

TEACHING NOTES IX CLASS CBSE



COLLECTED AND COMPILED BY
KSV KRISHNA REDDY, GHM,
ZPHS, ETHAKOTA, RAVULAPALEM (M)
Dr. BRA KONASEEMA DIST. 9492146689



సాంఘిక శాస్త్రం సమున్నతం



సాంఘిక శాస్త్ర ఉపాధ్యాయులకు మనవి:

డిజిటల్ లెసన్ ప్లాన్స్ కు ఆమోదం పొందటం మన తొలి విజయం. కొండంత ఉన్న సిలబస్ కు ముకుతాడు వెయ్యడం కోసం మన ప్రయత్నాలు కొనసాగుతున్నాయి. డిజిటల్ ప్లాట్ ఫామ్ పై అన్ని తరగతుల లెసన్ ప్లాన్స్ అందుబాటులో ఉంచాము.

ప్రస్తుతం మన పర్యవేక్షణాధికారులు టీచింగ్ నోట్స్ పై దృష్టిపెట్టారు. కనుక దానిని కూడా డిజిటల్ ప్లాట్ ఫామ్ పై మీకు అందించే ప్రయత్నమే ఇది. దీనిని ప్రింట్ తీసుకుని ప్రతి సాంఘిక శాస్త్ర ఉపాధ్యాయుడూ మీవద్ద ఉంచుకోండి. పాఠ్యాంశాన్ని అంతా ఒకటికి రెండు సార్లు చదువుకున్న తరువాత, ఈ టీచింగ్ నోట్సును పరిశీలిస్తే ఏ ఏ కాన్సెప్ట్స్ (విషయాంశాలు) బోధించాలో మనకు ఒక అవగాహన ఏర్పడుతుంది. ఏ ఏ అంశాలపై బోధన కేంద్రీకరించాలో మనకు అవగతమవుతుంది. కనుక ప్రస్తుతం కొండంత ఉన్న సిలబస్ ను చూసి భయపడకుండా, ఏ ఏ అంశాలు, కాన్సెప్ట్స్ ను అనుసరించి బోధిస్తూ వెళితే మన బోధన సులభతరమవుతుందో ఈ టీచింగ్ నోట్సును చూస్తే మీకు తెలుస్తుంది. కనుక ప్రతి సాంఘిక శాస్త్ర బోధకుడూ ఈ టీచింగ్ నోట్సును, పాఠ్య పుస్తకంతో సంధానపరచుకొని పాఠ్యాంశాన్ని ప్రిపేర్ అయినట్లయితే మీ పని మరింత సులభతరం అవుతుంది. దీనికి తోడు భవిష్యత్తులో మీకు అందుబాటులో ఉంచబడే పిపిటిలు మీ బోధనను మరింత సులభతరం చేస్తాయి.

ప్రతి సాంఘిక శాస్త్ర ఉపాధ్యాయునికీ భరోసా ఇవ్వడం, బోధనలో, మూల్యాంకనంలో వెన్నుదన్ను గా నిలవడంలో మన లక్ష్యం. మీరందరూ అంకిత భావంతో పనిచేసి మన సాంఘిక శాస్త్ర ఉన్నతి కి తోడ్పడగలరని ఆశిస్తూ... సాంఘిక శాస్త్ర ఉపాధ్యాయులందరికీ శుభాభినందనలు.

సదా సాంఘిక శాస్త్ర సేవలో...

COLLECTED AND COMPILED BY
KSV KRISHNA REDDY, GHM,
ZPHS, ETHAKOTA, RAVULAPALEM (M)
Dr. BRA KONASEEMA DIST. 9492146689



INDEX

chapter	NAME OF THE LESSON
1	INDIA – SIZE AND LOCATION (CONTEMPORARY INDIA -1)
2	PHYSICAL FEATURES OF INDIA
3	DRAINAGE
4	CLIMATE
5	NATURAL VEGETATION AND WILD LIFE
6	POPULATION
1	THE FRENCH REVOLUTION (INDIA AND THE CONTEMPORARY WORLD -1)
2	SOCIALISM IN EUROPE AND THE RUSSIAN REVOLUTION
3	NAZISM AND THE RISE OF HITLER
4	FOREST SOCIETY AND COLONIALISM
5	PASTORALISTS IN THE MODERN WORLD
1	WHAT IS DEMOCRACY? WHY DEMOCRACY? (DEMOCRATIC POLITICS -1)
2	CONSTITUTIONAL DESIGN
3	ELECTORAL POLITICS
4	WORKING OF INSTITUTIONS
5	DEMOCRATIC RIGHTS
1	THE STORY OF VILLAGE PALAMPUR (ECONOMICS)
2	PEOPLE AS RESOURCE
3	POVERTY AS A CHALLENGE
4	FOOD SECURITY IN INDIA

**COLLECTED AND COMPILED BY
KSV KRISHNA REDDY, GHM,
ZPHS, ETHAKOTA, RAVULAPALEM (M)
Dr. BRA KONASEEMA DIST. 9492146689**



CBSE Class 09 Social Science
Revision Notes
Chapter - 1
Geography - INDIA — SIZE AND LOCATION

India is an ancient civilisation but now it is a developing nation. It has shown remarkable progress in various fields.

Location

- India lies entirely in the Northern Hemisphere.
- India's mainland extends between $8^{\circ} 4' N$ and $37^{\circ} 8' N$ latitudes, and $68^{\circ} 7' E$ and $97^{\circ} 25' E$ longitudes.
- The Tropic of Cancer ($23^{\circ} 30' N$) divides India into two almost equal parts.
- The island groups of Lakshadweep and Andman & Nicobar are also part of India.

Size

- Covering an area of 3.28 million square kilometres, India's total area is 2.4% of the total geographical area of the world.
- India is the world's seventh largest country with a land boundary of about 15,200 km, with total length of the coastline being 7,516.6 km.
- India's east-west extent appears to be smaller than the north-south extent.
- India's latitudinal and longitudinal extent is about 30 degrees.
- India's standard time is based on 82.30 degrees E meridian, which passes near Mirzapur in UP.
- Latitudinal extent influences duration of the day and night.

India and the World

- The Indian landmass is centrally located between West and East Asia.
 - The trans Indian ocean routes connect countries in the west and countries in the east.
 - India's protruding Deccan Peninsula helped India to establish close contacts with West Asia, Africa and Europe, South-east and East Asia.
 - India's contacts with the world via land routes are much more than her maritime
-

contacts.

- India is the only nation which has a ocean named after it.
- India has contributed a lot to the world in forms of ideas, philosophies (Upanishads, Ramayana, Panchtantra) and mathematics (Indian numerals and decimal system).
- In exchange, India's architecture was influenced by Greek sculpture and architectural styles from West Asia.

India's Neighbours

- India has an important position in South Asia and has 28 States and 8 Union Territories.
 - India shares its boundaries with Pakistan, Afghanistan, China, Nepal, Bangladesh, Myanmar and Bhutan.
 - The southern neighbours across the sea consist of the two island countries, namely Maldives and Sri Lanka.
 - Shri Lanka is separated from India by Pak Strait, a narrow strip of sea.
 - India always have and had strong geographical and historical links with her neighbours.
 - India stands apart from the rest of Asia.
-

Chapter-2 Geography

Physical Features of India

Location

- India has all major physical features of the Earth, i.e. mountains, plains, deserts, plateaus and islands.
- In India the soil colour varies from place to place as it is formed from different types of rocks.
- India has varied physical features whose formation can be explained on the basis of the 'Theory of Plate Tectonics'.
- According to the theory of Plate Tectonics the seven major and minor plates that form the Earth's crust keep moving, causing stress and thus leading to folding, faulting and volcanic activity.
- The physical features of India can be grouped under the following physiographic divisions:
 - (i) The Himalayan Mountains
 - (ii) The Northern Plains
 - (iii) The Peninsular Plateau
 - (iv) The Indian Desert
 - (v) The Coastal Plains
 - (vi) The Islands

The Himalayan Mountains

- The Himalayas are young-fold mountains which are the loftiest and one of the most rugged mountain barriers of the world.
- The Himalayas are 2400 km long, 400 km to 150 km wide from Kashmir to Arunachal Pradesh respectively.
- The Himalayas have three parallel ranges in the longitudinal extent namely:
 - (i) Great or Inner Himalayas also called Himadri.
 - (ii) Middle Himalayas or Himachal.
 - (iii) Outer Himalayas or Shivalik.
- The Himalayas can be divided into four sections:
 - (i) Punjab Himalayas — between Indus and Satluj.
 - (ii) Kumaon Himalayas — between Satluj and Kali.
 - (iii) Nepal Himalayas — between Kali and the Tista.
 - (iv) Assam Himalayas (Eastern Himalayas) — Between Tista and the Dibang (Tsangpo).

The Northern Plains

- The Northern Plains spread over an area of 7 lakh sq. km, 240 km long and 240 km to 320 km broad.
 - The rivers that flow to the plains from the mountains are involved in depositional work.
 - Difference in relief causes the Northern Plain to have four regions.
 - (i) Bhabar — laying at the foot of Shivalik, a narrow 8 to 16 km wide belt of pebbles.
 - (ii) Terai — lying next to Bhabar, a wet and marshy area with wildlife and forests.
 - (iii) Bangar — Older alluvium plain which rises above the level of the flood plains.
 - (iv) Khadar — Younger alluvium of the flood plains.
-

The Peninsular Plateau

- The Peninsular Plateau is the tableland formed due to the breaking and drifting of the Gondwanaland.
- The plateau consists of two broad divisions, namely, the Central Highlands and the Deccan Plateau.
- The eastward extensions of Peninsular Plateau are locally known as Bundelkhand and Baghelkhand. The Chhota Nagpur Plateau marks the further eastward extension drained by the Damodar river.
- The Deccan Plateau, a triangular mass, lies to the south of the river Narmada.
- The western and eastern edges of the Deccan Plateau are marked by the Western Ghats and the Eastern Ghats respectively.
- The Western Ghats are higher than the Eastern Ghats.
- A distinct feature of the peninsular plateau is the black soil area known as Deccan Trap.

The Indian Desert

- The undulating sandy plain covered with sand dunes towards the western margins of the Aravalli Hills is the Indian Desert.
- Crescent shaped dunes called barchans cover large parts of the Indian Desert.
- Luni is the only large river in this region.

The Coastal Plains

- The narrow coastal strips flank the Peninsular Plateau.
- On the west the coastal strips are divided into Konkan (Mumbai-Goa), Kannad Plain and the Malabar coast from northern to southern part.
- On the east the coastal strip is divided into Northern Circars and the Coromandal Coast from northern to southern part.

The Islands

- The Lakshadweep Islands group in the Arabian Sea is close to Kerala.
 - The Lakshadweep Islands were formerly known as Laccadive, Minicoy and Amindive.
 - The Andaman and Nicobar Islands are an elongated chain of islands located in the Bay of Bengal.
 - The Andamans and Nicobar Islands are an elevated portion of submarine mountains.
-

Key Notes

Chapter-3 Geography Drainage

- 'Drainage' is a term signifying the river system of an area.
- A drainage basin or river basin is an area which is drained by a single river system.
- An upland that separates two drainage systems that are next to each other is called a water divide.
- On the basis of origin there are two river systems of India — The Himalayan rivers and the Peninsular rivers.
- Himalayan rivers are rain fed and snowed, so they have water in them throughout the year, i.e. they are perennial.
- Himalayan rivers create meanders, oxbow lakes and other depositional features on their course.
- Peninsular rivers are seasonal; mostly depending on rainfall.
- Most of the rivers of peninsular India originate in the Western Ghats and flow towards the Bay of Bengal.

The Himalayan Rivers

- A river along with its tributaries may be called a river system.
- The major Himalayan rivers are the Indus, the Ganga and the Brahmaputra.

The Indus River System

- Rising near Lake Mansarovar in Tibet, the Indus enters India in the Ladakh district of Jammu and Kashmir.
- Rivers Satluj, Beas, Ravi, Chenab and Jhelum join Indus near Mithankot, Pakistan and flow southwards to fall into the Arabian Sea, east of Karachi.
- With a total length of 2900 km, the Indus is one of the longest rivers of the world.

The Ganga River System

- The headwaters of the Ganga are called 'Bhagirathi'.
- Bhagirathi is fed by the Gangotri Glacier and joined by the Alaknanda at Devprayag.
- Ganga meets the tributaries from the Himalayas such as Ghaghara, Gandak and Kosi.
- A major river Yamuna, arising from Yamunotri Glacier in the Himalayas, joins Ganga at Allahabad.
- Other tributaries — Chambal, Betwa and Son — come from Peninsular uplands to join Ganga.
- Ganga is joined by Brahmaputra and flows through Bangladesh to reach the Bay of Bengal.
- The delta formed when the Ganga and the Brahmaputra flow into the Bay of Bengal is known as the Sunderban Delta.
- The length of the Ganga is over 2500 km and it develops large meanders.

The Brahmaputra River System

- Originating in Tibet, very close to the sources of Indus and Satluj, Brahmaputra enters India in Arunachal Pradesh to flow to Assam joined by many tributaries.
 - The tributaries that join Brahmaputra are Dibang, Lohit, and Kenula.
-

Key Notes

- The Brahmaputra has a braided channel in its entire length in Assam to form many riverine islands.
- Unlike other north Indian rivers, the Brahmaputra is marked by huge deposits of silt on its bed, causing the riverbed to rise.

The Peninsular Rivers

- The major rivers of the peninsula — Mahanadi, Godavari, Krishna and Kaveri — flow eastwards to drain into the Bay of Bengal.
- The Tapi and Narmada are the only rivers which flow west to make estuaries and drain into the Arabian Sea.
- The drainage basins of the peninsular rivers are comparatively small in size.

The Godavari Basin

- Godavari begins in Nasik district of Maharashtra and is the largest peninsular river.
- Its large basin covers most parts of Maharashtra, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa and Andhra Pradesh.
- The tributaries which join the Godavari include Purna, Wardha, Pranhita, Manjra, Wanganga and Penganga.
- Because of its length and the area it covers, Godavari is also known as the Dakshin Ganga.
- Godavari drains into the Bay of Bengal.

The Mahanadi Basin

- The Mahanadi, a 860 km long river, rises in Chhattisgarh to flow through Orissa to reach the Bay of Bengal.
- Mahanadi river basin is shared by Maharashtra, Orissa, Jharkhand and Chhattisgarh.

The Krishna Basin

- The 1400 km long Krishna river rises from a spring near Mahabaleshwar to reach the Bay of Bengal.
- The tributaries of Krishna include Bhima, Musi, Ghatprabha, Koyana and Tungabhadra. The Krishna basin is shared by Maharashtra, Karnataka and Andhra Pradesh.

The Narmada Basin

- Rising in the Amarkantak hills, Narmada flows to create a gorge in marble rocks of Madhya Pradesh.
- Narmada flows towards the west in a rift valley formed due to faulting.

The Tapi Basin: Originating in Betul, Madhya Pradesh, Tapi flows through a basin that covers Madhya Pradesh, Gujarat and Maharashtra. The main west flowing rivers are Sabarmati, Mahi, Bharatpuzha and Periyar.

The Kaveri Basin: Originating in the Brahmagiri range of the Western Ghats, the Kaveri reaches the Bay of Bengal at Kaveripatnam, sharing its basin with Karnataka, Tamil Nadu and Kerala.

Lakes

- Most lakes are permanent while other contain water only during the rainy season.
-

Key Notes

- Some lakes are result of the glacial action and ice sheets and some may have been formed by wind, river action and human activities.
- A river meandering across a floodplain forms cut-offs that later develop into oxbow lakes.
- Glacial lakes are formed when glaciers dig out a basin which is later filled with snowmelt.
- Some lakes like Wular Lake in Jammu and Kashmir result from tectonic activity.
- Apart from natural lakes, the damming of the rivers for the generation of hydel power has also led to the formation of lakes.
- Lakes help to regulate river water flow, prevent flooding, aid to develop hydel power, moderate climate, maintain aquatic ecosystem, enhance natural beauty, develop tourism and provide recreation.

Role of rivers in the economy

- Rivers are natural sources of water.
- Settlements on the river banks have developed into cities.
- Rivers are used for irrigation, navigation, hydro-power generation, all vital for India, an agricultural economy.

River Pollution

- Quality of river water is affected by the growing domestic, municipal, industrial and agricultural demand.
 - A heavy load of untreated sewage and industrial effluents are emptied into the river affecting the river's self-cleansing property.
 - Concern over rising pollution in our rivers led to the launching of various action plans to clean the rivers.
-

Key Notes

Chapter-4 Geography Climate

- General weather conditions over a period of thirty years period is said to be the climate of a place.
- Temperature, atmospheric pressure, wind, humidity and precipitation are elements of weather and climate.
- Generalised monthly atmospheric conditions determine the basis on which the year is divided into the seasons — summer, winter or rainy.
- India has a monsoon type of climate.
- Monsoon is basically a seasonal reversal in the wind through the year.
- There is huge difference in temperature from one region to another.
- Form of precipitation, its amount and distribution also differ from one part of India to another.
- Coastal areas observe lesser difference in temperature conditions. It is the interior of India that experiences temperature contrasts.
- Decrease in rainfall is seen from east to west in the Northern Plains. All this influences diversity in professions, food, dress and houses of people.

Climatic Controls

- The interplay of latitude, altitude, distance from the sea, pressure and wind system, ocean currents and relief features determine climatic conditions of a place.

Factors Affecting India's Climate

- The Tropic of Cancer passes through the middle of the country from the Rann of Kuchchh to Mizoram.
- The Himalayas prevent the cold winds from central Asia from entering the subcontinent.
- The climate and associated weather conditions in India are governed by various atmospheric conditions namely pressure and surface winds, upper air circulation, western cyclonic disturbances and tropical cyclones.
- An apparent force caused by the earth's rotation is the Coriolis Force.
- Jet streams are narrow belts of high-altitude (above 12,000 m) westerly winds in the troposphere.
- The western cyclonic disturbances are weather phenomena of the winter months, brought in by the westerly flow from the Mediterranean region.

The Indian Monsoon

- The climate of India is strongly influenced by monsoon winds.
 - The Inter Tropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) is a broad trough of low pressure in equatorial latitudes where the northeast and the southeast trade winds converge.
 - Reversal in the pressure conditions and eastern Pacific Ocean having lower pressure than eastern Indian Ocean is a periodic change in pressure condition known as the southern oscillation.
 - El Nino is a warm ocean current that flows past the Peruvian coast in place of the cold Peruvian current, every 2 to 5 years.
-

Key Notes

The Onset of the Monsoon and Withdrawal

- The monsoon are pulsating winds affected by different atmospheric conditions encountered by it, on its way over the warm tropical seas.
- Monsoon arrives at the southern tip of the Indian peninsula generally by first week of June.
- The Arabian Sea and the Bay of Bengal branches of the monsoon merge over the north western part of the Ganga plains.
- The withdrawal or the retreat of the monsoon is a more gradual process which begins in the northwestern states of India by early September.
- The retreating monsoon or the transition season sees the change from hot rainy season to dry winter conditions.
- The low pressure conditions over northwestern India get transferred to the Bay of Bengal by early November causing cyclonic depressions originating over the Andaman Sea.
-

Distribution of Rainfall

- Owing to the nature of monsoons, the annual rainfall is highly variable from year to year.
- Areas of high rainfall are liable to be affected by floods while areas of low rainfall are drought prone.

The Seasons

- Four main seasons can be identified in India — the cold weather season, the hot weather season, the advancing monsoon and the retreating monsoon with some regional variations.
- In the cold weather season the northeast trade winds prevail over India.
- Days are warm and nights are cold.
- Frost is common in the north and the higher slopes of the Himalayas experience snowfall.
- The summer months' experience rising temperature and falling air pressure in the northern parts of the country.
- A striking feature of the hot weather season are strong, gusty, hot, dry winds blowing during the day over the north and northwestern India called loo.
- In the advancing monsoon, i.e. the rainy season, the north-western region of the country receives the maximum rainfall.
- Monsoon has 'breaks' in rainfall, thus it has wet and dry spells.
- The alternation of dry and wet spells varies in intensity, frequency and duration causing heavy floods in one part and droughts in the others.

Monsoon as a Unifying Bond

- The dependence of farmers on rain, a change in seasonal cycle, variance in temperature, the needs of humans, plants and animals, festival dates etc., all depend on monsoon in India. In this way monsoon is a unifying bond for Indians.
-

Chapter-5 Geography

Natural Vegetation and Wildlife

- With over 47,000 plant species, India occupies tenth place in the world and fourth in Asia in plant diversity.
- India has 89,000 species of animals as well as a rich variety of fish in its fresh and marine waters.
- Plant community which grows naturally with no human help and is not disturbed by humans for a long time is termed as natural vegetation.
- Virgin vegetation which are purely Indian are known as endemic species and those which have come from outside India are termed as exotic plants.

Relief

- The nature of land influences the type of vegetation.
- Different types of soils provide basis for different types of vegetation.

Climate

- The character and extent of vegetation are mainly determined by temperature along with humidity in the air, precipitation and soil.
- Period of exposure to sunlight varies for different plants leading to their different rates of growth.
- Areas of heavy rainfall have more dense vegetation as compared to other areas of less rainfall.
- Forests are renewable resources and play a major role in enhancing the quality of the environment.
- Vegetation in most parts of India has been modified at some places, or replaced or degraded by human occupancy.

Ecosystem

- All the plants and animals in an area are interdependent and interrelated to each other in their physical environment, thus forming an ecosystem.
- A very large ecosystem on land having distinct type of vegetation and animal life is called a biome.

Types of Vegetation

- The major types of vegetation in India are Tropical Rainforests, Tropical Deciduous Forests, Tropical Thorn Forests and Scrubs, Montane Forests and Mangrove Forests.
 - With warm and wet climate all year round the Tropical Rainforests have luxurious trees, shrubs and creepers.
 - A large variety of animals are found in the rainforests.
 - The most widespread forests of India — the Tropical Deciduous Forests — are also known as the Monsoon Forests.
 - On the basis of the availability of water, these forests are further divided into moist and dry deciduous forests.
 - The leaves of vegetation in Thorn Forests and Scrubs are mostly thick and small to minimize evaporation and have succulent stems to conserve water.
-

-
-
- Montane forests have a succession of natural vegetation belts in the same order as we see from the tropical to the Tundra region.
 - Wet temperate forests are found between a height of 1000 and 2000 metres while temperate grasslands are found at higher elevations.
 - At 3600 metres above sea level temperate forests and grasslands give way to alpine vegetation.
 - The mangrove tidal forests are found in the areas of coasts influenced by tides.
 - Dense mangroves are the common varieties with roots of the plants submerged underwater.

Wildlife

- India has more than 1200 species of birds, 2500 species of fish and between 5 to 8 per cent of the world's amphibians, reptiles and mammals.
 - India is the only country in the world that has both tigers and lions.
 - The Himalayas have a large range of animals that survive the bitter cold.
 - Every species of animal has a role to play in the ecosystem; hence conservation is essential.
 - Hunting and pollution is causing threat to animal species.
 - To protect the flora and fauna of the country, the government has taken many steps.
 - Fourteen biosphere reserves have been set up in the country to protect flora and fauna.
 - 89 National Parks, 49 Wildlife Sanctuaries and Biosphere Reserves have been set up to take care of natural heritage.
-

Key Notes

Chapter-6 Geography Population

- People are themselves resources with varying qualities.
- Population is the point of reference from which all other elements are observed and from which they derive significance and meaning.
- The Census of India provides us with information regarding the population of our country.

Population Size and Distribution

- Uttar Pradesh accounts for about 16 per cent of the country's population.
- India's population as in March 2001 stood at 1,028 million accounting for 16.7 per cent of the world's population.
- Population density is calculated as the number of persons per unit area.
- Population density is affected by relief of the area.

Population Growth and Processes of Population Change

- The numbers, distribution and composition of the population are constantly changing.
 - Growth of population refers to the change in the number of inhabitants of a country/territory during a specific period of time.
 - When more than a billion people increase even at lower rate, the total numbers added becomes very large.
 - The declining trend of the growth rate is indeed a positive indicator of the efforts of birth control.
 - The natural increase of population is the difference between birth rates and death rates.
 - The number of death per thousand persons in a year is the Death Rate.
 - Migration is the movement of people across regions and territories.
 - Migration changes not only population size but also the population composition of urban and rural populations in terms of age and sex composition.
 - The age composition of a population refers to the number of people in different age groups in a country.
 - The population of a nation is generally grouped into three broad categories, namely children (generally below 15 years), working age (15 - 59) years) and aged (above 59 years).
 - Sex ratio is defined as the number of females per thousand males in the population.
 - The sex ratio in India has always remained unfavourable to females.
 - A person of seven years of age or above who is able to read and write with a certain understanding is called a literate.
 - The distribution of the population according to different types of occupation is referred to as the occupational structure.
 - Primary activities include agriculture, animal husbandry, forestry, fishing, mining and quarrying etc. Secondary activities include manufacturing industry, building and construction work etc. Tertiary activities include transport, communications, commerce, administration and other services.
-

Key Notes

- Sustained efforts of government programmes have registered significant improvements in the health conditions of the Indian population.
 - It is a matter of concern that the per capita calorie consumption is much below the recommended level in India.
 - Adolescent population constitutes one fifth of the total population of India.
 - Adolescents in India face the problem of malnutrition that can be dealt with by spreading awareness, literacy and education among them.
 - The Family Welfare Programme has sought to promote responsible and planned parenthood on a voluntary basis.
 - National Population Policy 2000 aims at improving conditions of adolescents, aiming at encourages delayed marriages and child bearing, educating about risks of unprotected sex and provisions for nutritional needs.
-

Chapter-1 History

The French Revolution

The French Society during the Late 18th Century

The French Society Comprised:

1st Estate: Clergy

2nd Estate: Nobility

3rd Estate: Big businessmen, merchants, court officials, peasants, artisans, landless labourers, servants, etc.

- Some within the Third Estate were rich and some were poor.
- The burden of financing activities of the state through taxes was borne by the Third Estate alone.

The Struggle for Survival: Population of France grew and so did the demand for grain. The gap between the rich and poor widened. This led to subsistence crises.

The Growing Middle Class: This estate was educated and believed that no group in society should be privileged by birth. These ideas were put forward by philosophers such as Locke English philosopher and Rousseau French philosopher. The American constitution and its guarantee of individual rights was an important example of political theories of France. These ideas were discussed intensively in salons and coffee houses and spread among people through books and newspapers. These were even read aloud.

THE OUTBREAK OF THE REVOLUTION

The French Revolution went through various stages. When Louis XVI became king of France in 1774, he inherited a treasury which was empty. There was growing discontent within the society of the Old Regime.

1789: Convocation of Estates General. The Third Estate forms National Assembly, the Bastille is stormed, peasant revolts in the countryside.

1791: A constitution is framed to limit the powers of the king and to guarantee basic right to all human beings.

1792-93: France becomes a republic. Jacobin Republic overthrown, a Directory rules France.

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

1799: The Revolution ends with the rise of Napoleon Bonaparte. 2

Time Line: The French Revolution

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

WOMEN'S REVOLUTION

From the very beginning, women were active participants in the events which brought about so many changes in the French society. Most women of the third estate had to work for a living. Their wages were lower than those of men.

In order to discuss and voice their interests, women started their own political clubs and newspapers. One of their main demands was that women must enjoy the same political rights as men. Some laws were introduced to improve the position of women. Their struggle still continues in several parts of the world.

It was finally in 1946 that women in France won the right to vote.

THE ABOLITION OF SLAVERY

There was a triangular slave trade between Europe, Africa and Americas. In the 18th century, there was little criticism of slavery in France. No laws were passed against it. It was in 1794 that

the convention freed all slaves. But 10 years later slavery was reintroduced by Napoleon. It was finally in 1848 that slavery was abolished in the French colonies.

THE REVOLUTION AND EVERYDAY LIFE

The years following 1789 in France saw many changes in the lives of men, women and children. The revolutionary governments took it upon themselves to pass laws that would translate the ideals of liberty and equality into everyday practice. One important law that came into effect was the abolition of censorship.

The ideas of liberty and democratic rights were the most important legacy of the French Revolution. These spread from France to the rest of Europe during the 19th century.

NAPOLEON

In 1804, Napoleon crowned himself emperor of France. He set out to conquer neighbouring European countries, dispossessing dynasties and creating kingdoms where he placed members of his family. He saw his role as a moderniser of Europe. He was finally defeated at Waterloo in 1815.

Chapter-2 History

Socialism in Europe and the Russian Revolution

THE AGE OF SOCIAL CHANGE: The French Revolution opened up the possibility of creating a dramatic change in the way in which society was structured. Not everyone in Europe, however, wanted a complete transformation. Some were 'conservatives', while others were 'liberals' or 'radicals'.

Liberals: Wanted a nation which tolerated all religions. They argued for an elected parliamentary government, subject to laws interpreted by a well-trained judiciary that was independent of rulers and officials. They were not democrats.

Radicals: Wanted a nation in which government was based on the majority of a country's population. They disliked concentration of property in hands of a few, not the existence of private property.

Conservatives: They resisted change. After the revolution they started accepting change provided it was slow and had links and respected the past.

Industries and Social Change: This was the time of economic and social change. Men, women and children were pushed into factories for low wages, Liberals and radicals who were factory owners felt that workers' efforts must be encouraged.

Socialism in Europe: Socialists were against private property. They had different visions of the future. Some believed in cooperatives, some demanded that governments must encourage cooperatives.

Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels added that industrial society was capitalist. Marx believed that a socialist society would free the workers from capitalism. This would be a communist society.

Socialism Given Support: Workers in Germany and England began forming associations to fight for better living conditions. They set up funds for members in distress, reduction of working hours and right to vote.

THE RUSSIAN REVOLUTION: In 1914, Nicholas II ruled the Russian empire.

Economy and Society: Most of the Russian population were agriculturalist. Industries were being set up which was mostly private property of industrialists. Workers were divided into groups but they did unite to strike work when they were dissatisfied. Peasants had no respect for nobility, very unlike the French peasant. Russian peasants were the only peasant community which pooled their land and their commune divided it.

Socialism in Russia: All political parties were illegal in Russia before 1914. The Russian Socialist Democratic Labor Party was formed in 1900. It struggled to give peasants their rights over land that belonged to nobles. As land was divided among peasants periodically and it was felt that peasants and not workers would be the main source of the revolution. But Lenin did not agree with this as he felt that peasants were not one social group. The party was divided into Bolsheviks and Mensheviks.

The 1905 Revolution: Russia was an autocracy. The Tsar was not subject to the parliament. Liberals wanted to end this state of affairs. They worked towards demanding a constitution during the Revolution of 1905.

Bloody Sunday: Prices of essential goods rose so quickly by 1904 that the real wages declined by 20%. During this time, four members of the Putilov Iron Works were dismissed. Action was called for. Over 110,000 workers in St. Petersburg went on strike demanding a reduction in working hours and increase in wages. This procession was attacked by the police and Cossacks. Over 100 workers were killed. Strikes took place as a reaction. People demanded a constituent assembly.

The Tsar allowed the creation of an elected consultative Parliament or Duma. The Tsar dismissed the first Duma within 75 days and announced the election of a second Duma.

The First World War and the Russian Empire: In Russia, the war was initially very popular but later the support grew thin. Anti-German sentiments ran high. Russian armies lost badly in Germany and Austria. There were 7 million casualties and 3 million refugees in Russia. The war also affected the industry. There was labour shortage, railway lines were shut down and small workshops were closed down. There was shortage of grain and hence of bread.

THE FEBRUARY REVOLUTION IN PETROGRAD

Events

- In the winter of 1917, Petrograd was grim. There was food shortage in the workers' quarters.
- 22 February: a lockout took place at a factory. Workers of 50 other factories joined in sympathy. Women also led and participated in the strikes. This came to be called the

International Women's Day:

- The government imposed a curfew as the quarters of the fashionable area and official buildings were surrounded by workers.
- On the 24th and 25th, the government called out the cavalry and police to keep an eye on them.
- On 25th February, the government suspended the Duma and politicians spoke against this measure. The people were out with force once again.
- On 27th, the police headquarters were ransacked.
- Cavalry was called out again.
- An officer was shot at the barracks of a regiment and other regiments mutinied, voting to join the striking workers gathered to form a soviet or council. This was the Petrograd Soviet.
- A delegation went to meet the Tsar, military commanders advised him to abdicate.
- The Tsar abdicated on 2nd March.
- A Provincial Government was formed by the Soviet and Duma leaders to run the country. The people involved were the parliamentarians, workers, women workers, soldiers and military commanders.

Effects

- Restrictions on public meetings and associations were removed.
 - Soviets were set up everywhere.
-

-
-
- In individual areas factory committees were formed which began questioning the way industrialists ran their factories.
 - Soldiers' committees were formed in the army.
 - The provisional government saw its power declining and Bolshevik influence grow. It decided to take stern measures against the spreading discontent.
 - It resisted attempts by workers to run factories and arrested leaders.
 - Peasants and the socialist revolutionary leaders pressed for a redistribution of land. Land committees were formed and peasants seized land between July and September 1917.

OCTOBER REVOLUTION:

- 16th October 1917 — Lenin persuaded the Petrograd Soviet and Bolshevik Party to agree to a socialist seizure of power. A Military Revolutionary Committee was appointed by the Soviet to organise seizure.
- Uprising began on 24th October. Prime Minister Kerenskii left the city to summon troops.
- Military men loyal to the government seized the buildings of two Bolshevik newspapers. Pro-government troops were sent to take over telephone and telegraph offices and protect the Winter Palace.
- In response Military Revolutionary Committee ordered to seize government offices and arrest the ministers.
- The 'Aurora' ship shelled the Winter Palace. Other ships took over strategic points.
- By night the city had been taken over and ministers had surrendered.
- All Russian Congress of Soviets in Petrograd approved the Bolshevik action.
- Heavy fighting in Moscow — by December, the Bolsheviks controlled the Moscow - Petrograd area.

The people involved were Lenin, the Bolsheviks, troops (pro-government).

Effects

- Most industry and banks were nationalised in November 1917.
- Land was declared social property and peasants were allowed to seize the land of the nobility.
- Use of old titles was banned.
- New uniforms were designed for the army and officials.
- Russia became a one party state.
- Trade unions were kept under party control.
- A process of centralised planning was introduced. This led to economic growth.
- Industrial production increased.
- An extended schooling system developed.
- Collectivisation of farms started.

The Civil War — When the Bolsheviks ordered land redistribution, the Russian army began to break up. Non-Bolshevik socialists, liberals and supporters of autocracy condemned the Bolshevik uprising. They were supported by French, American, British and Japanese troops. All these fought a war with the Bolsheviks.

Making a Socialist Society — The Bolsheviks kept industries and banks nationalised during the civil war. A process of centralised planning was introduced. Rapid construction and industrialisation started. An extended schooling system developed.

Stalin and Collective Farming — Stalin believed that rich peasants and traders stocked supplies to create shortage of grains. Hence, collectivisation was the need of the hour. This system would also help to modernise farms. Those farmers who resisted collectivisation were punished, deported or exiled.

GLOBAL INFLUENCE: By the 1950s, it was recognised in the country and outside that everything was not in keeping with the ideals of the Russian revolution. Though its industries and agriculture had developed and the poor were being fed, the essential freedom to its citizens was being denied. However, it was recognised that social ideals still enjoyed respect among the Russians. But in each country the ideas of socialism were rethought in a variety of different ways.

Key Notes

Chapter-3 History Nazism and the rise of Hitler

BIRTH OF THE WEIMER REPUBLIC: Germany fought the First World War (1914–1918) along with the Austrian empire and against the Allies (England, France and Russia).

Germany initially made gains by occupying France and Belgium. However, the Allies won defeating Germany and the Central Powers in 1918.

A National Assembly met at Weimer and established a democratic constitution with a federal structure. The republic, however, was not received well by its own people largely because of the terms it was forced to accept after Germany's defeat at the end of the First World War. Many Germans held the new Weimer Republic responsible for not only the defeat in the war but the disgrace at Versailles.

The Effects of the War — The war had a devastating impact on the entire continent both psychologically and financially. From being a creditor, Europe became a debtor. The supporters of the Weimer Republic were criticised and became easy targets of attack in the conservative nationalist circles. Soldiers came to be placed above civilians. Aggressive war propaganda and national honour became important.

Political Radicalism and Economic Crisis: The birth of the Weimer Republic coincided with the uprising of the Spartacist League on the pattern of the Bolshevik Revolution in Russia. The Spartacists founded the Communist Party of Germany.

Political radicalisation was heightened by the economic crisis of 1923. As Germany refused to pay the war reparations, France occupied its leading industrial area, Ruhr. Germany retaliated with printing paper currency recklessly. The value of the mark collapsed. Prices of goods soared. There was hyperinflation.

The Years of Depression

1924–1928 saw some stability, yet it was built on sand. Germany was totally dependent on short- term loans, largely from the USA. This support was withdrawn with the crash in 1929 of the Wall Street Exchange. German economy was hit badly. The middle class and working population was filled with the fear of proletarianisation.

The Weimer Republic had some inherent defects :

1. Proportional Representation
2. Article 48 — which gave the President the powers to impose emergency, suspend civil rights and rule by decree.

HITLER'S RISE TO POWER

Hitler was born in Austria in 1889. He earned many medals for bravery in the First World War. The German defeat horrified him. The Treaty of Versailles made him furious. He joined the German Workers Party and renamed it National Socialist German Workers' Party. This later came to be known as the Nazi Party.

Nazism became a mass movement only during the Great Depression. The Nazi propaganda stirred hopes of a better future. Hitler was a powerful and effective speaker. He promised the people a strong nation where all would get employment.

Key Notes

The Destruction of Democracy — Hitler achieved the highest position in the cabinet of ministries on 30 January 1933. Hitler now set out to dismantle the structures of democratic rule. The Fire Decree of 28 February 1933 suspended civic rights like freedom of speech, press and assembly. Communists were hurriedly packed off to new established concentration camps. All political parties were banned. Special surveillance and security forces were created to control the people and rule with impunity.

Reconstruction: Economist Hjalmar Schacht was given the responsibility of economic recovery. This was to be done through a state funded work creation programme. Hitler pulled out of the League of Nations in 1933, reoccupied the Rhineland in 1936 and integrated Austria and Germany in 1938 under the slogan: One people, One empire, One leader. He then took Sudetenland from Czechoslovakia. Hitler had the unspoken support of England. Hitler did not stop here. He chose war as a way out of the Economic Crisis.

Resources were to be accumulated through expansion of territory. In September 1940 Germany invaded Poland. This started a war with France and England. USA resisted involvement in the war. But when Japan extended its support to Hitler and bombarded Pearl Harbour, the USA entered the war. The war ended in 1945 with Hitler's defeat and the US bombing of Hiroshima and Nagasaki in Japan.

THE NAZI WORLD VIEW: According to Nazi ideology there was no equality between people, but only racial hierarchy. The Nazis quickly began to implement their dream of creating an exclusive racial community of pure Germans by physically eliminating all those who were considered undesirable. They wanted a society of pure and healthy Nordic Aryans. Jews, gypsies, blacks, Russian, Poles, even certain Germans and abnormal were considered undesirable. The other aspect of Hitler's ideology related to the geopolitical concept of Lebensraum, or living space.

Jews were the worst sufferers in Nazi Germany. Hitler believed in pseudoscientific theories of race which said that conversion was no solution to the Jewish problem. It had to be solved through their total elimination.

From **1933-1938** — the Nazis terrorised, pauperised and segregated the Jews, compelling them to leave the country.

The next phase, **1939-1945**, aimed at concentrating them in certain areas and then killing them in gas chambers in Poland.

The Racial Utopia: Genocide and war became two sides of the same coin. Occupied Poland was divided. Poles were forced to leave their homes and properties behind to be occupied by ethnic Germans brought in from occupied Europe.

YOUTH IN NAZI GERMANY: Hitler felt that a strong Nazi society could be established by teaching Nazi ideology to children. All schools were given German teachers. Children were divided into two groups — desirable and undesirable. Textbooks were rewritten, functions of

Key Notes

sports in schools was to nurture the spirit of violence and aggression. Ten-year-olds had to enter Jungvolk. At 14, all boys joined 'Hitler Youth', they joined the Labour Service at 18.

The Nazi Cult of Motherhood — Women were told to be good mothers and rear pure blooded Aryan children. They were encouraged to produce many children.

The Art of Propaganda — The Nazi regime used language and media with care and often to great effect. They used films, pictures, radio, posters, etc. to spread hatred for Jews.

Crimes against Humanity — People saw the world through Nazi eyes and spoke the Nazi language. At times even the Jews began to believe in the Nazi stereotypes about them.

Knowledge about the Holocaust — It was only after the war ended that people came to know about what had happened. The Jews wanted the world to know about the atrocities and sufferings they had endured during the Nazi killing operations. They just wanted to live, even if it was for a few hours, to tell the world about the Holocaust.

Key Notes

Chapter – 4 History

Forest Society and Colonialism

DEFORESTATION: Deforestation is cutting down of trees indiscriminately in a forest area. Under the colonial rule it became very systematic and extensive.

Important of Deforestation:

- As population increased over the centuries and the demand for food went up, peasants extended the boundaries of cultivation by clearing forests.
- The British encouraged the production of commercial crops like jute, sugar, wheat and cotton for their industries as raw material.
- The British thought that forests were unproductive land as they yielded no revenue nor agricultural produce. Cultivation was viewed as a sign of progress.
- Oak forests in England were disappearing. There was no timber supply for the shipbuilding industry. Forest resources of India were used to make ships for the Royal Navy.
- Spread of railways required two things :
 - land to be cleared to lay railway tracks
 - wood as fuel for locomotives and for railway line sleepers.
 - Large areas of natural forests were cleared for tea, coffee and rubber plantations. Thus land was given to planters at cheap rates.

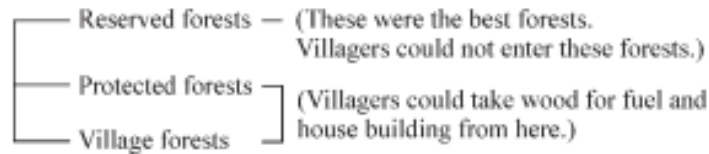
COMMERCIAL FORESTRY: The British were worried that the use of forests by local people and the reckless felling of trees by traders would destroy forests and hence invited German expert Dietrich Brandis as first Inspector General of Forests in India.

Brandis set up the Indian Forest Service in 1864 and helped formulate the Indian Forest Act of 1865. The Imperial Forest Research Institute was set up in Dehradun in 1906.

Scientific forestry was taught there. In the scientific forestry system, forests with different kinds of trees were replaced by plantations. Forest management plans were made by forest officials. They planned how much of the forest had to be cut and how much had to be replanted.

Key Notes

The Forest Acts divided forests into



Forest Rules and Cultivation: Shifting cultivation or swidden agriculture was the agricultural practice in many parts of Asia, Africa and South America. The colonial foresters did not favour this system as it made it difficult for the government to calculate taxes. In addition, the forest officials saw in it the danger of fire and also that no trees could grow on this kind of land.

Hunting and Forest Laws: The forest laws forbade the villagers from hunting in the forests but encouraged hunting as a big sport. They felt that the wild animals were savage, wild and primitive, just like the Indian society and that it was their duty to civilise them.

New Trade and New Employment: New opportunities opened in trade as the forest department took control of the forests, e.g., the Mundurucu peoples of the Brazilian Amazon.

With the colonial influence trade was completely regulated by the government. Many large European trading firms were given the sole right to trade in forest products of a particulate area.

Many pastoral communities lost their means of livelihood.

New opportunities of work did not always mean improved well-being for the people.

FOREST REBELLIONS: Forest communities rebelled against the changes imposed upon them. The people of Bastar were one such group. The initiative was taken by the Dhurwas of the Kanger forest where reservation first took place. The British sent troops to suppress the rebellion. It took them three months to regain control. A victory for the people of Bastar was that the work on reservation was suspended and the area was reduced to half.

CHANGES IN JAVA

The Kalangs: They rose in rebellion against the Dutch in 1770 but their uprising was suppressed.

Scientific Forestry in Java: Forest laws were enacted in Java. The villagers resisted these laws. Forest timber was used for ships and railway sleepers.

Key Notes

The Dutch government used the 'balandongdiensten' system for extracting free labour from the villagers.

Samin's Movement: Samin of Randublatung village (a teak forest village) questioned the state ownership of forests. A widespread movement spread. They protested by lying on the ground when the Dutch came to survey it and refusing to pay taxes and perform labour.

World Wars and Deforestation: The world wars had a major impact on forests. The forest department cut freely to meet the British demands. The Dutch followed the scorched earth policy of destroying saw mills, burning logs of teak so that the Japanese could not benefit from it. The Japanese forced the villagers to cut down forests, when they occupied the area.

New Developments: Conservation and preservation of forests has now become the focus rather than timber. It has also been realised that if forests are to survive, the local community needs to be involved. There are many such examples in India where communities are conserving forests in sacred groves. This looking after is done by each member of the village and everyone is involved.

Key Notes

Chapter – 5 History

Pastoralists in the Modern World

NOMADISM AS A WAY OF LIFE

The Mountain Nomads

- The Gujjar Bakarwals of Jammu and Kashmir — They are pastoral nomads who move in groups called 'Kafila'. Their movements are governed by the cold and snow. In winters when the high mountains are covered with snow these Gujjars move down to the low hills of the Sivalik range. On the onset of summer, when the snow melts and the mountains become lush and green, these pastoralists move back to the mountains.
- The Gaddi Shepherds of Himachal Pradesh have a similar cycle of movement. They also spend the winter on the low Sivalik hills and the summers in Lahul and Spiti.
- The Gujjar cattle herders of Kumaon and Garhwal spend their summers in the 'bugyals' and their winters in the 'bhabar'.
- The Bhotias, Sherpas and Kinnauri follow the cyclic movement which helps them to adjust to seasonal changes and make best use of pastures.

On the plateaus, plains and deserts —

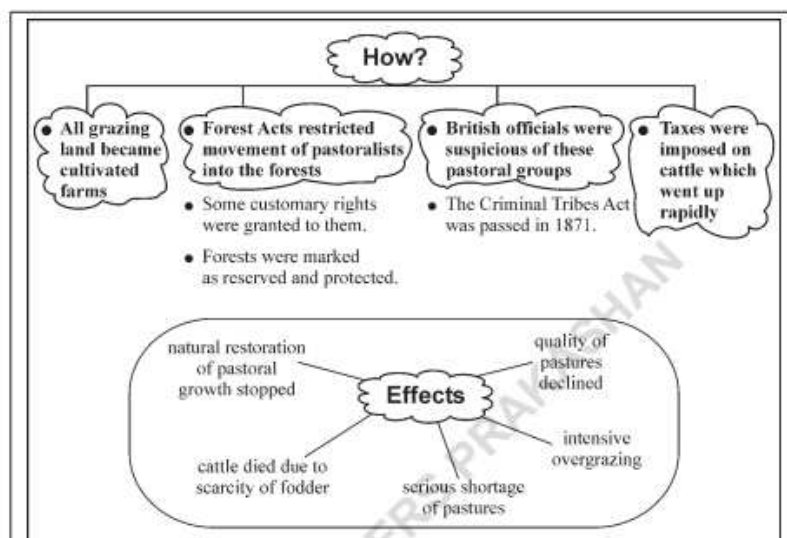
- The Dhangars of Maharashtra: The Dhangars stay in the central plateau of Maharashtra during the monsoon. This is a semi-arid region. By October they begin their movement towards Konkan. Here their cattle help to manure the fields and hence they are welcomed by the Konkani peasant. As soon as the monsoon sets in, they retreat back to the semi-arid land of Maharashtra.
 - The Gollas who herd cattle and the Kurumas and Kurubas who reared sheep and goat are from Karnataka and Andhra. They live near the woods and in the dry periods they move to the coastal tracts.
 - The Banjaras of Uttar Pradesh, Punjab, Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh and Maharashtra move to different places in search of good pastures.
 - The Raikas of Rajasthan combine cultivation with pastoralism. When their grazing grounds become dry they move to new and greener pastures.
-

Key Notes

- Pastoral life was sustained by
- their sense of judgement to know how long one must stay in an area
- to know where they could find food and water
- to assess and calculate the timings of their movement
- their ability to set up a relationship with the farmers so that the herds could graze on the harvested fields.

CHANGES IN PASTORAL LIFE DUE TO COLONIAL RULE

- Under colonial rule the life of the pastoralists changed completely. Their grazing grounds became less, their movements were regulated, the revenues they had to pay increased, their trade and crafts and agricultural produce declined.



Coping with changes —

- Some reduced the number of cattle in their herds.
- Some discovered new pastures.
- Some bought land and began to lead a settled life.
- Some poor peasants borrowed money to survive, in due course of time they lost their cattle and sheep and became labourers.

PASTORALISM IN AFRICA

Key Notes

The Maasai — Changes in their way of life

The Maasai cattle herders live primarily in East Africa. Rules, laws and regulations have changed their way of life. There are many problems which they have faced, the most prominent being continuous loss of their grazing grounds. This has many reasons:

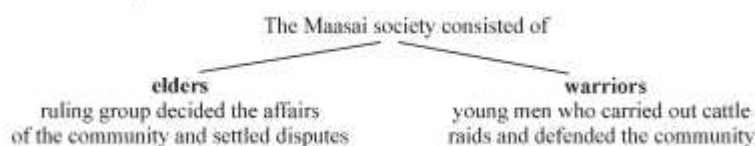
- scramble for territorial possessions in Africa.
- dividing the region into different colonies.
- best grazing grounds being taken over by the white settlements.
- grazing grounds being converted to cultivated land and national parks and game reserves.

The Kaokoland herders have faced a similar fate.

Confined to special reserves — Traditionally, pastoralists moved to different pastures but with the restrictions imposed on them these pastoralists were confined to special reserves. They could not move without special permits. They were not allowed to enter the markets in white areas. Some tribes were affected by the Criminal Tribes Act. Even their trade activities were adversely affected.

Why nomadism — Pastoralists are nomadic — this allows them to survive bad times and avoid crises, such as drought. But later they could not shift to greener pastures and their cattle died of starvation.

The Maasai society —



The British appointed chiefs to administer the affairs of the tribe. These chiefs were wealthy and lived a settled life as they had both pastoral and non-pastoral income. The poor pastoralists passed through bad times and worked as labourers. There were two important changes :

- the traditional difference between the elders and warriors was disturbed.
- there came to be a marked difference between the rich and poor.

Developments within Pastoral Societies

Key Notes

Pastoralists adapt to new times. They find new pastures, change their routes for their annual movement, reduce their cattle numbers, press for their rights, etc. It is being advocated today that pastoral nomadism is the best form of life suited to the dry, semi-arid and mountainous regions of the world

Key Notes

Chapter-1 Political Science WHAT IS DEMOCRACY? WHY DEMOCRACY?

DEMOCRACY

1. Democracy is a form of government in which the rulers are elected by the people.
 - Myanmar where the army rules, Dictator Pinochet's rule in Chile, or President Nkrumah's rule in Ghana was not democratic. They were not chosen by the people.
 - Hereditary kings, like the king of Nepal or Saudi Arabia, are also not democratic rulers. They rule because they were born into noble families.
2. In a democracy final decision making power must rest with those elected by the people.
 - In Pakistan, President Musharraf has the power to dismiss national and state assemblies; so the final powers rest with the army and the General himself. We cannot call it a democracy.
3. A democracy must be based on a free and fair election where those currently in power have a fair chance of losing.
 - For example, in Mexico elections have been held every six years since 1980. But the same party, PRI, has won the elections. Obviously there has been rigging and malpractices, with freedom denied to opposition. This is not what a democracy should be.
4. In a democracy people's will is ascertained by each adult citizen having one vote and each vote has one value. Democracy is based on the fundamental principle of political equality.
5. A democratic government rules within limits set by constitutional and citizens' rights.
 - A democratic government cannot do what it likes after winning the elections. It has to respect certain basic rules and is accountable not only to the people but also to other independent officials.

WHY DEMOCRACY?

Points Against

There has been criticism of democracy by various people. The charges are that:

- It creates instability by changing its leaders frequently.
 - Democracy is about power play and political competition. There is no scope for morality.
 - So many people have to be consulted before any issue is solved. It leads to delay.
 - Elected leaders do not know the best interest of the people.
 - It leads to corruption for it is based on electoral corruption.
 - Ordinary people do not know what is good for them, so decision making should not be left to them.
-

Key Notes

Chapter-2 Political Science Constitutional Design

Democratic Constitution in South Africa

- Nelson Mandela, the South African leader of African National Congress, fought a long battle against Apartheid.
- Imprisoned for 28 years (1964–1992) emerged as the First President of the Republic of South Africa.
- People struggled against the horrible discrimination practised against them by the white minority rulers.
- Apartheid finally defeated in 1994 and a new constitution made in 1996.
- Remarkable constitution, forgot past sufferings, sought co-operation of all the races which make S. Africa based on equality, democratic values and social justice.

Do We Need a Constitution?

- Yes. A constitution has written laws accepted by people living together in a country.
- It generates trust and co-ordination.
- It specifies how a government should be constituted.
- It lays down limits on the powers of the government.
- It expresses the aspirations of the people about creating a good society.

Making of the Indian Constitution

- The process began during the national struggle for freedom.
- First draft 1928, then 1931. Motilal Nehru and 8 leaders demanded in the draft : universal adult franchise, social justice, right to freedom and liberty.
- Participation in Provincial Legislatures helped Indians in framing their constitution.
- z Leaders inspired by French Revolution, British parliamentary system and the Bill of Rights of the US.
- They also learnt what the British were denying Indian citizens.

The Constituent Assembly

- Elections to the Constituent Assembly held in July 1946.
 - Dr. B.R. Ambedkar appointed chairman of the drafting committee.
 - Constitution adopted on 26 November 1949, and enacted on 26 January, 1950, when India became a republic.
 - The Constitution reflects the best minds of the country. Its members represented mini-India.
Every law was debated clause by clause and a consensus arrived at.
 - It is the longest written constitution.
-

Key Notes

Chapter-3 Political Science Electoral Politics

ELECTIONS

- Elections are a democratic way of selecting representatives.
- They ensure that the representatives rule as per the wishes of the people.
- Elections help voters to choose representatives who will make laws for them, form the government and take major decisions.
- The voters can choose the party whose policies will guide the government and law making.
- Thus election is a mechanism by which people can choose their representatives at regular intervals and change them if they wish to.

ELECTION DEMOCRATIC

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

Political Competition: Demerits

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

Merits: Elections are good because they force the ruling party to perform. The government is aware that it will be voted out of power if it does not perform as the people expected.

- It forces parties and leaders to perform, so competition is good.

Our Election System

- First a voters list is compiled.
 - Then the election date is announced.
 - The country is divided into constituencies for purpose of elections.
 - The voters have to elect one representative for the Lok Sabha from each constituency (Lok Sabha has 543 constituencies), called Member of Parliament. The constituencies are formed on basis of population.
 - Similarly, each state is divided into constituencies and a specific number of members called Members of the Legislative Assembly are elected.
 - The dates of General Elections are announced.
 - Each party declares its Manifesto and prepares a list of nominations.
-

Key Notes

Chapter-4 Political Science Working of Institutions

MAJOR POLICY DECISION

- Government of India appointed a Commission in 1979, headed by B.P. Mandal, called Second Backward Commission.
- Commission gave a report in 1980. One of the suggestions was to reserve 27 per cent of government jobs for Socially and Economically Backward Classes (SEBC).
- Parliament discussed this for many years.
- Janata Dal won elections in 1989. V.P. Singh, the Prime Minister, decided to implement reservations.
- The President announced it in his address to the Parliament.
- On 6 August 1990, the Cabinet decided to implement and the Prime Minister announced it in both Houses of Parliament.
- The senior officers drafted an order, signed by an officer and it became the Memorandum issued on 13 August 1990.
- There was a heated debate on the issue and it was finally taken to the Supreme Court. The case was known as “Indira Sawhney and others vs Union of India case.”
- In 1992 Supreme Court declared the Mandal order as valid but asked for some modifications.

Need for Political Institutions

- A government has to perform various duties, formulate policies and implement them.
- Some have to formulate schemes, some have to take decisions, some have to implement the decisions.
- Hence the need for institutions to do all the above.
- The Constitution of a country lays down basic rules on powers and functions of each institution.
- The institutions are the Legislative (Parliament), the Executive (the Government) and the Judiciary.

Parliament:

- (i) It is needed as final authority to make laws in the country.
 - (ii) To exercise control over the workings of the government.
 - (iii) To control the expenditure of the government, and control public money.
 - (iv) As the highest forum of discussion and debate it decides public issues and national policies.
 - Two Houses of Parliament. Lok Sabha and Rajya Sabha. The former has elected representatives and is the House of People.
 - The Rajya Sabha elected by the elected members of each State Assembly is called the Council of States.
 - Lok Sabha is more important in money matters, control over the executive, has more members.
 - Rajya Sabha is more important in matters concerning the states.
 - Lok Sabha is elected for a period of five years. The Rajya Sabha is a permanent House, with one third members retiring every two years. The term of each member is for six years.
-

Key Notes

Political Executive

- The President, the Prime Minister and his Council of Ministers and the civil servants form the executive.
- The Political Executive consists of political leaders elected by the people, who act on their behalf and are responsible to the public who elected them. They take all the decisions, understand the overall picture.
- The second category is called the permanent executive consisting of civil servants. They help the political executive in carrying out the day to day work. They are experts but do not take the final decision.
- Prime Minister has three kind of ministers to help him : (i) Cabinet Ministers, (ii) Ministers of State and (iii) Deputy Ministers.
- The Prime Minister's position is supreme. He chooses his Cabinet and his decision is final, except in a coalition government where he has to listen to other party members.
- When the Prime Minister quits, the entire ministry quits.

The President is the nominal head in India. He is not directly elected by the people as in USA.

- All the Members of Parliament and Members of the State Legislatures elect him. Since he is elected indirectly, he does not have the same powers as the Prime Minister.
- The President exercises all his legislative, executive, financial, judicial, military powers only on the advice of the Prime Minister and his Council of Ministers.
- The President can only delay a bill. If the Parliament passes it again, he has to sign it.
- President has the power to appoint the leaders when there is a coalition on his own discretion.

The Judiciary: India has one of the most powerful judiciaries.

- The Judiciary is independent of both the Executive and the Legislature.
 - The Chief Justice of the Supreme Court is appointed by the President on the advice of the Prime Minister and his Council of Ministers.
 - The other judges of the Supreme Court and the State High Courts are appointed in the same way but on the advice of the Chief Justice.
 - Once appointed, the Judges can be removed only by impeachment.
 - The Judiciary is the custodian of the Constitution, and the Supreme Court and the High Courts have the power to interpret the Constitution.
 - It can declare any law passed by the Legislature as invalid, if it violates the Constitution.
 - It safeguards the Fundamental Rights of the people of India, and checks malpractices and misuse of power by the Executive or the Legislature.
-

Key Notes

Chapter-5 Political Science Democratic Rights

- Three cases of denial of rights highlight the importance of rights.
- The Human Rights were violated
 - (i) in Guantanamo Bay by the US,
 - (ii) in Kosovo by Milosevic's Government, and
 - (iii) denial of rights in Saudi Arabia.

Rights in a Democracy

- Rights are a must to ensure the dignity, security and fair play to all the citizens.
- Democracy is a system in which maximum rights are guaranteed to its citizens.

Rights are reasonable claims of persons recognised by society and sanctioned by law.

Need Rights in a Democracy

- Rights sustain a democracy.
- They give to every citizen a right to vote and the right to be elected to government.
- They allow citizens to express their views freely, form parties and take part in political activities.
- Rights are guarantees when things go wrong. They do not allow the majority to dominate the minority.
- Some rights are placed higher than the government, so that the government does not violate them.

Rights in the Indian Constitution

The Indian Constitution has given us six Fundamental Rights. They are the basic features of India's Constitution.

- **Fundamental Rights are:**
 - (i) Right to Equality
 - (ii) Right to Freedom
 - (iii) Right against Exploitation
 - (iv) Right to Freedom of Religion
 - (v) Cultural and Educational Rights
 - (vi) Right to Constitutional Remedies.

Right to Equality: It grants equality to all its citizens in the eyes of law. No discrimination can be made against any citizen on grounds of birth, caste, religion and gender. Untouchability is made a cognisable offence. Equal opportunity is guaranteed to all the citizens.

Right to Freedom: It grants

- (i) freedom of speech and expression,
 - (ii) freedom to assemble in a peaceful manner,
 - (iii) freedom to form associations,
 - (iv) freedom to move freely in any part of the country,
 - (v) freedom to reside in any part of the country and
 - (vi) practice any profession, carry out any occupation or trade.
-

Key Notes

- **Right against Exploitation:** The constitution prohibits
 - (i) “traffic in human beings”,
 - (ii) Prohibits forced labour or begar and
 - (iii) prohibits child labour.
- **Right to Freedom of Religion:** There is no state religion in India. All religions are given equal respect. Every person has a right to profess, practice and propagate his own religion.
- **Cultural and Educational Rights:** Minorities have the right to conserve their language and culture. They have the right to establish their own educational institutions.
- **Right to Constitutional Remedies:** This is the right that makes all rights effective. If a citizen’s fundamental rights are violated or taken away, he/she can seek remedy through courts.
- **National Human Rights Commission** is an independent organisation established in 1993. Its main work is to focus on human rights and help the victims, whose rights are violated.
- **Expanding Scope of Rights**

The Constitution offers scope to expand the Fundamental Rights. Examples:

- (i) School education has become a right for Indian citizens.
- (ii) Right to property is a legal right.
- (iii) Right to seek information from government offices.
- (iv) Right to vote in elections.

International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights

This international covenant recognises many rights. Examples

- (i) Right to work
- (ii) Right to safe and healthy environment
- (iii) Right to adequate standard of living
- (iv) Right to social security and insurance
- (v) Right to health and medical care, etc.

The South African Constitution Guarantees

Right to privacy, Adequate housing, Right to access to health care, Sufficient food and water.

Key Notes

Chapter – 1 Economics

The Story of Village Palampur

- **Village Palampur:** Palampur is a small village having about 450 families. It is 3 km away from Raiganj — a big village. Shahpur is the nearest town to the village.
- **Main Production Activities:** Farming is the main production activity in the village Palampur. Most of the people are dependent on farming for their livelihood. Non-farming activities such as dairy, small-scale manufacturing (e.g. activities of weavers and potters, etc.), transport, etc., are carried out on a limited scale.
- **Factors of Production (Or Requirements for Production of Goods and Services):** Land, labour and capital are the basic requirements for production of goods and services which are popularly known as factors of production. Land includes all free gifts of nature, e.g., soil, water, forests, minerals, etc. Labour means human effort which of course includes physical as well as mental labour. Physical capital is the third requirement for production. Physical capital includes fixed capital (e.g. tools, machines, building, etc.) and raw materials such as seeds for the farmer, yarn for the weaver.
- **Important Changes in Farm Activities:** Land area under cultivation is virtually fixed. However, some wastelands in India had been converted into cultivable land after 1960.

Over the years, there have been important changes in the way of farming, which have allowed the farmers to produce more crops from the same amount of land.

These changes include:

- (a) Multiple cropping farming
- (b) Use of modern farming methods.

Due to these changes (in the late 1960s) productivity of land has increased substantially which is known as **Green Revolution**. Farmers of Punjab, Haryana and western Uttar Pradesh were the first to try out the modern farming methods in India.

- **Labour:** After land, labour is the next basic factor of production. Small farmers provide their own labour, whereas medium and large farmers make use of hired labour to work on their fields.
-

Key Notes

- **Capital:** After land and labour, capital is another basic factor of production. All categories of farmers (e.g. small, medium and large) require capital. Small farmers borrow from large farmers or the village moneylenders or the traders who supply them various inputs for cultivation.

Modern farming requires a great deal of capital.

- **Sale of Surplus Farm Products:** Farmers produce crops on their lands by using the three factors of production, viz. land, labour and capital. They retain a part of produce for self-consumption and sell the surplus in the nearby market. That part of farm produce which is sold in the market is called marketable surplus. Small farmers have little surplus output. It is the medium and large farmers only who have substantial surplus produce for selling in the market.
 - **Non-farm activities:** Out of every 100 workers in the rural areas in India, only 24 are engaged in non-farm activities. There is a variety of non-farm activities in the villages. Dairy, small scale manufacturing, transport, etc., fall under this category.
-

Key Notes

Chapter-2 Economics People as Resource

- Human beings perform many activities which can be grouped into economic and non-economic.

Economic Activities: Economic activities refer to those activities of man which are undertaken for a monetary gain or to satisfy his/her wants. The activities of workers, farmers, shopkeepers, manufacturers, doctors, lawyers, taxi drivers, etc. fall under this category.

Non-Economic Activities: Non-economic activities are ones that are not undertaken for any monetary gain. These are also called unpaid activities, e.g., Puja-paath, housekeeping, helping the poor or disabled, etc.

- **Classification of Economic Activities.** Various economic activities can be classified into three main sectors, that is primary sector, secondary sector and tertiary sector. The primary sector includes activities like agriculture, forestry, animal husbandry, fishing, poultry, farming and mining. In this sector, goods are produced by exploiting nature. In the secondary sector, manufacturing (small and large) and construction activities are included. The tertiary sector (also called service sector) provides various types of services like transport, education, banking, insurance, health, tourism, etc.
- **Market Activities and Non-Market Activities.** Economic activities, i.e. production of goods and services can be classified into market activities and non-market activities. Market activities are performed for remuneration. Non-market activities are the activities carried out for self-consumption.
 - **Activities of Women.** Women generally look after domestic affairs like cooking of food, washing of clothes, cleaning of utensils, housekeeping and looking after children.
 - **Human Capital:** Human capital is the stock of skill and productive knowledge embodied in human beings. Population (human beings) become human capital when it is provided with better education, training and health care facilities.
 - **People as a Resource:** People as resource is a way of referring to a country's workforce in terms of their existing skills and abilities.
 - **Human Capital Formation:** When the existing human resource is further developed by spending on making the workforce more educated and healthy, it is called human capital formation.
 - **Quality of Population:** The quality of population depends upon the literacy rate, life expectancy and skills formation acquired by the people of the country.
 - **Role of Education:** Education is the most important component of human resource development.

In view of its contribution towards the growth of the society, government expenditure on education as a percentage of GDP rose from 0.64% in 1951-52 to 3.98% in 2002-03. However, our national goal is 6% of GDP.

Key Notes

- **Health:** Health is another very important component of human resource development. Efficiency of workers largely depends on their health.
There has been considerable improvement in the country's health standard. For instance, the life expectancy at the time of birth in India rose from 37.2 years in 1951 to 63.9 years in 2001. Similarly, infant mortality rate has come down from 147 to 70 during the same time period.
 - **Unemployment:** Unemployment is said to exist when people who are willing to work at the prevailing wage rates cannot find jobs. When we talk of unemployed people, we refer to those in the age group of 15-59 years. Children below 15 years of age and the old people above 60 are not considered while counting the number of unemployed.
 - **Nature of Unemployment in India:** Seasonal unemployment occurs when people fail to get work during some months of the year (that is, during off-season). Farm laborers usually face this kind of problem. Disguised unemployment is another kind of unemployment found in rural areas. Such kind of problem arises due to excessive pressure of population on agriculture. Disguised unemployment refers to a situation wherein the number of workers in a job is more than actually required to do the job. The extra number of workers are disguisedly unemployed.
 - **Consequences of Unemployment:**
 - (i) Unemployment leads to wastage of manpower resource.
 - (ii) Unemployment tends to increase the economic overload that is dependence of the unemployed on the working population.
 - (iii) Unemployment may lead to increase in social unrest and tension.
-

Key Notes

Chapter-3 Economics Poverty as a Challenge

In our daily life we come across many poor people such as landless labourers in villages, people living in jhuggis, daily wage workers at construction sites, child labourers in dhabas, rickshaw-pullers, domestic servants, cobblers, beggars, etc.

- **Poverty:** Usually the levels of income and consumption are used to define poverty. In India, poverty has been defined as a situation in which a person fails to earn income sufficient to buy him bare means of subsistence.
 - **Other Indicators of Poverty:** Now poverty is looked through other indicators like illiteracy level, lack of access to health care, lack of job opportunities, lack of access to safe drinking water, sanitation, etc. Nowadays, the concept of social exclusion is becoming very common in the analysis of poverty.
 - **Estimates of Poverty:** The incidence of poverty in India was around 55 per cent in 1973 which declined to 36 per cent in 1993 and further to 26 per cent in 2000. Social groups which are most vulnerable to poverty are Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe households.
 - **Inequality of Incomes within a Family:** In poor families, old people, women and female children are denied equal access to family's available resources. They are the poorest of the poor.
 - **Inter-State Disparities:** The proportion of poor people is not the same in every state. In 20 states and union territories the poverty ratio is less than the national average. Orissa and Bihar are the poorest states of India with poverty ratios of 47 per cent and 43 per cent respectively. Lowest incidence of poverty is found in Jammu and Kashmir with poverty ratio of just 3.5 per cent.
 - **Global Poverty Scenario:** There has been substantial decline in global poverty. However, it is marked with great regional differences. Poverty has declined more in China and South-East Asian countries.
 - **Causes of Poverty:** There are a number of causes for the widespread poverty in India. These are:
 - (i) Rapid growth of population,** particularly among the poor is considered a major cause of Indian poverty.
 - (ii) Our agricultural sector has failed** to generate much employment opportunities for the farm labourers. Similarly, our industries could not provide much job for the job seekers.
 - (iii)** One of the major causes of poverty is the **unequal distribution of land** and other resources. Various land reform measures introduced after Independence could not improve the life of millions of rural poor because of their poor implementation.
 - (iv) Social factors:** People in India, including the very poor, spend a lot of money on social occasions like marriages, festivals, etc. Poor people hardly have any savings; they are,
-

Key Notes

thus forced to borrow. Unable to pay because of poverty, they became victims of indebtedness. Joint family system has prevented people from doing hard work.

- **Steps taken by the Government for Poverty Alleviation:** Our government's strategy to poverty reduction has been twofold. One, promotion of economic growth and, two, targeted poverty alleviation programmes.
 - **Poverty Alleviation Programmes:** To address the poor, a need for targeted anti-poverty programmes was strongly felt. Some of them are given below:
 - **Prime Minister Rojgar Yojana (PMRY):** The aim of this programme (which was started in 1993) was to create self-employment opportunities for educated unemployed youth in rural areas and small towns.
 - **Rural Employment Generation Programme (REGP):** REGP was launched in 1995 to create self-employment opportunities in rural areas.
 - **Swarna Jayanti Gram Swarojgar Yojana (SGSY):** SGSY was started in 1999. The programme aims at bringing the assisted poor families above the poverty line.
 - **Pradhan Mantri Gramodaya Yojana (PMGY)** was launched in 2000.
 - **Antyodaya Anna Yojana (AAY)** for 'the poorest of poors' and elders.
 - **National Food for Work Programme (NFWP)** was launched in 2004.
 - **National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (NREGA)** was passed in September 2005. The Act provides 100-days assured employment every year to every rural household in 200 districts.
 - **The Challenges Ahead:** Though poverty has declined in India, poverty reduction remains India's most compelling challenge. We will have to do something special to fight against wide regional disparities. We must broaden the definition of poverty from 'a minimum subsistence level of living to a reasonable level of living'. Bigger challenges before us are: providing health care, education and job security for all the achieving gender equality.
-

Key Notes

Chapter-4 Economics Food Security in India

Food security means availability, accessibility and affordability of food to all people at all times.

- **FOOD SECURITY:** The poorest section of the society remains food insecure all the times. People above poverty line might also feel food insecure in times of natural calamity like earthquake, drought, flood, tsunami, etc.

FOOD-INSECURE: In rural areas, the worst affected people are: landless and small farmers, traditional artisans (weavers, potters, blacksmith etc.) providers of services (e.g. barbers, washermen etc), petty self-employed workers and destitute. In the urban areas, persons employed in ill-paid occupations and casual labourers are food insecure.

Large proportion of pregnant and nursing mothers and children under the age of 5 years constitute an important segment of the food insecure population.

- **Hunger:** Hunger has chronic and seasonal dimensions. Poor people suffer from chronic hunger and are food insecure all the times. Seasonal hunger is caused by the seasonal nature of agricultural activities in rural areas. In urban areas, seasonal hunger occurs because of the casual type of work. Thus, **seasonal hunger exists when people are unable to get work for the whole year.**
 - Need for self-sufficiency in food grains. Our government since Independence realised the need to attain self-sufficiency in food grains because India experienced acute shortage of food grains after partition of the country in 1947. The need for self-sufficiency arises from the following:
 - (a) to feed rising population
 - (b) to fight against droughts, floods, cyclone, etc.
 - (c) to reduce import of food grains
 - (d) to control prices of food grains.
 - **Food Security System in India:** Since the advent of the Green Revolution in the 1960s the country has avoided famine, even during adverse weather conditions. India has become self-sufficient in food grains during the last 30 years because of the variety of crops grown all over the country. Also, we have developed a food security system.
 - **Buffer Stock:** Buffer stock is the stock of food grains (wheat and rice) procured by the government through the Food Corporation of India (FCI). The FCI purchases wheat and rice for the government from the farmers of surplus states at pre-announced prices. This price is called 'minimum support price'.
 - **Public Distribution System (PDS):** PDS refers to a system through which the food procured by the FCI is distributed among the poor through government regulated ration shops. The consumers are issued ration cards.
 - **Kinds of Ration Cards.** There are three kinds of ration cards:
 - (a) Antyodaya cards for the poorest of the poor,
 - (b) BPL cards for those below poverty line and,
-

Key Notes

(c) APL cards for those above poverty line.

- **Three Important Food Intervention Programmes:**

In the wake of high incidence of poverty levels in mid-1970s, three important food intervention programmes were introduced:

(a) Public Distribution System (in existence earlier)

(b) Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS) in 1975

(c) Food for work in 1977-78.

In 2000, two special schemes were launched viz. Antyodaya Anna Yojana (AAY) and the **Annapurna scheme** (APS) with special target groups of the poorest of the poor and indigent senior citizens, respectively.

- **Excessive Food Stocks:** In July 2002, the stock of wheat and rice with FCI was 63 million tonnes which was much more than the minimum buffer norms of 24.3 million tonnes. The stock reduced thereafter but always remained higher than the buffer norms.
 - **Paradox of Excess Stocks and Starvation:** In fact, India has experienced a paradoxical situation in recent years. While the granaries (godowns) of the government are overflowing with excess stocks of food, we also find people without food. The main reason for this unfortunate situation is that many poor families do not have enough money or income to buy food.
-