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# A TEXTBOOK OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

## Class IX

*Edited by*

I.L. Wanchoo

Arun Kumar



**GOYAL BROTHERS PRAKASHAN**

**E D U C A T I O N A L P U B L I S H E R S**

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Post Box : 5720, Phones : 43551877, 43561877

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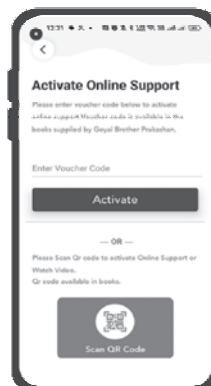
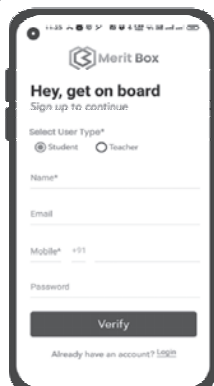
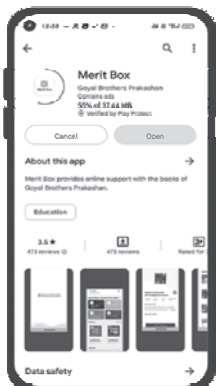
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# PREFACE

A **Textbook of Social Sciences for Class IX** is a thoroughly revised & updated Edition. This book is in strict accordance with the latest **Rationalised** syllabus of the **Nagaland Board of School Education**, Kohima.

## Salient Features of this series :

- Strictly based on the latest syllabus of Nagaland Board of School Education for Class 9.
- The content has been remodelled strictly according to instructions issued by NBSE vide the letter No.NBE-3/Ad-Tb (10)/2023-24/2404 dated 7<sup>th</sup> August 2023.
- **Latest varieties of competency Based Questions including Assertion-Reason, statement based logical questions, picture study based questions, case-study based questions have been included.**
- These questions shall promote and encourage creative and critical thinking, decision making, and problem solving skills of the students.
- **Simple and lucid language** has been used throughout to make the contents learner friendly and easy to grasp.
- A **Timeline** is given at the end of each chapter (in History Section), to help the students grasp when major events occurred and their place in history.
- **Points to Remember** is a short summary of the chapter for its quick recapitulation.
- **Important Terms** have been explained.
- The **Exercises** are based on the **Nagaland Board of School Education examination pattern** and cover the whole chapter **comprehensively**.
- **Accurate maps, figures and pictures**, latest data and facts help in comprehension and arouse interest in the events described.
- Some interesting information has been provided in each lesson as **Fact File** or box matter.
- Topic wise QR Codes provided in each chapter to facilitate easy access to various topics.

The book has 4 units. **Unit I** deals with **India and the World**, **Unit II** with **Topography of India**, **Unit III** with **Democratic Politics** and the last **Unit IV** with **Understanding an Economy**.

The book is a sincere attempt to make Social Sciences an interesting, learner friendly subject which is easy to grasp.

Any suggestions to improve the book will be gratefully accepted.

— **Authors**

# SYLLABUS

## Introduction

Social Sciences is a compulsory subject upto secondary stage of school education. It is an integral component of general education because it helps the learners in understanding the environment in its totality and developing a broader perspective and an empirical, reasonable and humane outlook. This is of crucial importance because it helps them grow into well-informed and responsible citizens with necessary attributes and skills for being able to participate in and contribute effectively to the process of development and nation-building.

The social sciences curriculum draws its content mainly from geography, history, political science and economics. Some elements of sociology and commerce are also included. Together they provide a comprehensive view of society — over space and time, and in relation to each other. Each subject's distinct methods of enquiry help the learners to study society from different angles and form a holistic view.

## Objectives

**The main objectives of this syllabus are :**

- to develop an understanding of the processes of change and development — both in terms of time and space, through which human societies have evolved.
- to deepen knowledge about an understanding of India's freedom struggle and of the values and ideals that it represented, and to develop an appreciation of the contributions made by people of all sections and regions of the country.
- to help learners understand and cherish the values enshrined in the Indian Constitution and to prepare them for their roles and responsibilities as effective citizens of a democratic society.
- to deepen the knowledge and understanding of India's environment in its totality, their interactive processes and effects on the future quality of life of the people.
- to develop an appreciation of the richness and variety of India's heritage — both natural and cultural and the need for its preservation.
- to promote an understanding of the issues and challenges of contemporary India — environmental, economic and social, and part of the development process.
- to help pupils acquire knowledge, skills and understanding to face the challenges of contemporary society as individuals and groups and learn the art of living a confident and stress-free life as well as participating effectively in the community.
- to develop scientific temper by promoting the spirit of enquiry and following a rational and objective approach in analysing and evaluating information, views and interpretations.
- to develop academic and social skills such as critical thinking, communicating effectively both in visual and verbal forms, cooperating with others, taking initiatives and providing leadership in solving others' problems.
- to develop qualities clustered around the personal, social, moral, national and spiritual values that make a person humane and socially effective.

| PART – A            |                                                                        |                       |               |
|---------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------|---------------|
| Units               |                                                                        | Full Marks :<br>Marks | 80<br>Periods |
| Unit–I              | India and the World                                                    | 18                    | 44            |
| Unit–II             | Topography of India                                                    | 18                    | 44            |
| Unit–III            | Democratic Politics                                                    | 18                    | 42            |
| Unit–IV             | Understanding an Economy                                               | 16                    | 35            |
| Unit-V              | Nagaland (History and Personalities of Nagaland — a separate textbook) | 10                    | 15            |
|                     |                                                                        | <b>80</b>             | <b>180</b>    |
| PART – B            |                                                                        |                       |               |
| Internal Assessment |                                                                        | Full Marks :          | 20            |

### PART – A

#### Unit – I : India and the World

**18 Marks (44 Periods)**

**French Revolution :** The *Ancien Regime* and its crisis, the social forces that led to the revolution, the different revolutionary groups and ideas of the time, the legacy.

**Russian Revolution :** The crisis of Tzarism, the nature of social movements between 1905 and 1917, the First World War and foundation of Soviet State, the legacy.

**Rise of Nazism :** The growth of social democracy, the crisis in Germany, the basis of Hitler's rise to power, the ideology of Nazism, the impact of Nazism.

**Indian National Movement :** Indian National Congress — rise of extremism, Boycott and Swadeshi Movements, Muslim League, Revolutionary Movements, emergence of Gandhi.

#### Unit – II : Topography of India

**18 Marks (44 Periods)**

**India :** Location, relief, structure, major physiographic units.

**Climate :** Factors influencing the climate, monsoon — seasons.

**Drainage :** Major rivers and tributaries, seas, role of rivers in the economy.

**Natural Vegetation :** Vegetation types, need for conservation and various measures.

**Wildlife** : Major species, need for conservation and various measures.

**Map Reading (including drawing and insertion)** : Kinds of maps, classification of maps on the basis of Scale and Themes.

### **Unit – III : Democratic Politics**

**18 Marks (42 Periods)**

**Democracy** : Meaning, types, alternatives to democracy

**Democracy in India** : Framing of Indian Constitution, salient features of the Constitution, designing and redesigning of Indian Constitution.

**Electoral Politics** : Election of representatives, importance of citizen's participation in electoral politics, measures to ensure free and fair elections.

**Institution of Parliamentary Democracy** : Parliament, its role in democracy.

**Citizens' Rights in a Democracy** : Fundamental Rights, Relationship of Fundamental Rights and Judiciary, Independence of Judiciary.

### **Unit – IV : Understanding an Economy**

**16 Marks (35 Periods)**

**Economics** : Its meaning, types of economy, features of Indian economy, public sector, private sector, joint sector.

**Population** : Size, distribution, population change — migration as a determinant of population change, occupational structure and National Population Policy : adolescents as under-served population group with special needs.

**Poverty** : Meaning, causes of poverty, poverty alleviation programmes, food security, source of foodgrains.

**People as Resource** : Introduction of how people become resource/asset, quality of human resource, role of health and education, unemployment — types of unemployment, unemployment as a form of non-utilisation of human resource, strategies to combat unemployment.

### **Unit – V : Nagaland : History and Personalities**      **10 Marks (15 Periods)**

#### **PART – B**

#### **Internal Assessment**

|                  |          |
|------------------|----------|
| ● Activities     | 10 Marks |
| ● Assignment     | 5 Marks  |
| ● Formal testing | 5 Marks  |

**20 Marks**

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## UNIT - I

# INDIA AND THE WORLD

Marks : 18

Periods : 44

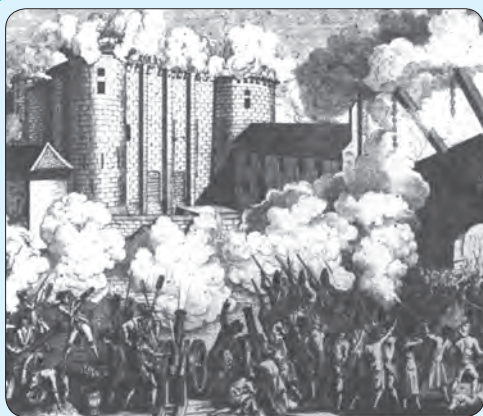
# CHAPTER 1

## French Revolution

Some Revolutions shake the very foundations of a society, country, and even the world.

Such a great Revolution was the French Revolution. It has been a landmark in European History and shook the foundations of Medieval Europe. Its principles of liberty, equality and fraternity influenced all important events which occurred in Europe in the nineteenth century.

Most of the historians have fixed the date of Revolution as 14th July 1789, when the Bastille was demolished.



*Storming of the Bastille*

It began in 1789 and lasted till 1799. The original aim of the people of France was to create a constitutional monarchy and reform the social, economic and political structure of the country. But

it later developed into a full scale movement to overthrow the monarchy and turn France into a republic.

### FRANCE BEFORE THE REVOLUTION (THE ANCIEN REGIME : ITS CRISIS)



#### (a) Absolute Monarchy

The seeds of the revolution lay in the way the French society was organised and the way it was ruled. The term 'ancien regime' is usually used to describe the society and institutions of France before 1789. The society of estates was part of the feudal system that dated back to the middle ages. Since 1589, the Bourbon dynasty ruled France and the kings were absolute monarchs. In the 13th century France established a Parliament comprising the clergy, nobles and the common man, but the kings had stopped consulting it since 1614. The Parliament was called the Estates General. The French kings believed in the Divine Right Theory. They thought that they were only responsible to God for the way they ruled. If they so desired, only then they had to consult the Parliament, otherwise they were free to do as they wished. King Louis XIV taxed the people heavily without

consulting the Estates General, and the common people in France suffered great hardships. The kings (Louis XIV and XV) were Catholics and they persecuted other religious groups.

### (b) No Able Ministers

The kings of France earlier had able ministers like Cardinal Richelieu, Mazarin and Colbert, but towards the end of the 18th century, the French monarchs did not have any able minister to guide them.

### (c) Social Background

French society was divided into three Estates.

#### (i) The First Estate (The Clergy)

: The higher clergy who ruled the Church in France held about one fifth of the total land. It was called the First Estate. It was constituted by archbishops, bishops and the abbots who governed the Church of France. They exercised great influence over the government. They were exempted from paying any taxes and they supported absolute monarchy. The church collected **tithe** (one tenth) from the people for the support of the Church. The Church also maintained institutions of learning. The higher clergy lived a life of luxury.

#### (ii) The Second Estate (The Nobles):

There were about 80,000 families in France who belonged to the nobility.

They enjoyed the maximum privileges, did not pay any taxes, held the highest positions of power in the French administration and collected income from peasants. Most of the nobles were absentee landlords. They lived a life of luxury, had the freedom to hunt wherever they liked, and crushed the peasants to live an idle life. They imposed fines on any peasant they found guilty of a crime. In trials, the nobles acted as judges, prosecutors and jury.

#### (iii) The Third Estate (The Common People):

The majority of the French population belonged to the Third Estate, called plebians. They were the middle class, the peasants and the workers. The educated



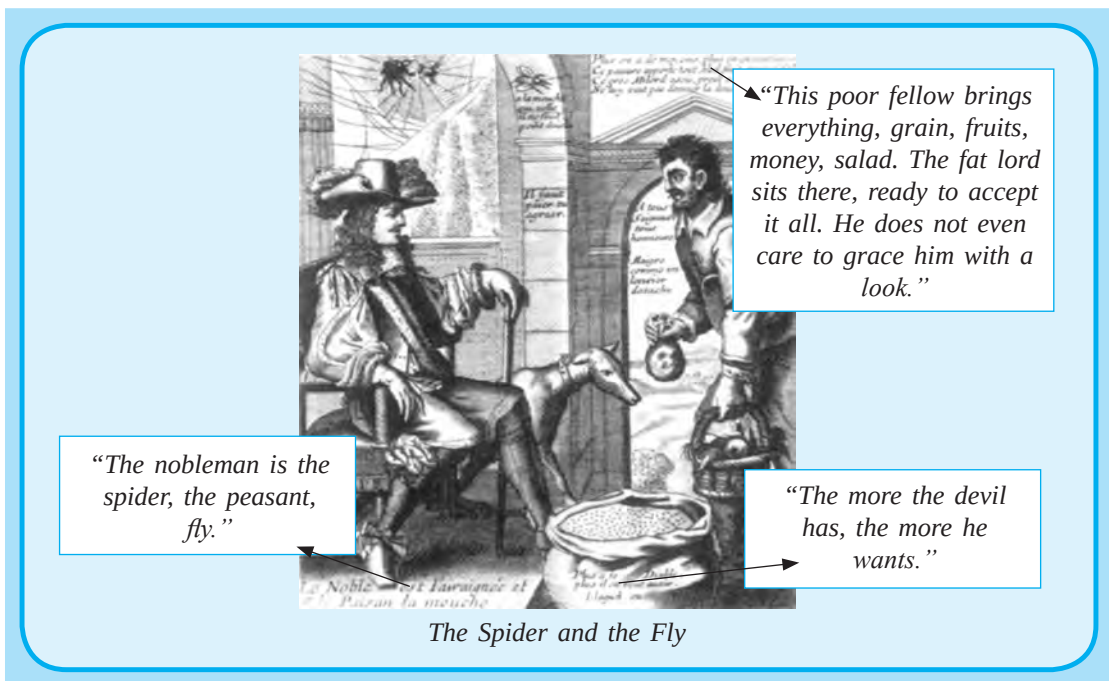
*The peasant carried (by various taxes) the burden of maintaining both the feudal lords and the already rich Church. This cartoon of 1789 was captioned 'One hopes this will end soon.'*

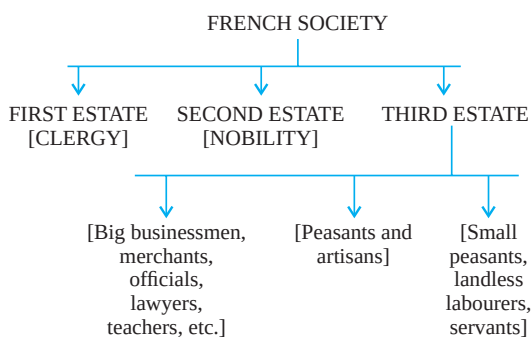
middle class (the bourgeoisie) consisted of doctors, lawyers, teachers, industrialists, merchants and others. It was very conscious of the disparities and inequalities in the social order. (This has been explained on the next page). The Third Estate paid about 50% of their income by way of taxes. They resented the unfair and oppressive taxes forced on them by the kings. The government did not care for their welfare. It is from this middle class that the main push for the revolution came.

The peasants and the artisans could hardly survive after paying taxes to the landlords, the church and the state. Apart from paying **tithes** to the church, the peasants and other members of the Third

Estate had to pay other taxes too. These included a direct tax, called **taille** and many indirect taxes which were levied on articles of daily use, salt, tobacco, etc. The burden of financing activities of the state through taxes was borne by the Third Estate alone.

Peasants made up about 80 per cent of the population, but only a small number of them owned the land they cultivated. About 60 per cent of the land was owned by nobles, the church and richer members of the Third Estate. The first two estates, that is, the clergy and the nobility, were exempted from paying taxes. The peasants were made to pay feudal dues, to work in a noble's house and fields, to serve in the army and to do several unpaid jobs.





## CAUSES OF THE REVOLUTION

In 1774 Louis XVI of the Bourbon family of kings ascended the throne of France at the age of 20. He was married to the Austrian princess Marie Antoinette. The new king found an empty treasury. Long years of war had drained the financial resources of France. Under Louis XVI, France helped the thirteen American colonies to gain their independence from Britain. The war added more than a billion *livres* to a debt that had already risen to more than 2 billion *livres*. Lenders who gave the state credit, now began to charge 10 per cent interest on loans. So the French government was obliged to spend an increasing percentage of its budget on interest payments alone. To meet its regular expenses, such as the cost of maintaining an army, the court, running government offices or universities, the state was forced to increase taxes. Yet even this measure would not have sufficed. French society in the eighteenth century was divided into three Estates, and only members of the Third Estate paid taxes.

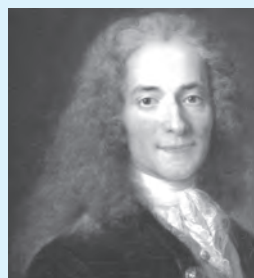


## Intellectual Awakening

The ideas to govern the world always come from philosophers. Great philosophers like Voltaire, Montesquieu and above all Rousseau paved the way for the Revolution.

### (a) Voltaire (1694-1778)

He became famous as a great writer and critic. In his brilliant satirical style, through his plays and writings, he launched bitter attacks against the church and the state. He made fun of the nobles and the way they behaved and governed, and was against absolute monarchy.



Voltaire (1694-1778)

As an essay writer Voltaire defended **freedom of speech** and **religious tolerance**. Macaulay, an English writer, wrote : “Of all the intellectual weapons ever wielded by man, the mockery of Voltaire was the most terrible.”

“In general, the art of government consists in taking as much money as possible from one class of citizens to give help to the other.”

**From :** ‘Philosophical Dictionary’

Through mockery Voltaire exposed the evils present in the social, political and religious lives of the French people.

Voltaire's best known work is a satirical novel *Candide* (1759), in which his young and innocent hero, Candide, suffers and experiences a long series of misfortunes inflicted on him by society, Church and the nobles. At the end of the story Voltaire wrote, "If this is the best of possible worlds, what then are the others!"

It was said later about Voltaire, "One man dared to speak out for the rights of an oppressed people..... He educated masses to think and act..... This man, a hundred years ahead of his time, was Voltaire.... the great humanitarian of the 18th century" (From the introductory title of a film on Voltaire.

#### (b) Montesquieu (1689-1755)

Another great philosopher, he supported constitutional monarchy in France like the English one. He wanted power to be shared between the king, the nobles and the Third Estate. To prevent any one of the three classes from becoming too powerful, Montesquieu suggested the making of a new constitution based on checks and balances. In his book *The Spirit of the Laws*, he propagated the theory of separating powers into three branches of government — the Legislative, the Executive and the Judiciary.

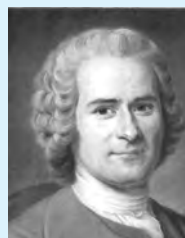


Montesquieu (1689-1755)

If this was done, he argued, there would be no tyranny and the liberty of the individual could be made safe.

#### (c) Jean Jacques Rousseau (1712-1778)

He was probably the greatest philosopher of the age. In his famous book *Social Contract*, he explained that the king and his subjects are parties to a contract, and therefore, if the king does not rule the people according to their general will, he loses their loyalty.



Jean Jacques Rousseau (1712-1778)

The people have every right to overthrow the monarchy under such circumstances. Rousseau advocated **Popular Sovereignty Theory**. It was Rousseau who said, "Man is born free, but everywhere he is in chains."

Napoleon declared that if Rousseau had never lived there would have been no Revolution in France. It is true that

without Rousseau, the Revolution would have followed a different course.

True sovereignty, according to Rousseau, was not simply the will of those in power but rather the general will. He emphasised equality and freedom of the citizens. The sovereign must **secure** freedom and equality of citizens.

Rousseau preached a novel and powerful social gospel to the people who were oppressed and inexperienced.

### Social Contract — 1762

In his immortal work *Social Contract* Rousseau proclaimed that all governments rest upon the consent of the governed. He advocated direct democracy instead of representative democracy. The heart of the idea of social contract is that : Each of us places his person and authority under the supreme direction of the general will, and the group receives each individual as an indivisible part of the whole.

The ideas of these philosophers were discussed intensively in salons and coffee-houses and spread among people through books and newspapers. These were often read aloud in groups for the benefit of those who could not read and write.

### The American Revolution (1775-1783)

The revolt of the English colonies in North America also served as an inspiration. The French had helped the American colonies against England; as they desired to take revenge against

England for taking Canada from them. This later recoiled on the French government :

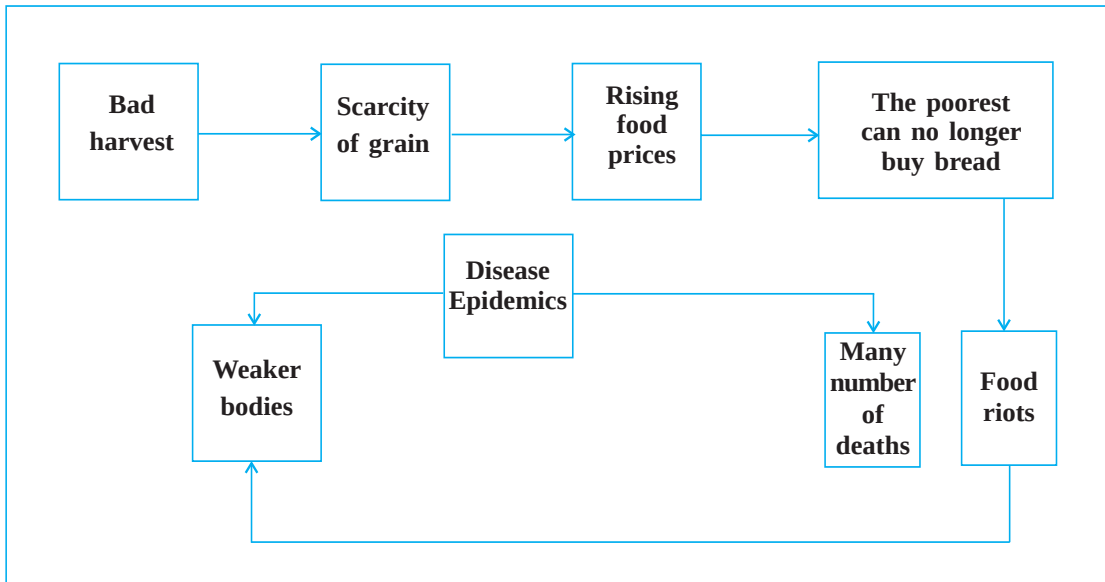
- (i) First, it cost the French great financial loss from which they did not recover till the Revolution.
- (ii) The success of the American rebels served as an incentive to the revolutionary theory in France.

### Economic Factors

The French system of taxation was both unjust and unfair and put a heavy burden on the common people, the only class who paid taxes. The common people, in addition to the royal taxes, had to pay taxes to the church also. **A tax on salt** was also levied, much to the distress of the common people. The kings indulged in wars with other European countries for their own glory. This put a heavy burden on the common people.

The population of France rose from about 23 million in 1715 to 28 million in 1789. This led to a rapid increase in the demand for foodgrains but the production of grains could not keep pace with the demand. So the price of foodgrains rose manifold. Most workers were employed as labourers in workshops but their wages did not keep pace with the rise in prices. So the gap between the poor and the rich widened. Things became worse whenever a drought or hail reduced the harvest. This led to a **subsistence crisis**, which occurred often in France during the Old Regime.

## The Course of a subsistence crisis



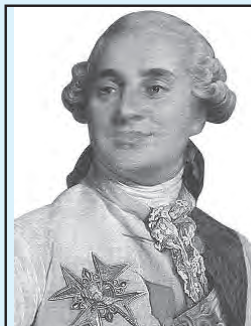
### The Role of the Middle Class

Peasants and workers had often taken part in revolts against taxes and food scarcity but they lacked means, programmes and the vision to carry out a full-scale revolution. The 18th century saw the emergence of the middle class who had earned wealth through inland and overseas trade and manufacture of goods. Apart from merchants and manufacturers, the Third Estate included professions such as lawyers, teachers, authors, and administrative officials. All of these people were educated and possessed material means. The middle class believed that no group in society should be privileged by birth; rather one's social position must depend on merit. No doubt, the Revolution was spearheaded by the middle class.

### The Role of the King

(i) Towards the end of the 18th century, France's financial condition had become desperate. Louis XV, who ruled France from 1715 to 1774, emptied the treasury by his extravagant living and poor governance. (ii) Louis XV was indolent and a pleasure loving king. He had once declared, "After me, the Deluge!" (iii) His weak and indecisive son, Louis XVI, proved this remark to be true. Louis XVI was well meaning, but his indecisiveness had put him under the power of his beautiful but frivolous Austrian queen, Marie Antoinette (1755-1793). (iv) He also could not control his greedy, self-serving courtiers. (v) The kind but ineffectual king tried to cope with his troubles. He tried to raise money by raising taxes from the first and the second estates,

but the nobility resisted his efforts with full force. The Third Estate was already taxed to its limits.



*Louis XVI*

(vi) France was hit by famine at this time. There was widespread hunger and unemployment in the countryside which led to riots in the cities. (vii) At this stage Louis XVI gave up and called a meeting of the Estates General, the National Assembly, which had not met since 1614. He did not know that it would be the beginning of the end of his reign, his dynasty and a system of government that had dominated the western world for almost a thousand years!

## BEGINNING OF THE REVOLUTION, 1789



The French Revolution of 1789 went through various stages. It had different aims for different groups.

- (i) The peasants wanted an end to feudalism and the cruel taxes.
- (ii) The liberals (the middle class of

France) wanted a new constitution which gave equality and freedom to all.

- (iii) There were the extremists who wanted a republic in France and an end to the monarchy.

## THE COURSE OF THE REVOLUTION



### First Stage, 1789

On May 5, 1789, more than 1100 delegates to the reconstituted Estates General attended the session. The delegates were from all the three estates. It had 600 representatives elected by the common people. Though the session was called to discuss the financial crisis, the Third Estate hoped to be heard and air their grievances.

- Voting in the Estates General in the past had been conducted according to the principle that each estate had one vote. But, this time, members of the Third Estate demanded that voting be conducted by the assembly as a whole, where each member would have one vote. When the king rejected this proposal, members of the Third Estate walked out of the assembly in protest.
- The rejection of their demand by the king led to the withdrawal of the Third Estate from the assembly. Some lower rank clergy and some nobles joined them in their quarrel with the king. The representatives of the Third Estate met at the royal



*The National Assembly taking the Tennis Court Oath (sketch by Jacques-Louis David).*

tennis court in Versailles and took an oath on June 20 (Tennis Court Oath). They took a pledge that they would not return home or disband until a new constitution was drafted and written. They were led by Mirabeau and Abbe Sieyes. The new constitution was to limit the powers of the king. They called themselves the National Assembly. Louis XVI was forced to give in and agreed to set up a single-chamber National Assembly.

### Second Stage : The First Step in a Violent Revolution

- Though Louis XVI gave in to the demands of the third estate and was forced to recognise the National Assembly as a successor to the Estates General, he at the same time ordered his troops to move near Paris. The king's action made the people fear that the king would dissolve the National Assembly and

thus destroy all chances for them to have a voice in the government.

### Third Stage : Storming of the Bastille – 14 July 1789

There was a state of confusion and anarchy in the city of Paris in the first two weeks of July, 1789. Protests against the high price of bread were held almost everyday. Rumours spread on 14 July that the king had ordered troops to move into the city, to fire at unruly citizens. Some 7,000 men and women gathered in front of the town hall and decided to form a people's militia. They broke into a number of government buildings in search of arms. A group of several hundred people stormed the fortress-prison, the **Bastille** to find hoarded arms and ammunition. An armed fight followed between the prison guards and the people. The commander of the Bastille was killed and all the seven prisoners were set free. The Bastille was hated by all as it stood for despotism. The fortress was demolished and its stone

fragments were sold in the markets to people as a souvenir of its destruction.

To this day France celebrates Bastille Day on 14th July, just as the Americans celebrate Independence Day on 4th July.

### FACT FILE

*Arthur Young, an eyewitness to the riots of July 1789, wrote in his book, Travels in France (1792) :*

*"The whole country is in the greatest agitation. Many chateaux have been burned and others plundered. The lords hunted down like beasts. Their feudal documents burned. Their property destroyed."*

- The fall of Bastille brought the masses to the forefront. Throughout France the peasants became impatient. They took part in violent acts, burnt chateaux and palaces of their feudal lords. Revolutionaries in Paris founded a new city government in Paris called the Commune. The revolution spread quickly throughout France and aristocrats began to flee from the country.

## Fourth Stage : The Revolution from August 1789 to September 1791

When the king summoned troops to frighten the Paris mob, it led to further escalation of mob fury. Hungry women of Paris, infuriated by the price and scarcity of bread, **marched on Versailles**. The mob consisted of fisherwomen, market women, bourgeois housewives, and was followed by the working people of Paris. Lafayette and the National Guard followed it. The demonstrators killed the

royal guards; the palace was ransacked. The mob forced the king and queen to give in to all their demands. The king, the queen and their children were forced to leave Versailles and go with the mob to Paris. The royal family never returned to Versailles after this and lived in Paris almost as prisoners.

- **4th August, 1789.** Frightened by the peasant's revolt, the nobles gave in to their demands.



A cartoon published in 1789. The members of the three estates are working together to hammer out a new way of life and a government for France.

### FACT FILE

One of the many pamphlets carried to the Estates General in 1789 said :

*"O rich citizens — What do you see in our villages? A few weakened men, faces withered by poverty and shame. All the peasants in our neighbourhood Brittany — all making ready to refuse the church tax gatherers and state that nothing will be eaten without bloodshed."*

- The assembly passed a law which abolished all feudal privileges — (i) feudal dues, (ii) payments still to be paid by the tenants, (iii) peasants' labour obligations, (iv) hunting preserves, (v) manorial courts and other claims which turned the peasants into serfs. They agreed to pay taxes like other citizens.

They gave up their exclusive rights to high posts in the military, church and the state. There was complete collapse of the aristocracy on this wild night of August 4, 1789. One of the members exclaimed, "Everyone is mad!" This was the end of the "*Ancient Regime*" (the old order) and it disappeared completely.

After a long debate, the Assembly issued the Declaration of the Rights of

Man (12-27 August 1789) :

In late 1789, the French Catholic Church also received a severe jolt.

- (i) The National Assembly decided to confiscate the immense wealth of the Church to pay off the huge debt which had brought France to financial ruin.
- (ii) The clergy, the Bishops and others, were paid a salary by the state like civil servants by a law passed in 1790. This law was called the **Civil Constitution of the Clergy**.
- (iii) The clerics were made to take an oath of allegiance to the government.

- **The New Constitution of 1791** gave a final blow to absolute monarchy and changed the



*Revolutionary troops and the mob of Paris attack the Bastille. The fall of this ancient fortress-prison signifies the end of royal power.*

### **The Declaration of Rights of Man and Citizen**

1. Men are born and remain free and equal in rights.
2. The aim of every political association is the preservation of the natural and inalienable rights of man; these are liberty, property, security and resistance to oppression.
3. The source of all sovereignty resides in the nation; no group or individual may exercise authority that does not come from the people.
4. Liberty consists of the power to do whatever is not injurious to others.
5. The law has the right to forbid only actions that are injurious to society.
6. Law is the expression of the general will. All citizens have the right to participate in its formation, personally

government into a constitutional monarchy.

- Under the new Constitution the laws were to be made by a legislative assembly elected by tax-paying, property owning males.

The king was not happy but he gave his consent to abide by the laws of the new Constitution.

### **Fifth Stage : Wars and the Reign of Terror**

#### **A. Wars**

During the night of 20-21 June, 1791, King Louis and his family, in

or through their representatives. All citizens are equal before it.

7. No man may be accused, arrested or detained, except in cases determined by the law.
8. Every citizen may speak, write and print freely; he must take responsibility for the abuse of such liberty in cases determined by the law.
9. For the maintenance of the public force and for the expenses of administration a common tax is indispensable; it must be assessed equally on all citizens in proportion to their means.
10. Since property is a sacred and inviolable right, no one may be deprived of it unless a legally established public necessity requires it. In that case a just compensation must be given in advance.

disguise, left the Tuilleries Palace in Paris and fled towards the Austrian border. Unfortunately for Louis, he was recognised at Varennes and the mob captured him on June 22. He was brought back to Paris (25 June). He was asked to take an oath of loyalty to the new Constitution and approve it.

At this moment there were three main groups in the National Assembly.

(i) The Girondins : The largest group who wanted war against all despots.

(ii) The Jacobins : They were the most ruthless group who did not want war and considered it a threat to the revolution.

(iii) The Feuillants : They wanted war because, like the King, they expected the French to lose and restore monarchy again.

The other autocratic rulers of Europe were shocked by the treatment given to King Louis and his queen. King

Leopold-II invited the rulers of Russia, Prussia, England and Spain to join him in re-establishing the monarchy in France. He got response from the King of Prussia only. A war began in 1792. At first the poorly prepared French were routed, but soon thousands of volunteers



*The king and his family being brought back to Paris : the cartoonist wanted to show them as farm animals being brought back to market for slaughter.*

came forward to fight in a wave of national patriotism. At the same time the Paris mob decided to take drastic action against King Louis XVI.

On 16th August 1792, a Paris mob, inspired by Danton, stormed the Palace of Tuilleries and the royal family was sent to prison. On 2nd and 3rd September hundreds of men and women were ruthlessly massacred on the streets of Paris. They were suspected of having



*Execution of Louis XVI*



*During the upheavals of the French Revolution, thousands of persons were put to death on the guillotine, a beheading device invented in 1792.*

sympathies for the king and the nobility. In January 1793 the King was tried and found guilty of treason. His immediate death was voted by a small majority. On Sunday, January 21, 1793 the king was publicly guillotined. Before dying, the king tried to speak :



*Reign of Terror*

“Gentlemen, I am innocent of that of which I am accused. May my blood assure the happiness of the French.”

The execution of Louis XVI led Britain, Holland and Spain to form a coalition and attack France in 1793. The revolutionaries and people rose to defend the country and defeated the enemy coalition by 1795.

### **B. Reign of Terror (1793-1794)**

In October 1793, Queen Marie Antoinette was executed. The next few months saw a procession of nobles, clergymen, innocent people brought to the scaffold. Daily executions took place in Paris and in the provinces. Many were shot down in the countryside as beasts of the field. From June 1793 to July 1794 there was a veritable reign of terror in France. The Government was in the hands of a **Committee of Public Safety** and its leader was **Maxmillien Robespierre**.

Thousands were charged with treason, or merely insufficient patriotism, and were subjected to the “National Razor,” as the guillotine was called.

Robespierre (1758-1794) led the Committee of Public Safety and was called “the incorruptible.” He paid great attention to detail and to duty. He was ruthless in his commitment to the cause. Under him, Catholicism was attacked, Christianity was ‘abolished,’ thousands of churches closed. In June 1794, Robespierre announced the worship of “The Supreme Being” with a ceremony at Notre Dame Cathedral where he acted as the high priest. He had all his rivals, Danton among them, executed.

The Girondin leader Madame Roland said, as she approached the guillotine, “O liberty, what crimes are committed in thy name!”

Robespierre considered it his patriotic duty to execute all those who might try to put down the Revolution. Another popular leader, Danton, too was not spared by Robespierre.

Robespierre’s government issued laws placing a maximum ceiling on wage and prices. Meat and bread were rationed. Peasants were forced to transport their grains to the cities and sell them at prices fixed by the government.

Equality was sought to be practised through food, lifestyle, dress and forms of speech and address. Churches were shut down and their buildings converted into barracks and offices.



*Maximilien Robespierre (1758-1794) was a lawyer and was elected to the Estates General in 1789. In 1793, he started the Reign of Terror. He himself was later denounced and guillotined, and his execution ended the Reign of Terror.*

A few months later, a coalition was formed against Robespierre by his colleagues who feared for their lives. The public was roused against him.

Robespierre was arrested, tried and guillotined in July 1794. The reign of terror ended with his death.

In 1795, a new Convention appointed a five-man Directorate to run the state from 26 October 1795.

This was meant as a safeguard against the concentration of power in one-man executive. However, the directors often clashed with the legislative councils, who sought to dismiss them. The political instability of the directory paved the way for the rise of a military dictator: Napoleon Bonaparte.

The Revolution ended in 1799 with the rise of Napoleon Bonaparte.

## THE LEGACY OF THE REVOLUTION



The French Revolution not only affected France and changed its entire social and political system; it also had a lasting effect on the people of Europe in the 19th century. It inspired the Germans, Italians, and Austrians to overthrow their oppressive



*Napoleon crossing the Alps*

regimes. It led to a decade of political changes and Europe saw many revolutions inspired by the French Revolution.

The watchwords of the French Revolution such as **liberty**, **equality** and **fraternity** reflected the coming of a new democratic and social order in Europe and the world.

The French Revolution inspired the struggling nations of Asia and Africa who were groaning under the oppression of colonialism. Many a nation aspiring for liberty sought inspiration from its ideas of liberty, equality and fraternity.

The ideas of liberty and democratic rights were the most important legacy of the French Revolution. These spread from France to the rest of Europe, where feudal systems were abolished.

Tipu Sultan and Rammohan Roy responded to the ideas of revolutionary France.

India's struggle for independence was inspired by the ideas of the great

**Robespierre's speech,  
threatening the members of the  
Covenant —  
26 July 1794.**

"The French Revolution is the first to be founded on the rights of humanity and principle of justice. Other revolutions require only ambition; ours requires virtue."

He referred to the "Monsters" who had "plunged patriots into dungeons and carried terror into all ranks and conditions. These are the tyrants and oppressors. I know only two parties, that of good citizens and bad."

Joining the reign of terror were the *Sans Culottes*. They were, literally, those who lacked the knee breeches of genteel society. They demanded a more equitable division of land, government regulation of prices and wages, and a social security system. Such measures were not in the plans of the French bourgeoisie and they tried to stop this leftist trend in the revolution. They were finally brought under control by a **Directory of Five in 1795** and then by Napoleon Bonaparte in 1799.

French philosophers like Voltaire and Rousseau, and was fired with the ideas expressed in the **Declaration of the Rights of Man** (1789).

The French Revolution put into practice the idea that sovereignty comes from the people, from below and not from above. A Greek guerrilla chieftain who led a revolt against the Turkish landlords in 1821 wrote:

"According to my judgement, the French Revolution opened the eyes of the world. The nations knew nothing before, and the people thought the kings were Gods upon the earth and they were bound to say that whatever they did was well done. In the present change it is more difficult to rule the people."

The French Revolution opened the eyes of the world to a profound social revolution. It marked the beginning, for the first time in history, of active and



Compare this cartoon with the cartoon on page 11. Now the priest (with the scales of justice to show equality before the law) and the noble (with the sword to defend the country) carry the peasant. This cartoon appeared in 1790 after the abolition of feudalism and the setting up of a fairer system of taxation.

institutionalised mass participation in the government. The revolution led to many “isms” — nationalism, liberalism and socialism. These three have exerted the maximum influence on the course of world history.



*A Sans - Culottes Couple*



The revolutionary government sought to mobilise the loyalty of its subjects through various means – one of them was the staging of festivals like this one.

**(a) Nationalism :** Nationalism led to many new nations emerging in Europe, Asia and Africa. A nation now no longer was the king’s territory or his subjects. Rather, it now comprised citizens “who inhabited a common territory, possessed a voice in their common government and were conscious of their common heritage and their common interests.”

**(b) Liberalism :** The main feature of this was emancipation of the individual from class, corporate or governmental restraint. It was the second great doctrine (a gift of the French Revolution) to impact the world. The Declaration of the Rights of Man asserted the liberty of the individual. That no authority could rule over the individuals in an arbitrary manner, was the message given. The Declaration stressed that all men are to be treated as equal before the law and that humanity implied fraternity among different peoples.

The Declaration of Rights of Man inspired and guided many newly independent nations to frame their

constitutions based on similar principles. The Indian constitution has borrowed a lot from it and liberty, equality and fraternity are included in the Preamble to our Constitution.

**(c) Socialism :** Liberalism emphasises the individual and his or her rights; socialism, on the other hand, emphasises

the community and its collective welfare. This was also a result of the work of Sans Culottes during the Revolution. It promoted a society designed to promote collective well being rather than individual profit. This was the main feature of the Russian Revolution which took place later.

| Timeline : The French Revolution |   |                                                                                                                                |
|----------------------------------|---|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <b>1770s-1780s</b>               | — | Economic decline : French Government in deep debt.                                                                             |
| <b>1788-1789</b>                 | — | Bad harvest, high prices, food riots.                                                                                          |
| <b>1789, May 5</b>               | — | Estates-General convened, demands reforms.                                                                                     |
| <b>1789, July 14</b>             | — | National Assembly formed. Bastille stormed on July 14. French Revolution starts.                                               |
| <b>1789, August 4</b>            | — | Night of August 4 ends the rights of the aristocracy.                                                                          |
| <b>1789, August 26</b>           | — | Declaration of the Rights of Man.                                                                                              |
| <b>1790</b>                      | — | Civil Constitution of the Clergy nationalises the Church.                                                                      |
| <b>1792</b>                      | — | Constitution of 1791 converts absolute monarchy into a constitutional monarchy with limited powers.                            |
| <b>1792</b>                      | — | Austria and Prussia attack revolutionary France.                                                                               |
| <b>1793</b>                      | — | Louis XVI and Marie Antoinette executed.                                                                                       |
| <b>1793-1794</b>                 | — | The Reign of Terror Austria, Britain, the Netherlands, Prussia and Spain at war with France.                                   |
|                                  | — | Robespierre's Committee of Public Safety repels back foreign invaders. Executes many "enemies of the people" in France itself. |
| <b>1794</b>                      | — | Robespierre executed. France governed by a Directory, a committee of five men.                                                 |
| <b>1799</b>                      | — | Napoleon Bonaparte becomes the military dictator.                                                                              |
| <b>1804</b>                      | — | Napoleon becomes emperor of France.                                                                                            |

## IMPORTANT TERMS

- o **Absolute Monarchy** : A system of Government where King has all the powers.
- o **Ancient Regime** : The old order
- o **Estates General** : The French Parliament
- o **The Three Estates** : The three classes into which the French society was divided.
- o **Bastille** : Prison fortress in Paris. It was a symbol of tyranny in France.
- o **Clergy** : Men ordained for the service of the Church.
- o **Nobles** : A class which was distinguished by birth.
- o **Subsistence crisis** : An extreme situation where the basic means of livelihood are endangered.
- o **Tithe** : A tax levied by the church on peasants, comprising one-tenth of agricultural produce.
- o **Taille** : A tax to be paid directly to the state by the members of Third Estate.

## EXERCISES



### I. Choose the correct answer.

1. Who was the king of France on eve of the Revolution?  
(a) Louis XIV                      (b) Louis XV                      (c) Louis XVI                      (d) None of these
2. The law that gave a final blow to the authority of the clergy was called :  
(a) Civil Constitution of the Clergy                      (b) Declaration of the Rights of Man  
(c) The New Constitution of 1791                      (d) Tennis Court Oath
3. Which emperor of France was publicly guillotined in January 1793?  
(a) Louis XIV                      (b) Louis XV                      (c) Louis XVI                      (d) L o u i s XVII
4. There are two statements marked as Assertion (A) and Reason (R). Mark your answer as per the codes provided below :  
**Assertion (A)** : Storming of the Bastille fortress–prison marked the beginning of the French Revolution.  
**Reason (R)** : The Bastille was a symbol of democracy and liberty.  
(a) Both (A) and (R) are true and (R) is the correct explanation of (A)  
(b) Both (A) and (R) are true but (R) is not the correct explanation of (A)  
(c) (A) is correct but (R) is wrong  
(d) (A) is wrong but (R) is correct

5. Identify the painting from the options given below.



- |                              |                        |
|------------------------------|------------------------|
| (a) Storming of the Bastille | (b) Tennis Court Oath  |
| (c) French Revolution        | (d) Convention of 1793 |

6. Arrange the following statements in sequential order based on the events that shaped the French Revolution.

- |                                  |                              |
|----------------------------------|------------------------------|
| I. Voting in the Estates General | II. Storming of the Bastille |
| III. Tennis Court Oath           | IV. Reign of Terror          |
| (a) I, II, III, IV               | (b) IV, III, II, I           |
| (c) I, III, II, IV               |                              |

7. Consider the statements given below and choose the correct answer.

**Statement I :** Robespierre followed a policy of severe control and punishment

**Statement II :** Robespierre's government issued laws placing a maximum ceiling on wages and prices.

- (a) Statement (I) is correct and (II) is incorrect  
 (b) Statement (I) is incorrect and (II) is correct  
 (c) Both (I) and (II) are incorrect  
 (d) Both (I) and (II) are correct

## II. Very Short Answer Type Questions.

- When did the French Revolution begin?
- Which dynasty ruled France at the time of the Revolution and what kind of monarchy it was?
- On what date is Bastille Day celebrated?



## III. Short Answer Type Questions.

- Explain the role of the middle class in the French Revolution.
- In what way did the French Revolution mean different aims to different people?
- What was the importance of the Declaration of the Rights of Man?



[HOTS]

#### IV. Long Answer Type Questions.



1. Discuss the political, economic and social causes of the French Revolution.
2. The French philosophers of the 18th century greatly influenced the people and it led to the French Revolution. Comment on this statement.

[HOTS]

3. Explain the importance of the following events on the course of the French Revolution :
  - (a) Storming of the Bastille
  - (b) March on Versailles by the women of Paris
  - (c) The passing of the Civil Constitution of the Clergy
4. 'The French Revolution led to many "isms". Explain.
5. Mention the legacy of the French Revolution.

[HOTS]

#### THINGS TO DO



- | **Activity** : Think and find out which ideas of the French Revolution affected India most and how.
- | **Assignment** : The French Revolution saw the rise of several newspapers and journals describing the events of each day and week. Collect information and pictures on any one event and write a newspaper article.

## CHAPTER 2

# The Russian Revolution

The Russian Revolution took place in 1917 when the peasants and working class people of Russia revolted against the government of Czar Nicholas II. They were led by Vladimir Lenin and a group of revolutionaries called the Bolsheviks. The new communist government created the country of the Soviet Union.

### SIGNIFICANCE OF THE RUSSIAN REVOLUTION

The Russian Revolution of 1917 made Russia the first country in the world to have a communist government. It also led to a long and bloody Civil

War which lasted till 1920, at the end of which the communists had complete control over the country.

The fall of monarchy in February 1917 and the events of October 1917 are normally called the Russian Revolution.

The Bolsheviks who took control of the government considered their revolution in Russia as only the first stage of a worldwide communist revolution. Thus, the Russian Revolution marked the beginning of the struggle between communist nations and the capitalist world.



*Europe in 1914. The map shows the Russian empire and the European countries at war during the First World War.*

To understand the Russian Revolution of 1917 in proper perspective and dimension, one has to understand the tyranny of the Czars on the one hand and the appalling backwardness of the country and its subjects on the other. We must remember that Russia was once a landlocked country with no access to the sea. Most of her territory lay in the north and was uninhabitable due to extreme cold and barrenness of the soil. Thanks to great rulers like Peter the Great and Queen Catherine, Russia extended her borders towards the Baltic region in the north-west and the Black Sea coast in the south. Russia now had territories which stretched from Siberia in northern Asia to the Pacific Ocean in the east. In the Russian Empire lived many European and Asiatic peoples, speaking different languages and following their own customs. In the European side of Russia many followed the Orthodox Christianity. There were many others who belonged to the Roman Catholic Church, the Protestant Church, Judaism and Islam. It was the **autocracy of the Czars** that held these nationalities together.



*Stalin, Lenin and Trotskii together — the leaders at the forefront of the Russian Revolution*

## THE CRISIS OF CZARISM



The Russian Czars from Peter the Great to Czar Nicholas II (1894 – 1917) enjoyed unlimited authority. The autocracy was supported by the nobles on the one hand and the church on the other. The nobles enjoyed all the privileges and power, and held all key positions in administration. This backing by the church and the nobles made the Czar the “Autocrat of All the Russians.” The conditions were almost the same as those of the French Revolution of 1789.

### Reign of Czar Nicholas II (1894 – 1917)

Before he came to power, industrialisation had taken place in Russia. It began in the 1870s. Yet Russia remained as feudal as she was at the beginning of the 19th century.

Serfdom had been abolished in 1861 but that had failed to improve the



*Czar Nicholas II*



*Unemployed peasants in pre-war St Petersburg.*

conditions of the peasants. Their holdings were too small and uneconomical. The peasants did not have any capital as their resource to invest in the lands. Besides, they were required to pay redemption dues. All these factors, acting in combination, made their lot extremely miserable.

The workers in the factories led no better lives. Most factories were owned



*Workers sleeping in bunks in a dormitory in pre-revolutionary Russia. They slept in shifts and could not keep their families with them.*

by foreigners. The Russian owned factories paid very little wages to the workers as they wanted to cut costs to be able to compete with the foreigners.

**Czar Nicholas II** was a man of good intentions but his associates were unscrupulous. While in a number of other European countries, political power had shifted from aristocracy to the middle class, in Russia absolutism was still prevalent. The Czar believed in the divine right of the king to rule.



*Czar Nicholas and his family*

One of the most dominating persons amongst his associates was a godman called Rasputin. He was immoral, but possessed a curious magnetism. He dominated the Czarina and through her exercised considerable influence over the functioning of the government of Russia. He directed government policies



*Rasputin*

in a very selfish manner. Ministers were appointed and dismissed at his command. Corruption and degeneracy gripped the Russian government at that time.

## Workers' Organisations

Three Major Workers' Organisations came up in Russia soon after industrialisation had begun.

**First Party : EMANCIPATION OF LABOUR GROUP** (Formed in 1883).

**Second Party : Russian Social Democratic Labour Party (1898)** The first group united with the second to take this form. Within this party two distinct groups emerged in 1903: **The Mensheviks** and the **Bolsheviks**.

**Mensheviks** : They believed that the party should be modelled on the lines of parties in countries like France or England.

The idea was rejected by a majority of groups as they thought Russia was an absolute monarchy while France and England had a democratic political system; so there could be no comparison.

**Bolsheviks** : They favoured a revolution. They were led by Lenin who organised his party to become the instrument for Russian Revolution of 1917.

**Third Party : Socialist Revolutionaries**, a party formed by Russian peasants, was the third one. Their principal objective was to get end the feudal system in the country.

The outbreak of World War I broke the slender threads that held the Russian government together. The rule of the Czars ended and an entirely new form of government took over.

## The Russian People

For a proper appreciation of the events that led to the Russian Revolution, it would be helpful to be familiar with the psyche of the Russian people. It would be unfair to judge the Russian people by European standards for they were more oriental in their thinking and ways of life. Illiteracy was high but the intellectual minority among the Russian people was as enlightened as anywhere else. Russian achievements in the field of art and literature were as distinguished as anywhere else in the world even before the revolution. They bore the burden of Czarist oppression for generations. Later, for around 70 years, they had to put up with the ordeals of communism before the system finally collapsed and Soviet Union ceased to exist as a state. If the communist system of government survived for so long, the credit goes to the patience of the Russian people who were all along willing to give the new system a chance.

## THE BEGINNING — THE 1905 REVOLUTION



The year 1904 was catastrophic for Russian workers. Prices of essential goods rose tremendously, leading to a decline in real wages by 20 per cent. The membership of

workers' associations rose dramatically. Meanwhile, four members of the Assembly of Russian Workers were dismissed in 1904 at the Putilov Iron Works. This angered the workers. During the next few days, 1,10,000 workers in St. Petersburg went on strike demanding a reduction in the working day to eight hours, an increase in wages and improvement in working conditions.



*Soldiers blocking Narva gate on Bloody Sunday*

When the procession of workers led by Father Gapon (he was an agent of the monarch and wanted to help him in crushing the workers' protest) reached the **Winter Palace**, it was attacked by armed guards. Over 100 workers were killed and about 300 were wounded. This incident, known as **Bloody Sunday**, started a series of events that was called the 1905 Revolution. Strikes took place all over the country and universities closed down. Students, lawyers, doctors, engineers and other middle-class workers established their unions and demanded civil liberties and a Constituent Assembly.

The Czar allowed the creation of an elected parliament or Duma. The Czar

dismissed the first Duma within 75 days and the re-elected second Duma within 90 days. He refused any questioning of his authority or any reduction in his autocratic powers. He packed the third Duma with conservative politicians and kept out liberals and revolutionaries. All trade unions, committees and workers' associations were declared illegal.

The army and navy were also involved in protests against the killing of innocent workers and their family members. The sailors of the battleship **Potemkin** joined the revolutionaries. Out of these protests, a new organisation developed which came to be known as the **Soviet of Workers**.

The peasants also formed their Soviets. These organisations later became the instruments of political power in Russia.



*A scene from the famous film 'Battleship Potemkin' by Eisenstein, depicting an incident during the 1905 Revolution.*

## THE FIRST WORLD WAR (1914-1918) AND ITS EFFECTS



In 1914, war broke out between two European alliances — Germany, Austria

and Turkey (Central Powers), and France, Britain, Russia, Italy, Romania (Allied powers). Each country had a colonial empire, hence the war was fought in all continents.

And the war was fought outside Europe as well as in Europe. This was the First World War.

In Russia, the war was initially popular and people rallied around Czar Nicholas II. As the war continued, though, the Czar refused to consult the main parties in the Duma. Support wore thin. Anti-German sentiments ran high. The Czarina Alexandra's German origins and poor advisers, especially a monk called Rasputin, made the autocracy *unpopular*.



*Czar Nicholas II among his troops during World War I*

The First World War on the 'eastern front' differed from that on the 'western front'. In the west, armies fought from trenches stretched along eastern France. In the east, armies moved a good deal and fought battles leaving large casualties. Defeats were shocking and demoralising. Russia's armies lost badly in Germany and Austria between 1914 and 1916. There were over 7 lakh casualties by



*Russian soldiers during the First World War.*

1917. As they retreated, the Russian army destroyed crops and buildings to prevent the enemy from being able to live off the land. The destruction of crops and buildings led to over 3 million refugees in Russia. The situation discredited the government and the Czar. Soldiers did not wish to fight such a war.

The war also had a severe impact on industry. Russia's own industries were few in number and the country was cut off from other suppliers of industrial goods by German control of the Baltic Sea. Industrial equipments disintegrated more rapidly in Russia than elsewhere in Europe. By 1916, railway lines began to break down. Able-bodied men were called up to the war. As a result, there were labour shortage and small

workshops producing essentials were shut down. Large supplies of grain were sent to feed army. For the people in the cities, bread and flour became scarce. By the winter of 1916, riots at bread shops were common.



## THE FEBRUARY REVOLUTION (1917)



In the winter of 1917, conditions in the capital, Petrograd, were grim. The layout of the city seemed to emphasise the divisions among its people. The workers' quarters and factories were located on the right bank of the River Neva. On the left bank were the fashionable areas, the Winter Palace, and official buildings, including the palace where the Duma met. In February 1917, food shortages were deeply felt in the worker's quarters. The winter was very cold—there had been exceptional frost and heavy snow. Parliamentarians wishing to preserve elected government, were opposed to the Czar's desire to dissolve the Duma.

On 22 February, a lockout took place at a factory on the right bank. The next day, workers in fifty factories called a strike in sympathy. In many factories, women led the way to strikes.



*The Petrograd Soviet meeting in the Duma, February 1917*

This came to be called the International Women's Day. (February 23, 1917 as per Julian calendar and March 8, 1917 as per Gregorian calendar). Demonstrating workers crossed from the factory quarters to the centre of the capital – the Nevskii Prospekt. At this stage, no political party was actively organising the movement. As the fashionable quarters and official buildings were surrounded by workers, the government imposed a curfew. Demonstrators dispersed by the evening but they came back on the 24th and 25th. The government called out the cavalry and police to keep an eye on them.

On Sunday, 25 February, the government suspended the Duma. Politicians spoke out against the measure. Demonstrators returned in force to the streets of the left bank on the 26th February. On the 27th February, the Police Headquarters were ransacked. The streets thronged with people raising slogans about bread, wages, better hours

and democracy. The government tried to control the situation and called out the cavalry once again. However, the cavalry refused to fire on the demonstrators. An officer was shot at the barracks of a regiment and three other regiments mutinied, voting to join the striking workers. By that evening, soldiers and striking workers had gathered to form a 'soviet' or 'council' in the same building as the Duma met. This was the Petrograd Soviet.

On 28th February, 1917 a delegation went to see the Czar. Military commanders advised him to abdicate. He followed their advice and abdicated on 2nd March. Soviet leaders and Duma leaders formed a Provisional Government to run the country. Russia's future would be decided by a constituent assembly, elected on the basis of universal adult suffrage. Petrograd had led the February Revolution that brought down the monarchy in February 1917.

Thereafter the revolutionaries took Moscow, the winter capital. The first provisional government was set up on March 15, 1917 after the fall of Czar. This date, according to the old Russian calendar, coincided with February 27, 1917. The event is thus called the February Revolution.

A provisional Government was set up under Alexander Kerensky.

## **FEBRUARY REVOLUTION TO OCTOBER REVOLUTION**

Army officials, landowners and industrialists were influential in

the Provisional Government. But the liberals as well as socialists among them worked towards an elected government. Restrictions on public meetings and associations were removed. 'Soviets', like the Petrograd Soviet, were set up everywhere, though no common system of election was followed.

In April 1917, the Bolshevik leader Vladimir Lenin returned to Russia from his exile. He and the Bolsheviks had opposed the war since 1914. Now he felt it was time for soviets to take over power. He declared that the war be brought to a close, land be transferred to the peasants, and banks be nationalised. These three demands were part of Lenin's 'April Theses'. He also argued that the Bolshevik Party rename itself the Communist Party to indicate its new radical aims. Most others in the Bolshevik Party were initially surprised by the April Theses. They thought that the time was not yet ripe for a socialist revolution and the Provisional Government needed to be supported. But the developments of the subsequent months changed their attitude.

Through the summer the workers' movement spread. In industrial areas, factory committees were formed which began questioning the way industrialists ran their factories. Trade unions grew in number. Soldiers' committees were formed in the army. In June, about 500 Soviets sent representatives to an All Russian Congress of Soviets. As the Provisional Government saw its power reduce and Bolshevik influence grow, it decided to take stern measures against



the spreading discontent. It resisted attempts by workers to run factories and began arresting leaders. Popular demonstrations staged by the Bolsheviks in July 1917 were sternly repressed. Many Bolshevik leaders had to go into hiding or flee.

Meanwhile in the countryside, peasants and their Socialist Revolutionary leaders pressed for a redistribution of land. Land committees were formed to handle this. Encouraged by the Socialist Revolutionaries, peasants seized land between July and September 1917.



*A Bolshevik image of Lenin addressing workers in April 1917.*

## THE OCTOBER REVOLUTION (1917)

Alexander Kerensky was a moderate among the socialists. He tried to establish a liberal democratic form of government. However, he could not implement the main demands of the revolutionaries which were peace, land to the tillers, control of industry by workers and equal status for the non-Russian nationalities.

As the conflict between the Provisional Government and the Bolsheviks grew, Lenin feared the Provisional Government would set up a dictatorship. In September, he began discussions for an uprising against the government. Bolshevik supporters in the army, Soviets and factories were brought together.

On 16 October 1917, Lenin persuaded the Petrograd Soviet and the Bolshevik Party to agree to a socialist seizure of power. A Military Revolutionary Committee was appointed by the Soviet under Leon Trotsky to organise the seizure.

The uprising began on 25 October. Sensing trouble, Prime Minister Kerensky had left the city to summon troops. At dawn, military men loyal to the government seized the buildings of two Bolshevik newspapers. Pro-government troops were sent to take over telephone and telegraph offices and protect the Winter Palace. In a swift response, the Military Revolutionary Committee ordered its supporters to seize government offices and arrest ministers. Late in the day, the ship *Aurora* shelled the Winter Palace. Other vessels took over various military points. By nightfall, the city was under the Committee's control and the ministers had surrendered. At a meeting of the All Russian Congress of Soviets in Petrograd, the majority approved the Bolshevik action. Uprisings took place in other cities. There was heavy fighting – especially in Moscow – but by December, the Bolsheviks controlled the Moscow-Petrograd area.



On 7 November 1917, an All-Russia Congress of Soviets assumed full political power. The date as per the old Russian calendar was October 25 and hence the name **October Revolution**.

Trotsky as a commissar was put in charge of the army and the navy. A treaty was signed with Germany and Russia withdrew from the war. The Bolsheviks began the organisation of a new government.

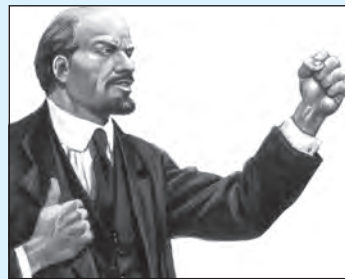
Workers paraded the streets to listen to Lenin or Trotsky. The Bolsheviks promised them, "Peace, Bread and Land!" Bolshevik military units, called the Red Guards, seized the Winter Palace and arrested the Provisional Government. Kerensky managed to escape and spent his life in exile in California.

The Bolsheviks seized power under Lenin.

## VLADIMIR LENIN (1870-1924) AND BOLSHEVIK REVOLUTION



With the fall of Kerensky's Menshevik Government, Vladimir Lenin, the Bolshevik leader, took command. Lenin was the son of a school inspector who spent most of his early life in exile, because of his activities against the Czar. After his return from Siberia (sent there by Czar's police), he went to Switzerland. It was in 1903 that he became the leader of the extremist revolutionary group



*Lenin, leader of the Bolsheviks, giving a speech at Moscow's Red Square.*



*Street fighting in Petrograd, July 1917. Soldiers (upper left) fire on marchers to break up a Bolshevik demonstration against the Provisional Government.*

called the Bolshevik Party. In 1917 he came back to Russia and was assisted by two of his most trusted lieutenants, Leon Trotsky and Joseph Stalin. Lenin established a Soviet Republic and made peace with Germany by signing the treaty of Brest-Litovsk in 1918. Lenin then set out to work for building a new socialist order in his country. He was injured by a bullet and died later in January 1924.

## NEW ECONOMIC POLICY (NEP) (1921-28)

Lenin's NEP was the adoption of a mixed economy. The Soviet Government controlled major industries, trade and banking, while the individuals were allowed to sell their foodgrains in the open market. They were also given the permits to open stores and small factories. A stable currency was introduced.



*Leon Trotskii, one of the principal Bolshevik leaders in the Russian Revolution*

The aim of NEP was to encourage economic contribution of workers, peasants in urban and rural areas to improve the country's economy and to allow partial capitalism while keeping the main sources of economy in the hands of the government.

## FOUNDATION OF THE SOVIET STATE



**The first revolutionary step** taken by the new government (Council of People's Commissars) under Lenin was a decree confiscating all lands owned by the church and the Czar. The lands thus confiscated were transferred to peasant societies who in turn allotted them to peasant families to be cultivated without hired labour.

The **control of industries** was transferred to shop committees of workers.

**All foreign debts** were repudiated and foreign investments were confiscated. The railways, insurance companies, mines, water transport and large industries were nationalised.

The October Revolution was succeeded by a period of Civil War in Russia. An armed rebellion against the new government was organised by the officers of the Czar's army. The Civil War raged till 1920. The Red Army was finally able to take over control of all the lands of the former Czarist empire.

Taking into account the fact that Russia was economically a very backward country in Europe, Lenin found it necessary to compromise with the old economic order by permitting individuals to own and operate small business under the supervision of the state. There were failures in many areas and subsequently many changes were made. All the same the progress made was surprising.

## FORMATION OF THE USSR

The Russian Revolution had succeeded in destroying the power of the Church, the aristocracy and the autocracy of the Czarist regime. According to the new Constitution proclaimed in 1922, all the Soviet Republics such as Russian, Georgian, Armenian, Turkmanian, Ukrainian, Azerbaijani, Caucasian etc were brought under one union – the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR). In 1936, when another Constitution came into force, there were twelve Republics constituting the USSR. These republics were formed on the basis of equality and were free to secede from the union.

The institution of private property in the means of production had no place in the new state. Private profit was no longer the motive for production. Every citizen was expected to contribute to the state according to his capacity and the state in return was expected to remunerate each worker according to his or her work. There was no unearned income for any group of persons and as such everyone had to work. The Right to Work was constitutionally recognised and it became obligatory on the part of the state to provide work to every able-bodied adult. The new government adopted a policy of centralised planning with a view to direct national resources in a manner that would create a technologically advanced economy at a fast rate. Education was accorded high priority.

The new state accorded equal rights to all the nationalities within the USSR.



The republics that formed part of the USSR were given full freedom to develop their own cultures and languages.

The USSR had republics that were part of Europe and also that were part of Asia. The freedom to develop their own cultures and languages was very meaningful for the Asian Republics which were relatively less developed.

The centralised planning and a new sense of discipline and security started showing results and very soon the Soviet Union emerged as a major power on the international front.

## JOSEPH STALIN (1879–1953)

After Lenin's death in 1924, there was a fierce power struggle within the party, between Joseph Stalin and Trotsky. In the end Stalin succeeded, and became the leader of Russia and drove his rival Trotsky into exile. Stalin concentrated all powers in his hands and virtually became a dictator. Stalin was suspected of purging anyone who opposed him. The people purged by him were mostly communist leaders,



*Stalin*

veterans of the revolution, writers, artists, scientists, military and civilian officers.

But Stalin planned to make Russia an economic giant through five year plans.

## The Five Year Plans

During the civil war, the Bolsheviks kept industries and banks nationalised. They permitted peasants to cultivate the land that had been socialised. Bolsheviks used confiscated land to demonstrate what collective work could be.

A process of centralised planning was introduced. Officials assessed how the economy could work and set targets for a five-year period. On this basis they made the Five Year Plans. The government fixed all prices to promote industrial growth during the first two 'Plans' (1927-1932 and 1933-1938). Centralised planning led to economic growth. Industrial production increased (Between 1929 and 1933 by 100 per cent in the case of oil, coal and steel). New factory cities came into being.

## The Collectivisation

The period of the early Planned Economy was linked to the disasters of the collecti-visation of agriculture. By 1927-1928, the towns in Soviet Russia were facing an acute problems of grain supplies. The government fixed prices at which grain must be sold, but the peasants refused to sell their grain to government buyers at these prices.

Stalin, who headed the party after the death of Lenin, introduced firm emergency measures. He believed that rich peasants and traders in the

countryside were holding stocks in the hope of higher prices. Speculation had to be stopped and supplies confiscated.

What followed was Stalin's collectivisation programme. From 1929, the Party forced all peasants to cultivate in collective farms (*kolkhoz*). The bulk of land and implements were transferred to the ownership of collective farms. Peasants worked on the land, and the *kolkhoz* profit was shared. Enraged peasants resisted the authorities and destroyed their livestock. Between 1929 and 1931, the number of cattle fell by one-third. Those who resisted collectivisation were severely punished. Many were **deported** and **exiled**. As they resisted collectivisation, peasants argued that they were not rich and they were not against socialism. They merely did not want to work in collective farms for a variety of reasons. Stalin's government allowed some independent cultivation, but treated such cultivators unsympathetically.

In spite of collectivisation, production



*Peasant women being gathered to work in the large collective farms.*

did not increase immediately. In fact, the bad harvests of 1930-1933 led to one of the most devastating famines in Soviet history when over 4 million people died.

**The New Constitution :** The Constitution adopted in 1936 did not

provide for the separation of legislative, executive and judicial functions. Judges were to be elected by the system of secret ballots. The whole administrative set-up was subordinated to the single control of the Communist Party.

### **FACT FILE**

#### ***Collapse of USSR***



The social and economic systems of the USSR were at one time hailed as the beginning of a new era for mankind. After about 70 years of the revolution, however, the system collapsed. The 15 republics that comprised the USSR became independent and the USSR was replaced by a loose Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) formed by 12 republics.

In 1985 Mikhail Gorbachev came to power and embarked on a far reaching reform programme — market economy and openness—along with huge reduction in military expenditure.

In 1979, the USSR had invaded Afghanistan. But Gorbachev decided to withdraw from Afghanistan. The Berlin Wall that separated the Russian zone of Germany from West Germany, collapsed in 1989. Popular revolutions toppled communist governments in Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia and Romania. Hungary and Poland had peaceful transition to democracy.

In the 22 months following the fall of the Berlin Wall, the communist world order

was completely shattered. Communism had been completely overthrown in Eastern and Central Europe and finally on December 8, 1991 the USSR was disbanded.

### **RUSSIAN REVOLUTION – THE LEGACY**



The collapse of the USSR has been a serious blow to the communist ideology. Critics even go the extent of calling it the greatest hoax of the twentieth century. But that would be an unfair judgement.

The USSR gave the model of centralised economic planning which is still relevant in case of developing economies.

Communism came as a warning to exploitative capitalist societies. Capitalist countries all over the world took measures to ensure that workers got fair wages that enables them to live with dignity. Right to property was balanced with social security measures on the part of the state. Many countries in the West that follow a capitalist

system provide to their workers facilities that would be the envy of communist countries.

The possibility of a workers' state fired the imagination of people across the world. In many countries, including India and Great Britain communist parties were formed. The Bolsheviks encouraged colonial people to throw off the yokes of slavery. By the time of the outbreak of Second World War, the USSR had given socialism a global face and world stature. Many Indians were inspired by the Russian Revolution. Several attended the Communist University. In 1925 the Communist Party was formed in India and the members worked in close association with the Soviet Communist Party. Many Indian political

leaders, writers and artists visited Soviet Russia, including Jawaharlal Nehru and Rabindra Nath Tagore. Many books were written on the Russian Revolution and about Soviet socialism.

The Russian experiment has many lessons. The importance of profit as an incentive to bring out the best in human effort cannot be negated. Strict discipline does help in bringing about quicker results, but has a tendency to degenerate. Denial of civil liberties leads to bottling up of discontent and exploding in the form of a revolution. Progress under a democratic system with freedom of speech and right to criticise could be relatively slow but it would be lasting and poses no threat to the very existence of the state.

| Timeline : The Russian Revolution |   |                                                                                           |
|-----------------------------------|---|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <b>1905</b>                       | — | Revolution of 1905 forces Nicholas II to grant a Duma (Legislature) in Russia.            |
| <b>1914-1917</b>                  | — | Russia suffers because of World War I; suffering builds opposition to the government.     |
| <b>(i) 1917</b>                   | — | February Revolution overthrows Nicholas II. Duma leader Kerensky comes to power.          |
| <b>(ii) 1917</b>                  | — | October Revolution overthrows Kerensky. Bolshevik leader, Lenin, comes to power.          |
| <b>1917-18</b>                    | — | Russia leaves the war, weakening the Allies.                                              |
| <b>1918-1920</b>                  | — | Russian Civil War, Bolsheviks emerge as winners.                                          |
|                                   | — | Large scale nationalisation by the Soviet Government.                                     |
| <b>1922</b>                       | — | A new constitution framed. Russia becomes the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR). |
| <b>1923</b>                       | — | Stalin comes to power while Lenin was on the death-bed.                                   |
| <b>1924</b>                       | — | Death of Lenin.                                                                           |
| <b>1929</b>                       | — | Beginning of collectivisation                                                             |

## IMPORTANT TERMS

- o **Czar** : The title of the emperor of Russia.
- o **Bureaucracy** : The senior officers who ran the administration of the country.
- o **Mensheviks** : The group or political party that wanted a parliamentary model of Government like that of Britain and France.
- o **Bolsheviks** : A party that wanted outright revolution, and did not believe in parliamentary system.
- o **Soviet** : Council of representatives of peasants and workers after the revolution of 1917.

## EXERCISES

### I. Choose the correct answer.



1. Serfdom had been abolished in the year \_\_\_\_\_ in Russia.  
(a) 1860                      (b) 1861  
(c) 1862                      (d) 1864
2. Who was the head of the first Provisional Government set up in Russia in March 1917?  
(a) Lenin                      (b) Kerensky  
(c) Leon Trotsky              (d) Czar Nicholas II
3. Which of the following leaders started the Five Year Plans in Russia?  
(a) Lenin                      (b) Stalin  
(c) Trotsky                      (d) Gorbachov
4. The Berlin Wall collapsed in which year?  
(a) 1989                      (b) 1991                      (c) 1992                      (d) 1993
5. There are two statements marked as Assertion (A) and Reason (R). Mark your answer as per the codes provided below.  
**Assertion (A)** : Lenin's NEP was the adoption of a mixed economy.  
**Reason (R)** : The Soviet Government controlled major industries, trade and banking, while the individuals were allowed to sell their foodgrains in the open market.  
(a) Both (A) and (R) are true and (R) is the correct explanation of (A)  
(b) Both (A) and (R) are true but (R) is not the correct explanation of (A)  
(c) (A) is correct but (R) is wrong  
(d) (A) is wrong but (R) is correct

6.



Which of the following statements about the above personality is incorrect?

- (a) He was the leader of the Bolsheviks
- (b) He spearheaded the Russian Revolution
- (c) He was the head of the Provisional Government
- (d) He introduced to NEP

7. Arrange the following statements in sequential order based on the events that shaped the French Revolution.

- |                         |                            |
|-------------------------|----------------------------|
| I. Bloody Sunday        | II. Abdication of the Czar |
| III. October Revolution | IV. The Collectivisation   |
| (a) I, II, III, IV      | (b) IV, III, II, I         |
| (c) III, I, II, IV      | (d) II, III, I, IV         |

## II. Very Short Answer Type Questions.

1. When did the Russian Revolution take place?
2. What made the Czar the “Autocrat of All the Russians?”
3. When was Russian Social Democratic Labour Party formed?
4. Which three important demands were part of Lenin’s ‘April Theses’?
5. Who took command after the fall of Kerensky’s government and what was the new government called?
6. How was the common people affected when Russia entered the First World War?
7. What did the Bolsheviks promise the people?



CODE-KaG9

[HOTS]

## III. Short Answer Type Questions.

1. Explain the difference between
  - (a) The Bolsheviks and the Mensheviks
  - (b) February 1917 and October 1917 revolutions.
2. Discuss briefly the Collectivisation Programme.
3. Discuss any two features of New Economic Policy (NEP).



CODE-Sm54

## IV. Long Answer Type Questions.

1. Discuss the causes that led to the Revolution of 1917.



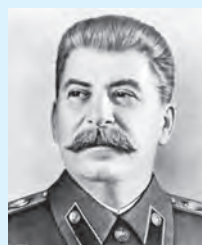
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2. Comment on the role of Vladimir Lenin in the Revolution and his contribution to the economic policy.
3. What were the immediate consequences of the Russian Revolution?
4. Discuss the legacy of the Russian Revolution.

[HOTS]

#### THINGS TO DO

- | **Activity** : Read from the library stories about the last Czar and his daughter Anastasia.
- | **Assignment** : Find out from the Internet or television (History Channel) and library books why the Soviet Union collapsed.
- | Identify the picture.
- | Discuss his programmes and policies.
- | Was he a successful leader/dictator? Give your views.



#### CASE – BASED QUESTIONS

Read the following short passage and answer the questions given.



During the 1905 Revolution, the Tsar allowed the creation of an elected consultative Parliament or Duma. For a brief while during the revolution, there existed a large number of trade unions and factory committees made up of factory workers. After 1905, most committees and unions worked unofficially, since they were declared illegal. Severe restrictions were placed on political activity. The Tsar dismissed the first Duma within 75 days and the re-elected second Duma within three months. He did not want any questioning of his authority or any reduction in his power. He changed the voting laws and packed the third Duma with conservative politicians. Liberals and revolutionaries were kept out.

1. When was the Duma elected?
2. Why did the Tsar dismiss the first Duma?
3. How was the third Duma different from the first one?

# CHAPTER 3

## Rise of Nazism

### NEW DEMOCRATIC SOCIALISM

A new ideology was adopted by European countries after the Russian Revolution. It was the direct result of the **Communist Manifesto** of 1848.

**The Communist Manifesto** of 1848 led to many western and central



European countries reforming their system. They introduced labour unions, a free press, liberal reform legislation and right to vote, which improved the conditions of the working people.

The western and central European countries shunned revolution and tried to change society gradually by making democratic reforms. This was known as **Democratic Socialism**.

#### Differences between Democratic Socialism and Followers of Marxism

|    | Democratic Socialism                                                                                                                                                                                       | Marxism — The Russian Communists                                                                                                                                                    |
|----|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 1. | They avoided revolution.                                                                                                                                                                                   | They supported revolution.                                                                                                                                                          |
| 2. | They tried to change society gradually.                                                                                                                                                                    | They called for immediate change.                                                                                                                                                   |
| 3. | They accepted liberal ideas and were committed to a constitutional government.                                                                                                                             | They wanted a complete establishment of socialism.                                                                                                                                  |
| 4. | They did not like violence in any form and wanted to bring in reforms through popular elections. They brought in reforms like shorter working day, pension for all citizens, public health insurance, etc. | They were prepared to use all means of violent revolution — strikes, Industrial sabotage — to obtain their goal of removing the existing society and replacing it with a new order. |

### THE CRISIS IN GERMANY Weimar Republic

Germany, a powerful empire in the early years of the twentieth century, fought the First World War (1914-1918) alongside the Austrian empire and against the Allies (England, France and Russia). All joined



the war enthusiastically hoping to gain from a quick victory. Little did they realise that the war would stretch on, eventually draining Europe of all its resources. Germany made initial gains by occupying France and Belgium. However the Allies, strengthened by the US entry in 1917, won, defeating



*Hitler (centre) and Goebbels (left) leaving after an official meeting, 1932.*

Germany and the Central Powers in November 1918.

The defeat of Imperial Germany and the abdication of the emperor gave an opportunity to parliamentary parties to recast German polity. A National Assembly met at Weimar and established a democratic constitution with a federal structure. Deputies were now elected to the *German Parliament* or *Reichstag*, on the basis of equal and universal votes cast by all adults including women.

This republic, however, was not received well by its own people largely because of the terms it was forced to accept after Germany's defeat at the end of the First World War. The peace treaty at Versailles with the Allies was a harsh and humiliating peace. Germany lost its overseas colonies, a tenth of its population, 13 per cent of its territories, 75 per cent of its iron and 26 per cent of its coal to France,

Poland, Denmark and Lithuania. The Allied Powers demilitarised Germany to weaken its power. The War Guilt Clause held Germany responsible for the war and damages the Allied countries suffered. Germany was forced to pay compensation amounting to £6 billion. The Allied armies also occupied the resource-rich Rhineland for much of the 1920s. Many Germans held the new Weimar Republic responsible for not only the defeat in the war but the disgrace at Versailles.

Unfortunately, the infant Weimar Republic was being made to pay for the sins of the old empire. The republic carried the burden of war guilt and national humiliation and was financially crippled by being forced to pay compensation. Those who supported the Weimar Republic, mainly Socialists, Catholics and Democrats, became easy targets of attack in the conservative nationalist circles. They were mockingly called the 'November criminals'.

In 1923, Germany suffered the worst inflation and it led to the loss of value of the German currency.

Despite the early difficulties, Germany did make rapid economic recovery but it received a setback due to the Great Depression (1929). Millions of Germans were thrown out of jobs. Foreign investors and German businessmen closed their companies.

The German economy was worst hit by the economic crisis. By 1932 industrial production was reduced to 40

per cent of the 1929 level. The number of unemployed swelled to 6 million people. As jobs disappeared, the youth took to criminal activities and total despair became commonplace. The large mass of peasantry was affected by a sharp fall in foodgrains prices and big business was hit hard.

Politically too the Weimar Republic was fragile. The Weimar Constitution had some inherent defects, which made it unstable and vulnerable to dictatorship. One was proportional representation. This made achieving a majority by any one party a near impossible task, leading to a rule by coalitions. Another defect was Article 48, which gave the President the powers to impose emergency, suspend civil rights and rule by decree. Within its short life, the Weimar Republic saw twenty different cabinets lasting on an average 239 days, and a liberal use of Article 48. Yet the crisis could not be managed. People lost confidence in the democratic parliamentary system, which seemed to offer no solutions.

Till the early 1930s the Germans suffered untold miseries and at this time they turned towards communism. Communists seemed to be their only saviours. But the spread of communism was stopped by National Socialism or Nazism.

The Nazis held out the promise of a bright future to the German people. The words, 'National' and 'Socialism', give the key to the goals of this movement. This party was led by Adolf Hitler from 1921-1945.

## HITLER'S RISE TO POWER



Hitler was an Austrian by birth and his early life was full of struggle. In 1914, Hitler drifted to Munich and enlisted in the Bavarian regiment. At the end of the war, Hitler joined a struggling group, called the National Socialist German Workers' Party. He soon became its leader, or Fuhrer. Hitler could make rabble-rousing speeches on nationalist and anti-Semitic (anti-Jew) themes. In 1923, he joined an uprising in Munich and was imprisoned



*Hitler's Propaganda Minister, Goebbels*

In an era when earth is gradually being divided up among states, some of which embrace almost entire continents, we cannot speak of a world power in connection with a formation whose political mother country is limited to the absurd area of five hundred kilometres.

**Hitler : Mein Kampf**

for nine months. There, at the age of 35, he wrote *Mein Kampf — My Struggle* — a long autobiographical book into which he poured out his hatred for democracy, Marxism and the Jews. He also revealed his bitterness over German surrender in World War I.



*Symbols of Nazi power were evident at the 1936 Olympic games in Berlin. The Germans are raising their arms in the Nazi salute accompanied by a cry of “Heil Hitler!” Adolf Hitler wears the party symbol, called a Swastika, on his armband.*

Upon release from prison, Hitler continued his agitation, but his Nazi Party won only 14 seats in the December 1924 elections. The turning point in his career came in 1930, when the Nazis won 107 seats.

Hitler found support from the middle class that were desperately looking for economic reforms. After this election the Nazis became the second largest party in Germany.

Hitler played on the bitterness of the German people for the defeat in World War I. He claimed that German army was never defeated, it was betrayed by politicians. Thus, he appealed to German nationalism and won the support of the German army. He promised to restore

Germany’s military power and told the Germans that they were the greatest people in the world. Secondly, he and his party promised to carry out radical changes in Germany and get rid of the leaders who had failed to provide jobs to the German people.

Hitler and his party also glorified war. Only violence, according to Hitler and his Party, could destroy enemies abroad and political rivals at home. The emblem of the Nazi Party was the Swastika. The Nazis greeted each other with “Heil Hitler!” The Nazis organised themselves as gangs of armed volunteers called the Brown Shirts. They resorted to beating and murdering anti-Fascists and Jews. By 1930, there were 100,000 Brown Shirts.

It was during the Great Depression that Nazism became a mass movement. After 1929, banks collapsed and businesses shut down, workers lost their jobs and the middle classes were



*Baskets and carts being loaded at a bank in Berlin with paper currency for wage payment, 1923. The German mark had so little value that vast amounts had to be used even for small payments.*

threatened with destitution. In such a situation Nazi propaganda stirred hopes of a better future. By 1932, it had become the largest party with 37 per cent votes.

Hitler was a powerful speaker. His passion and his speech stirred people. He promised to build a strong nation, undo the injustice of the Versailles Treaty and restore the dignity of the German people. He promised employment to the unemployed millions and a secure future for all. He promised to weed out all foreign influences and resist foreign conspiracies against Germany.

In the elections of 1932, Field Marshall Paul Von Hindenburg, who led the German armies in the First World War, was elected President. Hitler's party emerged as the single largest party polling over 13.7 million votes. Hindenburg, who became the President, appointed Hitler as Chancellor

of Germany on 30 January 1933. The politicians of the right-wing parties, the industrialists and the big landowners of Germany had persuaded Hindenburg to make Hitler the Chancellor. Hitler was supported by these people because they believed only Hitler could save them from the communists. His party was the only party that had mass support.

Hitler devised a new style of politics. He understood and utilised the significance of rituals and spectacle in mass mobilisation. Nazis held massive rallies and public meetings to demonstrate the support for Hitler and instil mass hysteria among the people. The Red banners with the **Swastika**, the Nazi salute and the ritualised rounds of applause after the speeches were all part of this spectacle of power.



*March 1933, Hitler and the aging 85 years old President Hindenburg. When Hindenburg died in August 1934, Hitler became President and made himself the supreme ruler of Germany.*

"Long ago you heard the voice of a man," Hitler's harsh voice was heard in the microphone as he addressed a huge rally decorated with red Swastika flags, "and it struck to your hearts, and it awakened you, and you followed that voice. And what did it say? It is faith in our nation that has made small people great, that has made poor people rich, that has made us vacillating, dispirited, anxious people brave and courageous.

Hitler's Nazi followers, the Hitler youth gang sang proudly of the future he had promised them.

Today, Germany belongs to us,  
Tomorrow, all the world."

## NAZI IDEOLOGY

To understand what Hitler did and the crimes that the Nazis committed, we must have an insight into Nazism and their beliefs.



1. Nazis, like the Fascists in Italy, did not believe in equal rights for everyone. They believed that the strong should rule the world and the rest should accept their leadership.
2. Nazis believed in racism also. Hitler preached that the Germans belonged to the master race, the Aryans. The blond, blue-eyed Nordic German Aryans were at the top, while the Jews were at the lowest rung. The other races were positioned between the Aryan Germans and the Jews. As the strongest race, the Aryans must dominate the weak and preserve their purity.
3. Hitler's racial ideology was borrowed from thinkers like Charles Darwin (evolution and natural selection) and Herbert Spencer (survival of the fittest). Their ideas were used by Hitler to justify his treatment of various races. The Nazi argument was simple: the strongest race would survive and the weak ones would perish. The Aryan race was the finest. It had to retain its purity, become stronger and dominate the world.

4. Another aspect of Nazi ideology was related to the concept of **Lebensraum** or living space. He, like Mussolini in Italy, justified his conquests by claiming need for lebensraum or living space.

Hitler believed that the greatest enemies of the Germans were the Jews. He blamed them for all evils that had befallen Germany. He accused the Jews of siding with the communists and socialist parties in getting German people against each other. Jews had great financial power, which, according to Hitler, was accumulated by cheating the common people.



*A Nazi poster attacking Jews. Caption above reads: 'Money is the God of Jews. In order to earn money he commits the greatest crimes. He does not rest, until he can sit on a big sack of money, until he has become the king of money.'*

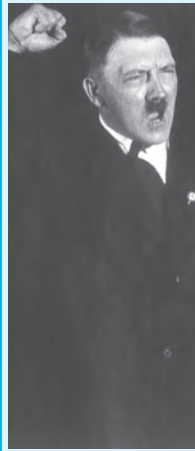
## Hitler as Dictator of Germany

As soon as Hitler came to power, he set about consolidating his rule. He persuaded Hindenburg to dissolve the Reichstag and to hold another election on 5 March, 1933. On 27 February 1933, six days before the election, the Reichstag building was set on fire. It is the belief of the people that the Nazis themselves set the building on fire to create terror and fear among the voters. The Fire decree of 28 February 1933 indefinitely suspended civil rights like freedom of speech, press and assembly. His arch-enemies, the communists, were packed off to the newly established concentration camps. It gave Hitler an excuse to blame the communists. As a result the Nazi Party won by an overwhelming majority in the elections. At once Hitler demanded complete power to do anything necessary to secure the safety of the country. He got this power by the **Enabling Act of March 23, 1933**. He used it to set up a Single-Party Dictatorship. With the death of Hindenburg in 1934, Hitler became the sole ruler of Germany.

The Enabling Act gave Hitler all powers to sideline the parliament and rule by decree. All political parties and trade unions were banned except the Nazi Party and its affiliates. The state established complete control over the economy, media, army and judiciary.

Special surveillance and security forces were created to control and order society in ways that the Nazis wanted. Apart from the already existing regular

### DID YOU KNOW?



*A studio photograph taken in 1925. Hitler strikes a dramatic attitude intended to increase the impact of his oratory. It was a practice well used. His public speeches, delivered with dramatic gestures and rising intensity, induced in his audiences a sort of hysteria that overwhelmed the critical faculties of most of his listeners.*

police in green uniform and the SA or the Storm Troopers, these included the Gestapo (secret state police), the SS (the protection squads), criminal police and the Security Service (SD). It was the extra-constitutional powers of these newly organised forces that gave the Nazi state its reputation as the most dreaded criminal state. People could now be detained in Gestapo torture chambers, rounded up and sent to concentration camps, deported at will or arrested without any legal procedures. The police forces acquired powers to rule with impunity.

### IMPACT OF NAZISM

As dictator, Hitler suppressed all other parties and trade unions. He made his party members hold all key positions in the government including the police. Anyone who protested was imprisoned. Jews were beaten and robbed, and thousands had to flee from Germany.



There was even a one-day boycott of all Jewish stores, doctors and lawyers' offices, ordered by Hitler. Censorship, spying, concentration and extermination camps became the order of the day. All this was done by the new Germany — 'The Third Reich'. It followed Hitler's monolithic state — One People, One Reich, One Führer!"

The Third Reich tolerated no independent criticism of the administration in newspapers or public speeches. There was no freedom of press, of the radio, of universities and schools. The Nazi state did not recognise personal rights or safety of the individual. The National Socialist regime was not the government by consent, but by coercion. National Socialism became a by-word for cruelty. In 1934 it was officially admitted that 77 members of the party had been executed; the victims included a former Chancellor.

A German writer, Lion Feuchtwanger, declared in 1933, "The National Socialists have smashed the standards of civilised people to pieces."

### Hitler Launches the War

In foreign policy Hitler acquired quick successes. He pulled out of the League of Nations in 1933, reoccupied the Rhineland in 1936, and integrated Austria and Germany in 1938 under the slogan, *One people, One empire, and One leader*. He then went on to wrest German-speaking Sudetenland from Czechoslovakia, and gobbled up the entire country. In all of this he had the unspoken support of England, which had considered the Versailles verdict too

harsh. These quick successes at home and abroad seemed to reverse the destiny of the country.



*Nuremberg Rally, 1936*

In September 1939, Germany invaded Poland. This started a war with France and England. In September 1940, a Tripartite Pact was signed between Germany, Italy and Japan, strengthening Hitler's claim to international power. Puppet regimes, supportive of Nazi Germany, were installed in a large part of Europe. By the end of 1940, Hitler was at the pinnacle of his power having conquered France, Norway and Denmark.



*Hitler being greeted at the Party Congress in Nuremberg in 1938.*

Hitler moved to achieve his long-term aim of conquering Eastern Europe. He wanted to ensure food supplies and living space for Germans. He attacked the Soviet Union in June 1941. In this historic blunder Hitler exposed the German western front to British aerial bombing and the eastern front to the powerful Soviet armies. The Soviet Red Army inflicted a crushing and humiliating defeat on Germany at Stalingrad. After this the Soviet Red Army hounded out the retreating German soldiers until they reached the heart of Berlin, establishing Soviet hegemony over the entire Eastern Europe for half a century thereafter.

Meanwhile, the USA had resisted involvement in the war. But it could not stay out of the war for long. Japan was expanding its power in the east. It had occupied French Indochina and was planning attacks on US naval bases in the Pacific. When Japan extended its support to Hitler and bombed the US

base at Pearl Harbour, the US entered the Second World War. The war ended in May 1945 with Hitler's defeat and the US dropping of the atom bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki in Japan.

The country was partitioned after the war into East and West Germany, and the eastern part became a Russian satellite. Families were divided through the Berlin Wall. Eastern Germany followed the Russian model of a state controlled economy. It lagged far behind West Germany.

Nazism was a calamity for the people of Germany. The entire Europe and many other countries of the world suffered huge losses by way of men and material, just because of one man and his distorted ambitions.

Hitler's Concentration Camps at Auschwitz and Dachau (Munich, Germany) are blots on the history of mankind. Memorials have been built at these camps to remind people of the inhumanity of the Nazis under Hitler.

Nazism under Hitler was a complete negation of the democratic liberal values taught by the French Revolution. It also negated socialism, welfare of the workers and the poor brought about by the Russian Revolution. It was indeed one of the most horrible episodes in human history, which must never be repeated.



*Dropping of an Atom bomb an Hiroshima*

## Timeline : The Rise and Fall of Nazism

|                                                 |   |                                                                       |
|-------------------------------------------------|---|-----------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <b>Communist Manifesto 1848</b>                 | — | Led to reforms in western and central European countries.             |
| <b>End of 19th Century democratic socialism</b> | — | A new socialism, avoided revolution made democratic reforms.          |
| <b>1914</b>                                     | — | Hitler drifted to Munich                                              |
| <b>1917</b>                                     | — | Russian Communists, followers of Marxism, challenge social democracy. |
| <b>1919</b>                                     | — | Weimar Republic established in Germany.                               |
| <b>1923</b>                                     | — | Germany suffers the worst inflation. Hitler joins Munich uprising.    |
| <b>1924</b>                                     | — | First win for the Nazis.                                              |
| <b>1929</b>                                     | — | The Great Depression                                                  |
| <b>1930</b>                                     | — | Nazis emerge as the single largest party.                             |
| <b>1933</b>                                     | — | Hindenburg, the German President, appoints Hitler as the Chancellor.  |
| <b>1934</b>                                     | — | Hitler seizes power, becomes dictator after the death of Hindenburg.  |
| <b>1939</b>                                     | — | World plunged into World War II.                                      |
| <b>1934–1945</b>                                | — | Hitler sole ruler of Germany.                                         |
| <b>May 1945</b>                                 | — | Suicide by Hitler. Fall of Berlin.                                    |

## IMPORTANT TERMS

- o **Nazis** : Short form of National Socialist German Workers' Party.
- o **Mein Kampf 'My Struggle'** : Hitler's autobiography.
- o **Reichstag** : The German Parliament.
- o **Concentration camps** : Prisons where thousands of Jews were kept without trial, and under terrible conditions.
- o **Extermination camps** : Millions of Jews were killed in these camps in a horrible manner.

## EXERCISES

### I. Choose the correct answer.

- What was the 'historic blunder' committed by Hitler?
 

|                              |                        |
|------------------------------|------------------------|
| (a) Invasion of Poland       | (b) Invasion of France |
| (c) Invasion of Soviet Union | (d) None of these      |
- Choose the wrong pair.
 

|                            |                                   |
|----------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| (a) SA : Storm Troopers    | (b) Gestapo : Secret State Police |
| (c) SS : Protection Squads | (d) SD : Secret Dictator          |



3. Germany was finally defeated by the Allies in the Second World War in:  
 (a) 1942 (b) 1941 (c) 1943 (d) 1945
4. Which country dropped the atom bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki?  
 (a) USSR (b) USA (c) Germany (d) UK

5. Which world crisis is depicted by the picture given below?



- (a) Bank dacoity  
 (b) Great Depression  
 (c) World War II  
 (d) Gold baskets

6. Consider the statements given below and choose the correct answer.

**Statement I :** Just before the election, the Reichstag building was set on fire.

**Statement II :** Nazis themselves set the building on fire to create terror and fear among the people.

- (a) Statement (I) is correct and (II) is incorrect  
 (b) Statement (I) is incorrect and (II) is correct  
 (c) Both (I) and (II) are incorrect (d) Both (I) and (II) are correct

7. Arrange the following statements in sequential order based on the events that shaped Hitler's rise to power.

- (I) The Weimar Republic carried the burden of war guilt and national humiliation and was financially crippled.  
 (II) The Economic Depression (1929–32) quickened the crisis in Germany  
 (III) People lost faith in the Democratic Parliamentary system  
 (IV) The Nazis led by Hitler held out the promise of a bright future to the German people

- (a) (IV), (III), (II), (I) (b) (I), (II), (III), (IV)  
 (c) (IV), (II), (III), (I) (d) (II), (I), (III), (IV)

## II. Very Short Answer Type Questions.

- Who was called the Fuhrer?
- Which Act gave Hitler complete power in Germany and when was this act passed?
- What was the Gestapo?



## III. Short Answer Type Questions.

- Why is Nazism considered a calamity not only for Germany but also for the entire Europe?
- What are the peculiar features of Nazi thinking?
- Describe the special surveillance and security forces created to control society in Nazi Germany.



[HOTS]

#### IV. Long Answer Type Questions.

1. Discuss the crisis in Germany after the First World War.
2. Explain Nazism, its features and its main ideas.
3. Describe in detail Hitler's rise to power and its effect on Europe.
4. Discuss the problems faced by the Weimar Republic. Who were called the 'November Criminals'?



[HOTS]

#### THINGS TO DO

- | **Activity** : Collect pictures of Hitler and Nazi Germany.
- | **Assignment** : Read the "Diary of Anne Frank" to get an idea of what horrors the Jews had to suffer in Hitler's Germany. Describe, how you feel after reading the book.
- | Have a **class debate** on "Nobody can be more cruel to man than man himself."
- | **Role Play** : Form two groups. One will select a speech of Hitler and enact it. The other group will act out Shylock's speech from " Merchant of Venice" about Jews.



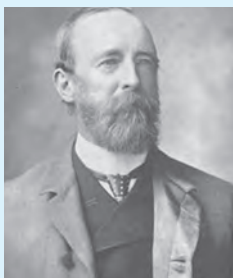
# CHAPTER 4

## Indian National Movement

### INDIAN NATIONAL CONGRESS



It was founded in December 1885 and the first step was taken by a retired Englishman, Mr. Allan Octavian Hume, a member of the Indian Civil Service. It had the blessings of the Viceroy, Lord Dufferin. Hume called for an association to be formed for the moral, social and political regeneration of the Indians. Many Indian leaders, Dadabhai Naoroji, Pherozeshah Mehta, Badruddin Tyabji supported it. Hume wanted this organisation to be an outlet (safety valve) to the discontentment among the Indians. He wanted to prevent the outbreak of a popular revolt.



*A.O. Hume*

The first session of the Congress was held in Bombay in December 1885, under the presidentship of Womesh Chandra Bonnerjee.

All regions were represented and members attending belonged to different religious faiths. The problems discussed



*W.C. Bonnerjee*

concerned every Indian, irrespective of his caste, language, region or religion. From the very start the Congress was an all India Secular Movement.



*First session of Indian National Congress*

### FACT FILE

#### Main Aims of the Congress

- ▮ To promote friendly relations between nationalists and political workers in various parts of the country.
- ▮ To develop feelings of unity.
- ▮ To formulate popular demands and place them before the Government.
- ▮ To train and organise public opinion in the country.

### Prominent Moderates/ Early Nationalists

- | W.C. Bonnerjee
- | Dadabhai Naoroji
- | Badruddin Tyabji
- | George Yule

- | Ferozeshah Mehta
- | S.N. Banerjee
- | M.G. Ranade
- | Gopal Krishna Gokhale
- | Pt. Madan Mohan Malaviya



Dadabhai Naoroji



G. K. Gokhale



Pherozeshah Mehta

Lord Curzon's highly unpopular measure of partitioning the state of Bengal led to an Assertive/Radical Nationalist movement. It was led by the three "Bal, Pal and Lal". The movement was called Swadeshi and Boycott movement. They wanted greater participation of Indians in the Government.



S.N. Banerjee

**Lala Lajpat Rai** inspired the Punjabis with a new national spirit and made them bold and patriotic. He died in 1928 as a result of lathi blows he received while leading a protest movement against Simon Commission. He was a great social reformer and educationist. He opened orphanages and hospitals. He set up 'Servants of the people Society' for the welfare of the downtrodden. He was an active worker of the Arya Samaj. He opposed the policy of the Early Nationalists: "After 20 years of peaceful agitation for bread what we have got is pebbles and stones." On his death Gandhiji said, "Men like Lalaji cannot die so long as the moon shines in the Indian sky."

**Bal Gangadhar Tilak** laid great stress on the sufferings and sacrifices of the people. He raised the slogan, "Freedom is my birth right and I shall have it." He was active in the Congress from 1890. In 1897 he was imprisoned for 18 months for his writings in his Marathi paper *Kesari*. He revived Ganapati and Shivaji festivals in Maharashtra to arouse national feelings. **Bipin Chandra Pal** stood for complete freedom.



*Lal-Bal-Pal (Lala Lajpat Rai, Bal Gangadhar Tilak and Bipin Chandra Pal)*

### **FACT FILE**

#### **Lala Lajpat Rai**

- Born : 1865 at Jagraon in Ludhiana district.
- Qualified for the bar, practised at Hissar, shifted to Lahore in 1886.
- Follower of the Arya Samaj.
- 1888 : joined the Congress.
- 1906 went to England.
- 1907 : joined the Extremists after the split in Congress.
- Believed in direct action, and agitated in Punjab for Reform in Agriculture.
- Deported to Mandalay with Sardar Ajit Singh.
- Started a newspaper 'Young India'.
- During the First World War was in the USA. Tried to win the sympathies of Americans for freedom of India.
- President of Congress in 1920, after his return.
- Given the title 'Punjab Kesari'
- Badly injured when he demonstrated against the Simon Commission.
- 1928 : died of injuries.
- Worked for the uplift of the depressed classes.
- Took leading part in the establishment of D.A.V. College, Lahore.
- Great patriot.



### **FACT FILE**

#### **Lokmanya Bal Gangadhar Tilak**

- Born : 1856, in Maharashtra
- 1875 : Acquired Law degree
- 'Kesari' and 'Mahratta' started
- 1896 – 97 worked in Deccan for the famine stricken people
- Told peasants not to pay taxes to the Government
- 1893 : celebrated Ganapati and 1895 : Shivaji Festivals
- Inspired people with the spirit of freedom, patriotism and nationalism
- Became a popular leader after the Partition of Bengal (1905)
- Opposed the Moderates
- Gave the slogan, "Freedom is my birth right and I shall have it."
- 1908 : imprisoned for six years
- 1916 : started Home Rule Movement
- 1918 : went to England, through his speeches made the English realise they were responsible for poverty in India.
- He infused new life in Indian politics, built self-confidence in the people to fight political tyranny.
- Forerunner of Gandhiji in many ways
- August 1, 1920 : India lost one of its great patriotic leaders.



## DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE METHODS OF THE MODERATES AND THE ASSERTIVE /RADICAL NATIONALISTS



Indian National Movement is divided into three phases: **Moderate phase** (1885-1905); **Assertive or Radical Nationalist phase** (1905-1919); and **Gandhian Era** (1919-1947). The Moderates believed in constitutional agitation and slow, orderly political progress. They believed that if public opinion was created and organised and popular demands presented to the authorities through petition, meetings, resolutions and speeches, the authorities would concede these demands gradually. Prominent Moderate or Early Nationalist leaders were—W.C. Bonnerjee, Dadabhai Naoroji, S.N. Banerjee, G.K. Gokhale and others. The Radical Nationalists believed that mass action alone could lead to swaraj or independence. They pressed for political work among the masses and for direct political action by the masses. The prominent Radical Nationalist leaders were—Lokmanya Tilak, Bipin Chandra Pal, Lala Lajpat Rai and Aurobindo Ghose.

1. The Moderates had full faith in the good intentions of the British Government. The Assertive/Radical Nationalists had no faith in them.
2. The Moderates wanted reforms within the British Government. The Assertive/Radical Nationalists wanted 'Swaraj' or full independence.
3. Moderates used constitutional means; the Assertive/Radical Nationalists wanted to achieve

their aims by force of their own strength.

4. The Moderates were led by educated intellectuals. The Assertive/Radical Nationalists made great sacrifices and drew masses into the struggle. This was their greatest contribution, mobilising the young in the National Movement.

### FACT FILE

#### **Bipin Chandra Pal**

- *Born : 1858, at Sylhet, now in Bangladesh.*
- *Career : Began as the Headmaster of a High School in Cuttack, then as Headmaster of a High School in Bangalore.*
- *1876 : Joined the Brahmo Samaj Movement. In later life became a total convert to Orthodox Hinduism.*
- *1887 : Joined the Chennai Congress. Made a Powerful speech against Arms Act.*
- *1900 : Visited England and the United States.*
- *1901 : Started **New India**, a journal; wonderful orator, spoke for **Swadeshi and boycott**.*
- *1907 : In the Surat session joined Tilak and Lala Lajpat Rai.*
- *1908 : Released from prison after 6 months on March 9, 1908. He was charged with supporting Aurobindo Ghose.*
- *1920 : Did not support Gandhiji's Non-Cooperation Movement. He wanted India to take sterner measures against the British.*
- *1932 : Died. Shri Aurobindo referred to him as "One of the mightiest prophets of nationalism."*



## THE SWADESHI AND BOYCOTT MOVEMENT (1905-1907)



The Partition of Bengal created widespread dissatisfaction and discontent all over the country. This indignation all over the country created a turbulent atmosphere and led to the Boycott and Swadeshi Movements. “Swadeshi” means “of one’s own country.” It aimed at the promotion of indigenous industries and boycott of British goods. They were very powerful weapons directed against British rule. Lala Lajpat Rai called Swadeshi “the salvation of my country.” About boycott he said, “It strikes at the prestige of the Government. We want to turn the peoples’ faces away from the Government House to the huts of people.” At the Calcutta Session of the Congress in 1906, the new programme of the Assertive Nationalists was sponsored by Dadabhai Naoroji. For the first time ‘Swaraj’ became the aim of the Congress. A resolution regarding self-government was adopted for the first time from the Congress platform. Promotion of national education was declared as an aim of the Congress. The

Swadeshi and Boycott movements spread to almost all parts of the country. Shops selling foreign goods were picketed. Students also played an important part in the movement. The national movement became a mass movement. The traditionally home centred women of the urban middle classes too joined the movement in a big way.

### FACT FILE

*Bengal was divided into two provinces —Eastern Bengal joined with Assam and Western Bengal joined with Bihar and Orissa. Eastern Bengal had a population of 31 million, dominated by Bengali Muslims. West Bengal had a population of 54 million, dominated by non-Bengali population. In both the provinces Bengali Hindus became a minority. The Bengalis considered it a big blow to their culture and literature.*

Lokmanya Tilak popularised the movement in Poona and Bombay. Lala Lajpat Rai and Sardar Ajit Singh led the movement in the Punjab. Syed Haidar Raza was the leader in Delhi and Chidambaram Pillai in Madras.

The movement gave a stimulus to the growth of indigenous industries and crafts. Swadeshi factories came into existence everywhere. It saw the growth of Swadeshi textiles, soap, and match factories, tanneries, banks, insurance companies, shops, etc.

The Swadeshi influence was seen in the cultural sphere also. Its influence was seen on music, science and art. Songs



Posters during Swadeshi and  
Boycott movement

composed by Rabindranath Tagore, Rajni Kant Sen and Syed Abu Mohammad became the songs of the Nationalist Movement. But the split in the Congress in 1907 and the repressive measures taken by the British Government, led to the end of Swadeshi Movement in 1908.

When the movement spread in many parts of India, the Government reacted to the Boycott and Swadeshi movement with strong repressive measures. Meetings were banned and singing of “Bande Mataram” composed by Bankim Chandra, was prohibited. Students who participated in the movement were arrested. Processions were *lathi*-charged. Many leaders were arrested and nationalist newspapers were banned.

### The Surat Split (1907)

The Moderates and the Assertive Nationalists came into open conflict in 1907 when the 23rd session of the Congress was held at Surat. The Moderates wanted to modify the resolutions passed at the Calcutta session regarding Swadeshi and Boycott. The Assertive Nationalists were offended by these moves. The Moderates did not want the movement to be intensified. They had no place in the Congress any more. This split in the Congress lasted till 1916.

## EARLY REVOLUTIONARY MOVEMENT

In the first decade of the 20th century various revolutionary movements started in



India. The early revolutionary groups were mainly in Bengal, Maharashtra, Punjab and Tamil Nadu. The methods of petitions followed by the Moderates did not appeal to the revolutionary youth. In their eyes, even the Assertive Nationalists had failed to evolve forms of political struggle to achieve their aims. The ever increasing repression of the British Government inclined the revolutionary youth to follow the methods of the Irish nationalists and Russian extremists. They organised assassinations of unpopular British officials. Their aim was to strike terror in the heart of the rulers. They wanted to remove fear from the mind of the public and arouse patriotic feelings in them.

V.D. Savarkar founded ‘Abhinava Bharata’, a secret society of revolutionaries. It preached the gospel of freedom. In Bengal “Anushilan Samiti” and “Jugantar Dal” were formed and the latter brought out a periodical named *Jugantar*. They openly preached the doctrine of armed revolt. In 1907, an unsuccessful attempt was made on the life of Lt. Governor of Bengal. On April 30, 1908, Khudiram Bose and Prafulla Chaki threw a bomb at a carriage which they believed to be occupied by an extremely unpopular English judge. But it unfortunately killed an English lady and her daughter. Prafulla Chaki shot himself dead while Khudiram Bose was tried and later hanged on August 11, 1908.



*Lala Hardayal, M.L. Dhangra, S.S. Bhakna*

Attempts were also made on the life of two Viceroy, Minto and Hardinge, by the most spectacular revolutionary group led by Ras Behari Bose. Bose, along with his three comrades, Bal Mukund, Awadh Behari and Amirchand, threw a bomb on Lord Hardinge at Delhi. Ras Behari escaped to Japan but his three comrades were arrested, tried and hanged. Other revolutionaries were Lala Hardayal in Punjab and Madan Lal Dhangra, who operated from London. In fact the revolutionaries organised movements outside India, in America and Europe also. The most prominent among these was the “Ghadar Party” (meaning mutiny). These movements collected money for the use of revolutionaries in India. They tried to smuggle arms and incited soldiers to rebel in India, as well as Burma and Singapore.

In all, 186 revolutionaries were killed or convicted between 1908 – 1918.

## **FORMATION OF THE MUSLIM LEAGUE**



The British had followed a deliberate policy of ‘Divide and Rule’ in India after the Revolt of 1857. In the beginning they discriminated against the Muslims and they were kept out of the army

and the services. But with the growth of Nationalism and the rise of the Congress, the Government changed its policy. They branded the Congress as a Hindu Movement and encouraged the upper class Muslims to start their own separate organisations against the Congress. The British openly propagated the idea that India consisted of mutually different and antagonist religions based on communities. They took every opportunity to encourage the communalists.

The first step can be traced back to 1883, which was led by Sir Syed Ahmad Khan. The Muslims demanded separate representation in local bodies. Sir Syed also discouraged the Muslims from joining the Congress.

At the Calcutta Session of the Indian National Congress in 1906, a large number of Muslim delegates attended. Mohammad Ali Jinnah (who later led a movement for the separate state of Pakistan) moved a motion against the reservation of seats. He said that “the Indian National Congress is based on the principle that we are all equal and there should be no reservation for any class or community.”

However, slowly the communal elements among the Muslims became strong. They feared that the concessions given to them by the British Government would be withdrawn, and the interest of the upper and the middle Muslim classes would suffer. Some of the activities of the Extremist, associated with Hindu revivalism, also made them suspicious (Ganapati Puja, observing Shivaji Divas, etc.).



*M.A. Jinnah*

On 1st October, 1906, a Muslim delegation led by His Highness, the then Agha Khan, met the Viceroy Lord Minto at Shimla. The Agha Khan was an extremely rich person and led a life of luxury in Europe. He was accompanied by Nawab Salimullah of Dacca (now called Dhaka). They were encouraged by the Viceroy and within three months, on **30th December, 1906 the Muslim League was formed.**

### **Aims and Objectives of the League**

- (a) To promote, among the Muslims of India, feelings of loyalty to the British Government and to remove any misconception that may arise due to the intentions of the Government with regard to Indian Muslims.
- (b) To protect and advance the political rights of the Muslims in India and respectfully represent their needs and aspirations to the Government.
- (c) To prevent the rise among the Muslims of India of any feeling of hostility towards other communities without prejudice to the aforesaid object of the league.

One of the major objectives of the League was to keep the Muslims away from joining the Indian National Congress. Their activities were directed against the Congress and the Hindus, and not against the colonial regime.

However, in spite of the Muslim League, more and more Muslims were drawn into the Nationalist Movement. In 1912, Maulana Abul Kalam Azad founded the 'Al Hilal' and Maulana Mohammad Ali started the 'Comrade' in English and 'Hamdard' in Urdu. These papers preached national fervour and supported the popular cause.



*Maulana Azad*

In 1913, the Muslim League also adopted the goal of self-government for India. The same year, Jinnah joined the Muslim League.

Many important events propelled the emergence of Mahatma Gandhi on the Indian political scene. We will read about them to understand the methods and ideals of Gandhiji.

### **THE EMERGENCE OF GANDHI**

Mohandas Karamchand Gandhi was born on October



2, 1869 at Porbandar, in Kathiawar in Gujarat. He was the son of the Diwan of a small state. His mother Putlibai was a very religious lady, and had a deep influence on him. Gandhiji went to England in 1888 to study law. He came back to India in 1891, after completing his studies, he started practice as a lawyer, first in Rajkot and then in Bombay.



*Mahatma Gandhi*

After this he went to South Africa and started practising there. It was in South Africa that he was attracted to politics. He was shocked by the conditions of the Indians there and the racist and discriminatory policy of the South African Government. He decided to fight against injustice. He based his fight on the principle of non-violent resistance. He organised the Natal Indian Congress and launched a campaign against the South African Government. After a successful and significant political career in South Africa he returned to India in January 1915.

He was given a hero's welcome in India. After acquainting himself with the political situation in India, he plunged into politics. His first political move was to give all-out support to the British during the war. He appealed to the Indians to help the British with men and money as he firmly believed that they would give freedom to India after the war.

In 1915 Gandhiji established his Sabarmati Ashram at Ahmedabad on the bank of river Sabarmati.

He toured all over India for a year to get a first hand experience of its problems and aspirations. In 1917, he travelled to Champaran and organised a satyagraha on behalf of the oppressed indigo peasants. He was able to undo the wrongs and redress the grievances of the peasants. He organised another successful satyagraha in 1917 on behalf of the peasants of the Kheda district of Gujarat. Affected by crop failure and an epidemic peasants had been demanding exemption from revenue payment. He successfully mediated between the peasants and the government. Then in 1918, Gandhiji went to Ahmedabad to organise a satyagraha movement amongst cotton mill workers. He was again successful. Thus, these early successes made Gandhiji very popular and catapulted him to the status of a mass leader.

Gandhiji's greatest social achievement was his campaign against 'Untouchability'. He gave the untouchables a new name —

Harijans— and he lived with them in the Harijan Colony in Delhi. He also started a journal ‘Harijan’.

His other great contribution was in the field of cottage industry. He promoted the *charkha* and the spinning wheel became the symbol of the Congress flag. He firmly believed that in the *charkha*, which stood for cottage industries, the villagers in India will find progress. Throughout his life he fought against communalism and worked for Hindu-Muslim unity. He considered communalism to be anti-national and under his leadership Hindu-Muslims worked together for India’s independence.

### THE JALLIANWALA BAGH TRAGEDY (APRIL 13, 1919)



There were hartals, strikes and demonstrations against the British Government for passing the Rowlatt Act. On April 6, 1919 there was a nationwide hartal and Gandhiji was arrested. In Punjab, two prominent leaders of the Congress, Dr Kitchlew and Dr Satya Pal, were arrested at Amritsar. To protest against these arrests a large crowd gathered at Jallianwala Bagh on April 13, 1919. General Dyer, with his troops, entered the park and closed the only exit. Without giving any warning he ordered his troops to fire. There were hundreds of women, children and old men attending a very peaceful meeting. Dyer left with 1000 dead and more than 2000 wounded lying on the ground. Dyer’s act was one of the most brutal in the history of

India’s fight for freedom and it shocked even many Englishmen. It sent a wave of anger and shock throughout the country.

### THE NON-COOPERATION MOVEMENT (1920–22)



The aims of this Movement were to redress the wrongs done to Punjab and Turkey and to achieve the aim of Swaraj. Gandhiji planned to wreck the Government in the country by not co-operating with it any more. At the Nagpur Session in December 1920, the Non-Cooperation Movement was approved and launched.

It was a programme of peaceful agitation against the Government and it included :

1. Boycott of foreign goods and the use of Swadeshi.
2. Surrender of Government posts and titles.
3. Boycott of courts by lawyers.
4. Boycott of government schools and colleges by students.
5. Non-payment of taxes.

It was also decided to organise a corps of 150,000 volunteers to carry on the campaign of Non-Cooperation.

The campaign met with great success.

- (i) Many leaders like C.R. Das, Motilal Nehru, Jawaharlal Nehru and Seth Jamnalal Bajaj took part in the Movement.
- (ii) Bonfires were organised and foreign goods were set on fire.
- (iii) The *Charkha* and the *Takla* were seen in every house.

- (iv) All *Satyagrahis* started wearing *khadi*.
- (v) People resigned from Government jobs and returned their titles.
- (vi) Students left educational institutions. A new programme of national education was started like the Jamia Millia, the Kashi Vidyapeeth, Gujarat Vidyapeeth and Lahore National College. Hindus, Muslims, Sikhs joined hands in thousands to oppose the British rule. In the middle of the agitation the Prince of Wales arrived in India and he was met by strikes and demonstrations on November 17, 1921.

The police resorted to firing and brutal measures. All the top leaders, except Gandhiji, were arrested. By the beginning of 1922, about 30,000 persons were in jail.



*Non-Cooperation Movement*

### Withdrawal of the Movement

In December 1921, at the Ahmedabad session, the Congress decided to continue

the movement till Swaraj was attained and Punjab and the Khilafat grievances were redressed.

Suddenly the peaceful agitation took a violent turn. At Chauri Chaura, a village in district Gorakhpur (U.P.), the police opened fire on a peaceful procession of peasants. This angered the demonstrators and they attacked and burnt a police station. About 22 policemen were killed in this attack. Mahatma Gandhi, a staunch believer of non-violence, realised that the nation was not yet prepared for a mass movement in a peaceful and disciplined manner. He took upon himself the moral responsibility of the riot and suspended the movement in 1922. The Congress decided to concentrate on Hindu-Muslim Unity, making the *charkha* popular and combating untouchability.



*Chauri Chaura memorial*

The Congress leaders, most of whom were in jails, were shocked and disappointed by Gandhiji's decision. Gandhiji was sentenced to six years

imprisonment, but released after two years only in February 1924.

### CONGRESS SESSION AT LAHORE (1929)



The Congress Session held at Lahore in 1929, under the presidentship of Jawaharlal Nehru, was an extremely significant one. The Congress passed a resolution declaring ‘Poorna Swaraj’ or Complete Independence as its goal. It was decided that from now onwards 26th January would be observed as the Independence Day all over the country. Since we got independence on 15th August it was decided to observe 26th January as our Republic Day. The session also decided to launch the **Civil Disobedience Movement** under the leadership of Mahatma Gandhi.

### LATER REVOLUTIONARY MOVEMENT



Before the Movement was launched two events aroused popular resentment against the British. On March 29, labour leaders were arrested on the charge of conspiracy. Three among the leaders were Englishmen. They were taken to Meerut and their trial lasted for four years. It was known as the **Meerut Conspiracy Case**. Many defence committees were formed all over the country and even in England and other foreign countries. The nationalist leaders organised legal defence for them. Some of them were acquitted. This scared the British Government and they issued the

**Public Safety Ordinance in 1929** to remove from India people it considered, “Anti-British and foreign communist agents”. There were foreigners, even Englishmen, who helped the Indian National Movement. It also passed a law curbing trade union activities.



Revolutionary activities increased after the Non-Cooperation Movement was called off. In 1928, a new revolutionary association called the Hindustan Socialist Republican Association was founded by Chandra Shekhar Azad, Bhagat Singh and Sukh Dev, along with others. On 8 April 1929, Bhagat Singh and Batukeshwar Dutt threw a bomb at Government benches in the Central Legislative Assembly. There were no casualties and both Bhagat Singh and Dutt surrendered. The police caught other members of the Association also. Bhagat Singh, Sukh Dev and Rajguru were hanged. Chandra Shekhar Azad died in an encounter with the police in Allahabad. The Revolutionaries, though they took to violence and bloodshed, had the noble aim of bringing about a political and economic revolution in India.

## CIVIL DISOBEDIENCE MOVEMENT (1930 – 1934)



Mahatma Gandhi found in salt a powerful symbol that could unite the nation. On 31 January 1930, he sent a letter to Lord Irwin, the Viceroy, stating eleven demands. The demands were wide-ranging, covering the aspirations of all sections of Indians. The most important demand was to abolish the salt tax. The tax on salt and the government monopoly over its production revealed the most exploitative facet of the British rule. The demands were an ultimatum to the Viceroy; if they were not fulfilled by 11 March 1930, the letter stated the Congress would launch a Civil Disobedience Movement. Lord Irwin refused any sort of negotiation. So Gandhiji began the Dandi March.

The Civil Disobedience began with Gandhiji breaking the Salt Law. He started with a band of 78 followers from Sabarmati Ashram on foot, on March 13, 1930 for Dandi, a small village along the seashore of Gujarat. This historic march was taken by Gandhiji to defy the salt tax. He asked people to manufacture contraband salt. He had started with only a few followers but thousands of men and women joined him as he marched forward. The distance from Ahmedabad to Dandi was covered in 24 days. His 'Dandi March' aroused the whole nation. He symbolically made some salt at Dandi on April 6, 1930 as the start of the Civil Disobedience Movement. People all over India broke the Salt Law. They boycotted foreign goods and lit bonfires,

picketed liquor shops and made public servants give up their jobs.



**The Dandi march.** During the salt march Mahatma Gandhi was accompanied by 78 volunteers. On the way they were joined by thousands.

The Government adopted stern measures. Gandhiji and Jawaharlal Nehru were arrested. People were *lathi*-charged and by the beginning of 1931, 1000 persons were jailed and 67 newspapers had been banned. The Congress was declared illegal. But the movement could not be crushed. In April and May 1930 three acts of defiance shook the British Government. In Peshawar, Indian soldiers refused to fire at the demonstrators when ordered to do so. In Sholapur, martial law had to be imposed to curb mass demonstrations. In Chittagong, the revolutionaries captured the armoury and a pitched battle took place between them and the Government forces.

## THE ROUND TABLE CONFERENCE



The Government released Gandhi in January 1931. On March 5, 1931, an agreement was concluded between Gandhiji and the then Viceroy

Lord Irwin. This pact is known as **Gandhi-Irwin Pact**, under which the movement was called off. The Government promised to release all political prisoners and withdraw all pending cases against political workers. People, living close to the sea, were allowed to manufacture salt without being taxed. Gandhiji agreed to attend the Second Round Table Conference in London in 1931.

Gandhiji demanded complete independence for India at the conference. But the British played the game of Divide and Rule, and the talks broke down.

Gandhiji returned to India, and the Civil Disobedience Movement was resumed in 1932. Mahatma Gandhi, Sardar Patel, the then President of the Congress, and other leaders were arrested. The Government again resorted to repressive measures. The movement continued for two more years and about 1,20,000 persons were imprisoned. In May 1934, the Civil Disobedience Movement was called off.



*The Second Round Table Conference*

## THE QUIT INDIA MOVEMENT (1942)



The Quit India Movement started in 1942. The **reasons** for starting the same were the following.

1. The Cripps Mission (March, 1942) failed to solve the constitutional problem of India. It led to discontent, dissatisfaction and anger. The Indian people were filled with distrust and hostility towards the British. The failure of the Mission had deprived the leaders of the opportunity to cooperate fully in war efforts.

2. The war situation worsened in the summer of 1942. Japan was rapidly advancing towards India and there was a growing threat of Japanese invasion on India. The Congress leaders were of the view that to save India from the Japanese attack, it is necessary that the British withdrew from India. The responsibility of the Japanese attack on India lay on the British because the English were the rulers of India. The Indians were anxious to save their country but their slavery was a great hindrance in their way. So they decided to launch a movement calling upon the British to handover power to the Indians and quit the country.

3. Gandhiji firmly believed that an orderly and peaceful withdrawal of the British can save India from internal anarchy and foreign aggression.

A meeting of the All India Congress Committee (AICC) was held at Bombay on August 8, 1942. It passed the famous Quit India resolution. It authorised Gandhiji to launch the Quit India Movement against the British on non-violent lines and the

widest possible scale. Gandhiji raised the slogan 'Do or Die' and declared that it would be his final struggle for the freedom of the country. In his own words, *"I am not going to be satisfied with anything short of complete freedom .... We shall do or die. We shall either free India or die in the attempt."* The official machinery moved with the lightning speed and arrested Gandhiji and other leaders of the Congress in the early hours of the morning of August 9, 1942. A large number of Congressmen were also put behind the bars. The Government declared the Congress illegal and banned all its activities. The funds of the Congress were confiscated.



*Gandhiji and other leaders at the launch of the Quit India Movement*

The news of the arrest of Gandhiji and other Congress leaders spread like a wildfire. The people started the Quit India Movement over the whole of the country. The people were leaderless, unorganised, unprepared and undirected. So the movement assumed a violent turn. They observed hartals and took out processions and organised demonstrations. Public life came to a standstill and all business was suspended. People became

violent and burnt post offices, telegraph offices, police stations, railway stations and other Government buildings. They cut off telegraph, telephone and electric lines. Bridges were blown up and roads were dug up. They shot down notorious police officers and hurled bombs upon them. The movement became a popular upsurge and the whole country rose to overthrow the British Rule. It was the last mass-uprising against the British Rule in India.

- There was much tension and the Government got alarmed and became nervous.
- It adopted a repressive policy to suppress the movement. Thousands people were imprisoned without trial.
- The undertrials were tortured. Lathi-charge, firing, beating and flogging became the order of the day.
- Women were insulted and humiliated.
- Children were beaten mercilessly.
- Many villages were looted and burnt, Collective fines were also imposed.
- By using repressive measures the Government ultimately succeeded in crushing the movement within a few weeks.
- The revolt was short-lived but very intensive. About 10,000 people died in firing and about 70,000 were put behind the bars. Such wide-scale and intensive repressions had not been seen in India since the Rising of 1857.

### IMPORTANT NOTE

Here are some important points of Gandhiji's emergence.

- 1869 — October 2 : Birth of Mohandas Karamchand Gandhi at Porbandar, Kathiawar in Gujarat.
- 1891 — Went to England to study law.
- 1893 to 1914 — Went to South Africa.  
Organised Natal Indian Congress and launched a peaceful campaign against the South African Government.
- 1915 — Returned to India in January. Established Sabarmati Ashram at Ahmedabad on the banks of river Sabarmati.
- 1919-1920 — The tragedy of Jallianwala Bagh and the Khilafat Movement made Gandhiji launch his Non-Cooperation Movement.
- 1920-1922 — Non-Cooperation Movement based on Gandhian Principle of Swadeshi and Satyagraha. Boycott of British goods.
- 1922 — The Chauri Chaura incident in February which led to violence and death of 22 policemen, made Gandhiji call off the Movement.
- 1922 — Gandhiji decided to concentrate on Hindu-Muslim unity and making *charkha* popular.  
Gandhiji arrested and sentenced to six years imprisonment on March 10.
- 1930-1934 — Gandhiji launched the Civil Disobedience Movement
- 1942 — Quit India Movement

### Timeline

- |             |                                                                        |
|-------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <b>1885</b> | — <b>Indian National Congress</b> founded by A.O. Hume.                |
| <b>1898</b> | — Curzon became the Viceroy                                            |
| <b>1905</b> | — Partition of Bengal.                                                 |
| <b>1905</b> | — Japan defeats Russia                                                 |
| <b>1906</b> | — <b>The Swadeshi and Boycott Movement at its height</b>               |
| <b>1907</b> | — The Surat split — Assertive Nationalists worked separately till 1916 |
| <b>1909</b> | — Morley-Minto Reforms                                                 |

|                  |   |                                                                                                                                                 |
|------------------|---|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <b>1912</b>      | — | Maulana Azad founded the Al Hilal and Maulana Mohammad Ali Jauhar founded the Hamdard and the Comrade                                           |
| <b>1913</b>      | — | Jinnah joins the Muslim League.                                                                                                                 |
| <b>1914-1918</b> | — | <b>First World War</b>                                                                                                                          |
| <b>1916</b>      | — | Home Rule Leagues founded by Tilak and Annie Besant.                                                                                            |
| <b>1916</b>      | — | The Lucknow Pact. Moderates and Assertive Nationalists join hands. The Muslim League agreed to make joint demands, work together with Congress. |
| <b>1919-1947</b> | — | <b>The Gandhian Era</b>                                                                                                                         |
| <b>1919</b>      | — | Rowlatt Act passed                                                                                                                              |
| <b>1919</b>      | — | The Massacre at Jallianwala Bagh.                                                                                                               |
| <b>1920</b>      | — | <b>The Non-Cooperation Movement under the leadership of Gandhiji.</b>                                                                           |
| <b>1922</b>      | — | The Chauri Chaura incident. Non-Cooperation Movement called off.                                                                                |
| <b>1930-34</b>   | — | <b>Civil Disobedience Movement</b>                                                                                                              |
| <b>1942</b>      | — | <b>Quit India Movement</b>                                                                                                                      |

## IMPORTANT TERMS

### 1. Rise of Indian Nationalism : 1858 – 1919

- o **Political Awakening** : Rise of national feelings.
- o **Self-Government** : Rule by the people of the country.
- o **Moderates** : Those members of the National Congress who believed in peaceful and constitutional means.
- o **Assertive Nationalists** : Those members of the Congress who wanted to achieve Swaraj through mass movements or by force of their own strength.
- o **Swadeshi** : Of one's own country.
- o **Boycott** : Not to buy anything British.
- o **Swaraj** : Self-Government.
- o **Revolutionary Movement** : Movements that used violent methods to terrorise British officials and damage the government.

### 2. National Movement : 1919 – 1927

- o **Gandhian Era** : The period from 1919 to 1947.
- o **Satyagraha** : The non-violent method of fighting against imperialism, used by Gandhiji.

- o **Khadi** : Coarse cloth spun by handloom.
- o **Charkha** : Spinning wheel, the symbol of India's freedom movement.
- o **Hartal** : Suspension of all work as a protest against injustice.
- o **Khilafat Movement** : A movement in support of the Khilafat of Turkey, started by Ali brothers.
- o **Non-Cooperation Movement** : A movement which boycotted the legislatures, law courts, educational institutions, and campaigned for non-payment of taxes.

## POINTS TO REMEMBER

- | **Rise of Nationalism : Early Phase (1858 – 1905).**
- | Indian Nationalism begins in 19th century due to unification of India under the British. Social reformers, rise of education factors, etc. Main reason — British rule inimical to all sections of society.
- | Indian National Congress founded in 1885. A.O. Hume played an important role. Moderates programme. Representation in the provincial and legislative councils. Self-rule within the British Government. Leaders — Dadabhai Naoroji, Pherozeshah Mehta, Gokhale.
- | Partition of Bengal 1905 : led to rise of Assertive Nationalist leaders — Bal, Pal and Lal. Demanded Swaraj. They believed in putting up a fight for freedom. Boycott and Swadeshi Movements started by the Assertive Nationalists. Great upsurge. National Movement becomes a Mass Movement.
- | 1907 — Surat Congress — Split between the Moderates and the Assertive Nationalists. Assertive Nationalists leave Congress till 1916.
- | **Muslim League** : Founded in 1906. **Aim** : to prevent Muslims from joining Congress.
- | Rise of Revolutionary Movement — Bengal, Maharashtra, Tamil Nadu and Punjab centres. Aim to terrorise British officials and demoralise them. Their heroism helped in growth of Nationalism.
- | In spite of Muslim League, more and more Muslims joined the Congress.
- | Maulana Azad founded *Al Hilal* in Persian.
- | **Nationalist Movement from 1919 – 1927 becomes a Mass Movement.**
- | The Khilafat and Non-Cooperation Movements begin in 1920. Gandhiji emerges as the leader.
- | With his two weapons of Non-violence and *Satyagraha*, Gandhi challenges British might, Non-Cooperation movement a great success.
- | Mass Movement, great unity between people. The British use extremely repressive measures.
- | The Chauri Chaura incident of 1922, when 22 policemen were killed, made Gandhiji withdraw the movement. Great disappointment among Congress leaders.

## EXERCISES

### I. Choose the correct answer.



1. The first session of the Congress was held in :  
(a) Calcutta, 1886      (b) Bombay, 1885  
(c) Surat, 1887      (d) Bombay, 1889
2. "Freedom is my birthright and I shall have it" was a slogan given by :  
(a) Gandhiji      (b) Bipin Chandra Pal  
(c) Subhash Chandra Bose      (d) Lokmanya Bal Gangadhar Tilak
3. When was Bengal partitioned?  
(a) 1905      (b) 1907      (c) 1906      (d) 1911
4. The famous 'Dandi March' of Gandhiji began on :  
(a) 12 April, 1930      (b) 22 April, 1930  
(c) 1 April, 1930      (d) None of the above
5. The slogan "Do or Die" was given to the nation by :  
(a) Bhagat Singh      (b) V.D. Savarkar  
(c) Mahatma Gandhi      (d) Rash Behari Bose
6. There are two statements marked as Assertion (A) and Reason (R). Mark your answer as per the codes provided below.  
**Assertion (A)** : The violence at Chauri Chaura prompted Gandhiji to call-off the Non-Cooperation Movement.  
**Reason (R)** : Mahatma Gandhi realised that the nation was not yet prepared for a peaceful and disciplined mass movement.  
(a) Both (A) and (R) are true and (R) is the correct explanation of (A)  
(b) Both (A) and (R) are true but (R) is not the correct explanation of (A)  
(c) (A) is correct but (R) is wrong  
(d) (A) is wrong but (R) is correct

7.



What was the contribution of the above personality in the national movement?

- (a) He was a close associate of Mahatma Gandhi
- (b) He played a pivotal role in founding the Indian National Congress

- (c) He took an active part in the Non-Cooperation Movement
  - (d) As a Viceroy, he partitioned Bengal
8. Arrange the following statements in sequential order based on the events.
- (I) General Dyer opened fire at the large crowd gathered in the enclosed ground of Jallianwalla Bagh.
  - (II) "Forced recruitment" carried out by the British government and the economic hardships faced by the people during the first world war.
  - (III) The defeat of the Ottoman Emperor of Turkey led to the formation of the Khaliqat movement.
  - (IV) Gandhiji launched a nationwide satyagraha against the Rowlatt Act.
- |                            |                            |
|----------------------------|----------------------------|
| (a) (IV), (III), (II), (I) | (b) (II), (I), (III), (IV) |
| (c) (I), (IV), (III), (II) | (d) (I), (II), (III), (IV) |

## II. Very Short Answer Type Questions.

1. Who was the first President of Indian National Congress?
2. Why did the leaders of the Indian National Congress want association with Britain in the beginning and not separation?
3. Name the Viceroy who divided Bengal into two provinces. What was his real motive?
4. Mention two acts of Bal Gangadhar Tilak to inculcate self-confidence and national pride among the Indian people.
5. When did Gandhiji enter Indian politics and what were the two new weapons he used in the struggle for independence?
6. Mention two aims of the Non-Cooperation Movement.



## III. Short Answer Type Questions.

1. Describe the main contributions of the following leaders :
  - (a) Bal Gangadhar Tilak
  - (b) Lala Lajpat Rai
  - (c) Bipin Chandra Pal
2. How did the people of Bengal react to the Partition of Bengal?
3. How did the National Movement become mass movement after 1919? **[HOTS]**
4. What were the main aims of the Muslim League?
5. 'Mahatma Gandhi found in salt a powerful symbol that could unite the nation.' Explain. **[HOTS]**



## IV. Long Answer Type Questions.

1. Discuss the impact and significance of the Boycott and Swadeshi Movement.



2. Which factors contributed to the awakening of national consciousness among the Indian people?

[HOTS]

3. Give an estimate of Gandhiji's role in India's struggle for freedom.

4. Describe the main features of the Quit India Movement.

#### THINGS TO DO

- | **Activity** : Read "My Experiments with Truth," the autobiography written by Gandhiji. Write about some of his childhood experiences and how they have impressed you.
- | **Assignment** : Imagine that you were involved in the Indian national movement. Based on your reading of this chapter, briefly write about the methods of struggle you preferred and your vision of a free India.
- | **Class Discussion** : Have a class discussion about the Jallianwala Bagh Massacre. Compare it to some modern incident and compare the outcome or result of such massacres.



#### Picture Question

- | Identify the person.
- | Two Important events of his life.
- | The slogan he gave to the national movement.
- | What do you learn from his life?



#### CASE – BASED QUESTIONS

Read the following short passage and answer the questions given.

##### Tryst With Destiny

Long years ago we made a tryst with destiny, and now the time comes when we shall redeem our pledge, not wholly or in full measure, but very substantially. At the stroke of the midnight hour, when the world sleeps, India will awake to life and freedom. A moment comes, which comes but rarely in history, when we step out from the old to the new, then an age ends, and when the soul of a nation, long suppressed, finds utterance.

It is fitting that at this solemn moment we take the pledge of dedication to the service of India and her people and to the still larger cause of humanity.

.....

The achievement we celebrate today is but a step, an opening of opportunity, to the greater triumphs and achievements that await us. Are we brave enough and wise enough to grasp this opportunity and accept the challenge of the future?

Freedom and power bring responsibility. The responsibility rests upon this assembly, a



sovereign body representing the sovereign people of India. Before the birth of freedom we have endured all the pains of labour and our hearts are heavy with the memory of this sorrow. Some of those pains continue even now. Nevertheless, the past is over and it is the future that beckons to us now.

That future is not one of ease or resting but of incessant striving so that we might fulfil the pledges we have so often taken and the one we shall take today. The service of India means the service of the millions who suffer. It means the ending of poverty and ignorance and disease and inequality of opportunity.

The ambition of the greatest man of our generation has been to wipe every tear from every eye. That may be beyond us, but as long as there are tears and suffering, so long our work will not be over.

The appointed day has come — the day appointed by destiny — and India stands forth again, after long slumber and struggle, awake vital, free and independent. The past clings on to us still in some measure and we have to do much before we redeem the pledges we have so often taken. Yet the turning point is past, and history begins anew for us, the history which we shall live and act and others will write about.

On this day our first thoughts go to the architect of this freedom, the father of our nation, who embodying old spirit of India, held aloft the torch of freedom and lighted up the darkness that surrounded us.

We have often been unworthy followers of his and have strayed from his message, but not only we but succeeding generations will remember this message and bear the imprint in their hearts of this great son of India, magnificent in his faith and courage and humility. We shall never allow that torch of freedom to be blown out, however high the wind or stormy the tempest.

.....  
The future beckons to us. Whither do we go and what shall be our endeavour? To bring freedom and opportunity to the common man, to the peasants and workers of India; to fight and end poverty and ignorance and disease; to build up a prosperous, democratic and progressive nation, and to create social, economic and political institutions which will ensure justice and fullness of life to every man and woman.

We have hard work ahead. There is no resting for any one of us till we redeem our pledge in full, till we make all.

1. Who delivered the speech? What is the occasion?
2. Describe the contribution of M.K. Gandhi to the freedom struggle as highlighted in the speech.
3. “We have hard work ahead.” Explain.
4. “The service of India means the service of the millions who suffer.” Explain.

## UNIT - II

# TOPOGRAPHY OF INDIA

Marks : 18

Periods : 44

## CHAPTER 5

# The Locational Setting and Relief

Although India is an ancient land with a thousands of years old history, the modern nation came into being only in 1947. The British left India, a region they had ruled for almost two centuries, partitioning it into the two nations of India and Pakistan. They left their mark in many ways, including the popular and widespread use of the English language and a parliamentary system of government.

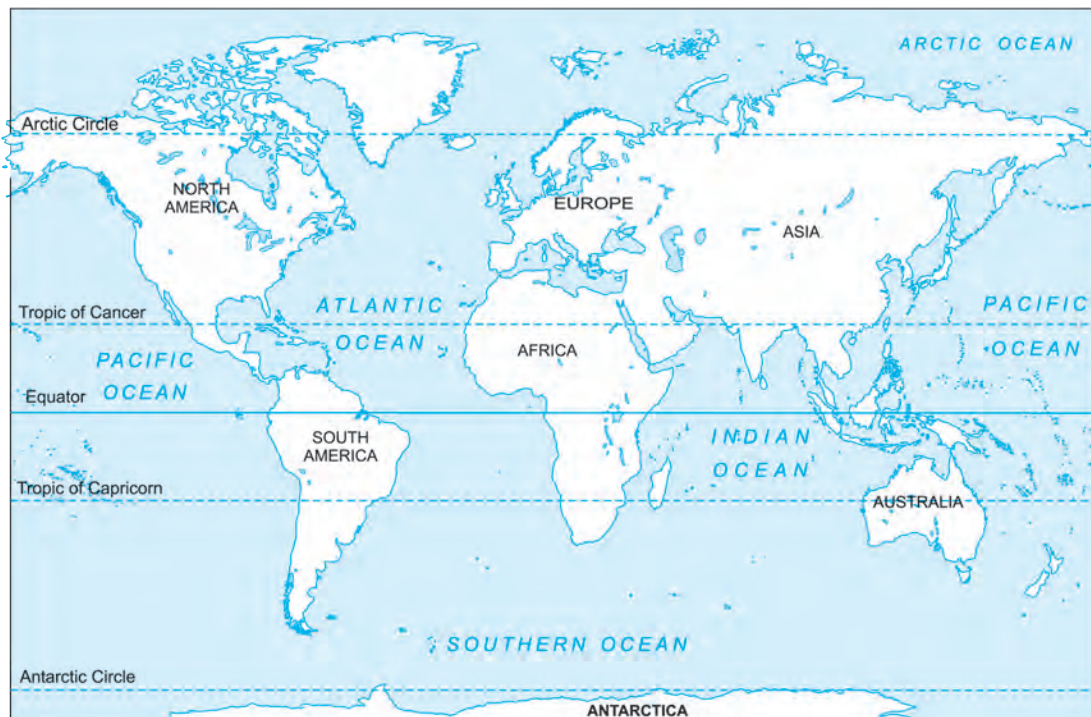
### LOCATION AND SIZE

India, officially the Sovereign Socialist Secular



Democratic Republic of India, is the world's seventh largest country. It encompasses a varied landscape rich in natural resources.

India is located in South Asia. The lofty Himalayas form a geographical boundary in the north. The long range of Himalayas cuts it off from the rest of Asia. The southern part of the country is in the form of a peninsula. It is surrounded by seas on three sides – the Arabian Sea, the Indian Ocean and the Bay of Bengal. This locational setting gives India and its immediate neighbouring countries a



*India on the world map*



*India with States and Capitals*

unique, geographical entity separated from the rest of Asia. So the land comprising them is collectively termed as the **Indian subcontinent**.

India covers an area of 3.28 million

sq. km., i.e., about 2.4% of the total world area. From the point of view of size it is the seventh largest country of the world. With a population of over 1000 millions, India is the second most

populous country of the world after China.

India's mainland extends for about 3214 km from north to south, that is from Kashmir to Kanniyakumari. It has an east-west extent of 2933 km from Kachchh in Gujarat to Arunachal Pradesh.

The southernmost point of the country is Indira Point in the Andaman and Nicobar Islands. But the tsunami of 2004 greatly affected these islands. Greater part of the area is now submerged in the sea.

From south to north India's mainland extends between 8°4'N to 37°6'N latitudes. It is located in the Northern Hemisphere. The Tropic of Cancer (23½°N) passes roughly through the middle of the country.

From west to east India extends between 68°7'E and 97°25'E longitudes. It is located in the Eastern Hemisphere.

On account of the great east-west (longitudinal) extension of approximately 29°, a time difference of 1 hour 56 minutes would be expected between the eastern and western limits of the country. From our knowledge about longitude and time we are already aware that for each 1° of longitude local time is ahead by 4 minutes if we move eastwards. So sunrise at Arunachal Pradesh would take place two hours earlier than in Gujarat. To solve the problem **82°30' E longitude** has been accepted as the **Standard Meridian**. The local time along this longitude has been recognised internationally as the Indian Standard Time.

Although Tropic of Cancer divides India into two equal halves, India is essentially known as a tropical country. The Indian Peninsula is bounded on three sides by water and in the north, India is separated from the rest of Asia by a mountain wall, the Great Himalayas forming an insulated compartment. Besides this, the climate of India is dominated by the tropical monsoon.

India can be divided into three geographical regions — North India dominated by the Himalayas, the Thar Desert in the west, and the south consisting of the Deccan Plateau bordered by the Western and the Eastern Ghats. Kanniyakumari, the southernmost tip on the mainland, is situated on the three seas — The Arabian Sea, the Indian Ocean and the Bay of Bengal. Just off the southern coast of India lies the island nation of Sri Lanka, separated from the mainland by the Palk Strait. Kanniyakumari is the southernmost tip of the Indian mainland.

## India and Its Neighbouring Countries

India's borders are both natural and man-made. In the north, northwest and northeast, India's international boundaries are formed by the lofty Himalayas and its offshoot. In the south, southwest and southeast, India's coast is washed by the Indian Ocean, the Arabian Sea and the Bay of Bengal respectively.

In the north, across the Indian border is the Tibet plateau. In the northern part of the boundary along with the Himalayan Kingdom of Nepal, our next

immediate neighbour is China. East of Nepal, across Sikkim, is Bhutan. To the east of the eastern offshoots of the Himalayas lies Myanmar. To the west our immediate neighbour is Pakistan.

### About India — Its Structure

- India extends between 8°4' N and 37°6' N latitudes and 68°7' E and 97°25' E longitudes.
- India covers an area of 3,287,263 sqkm.
- Since India lies in the Northern Hemisphere, Equator passes just a few degrees below the southern tip of India.
- The north-south extent of about 3214 km is more than that of the east-west distance which is approximately 2933 km. The coastline is about 7500 km long.
- The Tropic of Cancer at 23°30' N divides India into almost two equal parts.
- The islands of Andaman and Nicobar group and Lakshadweep are also included in India.
- The southern-most point of the Indian Union is known as the Indira Point. It is located on the Nicobar Islands, the Southern section of the Andaman and Nicobar group of islands. The islands are located in the Bay of Bengal lying to the southeast of India's mainland. The Indira Point got submerged under the seawater in December 2004 during the destructive Tsunami that hit the Andaman and Nicobar Islands.

The island country of Sri Lanka lies to the south of India while the Maldives is also our southern neighbour. The land boundaries are shared with Pakistan, China, Nepal, Bhutan, Bangladesh, Afghanistan and Myanmar.

India is the seventh largest country in the world. Russia, Canada, China, USA, Brazil and Australia are much larger than India. India occupies only 2.42 per cent of the world's total land area.

From the map we know that the southern tip of Indian mainland misses the equator only by a few degrees. This means that India lies in the Northern Hemisphere. The prime meridian divides the globe into Eastern and Western Hemispheres. By observing the globe's vertical division we can see that India lies in the Eastern Hemisphere.

India has three major physical regions —

- In the north are the Himalayas and Karakoram mountains, the Himalayan foothills, and the Naga Hills.
- South of the Himalayas are the plains of the Indus, Ganga and Brahmaputra rivers.
- On the southern peninsula of the Indian subcontinent is the Deccan plateau.

We learnt earlier that the Tropic of Cancer (23° 30' N) divides India into two parts. The plains and the Himalayan mountains lie in the northern half of the mainland. The area south of the Tropic of Cancer has the tapering land most

of which is the Deccan plateau. The region also includes the Eastern and the Western Coastal strips. They are called the Eastern and Western Ghats respectively.

### INDIAN SUBCONTINENT

The ‘Indian subcontinent’ is a geographical name for the plain and plateau region south of the Himalayas and adjoining mountain ranges in southern Asia. It is called a ‘subcontinent’ because of its isolation from the rest of Asia due to the mountain ranges.

From the relief map of Asia we can judge that India, Pakistan, Nepal, Bhutan and Bangladesh make up a very natural geographical unit. This Indian subcontinent, as it is called, has a unique and separate physical and cultural identity that makes it entirely different from the rest of Asia.

### RELIEF

It took millions of years for the landforms of India to attain their present forms. Many geological changes have led to their formation.

The sliding plates and drifting continents cause to shape the Earth’s major landscape features. As a large plate of the Earth’s surface is squeezed, the solid rocks gradually wrinkle and crumple to create wavy folds. The land surface is pushed up as a series of hills or mountains. The wind, rain, sun, ice, snow and other natural forces wear down

the folds over time and reduce their height. This causes the surfaces to keep low and rounded. But if the folds rise more quickly they form high, jagged peaks. These are called **fold mountains**. The **Himalayas** in Asia are examples of such mountains.

The Himalayas are part of the Alpine-Himalayan system, a great curving chain of ranges running east-west for more than 9,700 km across Asia and Europe. At one end are the Alps that occupy most of Switzerland, and parts of Austria, Italy and France. At the other end of the system are the Himalayas, located along the border between India and China (including Tibet). The Himalayas are a geographically complex range which are still rising. These highest mountains are spread out in a huge curving wall about 2,400 km long. The highest peak, Mount Everest, is located near the middle of the range.

A **depression** or **basin** was formed south of the Himalayas millions of years ago. The alluvium from the rivers flowing from the south and north was deposited in the depression. This led to the formation of the fertile land of the **North Indian Plain** located between the Himalayas and the Peninsular Plateaus.

Even as the Himalayas were being formed, an extensive volcanic eruption occurred in north western part of the plateau. Also, the plateau’s western part subsided. The Indian Ocean moved in to occupy the depression thus caused and the Arabian Sea was formed. Due to this



subsidence the Western Ghats became prominent.

The diverse relief or physical features mark the Indian land. This is obvious from the study of the map given on the next page.

The Himalayas, the highest, youngest and one of the most active mountain systems in the world, are in the north. They comprise the highest peaks in the world. They are made of sedimentary and metamorphic rocks. The Brahmaputra, the Indus and the Ganga rivers rise in the Himalaya and form the fertile, alluvial central plains. It is the most densely populated part of India. South of the plains lie in the Deccan plateau, a vast triangular tableland occupying most of the peninsular India. It is made mostly of igneous and metamorphic rocks, which contain valuable minerals. This generally rocky region is marked by low mountain ranges and deep valleys. The Deccan is bordered by the mountain systems known as the Eastern Ghats and the Western Ghats.

## MAJOR PHYSIOGRAPHIC DIVISIONS

The varied relief of India may be listed as follows :

1. The Great Mountains of the North
2. The North Indian Plain
3. The Thar Desert
4. The Peninsular Plateau
5. The Coastal Plains and
6. The Islands.

Due to varied geological history and structure each division of landform is different from each other. The rocks that make up the regions are different in the way they erode. Sedimentary rocks tend to erode more easily than igneous rocks that are hard to break.

### 1. The Great Mountains of the North



The Himalayas that stretch over 2400 km are like a great mountain wall. They are located between the gorges of the Indus river in the north, and those of the Brahmaputra river in the east. The Karakoram Range which are beyond the Indus river are at the western end of the Himalayas. The Naga Hills that rise on the border between India and Burma lie to the southeast of the Himalayas.

The north wall of the Himalayas can be divided into three divisions.

#### (a) North-West Range

It is a series of mountain ranges radiating from the Pamir knot, known as the “Roof of the world”. Important ranges are :



- (i) Hindukush — South-West
- (ii) Kunlun — East
- (iii) Karakoram — South-East
- (iv) Ladakh and Zaskar — Parallel to the Great Northern wall.

Mount-Godwin Austen (Mt. K2) at the height of 8611 metres is located in the Karakoram range in Kashmir. It is the second highest peak in the world, after Mount Everest in the Himalayas.

No other mountain ranges in the world have so many peaks of this height. Because of the great height of the mountains, there are only a few passes through which people can travel. Some of the important passes of the Himalayas from west to east are Shipkila, Nathula and Bomdila. The Karakoram pass in the Karakoram range of the Himalayas, is of great importance in this region of high altitude. The Baltoro and the Siachen are the famous glaciers, i.e., slow moving rivers of ice and snow.

### (b) The Northern Himalayan Range or the Northern Arc

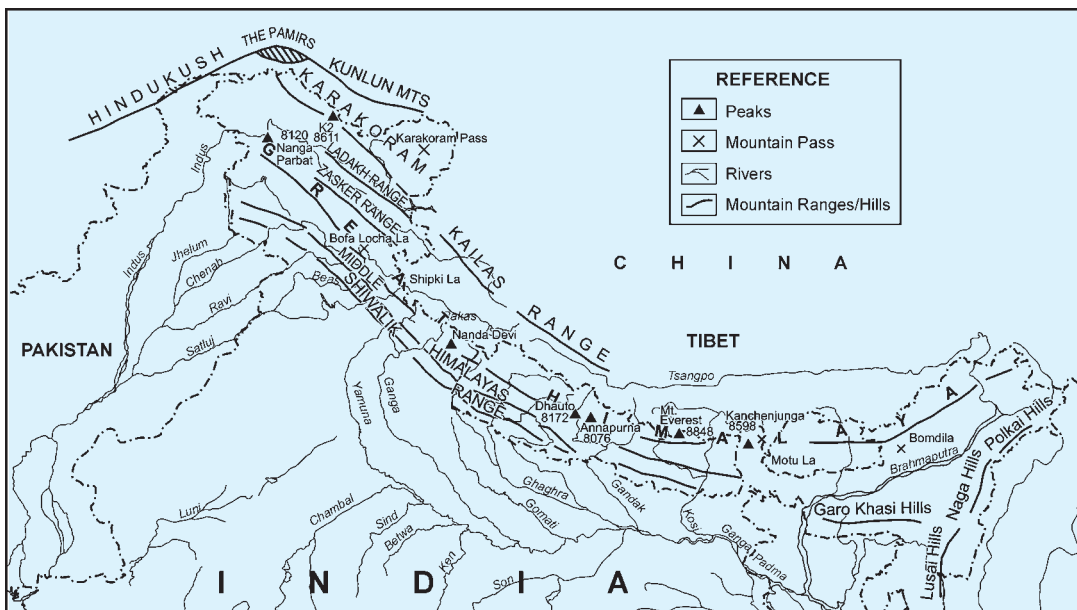


It is also known as the Great Northern Himalayas. It runs in the form of an arc from Kashmir to Assam. The westernmost limit of Northern Arc is Nanga Parbat and the easternmost limit is marked by Namcha Barwa. The Indus river flows

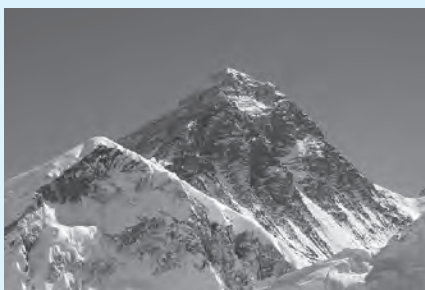
between Ladakh and Zaskar ranges from the west. The Brahmaputra river flows from the easternmost limit of the arc through a mighty gorge.

The Great Himalayan range comprises three distinct parallel ranges. These are :

- (i) **Himadri** : The northernmost range of the Himalayas is known as Great or Inner Himalayas or the Himadri with an average altitude of 6000 m. It contains all the prominent peaks of the Himalayas. The highest peak in the world, **Mount Everest (8848 m)**, is located in Nepal in this range. The third highest peak of the Himalayas — the Khangchendzonga or Kanchanjunga (8598 m) — is located in Sikkim. Other important Himalayan peaks in India are Nanda Devi (7817 m) and Nanga Parbat (8126 m).



The Himalayas



*The Mount Everest*

#### Highest Peaks of Himadri

| Mountains Peaks    | Location    | Height (in Metres) |
|--------------------|-------------|--------------------|
| Everest            | Nepal       | 8,848              |
| K2 (Godwin Austin) | India (PoK) | 8,611              |
| Kanchenjunga       | India       | 8,598              |
| Makalu             | Nepal-China | 8,481              |
| Dhaulagiri         | Nepal       | 8,172              |
| Cho Oyo            | Nepal       | 8,153              |
| Nanga Parbat       | India       | 8,126              |
| Hidden Peak        | India       | 8,068              |
| Annapurna          | Nepal       | 8,078              |
| Nanda Devi         | India       | 7,817              |

#### (ii) The Middle or Lesser Himalayas :

Himachal or the Middle Himalayas lies to the south of the Himadri extending over an average width of 50 km and about 370 to 4500 m high. Important ranges of Himachal are the Mahabharat, the Dhauladhar and the Pir Panjal. The most popular hill stations of North India namely Mussoorie, Shimla, Dalhousie, Nainital, Darjiling and Dharamshala are located in the Himachal.

(iii) **The Shiwalik Range :** The Shiwalik ranges or the Outer Himalayas are 900 to 1100 metres high and are 10-50 km wide. They are a chain of low-lying hills made of sand, clay and rounded stones. This is the southernmost range. The valley in this range is known as Doons, e.g. Dehradun. The Shiwaliks are known as Jammu Hills in Jammu, Dofla, Miri, Abor and Mishri Hills in Arunachal Pradesh and the Dhang Range, Dundera and Churia Ghat hills in Nepal. Landslides are common in these ranges as the ranges are formed of unconsolidated sediments. Flat bottomed valleys covered with thick deposits of alluvium and gravel form *duns*. These duns like Dehra Dun and Patli Dun separate large areas of the Shiwaliks from the Middle Himalayas.

#### (c) The North-East Himalayan Range or Purvachal



These are series of hills running through Arunachal Pradesh, Nagaland, Manipur, Assam and Mizoram. They consist of Patkai Bum, Naga Hills and Mizo Hills. Running along the Bangladesh-India border, they move westwards to Meghalaya. Here they are known as the Jaintia, Khasi and the Garo Hills. The Dihang, popularly known as the Brahmaputra river marks the easternmost boundary of the Himalayas. The mountain ranges sharply bend



towards the south to spread along the eastern boundary.

The Himalayas are divided into four main sections in an east-west direction. The Nepal Himalayas are the area between the Kali and the Tista while Assam Himalayas are the area between Tista and the Dihang (Tsangpo). Between Sutlej and the Indus is the western section. This section covering an area of Jammu and Kashmir and Himachal Pradesh form the Punjab Himalayas. The famous hill resorts of Gulmarg and Pahalgam in Jammu and Kashmir are in the Pir Panjal Range.

## 2. The North Indian Plains

Between peninsular India and the Himalayas lie the alluvial plains of the Indus, Ganga and the Brahmaputra. These plains, called the Indo-Gangetic lowland, stretch in a great arc from the Arabian Sea to the Bay of Bengal. Within this region lies the most productive and the most densely settled region of India.

The vast Northern plains lie between the Himalayas in the north and the stable tableland of the Peninsula in the south. In the far west of the plains are the Ravi, the Beas and the Sutlej, the tributaries of Indus draining into the Arabian Sea. The Ganga and its tributaries like Yamuna, Gandak, Kosi cover the central and eastern part of the plains. Further east lies the Brahmaputra and its tributaries. The Brahmaputra is known as Tsangpo in Tibet, as Dihang in Arunachal Pradesh, as Brahmaputra in Assam and as Jamuna in Bangladesh. The Northern Plains are

formed by deposition by the three main river systems – the Indus, the Ganga and the Brahmaputra. Sand, silt and clay brought down from the Himalayas by the permanent rivers formed this vast alluvial plains. The tributaries of the Ganga, the Indus and the Brahmaputra have also contributed to the formation of the Northern Plains.



*The Northern Plains*

The Ganga and the Brahmaputra meet in Bangladesh as Padma and discharge into the Bay of Bengal. At their mouth where they meet the sea, they form the triangular-shaped Sunderbans Delta. It is the **biggest delta** in the world.



*Sunderbans Delta*

All three of the great rivers that water the lowland – the Indus, the Ganga and the Brahmaputra – are fed by the permanent glaciers of the Himalayas.

These rivers along with rivers from the peninsular plateau deposit alluvium in the vast plain. Most of the area is a large, flat plain with no major changes in relief. Rich soil fit for cultivation, suitable climate and ample water supply aids in agriculture. The well-known river valley civilisations of the Indus and the Ganga had developed in the region as the soil had yielded rich crops.

**Alluvial fans** are triangular-shaped deposits with their base facing the plain. These are formed when the Himalayan rivers flow down the slopes of the mountains to reach the plains. Other major depositional features formed by the rivers in the plain are channel bars, levees and flood plains.

The slope is much gentle in the lower course of the river. This causes them to become sluggish. Islands are formed when these rivers deposit the mud and silt loads in their channels. Rivers split into channels to go around these obstructions and form distributaries. A *tributary* joins the main river and adds water from its basin. On the other hand *distributary* takes away the water from the main river. Through these channels, the rivers get distributed

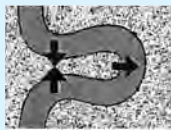
spreading over a large area. This vast alluvial plain thus formed is triangular in shape and is called a **delta**.

The Plains of North India lie between the mouths of the Indus, Ganga and the Brahmaputra. Covering an area of about 3200 km, this region between 300 km and 150 km wide, narrows towards the east. The Northern Plains are broadly divided into the Indus river system in the west and the Ganga-Brahmaputra river system in the east.

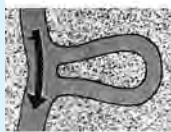
The Northern Plains can be divided into four distinct regions on the basis of the difference in soil. These regions are :

- (i) *Khadar* : the younger alluvium deposit soil of the flood plains.
- (ii) *Bangar* : the older alluvium deposit.
- (iii) *Tarai* : the wet and marshy

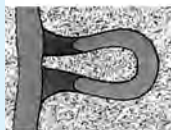
*Rivers flow faster around the outside of a bend, or meander, than on the inside. The outside edge is gradually eroded, while the river deposits debris on the inside edge. This means that the meander grows longer and narrower over time. Eventually the two sides of the meander meet each other, and the river cuts through to form a new, straighter course. The entrance to the meander gradually fills up with sediment, leaving a lake called an oxbow lake, or billabong.*



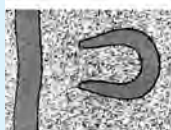
*A river erodes the outside of a bend and deposits sediment on the inside, making a loop.*



*The loop grows longer and narrower until the river finally breaks through.*



*The river flows past the ends of the loop and they slowly become silted up.*



*Eventually the loop gets cut off completely and forms a lake called an oxbow lake.*

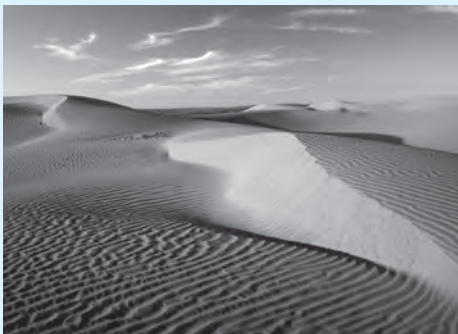
area having a thick forest and a variety of wildlife.

- (iv) *Bhabar* : An 8 to 16 km wide belt that forms a pebbled bed which are parallel to the slope of the river bed. They are laid down by numerous streams that flow down the hills. They are a narrow belt covered with pebbles, lying along the foot of the Shiwaliks from the Indus to the Tista.

### 3. The Thar Desert

The Thar Desert is also called the Great Indian Desert. It is an extensive region of sandy desert. It is located in northwestern part of India and also covers eastern Pakistan. Bound on the northwest by river Sutlej, it has the Aravali Range to the east. To its south is the salt marsh called Rann of Kachchh and on the west is the Indus river plain.

The Thar Desert is in Rajasthan, covering 805 km in length and 485 km in width.



*The Thar Desert*

The desert terrain is marked with rolling sandhills, among which are

found scattered vegetation and rock outcroppings. The area receives sparse rainfall averaging from 127 to 254 mm annually. The temperature in the area can be as high as 52.8°C in July.

Most of the people in the Thar Desert are engaged in pastoral activities and hide and wool industries.

### 4. The Peninsular Plateau



The Peninsular Plateau is separated from the Indo-Gangetic Plain by many hills varying in height. The peninsular tableland is rocky and uneven. It extends to a number of hilly ranges in the far south that rise to considerable heights in some places. The northwest part of the peninsular plateau is covered by vast lava flows. Successive lava flows created the Deccan Traps, which look like giant staircases. They are actually, step-like, flat-topped hills, and form a major attractive feature of the Deccan.

The peninsular plateau is a triangular region divided into the Deccan Plateau



*The Peninsular Plateau*

and the Central Highlands. With its base between Delhi Ridge and the Rajmahal Hills its apex is located at Kanyakumari in south. This region has 600–900 metres elevation with its northern part sloping towards north and east. This is clear from the flow of rivers Chambal, Son and Damodar. The east and southeast sloping is obvious in the south of the Satpura-Maikal ranges. Rivers flowing west, drain into the northwestern part of the Deccan.

The Deccan plateau has its southward extension from the Satpura, the Mahadeo and the Maikal ranges to the southern tip of the peninsula. The northwestern part of the plateau is mainly a region formed by lava flows. The Western Ghats form a boundary towards the west and stretch without any obstacles along the coast of the Arabian Sea. The Western Ghats are known by different local hill names. They are the Cardamom and Anaimalai hills along the Kerala-Tamil Nadu border, the Nilgiri in Tamil Nadu and the Sahyadri in Maharashtra and Karnataka. The Western Ghats are relatively higher in the southern parts.

Some parts in the Deccan Plateau have abrupt heights of 900–1100 metres. On the eastern boundary one can see discontinuous hill ranges with heights less than 900 metres. Known as the Eastern Ghats, the region's general slope is towards southeast and east. This is indicated by flow of the rivers here. Except for a couple of rivers like the Tapi and the Narmada which flow to the west,

most of the rivers flow into the Bay of Bengal.

The Central Highlands form the northern part of the Peninsular plateau. The region has a number of plateaus, denuded mountain ranges and low hills. Igneous rocks make up this part of the region.

The Aravalli ranges occupy the northwestern part of the peninsular plateau. These ranges are part of the old fold mountains. They form a rugged ridge that runs in southwest — north/east direction from Gujarat to Delhi.

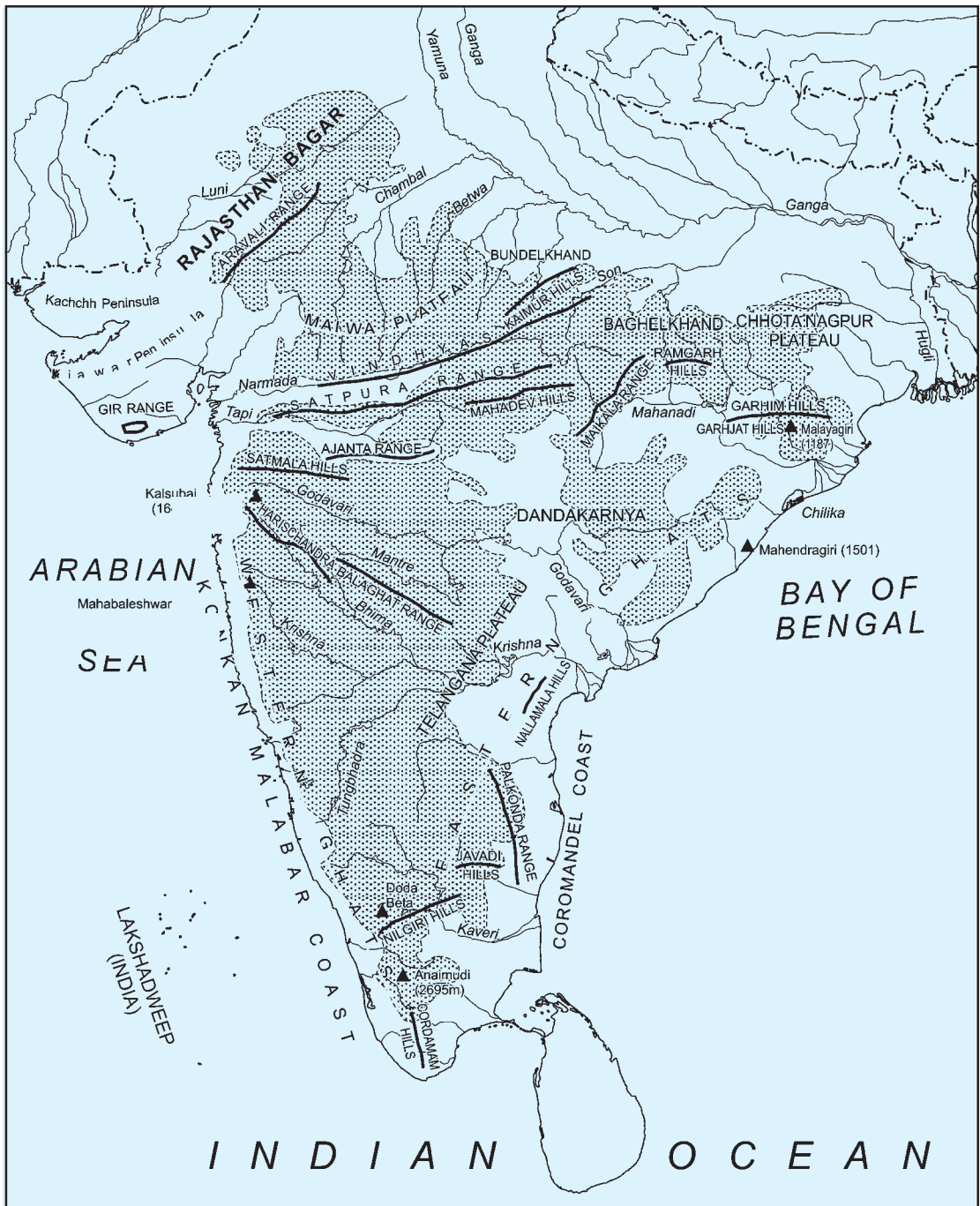
The southern boundary of the Central Highlands is formed by the Vindhya Range and its eastern extension called the Kaimur hills. The Malwa Plateau is located between the Aravalli and the Vindhya ranges. This wide and open area is drained by rivers Chambal and Betwa. The north and the northeastern side slowly end in the Gangetic plains. The term Bundelkhand is used for the eastern part of the Central Highlands.

Geologically, the Shillong plateau is an extension of the Peninsular Plateau. It is believed that the connecting rock formations have now been buried under Ganga plain's alluvium sediments.

## 5. The Coastal Plains

The coast from Odisha to Gujarat are plains. These plains are referred to as the Eastern and Western Coastal Plains. Stretching from Kerala to Gujarat is the Western Coastal Plain, which is rather narrow except for the Gujarat part. This highly rugged





Map of Peninsular Plateau

and dissected coastal plain is called the **Konkan Coast** in the northern part. The coast south of Goa is called the **Malabar Coast**. Drowned valleys formed due to some rise in sea levels are called **estuaries**. Such estuaries are formed by the rivers of the western coast. This area is a land of small fishing villages, coconut, palms and spice gardens. Many ancient ports dot the coastline. Mumbai and Marmagao are well-known natural harbours. Saltwater lakes called **lagoons** are formed on the Kerala coast in the far-south. **Spits** and **sand bars** are common depositional features of the area here. A few miles in land one can find the hills with coffee, tea and rubber plantations.



*Lagoons in Kerala*

The coast of southern Andhra Pradesh and Tamil Nadu is popularly known as the **Coromandel Coast**. The banks of Narmada are lined with Hindu shrines and temples. The Kaveri, also known as *Dakshina Ganga*, or Ganga of the South, is the second most sacred river of India after Ganga. The Kaveri has been harnessed for irrigation and hydroelectric power and supplies power to many areas in the state of Karnataka. There is much farming activity in the fertile deltas of the east coast due to its rich alluvial deposits.

## 6. The Islands

An **island** is a body of land surrounded by water.



The Andaman and Nicobar Islands are a group of more than 300 islands out of which 265 are uninhabited. The Andaman Islands in the Bay of Bengal have five large islands grouped together, called the **Great Andamans**, and to its south is the Island of **Little Andamans**. There are some 204 islets. The **Nicobar Islands** south of the Andamans are a group of 19 islands out of which 7 are uninhabited. The islands are divided into southern, central and northern islands.

The Andaman and Nicobar Islands are larger than Lakshadweep in the Arabian Sea. These numerous, scattered islands are actually submerged hill ranges and some have volcanic origins. Covering an area of 350 km only a few of the islands are 60 to 100 km in length.

Lakshadweep Islands, which has 100,000 islands, lie scattered off the coast of Kerala in the Arabian Sea. It is the smallest Union Territory in India. The southernmost island of this archipelago, of 36 exquisite coral islands, is very close to Maldives, our island neighbour in the south. These islands were formerly called Laccadives and have many untouched beaches, green coconut groves in a total land area of only 32 sq km.

The Lakshadweep Islands were formed of coral deposits called **atolls**.

The term has its origin in the Malayalam word 'atolu'. These atolls enclose shallow lagoons that harbour India's richest diversity of coral varieties and a multitude of colourful reef fishes.

### IMPORTANT TERMS

- o **Peninsula** : An area of land that is almost surrounded by water but is joined to a larger piece of land.
- o **Subcontinent** : A large land mass that forms part of a continent, especially the part of Asia that includes India, Pakistan and Bangladesh.
- o **Kanniyakumari** : The southernmost tip of the Indian mainland.
- o **Mainland** : The main area of land of a country, not including any islands near to it.
- o **Meridian** : One of the lines that is drawn from the North Pole to the South Pole on a map of the world.
- o **Plateau** : An area of flat land that is higher than the land around it.
- o **Standard Time** : The official time of a country or an area.
- o **Lithosphere** : The earth's solid exterior crust.
- o **Folding** : A bending of rock strata, caused by compression of the earth's crust.
- o **Spit** : A thin projection of land into the sea, lake or river; shell or reef extending from the shore.
- o **Desert** : A dry, often sandy region of little rainfall, extreme temperatures and sparse vegetation.
- o **Island** : A land mass, especially one smaller than a continent, entirely surrounded by water.
- o **Coral** : The hard, variously coloured, calcareous skeleton secreted by certain marine polyps.
- o **Coral Reef** : Underwater structures made from calcium carbonate secreted by corals.
- o **Estuary** : A body of water formed where fresh water from rivers and streams flows into the ocean, mixing with the seawater.

### POINTS TO REMEMBER

- | India derives her name from the Sanskrit word *Sindhu* meaning river.
- | India extends between 8°4' N and 37°6' N latitudes and 68°7' E and 97°25' E longitudes.
- | India covers an area of 3,287,263 sq km.
- | India has adopted time according to the Standard Meridian which is at 82°30' E.
- | India has three main physical regions :
  - (i) the mountains in the north
  - (ii) the plains at the foot of the mountains
  - (iii) the plateau region in the south

- | The Tropic of Cancer (23°30' N) divides India into two parts.
- | India's central location at the head of the Indian Ocean had led to cultural and commercial relations with East Africa, West Asia, South and South-East Asian countries.
- | The Indian subcontinent is a geographical name for the plain and plateau region south of the Himalayas and adjoining mountain ranges in Southern Asia.
- | The sliding plates and drifting continents cause to shape the Earth's major landscape features.
- | The divisions of India are :
 

|                                      |                              |
|--------------------------------------|------------------------------|
| (i) the Great Mountains of the North | (ii) the North Indian Plains |
| (iii) the Thar Desert                | (iv) the Peninsular Plateau  |
| (v) the Coastal Plain and            | (vi) the Islands             |
- | The Himalayas that stretch over 2400 km are like a great mountain wall.
- | The Indo-Gangetic lowlands lie between peninsular India and the Himalayas.
- | The Northern Plains have Khadar, Bangar, Tarai and Bhabar regions.
- | The Thar Desert has sandy expanse that covers most of Rajasthan.
- | The peninsular plateau is separated from the Indo-Gangetic plain by many hills varying in heights.
- | The coasts from Odisha to Gujarat are plains which are referred to as eastern and western coastal plains.
- | The Andaman and Nicobar Islands are a group of more than 300 islands, out of which 265 are uninhabited.
- | The Lakshadweep Islands were formed of coral deposits called atolls.

## EXERCISES

### I. Choose the correct answer.

1. India covers how much of total world area?
 

|          |          |
|----------|----------|
| (a) 2.2% | (b) 2.3% |
| (c) 2.4% | (d) 2.5% |
2. The islands formed by coral deposits are :
 

|                         |                     |
|-------------------------|---------------------|
| (a) Great Andamans      | (b) Nicobar Islands |
| (c) Lakshadweep Islands | (d) The Maldives    |
3. Which latitude divides India into two parts?
 

|                         |                      |
|-------------------------|----------------------|
| (a) Equator             | (b) Tropic of Cancer |
| (c) Tropic of Capricorn | (d) None of these    |
4. The Garo, Khasi and Jaintia hills are located in which state?
 

|              |                       |
|--------------|-----------------------|
| (a) Assam    | (b) Arunachal Pradesh |
| (c) Nagaland | (d) Meghalaya         |



5. The highest peak in the world, the Mount Everest, is located in which range of the Himalayas?

- (a) Himadri
- (b) Himachal
- (c) Shiwalik
- (d) Purvachal

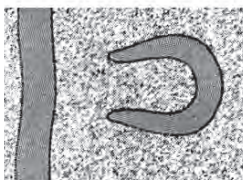
6. There are two statements marked as Assertion (A) and Reason (R). Mark your answer as per the codes provided below.

**Assertion (A) :** The Peninsular plateau is separated from the Indo-Gangetic plain by many hill ranges.

**Reason (R) :** The northwest part of the peninsular plateau is covered by vast lava flows.

- (a) Both (A) and (R) are true and (R) is the correct explanation of (A)
- (b) Both (A) and (R) are true but (R) is not the correct explanation of (A)
- (c) (A) is correct but (R) is wrong
- (d) (A) is wrong but (R) is correct

7.



Identify the above picture.

- (a) Loop
- (b) Meander
- (c) Delta
- (d) Oxbow lake

8. Consider the statements given below and choose the correct answer.

**Statement I :** India covers an area of 3.28 million sq.km.

**Statement II :** It is about 10% of the total world area.

- (a) Statement (I) is correct and (II) is incorrect
- (b) Statement (I) is incorrect and (II) is correct
- (c) Both (I) and (II) are incorrect
- (d) Both (I) and (II) are correct

## II. Very Short Answer Type Questions.

1. Name the southernmost point of the Indian mainland.
2. What is the land area of India?
3. Which are the three main physical regions of India?
4. Why is the 'Indian subcontinent' called so?



CODE-8p2

### III. Short Answer Type Questions.

1. Write a note on the middle Himalayas.
2. Define (i) Khadar (ii) Bangar (iii) Tarai and (iv) Bhabar.
3. Write about the western coastal plains.



### IV. Long Answer Type Questions.

1. The vast latitudinal and longitudinal extent of India is unique. Discuss.
2. What is the Standard Meridian of India? What is its importance?
3. What do you know about
  - (i) the Northern Plains
  - (ii) the Deccan Plateau
  - (iii) The Thar Desert



### V. Case Study Based Questions.

The Indian landmass has a central location between the East and the West Asia. India is a southward extension of the Asian continent. The trans Indian Ocean routes, which connect the countries of Europe in the West and the countries of East Asia, provide a strategic central location to India. The Deccan Peninsula protrudes into the Indian Ocean, thus helping India to establish close contact with West Asia, Africa and Europe from the western coast and with Southeast and East Asia from the eastern coast. No other country has a long coastline on the Indian Ocean as India has and indeed, it is India's eminent position in the Indian Ocean, which justifies the naming of an Ocean after it.



1. What advantage does India's central location offer between East and West Asia?
2. How does the Deccan Peninsula contribute to India's strategic location?
3. Why is India's Indian Ocean coastline significant ?

### VI. Map Work.

1. On a political map of India mark the states of India and the neighbouring countries.
2. On an outline map of India mark and label :
  - (i) Coromandel Coast
  - (ii) Western Ghats
  - (iii) Ganga-Brahmaputra Delta
  - (iv) The Thar Desert
  - (v) Lakshadweep Islands



Climate is the typical weather conditions of an area over a long period of more than thirty to thirty-five years. The climate of a place influences its flora (plants) and fauna (animals). It accounts for the environmental diversity. It patterns the livelihood of the people.

**Climate** is the long-term effect of the Sun's radiation on the rotating Earth's surface and atmosphere. It can be understood most easily in terms of annual or seasonal averages of temperature and precipitation.

Because of the unusual topography and geographical position of India, climatic conditions are widely diversified, both on a regional as well as a seasonal basis. This diversity is in the range of extremes — from tropical to temperate zones. The temperature extremes are confined largely to the slopes of the Himalayas. Except in the more mountainous regions the rest of India has a uniformly tropical climate. Seasonal variations, resulting from the southwestern and northeastern monsoons profoundly influence temperature, humidity and precipitation throughout the subcontinent.

The climate of a country is mainly based on the range of its temperature, rainfall, atmospheric pressure and direction of winds. The climate of India is basically influenced by two factors, i.e.,

- (a) Tropic of Cancer ( $23\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}\text{N}$ ) dividing the country into two halves — North Temperate zone and South Tropical zone.
- (b) Great Himalayan Range separating the Indian subcontinent from the rest of Asia, thus preventing the bitter cold winds from the Central Asia from entering the country.

While one can observe the unique climatic contrasts from north to south. The one factor which unifies the climate of India is the fact of monsoons, with alternation of seasons and reversal of winds. Therefore, the climate of India can be described as Tropical Monsoon type.

### WHAT IS MONSOON?

**Monsoon** is a word derived from Arabic *Mausim* which means 'season'. It is a wind that changes direction with the change of seasons. The monsoon prevails mainly in the Indian Ocean. It blows from the southwest, generally from April to October, and in the opposite direction, the northeast, from October to April. The southwest or summer monsoon occurs when warm, moist air from the Indian Ocean flows onto the land and is usually accompanied by heavy rains in areas of India and Southeast Asia, constituting



the dominant climate event of the area. The northeast monsoon occurs in India when cold, dry winter air flows out of the interior of Asia from the northeast and brings the cool, dry winter season.

Two of the important elements that affect the climate of India are **temperature** and **precipitation**. These two elements vary from place to place and season to season.

During summer, in India, the temperature may rise to reach  $50^{\circ}\text{C}$  or more in some areas of Rajasthan. Rajasthan has the vast, hot Thar Desert. On the other hand the temperature may be  $20^{\circ}\text{C}$  in Pahalgam in Jammu and Kashmir. During winter the temperature in Drass sector in Jammu and Kashmir may be as low as  $-45^{\circ}\text{C}$ . At this time Thiruvananthapuram in Kerala experiences a temperature of  $20^{\circ}\text{C}$ .



*Monsoon Season in India*

As far as rainfall and precipitation is concerned, the variations are found both in form and amount. Seasonal

distribution is also a major distributary factor in India. The Himalayan region mostly experiences snowfall while the rest of the country receives rain. The annual precipitation is between 400 cm in Meghalaya to less than 10 cm in Western Rajasthan or Ladakh. Coastal Tamil Nadu receives most of the rains in early autumn or winter. On the other hand most of India receives rainfall from June-September. The rains in Tamil Nadu are brought in by the northeast monsoons while northern India experiences rainfall caused by the western disturbances.

Generally the coastal regions have minimum contrasts in temperature. The interior of the country experiences more seasonal contrasts. The decrease in rainfall is generally observed from east to west in the Northern Plains. These variations have been a major factor in determining the life style of people which include their clothing, housing and food habits.

The monsoon is also like a unifying factor as it influences the occupation followed by a large percentage of Indian population — agriculture. The summer monsoon is vital to India's agriculture. The timing and amount of the rains can mean the difference between a successful harvest and widespread crop failure and famine. Other than this monsoon has a profound impact on culture of India. The very essence of folk- life style, dances, music, festivals, paintings and literature indicate monsoon's influence.

## CLIMATIC FACTORS

The factors that determine the climate of a place :

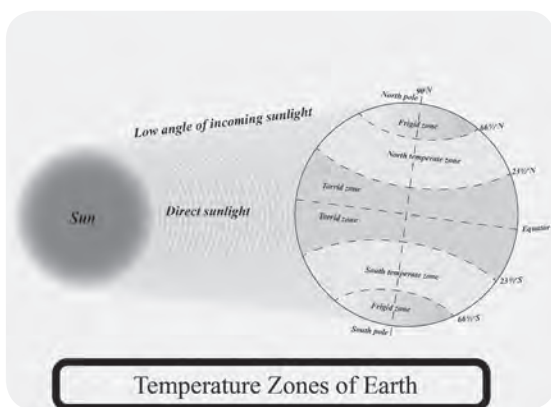
- (i) Relief and Location
- (ii) Altitude
- (iii) Distance from the Sea
- (iv) Pressure and Winds
- (v) Upper Air Circulation

Most of these factors are inter-related.

### (i) Relief and Location

By observing the relief map in the previous chapter we can say that India has a triangular shape in its peninsular plateau region. This fact has caused the surrounding oceans and seas to have a moderating effect on the larger area of this region. As the Northern Plains are located away from the influence of the sea, it experiences a continental type of climate.

The Tropic of Cancer divides India into two almost equal parts. Northern India lies in Subtropical Zone and the southern part lies in the Tropical Zone.



The Himalayas are towering mountainous walls in the north. They serve as an effective climatic divide. They prevent the cold and chilly northern winds from Central Asia from reaching the subcontinent. Due to these mountains India experiences a comparatively warmer climate during winter. Also, the temperature difference is highly minimised between the subtropical and tropical India.

### (ii) Altitude

Altitude plays an important role in influencing the climate of a place. As one goes up to higher altitudes away from the surface of the earth, the atmosphere becomes less dense and temperature decreases. As a result, hill stations like Mussoorie and Darjeeling including Udagamandalam (Ooty) in the south are cooler even during summer, whereas, places at lower altitudes, mainly those along the coast like Mumbai, Chennai and Kolkata have moderate climate.

### (iii) Distance from the Sea

The sea exerts a moderating influence on the climate of a place. Places like Mumbai, Chennai, Thiruvananthapuram and Kolkata located near the sea have equable climate or maritime climate with less difference between summer and winter temperatures. As the distance from the sea increases, its moderating influence decreases. Places away from the sea are said to have continental

location and extreme weather conditions i.e. very hot summer and very cold winter. For example, Delhi located in the interior of the country at a distance from the sea, experiences an extreme type of climate.

#### (iv) Pressure and Winds

Factors Influencing Indian Weather:



##### (i) Distribution of Atmospheric Pressure and Surface Winds:

- India experiences weather changes due to the distribution of air pressure and surface winds.
- Northeast Trade Winds, originating from the Northern Hemisphere's subtropical high-pressure belt, blow from northeast to southwest in India.
- These winds lack moisture and are not usually rainy.

##### (ii) Upper air circulation:

- Upper air circulation patterns play a role in shaping India's weather.

##### (iii) Inflow of Western Disturbances and Tropical Cyclones:

- During winter, western disturbances and in the southwest monsoon season, tropical cyclones influence India's weather
- India is in the path of the northeast Trade Winds. These winds start from the subtropical

high-pressure belt in the Northern Hemisphere, flowing southwards to the equatorial low-pressure belt. As they move, they deflect to the right, creating a westward direction (from northeast to southwest).

- These northeast Trade Winds are usually dry because they lack moisture.
- In late summer, the low-pressure conditions over the Northern Plains intensify. This attracts the South-East Trade Winds, originating from the warm subtropical areas of the southern oceans. These winds, blowing in a south-westerly direction, bring moisture to India as the South-West monsoon.
- Despite the lack of moisture in the northeast Trade Winds, India is not excessively dry due to the influence of the South-East Trade Winds during the monsoon season.
- Additionally, factors like upper air circulation, western disturbances in winter, and tropical cyclones during the southwest monsoon contribute to the complexity of India's weather patterns.



#### (v) Upper Air Circulation

The higher level of the atmosphere experiences an altogether different pattern of air circulation. Over

the Western and Central Asian regions, north of the Himalayas, a westerly air current flows.

These fast blowing winds have a steady velocity and move in a narrow zone of the upper atmosphere. These fast blowing winds are called **jet streams**. The westerly jet stream gets divided into two streams after it meets a barrier in the Tibetan Highlands. The southern branch blows in an eastward direction south of the Himalayas. It has a great influence on winter in India. The western disturbances find entry into India from the west and the north-west during winters and are carried in by these air

currents. During summer the westerly jet stream move northwards to place itself north of the Tien Shan in Central Asia. Later on an easterly jet stream takes its place to flow over northern India along 25°N. Tropical depressions are brought into India by an easterly jet stream and low pressure region over land. These depressions aid in the distribution of monsoon rainfall over whole of India.

## ANNUAL CYCLE OF SEASONS

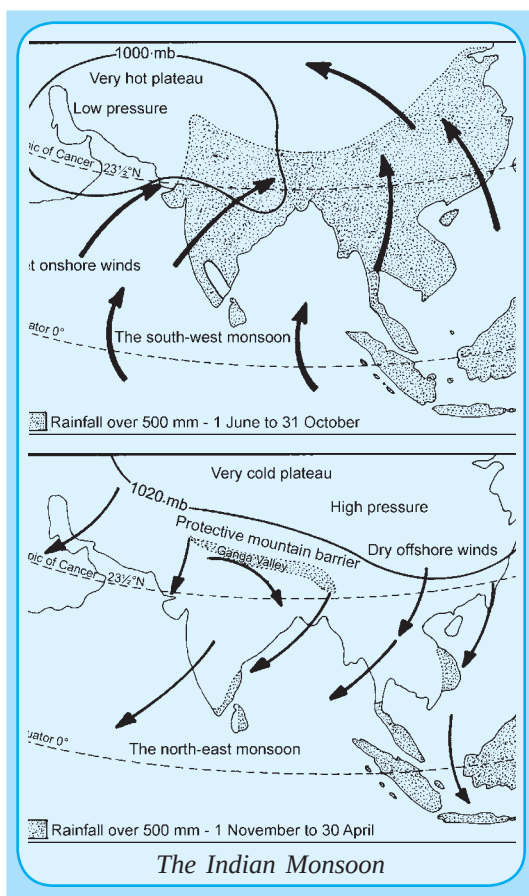


A distinct seasonality is a prominent character of the monsoon type of climate. The weather changes also occur from one season to another and are obvious to anyone observing it especially in the interiors of India. Not much difference in temperature can be seen in the coastal areas but a distinct pattern is seen in the rainfall that occurs here.

India experiences four main seasons:

- (i) Hot Weather Season
- (ii) Cold Weather Season
- (iii) Advancing Monsoon Season
- (iv) Retreating Monsoon Season

**Hot Weather Season :** The sun's northward movement i.e., direct rays of the sun on tropic of cancer causes the global heat belt to shift northwards. This causes hot weather season in India from March to May. But the effect of the shifting of heat belt can be seen clearly from the temperature recordings during March-May at different stations that are located at various latitudes. The Deccan Plateau experiences the highest



day temperature in March, i.e. as high as 38°C. The temperature is around 42°C in April in Gujarat and Madhya Pradesh. The temperature of 48°C is common around May in northwestern regions of India. The moderation effect of the ocean is very obvious when we observe the temperature in peninsular India. The Deccan Plateau experiences a temperature up to 38°C. As the northwestern part of India is away from the moderating influence of the ocean one can see the regions having temperatures around 48°C.

In north India rising temperature and falling air pressure occur in the summer months. An extended low pressure area develops in North India by the end of May. This low pressure area extends from the Thar Desert in the northwest to Patna and Chhotanagpur Plateau in the east. Around this trough the circulation of air begins to set in.

The surrounding areas are cooler hence they develop high pressure conditions. At this time, the south-east trade winds, which blow from south-east to south-west in southern India are attracted towards the mainland of India. They blow from south-west to north-east. Here, the hot season ends and south-west monsoon sets in the month of June.

### Characteristic Features of Hot Weather Season



1. This season is marked by dry weather and excessive heat.

2. The sun shines vertically over Tropic of cancer.
3. The whole of tropical India, south of Himalayas, experiences very high temperatures.
4. Coastal regions experience equable climate with a low range of temperature.
5. Interior parts experience very high range of temperature.
6. Thunderstorms accompanied by dusty winds are common.

**Cold Weather Season :** By mid-November the cold weather season sets in north India. It prevails in the area till February. The coldest months of these seasons are December and January. The temperature at this time decreases from south to north. The mean temperature is between 24°C and 25°C in Chennai but in the northern plains the temperature is between 10°C and 15°C.

The northern parts of the country have a mean temperature below 21°C and much lower in Himachal Pradesh, Jammu and Kashmir, Punjab and Haryana. Here, the night temperature falls below freezing point in hilly areas. Dras valley in Kashmir near Kargil is the coldest place in India with minimum temperature recorded as -45°C. Many places in the northernmost parts of Himalayas experience heavy snowfall which results in cold wave enveloping the surrounding areas of Punjab, Haryana and Northern plains.

The areas south of the Tropic of Cancer remain warm and do not have

distinctly defined winter weather. In the coastal regions too, there is very little change in range of temperature. It remains above 21°C almost throughout the year.

As the sun rays are direct over the Tropic of Capricorn, the Indian subcontinent receives oblique rays of the sun. As a result, high pressure builds up on the land with low pressure centred on the water bodies surrounding the peninsula.

As such, offshore winds start blowing towards low pressure areas centred in the Bay of Bengal. Because of the Deccan Plateau, these winds are forced to blow via Indo-Gangetic plain towards the Bay of Bengal. As these winds blow from north-east to southwest, they are called northeast monsoon.

Blowing from land to sea, they cause most of India to experience a dry season. However, the coasts of Tamil Nadu receive most of its rains from these winds as they reach here from sea to land. In north India, weak high pressure area is developed. Light winds blow outwards from this region. They are affected by the relief. These winds blow through the Ganga valley from west and northwest. The fine weather in this season is marked by clear sky, low temperature and low humidity.

The inflow of depression from west and northwest are the prominent characteristic features of the cold weather season over the North Indian Plains. Known as the Western Disturbances, these low pressure systems originate

over the Mediterranean Sea and Western Asia. They are brought in by the westerly jet stream. The vital winter rain required by the land is caused by these low pressure systems. The winter rain falls over the plains and the Himalayas experience snowfall. This meagre rainfall is important for the *rabi* crops.

The peninsular region has no particular winter season. There is not much seasonal change in the distribution pattern of temperature due to the influence of the sea.

### Characteristic Features of Cold Weather Season



1. Northeast monsoon takes over from the southwest monsoon.
2. Light winter rainfall in northwest India is very useful for the *rabi* crop, especially wheat.
3. Temperature goes on decreasing towards north of Tropic of Cancer.
4. The season is of great economic importance for wheat in northwest India and rice in Tamil Nadu.
5. The season is marked by fine cool weather, low humidity and large variation in the range of temperature.

### Advancing Monsoon — Rainy Season



The intensity of the low pressure conditions over the northwestern plains is increased by early June. They are strong enough to attract the trade winds

of the Southern Hemisphere. These ocean-originating southeast trade winds move over the Indian Ocean and cross the Equator to follow the southwestern direction. As they pass over the equatorial warm currents they carry a lot of moisture in them.

The monsoons are pulsating winds as compared to the steady trade winds. These strong winds tend to blow at an average speed of 30 km per hour. They blow all over the country in a month's time, leaving only the extreme north-west. Violent thunder and lightning that mark the sudden approach of these moisture-rich winds bring on what is popularly known as the breaking of the monsoon. The south-west monsoon that flows into India bring about a major change in its weather.

The Indian Peninsula divides the monsoons into two branches :

- (i) The Arabian Sea Branch
- (ii) The Bay of Bengal Branch.

**(i) The Arabian Sea Branch :** Main features

are as below:

- (a) It gives very heavy rainfall along the windward side of Western Ghats as they are unable to cross it.
- (b) The rainfall is orographic. The Deccan Plateau lying in the rainshadow area receives very little rainfall.
- (c) Amount of rainfall goes on decreasing northwards.



- (d) The Aravallis alignment is parallel to rain-bearing south-west monsoons as such they do not offer any obstruction. These are low hills also.
- (e) The moisture-laden winds passing over Rajasthan do not saturate as the heat in the desert region increases their capacity to hold moisture.
- (f) The Arabian Sea branch gets exhausted by the time it reaches Punjab.

**(ii) The Bay of Bengal Branch :**

Main features are as below:

- (a) Andaman and Nicobar Islands and Sri Lanka are the first to receive rainfall.
- (b) Winds advance northeast-ward after picking moisture from the Bay of Bengal.
- (c) The main target of this branch is the low pressure area in North Myanmar.
- (d) Mawsynram near Cherrapunji stands at the end of a funnel shaped valley which acts as a trap for rain bearing Bay of Bengal branch and forces them to shed moisture.
- (e) The branch is deflected towards west along the Himalayas and the rainfall goes on decreasing as it proceeds through the Ganga valley.



- (f) Bay of Bengal branch finally merges with the Arabian Sea branch and gives rainfall to West Bengal, Indo-Gangetic plain, Uttar Pradesh, Haryana and Punjab.

**Retreating Monsoon :** The monsoon trough of low pressure grows weaker by October–November. It is then slowly replaced by high pressure. The monsoon's outreach is rendered unsustainable and the gradual withdrawal begins. This is known as the 'retreat of monsoon'. By the time October begins the monsoons withdraw from the Northern Plains.

#### INTERESTING FACTS

Mawsynram, located on the crest of the southern range of Khasi Hills, receives the highest average annual rainfall in the world. Cherrapunji, located 16 km east of Mawsynram, holds some other rainfall records.

Cherrapunji is one of the wettest places on Earth and established a world record of an incredible 1032 inches of rain in 1861. It continues to record an average rainfall of 450 inches in the monsoon months of July to September.

The heaviest rainfall in the world is recorded in the nearby village of Mawsynram with an annual average of 479 inches. The excessive rainfall is due to a situation on an amphitheatre relief and on the windward side of the monsoon.



The period of transition from hot and rainy to dry and cold season occurs in the months of October–November. Clear skies and rising temperature are prominent marks of retreating monsoon. During the daytime the temperature remains high but nights are pleasant and cool. The land remains moist. High temperature and humidity cause the daytime weather to become rather oppressive, Known as 'October Heat', this phenomenon of early October is replaced by late October when the temperature falls drastically, especially in northern India.

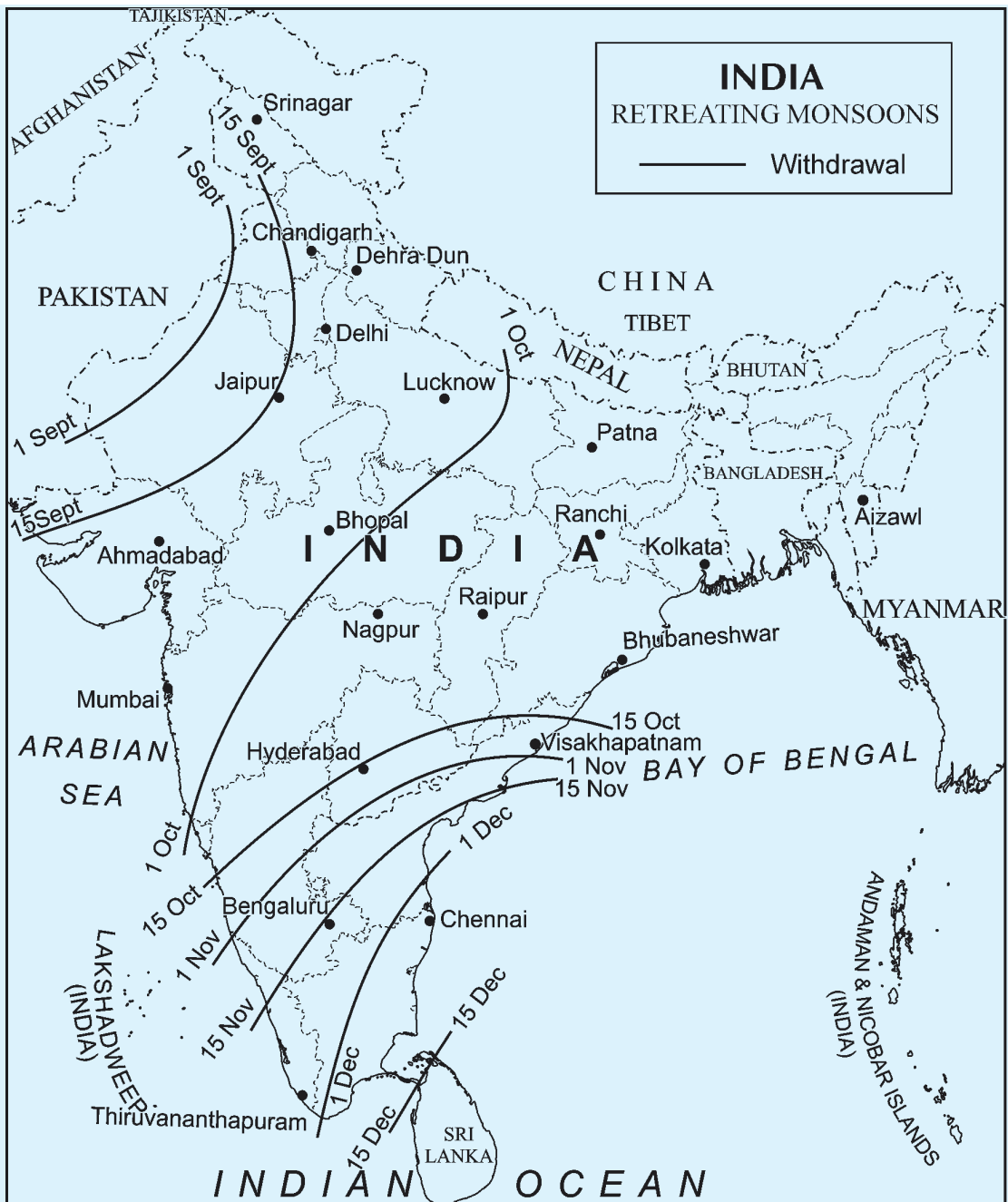
The northwestern India's low pressure conditions move to the Bay of Bengal area by early November. This shift is caused due to cyclonic depressions that occur with their origins over the Andaman Sea. Those depressions that are able to cross the eastern coasts of India spread heavy rains. The destructive tropical cyclones strike the thickly populated area in the Godavari, Krishna and Kaveri deltas. Loss of lives and properties are on a large scale. These cyclones may also arrive in Odisha, West Bengal and Bangladesh coasts. Most of the rain that showers on the Coromandel coast derives from depressions and cyclones.

The part of winter rainfall in Tamil Nadu and Andhra Pradesh (Telangana & Seemandhra) is caused by retreating monsoons. The cyclones here are accompanied by strong surface winds, dense clouds, thundering and heavy down power.

## MONSOONS — A UNIFYING BOND

The Himalayas are protective barriers that stop the cold winds from entering

the subcontinent. This allows even the areas of northern India which lie on the same latitude to experience uniform



*Retreating Monsoon*

high temperature. In the same way the influence of the sea from three sides makes for moderate temperature on the peninsular plateau. Even though these moderating influences exist there are some great differences in the temperature conditions. Even then the monsoon as a unifying bond is an obvious fact. The seasonal alternation of the wind systems and the associated weather conditions provide a rhythmic cycle of season. The uncertainties of rain and the uneven distribution are a prominent character of the monsoons.

It is evident from the fact that sometimes parts of the country may be

facing fury of floods due to heavy rains, while the other parts may be reeling under severe drought conditions due to scanty rainfall. The most important aspect of Indian rainfall is that it is largely controlled by orography.

The monsoon has a profound influence on India's festivals, lifestyle of people, the agricultural routine, animal and plant life and the landscape too. For centuries the Indians from north to south, from east to west have gazed up eagerly to the skies to spot the monsoon clouds. But how much prosperity or devastation they bring is another matter to discuss.

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### IMPORTANT TERMS

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- **Atmospheric pressure** : The pressure acted upon by the weight of atmosphere on the earth's surface.
- **Climate** : The regular pattern of weather conditions of a particular place.
- **Cyclone** : A violent tropical storm in which strong winds move in a circle.
- **Depression** : A weather condition in which the pressure of the air becomes low, often causing rain.
- **Jet stream** : A strong wind that blows high above the earth and that has an effect on the weather.
- **Leeward side** : The side or direction that is sheltered from the wind.
- **Precipitation** : Rain, snow, etc., that fall on the earth's surface.
- **Weather** : The condition of the atmosphere at a particular place and time, such as the temperature, wind, rain, sun, etc.
- **Windward side** : The side or direction from which the wind is blowing.

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### POINTS TO REMEMBER

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- | Climate is the long term effect of the sun's radiation on the rotating earth's varied surface and atmosphere.
- | Monsoon is a word derived from Arabic word *mausam* which means 'season'. It is a wind that changes direction with the change of seasons.
- | The important elements that affect the climate of India are temperature and precipitation.

- | The factors that determine the climate of a place are (i) Location (ii) Altitude (iii) Distance from the sea (iv) Pressure and winds (v) Upper air circulation.
- | India lies in the area of northeast trade winds.
- | Indian monsoon is a term used for the various aspects of a distinct climatic regime found in India.
- | A distinct seasonality is a prominent character of the monsoon type of climate.
- | India experiences four main seasons : (i) Cold Weather Season (ii) Hot Weather Season (iii) Advancing Monsoon Season (iv) Retreating Monsoon Season.
- | A unique feature of the hot weather season in India is the *loo*. The *loo* are strong, hot and dry winds that blow during the day in summer.
- | The inflow of depressions from west and northwest are the prominent characteristic features of the cold weather season.
- | The Indian peninsula divides the monsoons into two branches :
  - (i) The Arabian Sea branch (ii) The Bay of Bengal branch.
- | By the time October begins, the monsoons withdraw from the Northern Plains.
- | Due to vagaries of the monsoon the annual rainfall is bound to vary from year to year.

## EXERCISES

### I. Choose the correct answer.

1. The direction of the monsoon wind in summer is
 

|                |                |
|----------------|----------------|
| (a) South-west | (b) North-west |
| (c) North-east | (d) South-east |
2. What primarily causes a decrease in air temperature from the equator towards the poles?
 

|              |                           |
|--------------|---------------------------|
| (a) Altitude | (b) Ocean currents        |
| (c) Latitude | (d) Distance from the sea |
3. The period of transition from hot and rainy to dry and cold season occurs in :
 

|                      |                       |
|----------------------|-----------------------|
| (a) August-September | (b) September-October |
| (c) October-November | (d) November-December |
4. The monsoons begin to withdraw from the Northern Plains in the month of
 

|             |               |
|-------------|---------------|
| (a) August  | (b) September |
| (c) October | (d) November  |
5. Identify the correct option that describes the season given below.
  - I. This season is marked by dry weather and excessive heat
  - II. The Sun shines vertically over the Tropic of cancer



III. Thunderstorms accompanied by dusty winds are common

**Options**

- |                         |                        |
|-------------------------|------------------------|
| (a) Cold weather season | (b) Hot weather season |
| (c) Advancing Monsoon   | (d) Retreating Monsoon |

**II. Very Short Answer Type Questions.**

1. Define climate.
2. List the elements that affect the climate of India.
3. List the factors that determine the climate of a place.
4. List the four main seasons of India.
5. List the two branches of advancing monsoon.



**III. Short Answer Type Questions.**

1. How do Himalayas affect the climate of India?
2. Give two characteristics of winter season.
3. How have monsoons been an 'unifying bond' in India?



**IV. Long Answer Type Questions.**

1. Write about the characteristic features of hot weather season and cold weather season in India.
2. How do south westerly winds bring rains in India?
3. Discuss features of the 'Retreating Monsoons'.
4. Discuss the monsoon season in India.
5. Explain how upper air circulation operates as a factor influencing climate of India.
6. Why is the western part of Rajasthan arid in spite of the Aravalli Hills? **[HOTS]**
7. Why Shillong has more rainfall than Kolkata? **[HOTS]**



**V. Map Work**

1. On an outline map of India show seasonal rainfall from June to September marking the areas receiving rainfall 20-40 cm, 60-100 cm and 200-400 cm.
2. On an outline map of India show the areas receiving annual rainfall 20-40 cm, 40-60 cm, 100-200 cm and above 400 cm.



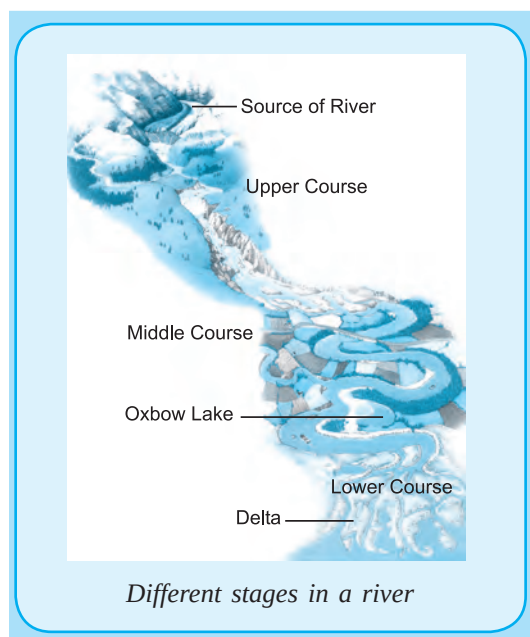
**DO AND LEARN**

1. Collect pictures of houses and occupations in different parts of India. Paste them in a scrapbook. Below each picture write how the climate and weather conditions have influenced their choice.
2. Find out about major seasonal festivals in the country. Categorise them statewise as harvest festival, winter, monsoon or spring festivals.

# CHAPTER 7

## Drainage

Drainage is a term used to describe the river system of an area.



### RIVERS

The term **drainage** describes the river system of an area. Small streams flowing from different directions come together to form the main river, which ultimately drains into a large water body such as a lake or a sea or an ocean. The area drained by a single river system is called a **drainage basin**. A closer observation on a map will indicate that any elevated area, such



as a mountain or an upland, separates two drainage basins. Such an upland is known as a **water divide**. The drainage systems of India are mainly controlled by the broad relief features of the subcontinent. Accordingly, the Indian rivers are divided into two major groups :

- the Himalayan rivers; and
- the Peninsular rivers.

Apart from originating from the two major physiographic regions of India, the Himalayan and the Peninsular rivers are different from each other in many ways. Most of the Himalayan rivers are **perennial**. It means that they have water throughout the year. These rivers receive water from rain as well as from melted snow from the lofty mountains. The two major Himalayan rivers, the Indus and the Brahmaputra originate from the north of the mountain ranges. They have cut through the mountains making gorges. The Himalayan rivers have long courses from their source to the sea. They perform intensive erosional activity in their upper courses and carry huge loads of silt and sand. In the middle and the lower courses, these rivers form meanders\*, oxbow\*\* lakes, and many other depositional features in their floodplains. They also have well-developed deltas.

\* **Meander** : A meander forms when water flows in a curvy, bandy path, like a snake.

\*\* **Oxbow lake** : A curved lake formed from a horseshoe bend in a river where the main stream has cut across the narrow end and no longer flows around the loop.

Small rivers that join bigger rivers are called **tributaries**. A large river and its tributaries form a **river system**.

We call the beginning of a river its **source**. The place where a river ends its flow is the river's **mouth**. The mouth of a river is usually the place where the river flows into another river, a lake, or the sea.

Every river flows through a **river valley**. The part of the valley covered by water is called the **bed** or **channel**. A **river bank** is the land on either side of the river.

Rivers are separated from each other by heights of land. These heights, called **divides**, decide the slope of the land and the direction in which the water will flow. Sometimes divides are called **watersheds** because they decide in which direction the rainwater will flow.

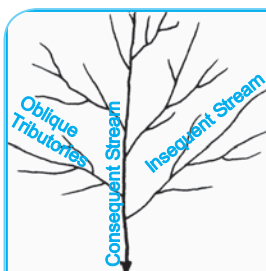
The area of land from which a river collects water is called its **drainage basin**. It describes an area drained collectively by the network of a river along with its tributaries and sub-tributaries of various dimensions. An area drained by a single river is called its catchment area.

When water drains into streams and rivers, it forms different patterns, depending on the shape of the land and the type of rocks it is made of.

Even within the same drainage basin the arrangement of streams are different. Based on the relief, geological structure and climatic conditions of the area, the streams form different patterns maybe within the same river basin. The streams

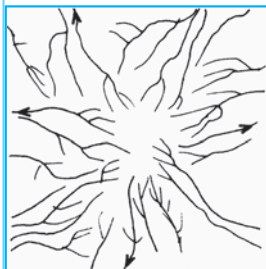
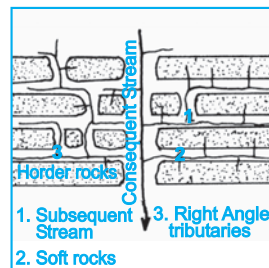
may form the following patterns.

⇒ **A dendritic pattern** — This consists of a single main stream with tributaries joining like the branches of a tree. The dendritic pattern develops in a region which is made of rocks having uniform structure. The direction of the river and its tributaries are determined by the slope. The land between the main valleys and tributaries stands



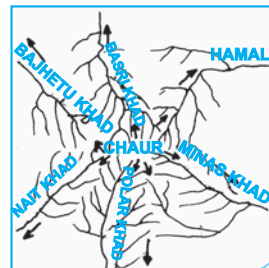
(a) Dendritic

(b) Trellis



(c) Radial

(d) A part of Yamuna Basin



up as ridges and spurs. The river makes a pattern like the veins of leaf.

- ⇒ **A trellis pattern** — This is a rectangular pattern formed when a long river is joined by short flowing streams, approximately at right angles. It develops in a region which is made up of alternate belts of hard and soft rocks all of which dip in the same direction. These lie at right angles to the general slope, below which the main river flows.
- ⇒ **A radial pattern** — This has the streams flowing in different directions from a central peak or dome like structure. This develops on a dome or volcanic cone. The rivers flow outward forming a pattern like the spokes of a wheel.
- ⇒ **The centrifugal drainage pattern** is usually found in arid areas, streams converge from all sides towards a central depression where there is a lake.

**Drainage** is the result of the evolutionary process of the broad relief features of the country. Based on the origin of the rivers the Indian river systems may be classified into two groups :

- (i) The Himalayan Rivers
- (ii) The Peninsular Rivers

### Characteristics of the Himalayan Rivers

- These rivers have large basins, e.g. Indus Basin.
- The rivers passing through the

Himalayas create spectacular gorges.

- The steep rock-sided deep valleys were created by the down cutting of the river during the period of the Himalayan uplift.
- These rivers are perennial as they receive water from rainfall and melting ice all the time.
- These rivers carry out intensive erosional activities upstream and also carry huge loads of sand and silt.
- When in the plains, these rivers form large meanders and depositional features such as flood plains, river cliffs and levees.

### The Peninsular Rivers

- These rivers flow through shallow valleys.
- Most of these rivers are seasonal and their flow depends on rainfall.
- When summer season arrives, even the large rivers have highly reduced flow of water in their channels.



*Indus Basin*





*Indus river at Ladakh*

- The gentler slopes cause a low intensity of erosional activity as compared to other rivers.
- These rivers do not have many meanders as the hard rock bed and lack of silt and sand does not allow them.
- Thus, most of the perennial rivers have a straight and linear course.

## DRAINAGE SYSTEMS

The Himalayan and the peninsular rivers may be divided into a number of drainage basins. The rivers originating in the Himalayas consist of three river systems. They are —

- (i) The Indus System
- (ii) The Ganga System
- (iii) The Brahmaputra System.

These river systems constitute two main drain basins — the Indus and the Ganga-Brahmaputra.

**The Indus System** — The Indus is about 2900 km long. It has its origins in the Himalayas of western **Tibet**, near lake **Mansarowar**. It flows through

Ladakh and through a very beautiful gorge at Gilgit. At this junction it is joined by several tributaries. It comes out of the mountains at **Attock** after passing through Baltistan and Gilgit. A third of the Indus Basin is in Jammu & Kashmir, Himachal Pradesh and the Punjab. The rest is in Pakistan.

Indus has a total drainage area of about 1,165,500 sq km, of which 453,250 sq km lies in the Himalayan mountains and foothills and the rest in the semi-arid plains of Pakistan. Its name has its origins from the Sanskrit word *sindhu* ('river' or 'stream'). It has also been mentioned in the *Rigveda*. India has derived its name from this river's name.

**The Ganga System** — The length of the river Ganga is 2510 km. For most of its course it is a wide and sluggish stream which flows through one of the most fertile and densely populated regions of India.

Rising in the Himalayas on the Indian side of the Tibet border, the Ganga's five headstreams — Bhagirathi, Alaknanda, Mandakini, Dhauliganga and Pindar — have their origins in Uttarakhand. Of these, Alaknanda rises about 48 km north of the Himalayan peak of Nanda Devi and the Bhagirathi finds its origins in an ice cave at the foot of the Himalayan glacier called the Gangotri. The Alaknanda and Bhagirathi meet at Devprayag to form the Ganga. This river cuts through southern Himalayas and comes from the mountains at Rishikesh. Then the river flows into the Haridwar plain.





*Major Rivers and Lakes of India*

In Bangladesh, Brahmaputra joins Ganga to form the combined stream called Padma. It meets river Meghna. The waters then flow into the Bay of Bengal through numerous channels, the largest one of which is called the Meghna estuary. It forms the Sunderbans Delta.

**The Brahmaputra System** — The Brahmaputra (Sanskrit — ‘Son of *Brahma*’) or Yarlung Zangbo is one of the great rivers of southern Asia. The

river’s source lies in the Chemayungdung Glacier, which covers the slopes of the Himalaya about 97 km southeast of Mapang Yangeno (Mapam) Lake in southwestern Tibet. From the source the river flows for nearly 1,126 km in an easterly direction. Throughout its upper course the river is generally known as the Tsangpo (“the Purifier”). It receives a number of tributaries in Tibet.

Near Sadiya, Assam, the Dihang changes course to southwest and is known

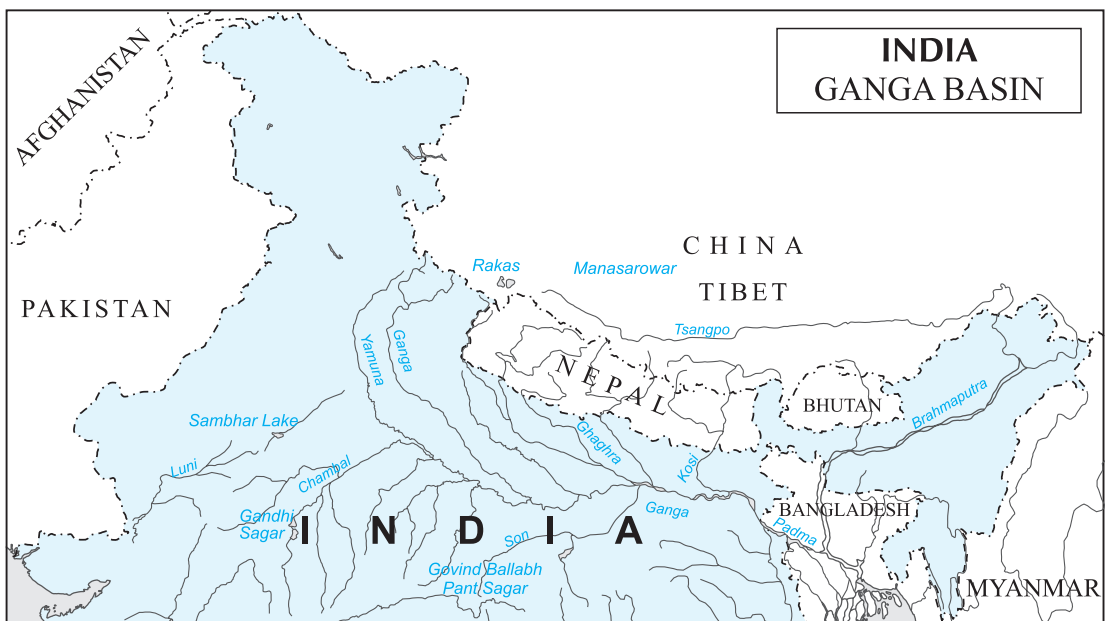
as the Brahmaputra. After flowing 800 km in this direction it turns south again, going through Bangladesh. At the Ganga delta, the river divides into two channels and the main channel becomes known as the Jamuna river. Both channels empty into the Bay of Bengal.

**The Peninsular Rivers** — Peninsular India's main watershed is formed by the Western Ghats. These ghats lie very close to the western coast. Most of the main peninsular rivers like the Kaveri, Krishna, Godavari and Mahanadi flow eastwards and drain into the Bay of Bengal. These rivers make deltas at their mouths. A large number of small streams flow west of the Western Ghats. The Narmada and the Tapi are the only long rivers that flow west. The peninsular rivers have small drainage basins.



*Peninsular Rivers*

In Assam, the river is mighty, even in the dry season, and during the rains its banks are more than 8 km apart. As the river follows its braided 724 km course through the valley it receives several rapidly rushing streams.



*The Ganga-Brahmaputra River System*

The plains watered by the Brahmaputra streams yield abundant crops of rice, jute and mustard. Streams can navigate the river from Bay of Bengal up as far as Dibrugarh in Assam, 1287 km from the sea. In recent years soil erosion caused by deforestation in the valleys of Tibet and northeast India has caused frequent flooding of the delta region in Bangladesh on a massive scale.

**The Narmada Basin** — The Narmada has its source near Amarkantak in Madhya Pradesh. It meets the Arabian Sea through an estuary after flowing south westward in a trough for a distance of about 1300 km. Its basin is restricted to Madhya Pradesh and Gujarat. The Narmada does not have a developed tributary system.

The famous ‘Marble Rocks’ near Jabalpur are formed where the Narmada flows through a deep gorge. The Dhuadhar Falls where the Narmada flows over deep wells is another famous spot.

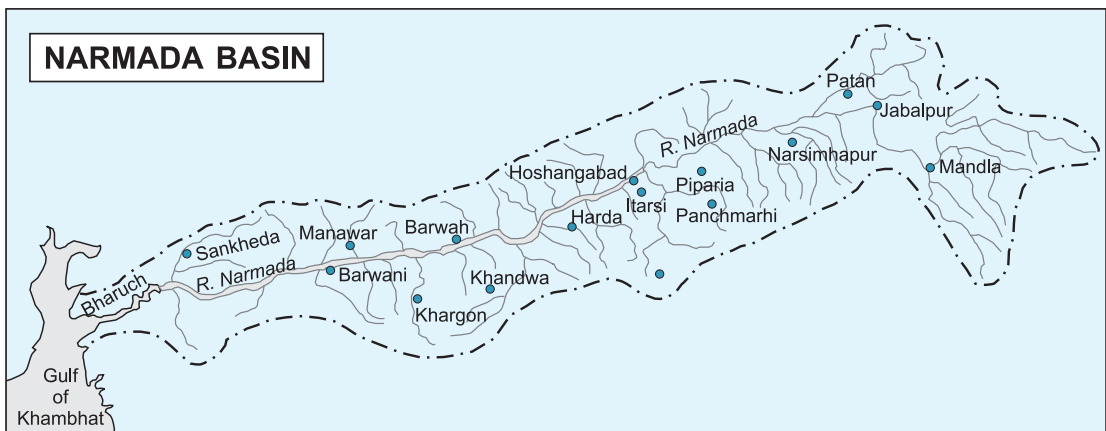
**The Kaveri Basin** — The Kaveri has its source in the Brahmagir range of the Western Ghats. The river reaches the Bay of Bengal after flowing over 800 km. It ends at Kaveripatnam and its basin is shared by Karnataka, Tamil Nadu and Kerala.

**The Krishna Basin** — The river Krishna rises from a spring near Mahabaleshwar. The river reaches the Bay of Bengal after flowing for about 1400 km.

It is the second longest river of Peninsular India after Godavari which has a length of 1500 km.

Its tributaries include Bhima, Musi, Ghatprabha, Koyna and the Tungabhadra. Its basin drains part of Maharashtra, Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh and Telangana.

**The Godavari Basin** — The Godavari is the largest peninsular river. It rises in Nasik, Maharashtra. After flowing for 1500 km, the river drains into the Bay of Bengal. Having the largest drainage basins among the



peninsular rivers, half of this river basin is located in Maharashtra while the rest is shared by Madhya Pradesh, Odisha, Andhra Pradesh and Telangana.

Joined by numerous tributaries, the massive Godavari river is also known as Vridha Ganga or Dakshin Ganga. The tributaries of Godavari are Purna, Wardha, Pranhita, Manjra, Wainganga and Penganga. The last three of these are very large tributaries.

**The Mahanadi Basin** — Rising in Chhattisgarh, the Mahanadi flows through Odisha to reach the Bay of Bengal. The 885 km long river has its drainage basin lying in Chhattisgarh, Jharkhand, Odisha and Maharashtra.

**The Tapi Basin** — With its source in Betul, Madhya Pradesh, the Tapi flows in a trough, parallel to the Narmada. The Tapi basin includes parts of Madhya Pradesh, Gujarat and Maharashtra but is still smaller in size than the Narmada basin.

Other than these there are other small river basins also in the peninsular regions. These include Mahi, Pennar and Subarnarekha.

## SEAS

The word ‘sea’ also means the ocean water in general, but in particular, small bodies of water in the ocean are called seas. India is located at the head of the Indian Ocean. The peninsular tip divides the ocean into two branches – the Arabian Sea on the west of peninsula and the Bay of Bengal on the east. Both the seas form our natural boundaries on three sides – west, south and east.

## RIVERS : THE LIFELINES OF HUMAN CIVILISATION

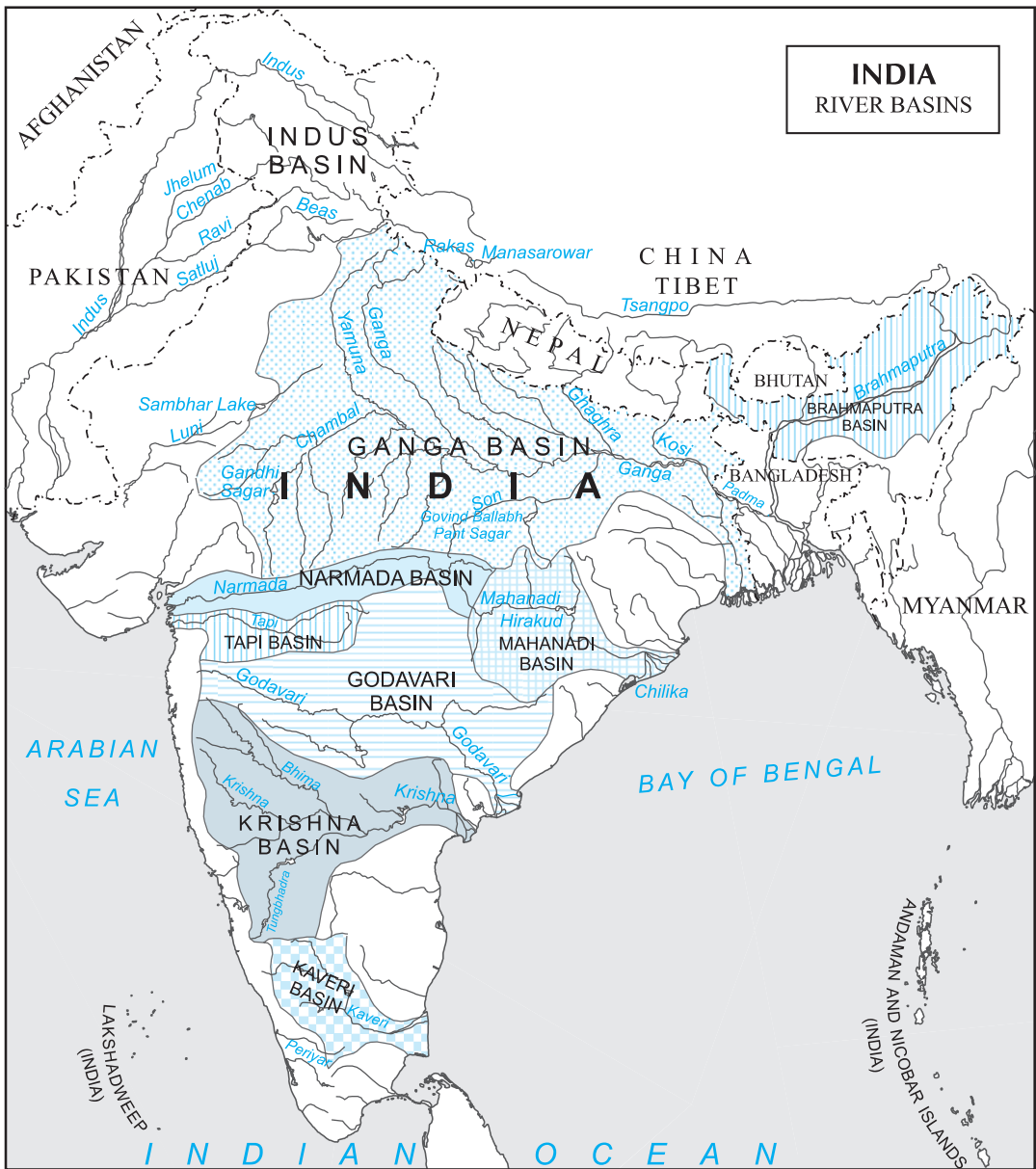


Rivers have always been of great use to man. They provided early man with water to drink, and the fish they provided were valuable as food. When man learnt to build and manage boats, rivers supplied a cheap and easy way of travel. River valleys provided easy routes and fertile land. In many places, the rivers have been set to work to produce electric power. Rivers often form the boundaries of countries, as their crossings can be easily controlled.

River valley civilisations could thrive as the rivers were the lifelines that sustained them. Even today rural and urban people need, utilise and even misuse water in various ways. They use river waters as means of throwing away wastes.

As the need for electric power and water continued to grow, more dams were built. Large dams were built on demand. These dams had huge power generating capacities and vast reservoirs. A ‘large dam’ is defined by the International Commission on Large Dams (ICOLD) as one measuring 15 metres or more from foundation to crest, taller than a four-storey building. In particular, large dams in the tropics seem to cause almost as many problems as they solve.

The large dams in the tropics seriously affect the environment. The creation of a reservoir and the resulting change in the downstream flow of a large river can upset the delicate ecological balance in



the river. Whole species of fish and other aquatic life may vanish within a short span of time.

In the area around a large tropical reservoir and related irrigation canals,

water borne diseases — such as schistosomiasis, malaria, and dysentery — can become widespread. Almost in all cases, thousands of people are displaced from their villages.



## HYDROELECTRIC POWER



People have used water as a source of power for more than 2,000 years. Today, water is used to produce electricity in hydroelectric (water-driven) power stations. Hydroelectric power stations are often built inside dams. Water from a huge lake behind the dam flows down pipes. The moving water spins turbines which drive generators and produce electricity. Hydroelectric power produces electricity without causing pollution, using scarce resources.

### Himalayan Rivers

| River                                                        | Source                                         | Total Length              | Area Drained (Sq. Km)              | Important Tributaries                                |
|--------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------|---------------------------|------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------|
| Indus                                                        | Tibet, 100 km near Mansarovar Lake, ht. 5000 m | 2900<br>709<br>(In India) | 1,17,844<br>in India<br>3,00,000   | Zaskar, Shyok, Jhelum, Chenab, Ravi, Beas, Satluj    |
| Ganga<br>Two headstreams<br>(i) Alaknanda<br>(ii) Bhagirathi | Ht. 7800m<br>Ht. 6600m                         | 2070<br>2490              | 9,51,600<br>8,28,200               | Yamuna, Ghaghara, Gandak, Kosi, Son, Chambal, Betwa  |
| Brahmaputra                                                  | About 100 km S.W. of Mansarovar Ht. 5,150m     | 2900<br>(In India)        | 5,80,000<br>(In India)<br>2,85,000 | Raja Tsangpo Lhotse, Subansiri, Tista, Torsa, Dihang |

### Peninsular Rivers

| River    | Source                                 | Total Length | Area Drained (Sq. Km) | Important Tributaries                                                            |
|----------|----------------------------------------|--------------|-----------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Narmada  | Rises near Amarkantak in M.P. at 1057m | 1300         | 93,080                | Short tributaries zone more than 200m. Burhner, Balyar, Dudhi, Tawa, Hiran, etc. |
| Tapi     | Rises in Betul district                | 792          | 64,750                | Purna, Betul, Lavda etc.                                                         |
| Mahanadi | Raipur district, Chhattisgarh ht. 442m | 885          | 1,92,000              | Brahmani, Baitarni, Subarnarekha.                                                |
| Godavari | Nashik dist. of Maharashtra, ht. 1007m | 1500         | 3,24,000              | Purna, Wardha Pranhita, Manjra, Wainganga, Penganga, etc.                        |
| Krishna  | Near Mahabaleshwar, Maharashtra        | 1400         | 2,60,000              | Koyna, Panch Ganga, Dudhganga, Tungabhadra, Musi, Bhima, etc.                    |
| Kaveri   | Brahmagir Hills, ht. 1,341m            | 765          | 72,000                | Amravati, Shiva, etc.                                                            |

## CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the extensive details provided highlight the critical role of rivers and their drainage systems in shaping the geographical features of a region. The distinct characteristics of Himalayan and Peninsular rivers, including their origins, flow patterns, and impact on surrounding landscapes, underscore the diverse nature of India's drainage systems.



The discussion on river patterns, such as dendritic, trellis, and radial, adds depth to understanding the geographical variations within a drainage basin.

Additionally, the account of major river systems like the Indus, Ganga, Brahmaputra, and peninsular rivers elucidates their unique attributes, emphasising the vital lifelines they represent for human civilisations historically and in the present.

## IMPORTANT TERMS

- o **Braided channel or stream** : Streams having diverging and converging channels separated by bars and islands.
- o **Dendrite** : The natural streams in the form of a tree like figure or pattern.
- o **Drainage** : The draining of land, etc., or a system of drains or water courses.
- o **Basin** : A tract of land drained by a river and its tributaries.
- o **Inland drainage** : Drainage pattern restricted to an island basin, having no outflow to the sea.
- o **Lake** : A large expanse of water surrounded by land or by a man-made reservoir, e.g., a dam. It may be fed by rivers, springs or local precipitation.
- o **Perennial river** : Where water course flows throughout the year.
- o **Radial drainage** : Pattern of outflowing rivers away from a central point, like the spokes of a wheel.
- o **Trellis drainage** : A long river joined by short flowing streams, approximately at right angles, makes a rectangular pattern called trellis.
- o **Watershed** : Boundary between two rivers.

## POINTS TO REMEMBER

- | A river is any natural stream of fresh water that flows in a definite channel.
- | We call the beginning of a river its source and the place where a river ends its flow, is its mouth.
- | River streams form different drainage patterns. They may form –
  - A dendritic pattern
  - A radial pattern
  - A trellis pattern
  - A centrifugal pattern
- | Based on the origin of the rivers the Indian river systems may be classified into
  - The Himalayan Rivers
  - The Peninsular Rivers
- | The rivers originating in the Himalayas consist of three river systems. They are
  - The Indus system
  - The Ganga system

— The Brahmaputra system

- | Peninsular India's main watershed is formed by the Western Ghats. These ghats lie very close to the western coast.
- | The peninsular rivers have comparatively small drainage basins.
- | Rivers have been lifelines of human civilisation.
- | River pollution has been on the rise in India and all over the world.

## EXERCISES

### I. Choose the correct answer.

1. In which of the following states is the Wular lake located?  
(a) Rajasthan (b) Punjab  
(c) Uttar Pradesh (d) Jammu and Kashmir
2. Why is the Godavari River sometimes referred to as the “Dakshin Ganga”?  
(a) Due to its spiritual significance (b) Because it flows northwards  
(c) It is the longest river in India (d) It flows through the Himalayas
3. The river Narmada has its source at  
(a) Satpura (b) Amarkantak  
(c) Brahmagiri (d) Slopes of the Western Ghats
4. Which one of the following lakes is a salt water lake?  
(a) Sambhar (b) Wular (c) Dal (d) Gobind Sagar
5. Which of the following statements about the above drainage pattern is **incorrect**?  
(a) This pattern develops in a region made of rocks having a uniform structure  
(b) There is a single main stream with tributaries joining like the branches of a tree  
(c) The direction of the river and its tributaries are determined by the slope  
(d) The river flows outward forming a pattern like the spokes of a wheel
6. Consider the statements given below and choose the correct answer.

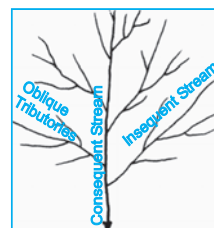
**Statement I :** The Indus is about 2900 km long.

**Statement II :** It originates near Mansarovar lake.

- (a) Statement (I) is correct and (II) is incorrect
- (b) Statement (I) is incorrect and (II) is correct
- (c) Both (I) and (II) are incorrect
- (d) Both (I) and (II) are correct

### II. Very Short Answer Type Questions.

1. What is a drainage basin.
2. Where do the following rivers originate?



- (a) Kaveri                      (b) Brahmaputra                      (c) Mahanadi                      (d) Tapi

- What is a watershed?
- What is meant by a water divide? Give an example.
- Name the different stages of rivers.
- Where do the river Indus and Ganga have their origin?

### III. Short Answer Type Questions.

- Differentiate between dendritic and trellis pattern of rivers.
- Give any three characteristics of Himalayan rivers.
- Why are rivers important for the country's economy?



### IV. Long Answer Type Questions.

- What is the difference between peninsular rivers and Himalayan rivers?
- Write notes on
  - Ganga System
  - Brahmaputra System
  - Indus System.
- Suppose, you are travelling from Haridwar to Siliguri along the foothills of the Himalayas. Name the important rivers you will come across. Describe the characteristics of any one of them.



[HOTS]

### V. Case Study Based question.

A meandering river across a floodplain forms cut-offs that later develops into ox-bow lakes. Spits and bars form lagoons in the coastal areas, e.g. the Chilika lake, the Pulicat lake and the Kolleru lake. Lakes in the region of inland drainage are sometimes seasonal; for example, the Sambhar lake in Rajasthan, which is a salt water lake. Its water is used for producing salt. Most of the freshwater lakes are in the Himalayan region. They are of glacial origin. In other words, they formed when glaciers dug out a basin, which was later filled with snowmelt.



- What process primarily contributes to the formation of freshwater lakes in the Himalayan region, and what is their origin?
- Provide an example of a saltwater lake in India and explain its primary use.
- How do meandering rivers on floodplains lead to the creation of ox-bow lakes?

### VI. Map Work.

Mark and label the following features on an outline map of India:

- Rivers : Indus, Kaveri, Yamuna and Meghna
- Lakes : Mansarovar, Dal, Nagarjuna Sagar, Nainital
- Dams : Bhakra Nangal and Hirakud
- One west flowing river and label it.

#### THINGS TO DO

Make a model of a river flowing through all its stages — from its source to its mouth. You can choose any river.



# CHAPTER

## 8

# Natural Vegetation

Our earth is unique among all the planets. A great variety of organisms exist in its narrow zone known as biosphere. The chief among them are the natural vegetation and wildlife. Natural vegetation means any plants or trees that grow on their own or without any form of human intervention.

Life on earth could not exist without plants. Trees provide us with wood for fuel, furniture and tools. Scientists use plants to make drugs such as digitalis (from foxglove), and morphine (from poppies). Plants range from microscopic green plankton in the sea to gigantic coniferous trees so tall we cannot see their tops. About 400,000 plants are already known to us, from rare exotic flowers to common garden vegetables. Today, more than 2,500 different trees, flowers and other plants are in danger of extinction due to the destruction of their natural habitats.

### WHAT IS AN ECOSYSTEM?

An ecosystem is a complex set of relationships among the living resources, habitats and residents of an area. It includes plants, trees, animals, fish, birds, micro-organisms, water, soil and people.

The climate influences the distribution of plants and animals on planet Earth. Other factors which are interrelated and

also affect them are : (i) soil (ii) relief (iii) drainage.

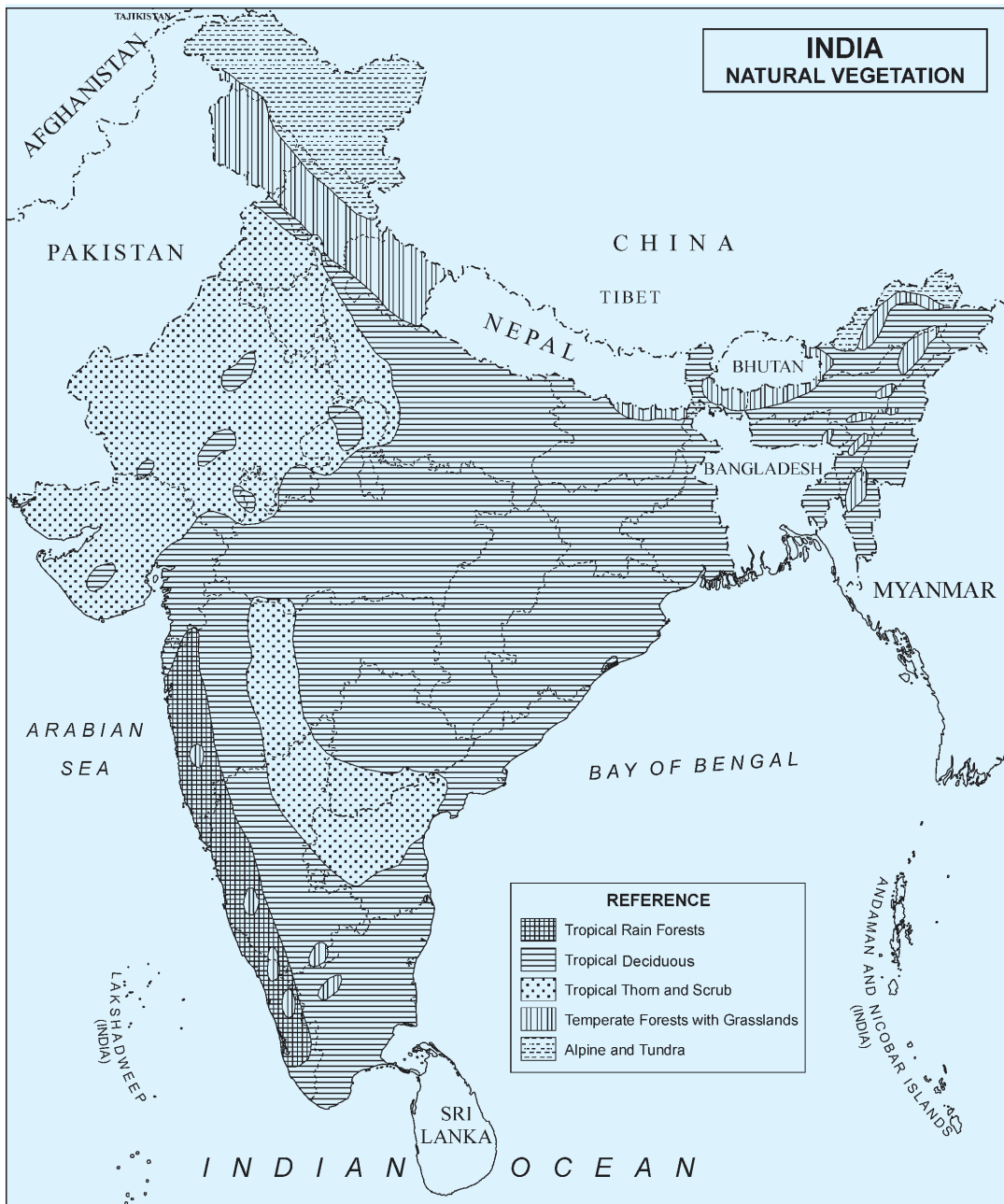
Plants grow in distinct groups of communities in areas having similar climatic conditions. Plants of a particular region or period are called **flora**. They are listed by species and considered as a group. In the same way **fauna** is a term used for the species of animal life of the area. Interdependence is a common part of life in an area where plants and animals coexist. They also depend a lot on their physical environment. This is what forms an **ecosystem**. Human beings are also a major participant in the ecosystem.

Natural vegetation refers to a plant community which has grown naturally without human aid and has been left undisturbed by humans for a long time. This is also called **virgin vegetation**. Thus, cultivated crops and fruits and orchards form part of vegetation but not natural vegetation.

### VEGETATION TYPES

Temperature or heat is a climatic factor just like precipitation, which determines which plant species can flourish under some particular climatic conditions. Other than this, soil, relief and drainage bring about gradual changes. The types of vegetations prevalent in India are :





*Natural Vegetation of India.*

- (i) Tropical Rainforests
- (ii) Tropical Deciduous Forests
- (iii) Tropical Thorn Forests and Scrubs
- (iv) Temperate Forests with Grasslands
- (v) Alpine and Tundra Grasslands

## TROPICAL RAINFORESTS/ EVERGREEN FORESTS



- Tropical rainforests are only found in the rainy parts of India, i.e., the Western Ghats and the island groups of Lakshadweep, and the Andaman and Nicobar Islands.
- These types of forests grow bushy in areas that receive more than 200 cm of rainfall and experience a short dry season.
- In these forests trees grow to the height of up to 60 metres or even above.
- As the region is warm and wet throughout the year a variety of lush green vegetation is abundant here. This vegetation includes trees, shrubs and creepers.
- There is no particular time for the trees to shed their leaves so these forests are green in appearance the whole year around.
- Ebony, mahogany, rubber, rosewood and cinchona are some of the commercially important trees of this forest.
- The forests have a unique characteristic of having a large number of species found together. This poses a problem as no particular variety can be targeted for commercial use.
- These forests are found in equatorial regions and coastal regions. Trees have very broad leaves to allow transpiration of surplus moisture.
- As the trees are very close to each other, they form a thick canopy and

the vegetation form a multi-layered structure.



## TROPICAL DECIDUOUS FORESTS



The most widespread forests in India are the tropical deciduous forest.

- Also known as the **monsoon forests**, these forests are spread over a region that gets rainfall between 70 cm and 200 cm.
- For about six to eight weeks in summer, the trees of monsoon forests shed their leaves. As every species of tree has its own time of shedding leaves, these forests never appear barren at any particular time of the year.
- The trees have widespread out branches like the neem and mango. Leaves are smaller in size than that of the rainforests to reduce transpiration. The trees also have less height than evergreen trees.
- The trees are prized for their hardwood as commercially valuable timber is collected from these forests.

- The abundance or lack of water plays an important role in the further division of monsoon forest type. There are two types of tropical deciduous forests —

- (i) Moist deciduous forests
- (ii) Dry deciduous forests

### (i) Moist Deciduous Forests

- Located in areas that receive 200 cm to 100 cm rainfall.
- Main location of these forests
  - ⇒ Eastern slopes of Western Ghats
  - ⇒ West Odisha
  - ⇒ Chhattisgarh
  - ⇒ Jharkhand
  - ⇒ North Eastern States
  - ⇒ The Himalayan Foothills
- Teak is the most important and prominent species of these forests.
- Other commercially important species are *khair*, *shisham*, *sal*, bamboo, kusum, arjun, mulberry and sandalwood.

### (ii) Dry Deciduous Forests

- Located in areas that receive 100 cm to 70 cm rainfall.
- Most forests are in
  - ⇒ The rainier parts of the peninsular plateau
  - ⇒ Plains of Bihar
  - ⇒ Plains of Uttar Pradesh
- Open stretches of teak, sal, peepal, neem grow.
- Most of this forest region has now been cleared for cultivation and grazing.



*Tropical deciduous forests*

### THE THORN FORESTS AND SCRUBS



- Thorny trees and bushes comprise the thorn forests and scrubs of India.
- These forests are found mainly in north-western part of India, in regions of less than 70 cm of rainfall, i.e.,
  - ⇒ Semi-arid areas of Gujarat
  - ⇒ Semi-arid and arid areas of Rajasthan
  - ⇒ Semi-arid areas of Madhya Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, Uttar Pradesh and Haryana
- The main plant species of these forests are
  - ⇒ Cacti                      ⇒ Acacias
  - ⇒ Palms                      ⇒ Euphorbias
- The vegetation consists of low and open forests with short thorny trees and thorny bushes, scrubs and grasses in between.
- The scattered trees of these type of forests possess long, penetrating roots that reach deep into the soil. These roots tend to spread out in

a radial pattern. They spread this way to reach for water.

- The stems are succulent to conserve water.
- Leaves of trees in the thorn forests are thick and tiny in order to have minimum evaporation.



*Thorn forests and scrubs*

## TEMPERATE FORESTS WITH GRASSLANDS



Increasing height (altitude) causes decreasing temperature in the mountainous regions. This causes a change in natural vegetation at different altitudes. So one can observe a succession of natural vegetation belts in the same order as seen from the tropical to the tundra regions.

Thus we can observe :

- Tropical deciduous forests in the Himalayan foothills.
- Then come the wet temperate type of forests at a height of 1000 to 2000 metres. The broad-leaf trees of evergreen variety are found in the wet temperate forests.
- Temperate forests at the height of 1500 to 3000 metres are full of coniferous trees that include
  - ⇒ Cedar
  - ⇒ Spruce

- ⇒ Pine
- ⇒ Deodar
- ⇒ Silver fir

- The temperate forests occur on the southern slopes of the Himalayas.
- At high altitude of more than 3600 metres, temperate forests and grasslands give way to alpine vegetation. Silver fir, junipers, pines and birches are common trees.



*A forest in Kangra valley*

- As they approach the snowline, they get progressively stunted. Shrubs, scrubs and then alpine grasslands are found at higher elevations.
- At even higher altitudes the temperate grasslands become a common occurrence.



## ALPINE AND TUNDRA VEGETATION

- Temperate forests and grasslands gradually decrease at 3600 metres height.
- At 3600 metres above sea level the Alpine vegetation flourishes.
- Alpine vegetation mainly includes

- ⇒ Birches                      ⇒ Pines
- ⇒ Junipers                    ⇒ Silver fir.

- The growth of trees becomes stunted as they near the snowline. After this gradual change the shrubs and scrubs merge into the Alpine grasslands at last.
- The Alpine grasslands are most frequented by nomadic tribes like the *Bakarwals* and the *Gujjars* who bring their flocks of sheep to graze here.
- As one goes even higher, Tundra vegetation also includes lichens and mosses.



Snow-draped trees in Suru valley, Kashmir

## CONSERVATION

‘Conservation’ is the management, protection and wise use of natural resources.

The word *conserve* is coined from the two Latin words ‘*con*’ which mean together and ‘*servare*’ which means to preserve. Hence, conservation means to preserve and keep together. As conservation need is urgent in the face of depletion, India needs a well designed strategy to protect its resources.



“The most unhappy thing about conservation is that it is never permanent. Save a priceless woodland or an irreplaceable mountain today, and tomorrow it is threatened from another quarter.”  
— Hal Borland.

Conservation of natural vegetation is a national problem. This has to be tackled in a systematic and planned manner. As much as the governments involvement is required, people’s involvement in conservation is of vital importance. People all over the world have practised conservation for hundreds of years.

## CONSERVATION OF FORESTS



Rapid destruction of forests has become a major cause of concern. Forests are an important resource, so we need to conserve this renewable resource. They must be preserved for use by future generations. Some important ways for conserving forests are as below.

**(a) Afforestation :** We should plant more trees, i.e., afforestation. All communities should be made aware of the importance of forests. This will prevent reckless cutting of trees. Besides this, people living near forests should be made aware of the danger of forest fires and how they cause depletion of forest resources.

**(b) Check on Urban Growth :** For living purposes, forests have been destroyed. New cities have led to destruction of forest areas. Therefore, the urban growth should

### Medicinal Plants

As many as 352 medicinal plants have been named in the World Conservation Union's Red List. Out of these, 52 are threatened species and 49 are endangered. About 2000 plants have been described in Ayurveda, out of which some 500 are in regular use.

**Kachnar** : Cures asthma and ulcers. Buds and roots good for digestive problems. Roots cure snake bites.

**Babool** : Leaves used as a tonic, cure for eye sores, medicine for cough. Its bark dust is a cure for dog bite.

**Arjun** : Fresh juice cures earache. Good for blood pressure problems and heart diseases.

**Neem** : Antibiotic and antibacterial

**Jamun** : Vinegar is made from the juice of unripe fruit which has digestive properties. It has curative properties also. The powder of the seed is good for diabetes. The bark is good for cough, asthma and dysentery.

**Rouwolfia Sarpagandha** : Treats blood pressure. Found only in India.

**Tulsi plant** : Cures cough and cold.

be properly planned so that the minimum area under forests is maintained.

(c) **Check on Grazing** : Overgrazing by animals leads to destruction of forests. There should be restrictions and control on grazing by domestic animals.

### WHY WE NEED TO CONSERVE



- to maintain the habitats of plants and animals.
- to prevent their extinction.
- to prevent gaps in or damage to the food chain.
- to reduce the stress on resources.
- to prevent rapid depletion of resources.

Specific laws have been made to protect and conserve fragile habitats — these regions are known as Eco-sensitive Zones. They are protected from human encroachment. There are also specific

acts to protect certain areas such as the No Development Zone at Numaligarh East of Kaziranga. The Doon Valley, the Aravalli Hills are a few other areas protected by specific acts.

These are also programmes for conservation of wetlands, mangroves and coral reefs under the preservation of special ecosystem.

**Biosphere reserves** have also come up in the country in order to protect and conserve the biodiversity of India. These reserves are actually multipurpose protected areas. In these reserves each plant and animal species finds a protected, necessary environment in its natural habitat.

The main aims behind the setting up of the biosphere reserves are :

- (i) Conserving and maintaining diversity and integrity of the natural heritage in its full form, i.e., physical environment, the flora and the fauna.

- (ii) Promoting researches on ecological conservation and other aspects of environmental preservation.
- (iii) Providing facilities for education, awareness and training.
- (iv) To preserve the genetic variety in the crucial natural ecosystem settings.

Eighteen biosphere reserves have been set up in the country to protect flora and fauna. Twelve out of these, the Sundarbans Nanda Devi, the Gulf of Mannar, the Nilgiri, Nokrek, Great Nicobar, Simlipal, Pachmarhi, Achanakmar-Amarkantak, Agasthyamalai, Khangchendzonga and Panna have been included in the world network of biosphere reserves.

1. Nilgiri – Tamil Nadu, Kerala, Karnataka
2. Nanda Devi – Uttarakhand
3. Gulf of Mannar – Tamil Nadu
4. Nokrek – Meghalaya
5. Sundarbans – West Bengal
6. Manas – Assam
7. Simlipal – Odisha
8. Dihang-Dibang – Arunachal Pradesh
9. Pachmarhi – Madhya Pradesh
10. Achanakmar-Amarkantak – Madhya Pradesh, Chhattisgarh
11. Great Rann of Kutch – Gujarat

12. Cold Desert – Himachal Pradesh
13. Khangchendzonga – Sikkim
14. Agasthya-Malai – Kerala, Tamil Nadu
15. Great Nicobar – Andaman & Nicobar
16. Dibru-Saikhowa – Assam
17. Seshachalam Hills – Andhra Pradesh
18. Panna – Madhya Pradesh

Other measures to protect the flora and fauna include

- (i) Financial and technical assistance to all Botanical Gardens.
- (ii) Project tiger, project rhino, project elephant and many other eco-developmental projects have been introduced.
- (iii) 103 national parks, 563 wildlife sanctuaries and zoological gardens have been established.

All Indians must understand the importance of the preservation of our natural ecosystem for preserving our existence and its survival in the harsh future. By stopping uncontrolled, unplanned destruction of natural environment we can put on hold the drastic death of Planet Earth and human beings.

### IMPORTANT TERMS

- o **Biosphere** : The part of the world where organisms can live.
- o **Biosphere Reserve** : A forest area where various types of flora and fauna are preserved in a natural environment.
- o **Ecology** : The branch of biology concerned with the relation between organisms and their environment.

- o **Ecosystem** : The interacting system of a biological community and its non-living surroundings.
- o **Fauna** : Animal life in general, as distinguished from flora, especially the indigenous animals of a certain region, environment or period.
- o **Flora** : Plant life in general especially plants of a certain region, environment or period.
- o **Vegetation** : Plant life in general, with respect to geographical variation or scenery.

## POINTS TO REMEMBER

- | Life on earth cannot exist without plants.
- | The factors which affect the distribution of plants and animals are climate, soil, relief and drainage.
- | Based on the availability of soil, water and heat the five main biomes of the world are (i) Forests (ii) Savanna (iii) Grassland (iv) Desert (v) Tundra
- | India's flora ranges from those types that are found in the tropics to those found in the Arctic region.
- | Temperature, heat and precipitation are climatic factors that determine which plant species can flourish under particular climatic conditions.
- | The main types of vegetation prevalent in India are :
  - (i) Tropical Rainforests (ii) Tropical Deciduous Forests (iii) Tropical Thorn Forests and Shrubs
  - (iv) Temperate Forests with Grasslands and (v) Alpine and Tundra Vegetation.

## EXERCISES



### I. Choose the correct answer.

1. The Bakarwal and Gujjar tribes graze their flock of sheep in :
  - (a) Tropical rainforests
  - (b) Tropical thorn forests and scrubs
  - (c) Temperate forests with grasslands
  - (d) None of the above
2. Given the commercially valuable trees in the forests, how can sustainable resource management practices be applied to ensure their long-term availability?
  - (a) Clear-cutting large sections of the forests at once
  - (b) Banning the harvest of all commercial tree species
  - (c) Implementing selective logging and reforestation programmes
  - (d) Encouraging unregulated logging to boost the economy
3. Which are the most widespread forests in India?
  - (a) Tropical rainforests
  - (b) Tropical deciduous forests
  - (c) Tropical thorn forests
  - (d) Alpine and Tundra grasslands
4. How many biosphere reserves are there in India?
  - (a) 14
  - (b) 15
  - (c) 16
  - (d) 18
5. Sundarbans Bioreserve is located in which state?
  - (a) Assam
  - (b) West Bengal
  - (c) Meghalaya
  - (d) Tamil Nadu

6. There are two statements marked as Assertion (A) and Reason (R). Mark your answer as per the codes provided below.

**Assertion (A) :** The Alpine grasslands are most frequented by Gujjars and Bakarwals who bring their sheep to graze here.

**Reason (R) :** As one goes even higher, Tundra vegetation also includes lichens and mosses.

- (a) Both (A) and (R) are true and (R) is the correct explanation of (A)
- (b) Both (A) and (R) are true but (R) is not the correct explanation of (A)
- (c) (A) is correct but (R) is wrong
- (d) (A) is wrong but (R) is correct

7. Consider the statements given below and choose the correct answer.

**Statement I :** Afforestation is the best means to conserve forests.

**Statement II :** Overgrazing leads to destruction of forests.

- (a) Statement (I) is correct and (II) is incorrect
- (b) Statement (I) is incorrect and (II) is correct
- (c) Both (I) and (II) are incorrect
- (d) Both (I) and (II) are correct



## II. Very Short Answer Type Questions.

- 1. Define flora.
- 2. What is an ecosystem?
- 3. What is meant by 'natural vegetation'?
- 4. Which three factors determine vegetation types?
- 5. Where are tropical rainforests found?



## III. Short Answer Type Questions.

- 1. Write a brief note on thorn forests and scrubs.
- 2. What are tropical rainforests?
- 3. What are the characteristics of moist deciduous forests?
- 4. What are the features of Dry deciduous forests?

## IV. Long Answer Type Questions.

- 1. Why have biosphere reserves been set up?
- 2. What is the difference between Alpine and Tundra vegetation and temperate forests with grasslands?
- 3. Explain the ways to conserve forests.
- 4. Explain the characteristic features of Tropical Evergreen forests.



[HOTS]

## V. Map Work

- 1. On an outline map of India mark and label :
  - (i) Tropical Deciduous Forests
  - (ii) Temperate Forests with Grasslands.

### THINGS TO DO

- 1. Make a list of endangered plants in India.
- 2. Plan a visit to a biosphere reserve. Make a detailed report after the visit.



# CHAPTER 9

## Wildlife

### WILDLIFE

Wildlife refers to animals, birds and other organisms, like insects which live in a natural habitat.

India has a rich stock of flora and fauna. The abundance of wildlife can be estimated by the following :

- There are more than 90,000 animal species.
- India has 2000 species of birds that make up 13% of the world's total.
- The country has 2546 species of fish that make up 12% of the world's stock.
- The amphibians, reptiles and mammals of India comprise between 5% and 8% of the world's counts.

The elephants are huge, yet majestic land creatures. These mammals live in the hot wet forests of Kerala, Karnataka and Assam. The elephants of India are lower in height than the African



*Lion in Gir Forest, Gujarat*



*The Majestic Tiger – National Animal of India*



*Indian Elephant*



*Rhinoceros in Kaziranga National Park, Assam*

elephants and also possess smaller ears and tusks. Assam and West Bengal have swamps and marshlands that provide homes for the one-horned rhinos.

Many parts of the Thar Desert and the Rann of Kachchh are where the camels and wild ass live respectively. Various species of monkeys, gazel, *chousingha*, *nilgai* and Indian bison are also found in our country.



*The Great Indian Bustard*

India is the only country in the world that has both tigers and lions. The natural habitat of the Indian lion is the Gir forest in Gujarat. Tigers are found in the forests of Madhya Pradesh, the Sundarbans of West Bengal and the Himalayan region. Leopards too are members of the cat family. They are important among animals of prey.

The Himalayas harbour a hardy range of animals, which survive in extreme cold. Ladakh's freezing high altitudes are a home to yak, the shaggy horned wild ox weighing around one tonne, the Tibetan antelope, the bharal (blue sheep), wild sheep, and the **kiang** (Tibetan wild ass). Furthermore, the ibex, bear, snow-leopard and very rare red panda are found in certain pockets.

In the rivers, lakes and coastal areas, turtles, crocodiles and gharials are found.

Bird life in India is colourful. Peacocks, pheasants, ducks, parakeets, cranes and pigeons are some of the birds inhabiting the forests and wetlands of the country.

We have selected our crops from a biodiverse environment i.e., from the reserve of edible plants. There are many medicinal plants. The animals provide us draught power, transportation, meat, eggs. The fish provide nutritive food. Many insects help in pollination of crops and fruit trees and exert biological control on such insects, which are harmful. Every species has a role to play in the ecosystem. Hence, conservation is essential. Due to excessive exploitation of the plants and animal resources by human beings, the ecosystem has been disturbed. About 1,300 plant species are endangered and 20 species are extinct. Quite a few animal species are also endangered and some have become extinct.

The main causes for this major threat to nature are hunting by greedy hunters for commercial purposes. Pollution due to chemical and industrial waste, acid deposits, introduction of alien species and reckless cutting of the forests to bring land under cultivation and inhabitation, are also responsible for the imbalance.

India has the unique pride of being the only country in the world where both lions and tigers are found. Indian lions live in their natural habitats that

are in the dense Gir forests of Gujarat. The tigers have made their homes in the Himalayan region, the Sundarbans of West Bengal and the forests of Gujarat. Leopards which are major animals of prey also belong to the cat family like the lions and tigers.

A vast variety of animals have found refuge in the lofty Himalayan region.



*Platanista Gangetica*



*Tibetan Antelope*



*Bharal (blue sheep)*



*Kiang*



*Snow Leopard*



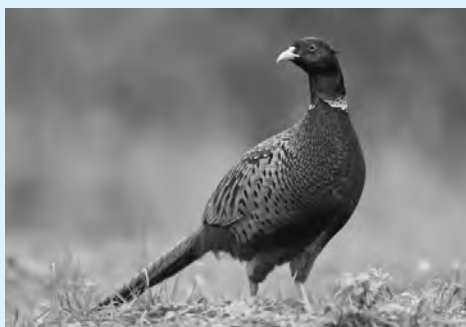
*Yak*



*Red Panda*



*Peacock*



*Pheasant*



*Duck*



*Indian Crane*



*Parakeets*

They have adapted themselves to the harsh and extremely cold conditions at the high altitudes. The cold freezing Ladakh's environs are where the *kiang* (Tibetan wild ass), wild sheep, *bharal* (blue sheep), the Tibetan antelope, the yak and the one tonne heavy shaggy horned ox thrive. Certain areas of the Himalayas are the habitats of the extremely rare red panda, the snow leopard, the bear and the ibex.

The watery havens for turtles, crocodiles and *gharials* are provided by the coastal areas, the lakes and the rivers. The *gharials*, the only one of a certain variety of crocodiles in the world today, are found only in India. The species of river dolphins known as *Platanista gangetica* is found in the Ganga and Brahmaputra river system.

The colourful birds please every Indian's hearts. The hues of our national bird the peacock and the cooing of pigeons on rooftops and road crossings are a major part of Indian lives. Pheasants, ducks, parakeets and cranes find their homes in forests and wetlands of India.

### MIGRATORY BIRDS

Some wetlands are popular with migratory birds. During winter, birds such as **Siberian cranes** come in large numbers. One such place of migratory birds is the Rann of Kachchh at a place where the desert merges with the sea. **Flamingo** come in thousands to build nests and raise their young ones.



*Siberian Crane*



*Flamingo*

### USEFULNESS OF WILDLIFE AND NEED TO CONSERVE IT



Wildlife is very useful for all of us. The need to conserve our rich and varied fauna arises because of the following serious considerations.

- (i) They provide us milk, meat, wool, silk and hides etc. Insects like bees provide us honey.
- (ii) Wild animals and birds add to the beauty of nature and help in maintaining ecological balance.
- (iii) Indiscriminate hunting of wildlife disturbs the ecological balance and leads to the extinction of some species altogether. Thus, we need to protect these rare animals and birds for the future generations.
- (iv) Some beautiful species like cheetah, rhinoceros, musk-deer, Indian bustard are in the danger of total extinction. Besides this many birds and animals have already become extinct due to reckless destruction of forest. Thus, we need to protect animals and wildlife.

### CONSERVATION OF WILDLIFE — METHODS



If we conserve their habitats wildlife can be conserved. Wildlife can be conserved by

- prevention of poaching.
- making and implementing laws for the protection of threatened and endangered species.
- creating awareness among the people.

- preservation of their natural habitat.
- demarcating national parks, sanctuaries and reserves and protecting them.

The Environmental Protection Act (1986) lays rules for overall protection of environment.

## CONSERVING BIODIVERSITY



Due to uncurtailed, continuous and abundant abuse of plant and animal resources in India, the country's ecosystem has received a rude shock. Many of the plants and animal species have become extinct and others are on the line of extinction. Such plants and animals are termed as **endangered species**. Out of the numerous plants India has known since ages, nearly 1300 plant species are in the endangered list while 20 others are most probably extinct. This we can say because the latter have not been seen in the last 60 to 100 years. Many plans and programmes have been announced and implemented to both preserve and regenerate the flora and fauna of India. For this purpose, the steps taken include planting more trees, preserving, regenerating forests and developing the natural habitats of wildlife. To keep abreast of the progress in this direction a number of periodic surveys and censuses are being conducted. Project Tiger and Project Rhino were concrete steps in this direction. Today the 16 tiger reserves in India are working to keep the success of the Project Tiger intact. India's most famous bird, the Great

Indian Bustard of Rajasthan, has sadly entered the endangered species list. The Indian Government has set up a number of wildlife sanctuaries, bird sanctuaries and national parks all over the country to preserve the flora and fauna. At present India has 563 wildlife sanctuaries and 103 national parks.

A **national park** is a large area where several ecosystems exist freely and are not disturbed by human exploitation and occupation and where plant and animal species, aesthetic sites and habitats are of special scientific, educational and recreational interest. These areas are highly protected.

A **wildlife sanctuary** is almost like a national park but in a sanctuary certain activities such as livestock grazing and collection of forest produce may be allowed.

As discussed earlier **biosphere reserves** are multipurpose protected areas created to deal with the issue of conservation of bio-diversity and its sustainable use. The need to involve humans in conservation activity of the area is emphasised. Humans are considered to be an integral part of the ecosystem. Here sometimes agricultural activities are also allowed which provide employment to the local inhabitant. Tourism is also encouraged to boost revenue.

## GOVERNMENT MEASURES TO PROTECT WILDLIFE



To conserve the endangered species of wildlife, various steps have been

taken by the government. The chief among them are as follow :

- (i) Various national parks, sanctuaries and biosphere reserves have been set up in various parts of India whose wild animals and birds are kept in their, natural habitat, e.g. Nilgiri and Nanda Devi biosphere reserves.
- (ii) Periodic census is being taken to find out the latest position of some rare species so that they can be preserved for our future generations. Tigers and rhinoceroses are some

endangered species of wildlife in India. So for them special projects have been prepared.

- (iii) The killing of wildlife has been banned by the government. Special forest officers have been appointed to catch the law-breaking animal hunters.

Besides the government, it is also our duty to preserve the wildlife. We should avoid reckless hunting of wild animals, indiscriminate felling of trees and clearing of forests to protect our national wealth, i.e. wildlife.

### IMPORTANT NATIONAL PARKS OF INDIA



| National Park             | State          | Animals/Birds              |
|---------------------------|----------------|----------------------------|
| Corbett National Park     | Uttarakhand    | Tiger                      |
| Dudwa National Park       | Uttar Pradesh  | Tiger, Leopard, Sloth Bear |
| Gir National Park         | Gujarat        | Asiatic Lion               |
| Ranthambore National Park | Rajasthan      | Sambhar, Chital, Nilgai    |
| Kanha National Park       | Madhya Pradesh | Barasingha                 |
| Kaziranga National Park   | Assam          | Rhinoceros, Wild Buffalo   |
| Keoladeo National Park    | Rajasthan      | Sambhar, Black Buck        |
| Simlipal National Park    | Odisha         | Tiger                      |

### IMPORTANT WILDLIFE SANCTUARIES OF INDIA



| Wildlife Sanctuary               | State                  | Animals/Birds                    |
|----------------------------------|------------------------|----------------------------------|
| Srisailem Wildlife Sanctuary     | Telangana & Seemandhra | Tiger, Leopard, Sloth Bear, Deer |
| Chilika Lake Wildlife Sanctuary  | Odisha                 | Flamingos, Sea Eagles, Jacana    |
| Hastinapur Wildlife Sanctuary    | Uttar Pradesh          | Swamp Deer, Cheetal              |
| Periyar Wildlife Sanctuary       | Kerala                 | Elephants                        |
| Satkosia Basipalli Sanctuary     | West Bengal            | Gharial                          |
| Sanjay Gandhi Wildlife Sanctuary | Maharashtra            | Spotted and Barking Deer         |
| Wayanand Wildlife Sanctuary      | Kerala                 | Elephant, Tiger, Panther         |



## IMPORTANT TERMS

- **Swamps** : Spongy ground covered with water.
- **Refuge** : Shelter or protection.
- **Marshes** : A tract of low-lying land, usually wet
- **Biodiversity** : Number and variety of living organisms.
- **Endangered species** : Species of plants and animals on the line of extinction.
- **Regenerate** : To bring to life again
- **Exploitation** : To derive unjust profit from a person or situation.

## POINTS TO REMEMBER

- | India has a rich stock of flora and fauna with more than 89,000 animals.
- | These wildlife creatures are a gift of nature for us and need to be protected.
- | Due to uncurtailed, continuous and abundant use of animal resources, some animals have become extinct and some are in the category of endangered species.
- | The Indian Government has set up many wildlife sanctuaries, national parks and bird sanctuaries to protect the flora and fauna of the country.
- | At present there are 563 wildlife sanctuaries and 103 national parks in India.

## EXERCISES



### I. Choose the correct answer.

1. Which is our national bird?  
(a) Great Indian Bustard (b) Peacock  
(c) Pheasant (d) Duck
2. Where is the Corbett National Park situated?  
(a) Bihar (b) U.P. (c) Uttarakhand (d) Odisha
3. The Kaziranga National Park is famous for which wild animal?  
(a) Lion (b) Tiger  
(c) Rhinoceros (one-horned) (d) Nilgai
4. Which animal is depicted above?  
(a) Tibetan antelope (b) Yak  
(c) Kiang (d) Bharal
5. Identify the correct option that describes the birds as given below.  
I. These are popular migratory birds  
II. They come from Siberia during winter  
III. These birds visit large wetlands.  
(a) Flamingo (b) Siberian cranes (c) Peacock (d) Cranes
6. Which of the following measures can be taken to conserve wildlife?  
I. Prevention of poaching  
II. Making and implementing laws for protection of threatened and endangered species



- III. Preservation of their natural habitat.  
 IV. Steps to make deforestation legal and necessary  
 (a) I and II are correct (b) II, II and III are correct  
 (c) Only II is correct (d) I, II, III and IV are correct

## II. Very Short Answer Type Questions

- How many species of birds and animals are found in India?
- What are endangered species?
- Which is the natural habitat of the Indian lion?
- Which animals are found in rivers, lakes, and coastal areas of India?



## III. Short Answer Type Questions.

- Give an estimate of the abundant wildlife in India.
- What is a 'Biosphere Reserve'?



## IV. Long Answer Type Questions.

- Discuss the methods which can be used to conserve wildlife.
- Why has India a rich heritage of flora and fauna? Explain.
- Explain the government measures to protect wildlife in India.
- How can people's participation be effective in conserving forests and wildlife?



[HOTS]

## V. Case Study Based Question.

As has been mentioned earlier due to excessive exploitation of plant and animal resources by human beings, the ecosystem has been disturbed. About 1,300 plant species are endangered and 20 species are extinct. Quite a few animal species are also endangered and some have become extinct. The main causes for this major threat to nature are hunting by greedy hunters for commercial purposes. Pollution due to chemical and industrial waste, acid deposits, introduction of alien species and reckless cutting of the forests to bring land under cultivation and habitation, are also responsible for the imbalance.



- What are the main causes for the endangerment and extinction of plant and animal species?
- How many plant species are endangered, and how many are extinct?
- What is the primary threat to nature highlighted in the passage?

## VI. Map Work

- On an outline map of India mark and label the following:
 

|                                |                                   |
|--------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| (i) Bharatpur Bird Sanctuary   | (ii) Vedanthangal Bird Sanctuary  |
| (iii) Kanheri National Park    | (iv) Simlipal National Park       |
| (v) Sariska Wildlife Sanctuary | (vi) Dachigam Wildlife Sanctuary. |

### THINGS TO DO

- Find out about Project Rhino and Project Elephant. Discuss their progress and benefits so far and make a report on it.
- Make a project on those biosphere reserves which have been included in the world network of biosphere reserves.



# CHAPTER 10

## Map Reading (Including Drawing and Insertion)

When we think of maps we generally mean a two-dimensional representation of the earth or a part of it. In other words, maps are the representation of a geographical area, usually a portion of the Earth's surface, drawn or printed on a flat surface. Maps have been made since ancient times. The Greeks and the Romans in ancient times first popularised map making.

### EARLY DEVELOPMENTS

Some early developments in map making, drawing and insertion are the following :

- Earliest map was drawn on a clay tablet in 2300 BC.
- Romans used surveying of land for laying roads. These skills were used for drawing maps.
- Early maps, instead of scale, were based on astronomical determination.
- In the medieval period many aids for map-making like astrolabe and compass were used for finding direction and location.
- In the medieval period use of latitudes and longitudes was also made to plot information on maps.

### MAP READING

Map reading means analyzing the map by interpreting the various symbols used in the construction of a

map. It is translation of symbols, colours and conventional symbols back to the original features they represent.

Although a sketch requires less interpretation and is readily understood by a layman, yet compared with an exact map it has great disadvantage. In it the scale diminishes with the distance and it shows only the side of picture which is in front of you. On the other hand, a map is drawn to scale and reproduces the correct delineation along with their actual latitudes and longitudes.

### ESSENTIAL ELEMENTS OF MAPS

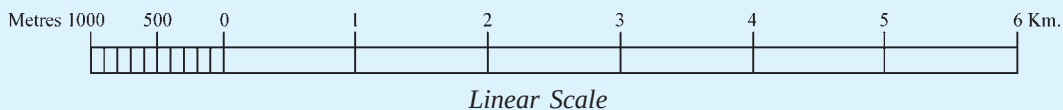
Maps are today used in a variety of fields and have also a definite purpose. Some essential elements are the following:

- (i) **Scale** : A scale is the ratio between a distance measured on a map and the corresponding distance on the surface, connecting two given points, represented by the same unit. It helps in drawing and reading of maps.

Several types of scale are used.

**Statement** : In this method the scale of the map is expressed in words. It may be simply stated that 5 km on ground is equal to 1 cm on the map. This method is similar to presenting in linear or graphic scale.





**Ratio proportion method :** In this case 1 unit on the map may represent several thousand units on the ground. For example 1 : 50,000 may mean 1 cm on the map is equal to 50,000 cm on the ground.

**Linear scale :** In this case a graphic

line is drawn on the map. Each division of the scale represents a certain distance on the ground. The scale may read as under:

**Representative fraction :** It is similar to ratio proportion but may indicate the same result by a mathematical formula.

#### CONVENTIONAL SIGNS USED IN SURVEY OF INDIA MAPS (TOPO SHEETS)

|                                                                 |  |  |  |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------|--|--|--|
| Roads metalled:<br>according to importance; distance stone..... |  |  |  |
| Roads unmetalled:<br>according to importance; bridge.....       |  |  |  |
| Cart-track, Pack-track and Pass;                                |  |  |  |
| Foot-path with bridge.....                                      |  |  |  |
| Bridges: with piers; without;                                   |  |  |  |
| Causeway Ford or Ferry.....                                     |  |  |  |
| Streams: with track in bed;                                     |  |  |  |
| undefined, Canal.....                                           |  |  |  |
| Dams: masonry or rock-filled;                                   |  |  |  |
| earthwork, Weir.....                                            |  |  |  |
| River banks: shelving; steep;                                   |  |  |  |
| 3 to 6 metres; over 6 metres.....                               |  |  |  |
| River bank: dry with water channel;                             |  |  |  |
| with island & rocks, Tidal river.....                           |  |  |  |
| Submerged rocks, Shoal;                                         |  |  |  |
| Swamp, Reeds.....                                               |  |  |  |
| Wells: lined, unlined, Tubewell;                                |  |  |  |
| Spring, Tanks: perennial, dry.....                              |  |  |  |
| Embankments: road or rail;                                      |  |  |  |
| tank; Broken ground.....                                        |  |  |  |
| Railways: broad gauge; double;                                  |  |  |  |
| single with station: under construction.....                    |  |  |  |
| Railways: other gauges; double; single                          |  |  |  |
| with distance stone, under construction.....                    |  |  |  |
| Mineral line or tramway Telegraph line;                         |  |  |  |
| Cutting with tunnel.....                                        |  |  |  |
| Contours with sub-features;                                     |  |  |  |
| Rocky slopes, Cliffs.....                                       |  |  |  |
| Sand features: (1) flat, (2) sand-hills                         |  |  |  |
| and dunes ( surveyed ) , (3) shifting dunes.....                |  |  |  |
| Towns or Villages: inhabited;                                   |  |  |  |
| deserted; Fort.....                                             |  |  |  |
| Huts: permanent, temporary;                                     |  |  |  |
| Tower, Antiquities.....                                         |  |  |  |
| Temple, Chhatra, Church;                                        |  |  |  |
| Mosque; Idgah; Tomb; Graves.....                                |  |  |  |
| Lighthouse, Lightship;                                          |  |  |  |
| Buoys: lighted; unlighted, Anchorage.....                       |  |  |  |
| Mine; Vine on trellis;                                          |  |  |  |
| Grass; Scrub.....                                               |  |  |  |
| Palms: palmyra; other Plantations;                              |  |  |  |
| Conifers; Bamboos, Other trees.....                             |  |  |  |
| Boundary: International.....                                    |  |  |  |
| Boundary:                                                       |  |  |  |
| Slate — demarcated; undemarcated.....                           |  |  |  |
| Boundary: district; subdivision;                                |  |  |  |
| Tahsil or Taluk; Forest.....                                    |  |  |  |
| Boundary pillars: surveyed;                                     |  |  |  |
| unlocated; Village trijunction.....                             |  |  |  |
| Heights: triangulated station;                                  |  |  |  |
| point; approximate.....                                         |  |  |  |
| Bench-mark: geodetic;                                           |  |  |  |
| tertiary, canal.....                                            |  |  |  |
| Post office; Telegraph office;                                  |  |  |  |
| Combined office, Police station.....                            |  |  |  |
| Bungalows: dak or travellers;                                   |  |  |  |
| inspection, Rest-house.....                                     |  |  |  |
| Circuit house, Camping ground;                                  |  |  |  |
| Forest: reserved; protected.....                                |  |  |  |
| Space names: administrative;                                    |  |  |  |
| locality or tribal.....                                         |  |  |  |

$$\begin{aligned} \text{R.F. (Representation Fraction)} \\ &= \frac{\text{Distance on the map}}{\text{Distance on the ground}} \end{aligned}$$

For example, Distance on the map is = 1 cm

Distance on ground = 50,000 cm

$$\text{Thus R.F.} = \frac{1}{50,000}$$

It can be translated into linear scale 1 km being equal to 1 lakh cms.

$$\text{R.F.} = \frac{1}{\left(\frac{1}{2} \text{ km}\right)}$$

or R.F. = 2 km

This means that 2 km on ground is equal to one cm on the map.

**(ii) Conventional Symbols :** A variety of features, both natural and man-made are depicted with the help of symbols on the topographical sheet. These are called conventional signs and are accepted universally. They are used in the survey of India maps. These are commonly used symbols to avoid crowding of information on a map. They are called **conventional** because the design and shape of these symbols has been laid down by mutual agreement among nations. This has been done to enable tourists and other people read the map of a country for interpretation and location. A list of these symbols is known as **key** (see above) to the map.

**(iii) Colour :** The symbols, lines and ground area on a map may also be shown in different colours.

The colours represent particular features and are more useful for representation of information and reading of survey maps. Important colours may mean the following :

**Blue :** Oceans, seas, lakes and other water bodies.

**Yellow :** Cultivable land on a survey map. On Atlas maps it may mean rough land.

**White :** Uncultivable land on survey maps and unvegetated land on Atlas maps.

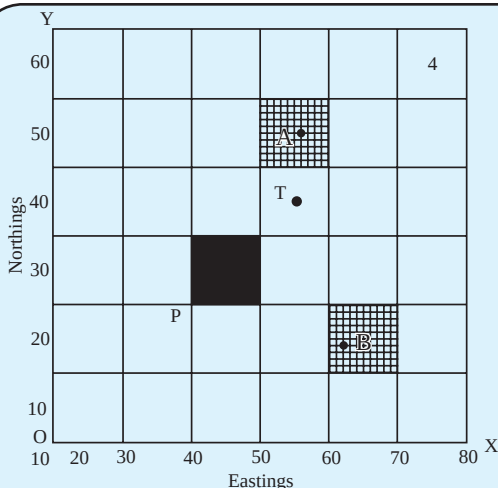
**Green :** Forest area, grasslands etc.

**Red :** Settlements huts on survey maps.

Previously cartographers made these maps by hand. Today they use digital computers for making the maps. They plot the values of every small places to make accurate maps. The most important parameters are

- Scale
- Contour intervals for showing heights in physical maps.
- Dimensions or extent of the map stated in degrees and geographic coordinates.
- Directions.

The four main types of directions are North-South and West-East. They are the two sets of opposite directions. If we face any of these directions we can easily determine other directions. For example, if we face north, the south will be to our back and west towards the left, east to the right. On maps north is shown



## DRAWING AND INSERTION

Drawing and insertion refers to how to make a map and plot various types of information. Some short tips are the following:

**1. Grid :** A network of horizontal lines called **Eastings** (OX) and vertical lines called **Northings** (OY) make the grids. The size of the frame work is based on the scale. A point is chosen, say 'O' as in the figure. From here one can proceed towards **north** or the **east**.

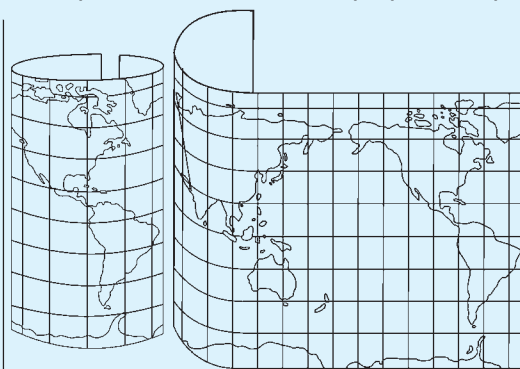
**2. Grid Reference :** Generally the grid reference consists of the values in terms of latitudes (horizontal) and longitudes (vertical). For simplification values are given in the above figure using 'N' for Northern Hemisphere latitudes and 'E' for "Eastern Hemisphere longitudes.

**3. Plotting :** Two places represented by point 'P' and point 'T' are to be plotted on the map. We are given the values of point 'P' as 40°N 30 E [general rule is Northings first, Eastings later]. Point 'P' can be plotted

anywhere in the shaded square. Now take for example point 'T'. Give its four digit grid reference. To solve the problem of pin-pointing of exact location of a place, we use the six digit grid reference by dividing the square into 10 equal parts both horizontally and vertically. The six-digit grid reference is given as 604507 (4 and 7 respective lines of the squares). Now plot point B in the given as 604507 (4 and 7 respective lines of the square). Now plot point B in the given shaded square whose values are 602204.

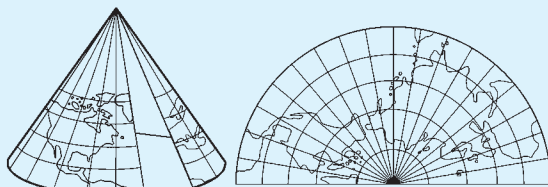
**4. Map projection :** Three-dimensional features and the curved surface of the earth cause various types of distortions when represented on a flat surface. To minimise these distortions cartographers use a particular type of map projections. They also make use of lines of latitude and longitude as shown above to plot various types of information. A map projection is also described as an orderly arrangement of these lines of latitude and longitude. The three main methods of project are *Cylindrical*, *Conical* and *Azimuthal*.

**5. Drawing of the map :** A Cartographer is the person who makes and prepares maps.



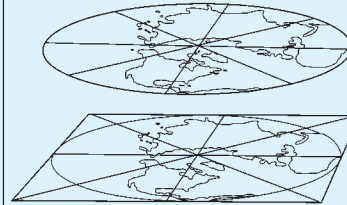
### 1. Cylindrical Projection

This projection is made by wrapping a cylinder around the globe. The globe's lines are projected onto the cylinder, which is then unrolled. On a cylindrical projection, all the longitudinal lines appear parallel and do not meet at the poles. As a result, the polar regions appear disproportionately large on such a map.



### 2. Conic Projection

A conic projection can be made by perching a paper cone atop the globe like a dunce cap. Both the lines of Latitude and Longitude are then projected onto the cone's surface. When cut open and spread flat, the cone forms a map that is most accurate in the area where it touched the globe. Conic projection is often used to depict mid-latitude areas such as United States of America, Japan and Spain etc.



### 3. Azimuthal Projection

An azimuthal projection can be formed by laying a plane, sheet of paper, against the globe so that the two objects touch at only one point. The lines of the globe are then projected onto the plane. Azimuthal projection is used most commonly to map compact areas such as the polar regions.

towards the top and south towards the bottom. An arrow whose tip points to the north represents this direction. These four directions are also called **Cardinal Directions**; with their help sub-directions can also be determined. These intermediate directions are North-West (NW), North-East (NE), South-East (SE), and South-West (SW). Remember these intermediate directions are always read in order as shown and not otherwise. For example, we don't say East-South. These directions are measured clockwise with North as 0° and East as 90°. Thus, it is assumed that North-South intersects East-West line at 90°. The angle measured from some given point is known as **Bearing**.

**Magnetic Declination :** Voyagers on the sea have to be very precise about directions. They generally measure directions with the help of degrees. The North direction shown by the compass needle points to Geographic North as it coincides with the axis. The compass needle allies itself with the magnetic north and differs with distance from the Equator. Therefore, relationship between the magnetic North and true North varies from sheet to sheet. This difference is shown on topographic sheets. The angular deviation between the two directions is called the **Angle of Declination**. The relationship is shown in the figure below. All the directions can be written on in degrees as shown in the figure given earlier.

## IMPORTANCE OF MAPS



- Maps are essential for locating places on the Earth.
- In recent years maps have proved indispensable for disaster management.
- Maps help in locating resources, their mining and for comparing reserves.
- Maps are an essential tourist aid.
- Maps help us to measure distances and geographic differences like for example climate, weather, etc.
- By drawing flow lines one can know the direction of rivers, winds, traffic movements, etc.
- By inserting information like statistical data, pie charts and bar graphs, we can show distribution features on maps.
- Maps are an essential management tool.
- When looking for pattern we can compare and contrast the areas based on particular information.
- We can analyse and synthesise a variety of different forms of information.

Maps have thousands of other uses like for example defence, traffic, planning and projecting information or just simply travelling in space.

## IMPORTANT TERMS

- **Cartography** : It is the art and science of map making. It also involves production of maps.
- **Atlas** : The collection of maps in a book-form.
- **Scale** : It is the ratio or proportion between the distance on the map and the actual distance on the ground. Its main advantage is that it is shown graphically on the map by a numbered line called **graphical or linear scale**.
- **Relief** : The shape of the earth's surface. High relief indicates a large variation in height of the land. Low relief shows little variation.
- **Isotherm** : A line drawn on the map joining places of equal temperature.
- **Isopleth** : A line drawn on a map connecting places with an equal incidence of any feature. Also called *Isoline*.
- **Isophel** : A line drawn on a map connecting places experiencing equal amount of sunshine.
- **Isobar** : A line drawn on a map connecting places experiencing equal amount of pressure.

## POINTS TO REMEMBER

- Earliest map was drawn on a clay tablet in 2300 BC.
- Scale can be expressed by statement, graphically, by ratio proportion or representative fraction.
- Conventional symbols are used to avoid crowding of information.
- Colours may represent particular feature, show varying information patterns.
- Map projections are aimed at minimising the distortions caused by spherical shape of the earth while presenting the features on a flat surface.
- On the basis of scale, maps may be classified into large scale and small scale map.
- On the basis of purpose and content, classification may be done into physical or cultural maps.
- Physical Maps show relief, weather, vegetation, rivers, etc.
- Cultural Maps have a specific purpose and content. They may show distribution of population, crops, etc.
- There are many types of distribution maps like dot maps and choropleth maps.
- Choropleth maps show, distribution by means of degrees of colours and shades.
- Isopleth, Isothermal, etc., are some other distribution maps.
- Maps have many different uses in our daily life.

## EXERCISES

### I. Choose the correct answer.

1. Early maps were based on :

- (a) Astronomical determination
- (c) Surveying of the land

- (b) Scale
- (d) Latitudes and longitudes



2. The **White** colour on a map denotes :
- (a) Oceans and Seas (b) Forest areas  
(c) Uncultivable land (d) Settlement huts
3. The art and science of map making is called
- (a) Cartology (b) Cartography  
(c) Cartonomy (d) None of these
4. A line drawn on the map joining places of equal temperature is called an
- (a) Isotherm (b) Isobar (c) Isophel (d) Isopleth
5. A line drawn on a map connecting places experiencing equal amount of atmospheric pressure is called
- (a) Isotherm (b) Isopleth (c) Relief (d) Isobar
6. There are two statements marked as Assertion (A) and Reason (R). Mark your answer as per the codes given below :
- Assertion (A)** : Conventional signs and symbols are accepted universally.  
**Reason (R)** : These are called conventional because the design and shape of these symbols have been laid down by mutual agreement among nations.
- (a) Both (A) and (R) are true and (R) is the correct explanation of (A)  
(b) Both (A) and (R) are true but (R) is not the correct explanation of (A)  
(c) (A) is correct but (R) is wrong  
(d) (A) is wrong but (R) is correct

7.



The above conventional symbol depicts which of the following features?

- (a) Flat sand (b) Sand hills  
(c) Sand dunes (d) Shifting sand dunes
8. Identify the appropriate statements among the following regarding use of grid and grid reference.
- I. A grid is a network of horizontal lines called Eastings and vertical lines called Northings  
II. A point is chosen, say 'O' from where one can proceed towards **north** or **east**.  
III. Generally the grid reference consists of values in terms of latitudes and longitudes.  
IV. Eastings and Northings are not much helpful in location on a Survey Map.
- (a) I and II are appropriate (b) I, II and III are appropriate  
(c) All the statements are appropriate (d) Only statement IV is appropriate

## II. Very Short Answer Type Questions.

1. What is a map?
2. What is meant by scale?
3. Why are conventional symbols so called?
4. What is the importance of colour in a map?
5. Name the four intermediate directions.
6. Name the two main types of map.



## III. Short Answer Type Questions.

1. Briefly describe the importance of maps.
2. Explain any two ways of representing scale.



## IV. Long Answer Type Questions.

1. Give the importance and function of colour on maps.
2. What are known as cultural maps? Explain the different types of cultural maps.



### THINGS TO DO

1. Diagrammatically explain three main types of map projections.
2. Draw and explain four different cross sections of landforms.



## UNIT - III

# DEMOCRATIC POLITICS

Marks : 18

Periods : 42

# CHAPTER 11

## Democracy

### WHAT IS DEMOCRACY?

A simple definition of democracy is :



‘Democracy is a form of government in which the rulers are elected by the people.’

Abraham Lincoln defined democracy as ‘a government by the people, of the people and for the people.’

A famous political philosopher of the 20th century, Reinhold Niebuhr, stated, “Man’s capacity for justice makes democracy possible and man’s capacity for injustice makes democracy necessary.”

Today the United Nations has 193 members and among them are 120 democracies. Out of these, 55 are parliamentary and 65 are presidential in form. It is obvious that democracy has been accepted all over the world and sooner or later every country will have to adopt it, maybe even Republic of China. Recently democracy has been adopted in Nepal in full measure.

What makes democracy so popular? To understand this we will have to find out what democracy really is, and what makes it better than any other form of government. We have to ascertain whether it really is the best form of government, which is able to meet all challenges it has to face.

Many definitions of democracy have been given by eminent authorities on the subject. The term democracy was coined in ancient Athens in the 5th century B.C. It originated from the Greek ‘demokratia’. The components of the word are ‘demos’, **the people**; ‘Kratia’ **to rule**. The term means “rule by the people.”

The simplest definition of democracy is that the “people” should have control of the government ruling over them. This can be achieved by implementing a system of voting in which the majority of people rule, either *directly* or *indirectly* through *elected* representatives. *Elections* become the necessary and basic condition of democracy. In fact, voting by all adults is the main feature which separates democracy from other forms of government, for example, a monarchy or an army rule.

### ESSENTIAL FEATURES OF DEMOCRACY



- **Elected representatives:** In a democracy the final decision making power must rest with those elected by the people. Only they should make laws and decide the policies of the government. For example, in India, Parliament and Legislative Assemblies make laws for the union and the states.

- **Free and fair elections** : Holding elections of any kind is not sufficient. The elections must offer a real choice between political alternatives. And it should be possible for people to use this choice to remove the existing rulers or to continue with them, if they wish to. So, **a democracy must be based on a free and fair election where those currently in power have a fair chance of losing.** (i) Voters must be honestly counted (a proper census). (ii) Voters should vote freely without any kind of pressure from those in power. (iii) Voters should have the right to choose freely from among those competing in the elections. (iv) Elections should be held regularly and be strictly impartial. For example, elections in India.
- **Universal suffrage** : Democracy is based on a fundamental principle of political equality. In a democracy, each adult citizen **must have one vote and each vote must have one value.** All adults have the right to vote in the elections. For example, India, USA, France.



*Voting in an election*

- **Right to contest elections** : All adults who fulfil the conditions, should be able to contest elections. For example, in India all adults who fulfil the eligibility criteria can contest elections.
- **Freedom of expression** : Citizens should have the right to express their opinion without any fear. They should be allowed to discuss the policies of the government. They can also demonstrate, criticise, organise meetings or campaign on public issues.  
This right is provided in India as a Fundamental Right.
- **Freedom of information** : Citizens should have the right of access to all information, only the government should not have that monopoly. Citizens can seek information from all sources. This is provided in India by the Right to Information Act.
- **Freedom to form associations** : Citizens should have the right to join or quit any party. They should be allowed to fight elections as members of an opposition party and the opposition parties should be allowed to flourish and contest elections. This is a Fundamental Right in India.
- **Freedom of culture and religion** : Democracy allows people to follow their own beliefs and faith. People can openly and freely follow any religion, speak their own language. The rights of the

minorities should not be in any way less than those of the majority. This is provided by Articles 29 & 30 of the Constitution.

- **Individual freedoms :** The government, in a democracy, does not impose any restriction on individual freedoms. Citizens can travel anywhere in the country, have choice of residence, seek education anywhere and in any institution in the country. They can apply for jobs without restrictions and have no curbs on the discussion of ideas. India and most other democracies provide this right.
- **Rule of law and respect for rights:** Above all, the rule of law should prevail. No one can terrorise or torture those who oppose the government, neither the police nor the military. The military and the police are controlled by the elected representatives of the people and safety of the citizen is ensured. The judiciary is independent, protects the rights of the individuals, and its decisions are respected by the government. India and most other democracies provide this right.

All the above features are the minimum necessary features of democracy. There are still more important features that are detailed below:

- A democratic government cannot do whatever it likes; it has to respect some basic rules. It has to respect some guarantees to the minorities. Every major decision has to go

through a series of consultations. Every office bearer has certain rights and responsibilities assigned by the constitution and the law. Hence, a **democratic government rules within limits set by the constitutional laws and citizens' rights.**

- In a democracy, "The will of the people is the basis of the government." It is expressed by universal and equal suffrage through secret vote.
- Democracy demands accountability from all authorities — constitutional or otherwise. It includes the legislature, judiciary and executive. The Constitution of the country should provide for all the rights, institutions and procedures needed for a truly democratic country.

### Is this Democracy?

In many countries, e.g., China, only the ruling party can put up candidates. Voters have to choose between two candidates put up by the ruling party. No one else has a chance.

- Rulers elected by the people must take all the major decisions.
- Elections should offer a choice and fair opportunity to the people to change the current rulers. [A democracy must be based on free and fair elections.]
- This choice and opportunity should be available to all the people on an equal basis. [Each adult citizen

must have one vote and each vote must have one value.]

- The exercise of this choice should lead to a government limited by basic rules of the constitution and citizens' rights.

We started with a simple definition that “democracy is a form of government in which the rulers are elected by the people.” That definition was not adequate unless we explained some of the keywords used in it.

Accordingly, democracy is a form of government in which:

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

These facts tell us whether a country, claiming to be democratic, is really democratic or not. It is easy to see that no country enjoys all the rights needed in a democracy or has institutions which work with equal effectiveness. *All countries* do not permit *all the liberties* needed in a democratic nation. Even the most advanced and modern countries like France and the USA, do not offer all the citizens all the civil liberties. There are certain defects common to all forms of government. They

arise because of certain inherent and instinctive weaknesses in human nature.

## ARGUMENTS FOR DEMOCRACY



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

## ARGUMENTS AGAINST DEMOCRACY



- Leaders keep changing in a democracy. This leads to instability.
- Democracy is all about political competition and power play. There is no scope for morality.
- So many people have to be consulted in a democracy that it leads to delays.



Courtesy : NCERT

*Money plays an important role in winning elections*

- Elected leaders do not know the best interest of the people. It leads to bad decisions.
- Democracy leads to corruption for it is based on electoral competition.
- Ordinary people don't know what is good for them; they should not decide anything.

## TYPES OF DEMOCRACY: DIRECT AND REPRESENTATIVE



**Direct Democracy** is a democracy where every citizen participates in the election of the leaders and can speak in the assembly and vote on all issues.

In modern countries direct democracy is impossible. The vast population cannot gather at one place. For example, it is just impossible for 81 crore voters of India to find a place to assemble for discussion.

- People engaged in different occupations or businesses cannot meet at the same time. Direct participation was possible in small countries with few occupations.
- A system of representation had to be devised so that there could be a popular government. In this system people elect their representatives who make the laws and supervise the functioning of the government. This system is called a representative democracy.
- So what is the difference? Is it still a democratic system? Yes it is, because like the Greek democracy,

in representative democracy also, people are the supreme authority. People choose their government by electing their representatives. Elected representatives exercise power on people's behalf. They remain in power as long as they enjoy the confidence of the people and can be removed through periodical elections.

- Some critics of democracy think that representative democracy is not a true democracy. How can a handful of representatives speak for the interests and personal views of the country's citizens? Is this criticism justified?

**Representative Democracy** means a democracy where there is Universal Adult Franchise and people choose their representatives who govern the country on their behalf.

In a democracy we frame rules which give every citizen an opportunity to choose their representatives. These representatives speak on behalf of the majority. This, democracy is a participatory democracy where all citizens vote to choose their representatives.

### Referendum

In some countries, for example in France, U.K., Denmark and New Zealand, on certain issues the vote of the citizens is taken as a whole. This is called a referendum. Recently a referendum was held in U.K. whether to secede from European Union. The majority voted 'yes'.

## ALTERNATIVES TO DEMOCRACY



**Monarchy** is the rule by one person. In ancient times it was the most common form of government in the state. The monarch held together the society and was a strong person. He combined in himself the functions of the military commander, the law maker, the executive officer of the state and also the judge.

Under **Absolute Monarchy**, the king is the government, and his authority is unlimited. Monarchies are hereditary. Before the revolution, the Czars were absolute rulers of Russia. Some monarchs claimed they got their authority directly from God (the Divine Right Theory). They claimed they were answerable to God and not to their subjects.

Absolute monarchies succeeded when there was chaos and weak governments. But there was no guarantee that the successors of an absolute monarch would be efficient and benevolent. An example is how Aurangzeb overturned all the policies of Akbar which resulted in disaster for the Mughal Empire. In absolute monarchies people had no power to dissent.

**Constitutional Monarchy** : Britain is a typical example of constitutional monarchy. There is the king or the queen (as now) as the head of the state but the sovereign does not exercise any real authority. The monarch in Britain is like an umpire who ensures that the persons

elected by the people do not become despotic at any stage and act according to rules. There is parliamentary supremacy in U.K. People elect their representatives to the parliament and they govern on their behalf.

**Dictatorship** : It means absolute rule of one man. Under dictatorship, governments can totally disregard the general public and their problems. All benefits are enjoyed by those in power and people who support the rulers. The poor and the weak suffer as they are excluded from the benefits.

Under **military dictatorships**, the military chiefs enjoy absolute power and they suppress any protest by the people. Those in power amass wealth illegally. They do not respond to any calamities as there is no freedom of speech in the country. They do not fear any opposition as there is no opposition and they do not fear losing in elections. Myanmar had a military dictatorship till recently.

## Theocracy

Iran is a *theocracy*. In 1979 a revolution overthrew the Shah of Persia and installed a religious government. The government is made up of majority religion, i.e., Islam. Civil laws are made to conform to religious teachings of Islam. The religious leader is known as an Ayatollah. Recently modest reformers in Iran are trying to make it more democratic and less religious. Present day Iran is attempting to combine theocracy and democracy.

Democracy has proved itself superior to both monarchy and the government of one or a few.

Unlike democracy, other kinds of government are governments of the people but not *by the people*. Only democracy accepts that all men, irrespective of their parentage or heredity, have the potential to contribute towards the activities of the government. This system allows people with varying talents to come together and work to the best of their ability. It also ensures that no man or group of persons shall have the absolute right to exploit weaker sections of society.

Democracy also has a built-in mechanism to see that rulers do not go astray. Regular and periodical elections give the people a chance to discard people who have a bad record.

The majority of people in developing societies are poor. They need state support to get better facilities for health and education. Democracy ensures that within the government there are enough people who represent the under privileged sections. It is thus superior to all other forms of government.

It is claimed by the eminent economist Amartya Sen that democracies are effective in preventing famines.

## WHY DEMOCRACY HAS SPREAD

In conclusion we have to find out why has democracy spread through the world in the 20th



century. One of the main reasons is that people think it is the best form of government. Every country, whenever it gets a chance, tries to replace its government by democracy.

But how do we answer the question : why people prefer democracy to dictatorship or other forms of government?

Democracy promises equality to all – rich as well as poor. Everyone has a right to be elected and have power.

In the non-democratic governments those who enjoy power do not want to give it up. They resist attempts to wrest power from their hands. This makes democracy an outcome of socio-economic differences or inequalities. To have a democratic government people had to struggle for it as in Poland. The working class has played a very decisive role in promoting democracy in the world.

Spread of Democracy in the 20th Century has been the result of three major factors :

- The Second World War
- Decolonisation and
- The collapse of the Soviet Union.

These three external factors started a chain of events in many countries which helped democracy. There were, of course, internal forces and conditions conducive for democracy.

## IMPORTANT TERMS

- **Demokratia** : Greek word meaning democracy.
- **Demos** : Means the people.
- **Kratia** : Means 'to rule'.
- **Direct Democracy** : When people vote directly on all issues.
- **Representative Democracy** : When people elect their representatives who make the laws on behalf of the people.
- **Referendum** : Certain issues on which all the citizens vote.
- **Absolute Monarchy** : When the king has all the powers and is all in all.
- **Constitutional Monarchy** : There is a king or queen as the head of the state but with nominal powers. Real power lies in the hands of Prime Minister and the Parliament.
- **Military Dictatorship** : One-man rule. The dictator can be from the army, e.g., Saddam Hussain of Iraq.
- **Theocracy** : A government which rules according to the religious teachings of the majority religion, e.g., Iran.

## EXERCISES

### I. Choose the correct answer.

1. Which is not a feature of true democracy in the following statements?  
(a) Citizens have the right to follow their own beliefs and faith.  
(b) The rule of the law prevails and the police or military cannot terrorise any citizen.  
(c) Only elected representatives can make laws and decide the policies.  
(d) The government alone has access to all information.
2. A theocracy is :  
(a) Rule of a military dictator.  
(b) A government run according to the majority religion.  
(c) Where the King is all in all.  
(d) A constitutional government elected directly by the people.
3. Which country is a typical example of Constitutional Monarchy?  
(a) USA                      (b) Britain                      (c) Saudi Arabia                      (d) India
4. Iraq under Saddam Hussain was an example of which form of government?  
(a) Monarchy                      (b) Dictatorship  
(c) Democracy                      (d) Theocracy
5. There are two statements marked as Assertion (A) and Reason (R). Mark your answer as per the codes provided below :  
**Assertion (A)** : Democracy increases not only expectations but also complaints.  
**Reason (R)** : Complaining is itself a testimony to the success of democracy.  
(a) Both (A) and (R) are true and (R) is the correct explanation of (A)



- (b) Both (A) and (R) are true but (R) is not the correct explanation of (A)  
 (c) (A) is correct but (R) is wrong  
 (d) (A) is wrong but (R) is correct
6. Consider the statements given below and choose the correct answer.  
**Statement I** : Monarchy is a good alternative to Democracy.  
**Statement II** : The Monarch himself functions as the military commander, legislature, executive and judiciary.  
 (a) Statement (I) is correct and (II) is incorrect  
 (b) Statement (I) is incorrect and (II) is correct  
 (c) Both (I) and (II) are incorrect  
 (d) Both (I) and (II) are correct
7. Evaluate the arguments against democracy by identifying the appropriate statements among the following options.  
 I. As leaders keep changing, it leads to instability  
 II. There is no scope for morality in a democracy  
 III. Democracy improves the quality of decision making  
 IV. Democracy leads to differences, quarrels and conflicts  
 (a) I and II are appropriate  
 (b) I, II and III are appropriate  
 (c) All the statements are appropriate  
 (d) Only statement IV is appropriate

## II. Very Short Answer Type Questions.

- Who should be allowed to make laws and decide the policies of the Government?
- What do we call the right given to all adults to vote?
- Name two rights allowed in a democracy to the people.



## III. Short Answer Type Questions.

- What is meant by the term 'free and fair elections'?
- Explain the difference :  
 (i) Direct and Representative Democracy.  
 (ii) Theocracy and Absolute Monarchy.  
 (iii) Dictatorship and Constitutional Monarchy.



## IV. Long Answer Type Questions.

- Explain the essential features of democracy.
- Give four arguments for democracy.
- Give six arguments against democracy.



## CASE – BASED QUESTIONS

It has become a fashion to sneer at "Democracy". People think only those governments succeed where there is a dictator at the top, where a strongman rules with an iron hand. Too much freedom, according to them, leads to chaos and anarchy. Let us first examine what democracy means. It is a form of government where those who control the government are elected by the people and are answerable or responsible for their



actions to the people. This keeps a healthy check on all their activities and prevents anyone from becoming an absolute ruler. The world's biggest democracies are the USA, Canada, Britain (It has a monarchy, but its powers are limited and there is democratic rule), India, France, etc. Democracy also means a form of society where there is no privileged class and in which individuals may rise to power because of ability and hard work. Democracy is also an ideal way of life because it lays emphasis on equality, liberty, brotherhood, tolerance and peaceful co-existence.

Is there any alternative to it? Look at the countries where there was dictatorship – Iraq, Afghanistan, Syria. They have been brought to grief, calamity and total anarchy by their dictators. Israel and Palestinians are still fighting. Look what happened in Bosnia-Croatia. The mighty Soviet Russia collapsed.

Look at our own country, only democracy can save it, otherwise it will lead to disintegration of the country. We are a vast country with many religions, cultures, languages and unless we believe in equal rights and opportunities for all, we will be divided into fragments and play into our enemies' hands.

1. Why has it become a fashion to sneer at democracy?
2. Describe the meaning and importance of democracy as per the passage.
3. Is there any alternative to democracy? Why/Why not? Explain with examples.
4. How can we strengthen the roots of democracy in India? Describe your opinion.

#### THINGS TO DO

1. **Activity** : Find out from the internet how many countries in Asia and Africa do not have a democratic form of government. Draw a map to show them.
2. **Assignment** : What, according to you, after reading this chapter, should be the principle followed in a democracy? Is India truly democratic? Why? Why not? Have a class discussion and then write your views. Compare your facts with your classmates.
3. **Class Debate** : Divide the class into 2 groups. One group will speak in favour and one against Democratic form of government.



# CHAPTER

# 12

## Democracy in India

### DEMOCRACY IN INDIA



The idea of democracy, the democratic institutions like our parliamentary system, however, came to India during the colonial rule. The impact of British rule in India led to the development of modern democracy in India. The first step was the introduction of English language and modern education. The British introduced this in India for their own convenience and not for the benefit of the Indians. They established universities in 1857, in Mumbai, Kolkata and Chennai. This exposure to western thought and political ideas led to an awakening among Indians, and English made the educated Indians familiar with the ideas of thinkers in all parts of world. Newspapers were printed in English and Indian languages. They spread ideas and information about freedom and justice and made the Indians aware of their exploitation by the British. They developed a critical view of the British rule.

The colonial rule gave unity to India and brought them under one strong central rule. The railways, the new projects of telecommunications started by the British, brought educated Indians from all parts of India together. Though all these projects were made by the British for their own benefit, so that they could plunder our resources easily

and quickly, they helped the Indians to come together.

In the beginning the British kept Indians in lower posts but slowly they had to give them higher posts. Various Acts were passed which established legislative assemblies, and limited voting rights were given to the Indians.

The Indian Council Act of 1909 and the Government of India Acts of 1919 and 1935 were steps which gave us our parliamentary system. These came to India in bits and pieces under the British. They gave us our central and provincial councils, recognition to the principle of electorates and allowed 10% of the population to vote. By 1937, elected representatives ran governments in the provinces. The experience gained by the Indians in the working of the legislative institutions proved to be very useful for our country in setting up our own institutions when India became free.

India, after independence, faced the problems of (i) widespread illiteracy (ii) poverty and (iii) underdevelopment. European nations were economically strong and industrially advanced when they became democratic. In India we first became democratic and started building our nation and dealing with the problems which faced it. The government was given the major role to eradicate illiteracy and poverty and to build up a strong democratic nation.

## WHAT A CONSTITUTION IS

A Constitution is a set of well-defined rules that explain the powers of different organs of the government. It is a body of fundamental principles according to which a state is governed. It defines the powers of each of its organs — the legislature, the executive and the judiciary. It also defines the responsibilities of these three pillars of governance. It regulates the relationship between the three organs and also with the people. It tells us about the rights and duties of the citizens. Every law which a government frames has to be according to the Constitution.



In short, a Constitution is the symbol of a country's independence. Every democratic country has a Constitution. It can be unwritten (like that of UK) or written (like that of USA, Russia, Japan, Germany and India).



*The Constituent Assembly*

Thus, the constitution of a country is a set of written rules that are accepted by all people living together in a country. It is the supreme law that determines the relationship among citizens and also the relationship between the people and government.

A constitution plays multiple roles :

- It generates a degree of trust and coordination that is necessary for different kinds of people to live together.
- It specifies the structure and power of the government.
- It lays down limits on the powers of the government.
- It explains the rights of the citizens.
- It also expresses the aspirations of the people about creating a good society.

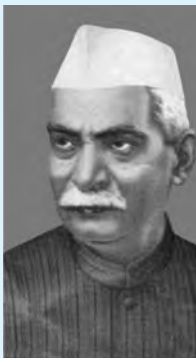
## FRAMING OF INDIAN CONSTITUTION



The Constitution of India was framed by the representatives of the Indian people. It was discussed and adopted in the assembly of people's representatives and nominees from the then native states on 26 November 1949. Each of them was an expert in his/her field. These great minds of India, after a period of long discussions and debates, keeping in mind the diversity and aspirations of the people of India, framed this Constitution. They worked on the principle of sovereignty of the people. People alone through their representatives, directly or indirectly, made the laws.

In accordance with the views of the Cabinet Mission Plan (1946) a Constituent Assembly was set up to

write a Constitution for India. Indirect elections were held, provincial assemblies elected their representatives and princely states nominated their members. It had 292 members from the provinces and 93 from princely states — in all 385 members. When Partition came in 1947, the number of seats were reduced to 299, and they continued to work till November 1949.



*Dr. Rajendra Prasad*

The first meeting of the Constituent Assembly was held on 9<sup>th</sup> December 1946. Dr Rajendra Prasad was elected its President. The Assembly constituted various smaller groups to carry on its work in a systematic manner. These groups were known as committees.

The most important of these committees was the **Drafting Committee**. Dr. B.R. Ambedkar was its chairman. Eminent leaders and legal stalwarts like K.M. Munshi, Gopalaswamy Ayyangar, Alladi Krishnaswamy Iyer, Syed Saadulla, N. Madhava Rao and T.T. Krishnamachari were its members.

They began their work by referring to the various Constitutions and documents of the world.



*Constitution Drafting Committee*



*Dr. B.R. Ambedkar*

There were seven other major committees to examine the various aspects of the Constitution.

The Constituent Assembly finally adopted the Constitution on 26 November 1949 but it came into effect (or was enforced) on 26 January 1950. To mark this day we celebrate January 26 as Republic Day every year.

We should remember that India passed through extremely trying times

immediately after independence. It had to pass through terrible communal riots which threatened its very existence. Great credit should be given to the Constitution makers to make the best possible laws under such circumstances. The largest democracy of the world was born, with the longest known Constitution, after prolonged discussions by a large number of people's representatives — great men and minds who dreamed of a strong, prosperous and united India.

#### FACT FILE

*The Constituent Assembly met for 166 days during the period of 2 years, 11 months and 18 days. It completed its work on 26 November 1949. It included in the Constitution some of the salient features of the British, American, French and Irish Constitutions.*

### THE OBJECTIVES RESOLUTION OF THE CONSTITUENT ASSEMBLY



Pt. Jawaharlal Nehru spelled out the objectives or the underlying principles of the Constitution in his **Objectives Resolution**.

What the Objectives Resolution spelt out:

- India is an Independent, Sovereign Republic.
- India shall be a Union of erstwhile British Indian territories, Indian States and other parts outside

British India and States as are willing to be part of the Union.



*Jawaharlal Nehru addressing the Constituent Assembly*

- Territories forming the Union shall be autonomous units and exercise all powers and functions of government and administration, except those assigned to or vested in the Union.

#### DID YOU KNOW?

The Indian Constitution has borrowed from the Constitutions of many countries :

- United Kingdom : The Parliamentary system with Prime Minister as its head.
- United States of America : A republic with the President as its head, Federal System of Government, Fundamental Rights.
- France : The ideas of liberty, equality and fraternity.
- Ireland : The concept of Directive Principles of State Policy.
- Germany : Emergency Provisions.

- All powers and authority of sovereign independent India and its constituents will flow from the people.
- All people of India shall be guaranteed social, economic and political justice; equality of status and opportunities before the law; and fundamental freedoms — of talk, expression, belief, faith, worship, vocation, association and action.

### The Preamble to the Constitution

**We, the people of India**, having solemnly resolved to constitute India into a **Sovereign Socialist Secular Democratic Republic** and to secure to all its citizens.

**Justice**, social, economic and political.

**Liberty** of thought, expression, belief, faith and worship.

**Equality** of status and of opportunity; and to promote among them all.

**Fraternity** assuring the dignity of the individual and the unity and integrity of the Nation.

In our Constituent Assembly this twenty-sixth day of November 1949, do hereby adopt, enact and give to ourselves this Constitution.

The Preamble was amended in 1976. The words 'Socialist', 'Secular' and 'Unity and Integrity of the Nation' were added.

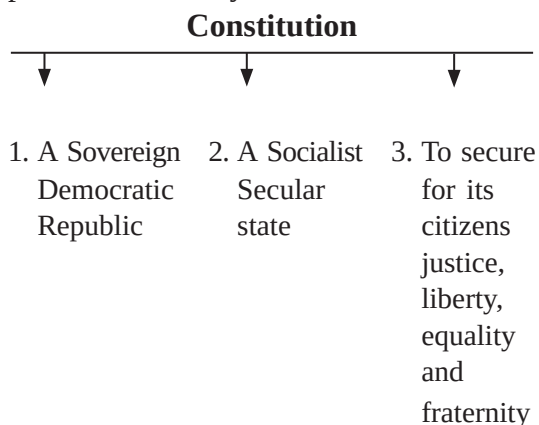
## OBJECTIVES AND VALUES OF OUR CONSTITUTION



Looking at the Preamble we can see that our Constitution is based on certain values which inspired our freedom struggle and later became the foundation of our constitution.

**Values :** (i) Social Equality (ii) Freedom of the individual (iii) Socialism and (iv) Secularism.

**Objectives :** To secure for every citizen Justice, liberty, equality and to promote fraternity.



## SALIENT FEATURES OF THE CONSTITUTION



### 1. The Sovereign Democratic Republic

- A. Sovereign** means supreme power. As a supreme power it is free from any kind of external control. The people of India have the right to make their own decisions on external as well as internal matters. The Constitution derives

its authority from the people, and the people are sovereign. It is evident from the very first words of the Preamble : “We the people of India.”

The Constitution has been drawn up and enacted by the people through their representatives.

**B. Democratic :** India is a democracy where the people elect their own government at all levels (central, state and local). They choose their representatives on the basis of universal adult franchise and hold periodical free and fair elections. People enjoy equal rights. The government remains in power as long as it enjoys the support of the majority of people’s representatives in the legislature. People can change the government in elections.

**C. Republic :** A republic does not have a hereditary ruler (e.g., the British Queen). The head of the state, i.e., the President, is elected by the people for a specific period.

## **2. A Socialist Secular State**

**A. Socialism or Socio-Economic Equality :** This is the key word, a cardinal value of our Constitution. India has a long history of reforms which tried to break down the barriers of low and high castes, customs and superstitions. Gandhiji worked all his life against untouchability. The adoption of the concept of socialism by the Constitution and

all major political parties in India as an ideal, primarily means an equal distribution of wealth in society, lessening of economic disparities and protection of the working people against exploitation. This was essential for a former colony and an underdeveloped country like India. Hence, economic growth with social justice has been underlined in the Directive Principles of State Policy in the Constitution. Apart from directing the state to ensure employment, education, social justice and exploitation, they also ask the state to give help to people in old age, and sickness and abolish bonded labour and slavery or other social evils like Sati or female infanticide.

**B. Secular State :** Secularism basically means separation of the state from religion and as such the state is neither pro-religion nor anti-religion, but it allows people of all faiths equal freedom of worship. The Constitution recognised the right of all religious communities to manage their own affairs and places of worship and acquire property legitimately for this purpose. The Constitution says that no one in India can be discriminated against on the basis of religion and race in education, employment and in other fields, ‘Sarva Dharma Sambhava’ or

equal respect for all religions is motto of Indian secularism as opposed to communalism.

### 3. To Secure Justice, Liberty, Equality and to Promote Fraternity

**A. Justice :** Citizens cannot be discriminated on the grounds of caste, religion and gender. Social inequalities have to be reduced. Government should work for the welfare of all, especially of the disadvantaged groups.

**B. Liberty :** There are no unreasonable restrictions on the citizens in what they think, how they wish to express their thoughts and the way they wish to follow up their thoughts in action.

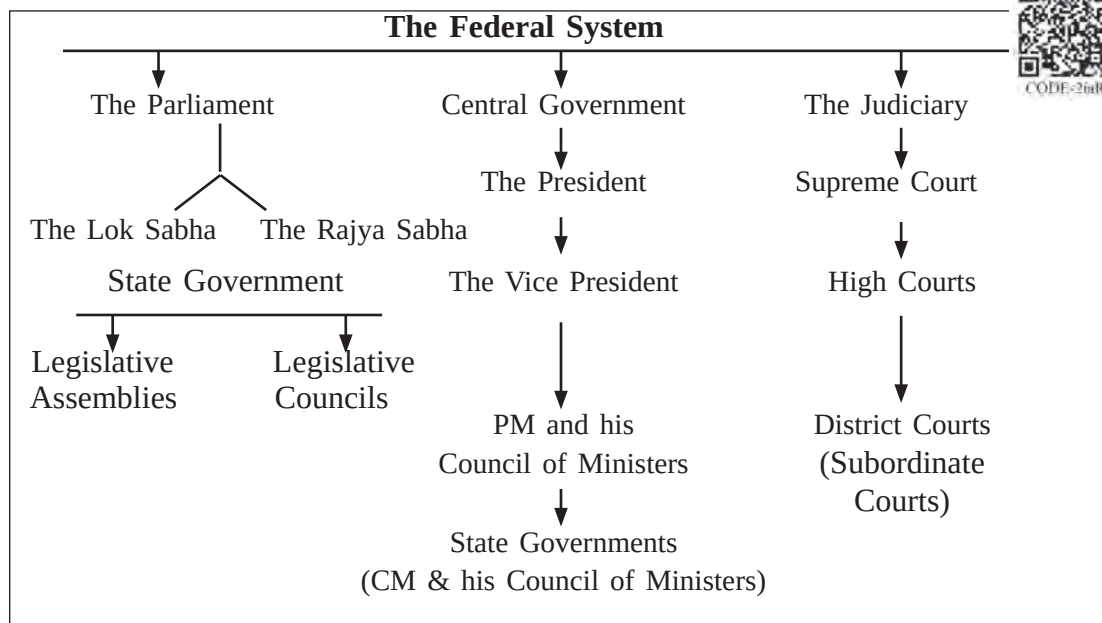
**C. Equality :** All are equal before the law. The traditional social

inequalities have to be ended. The government should ensure equal opportunity for all.

**D. Fraternity :** All of us should behave as if we are members of the same family. No one should treat a fellow citizen as inferior.

### 4. Special Features of the Indian Federation

India is a 'Union of States'. There are two sets of Government — one at the centre and one at the state level. Both have clearly marked and specified areas of functioning. The Constitution has made clear-cut provisions for subjects on which the central and state governments can make laws. They are called the Union list and the State list. Subjects on which both can make laws is called the concurrent list.



- (i) India is a 'Union of States'. There are two sets of government: one at the centre and one at the state level. The one at the centre is called the Union Government and the other at the state is called the State Government. Both have clearly marked and specified areas of functioning.
- (ii) Unlike other federations, in India, the centre is more powerful than the states. The Union List has more subjects and they are of national importance. Again, in the Concurrent List, the centre has been given more powers.
- (iii) In a federation we find, normally, that dual citizenship is given. For example, in the USA which is a federation, every person is a citizen of the United States and also a citizen of his/her state. But in India we have single citizenship. In an election, every citizen votes as an Indian citizen.
- (iv) The Constitution of India has made provisions for an emergency. It specifies certain conditions under which an emergency can be declared. At the time of emergency, the Central Government has been given more powers than the State Governments.

## 5. The Parliamentary System

India has a parliamentary form of government. In this system, the parliament is supreme and it represents

the people. The legislature at the centre is called the Parliament or the 'Sansad'. The parliament has two Houses, that is, it is bicameral.

Though the government is carried in the name of the President at the centre, and the Governor in the states; the actual administration is in the hands of the Council of Ministers led by the Prime Minister at the Centre and the Chief Minister in States.

The form of government introduced by our Constitution is the parliamentary government of the British type. But because India had declared itself a 'Republic', instead of monarch (like in U.K.), an elected president was to be at the head of the parliamentary system. In introducing this amalgam, the makers of our constitution followed the Irish precedent.

## 6. Fundamental Rights

The Constitution guarantees certain basic rights to all the citizens of India. They are called **Fundamental Rights**. According to them, all citizens are equal before the law and there is no discrimination on the basis of one's caste, creed and belief. Rights of the minorities to maintain their culture and education are guaranteed. If the rights are violated citizens can approach the courts to seek protection.

## 7. Independent and Impartial Judiciary

The Constitution provides the people of India with an independent and impartial judiciary. In case of any conflict between the Union and the

State Governments, the judiciary plays the role of an impartial umpire. The Supreme Court of India decides all the disputes between the Centre and a state or between two or more States.

The Judges of the Supreme Court and High Courts cannot be appointed or removed at will by the Union Government. The policies of the Government can be reviewed by the courts, if they seem to violate the Constitution in any way. This power of the courts is called 'judicial review'.

The very incorporation of the Fundamental Rights in a Constitution makes Judicial Review necessary. The Indian Constitution has succeeded in maintaining a fine balance between Judicial Review on one side and parliamentary supremacy on the other. The Supreme Court has the last word with regard to the interpretation of the constitution. It has the power to declare a law as unconstitutional if it is in contravention of the Fundamental Rights. The Parliament can amend the Constitution by a special majority but it cannot alter the 'basic structure' of the Constitution.

### 8. Directive Principles of State Policy

The Constitution also provides certain guidelines for governments in making policies. These are called Directive Principles of State Policy. Their aim is to provide for a welfare state, to secure a social order which promotes the welfare and development of the people. The

principles of liberalism, socialism and Gandhism are included in these Directive Principles. Examples are : providing adequate and basic means of livelihood to all citizens, the distribution of wealth in such a way that the rich don't become richer and the poor, poorer.

### 9. Reservation Policy

The Constitution provides reservation of seats in legislatures for socially backward classes of people called the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. Jobs are reserved for weaker sections in government services and admissions in educational institutions. Seats are reserved for women in the local government bodies.

### 10. Language Policy

The language policy of India has been framed after great care. India is a country of several rich and developed languages. Hindi in Devanagari script is the official language while English continues to be Associate official language. States can adopt the language spoken by the people of the state as its official language. We have 22 recognised languages in the country.

#### The 22 languages recognised by the Constitution

|          |          |          |
|----------|----------|----------|
| Assamese | Gujarati | Konkani  |
| Bengali  | Hindi    | Maithli  |
| Bodo     | Kannada  | Malyalam |
| Dogri    | Kashmiri | Manipuri |
| Marathi  | Sanskrit | Tamil    |
| Nepali   | Santhali | Telugu   |
| Oriya    | Sindhi   | Urdu     |
| Punjabi  |          |          |

## 11. Rigid Yet Flexible

Indian Constitution is flexible to the extent that certain actions can be taken by the Parliament by a simple majority. It is rigid to the extent that some other decisions can be taken only after ratification by the States. It is thus a unique blend of flexibility and rigidity.

It is the amendment of only a few provisions of the Constitution that require ratification by at least half of the state legislatures. Most of the provisions of the Constitution can be amended by a two-thirds majority in both houses of Parliament. Many of the provisions can be amended by a simple majority in both houses, as required for general legislation. Of course, the 'basic structure' of the Constitution cannot be amended.

### REDESIGNING OF DEMOCRACY IN INDIA



The Constitution has undergone many changes since 1950, due to certain circumstances. There have been more than 100 'Amendments' to the Constitution since 26th January 1950.

- The age of voting has been reduced from 21 to 18.
- The right to property is no longer a **fundamental** right. It is like any other legal right.
- Fundamental Duties have been incorporated in the Constitution.
- New states have been carved out (Uttarakhand, Chhattisgarh and Jharkhand in 2000). In 2014, state of Telangana was carved out of Andhra Pradesh.

In conclusion, the basic structure of the Constitution (according to a judgement of the Supreme Court) consists of the following :

- (i) Supremacy of the Constitution.
- (ii) Republican and Democratic form of the Government.
- (iii) Secular character of the Constitution.
- (iv) Separation of powers between the Legislature, the Executive and the Judiciary.
- (v) Federal character of the Constitution.

This structure is built on the basic foundation of dignity and freedom of the individual which cannot be amended or destroyed.

### IMPORTANT TERMS

- **Democratic country** : Where the people elect their leaders for a fixed period of time.
- **Constitution** : The fundamental principles on which a state or nation is governed.
- **Preamble** : An introduction to the Constitution, contains the basic ideals and principles.
- **Sovereign** : A nation free from external control. A nation which derives its authority from its people.
- **Republic** : A state which has an elected head. No hereditary ruler.
- **Socialist** : Where the government aims at an equitable distribution of wealth.

- **Secular** : Separation of state from religion. All religions are given equal importance.
- **Federal** : A government formed by union of states. One government at the centre and one at the state.
- **Parliamentary system** : Country governed by a Parliament.
- **Amendment** : Changes made in the Constitution

## EXERCISES

### I. Choose the correct answer.



- The first meeting of the Constituent Assembly was held on  
 (a) 9 December 1946 (b) 10 December 1947  
 (c) 15 August 1947 (d) None of these
- Who was the chairman of the Drafting Committee of the Constitution?  
 (a) Rajendra Prasad (b) B.R. Ambedkar (c) J. L. Nehru (d) K. M. Munshi
- Who was elected the president of the Constituent Assembly?  
 (a) Dr Rajendra Prasad (b) Dr. B.R. Ambedkar  
 (c) Mahatma Gandhi (d) Jawaharlal Nehru
- When was the Constitution of India enforced?  
 (a) 1947 (b) 1948 (c) 1949 (d) 1950
- There are two statements marked as Assertion (A) and Reason (R). Mark your answer as per the codes provided below. :  
**Assertion (A)** : The Constitution was enforced on 26 January 1950.  
**Reason (R)** : To mark this day we celebrated January 26 as Republic Day every year.  
 (a) Both (A) and (R) are true and (R) is the correct explanation of (A)  
 (b) Both (A) and (R) are true but (R) is not the correct explanation of (A)  
 (c) (A) is correct but (R) is wrong  
 (d) (A) is wrong but (R) is correct
- Which of the following statements about the given personality is **incorrect**?  
 (a) He was an eminent lawyer, legal stalwart and economist  
 (b) He was the Chairman of Constitution Drafting Committee  
 (c) He moved the Objectives Resolution in the Constituent Assembly  
 (d) He went on to become the first Law Minister of Independent India



- Consider the statements given below and choose the correct answer.

**Statement I** : Indian Constitution is a unique blend of flexibility and rigidity.

**Statement II** : Most of the provisions of the Constitution can be amended by a

two-thirds majority in both Houses of Parliament.

- (a) Statement (I) is correct and (II) is incorrect
- (b) Statement (I) is incorrect and (II) is correct
- (c) Both (I) and (II) are incorrect
- (d) Both (I) and (II) are correct

## II. Short Answer Type Questions.

1. Why is the concept of democracy not new to India?
2. What was the role of Dr. Rajendra Prasad and Dr. B.R. Ambedkar in the framing of our Constitution?
3. What is Universal Adult Franchise?
4. Which were the new words added to the Constitution in 1976?
5. What has India borrowed from the Constitution of the United Kingdom?

## III. Long Answer Type Questions.

1. What is a Constitution? Why do we need a Constitution? **[HOTS]**
2. Describe the salient features of the Indian Constitution.
3. Write short notes on :
  - (i) A federal state
  - (ii) Independent judiciary
4. Explain the following terms :
  - (i) Justice
  - (ii) Liberty
  - (iii) Equality
  - (iv) Fraternity
5. Describe the basic features of the Indian Constitution. Why they cannot be amended? **[HOTS]**

## PROBLEM SOLVING ASSESSMENT

**Read the following passage carefully and answer the questions based on it.**

Every society must develop in its people a social responsibility. This is something that we, in India, have been falling short of.

We are very individualistic and don't relate ourselves to our society as such. Very seldom do we actually go out and do something, which is beneficial to the society and which does not have side benefit for ourselves as individuals. And this is another thing that must be built into the education system.

Our young boys and girls coming out must have a feeling for our society. There is a special responsibility that you have, that we all have in building up the spirit. We have to see that what we learn is not used only for our own personal benefits, that every task we do is such that it benefits the weak and the poor, as Gandhiji has said.

India, today, is striving out into the modern world. We are looking ahead to new technology, to high technology, new methods, new types of employment, and a new dynamism in our economic growth.

But while we look ahead, we must not forget the millions who are still below the poverty line. When we look at technology, when we look science, when we look at development, our attention must not be diverted from what is still a major stumbling block in India — the



poor and deprived groups. And everything we do must be targeted in a manner that the benefits will flow to the weak, the deprived and the depressed.

**Tick the right option.**

1. According to the author, the Indian people :  
(a) are socially very responsible (b) lack of social responsibility  
(c) have several responsibilities (d) are highly irresponsible
2. Indians do not do anything beneficial to society unless :  
(a) there is a benefit for themselves (b) it involves personal sacrifices  
(c) other individuals are benefitted (d) the whole society benefits by it
3. The author says that India :  
(a) wants to acquire new technology  
(b) does not want new technology  
(c) already has sufficient new technology  
(d) can export technology to other countries
4. The author wants to bring welfare mainly for :  
(a) people belonging to intellectual background  
(b) people belonging to political background  
(c) people belonging to poor and deprived groups  
(d) people belonging to rich class
5. We do not care for the development of our society as a whole. We should use our spare time for the development of the society but it is not so. Why?  
(a) because neighbours are very selfish that's why no one is interested to bring about welfare in the society  
(b) because people have become too much individualistic  
(c) because people have not even a single minute to think about society  
(d) none of the above

**THINGS TO DO**

1. **Activity** : Look up the annual calendar of holidays of your school. How many of them are because of different religions? Think and write. Why this is very significant?



2. **Assignment** : You find that your town/city agitated about three incidents.

- (i) The discovery of two children, 10 years old, working in a carpet factory.
- (ii) A girl from your town was not allowed to enter the forces by the government, though fully qualified.
  - | A student from the North-East was not given admission in your school.

Discuss and write why the people agitated, were they right? Suggest steps to improve the situation.

## CHAPTER 13

# Electoral Politics in a Democracy

### ELECTIONS

Since our Constitution makes India a representative democracy, at all levels all political decisions have to be taken by the elected representatives of the people. Elections as such become an integral part of our political system. From the Panchayats to the Union Government all political institutions function through elected representatives of the people. At the local level people choose representatives to Panchayats or Municipalities. These representatives are called Panchas or Councillors. At the state level people elect MLAs (Members of Legislative Assembly). At the national level people elect Members of Parliament, known as MPs.

There is no other democratic way of selecting representatives except through elections and voting. That is the only way to make sure that government represents the will, the choice of the people.

In an election voters can choose :

- The party that would make policies and guide the government in law making.
- They will choose the people who will make laws for them.

The choice of representatives is not made on a permanent basis. In a



democratic election people can reverse their previous decision and change the government, if it fails to perform. Thus, the representatives are answerable to the people who elect them.

- Elections lead to political competition. The competition can take various forms.
- It is a competition among various political parties.
- It also involves competition among various ideologies and policies of different political parties.
- At the level of a constituency, it takes the form of competition among many candidates.
- Elections also make the people aware of the national problems. Through the manifestos of different political parties, people come to know how each party is going to deal with the national problems.

All this competition is very healthy. Elections without competition would become meaningless.

The basic features essential for democratic elections are as below :

- Universal adult suffrage – Every citizen should be able to vote. One vote for one person and every vote should have the same value.
- There should be candidates and parties who are allowed to contest elections.

- Elections should be free and fair. Every person chosen by the people should get elected.
- Elections should be held at regular intervals.

Different kinds of elections are held in our country. Elections to the Lok Sabha and Vidhan Sabhas are held every five years. After five years, the Lok Sabha or a Vidhan Sabha is dissolved. Elections are held in all the constituencies at the same time, either on the same day or within a few days. This is called a “General Election”. In an election certain terms are used which we must understand. These terms are seats or constituencies, voters, representatives, campaign, etc.

We will attempt to explain these terms with the help of actual elections in a state. A map of Nagaland State is given alongside.

In the 17<sup>th</sup> Lok Sabha election held in 2019, the lone seat was won by the nominee of NDPP — Tokheho Yepthomi.

Let us now discuss in detail how elections are held. The first step is fixing the number of constituencies.

A *constituency* is an area, based on population, from which one representative is sent to the Lok Sabha. For example, there are 543 seats in the Lok Sabha. Each seat is occupied by an elected representative who is called Member of Parliament or MP. So there are 543 Lok Sabha constituencies that elect 543 members of the Lok Sabha.

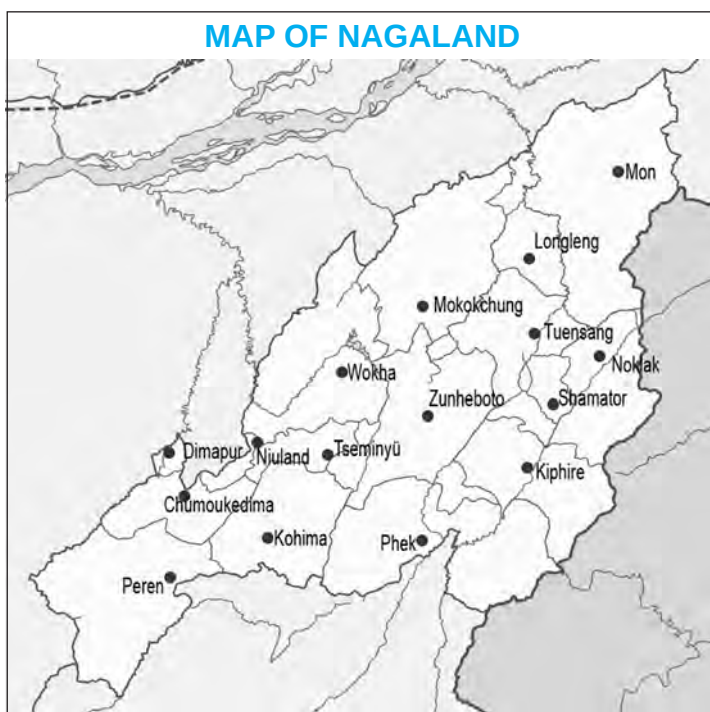
Each member of legislature represents one area. Our Constitution ensures that each constituency has roughly equal population living in it. It makes the value

### NAGALAND Basic Facts (As per Census 2011)

|                     |                                                                                         |
|---------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Population          | : 19,80,602                                                                             |
| Male                | : 1025907                                                                               |
| Female              | : 954895                                                                                |
| Population Growth   | : – 0.47%                                                                               |
| Population Density  | : 119 per sq. km.                                                                       |
| Sex Ratio           | : 931                                                                                   |
| Literacy            | : 80.11%                                                                                |
| Female Literacy     | : 76.69%                                                                                |
| Male Literacy       | : 83.29%                                                                                |
| Area                | : 16, 579 sq. km.                                                                       |
| Districts           | : 16                                                                                    |
| Capital             | : Kohima                                                                                |
| Principal Languages | : Tenyiedie,<br>Ao, Chang,<br>Konyak, Lotha,<br>Chakhesang,<br>English, Sumi<br>Sangtam |
| Per capita Income   | : ₹15,594                                                                               |
| Lok Sabha seat      | : 1                                                                                     |
| Assembly strength   | : 60                                                                                    |

of votes of each person the same as that of any one else.

The same system applies to the Vidhan Sabha constituencies. The state is divided into Assembly constituencies and they vary according to the population of the state. At the state level the representative is called MLA. Uttar Pradesh has the largest Vidhan Sabha (403 members), while a small state like Goa has only 40 members and Sikkim has only 32 members.



## Reserved Constituencies

There are some constituencies which are reserved for Scheduled Castes (SC) and Scheduled Tribes (ST). In these reserved constituencies, only a person who belongs to a Scheduled Caste or Tribe can stand for election. The unreserved constituencies are also called General Constituencies.

Do you think this system is unfair to those from other communities? It prevents people belonging to other communities to stand for election in the reserved constituencies.

But have you thought about the advantages? People belonging to weaker sections, Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes would, without reservations, never get an opportunity to win an election and become members of the Lok Sabha

and Vidhan Sabhas. They would never have the resources, the education and contact to fight an election on equal terms against other candidates. If that happened our Parliament would fail to be representative of a large section of our population.

So, the makers of our constitution thought of a special system of reserved constituencies for the weaker sections. Currently, in the Lok Sabha, 84 seats are reserved for the Scheduled Castes and 47 for the Scheduled Tribes. This number is in proportion to their share in the total population.

This system of reservation was extended later to other weaker sections at the district and local level. In many states seats are reserved in panchayats and municipalities for Other Backward

Classes (OBC) as well. However, the proportion of seats reserved varies from state to state. Similarly, one-third of the seats are reserved in rural and urban local bodies for women candidates.

## Voters List

After the number of constituencies are decided, the voters list is prepared. For this an *Electoral Roll* is prepared much before the elections, which decides who can vote.

This is very important in a democracy. There is no discrimination made on the basis of income, education, gender or religion. Anyone who is 18 years of age and above can vote. Only people who are insane or have a serious criminal record are not allowed to vote, but this takes place only in rare situations. The government prepares the list of the names of eligible voters and then they are put on the voters list. This list is revised every year and a new list is prepared every five years.

In the last few years a new system of Election Photo Identity Card (EPIC) has been introduced. Voters are required to carry this card when they go out to vote, so that nobody else votes on their behalf. Other proofs that can be shown are ration cards, or driving license.

## Nomination of Candidates

The minimum age to be nominated as a candidate is 25 years. Political parties nominate their candidates who get the party symbol and support. This is called getting the “Party Ticket”.

There are no restrictions because of

education. The qualifications needed for being an MP or an MLA is not a college degree but an *ability to understand the people’s problems, concerns and an ability to represent them*. In a vast country like India, if only graduates could appear for elections, many people would be deprived of their right to stand for election (almost 90%). Independent candidates can also stand for election.

A person who wishes to stand for an election has to fill in a nomination form. After a recent Supreme Court judgement candidates have to make a legal declaration standing whether :

- Serious criminal cases are pending against them.
- Details of their assets and liabilities.
- Educational qualifications.

According to a recent judgement of the Supreme Court, a candidate convicted by a court of law for any offence for a duration of 2 years or above is not eligible to become an MLA or an MP. Already elected candidates are automatically disqualified.

The legal declaration made by a candidate has to be made public. This provides an opportunity to the voters to make their choice and decision on the basis of the information provided by the candidates at the time of election.

## Election Campaign

To choose a representative, it is necessary that people have a free and open discussion



about party which will give a better government, and which candidate will serve the interests of the people in the best manner. The ideologies and policies of the parties contesting should be clearly understood by the voting public. In India, two weeks gap is kept between the declaration of candidates and polling of votes. This period is for candidates to contact their voters, address, election, meetings and mobilise their supporters with the help of their respective parties. Door to door canvassing is allowed till 48 hours before the polling closes. Candidates make their promises through their *election manifestos*.

In election campaigns, political parties try to focus attention on some big issues to attract public attention. They highlight the failures of the opposition parties.

There are certain restrictions imposed on how election campaigns are run.

- (i) Votes cannot be sought by an appeal to religious or caste sentiments of the voters.
- (ii) Returns showing details of and expenses incurred in connection with the election campaigns have

to be submitted to the Election Commission after the elections. These expenses have to be within the limits set by the Election Commission.

The Election Commission has imposed an expenditure ceiling for a Lok Sabha election (per candidate) at ₹75 lakh and ₹95 lakh, depending on states. For Assembly election it is fixed at ₹28 lakh and ₹40 depending on states.

- (iii) Government resources cannot be used for election campaigns.
- (iv) Candidates cannot bribe or threaten voters to vote for them.

Though freedom of speech is allowed, all political parties have agreed to a model code of conduct for election campaigns.



## Polling and Counting of Votes

The last stage of an election is the day when the voters cast or 'poll' their votes. Every voter, whose name is in the voters list, goes to the nearest polling booth to cast



*People voting in Nagaland*

## Symbols

India has a majority of voters who are illiterate. To help the voters each political party and individuals who fight elections are given a symbol. Voters recognise the symbols and vote for their representatives.

his/her vote. Polling booths are usually situated in a local school or government office. The election officials identify

them, put a mark on their finger and allow the voters to cast their vote.

A *ballot paper* is a sheet of paper on which the contesting candidates and their party's name and symbol are listed. Nowadays Electronic Voting Machines (EVM) are used to record votes. The machine shows the names of candidates and party symbols. Independent candidates are also allotted their symbols by election officials. The voters have to just press the button against the candidate whom they want to vote for. In this way a voter cannot vote for more than one candidate and election results are known faster than the earlier method of counting of the ballot papers.

When the polling is over, all the EVMs are sealed and taken to the



Voting in an election

headquarters of the constituency. When all the EVMs are secured they are opened in the presence of the *agents of the candidates* on the date of the counting. The results are declared when counting is over. The candidate securing the highest number of votes from a constituency is declared the winner.

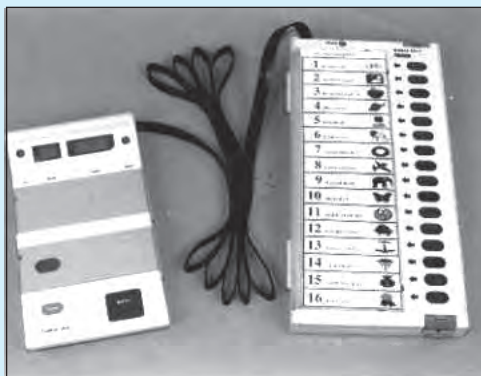
The results are a big event and covered by the media — television, radio, newspapers.

### A Model Code of Conduct for Election Campaign



- Any place of worship will not be used for election purposes.
- Personal lives of opponents will not be attacked. Criticism to be limited to their policies, programmes, past record and work.
- Government transport (aircraft, vehicles, machinery and personnel) will not be used by the ruling party.
- No flags, banners, notices, slogans shall be placed on buildings without the permission of the owner.
- Ministers shall not announce any projects or any foundation stones once elections have been announced.

### DID YOU KNOW?



*EVMs were first used in Kerala. They were designed by Electronics Corporation of India Ltd. and Bharat Electronics Ltd. An EVM can register 64 candidates. Manual ballot has to be used if there are more.*

When all the results are declared it becomes clear as to who will form the next government.

Candidates who fail to secure a minimum percentage of votes polled forfeit their security deposit.

## MEASURES TAKEN TO ENSURE FREE AND FAIR ELECTIONS



After every elections allegations against each other are made by all the parties. Newspapers and television refer to these allegations. The biggest allegation is of ‘rigging’.

- Allegations refer to inclusion of false names in the voters’ list or that genuine names are not included in the list.
- The ruling party is accused of using Government facilities and officials.
- Rich candidates use their “money power” to win elections.
- The voters are intimidated by the use of “muscle power” and are prevented from voting. “Rigging” takes place by people using unfair and illegal means to win. Example : More than one person votes under the same name.

But, though some of these allegations are true, great care is taken to ensure they do not happen on a large scale. One way to test is to see who conducts the elections; to find out whether they are under the ruling party or have the power to work independently. Do the

people who conduct elections have the power to ensure free and fair elections?

The answer to these questions is positive.

## A. Independent Election Commission

In our country we have an independent body, totally free from government interference, to conduct the elections. The powerful Election Commission of India enjoys the same kind of independence as the judiciary. Though the President appoints the Chief Election Commissioner (CEC) he is not answerable to the President or the government. He cannot be removed even if the government disagrees with his decisions or actions.

Very few election commissions in the world have such wide ranging powers as the Election Commission of India. The Commission can pull up the governments for their lapses. If it thinks that the polling was not fair, it can cancel a polling and order a repoll in some booths or even the entire constituency.

The powers of the Election Commission include the following.

- The Constitution has empowered the Election Commission to take decisions on every aspect of conduct and control of elections – from the time of declaration of elections to the declaration of results.
- It can implement the Code of Conduct and punish any party or

candidate for breaking or violating any rule.

- During the period of elections the Election Commission can order the government to follow its guidelines, including transfer of government officials.
- The government officers who work on election duty, are under the control of Election Commission and not the government.

Over the years the powers of the Election Commission have been expanded. Even if the ruling party does not like what the Election Commission does, they have to obey. This would have been impossible if Election Commission was not independent and powerful.

The Election Commission has made use of technology to prevent rigging. Voter Identity Cards, Electronic Voting Machines (EVM) and restrictions on election expenses are the various ways used to ensure free and fair elections.

**Voter identity cards** are cards with the voters' pictures which they have to carry while voting. This prevents malpractice of voting by a person not on the voters list.

Electronic Voting Machines stop a voter from voting again and the counting is faster, with no scope for rigging the results.

No candidate is allowed to spend more than the specific amount (set by the Election Commission, on his or her elections.

All these methods enforced by the Election Commission. ensure free and fair elections.

## B. People's Participation

Another way of testing whether elections are free and fair is to see whether maximum number of voters participated in it. If the elections are not free and fair people will not participate in them.

- It is essential in a democracy that eligible people vote to elect their leaders. Though India is poor and many people are illiterate, yet the voters have shown growing interest in voting in elections. This is in contrast to western democracies, like the USA. The poor people, Blacks and Hispanics vote much less than the Whites.
- We can prove the growing interest of the voters by voter **turnout** figures. It indicates the percent of eligible voters who actually cast their vote.
- During the 2004 elections in India, more than one-third voters took part in election activities. More than half the people supported one or other political party. In India one out of every seven voters is a member of a political party.
- The common people in India have begun to believe that through elections they can force political parties to adopt policies which favour them. They have realised that their vote matters and it is important in running of the country.

During the General Elections to the 17th Lok Sabha in 2019, the overall turnout of voters was around 67%, the

highest so far. Around 912 millions people were eligible to vote.

## CHALLENGES TO FREE AND FAIR ELECTIONS



1. Candidates and parties with a lot of money may not be sure of their victory but they do enjoy a big and unfair advantage over smaller parties and independents.
2. In some parts of the country, candidates with criminal connection have been able to push others out of the electoral race and to secure a 'ticket' from major parties.
3. Some families tend to dominate political parties; tickets are distributed to relatives from these families.

4. Very often election offer little choice to ordinary citizens, for both the major parties are quite similar to each other both in policies and practice.

5. Smaller parties and independent candidates suffer a huge disadvantage compared to bigger parties.

These challenges exist not just in India but also in many established democracies. These deeper issues are a matter of concern for those who believe in democracy. That is why citizens, social activists and organisations have been demanding reforms in our electoral system.

## IMPORTANT TERMS

- **Constituency** : Division of a state on the basis of population, from where a representative can stand for election to the Lok Sabha or State Assemblies.
- **Reserved constituency** : A constituency from where only Scheduled Castes or Scheduled Tribes persons can stand for election. Reserved seats are for the weaker sections of society.
- **Electoral roll** : A complete list of names of voters eligible to vote in an election. It is also called the voters list.
- **EPIC – Election Photo Identity Card** : Voters' photos and details are given on this card as a proof of their eligibility to vote.
- **EVM** : Electronic Voting Machines which have replaced the Ballot Paper.
- **CEC** : Chief Election Commissioner, head of the Election Commission which oversees the elections in the country.

## EXERCISES

### I. Choose the correct answer.

1. How many total seats are reserved for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in the present Lok Sabha?  
(a) 120                      (b) 131                      (c) 140  
(d) 150



2. Door to door canvassing is allowed till \_\_\_\_\_ hours before the polling closes.  
 (a) 36 (b) 40 (c) 48 (d) 72
3. What is the minimum age required to be eligible as a Member of Lok Sabha?  
 (a) 20 years (b) 18 years (c) 25 years (d) 30 years
4. Who appoints the Chief Election Commissioner?  
 (a) Prime Minister (b) President  
 (c) Chief Justice of India (d) Vice President
5. Which state has the largest number of members in the Vidhan Sabha?  
 (a) Goa (b) Bihar  
 (c) U.P. (d) Maharashtra
6. There are two statements marked as Assertion (A) and Reason (R). Mark your answer as per the codes provided below. :  
**Assertion (A)** : The minimum age to be nominated as a candidate is 25 years.  
**Reason (R)** : There is no restriction because of education.  
 (a) Both (A) and (R) are true and (R) is the correct explanation of (A)  
 (b) Both (A) and (R) are true but (R) is not the correct explanation of (A)  
 (c) (A) is correct but (R) is wrong  
 (d) (A) is wrong but (R) is correct
7. Which of the following statements regarding an election campaign is **incorrect**?  
 I. Opposition parties highlight the failures of the ruling party  
 II. Parties focus public attention on big and contentious issues to attract votes  
 III. Two weeks' gap is kept between the declaration of candidates and polling of votes  
 IV. Campaign is allowed till 48 hours before the polling begins.  
 (a) I and II are incorrect (b) III and IV are incorrect  
 (c) Only III is incorrect (d) Only IV is incorrect

## II. Very Short Answer Type Questions.

1. What is a constituency?
2. What is Universal Adult Franchise?
3. How do elections lead to political competition?
4. What is the expenditure limit for a candidate during a Lok Sabha election?



## III. Short Answer Type Questions.

1. Explain the difference between :  
 (i) Ballot Paper and EVM  
 (ii) General Constituency and Reserved Constituency
2. Why have seats been reserved for weaker sections in Lok Sabha and Assemblies?
3. Describe the model code of conduct for an election campaign. **[HOTS]**



#### IV. Long Answer Type Questions.

1. Briefly discuss the steps taken to hold elections.
2. In a democracy elections are a must. Discuss.
3. Is it good to have political competition? Why? Why not?
4. Discuss the basic features essential for a democratic election.



[HOTS]

#### THINGS TO DO

**Assignment :** Fill in the following table with information on the various representatives from **Nagaland**.

|                                                                                                      | State Government | Central Government |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------|--------------------|
| Which political party/parties is/are currently in power?                                             |                  |                    |
| Who (name) is the current representative from your area?                                             |                  |                    |
| Which political parties currently form the opposition when were last elections held? (in your state) |                  |                    |
| How many women representatives are there (from your state)                                           |                  |                    |

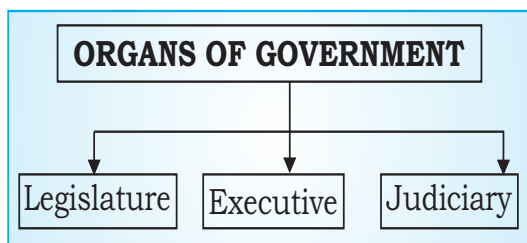
# CHAPTER 14

## Institutions of Parliamentary Democracy

### POLITICAL INSTITUTIONS

Governing a country involves various activities. For example, the government is responsible for ensuring security of the citizens and providing facilities for education and health to all. It collects taxes and spends the money thus raised on administration, defence and development programmes. It formulates and implements several welfare schemes. Some persons have to take decisions on how to go about these activities. Others have to implement these decisions.

If disputes arise on these decisions or their implementation, there should be someone to determine what is right or wrong. So, to attend to all these tasks, several arrangements are made in modern democracies. Such arrangements are called **institutions**. The Constitution of a country lays down basic rules on the powers and functions of each institution. These institutions are broadly categorised into executive, legislature and judiciary. They are also called the three organs of the government.



### The Organs of Government

India is a federation which means that there is one government at the Centre and another in the States and Union Territories. These governments function in accordance with the norms and practices of the parliamentary system of government. The Central as well as the State Governments consist of 3 organs – the Legislature, the Executive and the Judiciary.

### MEANING OF PARLIAMENTARY DEMOCRACY

The Parliament is a representative body. It is elected on the basis of universal adult franchise. It is empowered to make or change a country's laws. The Parliament has the power over the Executive of the country as it is chosen from the elected members of the Parliament. The Executive (Union Council of Ministers) remains in power as long as it has the confidence of the Parliament. The Parliament also controls the National Budget of the country. Thus, in a democracy the Parliament has the power to control the Executive.

### PARLIAMENT (UNION LEGISLATURE)

Under the political system adopted by India, Parliament is the



supreme institution of the people and a symbol of their freedom and sovereignty. Parliament, in India, is much more than a legislative body. It is an institution which has various functions to perform. These functions include (i) political and financial control over the government, (ii) representation and expression of grievances, (iii) resolution of conflicts, and (iv) national integration. It is therefore absolutely essential that we understand the nature of the parliamentary system in India and how it works.



*The Parliament (Sansad Bhawan)*

### Why do we need a Parliament?

In all democracies, an assembly of elected representatives exercises supreme political authority on behalf of the people. In India such a national assembly of elected representatives is called Parliament. At the state level this is called Legislature or Legislative Assembly. The name may vary in different countries, but such an assembly exists in every democracy. It exercises political authority on behalf of the people in many ways:

1. Parliament is the final authority for making laws in any country. This task of law making or legislation is so crucial that these assemblies are called legislature. Parliaments all over the world can make new laws, change existing laws, or abolish existing laws and make new ones in their place.
2. Parliaments all over the world exercise some control over those who run the government. In some countries like India this control is direct and full. Those who run the government can take decision only so long as they enjoy support of the Parliament.
3. Parliaments control all the money that governments have. In most countries any of the public money can be spent only when the Parliament sanctions it.
4. Parliaments is the highest forum of discussion and debate on public issues and national policy in any country.

### The Role of the Parliament

In all democratic countries, an assembly of elected representatives has the power to govern on behalf of the people. In India, we call this assembly the Parliament. Like parliaments all over the world, it makes new laws, changes the old laws and makes new ones in their place. The parliament can amend the Constitution too.

Parliaments all over the world control public finances. In most countries any money raised from the people can be spent only after the approval of the Parliament.

Parliament is also the highest forum of discussion and debate about national policy and issues affecting the people. Parliaments all over the world exercise control over those, who govern the country.

The parliament is known by different names in different countries and is the final authority in making laws in any country. That is why parliaments are called legislatures also. The exact nature, role and powers of the parliament are not the same in all the countries of the world. In some countries, the Prime Minister is the Chief Executive. He is chosen by the parliament and remains in power till the parliament approves of him. Once a vote of no confidence is passed, the government including the Prime Minister has to resign. This makes the parliament supreme in the country.

In a parliamentary system, the party or the alliance which has the majority in the parliament, rules the country. This system was started by the British and many countries of the world, including India, follow it.

Parliament in India consists of two houses. The first is called the Lok Sabha (House of People), which is directly elected by the people for a period of five years. The Second House is called

the Rajya Sabha or the Council of States (rajya means state). Rajya Sabha is the representative of the states in India. Members of the Rajya Sabha are not directly elected by the people. They are elected by the MLAs of the state they represent. 12 members of the Rajya Sabha are nominated by the President of India. The twelve members are chosen for their achievements in the fields of art, literature, science and social service. A Rajya Sabha member serves for six years, with one third members retiring every second year. The Rajya Sabha, thus, is a permanent body and is never dissolved.



*The new Lok Sabha*



*The new Rajya Sabha*

## Functions of the Parliament

*The Parliament performs the following functions :*



- (a) It legislates on matters that fall within the Central List. The Constitution also has a Concurrent List which spells out areas in which both the Central and the State authorities have powers to legislate. Education falls within the Concurrent List.
- (b) The income and expenditure to be incurred by the Central Government are approved and controlled by the Union Parliament.
- (c) The Parliament alone has the powers to amend the provisions laid down in the Constitution of India. Certain provisions can be amended only with the consent of the States. There are certain provisions like the secular nature of the State which have been put beyond the amending powers of the Parliament.
- (d) The Parliament has powers to impeach the President and the judges of the High Courts and the Supreme Court. Even though the Constitution gives such powers, there is a strict procedure for the passage of impeachment. So far there have been no removals by impeachment.
- (e) The Parliament approves proclamations made by the President during the period of Emergency.

- (f) The Parliament exercises control over the executive. The efficiency or otherwise of the government is brought to light by a number of measures like the Questions during Question Hour, Adjournment Motions and the Motion of No Confidence.
- (g) The two Houses jointly elect the Vice President. Elected members of the Lok Sabha, the Rajya Sabha and the State Legislative Assemblies form the Electoral College for the election of the President. Members of Legislative Assemblies of UTs of Delhi & Puducherry also take part in the election of President.
- (h) Parliament also has powers to create a new State or alter the name and boundary of an existing state.

## Relations between the Lok Sabha and the Rajya Sabha



Rajya Sabha is called the “Upper House” and the Lok Sabha, the “Lower House.” But it does not mean that Rajya Sabha is more powerful than the Lok Sabha.

Our Constitution has given a superior status to the Lok Sabha since it is directly elected by the people. This can be seen in the following aspects :

- (1) Any ordinary bill has to be passed by both the Houses. But if there is a difference of opinion on any issue then a joint session of members of the both Houses is held. Since the Lok Sabha has more members than

the Rajya Sabha, the view of the Lok Sabha prevails.

- (2) In financial matters, the Lok Sabha has more powers. Once the Lok Sabha passes a budget, the Rajya Sabha cannot reject it. The Rajya Sabha can delay the passing of the budget for 14 days only or offer some changes. The Lok Sabha may or may not accept them.
- (3) The most important power of the Lok Sabha is that it controls the executive or the government or the Council of Ministers. The government remains in power as long as it enjoys the confidence of the Lok Sabha. The moment Lok Sabha passes the “No Confidence Motion” all ministers including the Prime Minister have to quit. The Rajya Sabha does not have this power.

### How Laws are Made

The Parliament is the supreme legislative body. The government makes legislative proposals and the Parliament, after discussion and debate, puts its seal of approval. This function is performed through a series of processes.

- (i) All legislative proposals are initiated in the Parliament in the form of Bills. A Bill is a draft of a legislative proposal initiated by either the government or any private member in either House of Parliament.
- (ii) All Bills which are not Constitution

Amendment Bills and Money Bills, are Ordinary Bills.

- (iii) As soon as a proposal is conceived the ministry concerned works out its administrative, financial and other implications. Its legal and constitutional implications are examined by the Ministry of Law and Attorney General of India. The Bill is then given a final shape.
- (iv) The Bill is then presented in either of the two Houses. It has to undergo *Three Readings* in each House before it becomes an act.

(a) *First Reading* : The Bill is introduced when the Minister in charge of the Bill, rises in the Question Hour and says, “Sir, I introduce the Bill.”

*Second Reading* : The most elaborate and important stage. It is given a detailed examination and studied clause by clause. Amendments can be moved at this stage.

*Third Reading* : Now the Bill is to be voted upon. The whole Bill is either supported or rejected without any details being referred to. In passing an Ordinary Bill, a simple majority of members present is required. Then the Bill is sent to the other house. Here again it goes through the three stages and then passed.

If there is a deadlock then a joint session of both the Houses is held, presided over by the Speaker. The decision of the majority is taken as final. When the Bill is passed, the Bill is sent to the President for his assent. If the President withholds his assent, there



is an end to the Bill. But the President, being a Constitutional head, does not withhold assent but seeks information and classification. If the President gives his assent the Bill becomes an Act. If the President returns the Bill to the Houses, and if they pass it again, the President has to sign the Bill.

(b) *Budget or Money Bills* : Rules are different for Money Bills. A Money Bill is only introduced in the Lok Sabha. When Lok Sabha passes it, it goes to the Rajya Sabha. The Rajya Sabha cannot reject it, but can make suggestions only, which the Lok Sabha may or may not accept. Then the Bill is deemed to have been passed and sent to the President who gives it his assent.

### Difference between a Money Bill and an Ordinary Bill

**A Money Bill** : It concerns the finances of a country. The government cannot spend a rupee without the sanction of the Lok Sabha. Only the Lok Sabha can sanction any expenditure by the Government. All Money Bills (e.g. the Annual Budget, the Railway Budget) are introduced in the Lok Sabha. The Rajya Sabha cannot reject any Money Bill passed by the Lok Sabha. It can delay it for maximum 14 days.

**An Ordinary Bill** : An Ordinary Bill is one that asks for change in a law or passing of a new law on any other subject except finance. The Lok Sabha and the Rajya Sabha have equal powers on an Ordinary Bill.

## 1. The President

The President as the Head of the State is the First Citizen of the country; the highest political executive. But as India is a parliamentary democracy, the head of the state has only nominal powers. The President of India is not as powerful as the President of USA, because the latter is directly elected by the people. The President of India is indirectly elected.



*President of India : Droupadi Murmu*

Droupadi Murmu is an Indian politician and former teacher who is serving as the 15th and current President of India since 2022. She is the first person from the tribal community and the second woman to hold the office.

While the Prime Minister is the head of the government, the President is the head of the state. In our political system the head of the state exercises only nominal powers. The President supervises the overall functioning of all the political institutions in the country so that they operate in harmony to achieve the objective of the state.

A candidate standing for Presidents's post has to get a majority of votes to win the election. This ensures that the

President can be seen to represent the entire nation. At the same time the President can never claim the kind of direct popular mandate that the Prime Minister can. This ensures that she remains only a nominal executive.

There is a very elaborate and complex system, set up by the Constitution, for the election of a President. The President is elected by an Electoral College which consists of the following :

- (a) Elected members of both Houses of Parliament (all the elected MPs of Lok Sabha and Rajya Sabha).
- (b) All the elected members of all the Legislative Assemblies (MLAs) of the states including the UTs of Delhi & Puducherry.
- (c) The votes of MPs and MLAs have different values, depending on how many people they represent. Their votes are counted through a complicated system called “single transferable vote system.” This system makes the President represent the entire nation. Yet he is not directly elected. He cannot have same mandate as the Prime Minister.

## 2. The Vice President

The Constitution also provides for the office of a **Vice President**. He acts as the ex-officio chairman of the Rajya Sabha. He discharges the duties of the President in case of illness or absence of the President till such time that the President resumes functioning. The Vice President also acts as the President in case of death, removal or resignation of the President of India.



## 3. Prime Minister and the Council of Ministers



The Prime Minister is appointed by the President but the President can act only in accordance with the advice rendered by the Prime Minister.

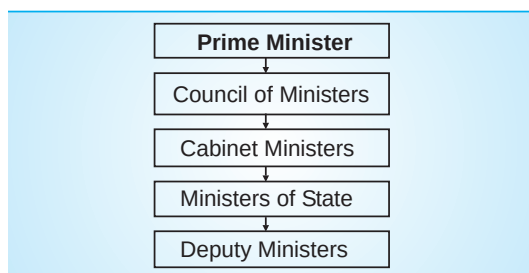
Once a Prime Minister has been appointed, he/she recommends to the President the names of persons who are to be appointed to the Council of Ministers. The Ministers hold office at the pleasure of the President. The President is not required to give reasons for the removal of any minister. In practice, however, ministers continue in office till they enjoy the confidence of the Prime Minister.



The minister could be from any of the two Houses. In case a minister so appointed is not a member of any of the two Houses he/she has to get elected within a period of six months after assuming office. The salary and other prerequisites of the minister are fixed by the Parliament.

The Council of Ministers comprises three categories. There are Ministers of Cabinet Rank, Ministers of State and Deputy Ministers. The latter two categories have no say in the formulation of national policies. They attend Cabinet meetings only on invitation. They assist the Cabinet Ministers in the affairs of their departments.

*The Cabinet* plays an important role in the determination of national policies. The policies have to be ratified by the Parliament. Since the Prime Minister is the person who commands a majority in the Lok Sabha, there is no difficulty in getting Parliament's approval.



In the Parliamentary System followed by India, the head of the government called the Prime Minister exercises most of the real powers. The Prime Minister's is the most important political office in the country.

The President appoints the leader of the majority party as the Prime Minister

in our country. The Prime Minister continues in power as long as he remains the leader of the majority party or a coalition of parties.

The Cabinet discusses all sorts of problems under the chairmanship of the Prime Minister. All decisions of the Cabinet are unanimous.

The ministers hold one or even more portfolios. The Prime Minister is responsible for ensuring that all ministers perform in tune with the policies drafted and approved by the cabinet.

Apart from formulating and determining the national policies, the Cabinet is also responsible for their execution through the executive wing of the government.

The Cabinet takes decisions about the Bills to be introduced in the ensuing session of the Lok Sabha. Although there are Private Members' Bills also, almost all proposals for new legislations come from the government. Drafts for these Bills are approved by the Cabinet before introduction in the Parliament.

The demands for government expenditure and raising revenues through taxes are put in the Lok Sabha by the Finance Minister. Prior to that they are approved by the Cabinet.

*Collective responsibility* means that the ministers are collectively responsible to the Lok Sabha. The Council of Ministers can continue in office only as long as it has the support of the majority of members of the Lok Sabha. Every Minister is individually responsible for what happens in the ministry under his/

her charge. There have been occasions when a minister has owned responsibility for something going wrong in his ministry and resigned.

If the cabinet is the most powerful institution in India, within the cabinet, it is the Prime Minister who is the most powerful. However, in recent years the rise of coalition politics has imposed certain constraints on the power of the Prime Minister. The Prime Minister of a coalition government has to accommodate views and interests of alliance partners.

The powers of the Indian Prime Minister may be summed up as follows:

- (i) The Prime Minister is the real executive of the government of India. He chooses his Ministers. The ministers hold office at the

pleasure of the President but in effect can be dismissed if so desired by the Prime Minister.

- (ii) The allocation of portfolios is done by the Prime Minister.
- (iii) The Prime Minister acts as a bridge between the President and the Council of Ministers. The President is periodically kept informed about Cabinet decisions. When the Parliament is not in session, the President issues ordinances on the advice of the Prime Minister.
- (iv) The Prime Minister acts as the chief spokesperson of the government on the floor of the House.
- (v) The Prime Minister also functions as the ex-officio chairperson of the NITI Aayog.

## IMPORTANT TERMS

- 0 **Legislature** : Law making body, elected directly by the people.
- 0 **Executive** : The body which executes the laws made by the legislature and looks after the administration.

## EXERCISES

### I. Choose the correct answer.

- Who appoints the Prime Minister?
  - President
  - Speaker
  - Chief Justice
  - Vice President
- The allocation of portfolios is done by
  - President
  - Prime Minister
  - Speaker of the Lok Sabha
  - None of these
- Which House is also called the Lower House?
  - Lok Sabha
  - Rajya Sabha
  - Both of these
  - None of these



4. Which of the following has superior powers regarding a Money Bill?  
 (a) Lok Sabha (b) Rajya Sabha  
 (c) President (d) Speaker of Lok Sabha
5. An Ordinary Bill has to be passed by  
 (a) Lok Sabha (b) Rajya Sabha  
 (c) Both of these (d) None of these
6. Who presides over the joint session of both the Houses?  
 (a) Speaker (b) President  
 (c) Vice President (d) Prime Minister
7. There are two statements marked as Assertion (A) and Reason (R). Mark your answer as per the codes provided below :

**Assertion (A) :** The Prime Minister is appointed by the President.

**Reason (R) :** The President can act only in accordance with the advice rendered by the Prime Minister.

- (a) Both (A) and (R) are true and (R) is the correct explanation of (A)
- (b) Both (A) and (R) are true but (R) is not the correct explanation of (A)
- (c) (A) is correct but (R) is wrong
- (d) (A) is wrong but (R) is correct

8.



Which of the following is not one of the powers of the officials working from above depicted building?

- (a) To elect the President and Vice President
- (b) To pass a new law
- (c) To appoint the Chief Justice of India
- (d) To amend the existing laws

## II. Very Short Answer Questions.

1. What are the two Houses of Parliament?
2. Give one reason why Lok Sabha is given a superior status by our constitution.
3. Give one proof to show that the Lok Sabha and the Rajya Sabha do not have equal powers in the passing of the Budget.



### III. Short Answer Type Questions.

**1. Explain the difference :**

- (i) The powers of the Lok Sabha and the Rajya Sabha.
- (ii) A Money Bill and an Ordinary Bill.



[HOTS]

- 2.** Describe the powers and functions of the Council of Ministers.
- 3.** How is the President of India elected?
- 4.** Describe the power and functions of the President.

[HOTS]

### IV. Long Answer Type Questions.

- 1.** 'The most powerful office in the Central Government is that of the Prime Minister.' Discuss.
- 2.** Discuss the powers and functions of the Parliament.
- 3.** Explain how an Ordinary Bill becomes a law.
- 4.** Discuss the 'collective responsibility' of the council of ministers.



#### THINGS TO DO

**Activity :** Divide the class in groups. Each group should discuss and write what changes they would bring about in the country, if they won the elections and had power to rule India.



**Assignment :** Do you agree with the view that coalition politics has downgraded the position of the Prime Minister? Write a project report on coalition governments in India.

**Role-play :** You have learnt that people can participate in other ways and not just through elections to express disapproval of the actions of the government.

Through a small skit describe three such ways.

(Hints : Road play, a procession, a dharna)

## CHAPTER 15

# Citizens' Rights in a Democracy

Rights are described as the basic principles of a civil society. Rights are those conditions of life without which no man can seek to be himself at his best. They are freedoms and powers that are necessary for personality development and common good. All major constitutions of the world guarantee to their citizens certain basic rights, enjoyed by all the citizens irrespective of their caste, creed, gender or religion. These rights give a citizen protection against the state becoming autocratic and that is why they are called “Fundamental Rights.”

### CHARACTERISTICS OF RIGHTS



- A. Rights are claims of a person over other fellow beings, over the society and over the government. Rights are which **everyone** can claim. To claim a right it **must be reasonable**. A reasonable right does not allow you to hurt or harm others. You cannot claim something as your right if it infringes on other people's rights.
- B. Rights have to be recognised and sanctioned by the society we live in. Man does not live in isolation; he lives in a community. He must get along peacefully with all other members of the community or society he lives in.

C. Rights become meaningful, even when guaranteed by the Constitution, if only they are enforceable by law.

In the Indian context such rights were considered very necessary. Indian society suffered from a number of social inequalities based on caste, economic status or even gender. It had to be ensured that in free India all citizens enjoyed privileges offered by the state on a uniform basis. If these rights were infringed or violated then the citizens could go to the courts to protect their rights.

### WHY DO WE NEED RIGHTS?

Rights are necessary for the very sustenance of a democracy. In a democracy every citizen has to have the right to vote and the right to be elected to government. For democratic elections to take place, it is necessary that citizens should have the right to express their opinion, form political parties and take part in political activities. Rights are guarantees which can be used when things go wrong. Things may go wrong when some citizens may wish to take away the rights of others. Sometimes elected governments may not protect or even infringe on rights of their own citizens. Therefore, some important rights need to be placed higher than the government,

so that even government cannot violate them. In most democracies, the basic rights of the citizens are written down in the constitution. They are called Fundamental Rights.

To sum up, rights are reasonable claims of individuals, recognised by society and sanctioned by law.

### Fundamental Rights Guaranteed by the Indian Constitution

- The Constitution of India has guaranteed a number of Fundamental Rights to all its citizens. These rights give a moral character to the state. The state cannot turn into an absolute ruler and act arbitrarily against a citizen. Since these rights are enforceable by courts of law, the individual is protected against the tyranny of the executive as well as the legislative wings of the Government. Fundamental Rights have created a new equality within the country.

## FUNDAMENTAL RIGHTS



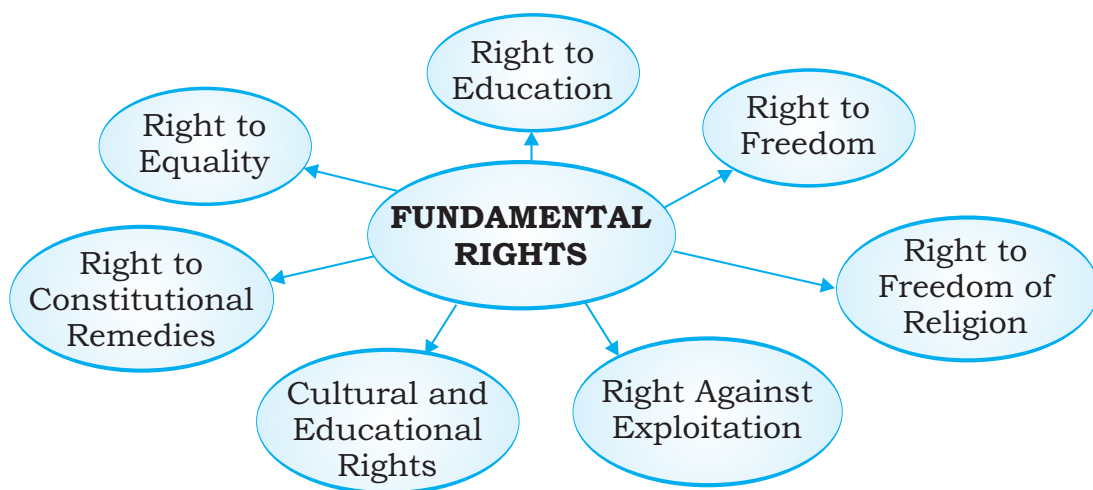
1. Right to Equality
2. Right to Freedom
3. Right against Exploitation
4. Right to Freedom of Religion
5. Cultural and Educational Rights
6. Right to Constitutional Remedies
7. Right to Education

The above are the seven Fundamental Rights granted to the citizens by the Indian Constitution.

### 1. Right to Equality

Under this right the Indian Constitution has sought to lessen or completely remove social disabilities and economic disparities of the citizens. This right is associated with:

- (a) Equality before Law
- (b) Prohibits Discrimination of any kind
- (c) Equality of Opportunity in Matters of Public Employment
- (d) Abolition of Untouchability.
- (e) Abolition of Titles.



## 2. Right to Freedom

Freedom means that others do not interfere in our affairs. By others, one means the government as well as individuals. We do not want to be dictated by others. The Six Freedoms given to us by this right are :

- (i) Freedom of speech and expression
- (ii) Assemble in a peaceful manner without arms
- (iii) Form associations and unions
- (iv) Move freely throughout the country
- (v) Reside in any part of the country
- (vi) Practise any profession, or carry on any occupation and trade.

Every citizen has a right to all these freedoms. However, you cannot exercise your freedom in such a manner that

violates other people's right to freedom. You cannot misuse your freedom and create chaos and disorder. That is why government puts certain restrictions on our freedoms.

**Freedom of speech and expression** is one of the essential features of any democracy. Our ideas and personality develop only when we are able to freely communicate with others. But we cannot use it to incite people to rebel against the government. Nor can we use it to defame others causing damage to a person's reputation.

**Citizens have the freedom to hold meetings, processions, rallies and demonstrations on any issue.** People may want to discuss a problem, exchange ideas, mobilise public support to a cause, or seek votes for a candidate or party in



an election. But such meetings have to be peaceful.

As citizens we have the freedom to travel to any part of the country. We are free to reside and settle in any part of the territory of India. This right allows lakhs of people to migrate from villages to towns and from smaller towns to bigger towns.

The same freedom extends to choice of occupations. No one can force a citizen to do or not to do certain job.

### 3. Right against Exploitation

This right prevents exploitation of the weaker sections of society. The worst kind of exploitation is when a person treats others as his property or forces other persons to work against their will, gives very low remuneration or uses them for immoral purposes.

To protect the people against such oppression, this right prohibits the following:

- (i) Traffic in human beings or dealing in men and women like goods and commodities, such as selling, letting or disposing of them, is prohibited by the Constitution. This most commonly includes traffic or trade in women or girls for immoral purposes.
- (ii) The Constitution also prohibits bonded labour, *begar* or forced labour that makes people work for free against his/her will.
- (iii) It is also laid down in the Constitution that no child below

the age of 14 shall be employed to work in a factory, mine or other hazardous place.

### 4. Right to Freedom of Religion

Inclusion of this right in the Constitution proves that the Constitution established a secular polity for India. It secures to all individuals belonging to different religions — Hinduism, Islam, Christianity, Sikhism, Judaism (Jews), Zoroastrianism (Parsis), Buddhism and Jainism — liberty to practise their faith and form of worship. It also proves that the state would not promote or propagate any one particular religion.

- (i) Freedom of conscience and free profession and propagation of religion.
- (ii) Freedom to manage religious affairs
- (iii) Freedom as to payment of taxes for promotion of any particular religion.
- (iv) No religious instruction in institutions maintained out of state funds.

Although a secular state allows equal freedom to all religions, religious practices and beliefs, its resources cannot be allowed to be utilised for activities and propaganda of any particular religion.

The Government has included **Fundamental Duties** in the Constitution. Directive Principles have also guided the Constitution makers in making various laws.

### Fundamental Duties

A countervailing factor has been introduced by the 42<sup>nd</sup> amendment Act of 1976, known as the Fundamental Duties. These duties are mentioned in Article 51A.

Under this Article, it shall be the duty of every citizen of India :

- (i) To abide by the Constitution and respect the national flag and the national anthem;
- (ii) To cherish and follow the noble ideals which inspired our national struggle for freedom;
- (iii) To protect the sovereignty, unity and integrity of India;
- (iv) To defend the country;
- (v) To promote the spirit of common brotherhood amongst all the people of India;
- (vi) To preserve the rich heritage of our composite culture;
- (vii) To protect and improve the natural environment;
- (viii) To develop the scientific temper and spirit of inquiry;
- (ix) To safeguard public property;
- (x) To strive towards excellence in all spheres of individual and collective activity.
- (xi) Who is a parent or guardian to provide opportunities for education to his child or, as the case may be, ward between the age of six and fourteen years.

These duties are not themselves enforceable in the courts, nor their violation is punishable. Nevertheless a Court, before which a Fundamental

Right is sought to be enforced, has to read all parts of the Constitution, to enforce a Fundamental Right at the instance of an individual who has patently violated any of the duties specified in the Constitution.

### 5. Cultural and Educational Rights

India is a multi-religious, multi-cultural and multi-lingual country. Hence, it fell upon the Constitution to protect cultural and educational rights and identities of the people, especially the minorities.

- (i) Right to Conserve One's Language, Script and Culture.
- (ii) Right to Establish Educational Institutions.

### 6. Right to Constitutional Remedies

Dr Ambedkar called the Right to Constitutional Remedies the heart and soul of our Constitution. This right makes other rights effective. When any of our rights are affected we approach the courts. We can directly approach the Supreme Court or the High Courts of a State if a Fundamental Right is violated.

Article 32 guarantees to the Indian citizens the right to move the Supreme Court for the enforcement of the fundamental rights. This makes the fundamental rights justiciable.

### 7. Right to Education

Article '21A' added as a new article by the Constitution (86th Amendment) Act 2002 provides for free and compulsory education for all children between the

## Directive Principles of State Policy



Part IV of the Constitution, Articles 36 to 51 contain the Directive Principles of State Policy. These Principles are in the nature of instructions to the government of the day to do certain things and to achieve certain ends by their actions. In other words, Directive Principles are essentially guidelines to the state. A Directive Principle is required to be implemented by legislation and so long as there is no law to carry out the policy laid down in a Directive, neither the State nor an individual can be held responsible for violation of a Directive. Thus the Directives are not enforceable in courts and do not create any justiciable rights in favour of the individuals.

In case of a conflict between Directive Principles and Fundamental Rights of the Constitution, the latter shall prevail.

These Directive Principles may be classified as follows :

- (a) Certain ideals, particularly economic, which according to the framers of the Constitution the State should strive for.
- (b) Certain directions to the legislature and the executive intended to show in which manner the State should exercise its legislative and executive powers.
- (c) Certain rights of the citizen shall not be enforceable by the courts. The Government shall aim to secure these by regulations of

its legislative and administrative policy.

It shall be the duty of the State to follow these principles, both in the matter of administration as well as in the making of laws.

age of 6 to 14 years. The law came into effect from 1 April, 2010.

## RELATIONSHIP OF FUNDAMENTAL RIGHTS AND JUDICIARY



Under the Constitution the courts are empowered to issue writs or orders for the enforcement of any of the rights. These are :



*The Supreme Court, New Delhi*



*Chennai High Court, Chennai*

(i) **Habeas Corpus (or “Produce the Body” in Latin)** : A wrongfully detained person can avail of it. Those who have detained or imprisoned a person are commanded to bring him/her to the court of law and inform him/her the cause of arrest. If the cause is proved to be insufficient, the detainee or prisoner is at once released.

(ii) **Mandamus** : This means “we command” in Latin and under this a person holding a public office is commanded to perform what is his/her legal duty.

(iii) **Prohibition** : This prohibits an inferior court from exercising powers with which it is not legally vested.

(iv) **Certiorari** : This writ is issued by a higher court upon a lower court to hand over an ongoing case or case under consideration for review.

(v) **Quo Warranto** : This is directed against a person who has wrongfully usurped a public office and declares such holding of office illegal and the office vacant.

The **Right to Property** that used to figure originally in the Constitution as a Fundamental Right was removed from Part III and was given the status of a legal right under the 44th Amendment to the Constitution, 1978.

Another way of exercising our Fundamental Rights are that now any person can go to court against the infringement of the right, if it is of social

or public interest. It is called Public Interest Litigation (PIL).

### Expansion of Scope of Rights

Over the years the scope of rights has expanded.

For example, the Right to Education has now become a fundamental right for Indian citizens. The government is responsible for providing free and compulsory education to all children upto the age of 14 years.

Other acts which expand our rights are:

- Right to information—we have a right to seek information from the government offices.
- The right to life now includes right to food also.

## INDEPENDENCE OF THE JUDICIARY



It is essential that judiciary should be free of control of the legislature or the executive. The judges should not act according to the wishes of the party (or parties) in power or the direction of the government. To ensure freedom of judiciary, the following steps have been taken by our Constitution :

- (i) The judges of the Supreme Court and the High Court are appointed by the President of India on the advice of the Prime Minister and in consultation with Chief Justice of the Supreme Court. This system leaves no scope for the executive to interfere.
- (ii) The Chief Justice of the Supreme Court is normally the seniormost

judge of the Supreme Court.

- (iii) Once a person is appointed as judge of the Supreme Court or the High Court, it is very difficult to remove him from that position.
- (iv) The judges are appointed for a fixed period. Their enrolments and service conditions are also fixed and cannot be altered.
- (v) No discussion on the conduct of a judge can take place in the Parliament or State Legislature.
- (vi) It is as difficult to remove a judge as the removal of the President of India. Thus, the judiciary enjoys a great respect among the people of India.
- (vii) The Supreme Court and the High Courts are free to decide their own procedures of work and their establishment. The conditions of services of their employees are also determined by the courts.

Thus, they (the Supreme Court and High Courts) are not likely to be influenced by any outside agency.

- (viii) A Judge of the Supreme Court shall not plead or act in any Court or before any authority within the territory of India, after retirement. A permanent Judge of High Court shall not plead or act in a Court or before any authority of India, except the Supreme Court and a High Court other than the High Court in which he had held his office.
- (ix) The judges are free to announce their decisions and decrees in the court chambers without any danger to their person, property or fame. Their decisions cannot be criticised in public or press.

The personal safety of the judge is the duty of the State and ensured at all costs.

## IMPORTANT TERMS

- **Reasonable right** : A right that does not allow a person to harm or hurt anyone else.
- **Fundamental** : Basic
- **Rights** : Privileges enjoyed by the citizens.
- **Duties** : Obligations imposed on the citizens.
- **Sanctioned by society** : Approved by society.
- **Enforceable rights** : Rights which can be enforced by the courts.
- **PIL** : Public Interest Litigation.

## EXERCISES

### I. Choose the correct answer.

1. The Right to Freedom of Religion grants :
  - (a) Liberty to practise one's faith and form of worship.
  - (b) Liberty to the state to promote or propagate any one particular religion.



- (c) To give religious instructions in institutions run by state funds.  
 (d) Liberty to manage the religious affairs of others.
2. The Right to Education provides free and compulsory education to all the children between  
 (a) 6-10 years      (b) 6-14 years      (c) 6-18 years      (d) 6-12 years
3. Which of the following statements is **incorrect** regarding the Fundamental Rights?  
 (a) There are mainly seven Fundamental Rights.  
 (b) They are guaranteed to all citizens of India.  
 (c) A citizen can move the Supreme Court in case of infringement of his/her Fundamental Right.  
 (d) These rights are guaranteed to only those citizens who are above the age of 25 years.
4. When were the Fundamental Duties added to the Constitution?  
 (a) 1948      (b) 1976      (c) 1978      (d) 1985
5. Identify the correct option that describes the Fundamental Right given below.  
 I. Equality before law  
 II. Abolitions of untouchability  
 III. Prohibits discrimination of any kind  
 (a) Right to Freedom      (b) Right against Exploitation  
 (c) Right to Equality      (d) Right to Constitutional Remedies
6. Consider the statements given below and choose the correct answer.  
**Statement I** : A Judge of the Supreme Court shall not plead or act in any Court or before any authority within the territory of India  
**Statement II** : A permanent Judge of High Court shall not plead or act in a court or before any authority of India, except the Supreme Court.  
 (a) Statement I is correct and II is incorrect  
 (b) Statement I is incorrect and II is correct  
 (c) Both I and II are incorrect      (d) Both I and II are correct
7. Mr. Sharma has been confined in a prison for 5 days without any solid reason. His relatives move the supreme court against his illegal confinement. Which of the following writs was issued by the Supreme Court?  
 (a) Mandamus      (b) Prohibition      (c) Certiorari      (d) Habeas Corpus

## II. Very Short Answer Type Questions.

- Which Fundamental Right is called as the heart and soul of the Indian Constitution? **[HOTS]**
- What are Rights?
- Define 'Fundamental Rights'.



## III. Short Answer Type Questions.

- Explain the terms : (i) Certiorari (ii) Mandamus (iii) Quo Warranto
- Explain 'the right to freedom of speech and expression.'
- Mention any six Fundamental Duties.
- Mention the Seven Fundamental Rights.



#### IV. Long Answer Type Questions.

1. Discuss the various writs which the courts can issue to protect the rights of the citizens.
2. Discuss the economic and educational rights of the citizens.
3. 'The Right to Freedom' is a cluster of six freedoms. Discuss.
4. How is the independence of judiciary ensured by the Constitution?



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[HOTS]

#### PROBLEM SOLVING ASSESSMENT



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#### Read the following passage on Child Labour.

The problem of child labour in India is a reality. The plight of these children violates the fundamental right to education, right to childhood and equal opportunity to participate as equal citizens of this country.

Child labour and poverty are closely related. The only way to eliminate poverty is to ensure that the children employed as child labour have access to education. The 86th amendment to the Constitution stressed on that. But then laws only differentiated between employment of children between hazardous and non-hazardous child labour. However, the grim reality is that children still continue to be employed in difficult and exploitative conditions.

A child can obviously be either in school or at a place of work earning a living. The two cannot be reconciled, and the present law of free and compulsory education can be a reality only when distinctions between hazardous and non-hazardous forms of labour are removed. This would then be in line with the various international laws and conventions that India has signed.

It is heartening to note that the government has decided to ban the employment of children below the age of 14 as domestic helps and in 'dhabas,' tea shops, restaurants, hotels and resorts. Even earlier government servants were prohibited from employing young children as domestic help. This was, however, a partial ban. This has now been expanded to any person, household or business.

As always the new order will trigger conflicting reactions. While many will be optimistic, others will be sceptical. The reason behind this scepticism is that the civil society has not seen much enforcement of law in this sphere. There are many failures to monitor, rehabilitate and enforce ban where it is already in force such as in the hazardous sector. Therefore, it is very important that the government immediately devise a mechanism of rehabilitating these children and getting them admission to schools and for their employment through counselling, skill building and special education.

#### Tick the right option.

1. Child labour violates the Fundamental Right to Education. How?
  - (a) The Constitution asks every parent to send their child to school. Child labour denies it.
  - (b) Child labour deprives children of education.
  - (c) The Constitution states that all children between 6 to 14 years should be given free education. Child labour violates it.
2. The 86th amendment to Constitution stressed that children should not be employed in 'hazardous' tasks. How did it fail to give right to free education and right to childhood?

- (a) It did not ban child labour totally
  - (b) It was only against “hazardous” tasks. It did not ban work in non-hazardous tasks
  - (c) The government did not remove the distinction between hazardous and non-hazardous jobs. That is why the free and compulsory education to the children could not be implemented fully.
3. There is a close relation between :
    - (a) Child labour and illiteracy
    - (b) Child labour and poverty
    - (c) Child labour and growing population
  4. How can the Government mitigate the problem of child labour?
    - (a) Rehabilitation
    - (b) Admission in schools
    - (c) Skill building
    - (d) All of these
  5. One of the main reasons why the government has failed to stop child labour in India, is :
    - (a) Government’s failure to monitor and enforce the law
    - (b) Society is not keen to see this law enforced
    - (c) Extreme poverty of the children
  6. Which statement is not included in the passage?
    - (a) India is in line with all international laws and conventions passed by ILO.
    - (b) It is important that our government must find immediately some method of getting children, involved in child labour, admitted to schools.
    - (c) Government must provide employment through counselling and special education.

### THINGS TO DO



**Activity :** Keep a daily diary for one week. Read it thoroughly. Make a list of Fundamental Rights used in your daily life. Share the list in your class.

**Assignment :** The government from time to time announces various schemes for the benefit of people, specially for those who belong to minorities or backward classes. Find out if any such scheme exists in your state and for what purpose.

| List of schemes                             | What is this scheme about | How do you think it will help promote social justice |
|---------------------------------------------|---------------------------|------------------------------------------------------|
| 1. Scholarships for students                |                           |                                                      |
| 2. Special scheme for girls in good schools |                           |                                                      |
| 3. ‘Swachh’ (clean) India                   |                           |                                                      |
| 4. Mid-day meals                            |                           |                                                      |



## UNIT - IV

# UNDERSTANDING AN ECONOMY

|           |    |
|-----------|----|
| Marks :   | 16 |
| Periods : | 35 |

# CHAPTER 16

## Economics

### MEANING OF AN ECONOMY

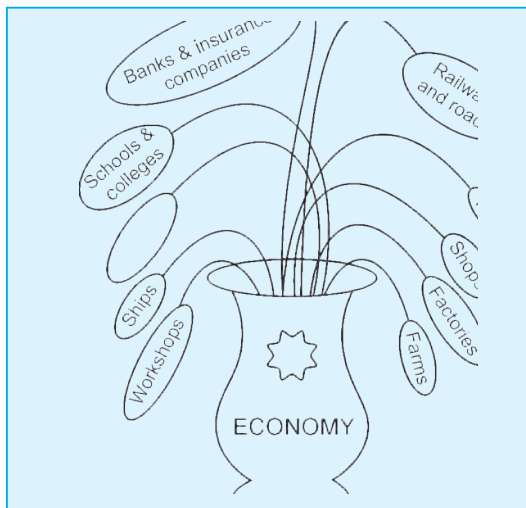
In our day-to-day life, we find different people engaged in different activities so as to earn their living. These activities are concerned with the production, distribution and exchange of goods and services. People like farmers, workers, cobblers, shopkeepers, industrialists, teachers, lawyers, doctors, chartered accountants, etc., perform different types of activities. All of us are concerned with one or other type of activity to earn wealth or money to meet our wants. *All these activities which are related to the production, distribution and consumption of wealth are called economic activities.* These activities produce different types of goods and services which satisfy people's wants. **Economy, thus, can be defined as the sum total of all economic activities of a country.**



"Every activity which has economic motive is termed as economic activity and thus constitutes part of the economy."

The basic functions of an economy are production, consumption and investment. **Production means creation or addition of value in goods and services.** Consumption is another very important economic activity. Human

wants are satisfied only when produced goods and services are consumed. **Consumption thus can be defined as the use of goods and services for the satisfaction of human wants.** The term '**investment**' implies that part of production which is not consumed but used to produce further goods and services. It increases the capacity of an economy to produce more goods and services in future.



### Main Functions of an Economy

- To produce goods and services to satisfy human wants.
- To provide employment or income earning opportunities to its people.

### TYPES OF ECONOMIES

There are **three** important bases on which various economies of



the world can be classified. These are :

1. On the basis of nature.
2. On the basis of ownership over the means of production.
3. On the basis of level of development.

## 1. Classification on the Basis of Nature

On the basis of nature an economy may be classified as under :

- (i) Simple and complex economy
- (ii) Closed and open economy
- (iii) Planned (or controlled) and unplanned (free) economy
- (iv) Agricultural and industrial economy

### (i) Simple and Complex Economy

**Simple Economy :** *Simple economy is one wherein people produce simple kinds of goods in limited quantity to satisfy their wants.* People of such economies have limited wants. Barter system of exchange prevails in such an economy. Under barter system of exchange, goods and services are exchanged for other goods and services. Money is not used as medium of exchange. For example, a farmer gives wheat to a blacksmith and to a carpenter and gets their services in return. People here lead an isolated life and are self-sufficient. So it is known as a simple economy or self-sufficient economy. *It is a simple economy in the sense that production process is very simple and it is called a self-reliant economy because produced goods are meant for self-consumption.*

Such types of economy existed in Indian villages in old times.

**Complex Economy :** *Complex economy, on the other hand, refers to an economy in which a large variety of goods and those too in large quantities are produced.* The process of production in such economies is highly complex and advanced. Money is widely used as a medium of exchange. Goods are produced with a view to sell them in the markets to earn income. Infrastructural facilities such as transport, communication, banking and insurance services, etc., are available for internal and international trade. Complex (or modern) economies came into existence in the post-Industrial Revolution period.

### (ii) Closed and Open Economy

**Closed Economy :** *A closed economy is one that has no economic relations with the rest of the world.* It neither exports nor imports goods and services from other countries. Consequently, its economic activities remain unaffected by what happens abroad. In fact, it is a **self-reliant or independent economy**. In short, *a closed economy is like a room whose all doors and windows are shut. No one can come in and none can go out from it.* USSR had this type of economy for many years after the Revolution of 1917 and had no trade relations with other countries. But nowadays such economies are not found in any part of the world.

**Open Economy :** *An open economy is one which has the following types of economic relations with other countries (or rest of the world) :*

- Export and import of goods and services.
- Buying of foreign shares, bonds, debentures, etc. and vice-versa.
- Lending to foreigners and borrowing from foreigners.
- Sending gifts to foreigners and receiving the same from foreigners.
- Nationals of a country going to other countries to work or vice-versa.

### (iii) Planned and Unplanned Economy

**Planned (Controlled) Economy :** *Planned economy refers to an economy where the government (i.e., Central Planning Authority) has full control on all economic activities of the country.* All decisions regarding production, distribution, prices, etc., are taken by the government. It is also known as a ‘*controlled economy*’. India is an example of planned economy.

**Free or Unplanned Economy :** *A free economy is one in which economic activities and problems relating to production, distribution and prices are determined by the free play of market forces* (i.e., demand and supply). There is no government interference in economic activities. People are free to choose occupations of their choice.

### (iv) Agricultural and Industrial Economy

**Agricultural Economy :** *It refers to an economy wherein the main occupation of people is agriculture and*

*allied activities (e.g., livestock, milk product, wool, meat, skin, eggs, etc).* People here are mostly illiterates and backward. They make use of old methods of production. Infrastructural facilities such as transport, communication, banking, insurance are in the state of underdevelopment. India, Pakistan, Brazil are some examples of agricultural economies.

**Industrial Economy :** *Industrial economy is an economy dominated by people whose main occupation is industry and trade.* People here are modern and advance. They make use of complex and advanced techniques of production. Production is carried on a large scale. The infrastructural facilities are all well developed. The USA, UK, Japan are some examples of industrial economies.

## 2. Classification on the Basis of Ownership of the Means of Production



### (i) Capitalistic Economy

**Meaning :** Capitalism is a form of economic organisation in which means of production, viz., land and capital are owned by private people. People are free to make use of this wealth and capital. The economy is based upon free private enterprise. Economic activities of entrepreneurs are guided by self interest and profit motive. Capitalistic economy is also known as *free economy* and *laissez-faire economy*. According to Ferguson, “*Capitalism is a system*

***in which property is privately owned and economic decisions are privately made.”***

This system emerged out of the Industrial Revolution of England during 1760-1820. The economies of UK, USA, Japan, France, West Germany, Australia, Canada are some examples of capitalist economies.

**Features of a Capitalist Economy :**

- **Private Property and Inheritance.** All citizens are allowed to hold private property and inherit it from their forefathers.
- **Freedom of Enterprise and Contract.** Capitalists have the freedom to set up business enterprises and to sell the goods and services that are produced by these enterprises in the market at the prices and in quantities, which allow them to maximise profits. Thus, in any capitalist economy the market mechanism is allowed a free play. An entrepreneur is free to enter or leave the market at will.
- **Freedom of Consumption.** A market consists of producers as well as consumers. A capitalist economy also allows freedom to consumers in the sense that consumers are free to decide which goods they would consume and in what quantities.
- **Free Market.** A capitalist economy is an economy where the market mechanism is

allowed to work freely. A market mechanism is the system under which the prices and quantities of all goods and services are determined through interactions between the producers and the consumers.

- **Competition.** In a capitalist economy there is free and perfect competition.
- **Laissez-Faire State.** Under the capitalist economy state does not interfere in the economic affairs of the society.
- **Profit Motive.** The role of a private enterprise is profit of the company. They are the least bothered about benefits to the staff.
- **Class Conflict.** There is a huge gap between haves and have nots; between the poor and the rich. Hence, there is a possibility of class conflict.
- **Price Mechanism.** The price of a commodity is dependent upon market fluctuations of supply, demand and other factors.

**(ii) Socialistic Economy**

**Meaning :** In order to remove exploitation of man by man a new economic system emerged which is known as socialism. ***Socialistic economy is an economic system where means of production are owned and managed by the whole community.*** Since the state owns all wealth and capital, it controls and manages the entire production activities.

According to H.D. Dickinson, “So-

*cialism is an economic organisation in which material means of production are owned by the whole community and operated by representatives of the people who are responsible to the community according to a general plan.”*

**Features of a Socialistic Economy (Socialism) :** The following are the main features of socialism :

- **Social property.** In socialist economy, all properties belong to the society. Private property is totally abolished.
- **Government is the only producer.** In socialist economy, production of various commodities is under the control of Government.
- **Social control over factors of production.** In a socialist economy all factors of production are under the control of government.
- **Economic equality.** In socialist economy the main aim is to attain maximum social advantage and equal distribution of national income and wealth among the people.
- **Economic planning.** A socialistic economy is basically a planned economy.
- **Government control on economy.** Government controls all the economic activities.

### **(iii) Mixed Economy**

**Meaning :** Mixed economy is a mixed form of capitalism and socialism. According to Aniatol Murad, *“Mixed economy is that economy in which both government and private*

*individuals exercise economic control.”*

In this economy, the best elements of capitalism as well as socialism are present and the bad features of both are given up. It appreciates the advantages of private enterprise and private property with their emphasis on self-interest and profit motive. Government itself runs some industries. Hence in this economy, the economy is divided into two parts — public sector and private sector. The basic and key industries are controlled, particularly by the government and the development of rest of the industries is left for the private sector but under the control of government.

Mixed economy is an economy where the free market mechanism and economic planning co-exist. In a mixed economy, the Government controls private production through licenses, permits, etc. Sometimes, the Government itself enters into production. The co-existence of public and private enterprises is a major characteristic of a mixed economy. On the other hand, if the price of a commodity in the open market is too high, the Government supplies the commodity in limited quantities at reasonable prices to the consumers. This is called ‘rationing’. Thus, the government imposes controls on both the demand and the supply sides of the market. Plans are made mainly for the public sector, the demand-supply mechanism of price determination is allowed to function. India is a good example of mixed economy. So are most countries of Asia and Africa.

## Distinction between Capitalistic, Socialistic and Mixed Economies

| <b>Basis</b>                     | <b>Capitalistic Economy</b>                                                                                                                      | <b>Socialistic Economy</b>                                                                                           | <b>Mixed Economy</b>                                                                                     |
|----------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <b>1. Ownership</b>              | Means of production are owned and managed by private people.                                                                                     | Means of production are owned and managed by the government.                                                         | Means of production are owned by the state as well as by private people.                                 |
| <b>2. Motive</b>                 | Economic activities are guided by self-interest and profit motive.                                                                               | Economic activities are guided by the motive of social welfare.                                                      | Economic activities of enterprises are guided by both social motive and profit.                          |
| <b>3. Instrument</b>             | All economic problems are solved with the help of price-mechanism.                                                                               | All economic decisions are taken by the government through economic planning.                                        | Price mechanism and Economic planning, both work side by side.                                           |
| <b>4. Nature of Occupation</b>   | There is complete economic freedom. Individuals have freedom of enterprise. People are free to start any type of business — of their own choice. | People are not allowed to start their own business. There is no private enterprise. Government is the only producer. | Limited sovereignty.                                                                                     |
| <b>5. Competition</b>            | There is free competition among buyers and sellers.                                                                                              | Since government is the only producer, it avoids all                                                                 | There is low degree of competition. No rivalry and competition is seen among different production units. |
| <b>6. Distribution of Income</b> | There is the existence of large inequalities of income.                                                                                          | Inequalities of income are relatively very small.                                                                    | Income inequalities are there. But national income is not highly unequal.                                |
| <b>7. Economic Fluctuations</b>  | Economic fluctuations are widely seen.                                                                                                           | Economic fluctuations have no place here.                                                                            | Economic fluctuations are found here.                                                                    |
| <b>8. Society</b>                | Society is divided into two groups (i) haves (ii) have-nots.                                                                                     | There is no class distinction between the haves and have-nots.                                                       | There is low degree of class-conflict.                                                                   |

### Salient Features of a Mixed Economy:

- Coexistence of private and public sectors.
- Economic planning.
- Beneficial for the masses. In a mixed economy, prices are generally regulated or are administered prices.
- Greater welfare.
- Protects the interest of workers.
- Reduction of inequality of incomes.

*The characteristics of a mixed economy, make it very clear that it is the midway, lying between capitalism and socialism, harnessing the best features of both these systems together and at the same time avoiding their defects.*

### Classification on the basis of level of Development

Economies on the basis of level of economic development can



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mainly be grouped into **two** categories as under :

- (i) Developed Economy
- (ii) Underdeveloped (or Developing) Economy.

### (i) Developed Economy

**Meaning :** *Economies which enjoy a high level of per capita income and high standard of living are called developed economies.* Developed economies, through industrialisation have exploited most of their natural, physical and human resources and have offered large scale gainful employment to their people. Economies of America, Canada, England, Japan, Russia are examples of developed economies.

#### Characteristics of a Developed Economy

1. High Level of Per Capita Income
2. Large Size of National Income
3. Predominance of Industrial and Service Sectors
4. Full Exploitation of Resources
5. Technological Advancement
6. High Standard of Living

#### Features of a Developed Economy :

The main features of developed economies are listed below :

- **High per capita income.** National income and per capita income are high in developed countries.
- **High level of national income.** The size of national income of the developed countries is very large.
- **Predominance of industrial and service sectors.** Developed

economies are dominated by large industrial and service sectors.

- **Full exploitation of resources.** Developed countries make full exploitation of their available natural (e.g., land, minerals, etc.), physical (machines, raw material, etc) and human resources (e.g., manpower). All able and willing persons are provided employment in these countries.
- **Technological advancement.** Production techniques used in these countries are highly complex and advanced.
- **High standard of living.** The living standard of people in developed countries is very high.

### (ii) Underdeveloped (or Developing) Economy

**Meaning :** *Underdeveloped or developing economies are those economies where level of per capita income is low and the standard of living of the people is low.* In these economies, agriculture is the main occupation of the people and they use traditional methods of production. Most of the natural and human resources remain unexploited or under-utilised for want of capital and technical knowhow. Among the underdeveloped economies we include Burma, Sri Lanka, India, Brazil, some countries in Africa, etc.

Underdeveloped economies are also known as **developing economies**, because these economies are passing through the process of growth and development. Significance of the agricultural sector tends to decline, whereas the industrial sector

has a tendency to emerge as the main sector of the economy. India, Pakistan, Malaysia and Indonesia are examples of developing economies.

- **According to Planning Commission of India, (now NITI Aayog)** *“An underdeveloped economy is characterised by the co-existence in greater or less degree of unutilised or under utilised manpower on the one hand and of unexploited natural resources on the other.”*

### **Characteristics of Underdeveloped Economies :**

- **Low per capita income.** One of the main features of an underdeveloped economy is a low per capita income.
- **High growth rate of population.** The rate of population growth in underdeveloped countries is quite high as compared to the developed countries. The above table clearly reveals this fact.
- **Agriculture.** Generally agriculture is the main occupation of the people in underdeveloped countries.
- **Unequal distribution of income.** In underdeveloped countries there exists a widespread inequality in the distribution of income.
- **The Problem of Unemployment.** The existence of widespread unemployment is a common feature of underdeveloped countries.
- **Low level of productivity.** In underdeveloped countries the productivity of labour is very low

which in turn results in low level of national income.

- **Technological backwardness.** In underdeveloped countries techniques of production are backward.

## **BASIC FEATURES OF THE INDIAN ECONOMY**



### **Introduction**

The British rulers during their regime of nearly 200 years (1757-1947) exploited Indian resources. As a result of this exploitation, India became a poor country. Indians during the British rule were not only poor but became poorer. The British Government was totally indifferent towards economic development in India. All the interests of the Indian economy were sacrificed for British interests. Even after 68 years of independence India is considered an underdeveloped country in the world.

The study of basic characteristics of the Indian economy can be grouped under the following heads.

### **An Underdeveloped Economy**

An underdeveloped economy is one in which there are low levels of living, absolute poverty, low per capita income, low consumption levels, poor health services, high birth and death rates and dependence on foreign economies. ***According to the UNO Group of Experts, “we use the term underdeveloped countries to mean countries in which per capita real income is low when compared with the per capita real income of the United***

***States of America, Canada, Australia and Western Europe.”***

India is considered as an underdeveloped economy. Most of the features of underdeveloped economy are more or less present in the Indian economy.

**India — An Underdeveloped Economy**  
(Chief Indicators)

1. About one-third of India's population lives below the poverty line.
2. Level of per capita income is very low as compared to developed economies of the world.
3. Unequal distribution of national income.
4. Per head amount of capital and rates of capital formation are low.
5. There exists widespread unemployment and under-employment in the country.
6. Huge amount of mineral and forest and other natural resources still remain unutilised and unexplored.
7. Lack of infrastructural facilities, e.g., transport, communication, banking, etc., highly required for the country's agricultural and industrial growth of backward social institutions.

**A Dualistic Economy**

Presently, the structure of our economy is dualistic in nature. ***By dualistic economic structure we mean the existence of traditional economy along with a modern economy.*** In our traditional sector, labour intensive techniques of production are used and

in the modern sector, capital intensive techniques are employed. Dualism exists in all sectors of the Indian economy. For example, in agriculture we find the latest technology at work along with the old techniques of production. Similarly, we have a substantially large modern organised sector of industry which produces highly sophisticated goods of international standards. But we also see the old artisans and handicrafts.

**A Mixed Economy**

Indian economy is a mixed economy. There is the co-existence of the public and private sectors. Industrial policies of 1948 and 1956 formulated by the Government of India have made the provision for their co-existence. Some strategic, basic and heavy industries are being run under the public sector. Also, there is a huge private sector under which a large number of industries are being managed. But the private sector is not completely free in its operation. The government controls and regulates this sector through its various industrial, monetary and fiscal policies.

**Sustained increase in foodgrains production in India (Million Tonnes)**

| Year    | Production |
|---------|------------|
| 2014-15 | 252.0      |
| 2015-16 | 251.5      |
| 2016-17 | 275.1      |
| 2017-18 | 285.0      |
| 2018-19 | 285.2      |
| 2019-20 | 297.2      |
| 2020-21 | 310.7      |
| 2021-22 | 315.7      |

(Source : As per Economic Survey 2022-23)

### India — Mixed Economy (A brief outlook)

1. Co-existence of private and public sectors in the economy.
2. Market mechanism occupies a prime position in the Indian economy.
3. Market mechanism is not allowed to work freely. It is subject to government control and regulation.
4. Adoption of economic planning by our economy.
5. Since 1991 Indian economy is set on the path of liberalisation and globalisation.

### A Developing Economy

The following major achievements of the Indian plans are sufficient enough to call our economy a developing economy.

- Increase in national income.

- Increase in rate of capital formation.
- Agricultural development.
- Industrial progress.

### A Planned Economy

***A planned economy is an economy where all economic decisions are taken by the Central Planning Authority.***

Under the able leadership of the then Prime Minister Pt. Jawaharlal Nehru, India has chosen the path of economic planning. The beginning of planning in India was made in March 1950, when **The Planning Commission of India** was established to assess the country's available resources and to formulate a plan for their most effective use. The Planning Commission fixed the period of

### Time Periods of Five Year Plans

| Plan                              | Period                  |
|-----------------------------------|-------------------------|
| First Five-Year Plan              | April 1951 — March 1956 |
| Second Five-Year Plan             | April 1956 — March 1961 |
| Third Five-Year Plan              | April 1961 — March 1966 |
| Three Annual Plans (Plan Holiday) | April 1966 — March 1969 |
| Fourth Five-Year Plan             | April 1969 — March 1974 |
| Fifth Five-Year Plan              | April 1974 — March 1978 |
| Two Annual Plans                  | April 1978 — March 1980 |
| Sixth Five-Year Plan              | April 1980 — March 1985 |
| Seventh Five-Year Plan            | April 1985 — March 1990 |
| Two Annual Plans                  | April 1990 — March 1992 |
| Eighth Five-Year Plan             | April 1992 — March 1997 |
| Ninth Five-Year Plan              | April 1997 — March 2002 |
| Tenth Five-Year Plan              | April 2002 — March 2007 |
| Eleventh Five-Year Plan           | April 2007 — March 2012 |
| Twelfth Five-Year Plan            | April 2012 — March 2017 |

**Note :** As of now the NITI Aayog (earlier Planning Commission) has decided to abolish the formation of Five Year Plans in India. So, 12th Five Year Plan would be the last Five Year Plan of India.

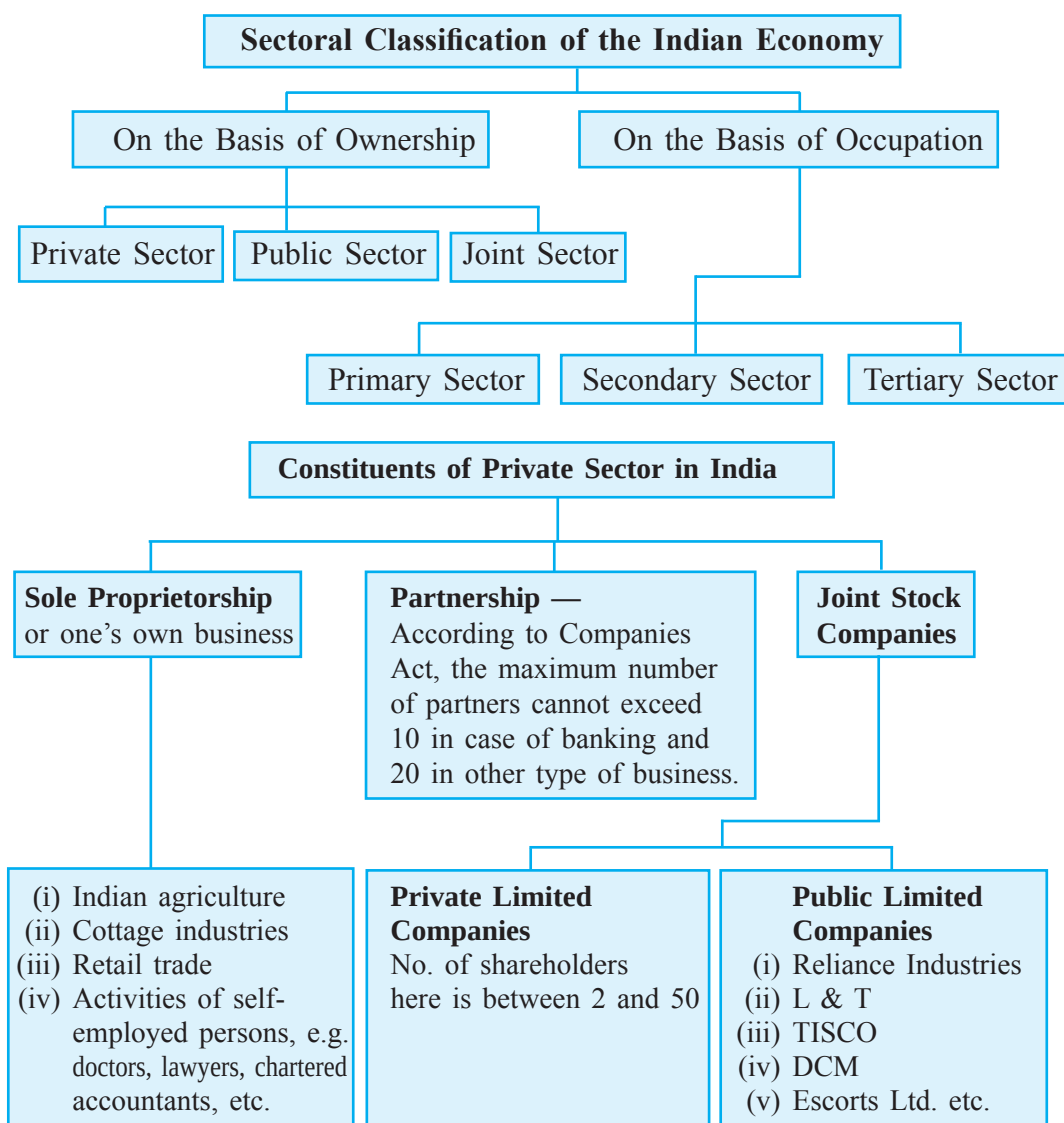
plans at five years. The First Five Year Plan was launched on April 1, 1951. Since then, we have undertaken and completed twelve plans so far. Different plans with their respective time periods are listed below. [In his first Independence Day speech in 2014, Prime Minister Narendra Modi announced his decision to dissolve the **Planning Commission**. It has since

been replaced by a new institution named **NITI AAYOG**. The full form of NITI is — National Institution for Transforming India.]

### Classification on the Basis of Ownership



On the basis of ownership Indian economy can be divided into private and public sectors.



## Private Sector

**Meaning :** Private sector refers to all those occupations and economic activities which are privately owned and controlled. This sector is mainly guided by the motive of profit.

Private sector consists of the following :

- Unorganised enterprises, e.g., farmers, traders, weavers, craftsmen, artisans, etc.
- Manufacturing units (or Industries).
  - ❑ **Small Scale Industries.** Small scale industries comprise all such industries wherein fixed capital investment does not exceed ₹1 crore.
  - ❑ **Tiny Industries.** In this category, all such units/industries are included wherein fixed capital investment is made upto ₹25 lakh.
  - ❑ **Large Scale Industries.** Under this category all such industries are included where fixed capital investment exceeds ₹1 crore.
- Professionals, e.g., doctors, chartered accountants, advocates, etc.

In the private sector, economic activities are operated through the instrument of price mechanism for private profit. However, keeping the larger interests of the country in view, government, generally regulates the market mechanism by imposing various controls.

## Growth of Private Sector in India

At the time of independence, almost the entire productive activities were in private hands. Role of the public sector was quite insignificant and its activities were mainly confined to irrigation, power, railways, post and telegraph, ordinance and exports. Presently, our private sector plays a dominant role in the economy accounting for nearly 80

### Significance of Private Sector in India

(A brief outlook)

1. Nearly 80 per cent of the country's national income is generated by the private sector in India.
2. It provides employment to more than 90 per cent of country's working population.
3. It accounts for 95.5 per cent of the gross domestic savings.
4. Agriculture, the largest occupation in the private sector in India, alone contributes 29 per cent and provides employment to 66 per cent of the total working population.
5. Almost the entire trading activities are managed by the private sector.
6. Private sector has made the country self-sufficient particularly in consumer goods. The entire small scale and cottage industry is owned by the private sector.
7. Private sector is more productive and efficient than the public sector.

per cent of the gross domestic product. Our private sector is very wide and vast. It includes agriculture, cottage and small scale industries, trade, hotel, restaurant, many large scale industries. In India, agriculture and small scale industries are entirely in the private sector. Agriculture is our largest occupation which falls under the purview of private sector.

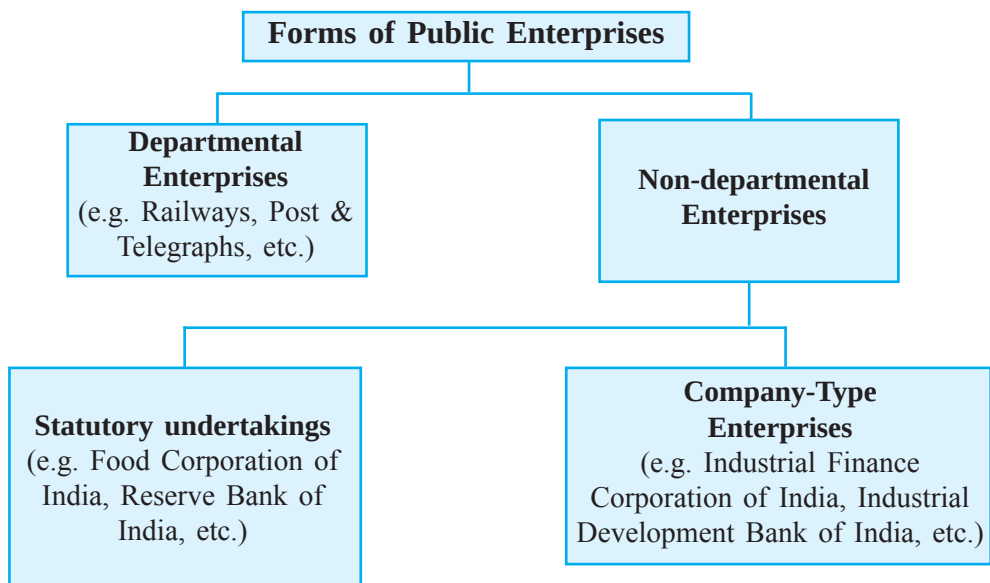
### Public Sector

**Introduction :** The government plays an important role in the economic development of any country. In the beginning of economic development, the government of any country usually sets up some capital intensive sectors of production (for instance, power, chemical, fertilisers, heavy machines, locomotives, etc). **Prof. Hansen** in this context remarks, “Developing countries are bound to rely upon public enterprises because without these enterprises, the economy cannot become dynamic.”

**Meaning :** *Public sector implies all those occupations and economic activities owned and controlled by the government.*

In other words, the sector of production which is under complete control of government is termed as public sector. Public sector undertakings may be under the control of Central government, State government and joint control of Central and State governments. Immediately after independence, the government of India was engaged in setting up of key industries or heavy industries. These industries are generally termed as Public Sector Enterprises (PSE). These PSEs include Railways, Post and Telegraph, Industrial Finance Corporation of India (IFCI), Industrial Development Bank of India (IDBI), Steel Authority of India Limited (SAIL), National Thermal Power Corporation (NTPC), etc.

**Types of Public Sector Undertakings :** Public enterprises may



be of **two** types :

1. Departmental enterprises and
2. Non-departmental enterprises.

**1. Departmental enterprises :**

*Departmental enterprises are those enterprises which are owned, managed and controlled by the government departments, such as Railways, Post and Telegraphs, Defence manufacturing, etc. They get their finances from the government budget.*

**2. Non-departmental enterprises**

*Non-departmental enterprises refer to those government companies which are registered under Act and have 51 per cent or more shares with the government.*

These are company type public enterprises. These enterprises may also be established under a special act and wholly or mainly owned by the government. They are autonomous in their working. The government does not interfere into their day-to-day working. They consist of both financial and non-financial enterprises. **Financial non-departmental enterprises are those enterprises which are mainly engaged in financial activities.** They include Industrial Finance Corporation of India (IFCI), Industrial Development Bank of India (IDBI), State Finance Corporations (SFCs), etc. **Non-financial enterprises are those enterprises which are engaged in activities other than financial and insurance services.** They include State Trading Corporation

(STC), Bharat Heavy Electricals Limited (BHEL), etc.

**Statutory undertakings are established in accordance with special act passed by the Parliament. These enjoy more autonomy in their workings and are not concerned with any government department.**

**Company type public enterprises are formed like joint stock companies in the private sector, but these are totally under the control and management of the concerned ministry, e.g., HMT, BHEL.**

In spite of multidirectional activities and huge investments in public sector, the achievements are not as satisfactory as it should have been, but definitely the achievements made till now are significant and will have positive impact on future progress of the country.

**Significance of Public Sector**

(A brief outlook)

1. The percentage share of public sector in country's national income is 24 per cent.
2. Most of the infrastructural facilities, e.g., transport, banking, communication, irrigation etc., have been developed in the public sector.
3. With the setting up of some basic and heavy industries our public sector has provided the strong, industrial base and thus has opened the path of rapid industrialisation of the country.
4. In order to remove regional imbalances, it has developed industries in backward areas.

## Causes of Poor Performance of Public Sector Undertakings :

Public sector enterprises have shown poor performance. The main reasons responsible for this are listed below :

- A large number of public sector enterprises have operated at less than 50% of their installed capacity.
- Another problem of these enterprises relates to planning and construction of projects. The actual cost of the projects far exceeded the original estimates. The projects took much longer time to complete than originally expected.
- Public sector enterprises are often plagued with undue political interference in their day to day working.
- There is lack of incentive in public sector undertakings for ordinary workers and officials.
- Public enterprises generally do not aim at profit-maximisation. They are established to achieve twin objectives of social welfare and economic development.
- Public sector's workers/employees are indisciplined and corrupt.
- Over-staffing is common feature in public sector undertakings.

## JOINT SECTOR

When both the government and the individuals enter into an agreement to run enterprise on partnership basis, they are referred as joint enterprises. For example, RPL (Reliance Petrochemical Limited), BSES (Brihanmumbai Sub Urban Electric



Supply) Power Trading Corporation are some examples of joint sector in India.

According to the guidelines laid down by the Government of India, the share capital of a joint sector undertaking (without foreign participation) is to be divided as follows : government–26%, private businessman–25% and public–49%. No single individual or organisation can hold more than 25% of the paid up capital of joint sector enterprise without the permission of the Central Government.

## Features of Joint Sector.

- (a) **Mixed Ownership :** The government, private entrepreneurs and the investing public jointly own a joint sector enterprise.
- (b) **Combined Management :** The management and control of joint sector enterprise lies with the nominees or representatives of the government, private business and the public.
- (c) **Share Capital :** The share of the government, private businessmen and the public in the capital are 26%, 25% and 49% respectively. The aim is to pool the financial resources and technical know-how of the state and the private individuals.

## Sector wise Indian GDP composition (2020-21)

|                      |   |       |
|----------------------|---|-------|
| Agriculture & Allied | — | 20.19 |
| Industry             | — | 25.92 |
| Services             | — | 53.89 |

## CONCLUSION

There are three important bases on which economies of the world can be classified –



(i) On the basis of nature. (ii) On the basis of ownership over the means of production. (iii) On the basis of level of development.

On the basis of nature, an economy may be classified as

- (i) simple and complex economy
- (ii) closed and open economy
- (iii) planned and unplanned economy

(iv) Agricultural and industrial economy.

On the basis of ownership of the means of production, an economy can be divided into (i) capitalistic economy (ii) socialist economy (iii) mixed economy.

On the basis of level of economic development, an economy can be divided into (i) developed economy (ii) underdeveloped economy (ii) underdeveloped or developing economy.

On the basis of ownership, Indian economy can be divided into (i) private sector (ii) public sector (iii) joint sector.

## IMPORTANT TERMS

- q **Economy** : Economy is the sum total of all economic activities.
- q **Essentials or Vital Processes of an Economy** : Basic economic activities, i.e. production, consumption and investment, are known as essentials or vital processes of an economy.
- q **Production** : Creation or addition of economic value in goods is called production.
- q **Consumption** : Use of goods and services for satisfying human wants.
- q **Investment** : That part of production which is not consumed but used for further production of goods and services is termed as investment.
- q **Economic Activities** : Activities relating to production and consumption of wealth are called economic activities.
- q **Barter System** : A system under which goods and services are exchanged for other goods and services.
- q **Money** : Anything which is generally accepted by the people as medium of exchange and acts as a measure of value is called money.
- q **Utility** : Utility is the want satisfying power of a commodity.
- q **Factors of Production** : All those goods and services which are used for the production of other goods and services are called factors of production.
- q **Production Unit** : Any individual, firm or government undertaking that produces or creates value in goods is called production unit.
- q **Capitalism** : It is a system of economic organisation featuring private ownership over means of production.
- q **Socialism** : Socialism is that system of economic organisation where factors of production are owned and controlled by the government.
- q **Mixed Economy** : An economy where both, the public sector and the private sector co-exist.
- q **Public Sector** : It consists of all business and industrial enterprises which are owned and managed by the government.

- q **Private Sector** : It consists of all business and industrial enterprises which are in the hands of private entrepreneurs.
- q **Price Mechanism** : It is a sort of motivating force that helps in taking all economic decisions regarding what to produce, how to produce and for whom to produce on the basis of price.
- q **Economic Planning** : Economic planning is the making of major economic decisions by a central planning authority on the basis of survey of country's available resources.
- q **Balanced Development** : It implies simultaneous investment in a number of different industries or in different sectors or regions of the country.
- q **Unbalanced Growth** : Unbalanced growth implies imbalances in the economy.
- q **Developed Economy** : A developed economy is one where the level of development is very high.
- q **Underdeveloped Economy** : An underdeveloped economy is one where the level of per capita real income is very low.
- q **Per capita Income** = 
$$\frac{\text{National Income}}{\text{Total Population}}$$
- q **National Income** : It implies money value of all final goods and services produced in an economy during an accounting year.
- q **Dualistic Economy** : Existence of traditional economy along with a modern economy.
- q **Developing Economy** : It refers to an economy which is undergoing the process of its economic development.
- q **Planned Economy** : It refers to an economy where all economic decisions regarding what to produce, how to produce and for whom to produce are taken by a Central Planning Authority.

## POINTS TO REMEMBER

- I **Types of Economies (on the basis of nature)**
  - ◇ Simple and Complex Economy
  - ◇ Closed and Open Economy
  - ◇ Planned and Unplanned Economy
  - ◇ Agricultural and Industrial Economy
- I **Types of Economies (on the basis of ownership of the means of production)**
  - ◇ Capitalist Economy
  - ◇ Socialist Economy
  - ◇ Mixed Economy
  - ◇ Distinction between Capitalistic, Socialistic and Mixed Economies
- I **Types of Economies (on the basis of level of development)**
  - ◇ Developed Economy
  - ◇ Underdeveloped Economy (or Developing Economy)
  - ◇ Distinction Between Developed and Underdeveloped Economies
- I **Basic Features of the Indian Economy**
  - An Underdeveloped Economy
  - A Dualistic Economy

- A Mixed, Developing, Planned Economy
- ◇ Sectoral Classification of the Indian Economy
- ◇ Classification on the Basis of Ownership — ■ Private Sector ■ Public Sector
- ◇ Interdependence among the three main sectors of the Economy
- Interdependence between Private and Public Sectors

## EXERCISES

### I. Choose the correct answer.



1. Which of the following is a characteristic of a mixed economy?
  - (a) All resources are owned and controlled by the government.
  - (b) Economic decisions are solely driven by supply and demand.
  - (c) Both private individuals and the government play a role in economic activities.
  - (d) Economic decisions are determined by tradition and cultural practices.
2. In a mixed economy, what is the role of the government in economic activities?
  - (a) It has no role in the economy.
  - (b) It plays a limited role, regulating key industries and providing some services.
  - (c) It controls all aspects of the economy.
  - (d) It only enforces contracts but doesn't regulate industries.
3. Which group of countries is more likely to have a higher Human Development Index (HDI)?
 

|                              |                               |
|------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| (a) Underdeveloped countries | (b) Developed countries       |
| (c) Emerging economies       | (d) Least developed countries |
4. There are two statements marked as **Assertion (A)** and **Reason (R)**. Mark your answer as per the codes provided below.
 

**Assertion (A)** : There is a co-existence of private and public sectors in the mixed economy.

**Reason (R)** : Since 1991 Indian economy is set on the path of liberalisation and globalisation.

  - (a) Both (A) and (R) are true and (R) is the correct explanation of (A)
  - (b) Both (A) and (R) are true but (R) is not the correct explanation of (A)
  - (c) (A) is correct but (R) is wrong
  - (d) (A) is wrong but (R) is correct
5. Consider the statements given below and choose the correct answer.
 

**Statement I** : One of the main features of an underdeveloped economy is low per capita income.

**Statement II** : Most of the people are employed in industrial sector in an underdeveloped economy.

|                                      |                                      |
|--------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| (a) I is correct and II is incorrect | (b) I is incorrect and II is correct |
| (c) Both I & II are incorrect        | (d) Both I & II are correct          |

6. Identify the type of economy as per the characteristics given below.
- I. Property is privately owned and economic decisions are privately made
  - II. Entrepreneurs are guided by self-interest and profit motive
  - III. It is also known as free economy or laissez-faire economy
- (a) Mixed economy (b) Socialist economy  
(c) Capitalist economy (d) Planned economy

## II. Very Short Answer Type Questions.

1. What is an economic activity?
2. Define production.
3. What is meant by investment?
4. Name the four factors of production used in the production of a commodity or service.
5. Define a closed economy.
6. What is meant by a planned economy?
7. What is a mixed economy?



## III. Short Answer Type Questions.

1. What are two important functions that an economy performs?
2. State the principal features of a capitalist economy.
3. State the features of mixed economy.
4. State three characteristics of underdeveloped countries.
5. State three characteristics of developed economies.
6. Distinguish between private and public sectors.



## IV. Long Answer Type Questions.

1. Describe briefly the main features of the Indian economy.
2. 'Indian economy is a developing economy.' Explain the statement.
3. Describe in brief the role of private sector in the Indian economy.
4. Distinguish between a capitalist economy and a socialist economy.
5. Has the system of planned economy in India been successful in producing high economic growth? Why?/Why not?



[HOTS]

### THINGS TO DO

Prepare a detailed project report on liberalisation and globalisation. Include the following features :

- | Meaning and Definition.
- | Chief Characteristics.
- | Is globalisation fair?
- | Effect on underdeveloped, developing and developed economies.



# CHAPTER 17

## Population

It is important to know how many people live in a country and whether the number is increasing or decreasing. Information about population — the total number of people living in a country or region is important in many ways.

How well a government serves its people depends partly on the knowledge of how many there are to be served and how large is the area they live in. It is also important to know how many people are in each age group. Younger people will need schools, while health care and social security may be more important to older people. Business

prospects, opportunities for jobs, and even crime rates are influenced by the size of the population.

**Population** is the total number of persons in a political or geographical area at a particular time. People who form the population are both the producers and the consumers of goods and services. The importance of studying population is mainly to estimate the total manpower which is present for production and the total amount of goods and services needed to consume them.

### The Census

A **Census** of population is the

| 2011 Census Highlights            |   |                                |  |
|-----------------------------------|---|--------------------------------|--|
| <b>Population of India —</b>      | : | 1,21,01,93,422                 |  |
| <b>Males</b>                      | : | 62,37,24,248                   |  |
| <b>Females</b>                    | : | 58,64,69,174                   |  |
| <b>Decadal Growth (2001–2011)</b> |   |                                |  |
| <b>Absolute</b>                   | — | <b>Percentage</b>              |  |
| 181455986                         | — | 17.64%                         |  |
| Male                              | — | 17.19%                         |  |
| Female                            | — | 18.12%                         |  |
| <b>Density of population</b>      | : | 382 per sq. km.                |  |
| <b>State with highest density</b> | : | Bihar (1102 per sq. km.)       |  |
| <b>Sex Ratio</b>                  | : | 940                            |  |
| <b>Total Literacy</b>             | : | 74.04%                         |  |
| <b>Male Literacy</b>              | : | 82.14%                         |  |
| <b>Female Literacy</b>            | : | 65.46%                         |  |
| <b>Most populous state</b>        | : | Uttar Pradesh                  |  |
| <b>Population</b>                 | : | 19,95,81,477 (16.49% of total) |  |



process of counting the inhabitants of a defined area, compiling the figures, and transforming the figures into useful facts, statistics and maps. Most of the world's nations take a census of population at regular or nearly regular intervals.

The census is a source of population statistics. Population statistics have many usage. It can serve as a basic tool of the science of **demography**, the statistical analysis and study of population. Accurate population figures are required to plan immi-gration policies, public health programmes, advertising and marketing campaigns and many other public and private activities.

Generally, a census is conducted every ten years. In India six censuses have been carried out so far by the Government of India since independence. The last census was conducted in 2011.

### GROWTH OF POPULATION IN INDIA, 1901-2011

| Year | Total Population<br>(in crores) | Annual<br>Growth<br>Rate (%) |
|------|---------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1901 | 23.84                           | —                            |
| 1911 | 25.21                           | 0.56                         |
| 1921 | 25.13                           | – 0.03                       |
| 1931 | 29.90                           | 1.04                         |
| 1941 | 31.87                           | 1.33                         |
| 1951 | 36.11                           | 1.25                         |
| 1961 | 43.92                           | 1.96                         |
| 1971 | 54.82                           | 2.20                         |
| 1981 | 68.33                           | 2.22                         |
| 1991 | 84.34                           | 2.14                         |
| 2001 | 102.70                          | 1.93                         |
| 2011 | 121.01                          | 1.75                         |

### Distribution of Population

In 2011 the density of population is about 382 persons per sq. km. We can look at the map that shows the density of population in India. Very low to low population density is found in the States of Jammu and Kashmir, Himachal Pradesh, Uttarakhand, Arunachal Pradesh, Nagaland, Manipur, Tripura, Meghalaya, Rajasthan and Madhya Pradesh. This low population is due to unfavourable climatic conditions and rugged terrain in these states. Most of the areas in peninsular India and Assam have moderate density of population. The distribution of population is also affected by infertile or less fertile soil, shallow soil, low to moderate rain and rocky terrain. On the other hand, high density population is observed in Kerala, Tamil Nadu and the Northern Plains. This is because these states have plain terrain along with rich, fertile soil, moderate climate and a lot of rainfall.

### Size of Population

The population of the world is not spread evenly over the earth. The average number of people who live in a fixed area is called **population density**. The most densely populated continents are Asia and Europe. Cities where people live in apartment houses or other crowded multiple family dwellings, are more densely populated than rural areas, where most people live in single family homes.

Large density or size of population does not necessarily mean that a country is over populated. **Overpopulation** is

a situation when the resources are too few for the size of population. Such a situation occurs when a country is not able to maintain a respectable standard of living for its population. A country like the UK cannot be called overpopulated even though it has a population of 58 million. This is because the country has enough resources to provide for the large population. But the overpopulation problem plagues us because in India the population size is more than the available resources. Large population means overuse of the available resources.

The **optimum population** of a country refers to the size of population which produces maximum amount of goods and services with the help of its resources. In a country when the population grows, it produces more. After some time the country is no longer able to provide basic facilities to the population. Overuse of resources occurs and per head availability of goods and facilities declines.

### Factors Determining Population Change



Three major factors that determine the population change are :

- (i) birth rate      (ii) death rate
- (iii) migration.

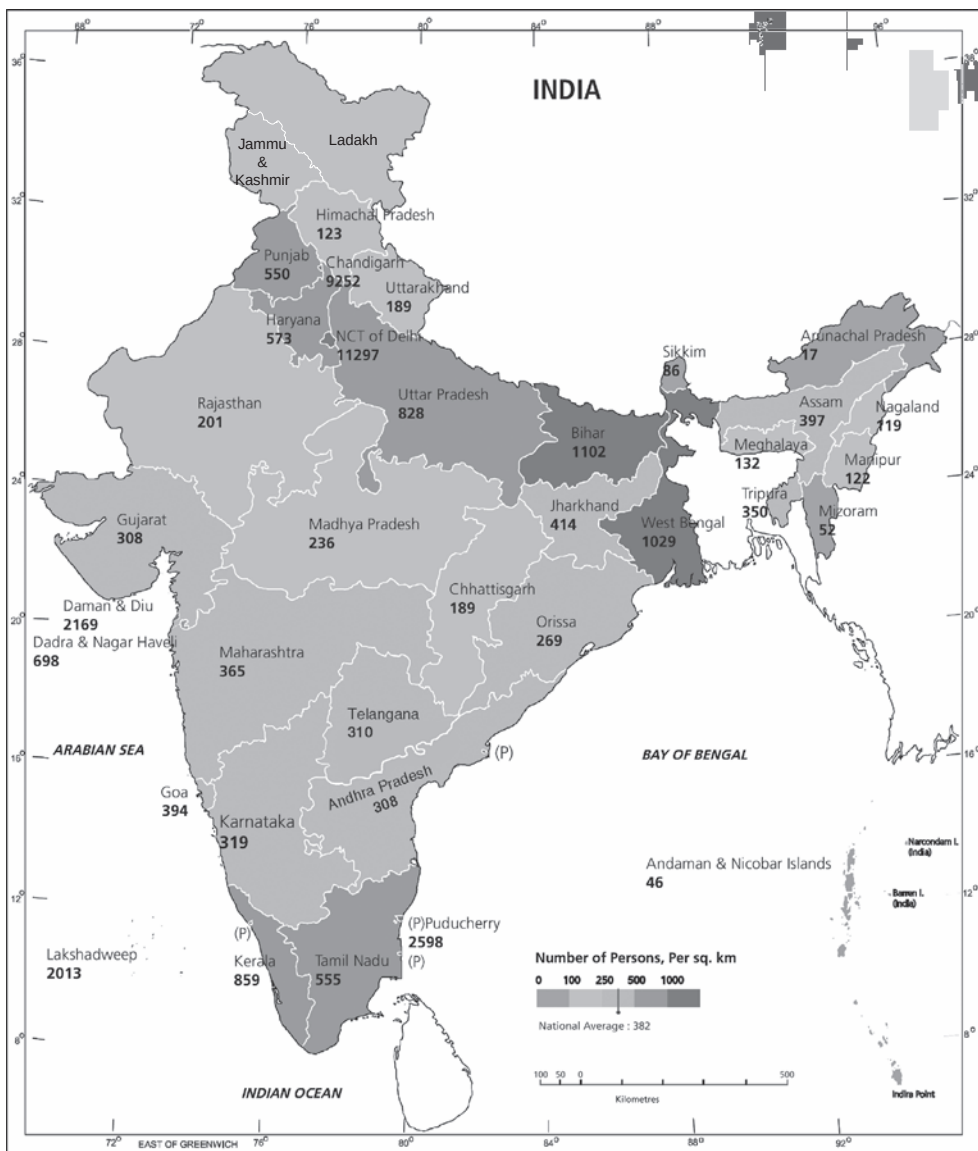
The term 'birth rate' generally indicates the number of live-births per 1000 of population during a particular year. Similarly, the death rate denotes the number of deaths per 1000 people in the country in a particular year. The difference between the birth rate and

the death rate shows the natural rate of growth or the survival rate per 1000 people in a country.

Changes in population are caused by births, deaths and the movement of people into and out of a country. The number of children born, called the **fertility** of a population, increases the size of the population. The number of deaths, called **mortality** decreases the population. **Migration**, the number of people entering or leaving a country, can cause either an increase or a decrease in population. A natural increase in population of a country comes from a greater number of births than deaths.

The main reason behind the high growth rate of India's population is the ever growing gap between the birth rate and the death rate. The decline in death rate had been due to the success achieved in control of epidemics such as small pox and plague that attacked the Indian population time and again, increasing public health measures and advancement in medical know-how in the last thirty years. Birth rate is still on a high as Indian society still follows ancient norms of early marriages, no or wrong birth control measures and ignorance due to lack of education. Several incidents of famine in India during the British Raj was a major cause for high death rates. After Independence, the government took positive steps to fight famine.

**Migration** is the movement of people from one area to another. Immigration denotes incoming population whereas emigration refers to outgoing population.



Immigration to a country leads to an increase in its population whereas emigration from a country leads to a decline in its population. Immigration of people from neighbouring countries (Pakistan, Bangladesh) to India after Independence is an important factor leading to growth in India's population. Migration (emigration) of people from

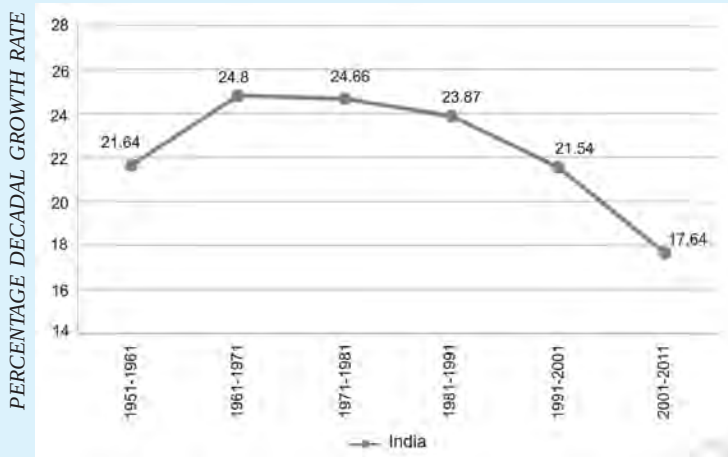
rural to urban areas also led to a steep growth in urban population in India. Migration (emigration) of people from India to Europe, Middle East, Canada led to a decrease in population of India.

**Migration**, a major factor of population change, can be both internal, i.e. within the country, or external, i.e., between different countries. There is

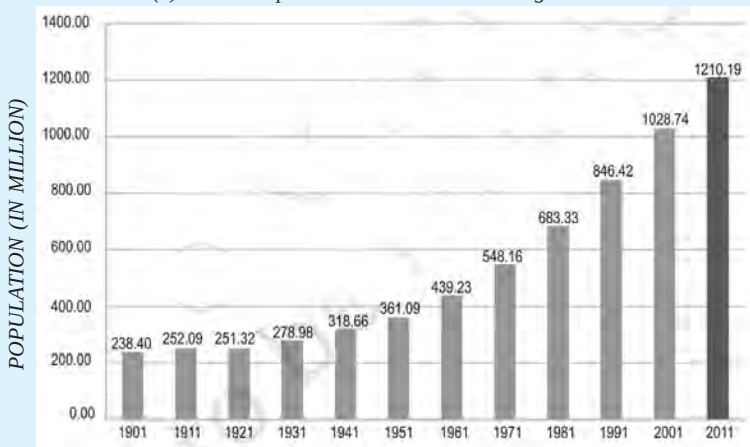
no change in population size caused by internal migration but it surely affects the population of an area. This increase in population density is obviously easy to observe in cities as internal migration is mostly from rural to urban areas. Increasing population in rural areas and mechanisation of agriculture leading to less demand for labour are two major reasons for migration from rural to urban areas. Vast and various employment avenues, good education and better living standards lure the rural folks to the towns and cities. As the industrial

and service sectors are expanding in urban areas the chance of employment is more here. This has caused the urban population to increase from 17.29% in 1951 to 30% in 2011.

| <b>Rural and Urban Population (in %)</b> |              |              |
|------------------------------------------|--------------|--------------|
| <b>Year</b>                              | <b>Rural</b> | <b>Urban</b> |
| 1961                                     | 82           | 18           |
| 1971                                     | 80.1         | 19.9         |
| 1981                                     | 76.7         | 23.3         |
| 1991                                     | 74.3         | 25.7         |
| 2001                                     | 72.2         | 27.8         |
| 2011                                     | 70           | 30           |



(a) India's Population Growth Rates during 1951-2011



(b) India's Population 1901-2011

- The current population of India is 1,430,341,556 as of Friday, August 18, 2023, based on Worldometer elaboration of the latest United Nations data.
- India 2023 population is estimated at 1,428,627,663 people at mid year.
- India population is equivalent to 17.76% of the total world population
- India ranks number 1 in the list of countries (and dependencies) by population.

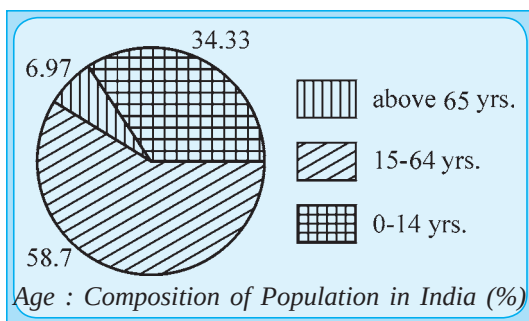
- The population density in India is 481 per Km<sup>2</sup>
- The total land area is 2,973,190 Km<sup>2</sup>
- 36.3 % of the population is urban (518,239,122 people in 2023)
- The median age in India is 28.2 years.

**Source:** Updated on July 16, 2023 with the latest July 2023-July 2024 estimates from the United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division. World Population Prospects: The 2022 Revision.

### Population of India (2023 and historical)

| Year | Population    | Yearly % Change | Yearly Change | Migrants (net) | Median Age | Fertility Rate | Density (P/ Km <sup>2</sup> ) | Urban Pop % | Urban Population | Country's Share of World Pop | World Population | India Global Rank |
|------|---------------|-----------------|---------------|----------------|------------|----------------|-------------------------------|-------------|------------------|------------------------------|------------------|-------------------|
| 2023 | 1,428,627,663 | 0.81 %          | 11,454,490    | -486,136       | 28.2       | 2.00           | 481                           | 36.3 %      | 518,239,122      | 17.76 %                      | 8,045,311,447    | 1                 |
| 2022 | 1,417,173,173 | 0.68 %          | 9,609,331     | -487,303       | 27.9       | 2.01           | 477                           | 35.7 %      | 506,304,869      | 17.77 %                      | 7,975,105,156    | 2                 |
| 2020 | 1,396,387,127 | 0.96 %          | 13,275,077    | -34,772        | 27.3       | 2.05           | 470                           | 34.6 %      | 483,098,640      | 17.81 %                      | 7,840,952,880    | 2                 |
| 2015 | 1,322,866,505 | 1.29 %          | 16,450,577    | -475,094       | 25.5       | 2.29           | 445                           | 32.4 %      | 429,069,459      | 17.81 %                      | 7,426,597,537    | 2                 |
| 2010 | 1,240,613,620 | 1.45 %          | 17,194,981    | -380,087       | 24.0       | 2.60           | 417                           | 30.7 %      | 380,744,554      | 17.76 %                      | 6,985,603,105    | 2                 |
| 2005 | 1,154,638,713 | 1.73 %          | 19,001,008    | -550,186       | 22.6       | 2.96           | 388                           | 29.0 %      | 334,479,406      | 17.61 %                      | 6,558,176,119    | 2                 |
| 2000 | 1,059,633,675 | 1.90 %          | 19,070,909    | -149,966       | 21.6       | 3.35           | 356                           | 27.5 %      | 291,350,282      | 17.23 %                      | 6,148,898,975    | 2                 |
| 1995 | 964,279,129   | 2.07 %          | 18,765,393    | -57,139        | 20.7       | 3.65           | 324                           | 26.5 %      | 255,558,824      | 16.79 %                      | 5,743,219,454    | 2                 |
| 1990 | 870,452,165   | 2.21 %          | 18,042,016    | 108,465        | 20.0       | 4.05           | 293                           | 25.5 %      | 222,296,728      | 16.37 %                      | 5,316,175,862    | 2                 |
| 1985 | 780,242,084   | 2.29 %          | 16,682,740    | -112,781       | 19.5       | 4.43           | 262                           | 24.4 %      | 190,321,782      | 16.05 %                      | 4,861,730,613    | 2                 |
| 1980 | 696,828,385   | 2.25 %          | 14,660,833    | 202,323        | 19.0       | 4.78           | 234                           | 23.1 %      | 160,941,941      | 15.68 %                      | 4,444,007,706    | 2                 |
| 1975 | 623,524,219   | 2.26 %          | 13,204,584    | -225,989       | 18.6       | 5.20           | 210                           | 21.3 %      | 132,533,810      | 15.32 %                      | 4,069,437,231    | 2                 |
| 1970 | 557,501,301   | 2.20 %          | 11,477,391    | -45,792        | 18.3       | 5.62           | 188                           | 19.6 %      | 109,388,950      | 15.09 %                      | 3,695,390,336    | 2                 |
| 1965 | 500,114,346   | 2.32 %          | 10,831,953    | 19,077         | 18.5       | 5.94           | 168                           | 18.7 %      | 93,493,844       | 14.99 %                      | 3,337,111,983    | 2                 |
| 1960 | 445,954,579   | 2.27 %          | 9,475,317     | 52,264         | 19.2       | 5.92           | 150                           | 18.1 %      | 80,565,723       | 14.77 %                      | 3,019,233,434    | 2                 |
| 1955 | 398,577,992   | 2.23 %          | 8,311,378     | -115,107       | 19.7       | 5.91           | 134                           | 18.1 %      | 71,958,495       | 14.51 %                      | 2,746,072,141    | 2                 |

**Source:** Worldometer ([www.Worldometers.info](http://www.Worldometers.info)) Elaboration of data by United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division. World Population Prospects: The 2022 Revision. (Medium-fertility variant).



## Occupational Structure

The distribution of a country's population in accordance with its various occupations is termed as the **occupational structure** of a country. The various occupations may be :

- (i) Primary Activities
  - (ii) Secondary Activities
  - (iii) Tertiary Activities.
- Primary activities include agriculture, animal husbandry, forestry, fishery, etc. They are termed primary as nature helps in these occupations.
  - Secondary activities include manu-facturing industries.
  - Tertiary activities include transport, communications, banking services, etc.

Economy and its development and occupational structure are closely related. When a larger number of the population are involved in secondary and tertiary activities in a country, that country has a higher level of income. Lower levels of income is observed in countries where people are mostly engaged in agriculture. In India the proportion of population dependent on agriculture was around 61% in 2000. The proportion of

population that is engaged in secondary and tertiary sectors was around 18% and 21% respectively. People have now become engaged in secondary and tertiary activities. This is due to more industrialisation and urbanisation in the country. We can observe this trend in Kerala, Karnataka, Maharashtra and Tamil Nadu. The population is still heavily dependent on agriculture in less developed states like Bihar, Odisha and Uttar Pradesh.

## Adolescent Population

Boys and girls between 10-19 years are called adolescents. They are nearly one fifth of India's total population. They are the future citizens of the country. As such their needs require special attention. During adolescence when they are growing up, both girls and boys need nutrition in terms of calories and other nutrients such as proteins, minerals, iodine and iron. Deficiency in nutrition retards growth, both physical and mental, delays sexual maturation. Iron deficiency in girls caused by menstruation needs to be supplemented. A large number of adolescent girls are married in India. They are likely to become pregnant. Anaemia during pregnancy is a common cause of illness and death among mothers and their newly born babies. Health is one of the most important human right. Adolescents deserve a better physical and mental health care.

Besides, adolescents need scientific information about the reproductive and sexual health, HIV/AIDS and drug abuse. In order to promote their well-being and competence to face realities of

life, they should be trained in life skills to improve self-esteem and self-assertion as well as to increase safe and responsible behaviour. Many adolescents who have personal problems, need family support and help from their school and society.

## National Population Policy



Since 1952 India has implemented the National Population Policy to control and stabilise the population. It would lead to the country's development and also bring a qualitative change in the people's lives. Already the death rate has been reduced to a large extent. In the past the NPP focussed on birth control and family planning.

The Government of India announced in February 2000, the National Population Policy (NPP) with the following objectives :

- (i) The immediate objective was to address the needs for contraception, healthcare infrastructure, and basic reproductive and child healthcare.
- (ii) The medium term objective was to bring the Total Fertility Rate (TFR) to replacement levels of 2.1 by 2010.
- (iii) The long term objective was to achieve a stable population by 2045, at a level consistent with the requirements of sustainable economic growth, social development, and environmental protection.

The National Population Policy (NPP) 2000 is now working towards

stabilising the population by 2045. According to the NPP 2000 this is to be done by :

- (i) raising the marriageable age
- (ii) making school education free and compulsory up to the age of 14 years.
- (iii) reducing drop-outs at primary and secondary levels.

## NPP 2000 and Adolescents

Adolescents have been identified as one of the most important sections of the population who need priority attention. Other than their nutritive needs, the NPP 2000 is aiming on other adolescent problems such as :

- (i) protection from unwanted pregnancies.
- (ii) protection from sexually transmitted diseases (STD).

NPP has made plans to implement programmes that would

- (i) popularise delayed marriage
- (ii) encourage delayed pregnancies
- (iii) educate adolescents about risks caused by unprotected sex.
- (iv) make contraceptive services accessible and cheaper.
- (v) provide food supplements and nutritional services.
- (vi) strengthen laws to restrain child marriages.

## Conclusion

Population is the total number of persons living in a geographical area at a particular time. There are three major factors that determine the population change – (i) birth rate (ii) death rate

and (iii) migration. The Government of India announced in February 2000, the national population policy with an objective towards stabilising the population by year 2045.

### IMPORTANT TERMS

- q **Census** : the process of collection, compilation and publication of information relating to different aspects of people living in a country at a specific point of time.
- q **Overpopulation** : a situation when the resources are too few for the size of population.
- q **Optimum population of a country** : the size of population, which produces maximum amount of goods and services with the help of its resources.
- q **Birth Rate** : the number of live births per thousand persons in a year.
- q **Death Rate** : number of deaths per thousand persons in a year.
- q **Migration** : movement of people across regions and territories.
- q **Sex Ratio** : number of females per thousand males in the population.
- q **Occupational structure** : the distribution of its people according to different occupations.

### POINTS TO REMEMBER

- | Population is the total number of persons living in a political or geographical area at a particular time.
- | Most of the world's nations take a census of population at regular or nearly regular intervals.
- | Accurate population statistics is required to plan immigration policies, public health programmes, advertising and marketing campaigns and many other public and private activities.
- | Large density or size of population does not necessarily mean that a country is overpopulated.
- | Three major factors that determine the population change are (i) birth rate (ii) death rate, and (iii) migration.
- | In India sex ratio has always been in favour of males.
- | Age composition of population is mostly shown in three broad age groups :
  - (i) children below the working age (below 15 yrs.) (ii) persons in the working age (15 to 64 yrs.) (iii) Old persons above the working age (65 years).
- | The various occupations may be
  - (i) primary activities (ii) secondary activities (iii) tertiary activities.
- | Life expectancy has gone up to 66.8 years in 2011 from 51 years during 1951-61.
- | In India adolescents do not get adequate diet.

## EXERCISES



### I. Choose the correct answer.

1. Which state has the lowest density of population as per Census 2011?  
(a) Mizoram (b) Arunachal Pradesh  
(c) Sikkim (d) Manipur
2. What is the key principle underlying the National Population Policy's approach to population issues?  
(a) Encouraging unrestricted population growth  
(b) Promoting population control by any means necessary  
(c) Voluntary and informed choice in family planning  
(d) Promoting early marriages and large families
3. Identify the statements that describe correctly focus of NPP 2000 on adolescents.  
I. popularise delayed marriage  
II. encourage delayed pregnancies  
III. make contraceptive services accessible and cheaper  
IV. strengthen laws to encourage child marriages  
(a) I & II are correct (b) II & III are correct  
(c) I, II, III are correct (d) Only IV is correct
4. There are two statements marked as **Assertion (A)** and **Reason (R)**. Mark your answer as per the codes provided below.  
**Assertion (A)** : The main reason behind high growth rate of India's population is the ever growing gap between the birth rate and death rate.  
**Reason (R)** : The decline in death rate has been due to success achieved in control of epidemics and advancement in medicine.  
(a) Both (A) and (R) are true and (R) is the correct explanation of (A)  
(b) Both (A) and (R) are true but (R) is not the correct explanation of (A)  
(c) (A) is correct but (R) is wrong  
(d) (A) is wrong but (R) is correct
5. Consider the statements given below and choose the correct answer.  
**Statement I** : Migration is a major factor of population change.  
**Statement II** : Internal migration is mostly from rural to urban areas.  
(a) statement I is correct and II is incorrect  
(b) statement I is incorrect and II is correct  
(c) Both I & II are incorrect (d) Both I & II are correct

### II. Very Short Answer Type Questions.

1. What is population?
2. Define 'Demography'.
3. What is overpopulation?



4. List the factors that determine the population change.
5. What is meant by internal migration?

### III. Short Answer Type Questions.

1. Differentiate between working population and dependent population.
2. What has caused internal migration in India?
3. How does migration influence population growth?
4. What do you mean by optimum population?



### IV. Long Answer Type Questions.

1. How is development of economy related to the occupational structure?
2. Write about the type of population found in the Northern Plains, Tamil Nadu and Kerala. Why is there sparse population in some parts of India?
3. What problems occur when population in cities grow faster than the capacity of economy to support them? **[HOTS]**
4. Summarise the National Population Policy 2000.
5. Explain the following terms :
  - (i) Density of population
  - (ii) Birth Rate
  - (iii) Death Rate



### V. Case Study Based Questions.

Urban Area X has experienced rapid population growth over the past decade. The population has increased by 25%, leading to several challenges, including increased strain on infrastructure, housing shortages, and traffic congestion. The city's administration faces the task of managing this growth effectively while ensuring a high quality of life for its residents



1. What are the primary factors contributing to the rapid population growth in Urban Area X?
2. What challenges does the city face due to this population growth, and how do they impact the residents' quality of life?

#### THINGS TO DO

1. Find out the density of population of the state you live in.
2. Make a chart or poster proclaiming ways of stabilising and controlling population growths.
3. Hold a discussion in class about internal and external migration.
4. What factors do you think are responsible for the low sex ratio in Nagaland?



# CHAPTER 18

## Poverty

The three major challenges that our economy is facing today are Poverty, Unemployment and Price Rise.

### POVERTY

**Poverty is a situation in which a person is unable to get minimum basic necessities of life, i.e., food, clothing or shelter.** In other words, it refers to inability to get the minimum consumption requirement of life, health and efficiency.

Poverty is determined on the basis of *poverty line*. On the basis of the survey carried out (by Tendulkar Committee) the Planning Commission in 2011-2012, suggested a poverty line of ₹ 27 (per capita expenditure) a day for rural areas and ₹ 33 a day for urban areas. The number of persons living below poverty line in 2011-2012 was estimated to be 269 million. Among them 216.5 million



*A large section of people is living below the poverty line*

people are in rural areas while 52.5 million live in urban areas.

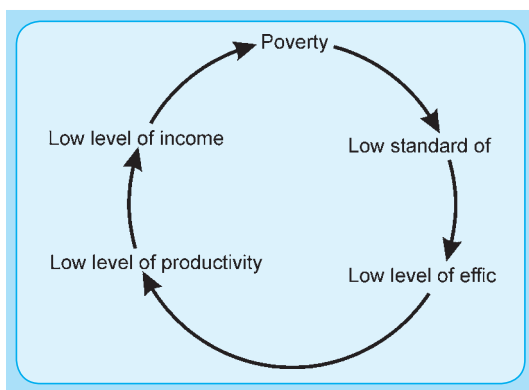
| Committee  | Rural (exp.) | Urban (exp.) | Poor people |
|------------|--------------|--------------|-------------|
| Tendulkar  | ₹ 27/ day    | ₹ 33/ day    | 269 mn      |
| Rangarajan | ₹ 32/ day    | ₹ 47/ day    | 363 mn      |

### Vicious Circle of Poverty

Vicious circle of poverty means that poverty is both the cause and the effect. It is generally said that India is poor because it is poor. Due to poverty, the standard of living of people is low; because of low standard of living the level of efficiency is low; because of low efficiency the level of productivity becomes low; low level of productivity brings the level of income down; and because of low level



*Poverty is still rampant in India*



of income there is poverty in the country. Thus, it becomes a vicious circle.

### Measurement of Poverty

There are two approaches by which the number of poor is estimated — the Expenditure Method (expenditure incurred by a family on various items is used) and the Income method (income earned by a family is used)



(a) **Expenditure Method** : The minimum nutritional food requirement for survival is estimated.

- The total minimum food requirement of a person is first measured in calories and then this calorie amount is converted into equivalent money value, i.e., in rupees.

Apart from food, we also need money to buy clothes and other requirements.

- A minimum amount for these additional items has also been added with money value of food requirements.

- The total minimum equivalent amount is considered as poverty line. All those families which spend less than the poverty line are considered as BPL (Below Poverty Line).

The daily minimum nutritional requirement for a person has been fixed at 2400 calories in rural areas and 2100 calories in urban areas. There is a difference between calorie consumption in rural and urban areas because people living in rural areas engage themselves in tasks of physical labour. So they require more energy.

On the basis of these calculations, for the year 2011-12, the poverty line for a person was fixed at ₹816 per month for rural areas and ₹1000 for urban areas. In this way in the year 2011-12, a family of 5 members living in rural areas and earning less than ₹4080 per month will be below the poverty line. A similar family in urban areas would need a minimum of ₹5000 per month to meet their basic requirements.

(b) **Income Method** : The food is distributed at subsidised prices through PDS (Public Distribution System) at the local level. Thus, the government uses this approach. In this approach, all those families whose total income in a month is less than poverty line as fixed by the government, are considered to be below poverty line, i.e. ₹454 on

consumption/expenditure in urban areas and ₹328 in rural areas [for the year 2000].

**Percentage and Number of Poor estimated by Tendulkar Method Using Mixed Reference Period (MRP)**

| Region       | 2004–05                      |                      | 2011–2012                    |                      |
|--------------|------------------------------|----------------------|------------------------------|----------------------|
|              | Number of Poor (in millions) | Poverty Ratio (in %) | Number of Poor (in millions) | Poverty Ratio (in %) |
| Rural        | 326.3                        | 41.8                 | 216.5                        | 25.7                 |
| Urban        | 80.8                         | 25.7                 | 52.8                         | 13.7                 |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>407.1</b>                 | <b>37.2</b>          | <b>268.3</b>                 | <b>21.9</b>          |

## Causes of Poverty

There are number of causes for the widespread poverty in India.



**1. Historical factors :** Low level of economic development during the colonial period laid the foundation of poverty in India. The policies of the colonial government ruined traditional handicrafts, industries as well as agriculture. The low rate of growth persisted until the nineteen-eighties. This resulted in less job opportunities and low growth rate of incomes. This was accompanied by a high growth rate of population over a period of several decades. These two combined to make the growth rate of per capita income very low. The failure in pushing economic growth and in

controlling population perpetuated the cycle of poverty.

**2. Existence of semi-feudal relations in agriculture :** Rural poverty in India emanates to a great extent from the semi-feudal relations of production in the agricultural sector. Most of the small and marginal farmers depend on large land-owners-cum-money-lenders, not only for fulfilling their credit needs, but also for marketing agricultural produce. In most cases, they are exploited by these landlords on both the fronts and hence, most of such small and marginal farmers and landless agricultural and non-agricultural rural labour households fall into the grip of poverty.

**3. Inequality in the distribution of income and wealth :** Although the national income of India has been increasing during the plan periods, it was not distributed properly among different sections of the people.

The poverty line depends on the per capita consumption expenditure, and the per capita consumption expenditure, in turn, depends on the possession of income-earning assets and their distribution among the households. Poor 'capabilities' of some people to fulfil some of the basic needs of life arise mainly because of inadequate 'entitlement'

# A significant Reduction in Multidimensional Poverty

Poverty headcount ratio at \$5.50 a day is the percentage of the population living in less than ₹5.50 a day at 2011 international prices.

Indian poverty Rate – Historical data

| Year | % under<br>US \$ 5.50 per day | Change |
|------|-------------------------------|--------|
| 2019 | 83.80%                        | 1.20%  |
| 2018 | 82.60%                        | –2.70% |
| 2017 | 85.30%                        | –3.40% |
| 2016 | 88.70%                        | –0.20% |
| 2015 | 88.90%                        | –1.00% |
| 2011 | 89.90%                        | –3.00% |
| 2009 | 92.90%                        | –1.50% |
| 2004 | 94.40%                        | –2.20% |
| 1993 | 96.60%                        | 0.00%  |
| 1987 | 96.60%                        | –0.70% |

## National Multidimensional Poverty Index – A Progress Review 2023

Based on the latest National Family Health Survey [NFHS-5 (2019-21)], this second edition of the National Multidimensional poverty Index (MPI) represents India’s progress in reducing multidimensional poverty between the two surveys, NFHS-4 (2015-16) and NFHS-5 (2019-21). It builds on the Baseline Report of India’s National MPI launched in November 2021.

According to the Report, 135 million people escaped multidimensional poverty between 2015-16 and 2019-21. The country registered a significant decline of 9.89 percentage points in India’s multidimensionally poor from

24.85% in 2015-16 to 14.96% in 2019-2021. The rural areas witnessed the fastest decline in poverty, from 32.59% to 19.28%. The Report states that the fastest reduction in the population of multidimensional poor was observed in states of U.P., Bihar, M.P., Odisha and Rajasthan.

NITI Aayog Multidimensional poverty Index 2023 shows 13.5 crore Indians escaped poverty between 2016 and 2021.

According to the report, in 2015-16 (NFHS-4), only seven states had less than 10 percent of their population living in multidimensional poverty — Mizoram, Himachal Pradesh, Punjab, Sikkim, Tamil Nadu, Goa and Kerala.

However, in 2019-21 (NFHS-5), the list had doubled to include 14 states, with 7 new additions being Telangana, Andhra Pradesh, Haryana, Karnataka, Maharashtra, Manipur, and Uttarakhand.

Collectively, India has lifted approx 13.5 crore people out of multidimensional poverty in the same period.

In 2015-16, one in four Indians (24.85%) met the criteria for multidimensional poverty. By 2019-21, this percentage decreased to 14.96%, or one in seven.

Notably, except for Bihar, no other state in India has more than one-third of its population living in multidimensional poverty. Even here, the improvement has been remarkable.

In 2015-16, over 51.89% of Bihar's population lived in multidimensional poverty. By 2019-21, the figure had dropped to 33.76%.

In other words, while one out of every two persons in Bihar was living in multidimensional poverty in 2015-16, that number has now improved to one in three.

Similarly, Jharkhand reduced the percentage of people living under multidimensional poverty from 42 per cent in 2015-16 to 28.82 per cent in 2019-21. U.P. saw decline from 37.68 per cent to 22.93 per cent, and M.P. from 36.57% to 20.63 per cent.

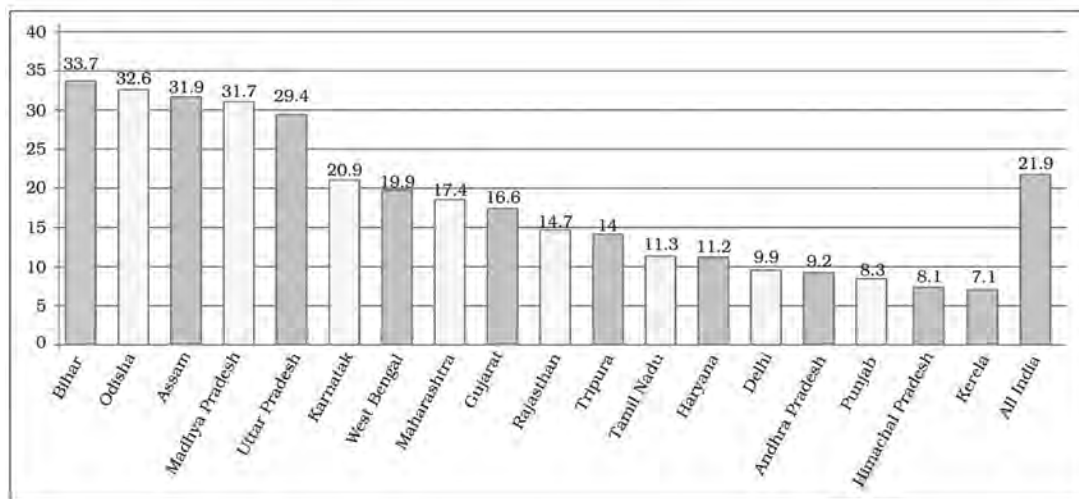
However, a further examination of

the data suggest that poverty reduction is not equally represented in the three main indicators of standard of living, health and education.

In April 2023, India surpassed China to become the World's most populous nation with 142.86 crore people, according to UN data. A total of 415 million people, moved out of poverty in India within just 15 years from (2005-2006) to (2019-2021), the UN said highlighting the remarkable achievement by the World's most populous nation.

[Source : NITI Aayog, INDIA : National Multidimensional Poverty Index — A Progress Review 2023]

### Poverty Ratio in Selected Indian States. [As per 2011 Census]



### Estimates of Poverty in India (Tendulkar Methodology)

| Year    | Poverty ratio (%) |       |       | Number of poor (in millions) |       |          |
|---------|-------------------|-------|-------|------------------------------|-------|----------|
|         | Rural             | Urban | Total | Rural                        | Urban | Combined |
| 1993-94 | 50                | 32    | 45    | 329                          | 75    | 404      |
| 2004-05 | 42                | 26    | 37    | 326                          | 81    | 407      |
| 2009-10 | 34                | 21    | 30    | 278                          | 76    | 355      |
| 2011-12 | 26                | 14    | 22    | 217                          | 53    | 270      |

Source: India in figures, 2018, Government of India Central Statistics office.

| Poverty in India based on caste (2011-12) |                       |               |
|-------------------------------------------|-----------------------|---------------|
| Caste                                     | Percentage of Poverty | No. of People |
| F C                                       | 12.5%                 | 49.1 M        |
| OBC                                       | 20.7%                 | 108.5 M       |
| SC                                        | 29.4%                 | 73.8 M        |
| ST                                        | 43.0%                 | 46.4 M        |

Poverty in India based on Social and Religious Classes. The Sachar Committee looked at the poverty by Social and Religious Classes

| Social and Religious Class | Percentage of People Living in Poverty |
|----------------------------|----------------------------------------|
| Urban Hindus               | 20.4%                                  |
| Urban Hindus General       | 8.3%                                   |
| Urban Hindu OBC            | 25.1%                                  |
| Urban Hindu SC/ST          | 36.4%                                  |
| Urban Muslims              | 38.4%                                  |
| Urban Other Minorities     | 12.2%                                  |
| Rural Hindus               | 22.6%                                  |
| Rural Hindus General       | 9.0%                                   |
| Rural Hindu OBC            | 19.5%                                  |
| Rural Hindu SC/ST          | 34.8%                                  |
| Rural Muslims              | 26.9%                                  |
| Rural Other Minorities     | 14.3%                                  |

to these income earning assets or 'endowments'.

**4. Unemployment and under-employment :** A considerable degree of unemployment and under-employment among both rural and urban workers is supposed to be the principal reasons behind poverty. In India, a large section

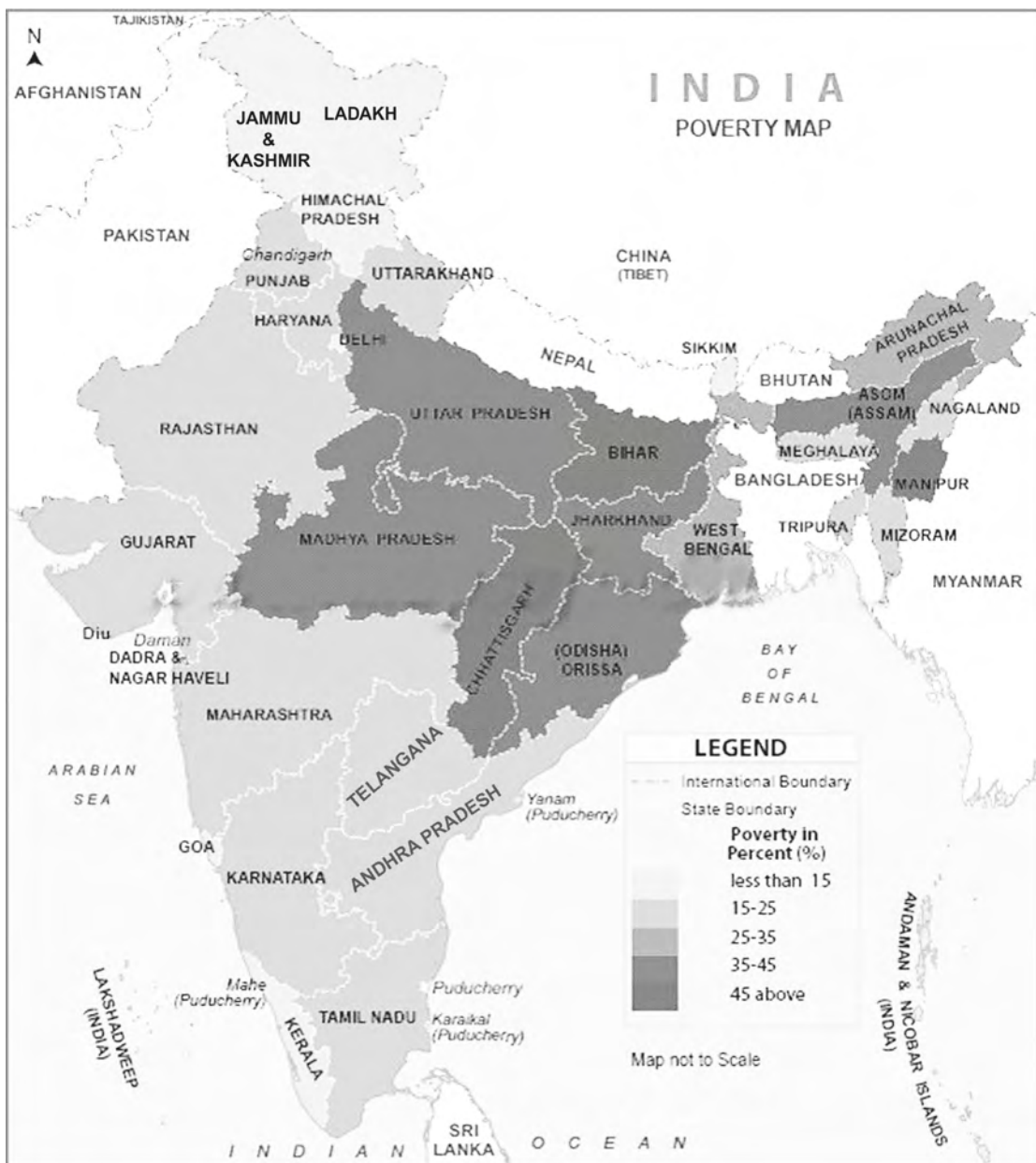
of the rural labour force is under-employed, i.e., they do not get full time employment or, even if they are engaged in any full time activity, their earnings are insufficient to fulfil their minimum needs. According to an economist, "the causes of poverty in cities are mostly open unemployment, under-employment, insecure employment and low real wage in some industries."

#### 5. High rate of population growth

: With a high rate of population growth in India, the dependency burden has increased, i.e., the dependence of non-working people (viz., children and old people) on the work-force has increased. Hence, the provision for their minimum needs becomes a crucial problem. This high growth rate of population also signifies lesser availability of health facilities and other social amenities, and hence, a lower standard of living.

#### 6. High rate of infant mortality :

The high rate of infant mortality, particularly in the case of poor families, induced them to increase their family size. More children, in these families, are regarded as a security, because child labour complements the family income. But economists have shown that child labour actually perpetuates



*India : Incidence of Poverty*

poverty and inhibits the growth process.

#### 7. Labour market segmentation:

This implies that only a small segment of the labour market is most

favourably placed (i.e., they enjoy relatively higher opportunities in availing of education and technical skill, and hence, higher income opportunities), whereas a large

segment of the labour market is most unfavourably placed. This less-privileged class in the labour market is deprived of some of the basic opportunities (e.g., health, education and nutrition) and their income-earning capability also remains at a low level. So, they are caught in a vicious circle of poverty.

**8. Price inflation :** Upward trends in the consumer price index during the plan periods led to a fall in the real income of the fixed and low-income earners. This has also led to a fall in their purchasing power and, hence, a lower standard of living and higher incidence of poverty.

**9. Low availability of essentials:** Growing population pressures

in India have led to low (or inadequate) levels of social consumption. The per cent of households living in *pucca houses*, per cent of households having access to safe drinking water, per cent of households having electricity connections for lighting, etc., are some of the indications of social consumption. A low level of social consumption also means higher incidence of poverty.

### Measures for Removal of Poverty



#### 1. Development of

**Agriculture :** The government believed that efforts towards developing the heavy industries and Green Revolution would create employment opportunities and

### CASE STUDY-1

Aruna, her husband, and their four children live beside the railway tracks beneath a bridge in Mumbai, India. Their only light come from the streetlights, and they rely on a pay and use toilet, which closes at night, for water and sanitation. Their clothes, mats and all worldly goods are stored in the open. The only shelter from the rain is the imperfect protection offered by the bridge above. The 30-year old mother of four makes her living by making and selling flower garlands, for which she earns ₹20-40 a day. Her husband can earn significantly more (₹250 – 300 a day), as a labourer pushing a handcart and doing other odd jobs. The work is scarce and unpredictable. Therefore, they hardly manage to eat rice and some lentils, only once in a day. At noon, Aruna usually drinks a cup of tea, but the price of tea has increased of late, so she consumes less. Afternoons are spent making garlands.

The children blow up balloons, which they sell at the seaside. They return around 10 P.M. on work days. They earn ₹50-60, which at the weekends they work longer hours and can earn ₹100-150. When the children arrive home, they may eat something, depending on the day's finances, but some days they go to sleep without eating. The constant vulnerability and decline in her circumstances have placed great strain on Aruna.

income which would lead to rapid economic development. The benefit to a particular section of society would finally trickle down to other sections across the country, particularly the poor ones. This is known as **trickle-down effect**.

2. **Population Control** : To eradicate poverty, population control is essential in India. For this, family planning programmes has to be effectively implemented.
3. **Development of Cottage and Small Scale Industries** : It employs more labour and less machinery. The government has reserved some production activities solely for these industries. So problem of unemployment could be tackled effectively.
4. **Income Redistribution** : In order to reduce the gap between the rich and the poor, the government made an attempt through income redistribution measures. This has been done by taxing the rich and middle classes and also taxing the commodities of luxury consumption and subsidising the provision of essential goods to lower income group.
5. **Land Reform Measures** : Several land reform measures such as abolition of Zamindari System, security of tenant farmers against eviction, fixation of rent, fixation of ceiling on land holding and distribution of surplus land among

small and landless farmers were undertaken by government.

## Poverty Alleviation Programmes



The government adopted various policy measures and programmes to remove poverty and hence they were known as Poverty Alleviation Programmes. Most of them aim at providing employment or improvement of asset to the poverty ridden families.

1. **Jawahar Gram Samridhi Yojana (JGSY)** : It was started on 1 April 1999. The main aim of this programme was development of rural areas. Infrastructure like roads to connect the village to different area, which made the village more accessible and also other social, educational (schools) and infrastructure like hospitals. Its secondary objective was to give out sustained wage employment. This was only given to BPL (below the poverty line) families and fund was to be spent for individual beneficiary schemes for SCs and STs and 3% for the establishment of barrier free infrastructure for the disabled people.
2. **National Old Age Pension Scheme (NOAPS)** : This scheme came into effect on 15 August 1995. The scheme provides pension to old people who were above the age of 65 (now 60) who could not fend for themselves and did not have any means of subsistence. The pension

that was given was Rs 200 a month. This pension is given by the central government.

**3. National Family Benefit Scheme**

**(NFBS) :** This scheme was started in August 1995 by the Government of India. This scheme is sponsored by the state government. It was transferred to the state sector scheme after 2002-03. It is under the community and rural department. This scheme provides a sum of ₹20000 to a person of a family who becomes the head of the family after the death of its primary breadwinner. The breadwinner is defined as a person who is above 18, who earns the most for the family and on whose earnings the family survives.

**4. National Maternity Benefit Scheme:**

This scheme provides a sum of ₹6000 to a pregnant mother in three installments. The women have to be older than 19 years of age. It is given normally 12–8 weeks before the birth and in case of the death of the child the women can still avail it. The NMBS is implemented by states and union territories with the help of panchayats and municipalities.

**5. Annapurna :** This scheme was started by the government in 1999–2000 to provide food to senior citizens who cannot take care of themselves and are not under the National Old Age Pension Scheme

(NOAPS), and who have no one to take care of them in their village. This scheme would provide 10 kg of free foodgrains a month for the eligible senior citizens. The allocation for this scheme in 2000-2001 was Rs 100 crore. They mostly target groups of ‘poorest of the poor’ and ‘indigent senior citizens’.

**6. Integrated Rural Development Program(IRDP) :**

IRDP in India is among the world’s most ambitious programmes to alleviate rural poverty by providing income-generated assets to the poorest of the poor. This programme was first introduced in 1978-79 in some selected areas, but covered all the areas by November 1980. The main objective of IRDP is to raise families of identified target group below poverty line by creation of sustainable opportunities for self-employment in the rural sector. The target group under IRDP consists of small and marginal farmers, agricultural labourers and rural artisans having annual income below ₹11,000 defined as poverty line in the Eighth Plan.

**7. Pradhan Mantri Gramin Awaas Yojana :**

This scheme aimed at creating housing for everyone. It was initiated in 1985. It aimed at creating 20 lakh housing units out of which 13 lakhs were in rural area. This scheme also would give out loans to people at subsidized rates to make houses.

## CASE STUDY-2

In village Shergarh, like other villages of the State, absolute poverty in the form of people going hungry without food is absent. Among the fifteen relatively poorest families studied by us, there is not even a single household without a house of its own. There is not even a single individual among these poorest who slept without a meal. Almost all these poor people take their meal thrice a day. They take tea daily in the morning. They have enough clothes and shelter to protect them. In spite of it, poverty is reflected in all aspects of life of the poor people. Majority of poor households are not living in pucca houses and more than fifty per cent poor households are living in houses which are in a bad condition. Their access to toilets, kitchen, bathroom, own source of water, electric light is very low.

**Source :** A case study of village 'Shergarh' by Dr. Manjit Sharma.

### 8. Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MNREGA) :

The NREGA bill notified in 2005 and came into force in 2006 and further modified it as the Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA) in October 2009. This scheme guarantees 150 days of paid work to people in the rural areas. The scheme has proved to be a major boost in Indian rural population's income. The Ministry of Rural Development (MRD) is the nodal Ministry for the implementation of NREGA. It is responsible for ensuring timely and adequate resource support to the States and to the Central Council.

Though the government has undertaken a number of measures to reduce poverty and inequalities of income, these measures have not shown satisfactory results so far. Indian economy is characterised by large inequalities of income, with a large proportion of the population living below the poverty

line. We, therefore, need sustained and determined efforts in this regard.

### Food Security

Food security means something more than just getting two square meals a day. Food security can be defined as the ability to ensure on a long term basis access to enough food for an active and healthy life to the entire population. Food security implies availability of sufficient foodgrains to meet the domestic demand as well as access, at the individual level, to adequate food at affordable prices. Thus, it has three dimensions : availability, accessibility and affordability.

**The Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO, 1983)** defined food security as "ensuring that all people at all times have both physical and economic access to basic food they need."

Thus, food security has the following essential components :

- (i) Food security involves the availability of sufficient quantities and good quality food.

- (ii) People have enough purchasing power so that they can acquire food they need. The access to food depends not only on household incomes but also on food prices.
- (iii) Food security ensures, timely, reliable and nutritionally adequate supply of food on a long term basis.
- (iv) It also necessitates maintaining a buffer stock so as to take care of natural calamities resulting in temporary shortages.

Thus, the concept of food security ensures the availability of minimum quantity of food gains to the entire population. But this seems to be a narrow concept. In a dynamic and developing economy, the concept of food security changes with the stage of development. Therefore, we should consider the following stages of food security in developing economies :

- (a) The first stage is to make an adequate quantity of cereals available to all people for their survival.
- (b) The second stage includes adequate availability of cereals and pulses.
- (c) In the third stage, it includes availability of cereals, pulses, milk and milk products.
- (d) In the fourth and final stage it includes cereals, pulses, milk and milk products, vegetables and fruits, fish, eggs and meat.

## Who Are Food Insecure?



In India, although a large section of people suffer from food and nutrition insecurity, but the worst affected groups are the landless or people with little land to depend upon. Besides this, other food insecure people are the traditional artisans, providers of traditional services, petty self-employed workers and destitutes including beggars. In the urban areas, the food insecure people are employed in a very low paid occupations. These workers are largely engaged in seasonal activities and are paid very low wages. The inability to buy food, and social composition also plays a very important role in food insecurity. The following social groups are most food insecure :

- People who have either little land or very low land productivity, e.g., SCs, STs and OBCs etc.
- People affected by natural disasters who have to migrate to other areas in search of work.
- A large proportion of pregnant and nursing mothers and children under the age of 5 years.

The proportion of food insecure people is very large in some regions of the country. The states of Uttar Pradesh (eastern and south eastern parts), Bihar, Jharkhand, Odisha, West Bengal, Chhattisgarh, parts of Madhya Pradesh and Maharashtra account for the largest number of food insecure people in the country.

## Food Security Measures



India has adopted the strategy of self sufficiency in foodgrains right from the beginning of planning in India. Efforts were made to increase the domestic production of foodgrains to meet the growing demand for foodgrains to build buffer stocks and to reduce the import of foodgrains.

Various steps taken up by the government to solve the food problem are as follows.

**1. Increasing Food Supplies.** These government measures are explained below:

- (i) **Institutional Measures** include land reforms (i.e., abolition of intermediaries, ceiling of land holdings tenancy reforms, consolidation of holdings etc.), setting up of institutional credit agencies to provide cheap and adequate agricultural finance, building up of a strong marketing structure to ensure fair price to farmers for their produce.
- (ii) **Technological Improvements** such as extension of irrigation facilities, propagation of high - yielding varieties of seeds, supply of chemical fertilisers at subsidised prices, etc.
- (iii) **National Food Security Mission (NFSM)** : The Department of Agriculture and Cooperation, Ministry of Agriculture, has launched (from Rabi 2007-08) a centrally-

sponsored scheme called the National Food Security Mission (NFSM). This scheme was introduced in pursuance of a resolution of the National Development Council (NDC) to increase the production of rice, wheat and pulses by 10, 8 and 2 million tonnes, respectively, over the benchmark levels of production by the end of the Eleventh Five-Year Plan period (2011-12). The mission was continued during 12th Five Year Plan with new targets of additional production of foodgrains comprising of rice, wheat, Pulses and coarse cereals.

**2. Food Management.** Food management in India has three basic objectives—

- (i) procurement of foodgrains from farmers at remunerative prices,
- (ii) distribution of foodgrains to the consumers, particularly the vulnerable sections of the society at affordable prices, and
- (iii) maintenance of food buffers for food security and price stability. The instruments for food management are the Minimum Support Price (MSP) and Central Issue Price (CIP). The nodal agency which undertakes the procurement and distribution and storage is the Food Corporation of India (FCI).

Thus, the food security system has two components : (a) buffer stock and

(b) public distribution system.

- (a) Buffer Stock :** Buffer stock is the stock of foodgrains, namely wheat and rice, procured by the government through the Food Corporation of India (FCI). The FCI purchases wheat and rice from the farmers in states where there is surplus production. The farmers are paid a minimum support price pre-announced by the government every year before the sowing season. *Minimum support price announced by the government is the price at which government is ready to purchase the crop from the farmers directly if crop price becomes lower than MSP.* As a result, market price of the crop never comes down below the MSP. This minimum price security gives incentives to farmers to increase their production. These minimum support prices of various crops are announced on the basis of recommendations made by the **Agriculture Costs & Prices Commission (ACPC)** which takes into consideration the input costs and favourable returns to the farmers while recommending MSP. Buffer stocks are maintained by the Central government for three purposes : (i) To distribute foodgrains in the deficit areas and among the poorer strata of society at a price lower than the market price. This is known as **issue price**. (ii) To resolve the problem of food shortage during adverse weather

conditions or during the period of calamity. (iii) To meet the prescribed minimum buffer stock norms for food security.

There is a general belief that high level of buffer stocks of foodgrains is undesirable and wasteful. The storage of large food stocks has been responsible for high carrying costs. The rising minimum support prices have raised the maintenance cost of procuring foodgrains by the government. Rising transportation and storage costs of the FCI are other contributing factors in this increase. Hence, freezing of MSP for a few years should be considered seriously.

- (b) Public Distribution System :** The food procured by the FCI is distributed through government regulated ration shops among the poorer section of the society. This is called the public distribution system (PDS). Ration shops are now present in most localities, villages, towns and cities. There are about 4.74 lakh ration shops all over the country. Ration shops, also known as **Fair Price Shops**, keep stocks of foodgrains, sugar and kerosene oil for cooking. These items are sold to people at a price lower than the market price. This system of public distribution has been in existence for the last six decades. Under this system, a ration card holder can buy a fixed amount of these items. There are three types of ration cards :

(a) **Antyodaya cards** for the poorest of the poor; (b) **BPL cards** for those below poverty line and (c) **APL cards** for all others.

Public distribution system is the most important step undertaken by the government towards ensuring food security. In the beginning, the coverage of PDS was universal. There was no discrimination between the poor and non-poor. But later, the policy related to PDS was revised to make it more efficient and targeted. In 1992, **Revamped Public Distribution System (RPDS)** was introduced in country's 1,700 blocks. The scheme was targeted to provide the benefits to remote and backwards areas. From June 1997, **Targeted Public Distribution System (TPDS)** was introduced to adopt the principle of targeting the '**poor in all areas**'. It was for the first time that a **dual price policy** was adopted for the poor and the non-poor. The government announced separate issue prices for both groups of people, i.e. people below poverty line (BPL families) and people above poverty line (APL families). Issue prices of wheat and rice were kept lower for BPL families compared to APL families.

### **Role of Food Corporation of India**

FCI has played a significant role in the country. Its main achievements are as follows :

- (i) It has enabled the government to build up adequate buffer stocks so

as to protect the interests of the farmers on the one hand and of the consumers on the other.

- (ii) With the increase in the levels of procurement, the country's dependence on imports of food grains has declined substantially.
- (iii) FCI has been able to arrest price declines to unremunerative levels.
- (iv) FCI has also helped the low income groups by supplying them foodgrains at affordable prices through the public distribution system.
- (v) FCI has played an important role in building up scientific storage capacity. This has not only enabled the government to build up buffer stocks, it has also saved the country from foodgrains losses.
- (vi) It plays an active role in the inland trade of foodgrains. Through its buffer stock operations, the government buys foodgrains from surplus areas and sells them in deficit areas.

In order to make the TPDS more focussed and targeted towards the poor, a special scheme **Antyodaya Anna Yojana** was launched in December 2000. The scheme envisages identification of 10 million poorest among the BPL families and providing them with 25 kg of food grains per family per month at a low price of ₹2 per kg for wheat and ₹3 per kg for rice. The AAY has been revamped and extended many times.

## National Food Security Act, 2013



The **National Food Security Act, 2013** (also **Right to Food Act**) is an Act of the Parliament of India which aims to provide subsidised food grains to approximately two thirds of India's 1.2 billion people. It was enforced in September, 2013.

Under the provisions of the Act, beneficiaries are to be able to purchase 5 kilograms per eligible person per month at subsidised prices specified by the state Government under the Targeted Public Distribution System.

This Act marks a paradigm shift in addressing the problem of food security – from the current welfare approach to a right-based approach. About two third (approx 67%) of the population will be entitled to receive subsidised foodgrains under Targeted Public Distribution System. In a country where almost 40% of children are undernourished the importance of the scheme increases significantly.

### Salient Features of Food Security Act

- 75% rural and 50% of the urban population are entitled for three years from enactment to five kg foodgrains per month i.e., rice, wheat and coarse grains (millet).
- The states are responsible for determining eligibility.
- Pregnant women and lactating mothers are entitled to a nutritious

“take home ration” of 600 Calories and a maternity benefit of at least ₹6,000 for six months.

- Children from 6 months to 14 years of age are to receive free hot meals or “take home rations”.
- The central government will provide funds to states in case of short supplies of foodgrains.
- The current foodgrains allocation of the states will be protected by the central government for at least six months.
- The state government will provide a food security allowance to the beneficiaries in case of non-supply of foodgrains.
- The Public Distribution System is to be reformed.
- The eldest woman in the household, 18 years or above, is the head of the household for the issuance of the ration card.
- There will be state and district-level redress mechanisms.
- State Food Commissions will be formed for implementation and monitoring of the provisions of the Act.
- The cost of the implementation is estimated to be 1.25 lakh crore, approximately 1.5% of GDP.
- The poorest who are covered under the Antodaya Yojana will remain entitled to the 35 kg of grains allotted to them under the mentioned scheme.

### Source of Foodgrains

The average rate of output growth

since the 1950s has been more than 2.5% per year and was greater than 3% during the 1980s, compared with less than 1% per annum during the period from 1900 to 1950. This means that the foodgrains production in India increased almost four times in the last fifty years. But despite this increase, a large number of people even today are not able to buy for themselves two decent meals a day. This is due to the gradual shift from the production of food crops towards the cultivation of crops used in industries, fruits, oilseeds etc. As a result, the net sown area under food crops has decreased considerably, leading to declining food production. Besides this, more and more land is being used to meet the demands of growing population for houses. As a result, agricultural land is being encroached upon.

The Economic survey makes an important note that food and nutritional security of India currently depends to a great extent on the production of wheat and rice. These two crops (rice + wheat) together constitute 78% of total foodgrains production in 2009-10, whereas coarse cereal constitute only 15% in the same year.

In India, for five consecutive years, from 2004-05 to 2008-09, foodgrains

production recorded an increasing trend. However, it declined to 218.11 million tonnes in 2009-10 due to severe drought conditions in various parts of the country. Again in the subsequent year 2010-11, due to normal monsoon, the country reached a significantly higher level of 244.78 million tonnes of foodgrains production.

#### Foodgrain production in India (million tonnes)

| Year                                      | Production |
|-------------------------------------------|------------|
| 2014-15                                   | 252.0      |
| 2015-16                                   | 251.5      |
| 2016-17                                   | 275.1      |
| 2017-18                                   | 285.0      |
| 2018-19                                   | 285.2      |
| 2019-20                                   | 297.5      |
| 2020-21                                   | 310.5      |
| 2021-22                                   | 315.7      |
| Source : As per Economic Survey (2022-23) |            |

India is an agricultural country. It is an important cultivator of rice, wheat, maize, millets, cotton, tea, rubber, coffee and spices in the world. In order to stand in the global competition, India has to use its vast potential of agriculture in a systematic and planned manner. Our requirement is to develop certain techniques (i.e. Green Revolution) which have been put in practice and have found success in the developing countries.

### IMPORTANT TERMS

- ❑ **Poverty** : It is a situation in which a person is unable to fulfil the minimum basic necessities of life like food, clothing, shelter for his or her sustenance.
- ❑ **Poverty Line** : It is a cut-off point on the line of distribution which divides the population as poor and rich.

- ❑ Two approaches to estimate the number of poor.
  - (a) Income method — in this method, income earned by a family is used.
  - (b) Expenditure method — expenditure incurred by a family on various items are used.
- ❑ **Poverty Alleviation Programmes** : Various measures and programmes adopted by the government to remove poverty. Examples are :
  1. Jawahar Gram Samridhi Yojana (JGSY)
  2. National Old Age Pension Scheme (NOAPS)
  3. National Family Benefit Scheme (NFBS)
  4. National Maternity Benefit Scheme
  5. Annapurna
  6. Integrated Rural Development Program(IRDP)
  7. Pradhan Mantri Gramin Awaas Yojana
  8. Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MNREGA)

## EXERCISES

### I. Choose the correct answer.



1. Absolute poverty is typically defined as:
  - (a) Poverty relative to the living standards of the majority population
  - (b) Poverty that remains constant over time
  - (c) Poverty that is defined by a specific income threshold
  - (d) Poverty that occurs in urban areas
2. The United Nations' Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) related to poverty aims to:
  - (a) Completely eliminate poverty in all its forms by 2030
  - (b) Reduce the global poverty rate by half by 2030
  - (c) Ensure that everyone earns a minimum income by 2030
  - (d) Promote economic growth without addressing poverty
3. The NFSA is implemented through the Targeted Public Distribution System (TPDS). What is the purpose of targeting beneficiaries in TPDS?
  - (a) To exclude certain groups from receiving benefits
  - (b) To ensure benefits reach those who need them the most
  - (c) To simplify the distribution process
  - (d) To provide benefits uniformly to all citizens
4. Which of the following states has the least percentage of people below poverty line?
  - (a) Punjab
  - (b) Kerala
  - (c) Gujarat
  - (d) West Bengal
5. There are two statements marked as **Assertion (A)** and **Reason (R)**. Mark your answer as per the codes provided below.

**Assertion (A) :** The National Food Security Act was enforced in September, 2013.

**Reason (R) :** This Act marks a paradigm shift in addressing the problem of food security — from welfare approach to a right-based approach.

- (a) Both (A) and (R) are true and (R) is the correct explanation of (A)
- (b) Both (A) and (R) are true but (R) is not the correct explanation of (A)
- (c) (A) is correct but (R) is wrong
- (d) (A) is wrong but (R) is correct

6. Consider the statements given below and choose the correct answer.

**Statement I :** The food procured by the FCI is distributed through government regulated ration shops among the poorer section of society.

**Statement II :** This is called the Public Distribution System (PDS).

- (a) statement I is correct and II is incorrect
- (b) statement I is incorrect and II is correct
- (c) Both I & II are incorrect
- (d) Both I & II are correct

7. Identify the type of economy as per the characteristics given below.

- I. Procurement of foodgrains from farmers at remunerative prices
  - II. Distribution of foodgrains to the vulnerable sections of the society at affordable prices
  - III. Maintenance of food buffers for food security and price stability
- (a) Increasing food supplies
  - (b) Institutional measures
  - (c) Buffer stock
  - (d) Food Management

## II. Very Short Answer Type Questions.

- 1. Define poverty.
- 2. What is poverty line?
- 3. What is meant by food security?



## III. Short Answer Type Questions.

- 1. Explain the vicious circle of poverty.
- 2. Explain the main features of MGNREGA.
- 3. Explain the four components of food security.



## IV. Long Answer Type Questions.

- 1. Explain different causes of poverty in India.
- 2. What steps have been taken for removing poverty?
- 3. Explain any three poverty removal methods started by Government.
- 4. Explain the following food security measures taken up by the government in India:
  - (a) Food Management
  - (b) Buffer Stock
  - (c) Public Distribution System



5. Explain the main features of the Food Security Act, 2013.
  6. What is meant by 'vulnerability' to poverty? Which economic categories are more vulnerable to poverty in India?
- [HOTS]**

### CASE — BASED QUESTIONS



In India, poverty has been a persistent challenge for many decades. To address this issue, the government has implemented various poverty alleviation programs.

One such program is the Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA), which guarantees 100 days of wage employment to rural households. Despite its implementation, poverty rates continue to be a concern in many regions.

1. What is the primary objective of the Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA)?
2. What challenges or limitations have been observed in the implementation of MGNREGA?

### THINGS TO DO

Write an essay suggesting various measures for removal of poverty in India.

# CHAPTER 19

## People as a Resource

### ROLE OF HUMAN RESOURCE



This chapter is an effort to explain population as an asset for the economy rather than a liability. Population becomes human capital when there is investment made in the form of education, training and medical care. Human capital is the stock of skill and productive knowledge embodied in them. Japan is an example of a nation which became a top industrialised nation by investing hugely in human capital. In our country, Kerala is such an example.

‘People as Resources’ is a way of referring to a country’s working people in terms of their existing productive skills and abilities. Looking at the population from this productive aspect emphasises its ability to contribute to the creation of the Gross National Product. Like other resources population also is a resource — a ‘human resource’. This is the positive side of a large population that is often overlooked when we look only at the negative side, considering only the problems of providing the population with food, education and access to health facilities. When the existing ‘human resource’ is further developed by becoming more educated and healthy, we call it ‘human capital formation’ that adds to the productive

power of the country just like ‘physical capital formation’.

Investment in human capital (through education, training, medical care) yields a return just like investment in physical capital. This can be seen directly in the form of higher incomes earned because of higher productivity of the more educated or the better trained persons, as well as the higher productivity of healthier people.

Population growth encourages the process of economic development of a country in the following ways:

- 1. Better Utilisation of Available Resources:** A country endowed with a vast amount of natural resources (e.g., land, minerals, forests etc.) cannot exploit them properly unless it has adequate supply of labour. But the supply of labour force comes from population growth. Nations like the USA, Germany, Japan, etc., could develop only because of their developed human resources.
- 2. Source of Demand :** Human beings make demand for the output of goods and services produced in the country. When population increases, the demand for various goods and services also increases.

An increase in population leads to increased demand for consumer goods like food items, clothes, watches, TV sets, medicine, cycles, cars, etc. The market for all such consumer goods will be expanded. The producers of these goods will be encouraged to produce more of such goods. Similarly, with the growth of population, the demand for various types of services such as transport services, electricity services, telecommunication services also increases. As a result, their production also increases. Not only this, when production of various goods and services increases, demand for capital goods (e.g., raw materials, machines etc.) also increases because capital goods are used in the production of other goods and services. Hence, the market for various types of goods and services is expanded.

**3. Greater Investments :** Population growth provides greater investment opportunities in a country. We know that population growth creates an expanded market for various goods and services. As a result, the businessmen become increasingly interested in investments in their fields of production. This leads to increase in the stock of capital (i.e. machines, factory-buildings, power plants, etc) in the country.

**4. Better Innovative Activities :** Population growth also leads to greater innovative activities in the

economy. The producers/entrepreneurs undertake new methods of production and make more and more efforts to bring new types of products in the market. They keep on doing all this to accommodate the preference patterns of various groups of consumers. For instance, in the car industry in India, different manufactures of cars are coming up with newer models so as to suit the requirements of different people.

**5. Formation of Human Capital :** If the growing population is provided with better education, better health and better environment, the quality of labour force may be improved to a great extent. Education (including training) increases the productivity of human beings. Similarly, if the health of the people is properly looked after and proper environment is given for work, people can definitely produce more and hence national production/output is increased. This healthy, educated and trained labour force is treated as human capital of the country which significantly helps in raising the national output. In this way population can help in the economic development of a country.

However, the above mentioned arguments in favour of population growth carry little significance in the Indian context. In India, population growth has become a big challenge

for the country. Instead of turning into resource, population growth has become a big hurdle in the way of economic development of the country. It is regarded as a curse due to the following reasons:

- (i) Despite considerable growth in national income, per capita income could not increase much.
- (ii) The proportion of non-productive consumers (which comprise children, old persons and a part of population in the age group of 15–64 which does not find employment) in the total population has decreased from 9.40 per cent in 2010 to 3.80 per cent in 2011. But, the burden of unproductive consumers upon the workforce is still high.
- (iii) Population growth is considered as one of the major causes of unemployment in India. The number of people has increased much faster than the increase in employment opportunities.
- (iv) Heavy pressure of population has led to the problem of over-crowding in cities, unplanned urbanisation, emergence of slums, etc.
- (v) Rapidly growing population lowers the land–man ratio. Per capita cultivated area is gradually on the decline in India. This stresses upon the necessity of reduction in population growth.
- (vi) In spite of large increases recorded

in foodgrain production, their per capita availability has not improved much. Although foodgrain production increased by 3.2% per cent per annum during 1950–2011, per capita availability of foodgrains increased only 1.7 per cent during this period. This marginal increase is largely attributable to the rapid growth of population.

All these factors lead us to the conclusion that population growth has been a retarding factor to economic development. It is the biggest road-block in the path of economic progress. Indian poverty is deeply rooted in population growth. It, therefore, becomes highly necessary to check population growth in India, otherwise a major part of gains of economic growth would be nullified by it. The Indian economy will be able to grow only at snail's pace.

### Quality of Human Resource



Human beings can be turned into resource only if their innovative aspects are developed. Qualitative aspects in human beings cannot be developed automatically. This requires investments in them. Education and health are the major human resources of a country. When we make adequate inputs of education and health in the people, the quality of human resource will definitely increase. They convert human beings into human capital. Human capital is the outcome of investments in education and health.

Human capital can be defined as the knowledge, ability, skill and physical capacity of the people which help them to produce more. And the process of improvement in human capital is termed as human capital formation or human resource development.

## Education

Education is the most important component of human resource development. An educated society facilitates development better than an illiterate one. It improves upon the level of understanding. It plays an important role in economic development of a country. It becomes clear from the following points :



- (i) Education modifies/improves human behaviour.
- (ii) It produces skilled and trained workers.
- (iii) It increases labour productivity. Primary education causes an increase of 40 per cent, secondary education 100 per cent and higher education 300 per cent in labour productivity.
- (iv) It develops personality and sense of national consciousness among the people which are important for rapid economic growth.
- (v) It promotes science and technology.

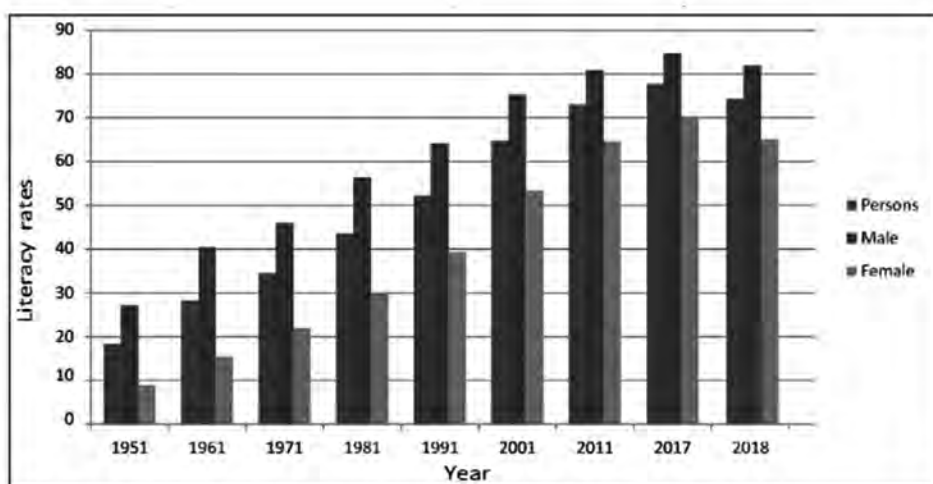
**Indicators of Educational Achievements in India :** We shall now consider how education of the population has

promoted human resource development.

**(i) Literacy Rate :** The most important factor in this regard is literacy rate (i.e. per cent of literate people). During the Five Year Plans education facilities have expanded at all levels in India. As a result, the literacy rate has risen from 16.67 per cent in 1951 to 74.04% in 2011. However, the situation on literacy front still remains disappointing. In the total world population, India's share is one-sixth, but among the world's illiterates her share is one-third. This underlines the need for improving literacy rate still further.

**(ii) Gross Enrolment Ratio:** Another important indication of our educational achievement is Gross Enrolment Ratio. The gross enrolment ratio had reached 95.7 per cent at the primary stage in 2000–01. The combined gross enrolment (primary, secondary and higher in 2011) was 69.80 per cent in India. China had a gross enrolment ratio of 71.65 per cent in 2011.

**(iii) Public Expenditure :** During the planning period, expenditure on education has steadily increased. The state of public finance improved significantly during the Tenth Five Year Plan (2002-2007). The Ninth Five Year Plan made ₹ 20,075 crores available for education. The



**Source:** Census of India, Office of Registrar General, India, 2021  
([censusofindia2021.com/literacy-rate-of-India](https://censusofindia2021.com/literacy-rate-of-India))

**Source :** Census of India, Office of Registrar General, India, 2021

Tenth Five Year Plan was approved for ₹ 25,737.25 crores. *The percentage of public expenditure on education to GNP is considered an indicator of state policy towards promoting education.* This percentage remained stagnant for three decades since the early 1950s. But it started increasing around the mid-1980s. There has also been some improvement in the share of elementary education. However, even now public expenditure on education in India is most inadequate. As against the goal of 6 per cent of GNP, total expenditure is about 4 per cent of GDP.

**(iv) Technical Education :** During the past five decades, there has been a spectacular expansion of technical education in the country. Though

the government claims that India enjoys the third position in the stock of scientific and technical manpower in the world but the **UNESCO** ranks India fifth in absolute numbers with 1.8 million persons. But if we compare this number of scientific personnel per thousand of population, India stands third from the bottom.

India's Green Revolution is a good example of how the input of greater knowledge in the form of improved production technologies can rapidly increase the productivity of scarce land resources. India's IT revolution is a striking instance of how the importance of human capital has come to acquire a higher position than that of material, plant and machinery.

## Number of Institutions of Higher Education, Enrolment and Faculty

| Year    | Number of Colleges | Number of Universities | Students    | Teachers in Universities & Colleges |
|---------|--------------------|------------------------|-------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1950-51 | 750                | 30                     | 2,63,000    | 24,000                              |
| 1990-91 | 7,346              | 177                    | 49,25,000   | 2,72,000                            |
| 1998-99 | 11,089             | 238                    | 74,17,000   | 3,42,000                            |
| 2010-11 | 33,023             | 523                    | 186,70,050  | 8,16,966                            |
| 2012-13 | 37,204             | 628                    | 223,02,938  | 9,25,396                            |
| 2014-15 | 40,760             | 711                    | 265,85,437  | 12,61,350                           |
| 2016-17 | 42,338             | 795                    | 294,27,158* | 14,70,190*                          |
| 2017-18 | 41,012             | 851                    | 366,42,378  | 12,84,957                           |
| 2018-19 | 39,931             | 993                    | 37,399,388  | 14,16,299                           |
| 2019-20 | 44,374             | 1,236                  | 38,275,207  | 12,07,204                           |

**Source :** UGC Annual Report 2019-20 and Selected Educational Statistics, Ministry of HRD.

## Health

Health is a yardstick of one's well-being. Efficiency of workers depends considerably on their health. Workers whose health is not good and fall sick quite often cannot do their job efficiently. Their efficiency, therefore, remains low. This adversely affects the national output. Good health improves the quality of life. Improved health contributes to economic growth in the following ways :

- (a) It increases the efficiency of workers.
- (b) It reduces production loss caused by worker's illness.
- (c) It permits the use of natural and other resources.
- (d) It increases the enrolment of children in schools and makes them better able to learn.



- (e) It spares/frees resources that otherwise would have to be spent on treating illness.

**Two things are necessary for good health :** (i) Balanced and nutritious diet and (ii) healthcare facilities. (i.e., hospitals, doctors, nurses, beds, equipments etc.) One thing may be noted here that mere presence of healthcare facilities (or health infrastructure) is not sufficient to have healthy people. These should be accessible to all the people. No individual should fail to secure them because of their inability to pay for them.

## Health Indicators

There has been considerable improvement in health in India since independence. This is supported by the following health indicators.



(i) **Life expectancy** : According to the census of 1951, the life expectancy at the time of birth in India was 37.2 years which increased to 66.8 years in 2011. This reflects considerable improvement in the country's health standard. The current life expectancy for India in 2023 is 70.42 years, a 0.33 increase from 2022. This was 70.19 years in 2022.

(ii) **Infant Mortality Rate** : Infant mortality rate is another important health indicator. It refers to the average number of death per thousand of children born, within the age of one year. Infant mortality rate in India was 127 in 1970 which has been brought down to 47.66 (Males – 46.18 Females – 49.14 ) in 2011.

The Infant Mortality Rate for India in 2021 was 28.771 deaths per 1000 live births, a 3.61% decline from 2020. The IMR for India in 2020 was 29.848 deaths per 1000 live births, a 3.48% decline from 2019.

(iii) **Control over Diseases** : During the planning period, the incidence of communicable and non-communicable diseases has been reduced. For instance, the incidence of malaria has come down to less than 2 million in 2002–03 against 6.47 million in 1976. By April 1977 small-pox had completely been eradicated from the country. Plague, which was a common killer disease, has been eradicated.

As a result of expansion of health care facilities, death rate has declined to 6.4 per thousand in 2011 against 30 per thousand in 1951.

These measures, which have been adopted, have increased the life expectancy to over 69.4 years in 2016. \*Infant mortality rate (IMR) has come down from 147 in 1951 to 36 in 2020. \*\*Crude birth rates have dropped to 20.0 (2018) and \*\*\*death rates to 6.2 (2018) within the same duration of time. Increase in life expectancy and improvement in childcare are useful in assessing the future progress of the country. Increase in longevity of life is an indicator of good quality of life marked by self-confidence. Reduction in infant mortality involves the protection of children from infection, ensuring the nutrition of both the mother and the child, and childcare.

Source : National Health Profile, 2021 mohfw.gov.in

Health indicators indicate a continuous improvement in life expectancy, infant mortality rate and death rate. Control of diseases and expansion in medical facilities have contributed to this improvement. But health conditions are far from satisfactory in India. Healthcare in the private sector is restricted to the India's rich. The poor can depend only on government hospitals. Hence, the role of government in providing healthcare is still important. But it is disappointing that public expenditure on health has been quite low, even less than one per cent of GDP.

### Health infrastructure over the years

|                                                                                                                        | 2014      | 2015      | 2016      | 2017      | 2018                                             | 2019                                             |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|--------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------|
| HSC/PHC/CHC                                                                                                            | 182,709   | 184,359   | 185,933   | 187,505   | 189,789                                          | 1,78548                                          |
|  Dispensaries and Hospitals           | 29,715    | 29,957    | 30,044    | 31,641    | 31,733                                           | 31,986<br>(under Ayush Management)               |
|  Beds (Govt.)                         | 675,779   | 754,724   | 6,34,879  | 710,761   | 713,986                                          | 818,396                                          |
|  Registered Doctor in Medical Council | 36,355    | 41,711    | 44,934    | 43,581    | 22,567<br>(registered allopathic doctor at PHCs) | 29,799<br>(registered allopathic doctor at PHCs) |
|  Nursing Personnel (ANM+NR&RM+LHV)    | 2,621,981 | 2,639,229 | 2,778,248 | 2,878,182 | 2,966,375                                        | 12,01,393<br>(2020)                              |

**Abbreviations(s):** SC:Sub centre, PHC: Primary Health Centre, CHC: Community Health Centre. ANM: Auxiliary Nurse Hydrides, RN&RM: Registered Nurse & Registered Midwives, LHV: Lady Health Visitors.  
**Source:** National Health Policy, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2020. Central Bureau of Health Intelligence. Ministry of Health and Family Welfare.



*Unemployment is a huge problem*



*Labourers at a Labour chowk*

## Unemployment

When a person is unable to find any gainful work or job, that person is said to be unemployed. A situation in which a section of people who are able and willing to work but do not find any gainful work is referred to as unemployment.



### Types of Unemployment

#### (a) **Disguised Unemployment**

**ment :** Disguised unemployment is one of the features of an underdeveloped country. It implies that more than the required number of people are engaged in a given job. For example, a field measuring one hectare needs the services of two persons for

its cultivation. If however five persons are engaged on this farm, then it means three persons (5-2) are in disguised unemployment. According to **Nurkse**, in predominantly agricultural underdeveloped countries some 20 to 25 per cent of the working force falls in the category of disguised unemployment. The absence of alternative employment opportunities in rural areas lead to this situation.

(b) **Seasonal Unemployment :**

There are some industries and occupations such as agriculture, catering trade in holiday resorts, agro-based industrial activities like sugar mills, rice mills, etc., in which production activities are seasonal in nature. So they offer employment for only a certain period of time in a year. During the off-season there is unemployment of people who are engaged in such type of work or activities which cater to seasonal demand. We may call it “seasonal unemployment.” Seasonal unemployment implies not only under utilisation of manpower but also of capital stock used in industries of seasonal nature.

(c) **Structural Unemployment :** This type of unemployment is related to the structural set-up of the economy and arises when :

- there is shortage of inputs like capital, land, etc.
- labour force is trained in

traditional industries but they do not possess any skill. So the type of labourers which are needed are not available.



*Labour force does not possess special skills*

- the social and economic structure of the country is backward and traditional.

Basically, India's employment is structural in nature. It is associated with inadequacy of productive capacity to create enough jobs for all those abled and willing to work.

(d) **Cyclical Unemployment :** When there is unemployment due to slackening of demand for goods, it is cyclical unemployment. This generally occurs in capitalist countries. This is a type of unemployment which is harmless and occurs for a short period only.

(e) **Technical Unemployment :** Like the cyclical employment this kind of employment is also harmless and is prevailed for a short period only. If unemployment occurs owing to change in technology, it is referred to as technical unemployment. For example, with the coming of

computers, many were rendered jobless.

### Adverse Effects of Unemployment

1. Unemployed persons cannot make their contribution to the country's production and it reduces the level of output in the economy.
2. They take their share from common pool even without contributing anything to it and thus reduce the per capita availability of goods and services for others. It lowers the standard of living of the country as a whole.
3. Unemployment leads to wastage of manpower resource. People who are an asset for the economy turn into a liability. There is a feeling of despair and hopelessness among the youth. People do not have enough money to support their family.
4. Unemployment tends to increase economic overload. The dependence of the unemployed on the working population increases. The quality of life of an individual as well as of society is adversely affected.
5. Unemployment has detrimental impact on the overall growth of an economy. Increase in unemployment is an indicator of a depressed economy.

### Causes of Unemployment in India

- Slow economic growth.
- Rapid growth of population.



- Agriculture as seasonal industry.
- Joint family system increases disguised unemployment.
- Increase in educated unemployed due to advanced technique and expansion in industry.
- Decline of cottage and small scale industries.
- Slow progress of large scale industries.
- Less saving and investment due to low capital formation.
- Caste system being a hindrance in the availability of job.
- Immobility of labour.
- Migratory character of labour.

### Population Growth and Unemployment



Population growth is considered as one of the major causes of unemployment in India. When the number of people increases in a country much faster than the increase in employment opportunities, that situation may lead to unemployment. This is what has happened in India.

The rapid population growth has created an army of labour force. Since the pressure of population on primary sector is already very high, the responsibility of creating new jobs is to be borne and shared by the secondary and tertiary sector. Effective and meaningful measures to control population are required. This needs to be accompanied by creation of necessary conditions for employment opportunities, particularly in rural areas.

## Strategies to Reduce Unemployment



**1. Employment oriented investment and production programme :** India's problem is two fold in nature. We have to increase both production and employment simultaneously. So adoption of labour intensive technique may prove more fruitful. Hence, more stress should be laid on cottage and small scale industries, agriculture based rural industries, irrigation, dairy development, housing construction etc.

**2. Encouragement for self-employment:** There is a large number of people who are self-employed, i.e. they do their own occupations. In future also, this sector has large possibilities. Therefore, the government should provide all sorts of facilities and encouragement like credit facilities, training facilities, electricity, marketing, etc.

**3. Skill development :** With the improvement in technology and change in the method of production, the demand for skilled labour has increased in the country. A skilled labourer is one who gets proper training and education to work in a specified field. **Skill development** means :

- to educate and provide specialised training to the labour force in order to increase their productivity.

- to ensure continuous employability of labour.
- to be able to absorb the new technologies at the work.
- to compete with the labour force of other developed countries.

**4. Entrepreneurial development :** Growth of employment involves setting up of new businesses, which needs capital, expertise and organising ability. Providing training for this purpose and implementing schemes to promote entrepreneurship has therefore been considered necessary for promoting self-employment.

**5. Other Measures :**

- increase in number of employment exchanges.
- reduction in economic inequalities.
- initiating of different types of small works suitable to different seasons.
- creation of employment opportunities suitable to women etc.

Recently the Planning Commission has set up two committees to suggest measures for employment generation. These are —

- Task force on employment generation headed by M.S. Ahluwalia.
- Special group on targeting ten million employment opportunities per year headed by Mr. S.P. Gupta.

## UNEMPLOYMENT AS A FORM OF NON-UTILISATION OF HUMAN RESOURCES



Because of **unemployment a significant part of human resources in the world is lying unutilised or under-utilised**. The issue no doubt, is linked to the rate of growth of population. But fundamentally it is a developmental problem.

The on-going reforms process throughout the world is further increasing

labour flexibility, thereby making the working population more vulnerable to the fast changing market conditions. Policy makers need to take appropriate action both in relation to employment policy and also in the regulation of labour markets. The policies relating to public investment, productive innovation and macro economic stabilisation need to place greater emphasis on job creation and also on implementing effective vocational training schemes.

### IMPORTANT TERMS

- ❑ **Human Resource** : Refers to human beings.
- ❑ **Human Capital** : Healthy, trained and educated labour force of a country.
- ❑ **Literacy Rate** : Refers to per cent of literate people.
- ❑ **Infant Mortality Rate** : Average number of deaths for thousand of children born within the age of one year.
- ❑ **Unemployment** : It is a situation when a person is able and is willing to work but could not find any opportunity to work.
- ❑ **Disguised Unemployment** : It is a situation which shows that more persons are employed on a job than are actually required.
- ❑ **Seasonal Unemployment** : It is caused by the fact that certain activities can be pursued only during specific season. For example, the demand for agricultural labourers increases at the time of sowing and harvesting. In between there is fall in employment.
- ❑ **Structural Unemployment** : It is caused when there is a change in structural set-up of the economy like shortage of inputs like capital, land, etc., or the social and economic structure of the country is backward and traditional.
- ❑ **Cyclical Unemployment** : It is due to slackening of demand of goods. It occurs in capitalist countries.
- ❑ **Technical Unemployment** : If employment occurs owing to change in technology then it is referred as technical unemployment, e.g., with coming of computers many were rendered jobless.
- ❑ **Frictional Unemployment** : The temporary unemployment which exists during the period of transfer of labour from one occupation to another. It is due to ignorance of labour about job opportunities.
- ❑ Special programmes undertaken by government to generate employment opportunities :

- (a) Employment oriented investment and production programme.
- (b) Encouragement for self-employment
- (c) Skill development
- (d) Entrepreneurial development
- (e) National rural employment programme.

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## EXERCISES

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### I. Choose the correct answer.



1. Which of the following best describes the concept of the demographic dividend?
  - (a) A situation where the working-age population is smaller than the dependent population
  - (b) A situation where the working-age population is larger than the dependent population
  - (c) A situation where the birth rate is higher than the death rate
  - (d) A situation where the elderly population is larger than the youth population
2. How does the quality of education and training impact human capital development?
  - (a) It has no significant impact on human capital.
  - (b) Higher quality education and training result in a higher level of human capital.
  - (c) It only affects the quantity of human capital, not the quality.
  - (d) It only affects individuals, not the overall workforce.
3. In the context of human resources, what is “brain drain”?
  - (a) A process where individuals gain knowledge and skills but remain unemployed
  - (b) A process where highly skilled individuals emigrate to other countries for better opportunities
  - (c) A process where individuals with low education levels are trained for specialized jobs
  - (d) A process where individuals invest in their health but do not contribute to the workforce
4. There are two statements marked as **Assertion (A)** and **Reason (R)**. Mark your answer as per the codes provided below.

**Assertion (A)** : Investment in human capital yields a return just like investment in physical capital.

**Reason (R)** : A country endowed with a vast amount of natural resources cannot exploit them properly unless it has enough supply of skilled labour.

  - (a) Both (A) and (R) are true and (R) is the correct explanation of (A)
  - (b) Both (A) and (R) are true but (R) is not the correct explanation of (A)

- (c) (A) is correct but (R) is wrong  
(d) (A) is wrong but (R) is correct
5. Consider the statements given below and choose the correct answer.
- Statement I :** Education is the most important component of human resource development.
- Statement II :** Education improves human behaviour, produces skilled and trained workers.
- (a) statement I is correct and II is incorrect  
(b) statement I is incorrect and II is correct  
(c) Both I & II are incorrect  
(d) Both I & II are correct
6. Evaluate the adverse effects of population growth by identifying the appropriate growth by identifying the appropriate statements among the following options.
- Despite considerable growth in national income, per capita income could not increase much
  - The population has increased much faster than increase in employment opportunities
  - Rapidly growing population increases the land-man ratio
  - In spite of large increases recorded in foodgrain production, their per capita availability has not improved much.
- (a) I and II are appropriate  
(b) I, II and III are appropriate  
(c) I, II and IV are appropriate  
(d) all statements are appropriate

## II. Very Short Answer Type Questions.

- What is human capital?
- Mention two things necessary for good health.
- Define unemployment.
- What is disguised unemployment?
- Define seasonal unemployment.
- Define structural unemployment.

## III. Short Answer Type Questions.

- Describe in brief the role of human resource in economic development.
- Explain the positive relationship between population growth and economic development of a country.
- Discuss the role of education in human capital formation.
- Why is population growth a major cause of unemployment in India?

## IV. Long Answer Type Questions.

- Differentiate between physical capital and human capital. How can human capital be created?



2. "The quality of human resource in India is very poor when compared with advanced nations." Justify the statement by giving examples. **[HOTS]**
3. 'Population is an asset, rather than a liability.' Explain.
4. How does good health contribute to economic development?

#### V. Case – Based Questions.



**Read the following passage and answer the questions given below:**

Investment in human resource (via education and medical care) can give high rates of return in future. This investment on people is the same as investment in land and capital. A child, too, with investments made on her education and health, can yield a high return in future in the form of higher earnings and greater contribution to the society. Educated parents are found to invest more heavily on the education of their child. This is because they have realised the importance of education for themselves. They are also conscious of proper nutrition and hygiene. They accordingly look after their children's needs for education at school and good health. A virtuous cycle is, thus, created in this case. In contrast, a vicious cycle may be created by disadvantaged parents, who themselves uneducated and lacking in hygiene, keep their children in a similarly disadvantaged state. Countries, like Japan, have invested in human resource. They did not have any natural resource. These countries are developed/rich. They import the natural resource needed in their country. How did they become rich/developed? They have invested on people, especially in the field of education and health. These people have made efficient use of other resources, like land and capital. Efficiency and the technology evolved by people have made these countries rich/developed.

1. How is the investment in human resource the same as investment in land and capital?
2. Describe the importance of education in human capital formation.
3. How have countries like Japan developed?
4. How is a vicious cycle created by disadvantaged parents?

#### THINGS TO DO

Hold a discussion in class on any one topic

- (i) Ways to control population growth.
- (ii) Ways of decreasing unemployment.