



Mount Abu Public School

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Class X

Social Studies

Dear Students

Welcome to the New Academic session 2020-21

Before you go through this e-lesson,ensure that you have read the lesson. Mark the technical words ,Find out their meaning and note them in your register. The Various You tube links provide in the lesson will help in comprehending the concepts & make it easier for you .

Happy learning

Rise of Nationalism in Europe

- Image of Frederic sorrieu
- Nationalism in Europe (France, Germany and Italy)
- Emergence of Nation States
- Replacing multi national dynasties
- French revolution effects
- Civil code of 1804
- Enthusiasm soon turned Hostility
- Treaty of Vienna 1815
- Aristocracy & New Middle class
- Liberal Nationalism
- New Conservatism after 1815
- Unification of Germany and Italy
- Revolutionaries

The Rise of Nationalism in Europe



Fig. 1 — The Dream of Worldwide Democratic and Social Republics – The Pact Between Nations, a print prepared by Frédéric Sorrieu, 1848.

The Rise of Nationalism in Europe

Frédéric Sorrieu vision of World

Frédéric Sorrieu, a French artist, in 1848 prepared a series of four prints visualising his dream of a world made up of democratic and Social Republics.

The first print shows the people of Europe and America marching in a long train and offering homage to the Statue of Liberty as they pass it. The torch of Enlightenment was carried by a female figure in one hand and the Charter of the Rights of Man in the other.

On the earth in the foreground lie the shattered remains of the symbols of absolutist institutions.

In Sorrieu's utopian vision, the people of the world are grouped as distinct nations, identified through their flags and national costume.

The procession was led by the United States and

In Sorrieu's utopian vision, the people of the world are grouped as distinct nations, identified through their flags and national costume.

The procession was led by the United States and Switzerland, followed by France and Germany. Following the German people are the people of Austria, the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies, Lombardy, Poland, England, Ireland, Hungary and Russia.

From the heavens above, Christ, saints and angels gaze upon the scene. They have been used by the artist to symbolise fraternity among the nations of the world.

During the nineteenth century, nationalism emerged as a force which brought huge changes in the political and mental world of Europe. The end result of these changes was the emergence of the nation-state.

The French Revolution and the Idea of the Nation

In 1789 Nationalism came with French Revolution and the political and constitutional changes led to the transfer of sovereignty from the monarchy to a body of French citizens. Various measures and practices were introduced such as the ideas of la patrie (the fatherland) and le citoyen (the citizen). A new French flag, the tricolour was chosen to replace the former one.

Democracy destroyed in France by Napoleon and the Civil Code of 1804 known as Napoleonic Code did away with all privileges based on birth, established equality before the law and secured the right to property.

Map

The Making of Nationalism in Europe

Germany, Italy and Switzerland were divided into kingdoms, duchies and cantons whose rulers had their autonomous territories.

The Aristocracy and the New Middle Class

The Aristocracy was the dominant class on the continent politically and socially. The majority of the population was made up of the peasantry. Industrialisation began in England in the second half of the eighteenth century. New social groups came into being: a working-class population and middle classes made up of industrialists, businessmen, professionals.

What did Liberal Nationalism Stand for?

The term 'liberalism' derives from the Latin root liber, meaning free. The right to vote and to get elected was granted exclusively to property-owning men. Men without property and all women were excluded from political rights. In 1834, a customs union or zollverein was formed at the initiative of Prussia and joined by most of the German states. The union abolished tariff barriers and reduced the number of currencies from over thirty to two.

A New Conservatism after 1815



Fig. 3 — Europe after the Congress of Vienna, 1815.

states. The union abolished tariff barriers and reduced the number of currencies from over thirty to two.

A New Conservatism after 1815

In 1815, European governments were driven by a spirit of conservatism. Conservatives believed in monarchy, the Church, social hierarchies, property and that the family should be preserved.

A modern army, an efficient bureaucracy, a dynamic economy, the abolition of feudalism and serfdom could strengthen the autocratic monarchies of Europe.

In 1815, representatives of the European powers – Britain, Russia, Prussia and Austria met in Vienna to draw up a settlement for Europe.

The Bourbon dynasty was restored to power and France lost the territories it had annexed under Napoleon.

The major issues taken up by the liberal-nationalists, who criticised the new conservative order, was freedom of the press.

The Revolutions of 1848

order, was freedom of the press.

The Revolutionaries

In 1815, secret societies were formed in many European states to train revolutionaries and spread their ideas. Revolutionary opposed monarchical forms, fight for liberty and freedom.

The Italian revolutionary Giuseppe Mazzini, born in Genoa in 1807, founded two more underground societies, first, Young Italy in Marseilles. Secondly, he founded Young Europe in Berne, whose members were like-minded young men from Poland,



*Fig. 7 — Giuseppe Mazzini and the founding of Young Europe in Berne 1833.
Print by Giacomo Mantegazza.*

Members were like-minded young men from Poland, France, Italy and the German states.

The Age of Revolutions: 1830-1848

In July 1830, Bourbon Kings were overthrown by liberal revolutionaries who installed a constitutional monarchy with Louis Philippe at its head. The July Revolution sparked an uprising in Brussels which led to Belgium breaking away from the United Kingdom of the Netherlands. In 1821, Greeks struggled for independence.

The Romantic Imagination and National Feeling

Culture played an important role in creating the idea of the nation: art and poetry, stories and music helped express and shape nationalist feelings.

Romanticism, a cultural movement which sought to develop a particular form of nationalist sentiment. Language also played an important role in developing

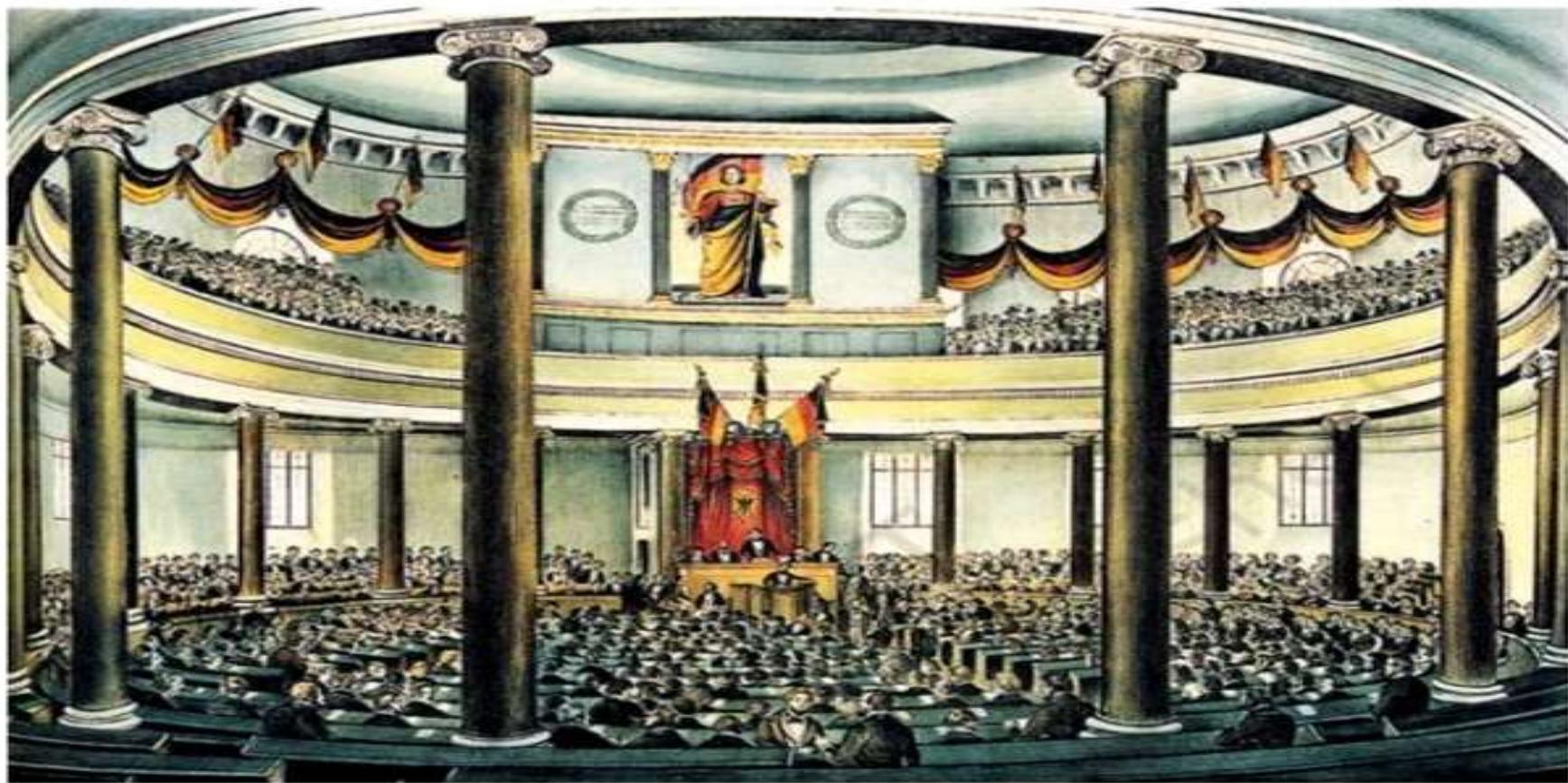
Russian language was imposed everywhere and in 1831 an armed rebellion against Russian rule took place which was ultimately crushed.

Hunger, Hardship and Popular Revolt

Europe faced economic hardships in the 1830s. The first half of the nineteenth century saw an enormous increase in population all over Europe. The rise of food prices or a year of bad harvest led to widespread pauperism in town and country. In 1848, food shortages and widespread unemployment brought the population of Paris out on the roads.

The Revolution of the Liberals

In 1848, a revolution led by the educated middle classes was underway. Men and women of the liberal middle class demanded creation of a nation-state on parliamentary principles – a constitution, freedom of the press and freedom of association.



*Fig. 10 — The Frankfurt parliament in the Church of St Paul.
Contemporary colour print. Notice the women in the upper left gallery.*

A large number of political associations came together in Frankfurt to vote for an all-German National Assembly. On 18 May 1848, 831 elected representatives marched to take their places in the Frankfurt parliament convened in the Church of St Paul.

The Constitution drafted for German nation was headed by a monarchy, subject to a Parliament. The Crown was offered to Friedrich Wilhelm IV, King of Prussia but he rejected it and joined other monarchs to oppose the elected assembly. The Middle Class dominated the Parliament and a large number of women participated in liberal movement.

Women formed their own political associations, founded newspapers and took part in

political meetings and demonstrations, but they were still denied suffrage rights during the election of the Assembly.



Fig. 11 — *The proclamation of the German empire in the Hall of Mirrors at Versailles, Anton von Werner. At the centre stands the Kaiser and the chief commander of the Prussian army, General von Roon. Near them is Bismarck. This monumental work (2.7m x 2.7m) was completed and presented by the artist to Bismarck on the latter's 70th birthday in 1885.*

political meetings and demonstrations, but they were still denied suffrage rights during the election of the Assembly.

In the years after 1848, the autocratic monarchies of Central and Eastern Europe began to introduce the changes that had already taken place in Western Europe before 1815. Thus, serfdom and bonded labour were abolished both in the Habsburg dominions and in Russia.

The Making of Germany and Italy

Germany – Can the Army be the Architect of a Nation?

Nationalism in Europe moved away after 1848 and Germany and Italy came to be unified as nation-states. Prussia took over the leadership of the movement for national unification. The architect of this process was its chief minister, Otto von Bismarck, carried out with the help of the Prussian army and bureaucracy.



Fig. 13 — Caricature of Otto von Bismarck in the German reichstag (parliament), from Figaro, Vienna, 5 March 1870.



Fig. 12 – Unification of Germany (1866-71).

chief minister, Otto von Bismarck, carried out with the help of the Prussian army and bureaucracy.

In January 1871, the Prussian King, William I, was proclaimed German Emperor. An assembly was held to proclaim the new German Empire. The process of nation-building demonstrated the dominance of Prussian state power. The currency, banking, legal and judicial system in Germany were modernised.

Map

Italy Unified

Italy was divided into seven states, in the middle of the nineteenth century, and among all the seven states, Sardinia-Piedmont, was ruled by an Italian princely house. All the regions were dominated by different kings. In the 1830's Giuseppe Mazzini formed a secret society



Fig. 14(a) – Italian states before unification, 1858.



Fig. 14(b) – Italy after unification.
 The map shows the year in which different regions (seen in Fig 14(a)) become part of a unified Italy.

Giuseppe Garibaldi (1807-82) is perhaps the most celebrated of Italian freedom fighters. He came from a family engaged in coastal trade and was a sailor in the merchant navy. In 1833 he met Mazzini, joined the Young Italy movement and participated in a republican uprising in Piedmont in 1834. The uprising was suppressed and Garibaldi had to flee to South America, where he lived in exile till 1848. In 1854, he supported Victor Emmanuel II in his efforts to unify the Italian states. In 1860, Garibaldi led the famous Expedition of the Thousand to South Italy. Fresh volunteers kept joining through the course of the campaign, till their numbers grew to about 30,000. They were popularly known as Red Shirts.

In 1867, Garibaldi led an army of volunteers to Rome to fight the last obstacle to the unification of Italy, the Papal States where a French garrison was stationed. The Red Shirts proved to be no match for the combined French and Papal troops. It was only in 1870 when, during the war with Prussia, France withdrew its troops from Rome that the Papal States were finally joined to Italy.



Fig. 15 – Garibaldi helping King Victor Emmanuel II of Sardinia-Piedmont to pull on the boot named 'Italy'. English caricature of 1859.

In 1860, they marched into South Italy and the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies and succeeded in winning the support of the local peasants. In 1861 Victor Emmanuel II was proclaimed king of united Italy.

The Strange Case of Britain

Great Britain was the model of the nation and prior to the eighteenth century there was no British nation. The nation became powerful as it steadily grew in wealth, importance and power.

The Act of Union (1707) between England and Scotland resulted in the formation of the 'United Kingdom of Great Britain' meant, in effect, that England was able to impose its influence on Scotland. In 1801, Ireland was forcibly incorporated

The Act of Union (1707) between England and Scotland resulted in the formation of the ‘United Kingdom of Great Britain’ meant, in effect, that England was able to impose its influence on Scotland. In 1801, Ireland was forcibly incorporated into the United Kingdom. The symbols of the new Britain – the British flag (Union Jack), the national anthem (God Save Our Noble King), the English language – were actively promoted.

Visualising the Nation

In the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries artists represented a country as a person and nations as female figures. During the French Revolution, female figures portray ideas such as Liberty, Justice and the Republic. Liberty is represented as a red cap, or the broken chain, Justice a blindfolded woman carrying a pair of weighing scales.

Nationalism and Imperialism

Meanings of the symbols

Attribute	Significance
Broken chains	Being freed
Breastplate with eagle	Symbol of the German empire – strength
Crown of oak leaves	Heroism
Sword	Readiness to fight
Olive branch around the sword	Willingness to make peace
Black, red and gold tricolour	Flag of the liberal-nationalists in 1848, banned by the Dukes of the German states
Rays of the rising sun	Beginning of a new era



Albania, Greece, Macedonia, Croatia, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Slovenia, Serbia and Montenegro.

Ottoman Empire made the Balkans region explosive and all through the nineteenth century they strengthened themselves through modernisation and internal reforms. Due to various conflicts the Balkan became an area of intense conflict.

During this period, intense rivalry built among the European powers over trade and colonies as well as naval and military might which led to a series of wars in the region and finally the First World War.

In 1914, Europe was disastered because of Nationalism, aligned with imperialism. Anti-

Nationalism, aligned with imperialism. Anti-imperial movements were developed but they all struggled to form independent nation-states. But the idea of 'nation-states' was accepted as natural and universal.

II. TOPICS –

Each topic has been converted into a concept map. It is a visual organization and representation of knowledge.

There are 10 concepts maps in all.

III. FURTHER REFERENCE –

Kindly watch the following videos for a better understanding.

<https://youtu.be/RDbqpAm0zxY>

<https://youtu.be/9IEPiTWRqMQ>

<https://youtu.be/U3s6qb2bRw>

Q.1 Describe French revolution?

Q.2 How did Nationalism and the idea of Nation state emerge ?

Q.3 Give a brief note on Napoleonic code .

Q.4 What were the highlights of Treaty of Vienna 1815 ?

Q.5 Describe the rise of Imperialism.

Q.6 What was the Romantic imagination about a Nation ?

Q.7 Write a short note on the Unification of Germany.

Q.8 Explain briefly the Unification of Italy.

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Happy learning

Nationalism in India

- **Idea of Satyagraha**
- **Rowlatt Act**
- **Jallianwala Bagh massacre**
- **Ganhiji Non cooperation movement**
- **Chauri chaura violence**
- **Bardoli Satyagraha**
- **Simon commission**
- **Civil Disobedience Movement**
- **Muslim league**
- **Nationalist**
- **Freedom fighters**

Some important dates

1918-19

Distressed UP peasants organised by Baba Ramchandra.

April 1919

Gandhian *hartal* against Rowlatt Act; Jallianwala Bagh massacre.

January 1921

Non-Cooperation and Khilafat movement launched.

February 1922

Chauri Chaura; Gandhiji withdraws Non-Cooperation movement.

May 1924

Alluri Sitarama Raju arrested ending a two-year armed tribal struggle.

December 1929

Lahore Congress; Congress adopts the demand for 'Purna Swaraj'.

1930

Ambedkar establishes Depressed Classes Association.

March 1930

Gandhiji begins Civil Disobedience Movement by breaking salt law at Dandi.

March 1931

Gandhiji ends Civil Disobedience Movement.

December 1931

Second Round Table Conference.

1932

Civil Disobedience re-launched.



Fig. 2 - Indian workers in South Africa march through Volksrust, 6 November 1913.

Mahatma Gandhi was leading the workers from Newcastle to Transvaal. When the marchers were stopped and Gandhiji arrested, thousands of more workers joined the satyagraha against racist laws that denied rights to non-whites.

Mahatma Gandhi and the idea of Satyagraha:

Mahatma Gandhi returned to India in 1915 from South Africa. Gandhiji's novel method of mass agitation is known as 'Satyagraha'. Satyagraha emphasized truth. Gandhiji believed that if the cause is true, if the struggle is against injustice, then physical force was not necessary to fight the oppressor. A satyagrahi can win the battle through non-violence. People, including oppressors, had to be persuaded to see the truth. Truth was bound to ultimately triumph.

In India the first was at Champaran in 1916 to inspire plantation workers to struggle against oppressive plantation system. In 1917 Satyagraha at Kheda to support peasants

Hind Swaraj':

The famous book written by Mahatma Gandhi, which emphasized non-cooperation to British rule in India.

New economic situation created in India by the First World War:

Manchester imports into India declined as the British mills were busy with war production to meet the needs of the army paving the way for the Indian mills to supply for the huge home market

As the war prolonged, Indian factories were called upon to supply war needs. As a result new factories were set up, new workers were employed and everyone was made to work longer hrs.

Cotton production collapsed and exports of cotton

everyone was made to work longer hrs.

Cotton production collapsed and exports of cotton cloth from Britain fell dramatically after the war, as it was unable to modernize and compete with US, Germany, Japan. Hence within colonies like India, local industrialists gradually consolidated their position capturing the home market.

The Rowlatt Act of 1919:

It gave the British government enormous power to repress political activities and allowed detention of political prisoners without trial for two years.

Jallianwala Bagh incident:

On 13th April 1919, a crowd of villagers who had come to attend a Baisakhi fair, gathered in the enclosed ground of Jallianwala Bagh. Being from outside the city many were not aware of the martial law that had



Fig. 3 – General Dyer's 'crawling orders' being administered by British soldiers, Amritsar, Punjab, 1919.

Jallianwala Bagh incident:

On 13th April 1919, a crowd of villagers who had come to attend a Baisakhi fair, gathered in the enclosed ground of Jallianwala Bagh. Being from outside the city, many were not aware of the martial law that had been imposed as a repressive measure. General Dyer with his British troops entered the park and closed the only exit point without giving any warning to the assembled people and ordered the troops to fire at the crowds, killing hundreds. This brutal act of General Dyer provoked unparalleled indignation. As the news of Jallianwala Bagh spread, crowds took to the streets in many North Indian towns. There were hartals, clashes and attacks on government buildings



Fig. 4 – The boycott of foreign cloth, July 1922. Foreign cloth was seen as the symbol of Western economic and cultural domination.

Effects of the Non-cooperation Movement on the economy of India:

Foreign goods were boycotted, liquor shops were picketed and foreign cloth was burnt. The import of foreign cloth halved between 1921-1922. Its value dropped from Rs 102 crore to Rs 57 crore. Many merchants and traders refused to trade in foreign goods or finance foreign trade. People began discarding imported clothes and wearing Indian ones. The production of Indian textile mills and hand looms went up. Use of khadi was popularized.

Non-cooperation Movement in the countryside:

In Awadh, the peasants' movement led by Baba Ramchandra was against talukdars and landlords who demanded extremely high rents and a variety of other ceases from the peasants. Peasants were forced to work in landlords' farms without any payment (beggar). Peasants had no security of tenure, thus being regularly evicted so that they could acquire no right over the leased land. The demands of the peasants were— reduction of revenue, abolition of beggar and social boycott of oppressive landlords.

In the Gudem Hills of Andhra Pradesh a militant guerrilla movement spread in the early 1920s against the closure of forest areas by the colonial government, preventing people from entering the forests to graze their cattle, or to collect fuel wood and fruits. They felt that their traditional rights were being denied.

For plantation workers in Assam, freedom meant the right to move freely in and out of the confined space in

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For plantation workers in Assam, freedom meant the right to move freely in and out of the confined space in which they were enclosed. It meant retaining a link with the village from which they had come. Under the Inland Emigration Act of 1859, plantation workers were not permitted to leave tea gardens without permission. In fact the permission was hardly granted. When they heard of the Non-Cooperation Movement, thousands of workers defied the authorities and left for their homes.

Slowing down of Non-cooperation Movement in cities:

Khadi cloth was more expensive than mill cloth and poor people could not afford to buy it. As a result they could not

Slowing down of Non-cooperation Movement in cities:

Khadi cloth was more expensive than mill cloth and poor people could not afford to buy it. As a result they could not boycott mill cloth for too long.

Alternative Indian institutions were not there which could be used in place of the British ones.

These were slow to come up.

So students and teachers began trickling back to government schools and lawyers joined back work in government courts.

Khilafat movement:

Khilafat movement was started by Mahatma Gandhi and the Ali Brothers, Muhammad Ali and Shaukat Ali in response to the harsh treatment given to the Caliph of Ottoman empire and the dismemberment of the Ottoman empire by the British.

Chauri Chaura incident:

In February 1922, Gandhiji decided to launch a no tax movement. The police opened fire at the people who were taking part in a demonstration, without any provocation. The people turned violent in their anger and attacked the police station and set fire to it. The incident took place at Chauri Chaura in Uttar Pradesh

When the news reached Gandhiji, he decided to call off the Non-cooperation movement as he felt that it was turning violent and that the satyagrahis were not properly trained for mass struggle.

Swaraj Party was founded by C.R. Das and Moti Lai Nehru for return to council Politics. Simon Commission 1928 and boycott. Lahore Congress session and demand for Purna Swaraj in 1929. Dandi march and the beginning of civil Disobedience movement.

Features of Civil Disobedience Movement:

In 1928, Vallabhbhai Patel led the peasant movement in Bardoli, a taluka in Gujarat, against enhancement of land revenue. Known as the Bardoli Satyagraha, this movement was a success under the able leadership of Vallabhbhai Patel. The struggle was widely publicised and generated immense sympathy in many parts of India.

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Features of Civil Disobedience Movement:

People were now asked not only to refuse cooperation with the British but also to break colonial laws.

Foreign cloth was boycotted and people were asked to picket liquor shops.

Peasants were asked not to pay revenue and chaukidari taxes.

Students, lawyers and village officials were asked not to attend English medium schools, colleges, courts and offices.

English medium schools, colleges, courts and offices.

‘Salt March’:

On 31st January, 1930 Mahatma Gandhi sent a letter to Viceroy Irwin stating eleven demands, one of which was the demand to abolish Salt Tax. Salt was one of the most essential food items consumed by the rich and poor alike and a tax on it was considered an oppression on the people by the British Government. Mahatma Gandhi’s letter was an ultimatum and if his demands were not fulfilled by March 11, he had threatened to launch a civil disobedience campaign. So, Mahatma Gandhi started his famous Salt March accompanied by 78 of his trusted volunteers. The march was over 240 miles, from Gandhiji’s ashram in Sabarmati to the Gujarati coastal town of Dandi. The volunteers walked for 24 days, about 10 miles a day. Thousands came to hear Mahatma Gandhi wherever he stopped, and he told them what he meant by Swaraj and urged them to peacefully defy the British. On 6th April, he reached Dandi, and ceremonially violated the law, manufacturing salt by boiling sea water. This marked the beginning of the Civil Disobedience Movement.

Who participated in the movement?

Civil Disobedience Movement came into force in various parts of the country. Gandhiji led the salt march from Sabarmati Ashram to Dandi with his followers starting the Civil Disobedience Movement. In the countryside, the rich Patidars of Gujarat and Jats of Uttar Pradesh were active in the movement. As rich communities were very hard hit by the trade depression and falling prices, they became enthusiastic supporters of the Civil Disobedience Movement. Merchants and industrialists supported the movement by giving financial assistance and also by refusing to buy and sell the imported goods. The industrial working class of Nagpur region also participated in the Civil Disobedience Movement. Railway workers, dock workers, mineral of Chhota Nagpur, etc. participated in protest rallies and boycott campaigns

Limits of the movement

less participation by untouchables—Ambedker for separate electorate and Poona pact of 1932, Luke warm response by some Muslim Political Organization.

Provisions of Poona pact of 1932:

Signed between Dr. Ambedkar and Gandhiji. It gave depressed classes reserved seats in central provincial councils but they were to be voted by the general electorate.

united struggle but a variety of cultural processes captured the imagination of Indians and promoted a sense of collective belonging:

Use of figures or images: The identity of India came to be visually associated with the image of Bharat Mata. Devotion to the mother figure came to be seen as an evidence of one's nationalism

Indian folklore: Nationalists started recording and using folklore's and tales, which they believed, gave a true picture of traditional culture that had been corrupted and damaged by outside forces. So preservation of these became a way to discover one's national identity and restore a sense of pride in one's past.

Use of icons and symbols in the form of flags: Carrying the tricolor flag and holding it aloft during marches

use of icons and symbols in the form of flags. Carrying the tricolor flag and holding it aloft during marches became a symbol of defiance and promoted a sense of collective belonging.

Reinterpretation of history: Indians began looking into the past to rediscover the glorious developments in ancient times in the field of art, science, mathematics, religion and culture, etc. This glorious time was followed by a history of decline when India got colonized, as Indian history was miserably written by the colonizers.

Quit India Movement

The failure of the Cripps Mission and the effects of World War II created widespread discontentment in India. This led Gandhiji to launch a movement calling for complete withdrawal of the British from India. The Congress Working Committee, in its meeting in Wardha on 14 July 1942, passed the historic 'Quit India' resolution demanding the immediate transfer of power to Indians and quit India. On 8 August 1942 in Bombay, the All India Congress Committee endorsed the resolution which called for a non-violent mass struggle on the widest possible scale throughout the country. It was on this occasion that Gandhiji delivered the famous 'Do or Die' speech. The call for 'Quit India' almost brought the state machinery to a standstill in large parts of the country as people voluntarily threw themselves into the thick of the movement. People observed *hartals*, and demonstrations and processions were accompanied by national songs and slogans. The movement was truly a mass movement which brought into its ambit thousands of ordinary people, namely students, workers and peasants. It also saw the active participation of leaders, namely, Jayprakash Narayan, Aruna Asaf Ali and Ram Manohar Lohia and many women such as Matangini Hazra in Bengal, Kanaklata Barua in Assam and Rama Devi in Odisha. The British responded with much force, yet it took more than a year to suppress the movement.

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<https://youtu.be/N5atNMjdaPc>

<https://youtu.be/n7zbQtpFnFE>

Assignment

Q.1 Write a short note on the Idea of Satyagraha.

Q.2 What do you mean by Rowlatt act ?

Q.3 Briefly explain the Non cooperation movement.

Q.4 What was Bardoli Satyagraha?

Q.5 Write a short note on Simon Commission.

Q.6 Briefly Explain the Civil Disobedience Movement ?

Q.7 Write a Short note on Jallianwala Bagh massacre.



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GEOGRAPHY

Chapter 1 – Resources and Development

Guidelines

- Refer to the content given below and view the links
- These notes will help you to understand the concept and complete the assignment that follows
- The assignment is to be done in the geography notebook
- Please read the geography NCERT book before you begin answering

Instructional Aids / Resources

NCERT links are given below:

- [RESOURCE AND DEVELOPMENT \(FULL CHAPTER\) || CLASS 10 CBSE - YouTube](#)
- [Resources and Development - ep01 - BKP | class 10 geography chapter 1 in hindi full explanation - YouTube](#)
- [Resources and Development CBSE Class 10 | Full Chapter | Unacademy Class 9 & 10 | Shubham Pathak - YouTube](#)

Learning outcomes

Each student will be able to know about:

- Resources
- Classification of resources
- Development resources
- Resource planning
- Land resources

Subtopics:

- On the Basis of Origin – Biotic and Abiotic
- On the Basis of Exhaustibility – Renewable and Non-Renewable
- On the Basis of Ownership – Individual, Community, National and International
- Land Use Pattern in India
- Different soils in India

LESSON DEVELOPMENT

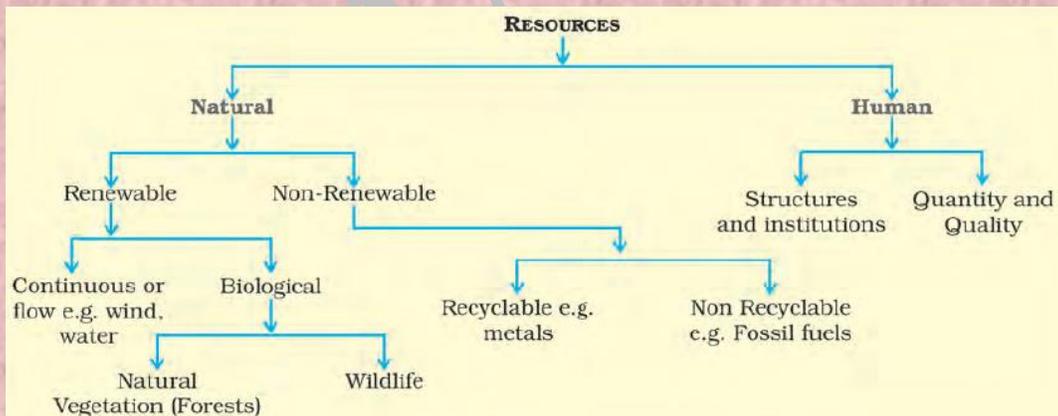
Resources

Everything in our environment which can be used to satisfy our needs and is technologically accessible, economically feasible and culturally acceptable is termed as '**Resource**'. Human beings themselves are essential components of resources. They transform material available in the environment into resources and use them.

Classification of Resources

Resources can be classified in the following ways:

- On the basis of origin – biotic and abiotic
- On the basis of exhaustibility – renewable and non-renewable
- On the basis of ownership – individual, community, national and international
- On the basis of the status of development – potential, developed stock and reserves



- On the Basis of Origin – Biotic and Abiotic

Biotic Resources are obtained from the biosphere and have life.

Eg: Human beings, flora and fauna, fisheries, livestock etc.

Abiotic Resources: All those things which are composed of non-living things are called abiotic resources.

Eg: rocks and metals.

- On the Basis of Exhaustibility – Renewable and Non-Renewable

The resources which can be renewed or reproduced by physical, chemical or mechanical processes are known as **Renewable or Replenishable Resources**. The renewable resource may further be divided into continuous or flow.

Eg: Solar and wind energy, water, forests and wildlife, etc.

Non-Renewable Resources occur over a very long geological time. These resources take millions of years in their formation. Some of the resources like metals are recyclable and some like fossil fuels cannot be recycled and get exhausted with their use.

Eg: Minerals and fossil fuels.

(c) On the Basis of Ownership – Individual, Community, National and International

Individual Resources are owned privately by individuals. In villages people own lands whereas in urban areas people own plots, houses and other properties.

Eg: Plantation, pasture lands, ponds, water in wells etc.

Community Owned Resources are accessible to all the members of the community.

Eg: Grazing grounds, burial grounds, public parks, picnic spots, playgrounds etc.

National Resources are owned by a nation or country. All the minerals, water resources, forests, wildlife, land within the political boundaries and oceanic area up to 12 nautical miles (22.2 km) from the coast termed as territorial water and resources therein belong to the nation.

Eg: Roads, canals, railways etc.

International Resources are regulated by international institutions. The oceanic resources beyond 200 nautical miles of the *Exclusive Economic Zone* belong to open ocean and no individual country can utilise these without the concurrence of international institutions.

(d) On the Basis of the Status of Development – Potential, Developed Stock and Reserves

Potential Resources are the resources which are found in a region but have not been utilised.

Eg: Rajasthan and Gujarat have enormous potential for the development of wind and solar energy, but so far these have not been developed properly.

Developed Resources: Resources which are surveyed and their quality and quantity have been determined for utilisation. The development of resources depends on technology and level of their feasibility.

Materials in the environment which have the potential to satisfy human needs but human beings do not have the appropriate technology to access these, are called **Stock**.

Eg: Hydrogen can be used as a rich source of energy. But we do not have advanced technology to use it.

Reserves are the subset of the stock, which can be put into use with the help of existing technical 'know-how' but their use has not been started. These can be used for meeting future requirements.

Eg: Water in the dams, forests etc. is a reserve which can be used in the future.

Development of Resources

Resources have been used by human beings indiscriminately and this has led to the following major problems.

- Depletion of resources for satisfying the greed of a few individuals.
- Accumulation of resources in a few hands, which, in turn, divided the society into two segments i.e rich and poor.
- It has led to global ecological crises such as global warming, ozone layer depletion, environmental pollution and land degradation.

Resource planning is essential for the sustainable existence of all forms of life. **Sustainable Economic Development** means “development should take place without damaging the environment, and development in the present should not compromise with the needs of future generations.”

Resource Planning

In India, there are some regions which can be considered self-sufficient in terms of the availability of resources and there are some regions which have acute shortage of some vital resources. This calls for balanced resource planning at the national, state, regional and local levels.

Resource Planning in India

Resource planning is a complex process which involves:

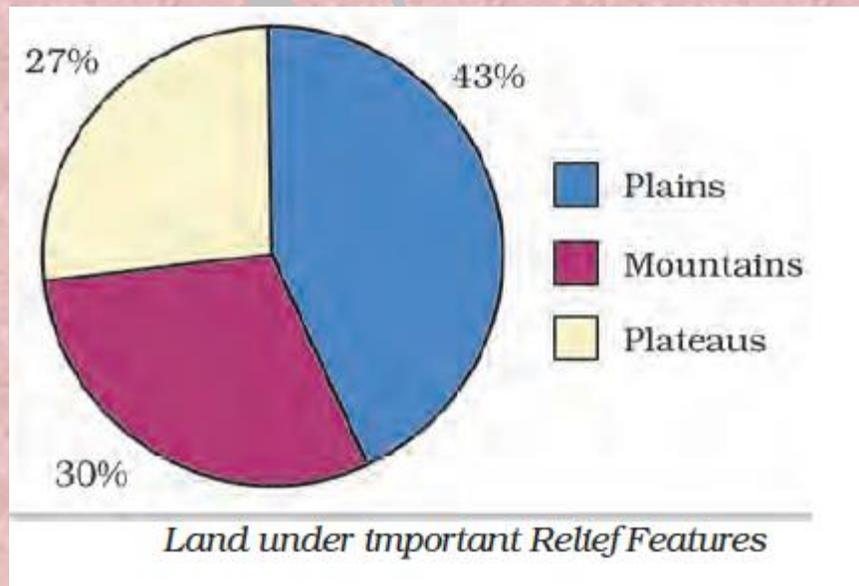
- (i) Identification and inventory of resources across the regions of the country. This involves surveying, mapping and qualitative and quantitative estimation and measurement of the resources.
- (ii) Evolving a planning structure endowed with appropriate technology, skill and institutional set up for implementing resource development plans.
- (iii) Matching the resource development plans with overall national development plans.

Resources can contribute to development only when they are accompanied by appropriate technological development and institutional changes. India has made concerted efforts towards achieving the goals of resource planning, right from the First Five Year Plan launched after Independence.

To overcome irrational consumption and over-utilisation of resources, resource conservation at various levels is important.

Land Resources

Land is a natural resource of utmost importance. It supports natural vegetation, wildlife, human life, economic activities, transport and communication systems. India has land under a variety of relief features, namely; mountains, plateaus, plains and islands as shown below:



Land Utilisation

Land resources are used for the following purposes:

1. Forests
2. Land not available for cultivation

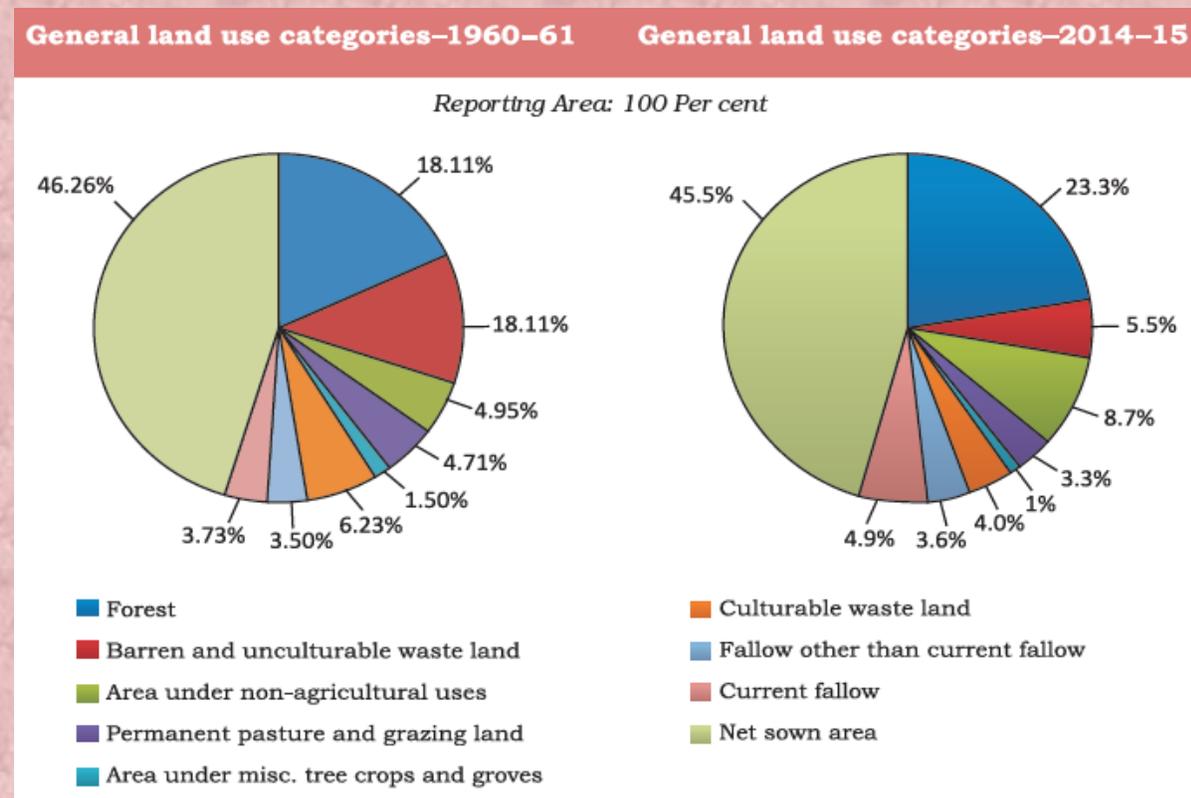
3. a) Barren and wasteland
b) Land put to non-agricultural uses
4. Fallow lands
5. Other uncultivated lands (excluding fallow land)
6. Net sown area
- 7.

Land Use Pattern in India

The use of land is determined

1. **Physical factors:** such as topography, climate, soil types
2. **Human factors:** such as population density, technological capability and culture and traditions etc.

The data below represents the land use pattern in India.



Waste land is the land put to other non-agricultural uses which include rocky, arid and desert areas, roads, railways, industry etc. Continuous use of land over a long period of time without taking appropriate measures to conserve and manage it, has resulted in land degradation.

Land Degradation and Conservation Measures

Human activities such as deforestation, overgrazing, mining and quarrying have contributed significantly to land degradation. Mining sites leave deep scars and traces of over-burdening the land. In recent years, industrial effluents as waste have become a major source of land and water pollution in many parts of the country.

Some of the ways through which we can solve the problems of land degradation are:

1. Afforestation and proper management of grazing.

2. Planting of shelter belts of plants.
3. Stabilisation of sand dunes by growing thorny bushes.
4. Proper management of waste lands.
5. Control of mining activities.
6. Proper discharge and disposal of industrial effluents and wastes after treatment.

Soil as a Resource

Soil is the most important renewable natural resource. It is the medium of plant growth and supports different types of living organisms on the earth.

1. It takes millions of years to form soil upto a few cms in depth. Various forces of nature such as change in temperature, actions of running water, wind and glaciers, activities of decomposers etc contribute to the formation of soil.
2. Parent rock or bedrock, climate, vegetation and other forms of life and time are important factors in the formation of soil.
3. Chemical and organic changes which take place in the soil play an important role.
4. Soil also consists of organic (humus) and inorganic materials.

Classification of Soils

On the basis of the factors responsible for soil formation, colour, thickness, texture, age, chemical and physical properties, the soils of India are classified in different types as mentioned below.

Alluvial Soils

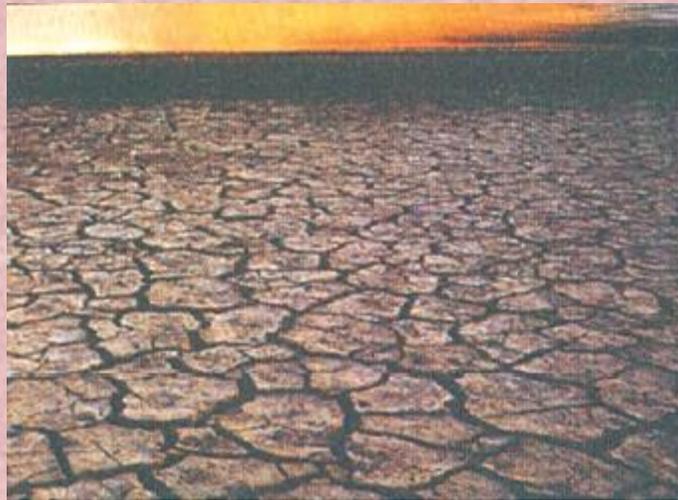
1. The entire northern plains are made of alluvial soil.
2. The Alluvial Soil is deposited by 3 important Himalayan river systems – the Indus, the Ganga and the Brahmaputra.
3. It is also found in Rajasthan, Gujarat and eastern coastal plains particularly in the deltas of the Mahanadi, the Godavari, the Krishna and the Kaveri rivers.
4. The alluvial soil consists of various proportions of sand, silt and clay. As we move inland towards the river valleys, soil particles appear to be bigger in size whereas in the upper side of the river valley, the soils are coarse.
5. Based on age, Alluvial soils can be classified as:
6. **Old Alluvial (Bangar):** The Bangar soil has a higher concentration of kanker nodules than the Khadar.
7. **New Alluvial (Khadar):** It has more fine particles and is more fertile than the Bangar.
8. Alluvial soils are very fertile. These soils contain an adequate proportion of potash, phosphoric acid and lime, which are ideal for the growth of sugarcane, paddy, wheat and other cereal and pulse crops.



Black Soil

1. This soil is black in colour and is also known as **regur soil**. Climatic conditions along with the parent rock material are the important factors for the formation of black soil.
2. The soil is ideal for growing cotton and is also known as black cotton soil.

3. This type of soil is typical of the Deccan trap (Basalt) region spread over northwest Deccan plateau and is made up of lava flows.
4. The soil covers the plateaus of Maharashtra, Saurashtra, Malwa, Madhya Pradesh and Chhattisgarh and extends in the south-east direction along the Godavari and the Krishna valleys.
5. The black soils are made up of extremely fine i.e. clayey material and well-known for their capacity to hold moisture.
6. Black soil is nutrients rich and contains calcium carbonate, magnesium, potash and lime.
7. The soil is sticky when wet and difficult to work on unless tilled immediately after the first shower or during the pre-monsoon period.



Red and Yellow Soils

1. This type of soil develops on crystalline igneous rocks in areas of low rainfall in the eastern and southern parts of the Deccan plateau.
2. These soils develop a reddish colour due to diffusion of iron in crystalline and metamorphic rocks. It looks yellow when it occurs in a hydrated form.
3. Found in parts of Odisha, Chhattisgarh, southern parts of the middle Ganga plain and along the piedmont zone of the Western Ghats.



Laterite Soil

1. The laterite soil develops under tropical and subtropical climate with the alternate wet and dry season.
2. This soil is the result of intense leaching due to heavy rain.

3. Lateritic soils are acidic ($\text{pH} < 6.0$) in nature and generally deficient in plant nutrients. This type of soil is found mostly in Southern states, Western Ghats region of Maharashtra, Odisha, some parts of West Bengal and North-east regions.
4. The soil supports deciduous and evergreen forests but humus poor.
5. This soil is very useful for growing tea and coffee.



Arid Soils

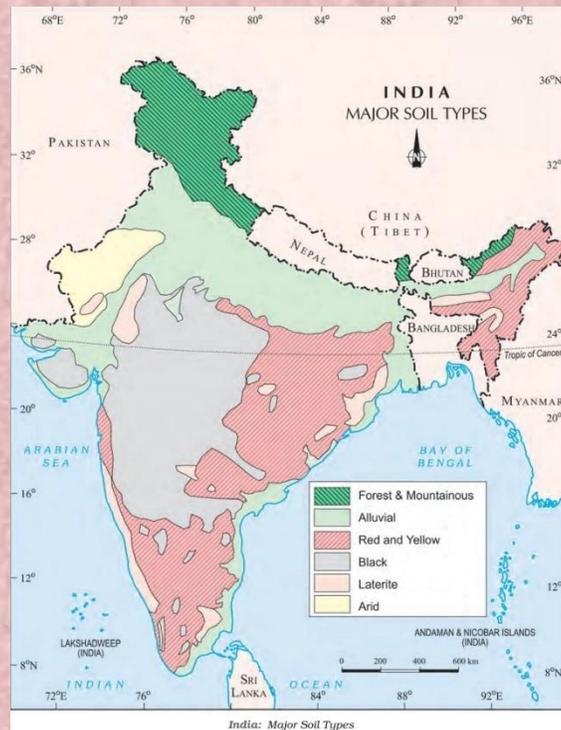
1. Arid soils range from red to brown in colour.
2. This soil is generally sandy in texture and saline in nature. In some areas, the salt content is very high and common salt is obtained by evaporating the water.
3. Arid soil lacks humus and moisture.
4. The lower horizons of the soil are occupied by **Kankar** because of the increasing calcium content downwards. The Kankar layer formations in the bottom horizons restrict the infiltration of water.



Forest Soils

1. These soils are found in the hilly and mountainous areas.
2. The soil texture is loamy and silty in valley sides and coarse grained in the upper slopes.
3. In the snow covered areas of Himalayas, these soils experience denudation and are acidic with low humus content. The soil is fertile on the river terraces and alluvial fans.

The map below shows the different types of soils found in India.



Soil Erosion and Soil Conservation

The denudation of the soil cover and subsequent washing down is described as soil erosion. The soil erosion is caused due to human activities like deforestation, over-grazing, construction and mining etc. Also, there are some natural forces like wind, glacier and water which lead to soil erosion. Soil erosion is also caused due to defective methods of farming.

The running water cuts through the clayey soils and makes deep channels as gullies. The land becomes unfit for cultivation and is known as **bad land**. When water flows as a sheet over large areas down a slope and the topsoil is washed away, it is known as **sheet erosion**. Wind blows loose soil off flat or sloping land known as **wind erosion**.

Different Ways for Soil Conservation

1. Ploughing along the contour lines decelerate the flow of water down the slopes. This is called **Contour Ploughing**.
2. **Terrace cultivation** restricts erosion. This type of agriculture practice is done in Western and Central Himalayas.
3. When a large field is divided into strips and strips of grass are left to grow between the crops. Then, this breaks up the force of the wind. This method is known as **Strip Cropping**.
4. Planting lines of trees to create shelter helps in the stabilisation of sand dunes and in stabilising the desert in western India. Rows of such trees are called **Shelter Belts**

1.Society consists of people and people in the society need many goods and services in their everyday life including food, clothing, shelter, transport facilities like, roads, railways and various other services like that of teachers and doctors.

ASSIGNMENT

Question 1. Which one of the following type of resource is iron ore?

- (a) Renewable
- (b) Biotic
- (c) Flow
- (d) Non-renewable

Question 2. In which of the following States is black soil found?

- (a) Jammu & Kashmir
- (b) Gujarat
- (c) Rajasthan
- (d) Jharkhand

Question 3.

What do you understand by a 'Resource'? Give examples. (2015) Question 4.

Question 4

Explain the classification of resources on the basis of origin and give one example of each.

Question 5.

Write two characteristics of non-renewable resources and write their two broad categories with examples.

Question 6.

Distinguish between the following:

1. Potential and Developed Resources;
2. Stock and Reserves.

Question 7.

List the problems which resulted due to indiscriminate use of resources by man.

Question 8.

"Resource planning is essential for sustainable existence." Discuss.

Question 9.

What do you understand by 'sustainable economic development'?

Question 10.

"India has enormous diversity in the availability of resources." Name four varied regions to justify this statement.

Question 11.

Explain three stages of 'resource planning.' (2015)

Question 12.

What do you understand by 'conservation of resources'? Why is it necessary to conserve our resources? Give three reasons.

Question 13.

Explain the concept of resource conservation as voiced by Gandhiji. (2012)

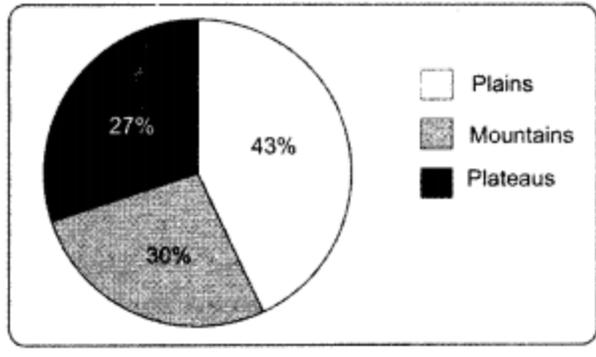
Question 14.

Look at the picture and name three major relief features of India and their respective share in the total area.

Answer:

Three major relief features:

1. Plains — 43%
2. Mountains — 30%
3. Plateaus — 27%



Question 15.

Distinguish between each of the following:

- (a) Current fallow and other than current fallow land
- (b) Waste-land and culturable waste-land
- (c) Net sown area and gross cropped area.

GEOGRAPHY

Chapter 4 – Agriculture

Guidelines

- Refer to the content given below and view the links
- These notes will help you to understand the concept and complete the assignment that follows
- The assignment is to be done in the geography notebook
- Please read the geography NCERT book before you begin answering

Instructional Aids / Resources

NCERT links are given below:

- [AGRICULTURE - FULL CHAPTER CLASS 10 GEOGRAPHY CHAPTER-4 - YouTube](#)
- [\(20\) CBSE Class 10: Agriculture - L 1 | Geography | Aagaz | Unacademy Class 9 and 10 | Shubham Pathak - YouTube](#)
- [\(20\) CBSE Class 10: Agriculture - L 2 | Geography | Aagaz | Unacademy Class 9 and 10 | Shubham Pathak - YouTube](#)

Learning outcomes

Each student will be able to know about:

- Types of farming
- Cropping pattern
- Major crops in India
- Food crops other than grains
- Technological and institutional reforms
- Contribution of Agriculture to the National Economy, Employment and Output

Subtopics:

- Primitive subsistence farming
- Intensive subsistence farming
- Commercial farming

LESSON DEVELOPMENT

Types of Farming

The cultivation methods depend upon the characteristics of the physical environment, technological know-how and socio-cultural practices. Farming varies from subsistence to commercial type. In different parts of India, the following farming systems are practised.

Primitive Subsistence Farming

It is a 'slash and burn' agriculture. Farmers clear a patch of land and produce cereals and other food crops. When the soil fertility decreases, the farmers shift and clear a fresh patch of land for cultivation. It is known by different names in different parts of the country. It is known as **jhumming** in north-eastern states.

- Land productivity is low in this type of agriculture.
- This type of farming depends on monsoon.
- This farming is practised in a few parts of India.

Intensive Subsistence Farming

- This type of farming is practised in areas of high population pressure on land.
- It is labour-intensive farming, where high doses of biochemical inputs and irrigation are used for higher production.

Commercial Farming

This type of farming uses higher doses of modern inputs such as high yielding variety (HYV) seeds, chemical fertilisers, insecticides and pesticides to obtain higher productivity.

Plantation is a type of commercial farming in which a single crop is grown on a large area. Plantations cover large tracts of land, using capital intensive inputs, with the help of migrant labourers. All the produce is used as a raw material in industries.

Eg: Tea, Coffee, Rubber, Sugarcane, Banana.

Cropping Pattern

India has three cropping seasons:

1. Rabi
2. Kharif
3. Zaid

	Rabi	Kharif	Zaid
Sowing Season	Winter from October to December	Beginning of the rainy season between April and May	In between the Rabi and the Kharif seasons, there is a short season during the summer months known as the Zaid season (in the months of March to July)
Harvesting Season	Summer from April to June	September-October	
Important Crops	Wheat, Barley, Peas, Gram and Mustard.	Paddy, Maize, Jowar, Bajra, Tur (Arhar), Moong, Urad, Cotton, Jute, Groundnut and Soyabean.	Watermelon, Muskmelon, Cucumber, Vegetables and Fodder crops

Major Crops in India

A variety of food and non-food crops are grown in different parts of India, depending upon the variations in soil, climate and cultivation practices. Major crops grown in India are:

- Rice
- Wheat
- Millets
- Pulses
- Tea
- Coffee
- Sugarcane
- oil seeds
- Cotton
- Jute

We will discuss all of these one by one, in detail.

Rice

1. It is a kharif crop.
2. It requires high temperature and high humidity with annual rainfall above 100 cm.
3. India is the second largest producer of rice in the world after China.
4. It is grown in the plains of north and north-eastern India, coastal areas and the deltaic regions.

Wheat

1. This is a rabi crop.
2. It requires a cool growing season and bright sunshine at the time of ripening.
3. It requires 50 to 75 cm of annual rainfall evenly distributed over the growing season.
4. The Ganga-Satluj plains in the north-west and black soil region of the Deccan are two main wheat-growing zones in India.
5. It is the second most important cereal crop and main food crop, in the north and north-western part of India.

Millets

1. Jowar, Bajra and Ragi are the important millets grown in India.
2. These are known as coarse grains and have very high nutritional value.

Jowar	Bajra	Ragi
3rd most important food crop with respect to area and production.	Grows well on sandy soils and shallow black soil.	It is a crop of dry regions.
It is a rain-fed crop mostly grown in the moist areas.		Grows well on red, black, sandy, loamy and shallow black soils.
Mainly produced in Maharashtra, Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh and Madhya	Major producing states are Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh, Maharashtra, Gujarat and	Major producing states are Karnataka, Tamil Nadu, Himachal Pradesh, Uttarakhand, Sikkim, Jharkhand and

Pradesh.

Haryana.

Arunachal Pradesh.

Maize

1. It is a Kharif crop.
2. It requires temperature between 21°C to 27°C and grows well in old alluvial soil.
3. It is used both as food and fodder.
4. Major maize-producing states are Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Andhra Pradesh and Telangana.

Pulses

1. India is the largest producer and consumer of pulses in the world.
2. Pulses are the major source of protein in a vegetarian diet.
3. Major pulses grown in India are Tur (Arhar), Urad, Moong, Masur, Peas and Gram.
4. Pulses are mostly grown in rotation with other crops so that the soil restores fertility.
5. Major pulse producing states are Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan, Maharashtra, Uttar Pradesh and Karnataka.

Food Crops other than Grains

Sugarcane

1. It is a tropical as well as a subtropical crop.
2. It grows well in hot and humid climates with a temperature of 21°C to 27°C and annual rainfall between 75cm to 100cm.
3. It can be grown on a variety of soils.
4. Needs manual labour from sowing to harvesting.
5. India is the second largest producer of sugarcane only after Brazil.
6. Sugarcane is the main source of Sugar, Gur (Jaggery), Khansari and molasses.
7. The major sugarcane-producing states are Uttar Pradesh, Maharashtra, Karnataka, Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh, Telangana, Bihar, Punjab and Haryana.

Oil Seeds

Different oil seeds are grown covering approximately 12% of the total cropped area of India. Main oil-seeds produced in India are:

- *Groundnut*: is a Kharif crop and accounts for half of the major oilseeds produced in India. Gujarat is the largest producer of groundnuts.
- *Mustard*: is a rabi crop.
- *Sesamum (til)*: is a Kharif crop in the north and rabi crop in south India.
- *Castor seeds*: It is grown as both Rabi and Kharif crop.
- *Linseed*: is a rabi crop.
- *Coconut*
- *Soyabean*
- *Cotton seeds*
- *Sunflower*

Tea

1. It is also an important beverage crop introduced by the British in India.
2. The tea plant grows well in tropical and sub-tropical climates with deep and fertile well-drained soil, rich in humus and organic matter.

3. Tea bushes require warm and moist frost-free climate all through the year.
4. Tea is a labour-intensive industry.
5. Major tea producing states are Assam, hills of Darjeeling and Jalpaiguri districts, West Bengal, Tamil Nadu and Kerala.

Coffee

Yemen coffee is produced in India and this variety of coffee is in great demand all over the world. Its cultivation was introduced on the Baba Budan Hills and is confined to the Nilgiri in Karnataka, Kerala and Tamil Nadu.

Horticulture Crops

India is a producer of tropical as well as temperate fruits. Major crops produced are pea, cauliflower, onion, cabbage, tomato, brinjal and potato. Some of the famous horticulture crops grown in India are:

- **Mangoes** of Maharashtra, Andhra Pradesh, Telangana, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal **Oranges** of Nagpur and Cherrapunjee (Meghalaya), bananas of Kerala, Mizoram, Maharashtra and Tamil Nadu.
- **Lichi and Guava** of Uttar Pradesh and Bihar
- **Pineapples** of Meghalaya
- **Grapes** of Andhra Pradesh, Telangana and Maharashtra
- **Apples, pears, apricots and walnuts** of Jammu and Kashmir and Himachal Pradesh

Non-Food Crops

Rubber	Fibre	Cotton	Jute
It is an equatorial crop.	Cotton, Jute, Hemp and Natural Silk are the four major fibre crops.	It is a Kharif crop.	It is known as the golden fibre.
It requires a moist and humid climate with rainfall of more than 200cm and temperature above 25°C.	Cotton, Jute and Hemp are grown in the soil.	It requires high temperature, light rainfall, 210 frost-free days and bright sunshine for its growth.	It grows well on well-drained fertile soils in the flood plains. High temperature is required for its growth.
It is an important industrial raw material	Natural Silk is obtained from cocoons of the silkworms fed on green leaves	Cotton grows well in black cotton soil of the Deccan plateau.	It is used in making gunny bags, mats, ropes, yarn, carpets and other artefacts.
Mainly grown in Kerala, Tamil Nadu, Karnataka and Andaman and Nicobar islands and Garo hills of Meghalaya.	Rearing of silkworms for the production of silk fibre is known as Sericulture .	Major cotton-producing states are Maharashtra, Gujarat, Madhya Pradesh, Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh, Telangana, Tamil Nadu, Punjab, Haryana and Uttar Pradesh.	Major jute producing states are West Bengal, Bihar, Assam, Odisha and Meghalaya.

Technological and Institutional Reforms

Agriculture provides a livelihood for more than 60% of its population, so this sector needs some serious technical and institutional reforms. The Green Revolution and the White Revolution were some of the reforms initiated by people to improve agriculture.

Some Initiatives taken by the Government are:

- Schemes introduced by Government such as Kissan Credit Card (KCC), Personal Accident Insurance Scheme (PAIS).
- Special weather bulletins and agricultural programmes for farmers on the radio and television were introduced.
- The government also announces minimum support price, remunerative and procurement prices for important crops to check the exploitation of farmers by speculators and middlemen.

Contribution of Agriculture to the National Economy, Employment and Output

- In 2010-11 about 52% of the total workforce was employed by the farm sector.
- The share of agriculture in the GDP is declining.
- Indian Council of Agricultural Research (ICAR), agricultural universities, veterinary services and animal breeding centres, horticulture development, research and development in the field of meteorology and weather forecast, etc. are a few of the initiatives introduced by the government to improve Indian agriculture.

ASSIGNMENT

Question-1

What is the importance of agriculture in Indian economy?

Question-2

What is plantation agriculture?

Question-3

Name three tobacco-producing states of India.

Question-4

Distinguish between: Rabi and Kharif Crops.

Question 1.

Write four points to stress the importance of agriculture in India. (2013)

Or, Why is India called an agriculturally important country? Write four supportive arguments.

Or, 'Agriculture has been the backbone of the Indian Economy' Explain the statement by giving reason. (2017 D)

Question 5.

Write main characteristics of 'slash and burn' agriculture.

Question 6.

What are the major differences between primitive subsistence farming and commercial farming? (2013)

Question 7.

Name some industries based on agricultural raw material.

Question 8.

What are the major differences between primitive subsistence farming and commercial farming? (2013)

Question 9.

What is the most important characteristic of commercial farming?

Question 10.

Name one type of agriculture which falls in the category of commercial agriculture. Write the main characteristics of this type of agriculture. (2012)

Question 11.

Name one horticultural plantation crop and two beverage plantation crops and two States each which specialise in their production respectively.

Question 12.

Name three cropping seasons of India. Write their sowing and harvesting time and major crops of each season.

Question 13.

(a) Which is the second most important cereal crop of India? Write the geographical conditions required for its growth.

(b) Name two major zones of wheat growth and name six major states of wheat production.

Answer:

(a) Wheat is the second most important cereal crop of India. It is the main food crop.

Question 14.

(a) What is India's position in the world regarding sugarcane production? Write the geographical conditions required for its growth.

(b) Write the major states that produce sugarcane.

(c) Name four products obtained from sugarcane.

Question 15.

What is India's position in the world regarding tea production? Name three states each which produce tea in:

(i) North-Eastern India

(ii) Himalayan states/parts of the states

(iii) Peninsular States.

ECONOMICS

Chapter 1 –Development

Guidelines

- Refer to the content given below and view the links
- These notes will help you to understand the concept and complete the assignment that follows
- The assignment is to be done in the economics notebook
- Please read the economics NCERT book before you begin answering

Instructional Aids / Resources

NCERT links are given below:

- [\(20\) DEVELOPMENT- FULL CHAPTER || CLASS 10 ECONOMICS CHAPTER 1 - YouTube](#)
- [\(20\) CBSE Class 10: Development | Economics | Aagaz | Unacademy Class 9 and 10 | Shubham Pathak - YouTube](#)
- [\(20\) Full Chapter Revision Series | Development | Class 10 Economics | In Hindi | Magnet Brains - YouTube](#)

Learning outcomes

Each student will be able to know about:

- What Development Promises - Different people different goals Income and other goals
- National Development

Subtopics

- How to compare different countries or states?
- Income and other criteria
- Public Facilities
- Sustainability of development

LESSON DEVELOPMENT

Different notions of development:

Different people have different notions of development because life situations of persons are different and therefore their aspirations and desires and goals.

Importance of averages:

Since countries have different populations comparing total income does not tell us what an average person is likely to earn, hence we compare the average income which is the total income of the country divided by its total population. It is also called per capita income.

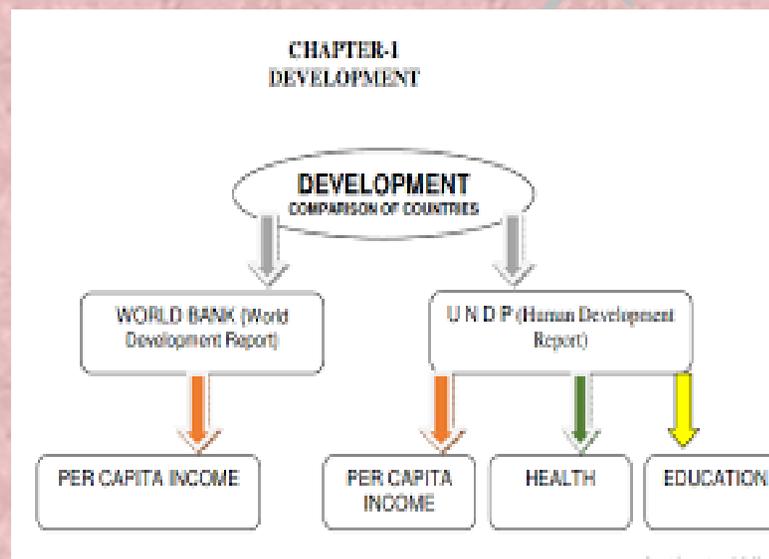
Criterion used by the World Bank as per World Development Report 2006, in classifying the countries. World Bank says that countries with the per capita income of Rs 4,53,000 per annum and above in 2004 are called rich countries and those with the per capita income of Rs 37,000 or less are called low-income countries. India comes in the category of low income countries because its per capita income in 2004 was just Rs 28000 per annum. Rich countries excluding the countries of Middle-East and certain other small countries are generally called developed countries.

What Development Promises – Different Peoples, Different Goals

1. Different people can have different developmental goals
2. What may be development for one may not be development for the other person. It may even be destructive for the other.

Income and Other Goals

People want more income. Money, or material things that one can buy with it, is one factor on which our life depends. However, the quality of our life also depends on non-material things such as equal treatment, freedom, security and respect for others. For development, people look at a mix of goals. The developmental goals are not only about better income but also about other important things in life.



National Development

Different persons could have different as well as conflicting notions of a country's development.

How to Compare Different Countries or States?

To compare countries, their income is considered to be one of the most important attributes. Countries with higher income are more developed than others with less income. As different countries have different populations, comparing total income will not tell us what an average person earns. So, we compare the average income of countries.

Average income is the total income of the country divided by its total population. It is also called per capita income.

Average Income = Total Income of Country / Total Population of Country

In World Development Reports, per capita income is used in classifying countries.

1. Countries with per capita income of US\$ 12,056 per annum and above in 2017, are called **rich countries**.
2. Countries with per capita income of US\$ 955 or less are called **low-income countries**. Eg: India.

Income and Other Criteria

When we think of a nation or a region, besides average income, public facilities are equally significant attributes.

Public Facilities: These are the services provided by the government to its citizens. Some of the important public facilities include infrastructure, sanitation, public transport, health care, water, etc.

Key terms:

- **Development.** Growth of economy along with the improvement in the quality of life of the people like health, education etc.
- **Per capita income.** Is the average income obtained as the ratio between National Income and Population of a country.
- **National income.** Is the money value of final goods and services produced by a country during an accounting year.

Human development Index:

It is a composite Index prepared by United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) through its Annual Human Development Report published every year. Major parameters such as longevity of life, levels of literacy and Per capita income are used to measure the development of countries. World countries are ranked accordingly in to Very High Developed countries, High Developed countries, Medium Developed countries and Low Developed countries.

- **Infant Mortality Rate.** The number of children that die before the age of one year as a proportion of 1,000 live birth in that particular year.
- **Literacy Rate.** It measures the proportion of literate population in the 7 and above age group.
- **Net Attendance Ratio.** It is the total number of children of age group 6-10 attending school as a percentage of total number of children in the same age group.
- **Body Mass Index. (BMI)** one way to find out if adults are undernourished is to calculate Body Mass Index. Divide the weight of a person (in kg) by the square of the height (in metres). If this figure is less than 18.5 then the person would be considered undernourished. If this BMI is more than 25, then a person is overweight.

Sustainable Development:

It means development without hampering the Environment. It is the process of development that satisfies the present needs without compromising the needs of the future generation.

ASSIGNMENT

Question 1.

Why is Per Capita Income calculated in the US dollars?

Question 2.

“People have conflicting development goals”. Support the statement with suitable example.

Question 3.

“Money cannot buy all the goods and services that one needs to live well” Do you agree with this statement? Justify your answer with any three suitable arguments.

Question 4.

Suggest any one way to solve under-employment situation in rural areas.

Question 5.

Mention any one limitation of per capita income as an indicator of development.

Question 6.

Through which act is Right to Work implemented?

Question 7.

Define average income.

Question 8.

Differentiate between Human Development Report and World Development

Question 9.

Why does Kerala have a better Human Development Index ranking in comparison to Punjab? Explain with three reasons.

Question 10.

What is the main norm used by the World Bank in classifying different countries as rich and poor countries? What are the restrictions of such norms?

Question 11.

What is Human Development Index? Which organization measures the HDI? Explain the three major indicators of the HDI.

Question 12.

What may be the development for one may be the destruction for the other.” Explain the statement with appropriate examples.

Question 13.

State the three factors other than human income, that are important in life.

Question 14.

Explain the importance of sustainable development with reference to groundwater by giving example.

Question 15.

Which countries are known as rich countries on the basis of per capita income?

ECONOMICS

Chapter 2 – Sectors of Indian Economy

Guidelines

- Refer to the content given below and view the links
- These notes will help you to understand the concept and complete the assignment that follows
- The assignment is to be done in the economics notebook
- Please read the economics NCERT book before you begin answering

Instructional Aids / Resources

NCERT links are given below:

- [CBSE Class 10: Sectors of Indian Economy | Aagaz | Unacademy Class 9 and 10 | Shubham Pathak - YouTube](#)
- [SECTORS OF INDIAN ECONOMY \(FULL CHAPTER\) || CLASS 10 ECONOMICS - YouTube](#)
- [\(20\) Sectors of Indian Economy in One Shot | CBSE Class 10 Economics Chapter 2 NCERT Social Science - YouTube](#)

Learning outcomes

Each student will be able to know about:

- Sectors of Economic Activities
- Comparing the three sectors
- Primary, Secondary and Tertiary
- Sectors in India

Subtopics

- Division of sectors as organized and unorganized
- Sectors in terms of ownership:
- Public and Private Sectors

LESSON DEVELOPMENT

Sectors of Economic Activities

Sector defines a large segment of the economy in which businesses share the same or a related product or service.

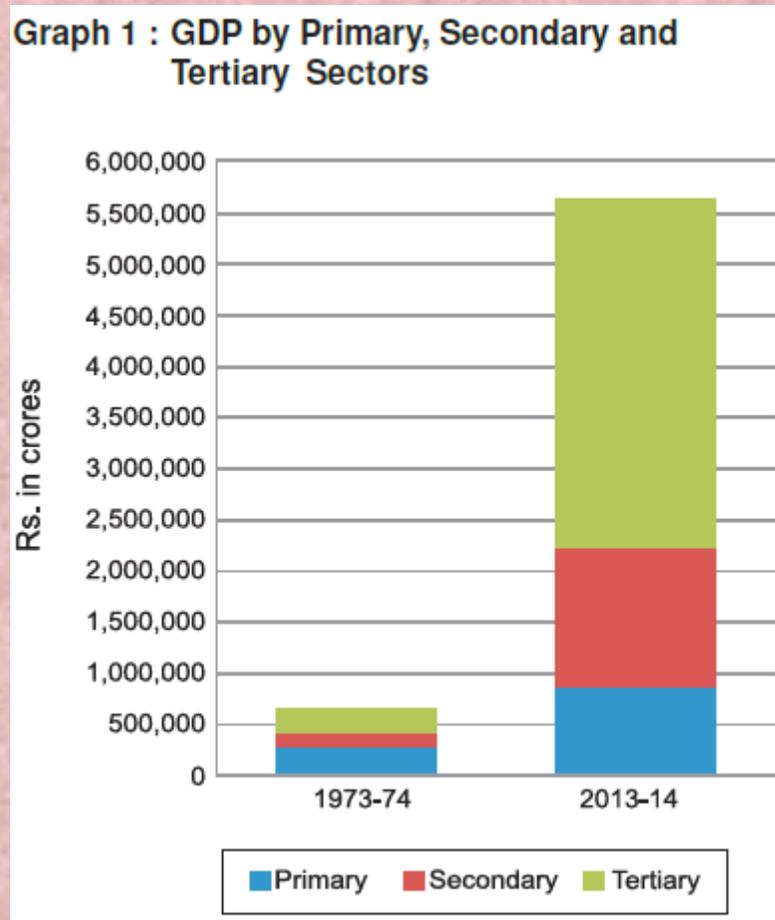
1. When we produce a good by extraction and collection of natural resources, it is known as the **primary sector**. Eg: Farming, forestry, hunting, fishing and mining.

- The **secondary sector** covers activities in which natural products are changed into other forms through ways of manufacturing. It is the next step after primary. Some manufacturing processes are required here. It is also called the industrial sector. For example, using cotton fibre from the plant, we spin yarn and weave cloth. Using sugarcane as raw material, we make sugar or gur.
- Tertiary sector** includes activities that help in the development of the primary and secondary sectors. These activities, by themselves, do not produce a good but they are an aid or support for the production process. It is also called the service sector. Example: Teachers, doctors, washermen, barbers, cobblers, lawyers, call centres, software companies, etc.

Comparing the 3 Sectors

The value of final goods and services produced in each sector during a particular year provides the total production of the sector for that year. The sum of production in the three sectors gives **Gross Domestic Product (GDP)** of a country. GDP is the value of all final goods and services produced within a country during a particular year. It shows how big the economy is. In India, the task of measuring GDP is undertaken by a central government ministry.

The graph below shows the production of goods and services in the three sectors.



In the year 2013-14, the tertiary sector emerged as the largest producing sector in India, replacing the primary sector. The tertiary sector has become important in India because of the following reasons:

- Services such as hospitals, educational institutions, post and telegraph services, police stations, courts, village administrative offices, municipal corporations, defence, transport, banks, insurance companies, etc. are considered as basic services and are necessary for all people.
- The development of agriculture and industry leads to the development of services such as transport, trade, storage, etc.

3. With the rise in the income of people, they start demanding more services like eating out, tourism, shopping, private hospitals, private schools, professional training, etc.
4. Over the past decade, certain new services based on information and communication technology have become important and essential.

Where are Most People Employed

Primary Sector	Secondary Sector	Tertiary Sector
More than half of the workers in India are working in the primary sector, mainly in agriculture.	These sectors employ less than half the people as compared to the primary sector.	
It contributes to only a quarter of the GDP.	These sectors produce four-fifths of the product.	

How to Create More Employment

Employment can be given to people by identifying, promoting and locating industries and services in semi-rural areas. Every state or region has the potential for increasing the income and employment for people in that area. It can be done by tourism, or regional craft industry, or new services like IT. A study conducted by the Planning Commission (known as NITI Aayog) estimates that nearly 20 lakh jobs can be created in the education sector alone.

The central government in India made a law implementing the Right to Work in about 625 districts of India, which is called **Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA) 2005**. Under MGNREGA 2005, all those who are able to, and are in need of work in rural areas are guaranteed 100 days of employment in a year by the government. If the government fails in its duty to provide employment, it will give unemployment allowances to the people.

Division of Sectors As Organised and Unorganised

Organised Sector	Unorganised Sector
It is a sector where the employment terms are fixed and regular, and the employees get assured work.	The unorganised sector is characterised by small and scattered units, which are largely outside the control of the government.
They are registered by the government and have to follow its rules and regulations, which are given in various laws such as the Factories Act, Minimum Wages Act, Payment of Gratuity Act, Shops and Establishments Act, etc.	There are rules and regulations but these are not followed since they are not registered with the government.
The job is regular and has fixed working hours. If people work more, they get paid for the overtime by the employer.	Jobs are low-paid and often not regular.
Workers enjoy the security of employment.	Employment is not secure. People can be asked to leave without any reason.
People working in the organised sector get several other benefits from the employers such as paid leave, payment during holidays, provident fund, gratuity, etc.	There is no provision for overtime, paid leave, holidays, leave due to sickness, etc.
People get medical benefits. The factory manager has to ensure facilities like drinking water and a safe working environment. When they retire, these workers get pensions as well.	There are no such facilities in the unorganised sector.

Examples of the organised sectors are Government employees, registered industrial workers, Anganwadi workers, village health workers, etc.

Examples of the unorganised sectors are Shopkeeping, Farming, Domestic works, Labouring, Rickshaw pulling, etc.

How to Protect Workers in Unorganised Sector

There is a need for protection and support of the workers in the unorganised sector. Here are a few points which will help in doing so.

1. The government can fix the minimum wages rate and working hours.
2. The government can provide cheap loans to self-employed people.
3. Government can provide cheap and affordable basic services like education, health, food to these workers.
4. The government can frame new laws which can provide provision for overtime, paid leave, leave due to sickness, etc.

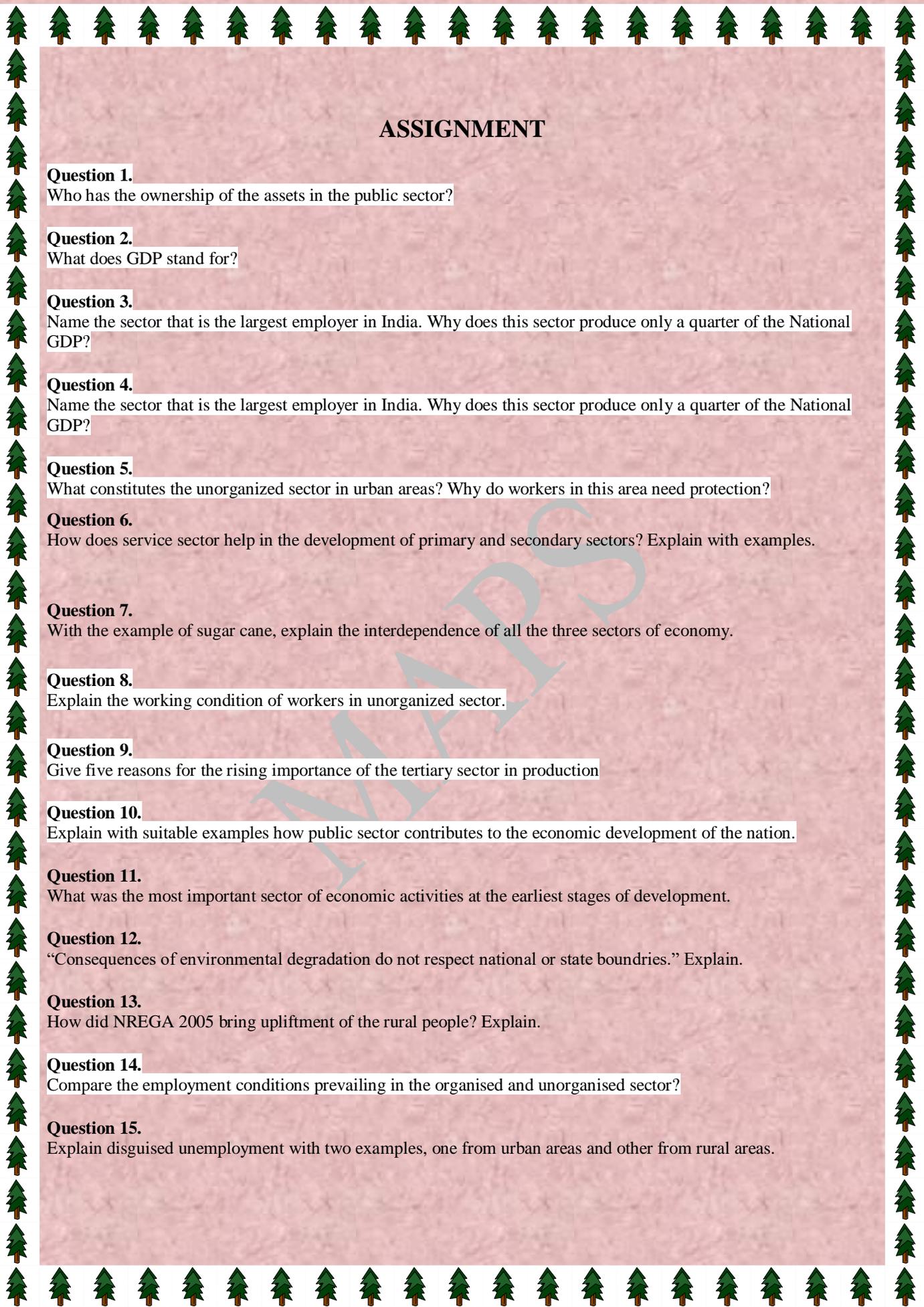
Sectors in Term of Ownership: Public and Private Sectors

Public Sector	Private Sector
In the public sector, the government owns most of the assets and provides all the services.	In the private sector, ownership of assets and delivery of services is in the hands of private individuals or companies.
Railways or post office is an example of the public sector.	Companies like Tata Iron and Steel Company Limited (TISCO) or Reliance Industries Limited (RIL) are privately owned companies.
The purpose of the public sector is not just to earn profits. Its main aim is public welfare.	Activities in the private sector are guided by the motive to earn profits.

Responsibilities of Government

There are a large number of activities which are the primary responsibility of the government. Here, we have listed a few of them:

1. Government raises money through taxes and other ways to meet expenses on the services rendered by it.
2. Governments have to undertake heavy spending such as the construction of roads, bridges, railways, harbours, generating electricity, providing irrigation through dams, etc. Also, it has to ensure that these facilities are available for everyone.
3. There are some activities, which the government has to support to encourage the private sector to continue their production or business.
4. The government in India buys wheat and rice from farmers at a 'fair price' and sells at a lower price to consumers through ration shops. In this way, it supports both farmers and consumers.
5. Running proper schools and providing quality education, health and education facilities for all are some of the duties of the government.
6. Government also needs to pay attention to aspects of human development such as availability of safe drinking water, housing facilities for the poor and food and nutrition, taking care of the poorest and most ignored regions of the country.



ASSIGNMENT

Question 1.

Who has the ownership of the assets in the public sector?

Question 2.

What does GDP stand for?

Question 3.

Name the sector that is the largest employer in India. Why does this sector produce only a quarter of the National GDP?

Question 4.

Name the sector that is the largest employer in India. Why does this sector produce only a quarter of the National GDP?

Question 5.

What constitutes the unorganized sector in urban areas? Why do workers in this area need protection?

Question 6.

How does service sector help in the development of primary and secondary sectors? Explain with examples.

Question 7.

With the example of sugar cane, explain the interdependence of all the three sectors of economy.

Question 8.

Explain the working condition of workers in unorganized sector.

Question 9.

Give five reasons for the rising importance of the tertiary sector in production

Question 10.

Explain with suitable examples how public sector contributes to the economic development of the nation.

Question 11.

What was the most important sector of economic activities at the earliest stages of development.

Question 12.

“Consequences of environmental degradation do not respect national or state boundaries.” Explain.

Question 13.

How did NREGA 2005 bring upliftment of the rural people? Explain.

Question 14.

Compare the employment conditions prevailing in the organised and unorganised sector?

Question 15.

Explain disguised unemployment with two examples, one from urban areas and other from rural areas.

ECONOMICS

Chapter 3 – Money and Credit

Guidelines

- Refer to the content given below and view the links
- These notes will help you to understand the concept and complete the assignment that follows
- The assignment is to be done in the economics notebook
- Please read the economics NCERT book before you begin answering

Instructional Aids / Resources

NCERT links are given below:

- [\(20\) MONEY & CREDIT - FULL CHAPTER || CLASS 10 CBSE ECONOMICS - YouTube SECTORS OF INDIAN ECONOMY \(FULL CHAPTER\) || CLASS 10 ECONOMICS - YouTube](#)
- [CBSE Class 10: Money and Credit | Aagaz | Unacademy Class 9 and 10 | Shubham Pathak - YouTube](#)
- [\(20\) Money and Credit Class 10 \(Full Chapter\) | CBSE Economics | Revision Series in Hindi | Magnet Brains - YouTube](#)

Learning outcomes

Each student will be able to know about:

- Money as a medium of exchange
- Modern forms of money
- Self Help Groups for the Poor

Subtopics

- Loan activities of Banks
- Two different credit situations
- Terms of credit
- Formal sector credit in India

LESSON DEVELOPMENT

Money as a Medium of Exchange

Money acts as an intermediate in the exchange process, it is called a medium of exchange. A person holding money can easily exchange it for any commodity or service that he or she might want.

Modern form of Money

In the early ages, Indians used grains and cattle as money. Thereafter came the use of metallic coins – gold, silver, copper coins – a phase which continued well into the last century. Now, the modern forms of money include currency – paper notes and coins. The modern forms of money – currency and deposits – are closely linked to the workings of the modern banking system.

Currency

In India, the Reserve Bank of India issues currency notes on behalf of the central government. No other individual or organisation is allowed to issue currency. The rupee is widely accepted as a medium of exchange in India.

Deposits in Banks

The other form in which people hold money is as deposits with banks. People deposit their extra cash with the banks by opening a bank account in their name. Banks accept the deposits and also pay an amount as interest on the deposits.

The deposits in the bank accounts can be withdrawn on demand, these deposits are called **demand deposits**. The payments are made by cheques instead of cash.

A **cheque** is a paper instructing the bank to pay a specific amount from the person's account to the person in whose name the cheque has been issued.

Loan Activities of Banks

Banks keep only a small proportion of their deposits as cash with themselves. These days banks in India hold about 15% of their deposits as cash. This is kept as a provision to pay the depositors who might come to withdraw money from the bank on any given day. Banks use the major portion of the deposits to extend loans. There is a huge demand for loans for various economic activities. Banks charge a higher interest rate on loans than what they offer on deposits. The difference between what is charged from borrowers and what is paid to depositors is their main source of income for banks.

Two Different Credit Situations

Credit (loan) refers to an agreement in which the lender supplies the borrower with money, goods or services in return for the promise of future payment.

Here are 2 examples which help you to understand how credit works.

Festive Season:

In this case, Salim obtains credit to meet the working capital needs of production. The credit helps him to meet the ongoing expenses of production, complete production on time, and thereby increase his earnings. In this situation, credit helps to increase earnings and therefore the person is better off than before.

Swapna's Problem:

In Swapna's case, the failure of the crop made loan repayment impossible. She had to sell part of the land to repay the loan. Credit, instead of helping Swapna improve her earnings, left her worse off. This is an example of **debt-trap**. Credit, in this case, pushes the borrower into a situation from which recovery is very painful. Whether credit would be useful or not, depends on the risks in the situation and whether there is some support, in case of loss.

Terms of Credit

Every loan agreement specifies an interest rate which the borrower must pay to the lender along with the repayment of the principal. In addition, lenders also demand collateral (security) against loans.

Collateral (Security) is an asset that the borrower owns (such as land, building, vehicle, livestock, deposits with banks) and uses this as a guarantee to a lender until the loan is repaid. If the borrower fails to repay the loan, the lender has the right to sell the asset or collateral to obtain payment.

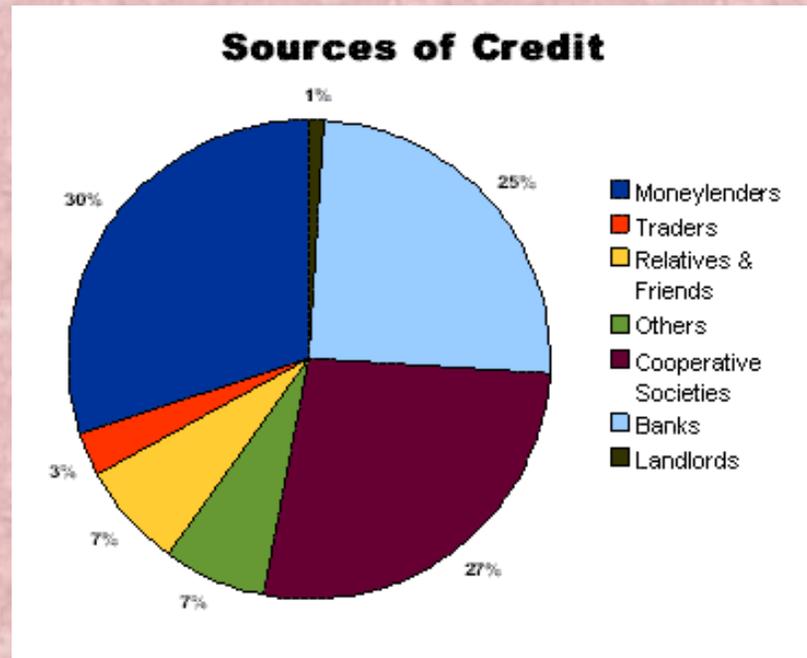
Interest rate, collateral and documentation requirement and the mode of repayment, together is called the **terms of credit**. It may vary depending on the nature of the lender and the borrower.

Formal Sector Credit in India

Cheap and affordable credit is crucial for the country's development. The various types of loans can be grouped as:

Formal sector loans:

These are the loans from banks and cooperatives. The Reserve Bank of India supervises the functioning of formal sources of loans. Banks have to submit information to the RBI on how much they are lending, to whom, at what interest rate, etc.



Informal sector loans:

These are the loans from moneylenders, traders, employers, relatives and friends, etc. There is no organisation which supervises the credit activities of lenders in the informal sector. There is no one to stop them from using unfair means to get their money back.

Formal and Informal Credit

The formal sector meets only about half of the total credit needs of rural people. The remaining credit needs are met from informal sources. It is important that the formal credit is distributed more equally so that the poor can benefit from the cheaper loans.

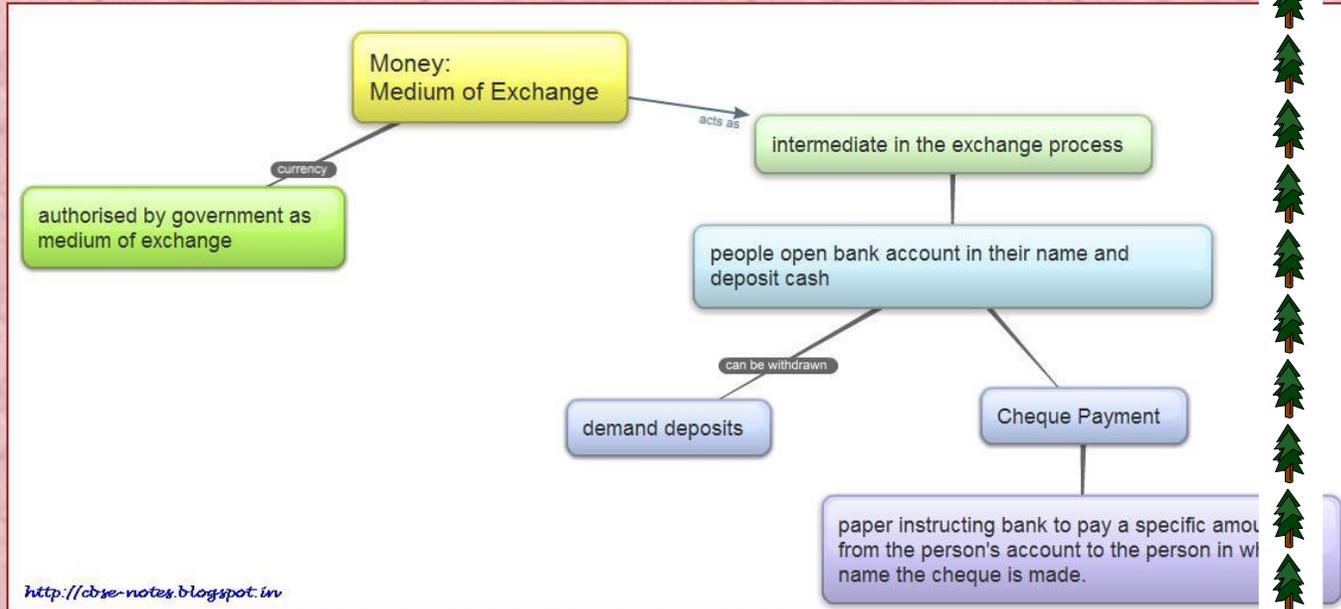
1. It is necessary that banks and cooperatives increase their lending, particularly in rural areas, so that the dependence on informal sources of credit reduces.
2. While the formal sector loans need to expand, it is also necessary that everyone receives these loans.

Self Help Groups for the Poor

Poor households are still dependent on informal sources of credit because of the following reasons:

- Banks are not present everywhere in rural India.
- Even if banks are present, getting a loan from a bank is much more difficult as it requires proper documents and collateral.

To overcome these problems, people created Self Help Groups (SHGs). SHGs are small groups of poor people which promote small savings among their members. A typical SHG has 15-20 members, usually belonging to one neighbourhood, who meet and save regularly.



Advantages of Self Help Group (SHG)

1. It helps borrowers to overcome the problem of lack of collateral.
2. People can get timely loans for a variety of purposes and at a reasonable interest rate.
3. SHGs are the building blocks of organisation of the rural poor.
4. It helps women to become financially self-reliant.
5. The regular meetings of the group provide a platform to discuss and act on a variety of social issues such as health, nutrition, domestic violence, etc.

ASSIGNMENT

Question 1.

How do the deposits with the banks become their source of income?

Question 2.

Why can one not refuse a payment made in rupees in India

Question 3.

Compare formal sector loans with informal sector loans regarding interest only

Question 4.

Why is the supervision of the functioning of formal sources of loans necessary

Question 5.

Prove with an argument that there is a great need to expand formal sources of credit in rural India.

Question 6.

Why are most of the poor households deprived from the formal sector of loans?

Question 7.

How does money eliminate the need for double coincidence of wants?

Question 8.

How can money be easily exchange for goods or services? Give an example to explain.

Question 10.

“Cheap and affordable credit is crucial for the country’s development.” Assess the statement.

Question 11.

“Deposits with the banks are beneficial to the depositors as well as to the nation.”
Examine the statement

Question 12.

‘Credit has its own unique role for development.’ Justify the statement with arguments.

Question 13.

How is money transferred from one bank account to another bank account? Explain with an example.

Question 14.

“Poor households still depend on informal sources of credit.” Support the statement with examples.

Question 15.

Describe the vital and positive role of credit with examples.

ECONOMICS

Chapter 4 – Globalisation and the Indian Economy

Guidelines

- Refer to the content given below and view the links
- These notes will help you to understand the concept and complete the assignment that follows
- The assignment is to be done in the economics notebook
- Please read the economics NCERT book before you begin answering

Instructional Aids / Resources

NCERT links are given below:

- <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ISwEFUcgXCg>
- <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ISwEFUcgXCg>
- <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=oclm9sGZdho>

Each student will be able to know about:

- Production across countries
- Interlinking production across countries
- Foreign Trade and integration of markets
- What is globalization?

Subtopics

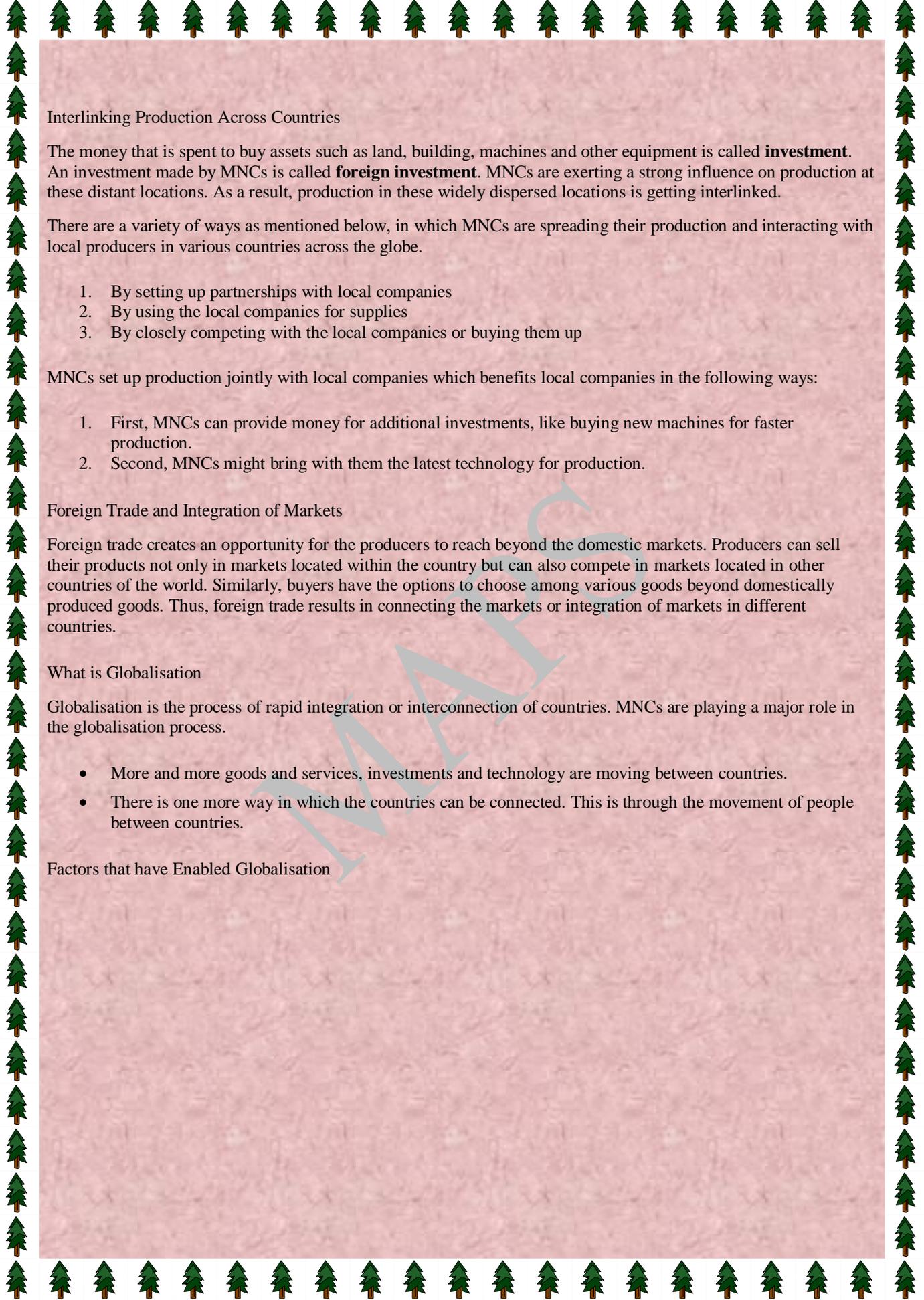
- Factors that have enabled Globalisation
- World Trade Organisation
- Impact of Globalization on India
- The Struggle for a fair Globalization

LESSON DEVELOPMENT

In a matter of years, our markets have transformed.

Production Across Countries

Trade was the main channel connecting distant countries. Large companies, which are now called Multinational Corporations (MNCs) play a major role in trade. An MNC is a company that owns or controls production in more than one nation. MNCs set up offices and factories for production in regions where they can get cheap labour and other resources so that the company can earn greater profits.



Interlinking Production Across Countries

The money that is spent to buy assets such as land, building, machines and other equipment is called **investment**. An investment made by MNCs is called **foreign investment**. MNCs are exerting a strong influence on production at these distant locations. As a result, production in these widely dispersed locations is getting interlinked.

There are a variety of ways as mentioned below, in which MNCs are spreading their production and interacting with local producers in various countries across the globe.

1. By setting up partnerships with local companies
2. By using the local companies for supplies
3. By closely competing with the local companies or buying them up

MNCs set up production jointly with local companies which benefits local companies in the following ways:

1. First, MNCs can provide money for additional investments, like buying new machines for faster production.
2. Second, MNCs might bring with them the latest technology for production.

Foreign Trade and Integration of Markets

Foreign trade creates an opportunity for the producers to reach beyond the domestic markets. Producers can sell their products not only in markets located within the country but can also compete in markets located in other countries of the world. Similarly, buyers have the options to choose among various goods beyond domestically produced goods. Thus, foreign trade results in connecting the markets or integration of markets in different countries.

What is Globalisation

Globalisation is the process of rapid integration or interconnection of countries. MNCs are playing a major role in the globalisation process.

- More and more goods and services, investments and technology are moving between countries.
- There is one more way in which the countries can be connected. This is through the movement of people between countries.

Factors that have Enabled Globalisation



Technology

Rapid improvement in technology has been one major factor that has stimulated the globalisation process. This has made possible much faster delivery of goods across long distances at lower costs. The developments in information and communication technology have made information instantly accessible.

Liberalisation of Foreign Trade and Foreign Investment Policy

Trade barriers are some restrictions that have been set up by governments. The government can use trade barriers to increase or decrease (regulate) foreign trade and to decide what kinds of goods and how much of each, should come into the country. Tax on imports is an example of trade barrier.

Removing barriers or restrictions set by the government on trade is known as **liberalisation**. When the government imposes less restrictions than before, it is said to be more liberal.

World Trade Organisation

World Trade Organisation (WTO) is an organisation whose aim is to liberalise international trade. At present, 164 countries of the world are currently members of the WTO. It has established rules for developed countries regarding international trade so that these countries can allow free trade for all.

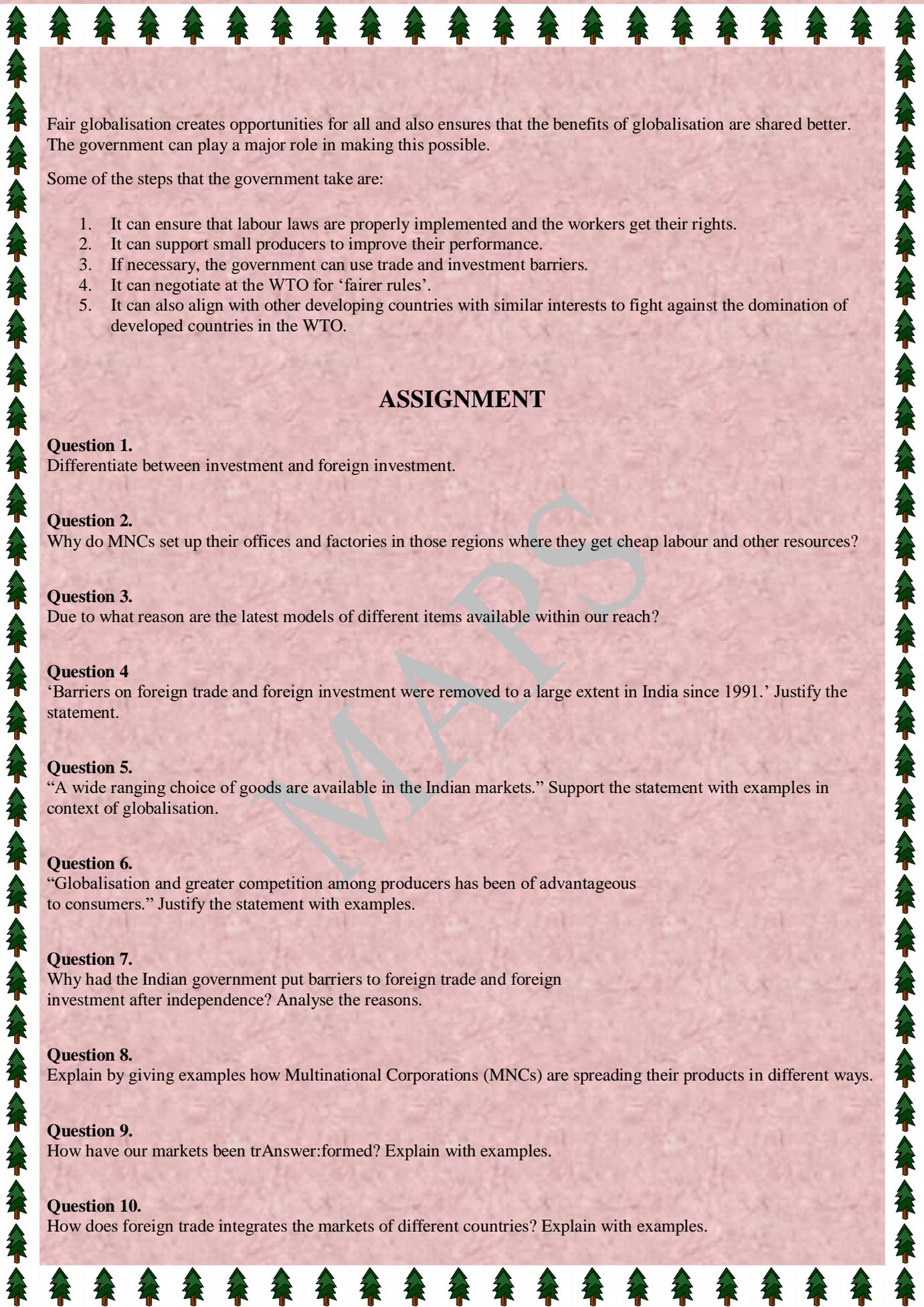
Impact of Globalisation in India

Globalisation has impacted the lives of people in India in the following manner:

1. It has provided greater choices to consumers who now enjoy improved quality of and lower prices on several products.
2. It has resulted in higher standards of living.

Globalisation has also created new opportunities for companies providing services, particularly in the IT sector.

The Struggle for a Fair Globalisation



Fair globalisation creates opportunities for all and also ensures that the benefits of globalisation are shared better. The government can play a major role in making this possible.

Some of the steps that the government take are:

1. It can ensure that labour laws are properly implemented and the workers get their rights.
2. It can support small producers to improve their performance.
3. If necessary, the government can use trade and investment barriers.
4. It can negotiate at the WTO for 'fairer rules'.
5. It can also align with other developing countries with similar interests to fight against the domination of developed countries in the WTO.

ASSIGNMENT

Question 1.

Differentiate between investment and foreign investment.

Question 2.

Why do MNCs set up their offices and factories in those regions where they get cheap labour and other resources?

Question 3.

Due to what reason are the latest models of different items available within our reach?

Question 4

'Barriers on foreign trade and foreign investment were removed to a large extent in India since 1991.' Justify the statement.

Question 5.

"A wide ranging choice of goods are available in the Indian markets." Support the statement with examples in context of globalisation.

Question 6.

"Globalisation and greater competition among producers has been of advantageous to consumers." Justify the statement with examples.

Question 7.

Why had the Indian government put barriers to foreign trade and foreign investment after independence? Analyse the reasons.

Question 8.

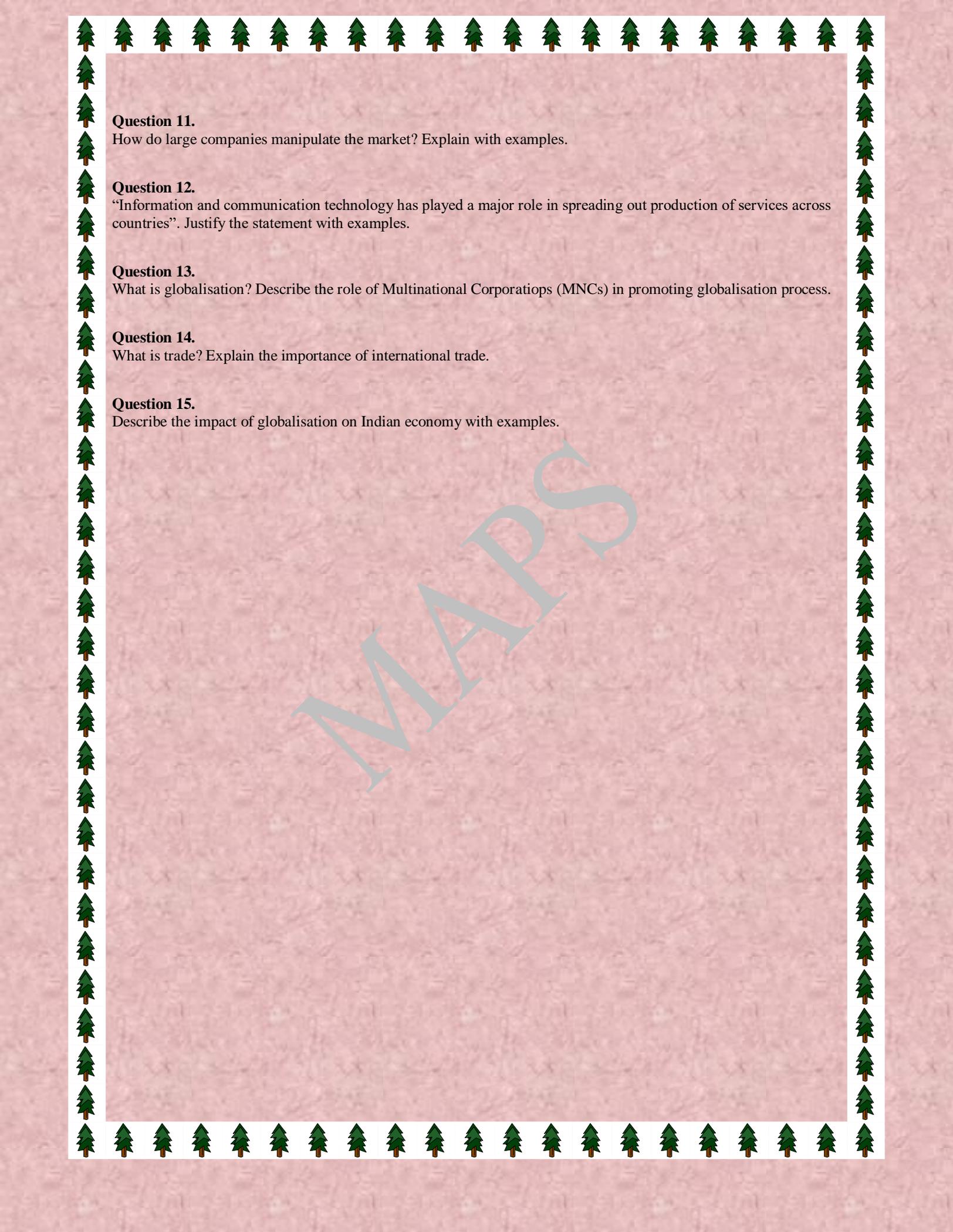
Explain by giving examples how Multinational Corporations (MNCs) are spreading their products in different ways.

Question 9.

How have our markets been transformed? Explain with examples.

Question 10.

How does foreign trade integrates the markets of different countries? Explain with examples.



Question 11.

How do large companies manipulate the market? Explain with examples.

Question 12.

“Information and communication technology has played a major role in spreading out production of services across countries”. Justify the statement with examples.

Question 13.

What is globalisation? Describe the role of Multinational Corporations (MNCs) in promoting globalisation process.

Question 14.

What is trade? Explain the importance of international trade.

Question 15.

Describe the impact of globalisation on Indian economy with examples.

POLITICAL SCIENCE

Chapter 1 – Power Sharing

Guidelines

- Refer to the content given below and view the links
- These notes will help you to understand the concept and complete the assignment that follows
- The assignment is to be done in the political science notebook
- Please read the political science NCERT book before you begin answering

Instructional Aids / Resources

NCERT links are given below:

- [\(20\) POWER SHARING- FULL CHAPTER || CLASS 10 CIVICS - YouTube](#)
- [CBSE Class 10: Power Sharing | SST | Aagaz | Unacademy Class 9 & 10 | Shubham Pathak - YouTube](#)
- [Power Sharing | CBSE Class 10 SST | Civics/Political Science | NCERT Solutions | Umang 2020 Vedantu - YouTube](#)

Learning outcomes

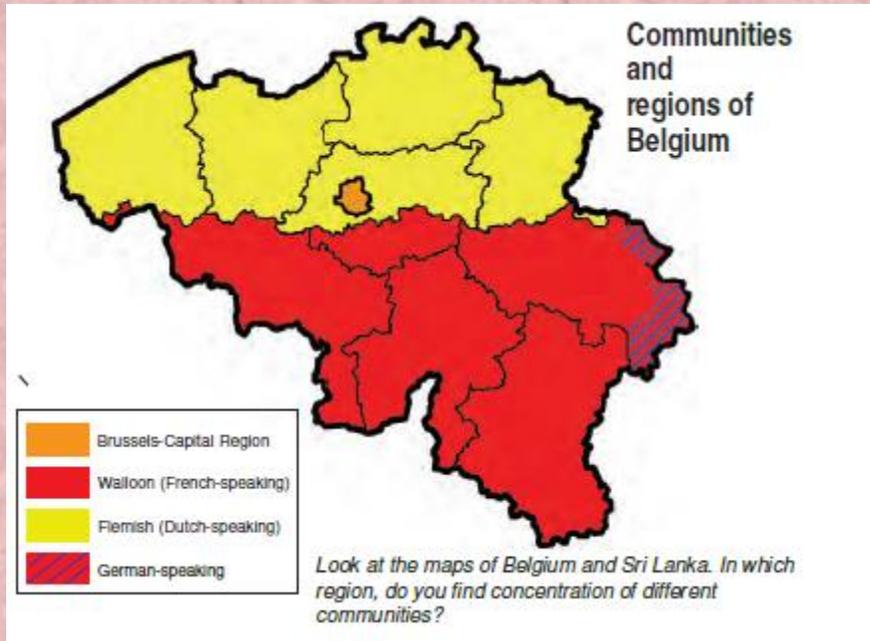
Each student will be able to know about:

- Case Studies of Belgium and Sri Lanka
- Why power sharing is desirable?
- Forms of Power Sharing

LESSON DEVELOPMENT

Story of Belgium

Belgium is a small country in Europe with a population of over 1 crore, about half the population of Haryana. Of the country's total population, 59% speaks Dutch language, 40% of people speak French and the remaining 1% speak German. Look at the map below to know the language variation of Belgium. The minority French-speaking community was rich and powerful, so they got the benefit of economic development and education. This created tensions between the Dutch-speaking and French-speaking communities during the 1950s and 1960s.



Accommodation in Belgium

In Belgium, the government handled the community difference very well. Between 1970 and 1993, Belgian leaders amended their constitution four times and came up with a new model to run the government.

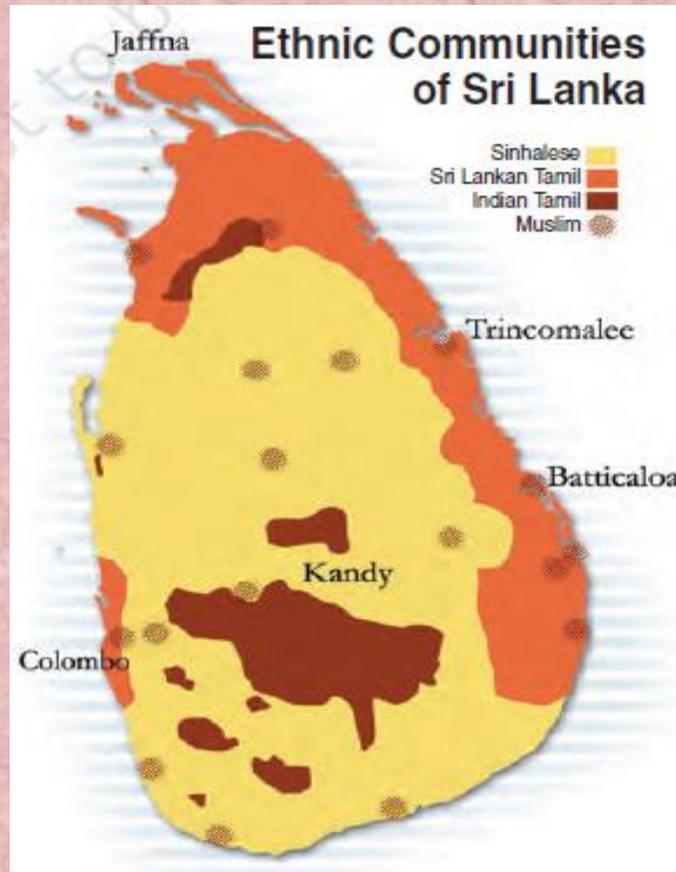
Here are some of the elements of the Belgian model.

1. The Constitution prescribes that the number of Dutch and French-speaking ministers shall be equal in the Central Government. Some special laws require the support of the majority of members from each linguistic group. Thus, no single community can make decisions unilaterally.
2. The state governments are not subordinate to the Central Government.
3. Brussels has a separate government in which both communities have equal representation.
4. Apart from the Central and the State Government, there is a third kind of government. This 'community government' is elected by people belonging to one language community – Dutch, French and German-speaking – no matter where they live. This government has the power regarding cultural, educational and language-related issues.

The Belgium model was very complicated but it helped to avoid civic strife between the two major communities.

Story of Sri Lanka

Now, let's take the situation of another country, Sri Lanka. It is an island nation having a population of 2 crores, about the same as in Haryana. Sri Lanka has a diverse population. The major social groups are the Sinhala-speakers (74%) and the Tamil-speakers (18%). Among Tamils, there are two subgroups, "Sri Lankan Tamils" and "Indian Tamils". You can see the map below to know the population distribution of different communities of Sri Lanka.



In Sri Lanka, the Sinhala community enjoyed the bigger majority and imposed its will on the entire country.

Majoritarianism in Sri Lanka

Sri Lanka emerged as an independent country in 1948. The Sinhala community was in the majority so they had formed the government. They also followed preferential policies that favoured Sinhala applicants for university positions and government jobs. These measures taken by the government gradually increased the feeling of alienation among the Sri Lankan Tamils. Sri Lankan Tamils felt that constitution and government policies denied them equal political rights, discriminated against them in getting jobs and other opportunities and ignored their interests. Due to this, the relationship between the Sinhala and Tamil communities become poor. Sri Lankan Tamils launched parties and struggles for the recognition of Tamil as an official language, for regional autonomy and equality of opportunity in securing education and jobs. But their demand was repeatedly denied by the government. The distrust between the two communities turned into widespread conflict and turned into a CIVIL WAR. As a result, thousands of people of both the communities have been killed. Many families were forced to leave the country as refugees and many more lost their livelihoods. The civil war ended in 2009 and caused a terrible setback to the social, cultural and economic life of the country.

What have you learned from the Stories of Belgium and Sri Lanka?

- Both countries are democracies but they dealt differently with the concept of power sharing.
- In Belgium, the leaders have realised that the unity of the country is possible only by respecting the feelings and interests of different communities and regions. This resulted in mutually acceptable arrangements for sharing power.
- Sri Lanka shows that, if a majority community wants to force its dominance over others and refuses to share power, it can undermine the unity of the country.

Why is power sharing desirable?

You will find the answer to this question in the points below.

1. Power sharing is good because it helps to reduce the possibility of conflict between social groups.
2. The second reason is that, a democratic rule involves sharing power with those affected by its exercise, and who have to live with its effects. People have a right to be consulted on how they are to be governed.

Let us call the first set of reasons *Prudential* and the second moral. The prudential reasons stress that power sharing will bring out better outcomes, whereas the moral reasons emphasise the act of power sharing as valuable.

Form of Power Sharing

Most of you must think that Sharing power = dividing power = weakening the country. A similar thing was believed in the past. It was assumed that all the power of a government must reside in one person or group of persons located at one place. Otherwise, it would be very difficult to make quick decisions and to enforce them. But these notions have changed with the emergence of democracy. In a democracy, people rule themselves through institutions of self-government. Everyone has a voice in the shaping of public policies. Therefore, in a democratic country, political power should be distributed among citizens.

In modern democracies, power sharing can take many forms, as mentioned below:

1. **Power is shared among different organs of government, such as the legislature, executive and judiciary.** This is called horizontal distribution of power because it allows different organs of government placed at the same level to exercise different powers. Such separation ensures that none of the organs can exercise unlimited power. Each organ checks the others. This arrangement is called a system of checks and balances.
2. **Power can be shared among governments at different levels** – a general government for the entire country and governments at the provincial or regional level which is called federal government.
3. **Power may also be shared among different social groups** such as the religious and linguistic groups. ‘Community government’ in Belgium is a good example of this arrangement. This method is used to give minority communities a fair share in power.
4. **Power sharing arrangements can also be seen in the way political parties, pressure groups and movements control or influence those in power.** When two or more parties form an alliance to contest elections and if they get elected, they form a coalition government and thus share power.

ASSIGNMENT

Question 1.

After independence, Sri Lanka witnessed the supremacy of which community?

Question 2.

Do you think that the steps taken by Sri Lankan Government to establish the supremacy of Sinhalese were justified or long lasting? Give your view point.

Question 3.

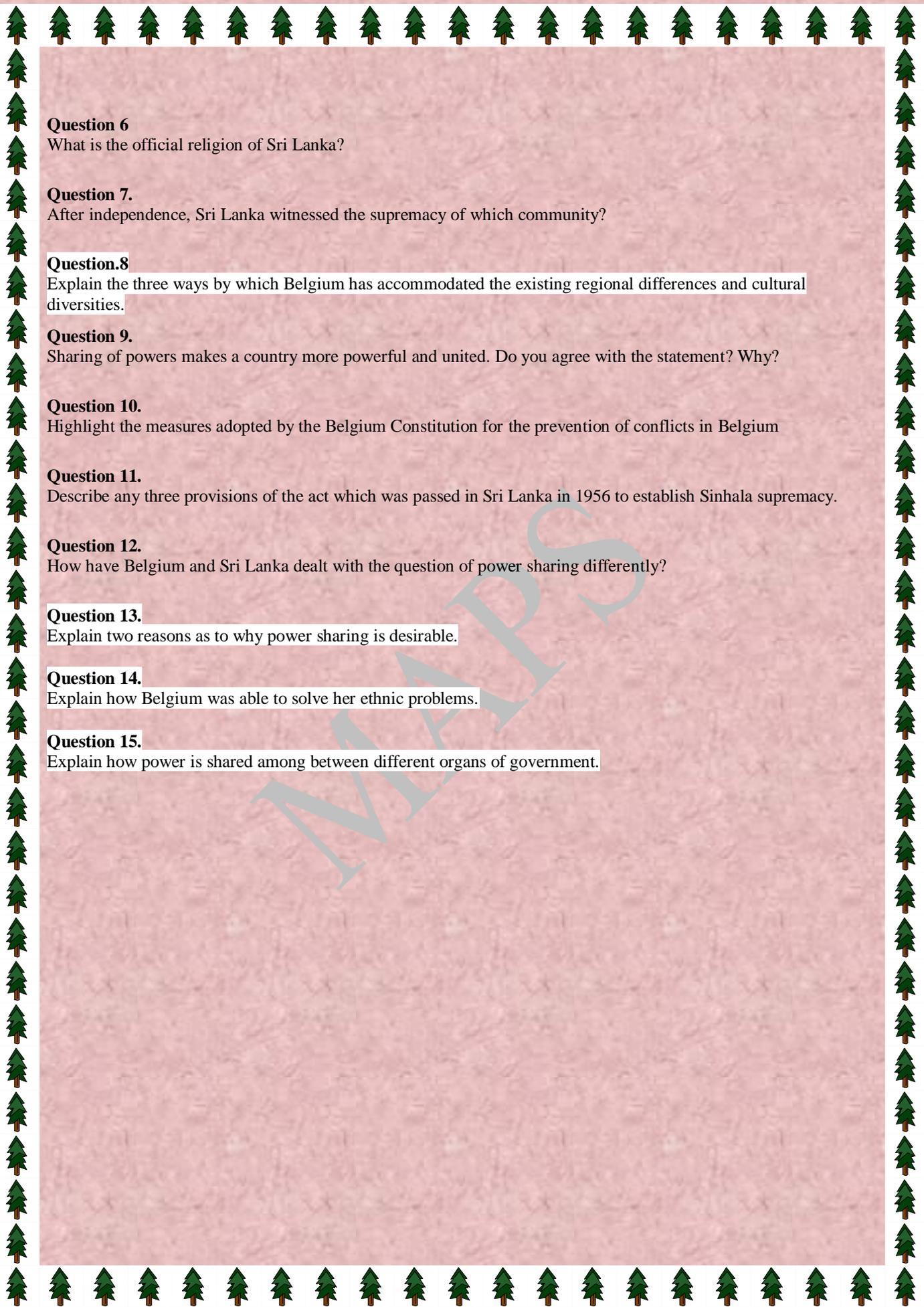
‘Sharing of powers makes a country more powerful and united’. Justify the statement

Question 4.

Describe any three ‘majoritarian measures’ taken by the Sri Lankan Government to establish Sinhalese supremacy.

Question 5.

Bring out any two sharp contrasts between Belgium and Sri Lankan democracies.



Question 6

What is the official religion of Sri Lanka?

Question 7.

After independence, Sri Lanka witnessed the supremacy of which community?

Question.8

Explain the three ways by which Belgium has accommodated the existing regional differences and cultural diversities.

Question 9.

Sharing of powers makes a country more powerful and united. Do you agree with the statement? Why?

Question 10.

Highlight the measures adopted by the Belgium Constitution for the prevention of conflicts in Belgium

Question 11.

Describe any three provisions of the act which was passed in Sri Lanka in 1956 to establish Sinhala supremacy.

Question 12.

How have Belgium and Sri Lanka dealt with the question of power sharing differently?

Question 13.

Explain two reasons as to why power sharing is desirable.

Question 14.

Explain how Belgium was able to solve her ethnic problems.

Question 15.

Explain how power is shared among between different organs of government.

POLITICAL SCIENCE

Chapter 2 – Federalism

Guidelines

- Refer to the content given below and view the links
- These notes will help you to understand the concept and complete the assignment that follows
- The assignment is to be done in the political science notebook
- Please read the political science NCERT book before you begin answering

Instructional Aids / Resources

NCERT links are given below:

- [\(20\) FEDERALISM- FULL CHAPTER || CLASS 10 CBSE CIVICS 2ND CHAPTER - YouTube](#)
- [CBSE Class 10: Federalism L-1 | Civics | Unacademy Class 9 and 10 | Shubham Pathak - YouTube](#)
- [Federalism L1 | CBSE Class 10 Social Science | Civics/Political Science Chapter 2 NCERT | Vedantu - YouTube](#)

Learning outcomes

Each student will be able to know about:

- What is Federalism?
- What make India a Federal Country?
- How is Federalism practiced?
- Decentralization in India

Subtopics

- Unitary system
- Federal system
- Decentralization in rural and urban India

LESSON DEVELOPMENT

What is federalism?

Federalism is a system of government in which power is divided between a central authority and various constituent units of the country.

A federation has two levels of government. Both these levels of governments enjoy their power independent of the other.

1. One is the government for the entire country that is usually responsible for a few subjects of common national interest.
2. Governments at the level of provinces or states that look after much of the day-to-day administering of their state.

Difference Between Unitary System and Federal System

Unitary System	Federal System
There is only one level of government or the sub-units are subordinate to the Central Government.	There are two or more levels (or tiers) of government.
The Central Government can pass on orders to the provincial or local government.	The Central Government cannot order the state government to do something.
The central government is supreme, and the administrative divisions exercise only powers that the central government has delegated to them. Their powers may be broadened and narrowed by the central government	State Government has powers of its own for which it is not answerable to the central government.

Key Features of Federalism

Some of the key features of federalism system are:

1. There are two or more levels (or tiers) of government.
2. Different tiers of government govern the same citizens, but each tier has its own JURISDICTION in specific matters of legislation, taxation and administration.
3. The existence and authority of each tier of government is constitutionally guaranteed.
4. The fundamental provisions of the constitution cannot be unilaterally changed by one level of government. Such changes require the consent of both the levels of government.
5. Courts have the power to interpret the constitution and the powers of different levels of government.
6. Sources of revenue for each level of government are clearly specified to ensure its financial autonomy.
7. The federal system has dual objectives: i) To safeguard and promote the unity of the country ii) Accommodate regional diversity.

Different Routes Through Which Federations Can be Formed

Two aspects are crucial for the institutions and practice of federalism: mutual trust between the government of different levels and agreement to live together. There are two kinds of routes through which federations have been formed.

1. The first route involves independent States coming together on their own to form a bigger unit. This kind of “coming together” federations is formed in the USA, Switzerland and Australia.
2. The second route is that a large country decides to divide its power between the constituent States and the national government. This kind of ‘holding together’ federations is followed in India, Spain and Belgium countries.

What Makes India a Federal Country?

All the features of the federal system apply to the provisions of the Indian Constitution. The Indian Constitution is a three-fold distribution of legislative powers between the Union Government and the State Governments. The 3 lists are mentioned below:

- 1) **Union List:** It includes subjects of national importance such as the defence of the country, foreign affairs, banking, communications and currency. The Union Government alone can make laws relating to the subjects mentioned in this list.
- 2) **State List:** It contains subjects of State and local importance such as police, trade, commerce, agriculture and irrigation. The State Governments alone can make laws relating to the subjects mentioned in this list.
- 3) **Concurrent List:** It includes subjects of common interest to both the Union Government as well as the State Governments. The list includes education, forest, trade unions, marriage, adoption and succession. Both the Union as well as the State Governments can make laws on the subjects mentioned in this list. If their laws conflict with each other, the law made by the Union Government will be considered.

How is Federalism Practised?

The real success of federalism in India is attributed to its nature of democratic politics. Have a look at some of the major ways in which federalism is practised in India.

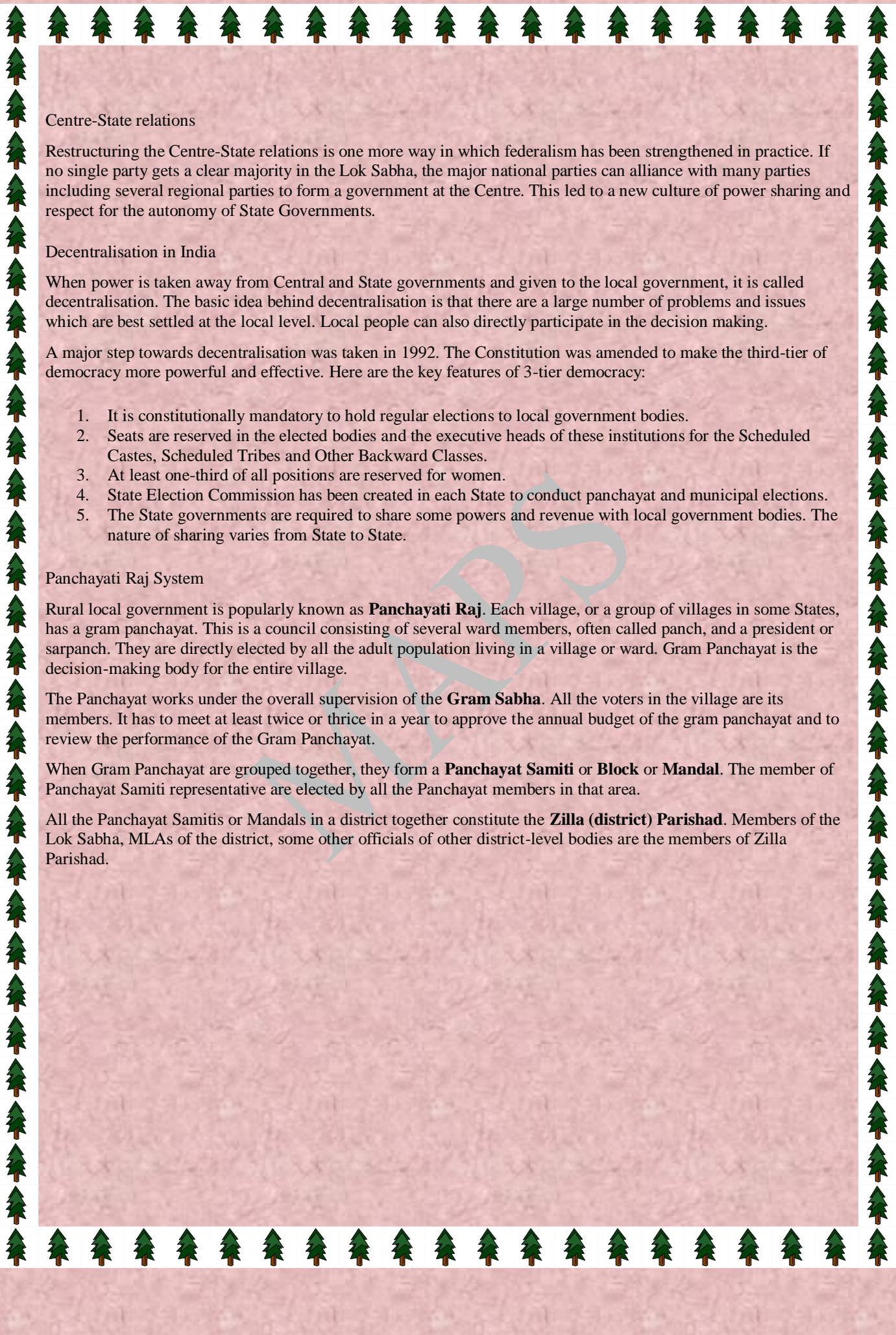


Linguistic States

The creation of linguistic States was the first and a major test for democratic politics in India. From 1947 to 2017, many old States have vanished and many new States have been created. Areas, boundaries and names of the States have been changed. Some States have been formed of the people who speak the same language. These states are known as Linguistic States.

Language Policy

A second test for Indian federation is the language policy. Hindi was identified as the official language. Besides Hindi, there are 21 other languages recognised as Scheduled Languages by the Constitution. States too have their own official languages and government work takes place in the official language of the concerned State.



Centre-State relations

Restructuring the Centre-State relations is one more way in which federalism has been strengthened in practice. If no single party gets a clear majority in the Lok Sabha, the major national parties can alliance with many parties including several regional parties to form a government at the Centre. This led to a new culture of power sharing and respect for the autonomy of State Governments.

Decentralisation in India

When power is taken away from Central and State governments and given to the local government, it is called decentralisation. The basic idea behind decentralisation is that there are a large number of problems and issues which are best settled at the local level. Local people can also directly participate in the decision making.

A major step towards decentralisation was taken in 1992. The Constitution was amended to make the third-tier of democracy more powerful and effective. Here are the key features of 3-tier democracy:

1. It is constitutionally mandatory to hold regular elections to local government bodies.
2. Seats are reserved in the elected bodies and the executive heads of these institutions for the Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Other Backward Classes.
3. At least one-third of all positions are reserved for women.
4. State Election Commission has been created in each State to conduct panchayat and municipal elections.
5. The State governments are required to share some powers and revenue with local government bodies. The nature of sharing varies from State to State.

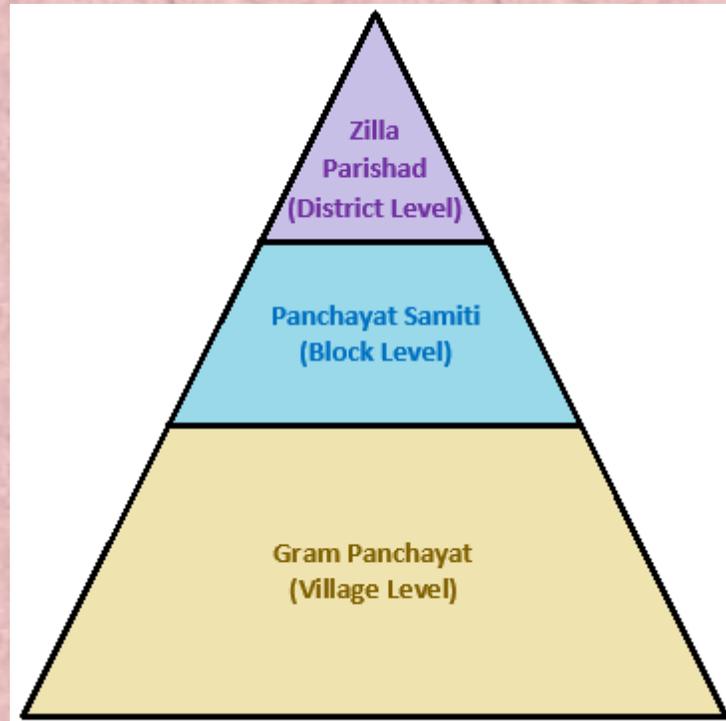
Panchayati Raj System

Rural local government is popularly known as **Panchayati Raj**. Each village, or a group of villages in some States, has a gram panchayat. This is a council consisting of several ward members, often called panch, and a president or sarpanch. They are directly elected by all the adult population living in a village or ward. Gram Panchayat is the decision-making body for the entire village.

The Panchayat works under the overall supervision of the **Gram Sabha**. All the voters in the village are its members. It has to meet at least twice or thrice in a year to approve the annual budget of the gram panchayat and to review the performance of the Gram Panchayat.

When Gram Panchayat are grouped together, they form a **Panchayat Samiti** or **Block** or **Mandal**. The member of Panchayat Samiti representative are elected by all the Panchayat members in that area.

All the Panchayat Samitis or Mandals in a district together constitute the **Zilla (district) Parishad**. Members of the Lok Sabha, MLAs of the district, some other officials of other district-level bodies are the members of Zilla Parishad.



Municipalities

As Gram Panchayat is for Rural areas, similarly we have Municipalities for urban areas. Big cities are constituted into Municipal Corporations. Both Municipalities and Municipal Corporations are controlled by elected bodies consisting of people's representatives. The Municipal Chairperson is the political head of the Municipality. In a Municipal Corporation such an officer is called the Mayor.

This new system of local government is the largest experiment in democracy conducted anywhere in the world. Constitutional status for local government has helped to deepen democracy in our country. It has also increased women's representation and voice in our democracy.

ASSIGNMENT

Question 1.

How many seats are reserved for women in the local bodies in India?

Question 2.

What other factors besides politics keep the federations united?

Question 3.

Explain the vertical division of power giving example from India.

Question 4.

Explain democratic policies adopted by Government of India which made it a successful federation.

Question 5.

What is the official post for the chairperson of a municipal corporation?

Question 6.

Compare the federations of coming together type and holding together type?

Question 7.

How are the legislative powers divided between the Union government and the State Governments?

Question 8.

Which five provisions of Indian Constitution make India a full-fledged federation?

Question 9.

Explain five changes towards decentralization brought in the Constitution after the amendments made in 1992.

Question 10.

What is federalism? Distinguish between the federations of come together type and hold together type. Mention two countries each for both the types of federations.

Question 11.

How has federalism succeeded in India? What policies adopted by India have ensured this success?

Question 12.

Distinguish between coming together and holding together type of federations.

Question 13.

The creation of linguistic states was the first and the major test of democratic politics in our country. Justify the statement.

Question 14.

Explain the threefold distribution of legislative powers between the Union Government and the State Governments.

Question 15.

Explain any four features of federalism.

POLITICAL SCIENCE

Chapter 6 – Political Parties

Guidelines

- Refer to the content given below and view the links
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- Please read the political science NCERT book before you begin answering

Instructional Aids / Resources

NCERT links are given below:

- [POLITICAL PARTIES - FULL CHAPTER || CLASS 10 CIVICS - YouTube](#)
- [CBSE Class 10: Political Parties with Menti Quiz L 1 | Civics | Aagaz | Unacademy Class 9 & 10 - YouTube](#)
- [\(20\) Political Parties Class 10 | Civics Chapter 6 NCERT | Explanation in Hindi - YouTube](#)

Learning outcomes

Each student will be able to know about:

- Why do we need Political Parties?
- How many Parties should we have?
- National Political Parties
- State Parties
- Challenges to Political Parties
- How can Parties be reformed?

Subtopics

- Unitary system
- Federal system
- Decentralization in rural and urban India

LESSON DEVELOPMENT

Why Do We Need Political Parties?

A **Political Party** is a group of people who come together to contest elections and hold power in the government. They agree on some policies and programmes for the society with a view to promote the collective good. Parties reflect fundamental political divisions in a society. Thus, a party is known by which part it stands for, which policies it supports and whose interests it upholds. A political party has three components:

- The leaders
- The active members
- The followers

Functions of Political Parties

Political parties fill political offices and exercise political power. Parties do so by performing a series of functions mentioned below:

1. Parties contest elections.
2. Parties put forward different policies and programmes and the voters choose from them.
3. Parties play a decisive role in making laws for a country.
4. Parties form and run governments.
5. Those parties that lose in the elections play the role of opposition to the parties in power, by voicing different views and criticising the government for its failures or wrong policies.
6. Parties shape public opinion.
7. Parties provide people access to government machinery and welfare schemes implemented by governments.

The Necessity of Political Parties

We need political parties because they perform all the functions which are mentioned above. Apart from this, political parties help in representing different views on various issues to the government. They bring various representatives together so that a responsible government could be formed. They work as a mechanism to support or restrain the government, make policies, justify or oppose them. Political parties fulfil the needs that every representative government has.

How Many Parties Should We Have?

In a democracy, any group of citizens is free to form a political party. More than 750 parties are registered with the Election Commission of India. But not all these parties are serious contenders in the elections. So the question, then is: how many major or effective parties are good for democracy?

In some countries, only one party is allowed to control and run the government. These are called **one-party systems**. This system is not considered as a good option for democracy.

In some countries, power usually changes between the two main parties. Such a party system is called a two-party **system**. Eg: The United States of America and the United Kingdom.

If several parties compete for power, and more than two parties have a reasonable chance of coming to power either on their own strength or in alliance with others, it is called a **multiparty system**. Eg: India.

When several parties in a multi-party system join hands for the purpose of contesting elections and winning power, it is called an **alliance or a front**.

National Parties

Every party in the country has to register with the Election Commission. It offers some special facilities for large and established parties. The Election Commission has laid down detailed criteria of the proportion of votes and seats that a party must get in order to be a recognised party.

1. A party that secures at least 6% of the total votes in an election to the Legislative Assembly of a State and wins at least 2 seats is recognised as a **State Party**.
2. A party that secures at least 6% of the total votes in Lok Sabha elections or Assembly elections in 4 States and wins at least 4 seats in the Lok Sabha is recognised as a **National Party**.

Major National Parties in India

There were 7 recognised national parties in the country in 2018. Here are the details of these parties:

1) All India Trinamool Congress (AITC)

- Launched on 1 January 1998 under the leadership of Mamata Banerjee.
- Recognised as a national party in 2016.
- The party's symbol is flowers and grass.
- Committed to secularism and federalism.
- Has been in power in West Bengal since 2011 and has a presence in Arunachal Pradesh, Manipur and Tripura.
- In the General Elections held in 2014, it got 3.84% votes and won 34 seats, making it the fourth-largest party in the Lok Sabha.

2) Bahujan Samaj Party (BSP):

- Formed in 1984 under the leadership of Kanshi Ram.
- Seeks to represent and secure power for the Bahujan samaj which includes the Dalits, Adivasis, OBCs and religious minorities.
- Stands for the cause of securing the interests and welfare of the Dalits and oppressed people.
- It has its main base in the state of Uttar Pradesh and substantial presence in neighbouring states like Madhya Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, Uttarakhand, Delhi and Punjab.
- Formed government in UP several times by taking the support of different parties at different times.

3) Bharatiya Janata Party (BJP)

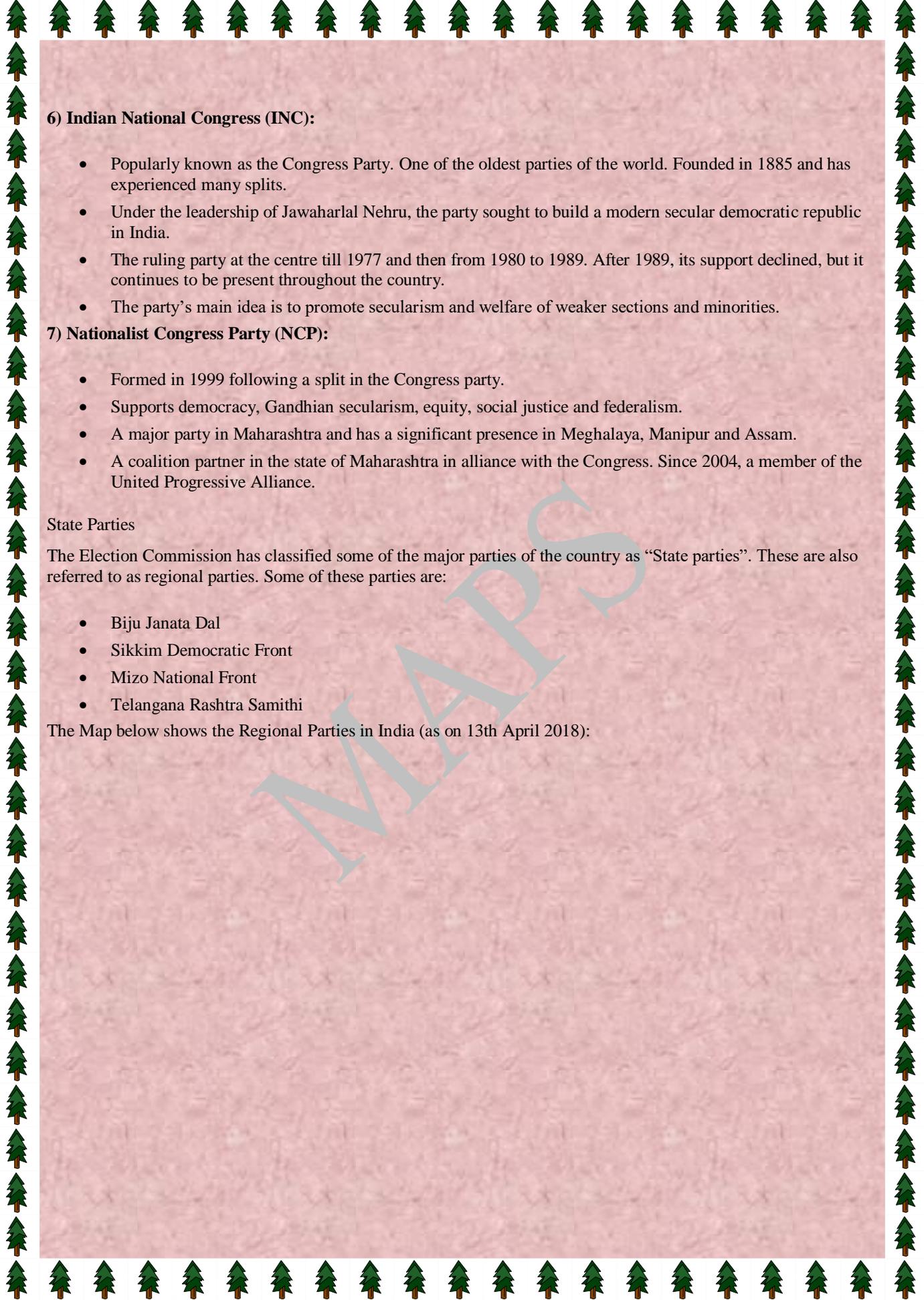
- Founded in 1980, formed by Syama Prasad Mukherjee in 1951.
- Wants to build a strong and modern India by drawing inspiration from India's ancient culture and values and Deendayal Upadhyaya's ideas of integral humanism and Antyodaya.
- Cultural nationalism (or 'Hindutva') is an important element in its conception of Indian nationhood and politics.
- Earlier limited to north and west and to urban areas, the party expanded its support in the south, east, the north-east and to rural areas.
- Emerged as the largest party with 282 members in the 2014 Lok Sabha elections.

4) Communist Party of India (CPI):

- Formed in 1925. Believes in Marxism-Leninism, secularism and democracy.
- Opposed to the forces of secessionism and communalism.
- Accepts parliamentary democracy as a means of promoting the interests of the working class, farmers and the poor.
- Significant presence in the states of Kerala, West Bengal, Punjab, Andhra Pradesh and Tamil Nadu.
- It secured less than 1 per cent votes and 1 seat in the 2014 Lok Sabha elections.

5) Communist Party of India – Marxist (CPI-M):

- Founded in 1964. Believes in Marxism-Leninism. Supports socialism, secularism and democracy and opposes imperialism and communalism.
- Accepts democratic elections as a useful and helpful means for securing the objective of socio-economic justice in India.
- Enjoys strong support in West Bengal, Kerala and Tripura.
- The party was in power in West Bengal without a break for 34 years.
- In the 2014 Lok Sabha elections, it won about 3% of votes and 9 seats.



6) Indian National Congress (INC):

- Popularly known as the Congress Party. One of the oldest parties of the world. Founded in 1885 and has experienced many splits.
- Under the leadership of Jawaharlal Nehru, the party sought to build a modern secular democratic republic in India.
- The ruling party at the centre till 1977 and then from 1980 to 1989. After 1989, its support declined, but it continues to be present throughout the country.
- The party's main idea is to promote secularism and welfare of weaker sections and minorities.

7) Nationalist Congress Party (NCP):

- Formed in 1999 following a split in the Congress party.
- Supports democracy, Gandhian secularism, equity, social justice and federalism.
- A major party in Maharashtra and has a significant presence in Meghalaya, Manipur and Assam.
- A coalition partner in the state of Maharashtra in alliance with the Congress. Since 2004, a member of the United Progressive Alliance.

State Parties

The Election Commission has classified some of the major parties of the country as “State parties”. These are also referred to as regional parties. Some of these parties are:

- Biju Janata Dal
- Sikkim Democratic Front
- Mizo National Front
- Telangana Rashtra Samithi

The Map below shows the Regional Parties in India (as on 13th April 2018):

How can Parties be Reformed?

Have a look at some of the recent efforts and suggestions to reform political parties and its leaders in India. Some efforts are listed below:

1. The Constitution was amended to prevent elected MLAs and MPs from changing parties.
2. The Supreme Court passed an order to reduce the influence of money and criminals. Now, it is mandatory for every candidate who contests elections to file an AFFIDAVIT giving details of his property and criminal cases pending against him.
3. The Election Commission passed an order making it necessary for political parties to hold their organisational elections and file their income tax returns

Besides these, many suggestions are made to reform political parties. These suggestions have not yet been accepted by political parties.

1. A law should be made to regulate the internal affairs of political parties.
2. It should be made mandatory for political parties to give a minimum number of tickets, about one-third, to women candidates. Similarly, there should be a quota for women in the decision making bodies of the party.
3. There should be state funding of elections. The government should give parties money to support their election expenses.

There are two other ways in which political parties can be reformed.

1. People can put pressure on political parties. This can be done through petitions, publicity and agitations.
2. Political parties can improve if people who want change can join political parties. It is difficult to reform politics if ordinary citizens do not take part in it and simply criticise it from the outside.

ASSIGNMENT

Question 1.

Name any one political party that has national level political organisation but is not recognised as the national political party.

Question 2.

Why did India adopt multi-party system?

Question 3.

Why is one-party political system not considered a good option in democratic system?

Question 4.

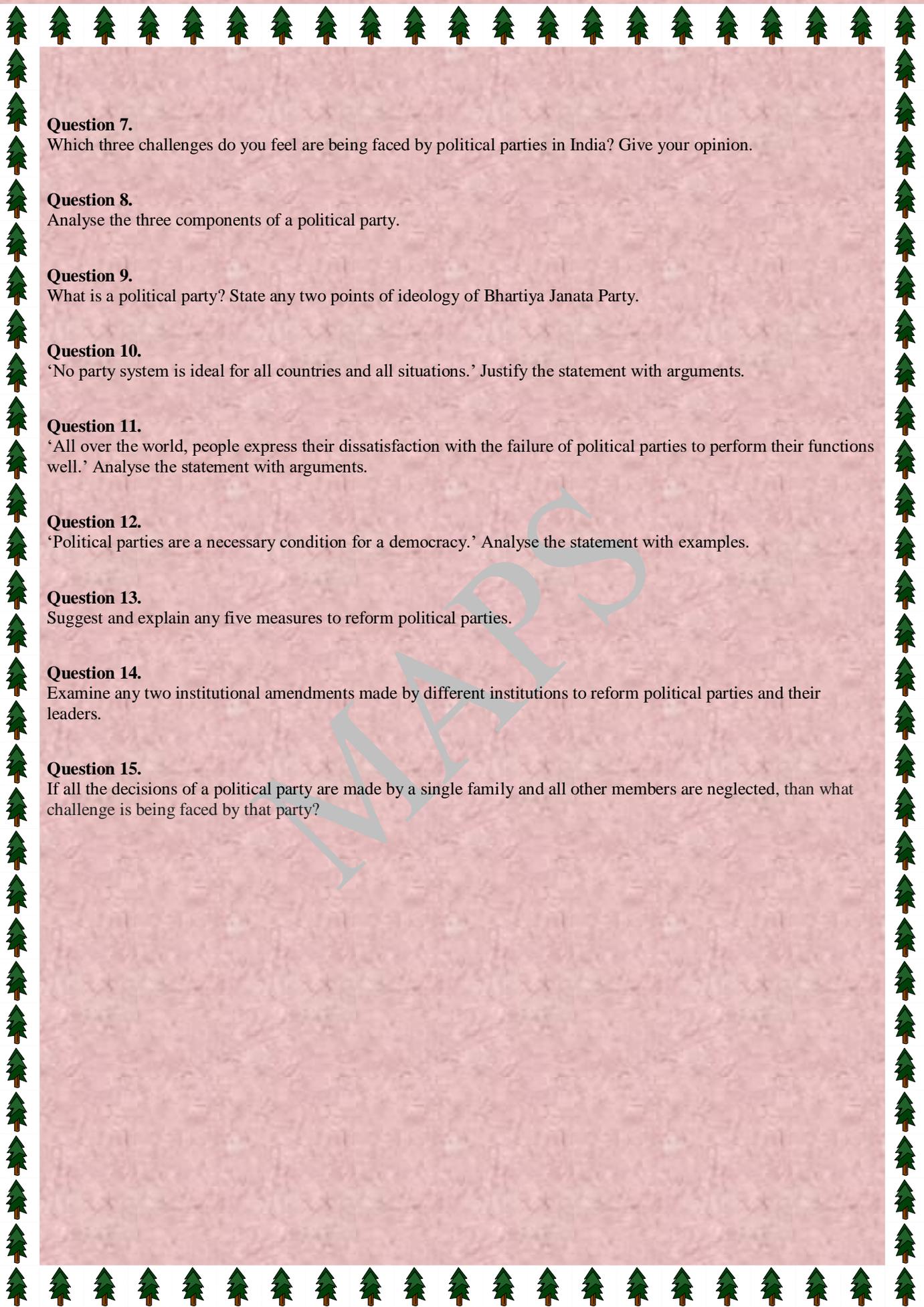
What is meant by a national political party? State the conditions required to be a national political party.

Question 5.

'Nearly every one of the state parties wants to get an opportunity to be part of one or the other national-level coalition.' Support the statement with arguments

Question 6.

What is meant by a regional party? State the conditions required to be recognised as a regional political party.



Question 7.

Which three challenges do you feel are being faced by political parties in India? Give your opinion.

Question 8.

Analyse the three components of a political party.

Question 9.

What is a political party? State any two points of ideology of Bhartiya Janata Party.

Question 10.

‘No party system is ideal for all countries and all situations.’ Justify the statement with arguments.

Question 11.

‘All over the world, people express their dissatisfaction with the failure of political parties to perform their functions well.’ Analyse the statement with arguments.

Question 12.

‘Political parties are a necessary condition for a democracy.’ Analyse the statement with examples.

Question 13.

Suggest and explain any five measures to reform political parties.

Question 14.

Examine any two institutional amendments made by different institutions to reform political parties and their leaders.

Question 15.

If all the decisions of a political party are made by a single family and all other members are neglected, than what challenge is being faced by that party?

POLITICAL SCIENCE

Chapter 7 – Outcomes of Democracy

Guidelines

- Refer to the content given below and view the links
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Instructional Aids / Resources

Video links are given below:

- <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=UIDLB7XQMCU>
- <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=onPtNCYImnY>
- <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=0GS6FRycmWs>

Each student will be able to know about:

- How do we assess democracy's outcomes?
- Accountable, responsive and legitimate government
- Economic growth and development

Subtopics

- Reduction of inequality and poverty
- Accommodation of social diversity
- Dignity and freedom of the citizen

LESSON DEVELOPMENT

How do We Assess Democracy's Outcomes?

Democracy is a better form of government than dictatorship in the following respects:

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

Democracy Produces Accountable, Responsive and Legitimate Government

People have the right to choose their rulers and they have control over their rulers. Citizens can participate in decision making. Thus, democracy produces a government that is accountable to the citizens, and responsive to the needs and expectations of the citizens.

Democracy ensures that decision making is based on norms and procedures. So, a citizen who wants to know if a decision was taken through the correct procedures can find out this information. Citizens can take part in decision making whenever they want.

A democratic government is the people's own government. People wish to be ruled by representatives elected by them.

Economic Growth and Development

Economic development depends on several factors: the country's population size, global situation, cooperation from other countries, economic priorities adopted by the country, etc. There is a significant difference in the rates of economic growth between countries under dictatorship and democracy. So, democracy is preferred as it has several positive outcomes.

Economic Outcomes of Democracy

The following points show the relationship of democracy with economic growth and economic inequalities.

1. Dictatorial regime has had a slightly better record of economic growth. But when we compare their record only in poor countries, there is virtually no difference.
2. There can be a very high degree of inequalities within democracies.
3. There is often inequality of opportunities available to the poorer sections of the society.

Reduction of Inequality and Poverty

All individuals have equal weight in electing representatives. In the process of bringing individuals into the political arena on an equal footing, we find growing economic inequalities.

- A small number of ultra-rich enjoy a highly disproportionate share of wealth and incomes. Their share in the total income of the country has been increasing.
- Those at the bottom strata of the society have very little to depend upon. Their incomes have been declining.

In actual life, democracies do not appear to be very successful in reducing economic inequalities.

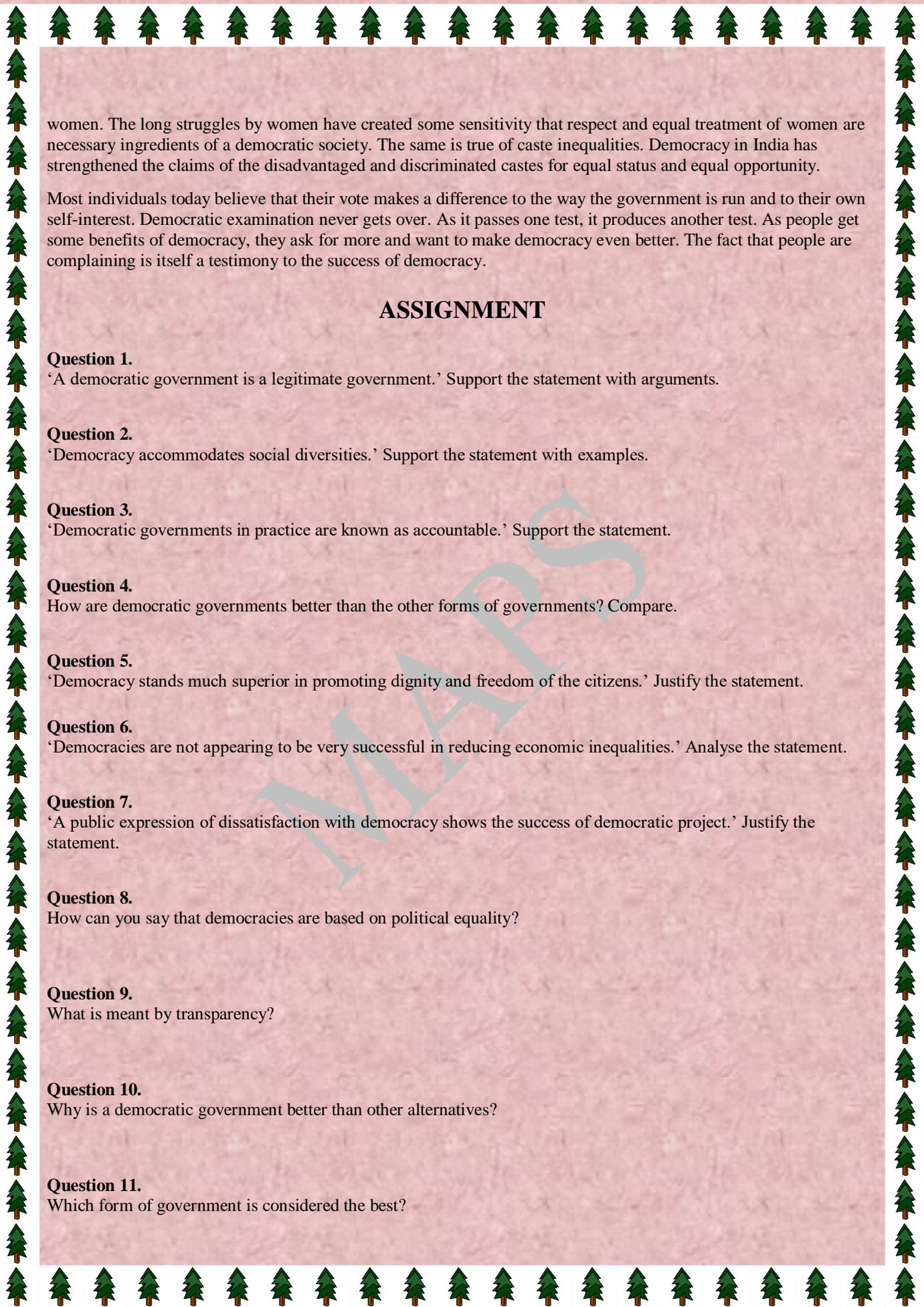
Accommodation of Social Diversity

No society can fully and permanently resolve conflicts among different groups. However, we can learn to respect these differences and we can evolve mechanisms to negotiate the differences. Democracy is best suited to produce this outcome. Ability to handle social differences, divisions and conflicts is a plus point of democratic regimes. But democracy must fulfil 2 conditions in order to achieve this outcome:

1. The majority always needs to work with the minority so that governments function to represent the general view.
2. Rule by majority means that in case of every decision or in case of every election, different persons and groups may and can form a majority.

Dignity and Freedom of the Citizens

Democracy stands much superior to any other form of government in promoting the dignity and freedom of the individual. The passion for respect and freedom are the basis of democracy. Let's take the case of the dignity of



women. The long struggles by women have created some sensitivity that respect and equal treatment of women are necessary ingredients of a democratic society. The same is true of caste inequalities. Democracy in India has strengthened the claims of the disadvantaged and discriminated castes for equal status and equal opportunity.

Most individuals today believe that their vote makes a difference to the way the government is run and to their own self-interest. Democratic examination never gets over. As it passes one test, it produces another test. As people get some benefits of democracy, they ask for more and want to make democracy even better. The fact that people are complaining is itself a testimony to the success of democracy.

ASSIGNMENT

Question 1.

‘A democratic government is a legitimate government.’ Support the statement with arguments.

Question 2.

‘Democracy accommodates social diversities.’ Support the statement with examples.

Question 3.

‘Democratic governments in practice are known as accountable.’ Support the statement.

Question 4.

How are democratic governments better than the other forms of governments? Compare.

Question 5.

‘Democracy stands much superior in promoting dignity and freedom of the citizens.’ Justify the statement.

Question 6.

‘Democracies are not appearing to be very successful in reducing economic inequalities.’ Analyse the statement.

Question 7.

‘A public expression of dissatisfaction with democracy shows the success of democratic project.’ Justify the statement.

Question 8.

How can you say that democracies are based on political equality?

Question 9.

What is meant by transparency?

Question 10.

Why is a democratic government better than other alternatives?

Question 11.

Which form of government is considered the best?

Question 12.

‘Democracy is more effective than its other alternatives.’ Justify the statement.

Question 13.

How is democracy accountable and responsive to the needs and expectations of the citizens? Analyse.

Question 14.

‘There is an overwhelming support for the idea of democracy all over the world.’ Support the statement.

Question 15.

‘Some people think that democracy produces a less-effective government.’ Analyse the statement.

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