

 The chairmanship of the grouping keeps on rotating among its members. For the year

2023, India is the chair of the G20 and it has taken the chairmanship from Indonesia. Prime Minister



Narendra Modi is the chairman of the G20

and will lead this year's summit.

- The *G20 Logo* draws inspiration from the vibrant colours of India's national flag saffron, white and green, and blue. It juxtaposes planet Earth with the lotus, India's national flower that reflects growth amid challenges. The Earth reflects India's pro-
- "Bharat", written in the Devanagari script.

 All the Heads of the State of G20 member nations are scheduled to meet in New Delhi in September 2023.

planet approach to life, one in perfect harmony with nature. Below the G20 logo is

- The theme of the India's G20 summit "Vasudeva Kutumbakam" or is "One Earth, One Family, One Future."
- Essentially the them affirms the values all life-human, animals, plants, microorganisms and their interconnectedness on the planet earth and in the wider universe.
- India has been leading this year's G20 summit and is strengthening its cultural ethos of 'Vasudeva Kutumbakam' meaning "World is One Family."

► Significance of India's G20 Presidency

- G20 is the premier forum for international economic cooperation representing around 85% of the global GDP, over 75% of the global trade, and about two-thirds of the world population.
- During the course of its G20 Presidency, India will host about 200 meetings in 32 different sectors in multiple locations across India.
- The G20 Leaders' Summit at the level of Heads of State/Government is scheduled to be held on September 9 and 10, 2023 in New Delhi.
- According to Prime Minister Modi, this term can be an opportunity for India to share its expertise with the world in areas of women

- empowerment, democracy and digital technologies.
- As a country with core democratic values, India can show the world that the scope of conflict can come to an end when democracy becomes a culture. This gains significance amidst the ongoing Russia-Ukraine conflict.
- India's foreign policy is focusing on the 'global common good'. Through its G20 leadership, India hopes to extend this principle towards finding sustainable solutions to some of the key global challenges emerging out of the interconnectedness of the world, such as climate change, new and emerging technologies, food and energy security, etc.
- During India's Presidency, Indonesia and Brazil along with India would form the G20 Troika.
 - This would be the first time when the Troika would consist of three developing countries and emerging economies.
 - It is hoped that as a result there would be a shift in the balance of power within the G20 favouring emerging economies to have a greater share in decision-making at this grouping.
- The G-20 Presidency presents a great opportunity for India to correct the longstanding anomalies that go against developing countries, especially in the domain of agriculture and food subsidies.

Green Development, Climate Finance & LiFE

- The opportunity to lead G20 comes at a time of compounding existential threat, with the COVID-19 pandemic having exposed the fragilities of our systems under the cascading impacts of climate change. In this regard, climate change is a key priority for India's presidential Presidency, with a particular focus towards not only climate finance and technology, but also ensuring just energy transitions for developing nations across the world.
- Understanding that the issue of climate change cuts across industry, society, and sectors, India offers the world LiFE. This ties closely with India's G20 theme: 'Vasudhaiva Kutumbakam' or 'One Earth. One Family. One Future.

Accelerated, Inclusive & Resilient Growth

• An accelerated, resilient and inclusive growth is a cornerstone for sustainable development. During its G20 Presidency, India aims to focus on areas that have the potential to bring structural transformation. This includes an ambition to accelerate integration of MSMEs in global trade, bring in the spirit of trade for growth, promote labour rights and secure labour welfare, address global skills gap, and build inclusive agricultural value chains and food systems etc.

Accelerating progress on SDGs

 India's G20 Presidency collides with the crucial midpoint of the 2030 Agenda. As such, India acknowledges the detrimental impact of COVID-19, which changed the current decade of action into a decade of recovery. In line with this perspective, India wants to focus on recommitting G20's efforts to achieving the targets laid out in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development

► Technological Transformation & Digital Public Infrastructure

As G20 Presidency, India can foreground its belief in a human-centric approach to technology, and facilitate greater knowledge-sharing in priority areas like digital public infrastructure, financial inclusion, and techenabled development in sectors ranging from agriculture to education.

► Multilateral Institutions for the 21st century

 India's G20 priority will be to continue pressing for reformed multilateralism that creates more accountable, inclusive just, equitable and representative multipolar international system that is fit for addressing the challenges in the 21st century.

Women-led development

- India hopes to use the G20 forum to highlight inclusive growth and development, with women empowerment and representation being at the core of India's G20 deliberations. This includes a focus on bringing women to the fore, and in leading positions, in order to boost socio-economic development and achievement of SDGs.
- India kick-started its presidency term agenda with a series of cultural initiatives that included various Jan Bhagidari activities, a special University Connect event with 75 educational institutions from across the country, the lighting up of 100 ASI monuments with the G20 logo and colours, and showcasing G20 at the Hombill festival in Nagaland. Sand artist Shri Sudarshan Pattnaik also created sand art of India's G20 logo on Puri beach in Odisha. Various other events, youth activities, cultural performances, and site excursions showcasing the sights and traditions of respective city-venues, are also planned throughout the year-long calendar.

© Key Terms

MNCs: Multinational companies are those companies that are operating in many countries and have huge capital to Invest.

Liberalisation: Removal of unnecessary restrictions from the business firms.

LiFE: (Lifestyle For Environment) -a behaviour- based movement that draws from our nation's rich, ancient sustainable traditions to nudge consumers, and in-turn markets, to adopt environmentally-conscious practices.