

SOCIAL SCIENCE

FOR CLASS – IX

- ◆ **India and the Contemporary World**
- ◆ **India – Land and the People**
- ◆ **Democratic Politics**
- ◆ **Understanding Economics-I**



**BOARD OF SECONDARY EDUCATION,
MANIPUR**

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FOREWORD

The Board developed text-books under the National Curriculum Framework, 2005 to keep abreast with the national change for the schools of Manipur. The Board since its inception had been trying to promote education for betterment and quality.

The book has been developed in line with the NCF, 2005. Utmost care has been taken to make it suitable to the local needs and schools of Manipur. Every effort has been made to make the book worthwhile. In the course of preparation, a series of meetings was held with the authors, reviewers etc. to bring it to the present form.

I sincerely thank the authors, reviewers and all others who had helped to make the book presentable and suitable for use by the students.

The Board would welcome any suggestions for further improvement of the text-book.

Dr. Chithung Mary Thomas
Secretary

CONSTITUTION OF INDIA

Part IV A

Fundamental Duties of Citizens

ARTICLES 51A

Fundamental Duties – It shall be the duty of every citizen of India –

- (a) to abide by the Constitution and respect its ideals and institutions, the National Flag and the National Anthem;
- (b) to cherish and follow the noble ideals which inspired our national struggle for freedom;
- (c) to uphold and protect the sovereignty, unity and integrity of India;
- (d) to defend the country and render national service when called upon to do so;
- (e) to promote harmony and the spirit of common brotherhood amongst all the people of India transcending religious, linguistic and regional or sectional diversities; to renounce practices derogatory to the dignity of women;
- (f) to value and preserve the rich heritage of our composite culture;
- (g) to protect and improve the natural environment including forests, lakes, rivers, wildlife and to have compassion for living creatures;
- (h) to develop the scientific temper, humanism and the spirit of inquiry and reform;
- (i) to safeguard public property and to abjure violence;
- (j) to strive towards excellence in all spheres of individual and collective activity so that the nation constantly rises to higher levels of endeavour and achievement.

Unit 1 : INDIA AND THE CONTEMPORARY WORLD-I

Sl. No.	Themes	Objectives
1.1	<p>UNIT-I : EVENTS AND PROCESSES :</p> <p>French Revolution :</p> <p>(a) The Ancient Regime and its crises. (b) The social forces that led to the revolution. (c) The different revolutionary groups and ideas of the time. (d) The legacy.</p>	<p>(a) Familiarize students with the names of people involved, the different types of ideas that inspired the revolution, the wider forces that shaped it. (b) Show how written, oral and visual material can be used to recover the history of revolutions.</p>
1.2	<p>Russian Revolution :</p> <p>(a) The crises of Tzarism. (b) The nature of social movements between 1905 and 1917. (c) The First World War and foundation of Soviet state. (d) The legacy.</p>	<p>(a) Explore the history of socialism through a study of the Russian revolution. (b) Familiarize students with the names of people involved, the different types of ideas that inspired the revolution.</p>
1.3	<p>Rise of Nazism :</p> <p>(a) The growth of social democracy. (b) The crises in Germany. (c) The basis of Hitler's rise of power. (d) The ideology of Nazism. (e) The impact of Nazism.</p>	<p>(a) Discuss the significance of Nazism in shaping the politics of modern world. (b) Familiarise students with the speeches and writings of Hitler.</p>
2.1	<p>UNIT-II : FOREST SOCIETY AND COLONIALISM :</p> <p>(a) Relationship between forests and livelihood. (b) Changes in forest societies under colonialism. Case studies : focus on two forest movements—one in colonial India (Bastar) and one in Indonesia.</p>	<p>(a) Look at the impact of colonialism of forest societies, and the implications of scientific forestry. (b) Discuss the social and cultural world of forest communities through the study of specific revolts. (c) Understand how oral traditions can be used to explore tribal revolts.</p>

Sl. No.	Themes	Objectives
2.2	<p>Farmers and Peasants :</p> <p>(a) Histories of the emergence of different forms of farmings and peasant societies.</p> <p>(b) Changes within rural economies in the modern world.</p> <p>Case studies : focus on contrasting forms of rural change and different forms of rural societies (expansion of large-scale wheat and cotton farming in U.S.A, rural economy and the Agricultural Revolution in England, and small peasant production in colonial India : Opium production in Bengal).</p>	<p>(a) Show the different processes through which agrarian transformation may occur in the modern world.</p> <p>(b) Understand how agricultural systems in India are different from that of other countries.</p> <p>(c) Familiarize students with the idea that large-scale farming, small scale production, shifting agriculture operate on different principles and have different histories.</p>
3.1	<p>UNIT-III : CLOTHES AND CULTURES :</p> <p>(a) A short history of the changes in clothing.</p> <p>(b) Debates over clothing in colonial India.</p> <p>(c) Swadeshi and the movement for Khadi.</p> <p>(d) Manipuri culture.</p>	<p>(a) Show how clothing has a history and how it is linked to questions of cultural identity.</p> <p>(b) Discuss how clothing has been the focus of intense social battles.</p> <p>(c) Understand the different aspects of Manipuri Culture.</p>

Unit 2 : INDIA – LAND AND THE PEOPLE

Themes	Objectives
<p>1. India : location and size, relief, structure, major physiographic divisions.</p>	<p>To understand the major landform features and the underlying geological structure; their association with various rocks and minerals as well as nature of soil types.</p>
<p>2. Drainage : major rivers and tributaries, lakes and seas, role of rivers in the economy, pollution of rivers, measures to control river pollution.</p>	<p>To understand the river systems of the country and explain the role of rivers in the evolution of human society.</p>
<p>3. Climate : factors influencing the climate; monsoon—its characteristics, rainfall and temperature distribution; seasons; climate and human life.</p>	<p>To identify the various factors influencing the climate and explain the climatic variation of our country and its impact on the life of the people. For explain the importance and unifying role of monsoons.</p>
<p>4. Natural Vegetation and Wildlife : vegetation types, distribution as well as altitudinal variation, need for conservation and various measures. Major species, their distribution, need for conservation and various measures.</p>	<p>To find out the nature of diverse flora and fauna as well as their distribution. To develop concern about the need to protect the bio-diversity of our country.</p>
<p>5. Population : size, distribution, age-sex composition, population change-migration as a determinant of population change, literacy, health, occupational structure and national population policy : adolescents as underserved population group with special needs.</p>	<p>To analyse the uneven nature of population distribution and show concern about the large size of our population. The understand the various occupations of people and explain various factors of population change; To explain various dimension of national policy and understand the needs of adolescents as underserved group.</p>
<p>6. Manipur : location and size, relief, structure, major physiographic divisions, drainage, climate, Natural Vegetation and wildlife, population.</p>	<p>To understand the major landform features and the underlying geological structure; their association with various rocks and minerals as well as nature of soil types.</p>

Unit 3 : DEMOCRATIC POLITICS-I

Themes	Learning Objectives
<p>1. What is democracy ? Why democracy ? What are the different ways of defining democracy ? Why has democracy become the most prevalent form of government in our times ? What are the alternatives to democracy ? Is democracy superior to its available alternatives ? Must every democracy have the same institutions and values ?</p> <p>2. Designing of Democracy in India How and why did India a democracy ? How was the Indian constitution framed ? What are the salient features of the Constitution ? How is democracy being constantly designed and redesigned in India ?</p> <p>3. Institutions of Parliamentary democracy How is the country governed ? What does Parliament do in our democracy ? What is the role of the President of India, the Prime Minister and the Council of Ministers ? How do these relate to one another ?</p> <p>4. Citizens' rights and duties in democracy Why do we need rights and duties in a Constitution ? What are the Fundamental Rights enjoyed by the citizen under the Indian Constitution ? How does the judiciary protect the Fundamental Rights of the citizen ? How is the independence of the judiciary ensured ?</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Develop conceptual skills of defining democracy. ● Understand how different historical processes and forces have promoted democracy. ● Developing a sophisticated defence of democracy against common prejudices. ● Develop a historical sense of the choice and nature of democracy in India. ● Introduction to the process of Constitution making. ● Development respect for the Constitution appreciation of Constitution values. ● Recognise that Constitution is a living document that undergoes changes. ● Provide an overview of central government structures. ● Sensitise to the key role of the Parliament and its procedures. ● Distinguish between nominal and real executive authorities and functions. ● Understand the parliamentary system of executive's accountability to the legislature. ● Develop a citizens' awareness of their rights. ● Introduction to and appreciation of the Fundamental Rights. ● Recognition of the ways in which these rights are exercised and denied in real life situations. ● Introduction to judicial system and key institutions like the Supreme Court, High Courts and National Human Rights Commission.

Unit 4 : UNDERSTANDING ECONOMICS-I

Themes	Objectives
<p>Theme I :</p> <p>Some basic economic concepts; economy and economics; free goods and economic goods. Production, consumption and distribution.</p> <p>Factors of production – land, labour, capital and organisation; rent, wages, interest and profit (concept only).</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Familiarising the children with some basic economic concepts with familiar illustrations. ● Familiarization of a few population related concepts and sensitization of the child that people as assets can participate in and contribute to nation building. ● Understanding of poverty as a challenge and sensitization of the learner. ● Application of the initiative to alleviate poverty taken up by the governments of India and Manipur. ● Exposing the child to an economic issue which is a basic necessity of life. ● Appreciate and critically look at the role of government in ensuring food security.
<p>Theme II :</p> <p>People as resource : Growth rate, birth death rate, migration (with special reference to Manipur).</p>	
<p>Theme III :</p> <p>Poverty as a challenge facing India : Who is poor (through two case studies – one rural and one urban); Indicators of absolute poverty (not as a concept but through a few simple examples) – why people are poor – unequal distribution of resources; comparison between countries; steps taken by both the central and state governments for poverty alleviation.</p>	
<p>Theme IV :</p> <p>Food security : Source of food grains – variety – across the nation – famines in the past- the need for self sufficiency – role of the central and state government in food security.</p>	

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**INDIA AND
CONTEMPORARY
WORLD**

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INDIA AND CONTEMPORARY WORLD

UNIT-I

1. EVENTS AND PROCESSES

We study the history of India. We also study the history of the world. The contemporary world is changing very fast. It is necessary to know what are the changes. History makes us understand what is happening, how it happens, and why it happens. And what is now happening in India can be better understood if we know what is happening in the contemporary world. This is because the polity, society, economy and culture in different parts of the world have become interconnected. The study of history has not to be confined to the territorial boundaries of a nation state. It is not possible to talk of a nation without the world. India is not an island to herself.

Let us study the history of the contemporary world. It deals with the world shaking events that happened in Europe which threw up new ideas and thoughts that shaped the making of the world history. It deals with the growth of industries, science and technology, roads and railways, and the agricultural revolution. The history of the contemporary world is also concerned with the livelihood of the people who had been greatly affected by colonialism and the colonial economy, the tribes, the dwellers of the forests, graziers of the cattle, the pastoralists and the peasants. It is all about the changes that occurred in the livelihood, economy, society, culture and polity of the concerned people.

In Unit-I, we propose to tell the story of great events that happened in Europe, the French Revolution, the Russian Revolution and Rise of Nazism in Germany. They produced great consequences not only in their own country but in the whole world.

1. THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

The French Revolution was a great historical event of an universal importance in which the French monarchy and feudalism were destroyed, and a Republican state based on the democratic principles of “Liberty, Equality and Fraternity” was established.

The Revolution was actually shortlived, and it ended in a military dictatorship which established an empire. But the achievements and ideals of freedom and human rights of the revolution left behind a great legacy of permanent value and importance.

The French Revolution was started with the destruction of the Bastille, the fortress prison in Paris by the people of Paris on 14 July, 1789. The fortress was perceived by the French people as the symbol of oppression and absolutism of the French monarchy.

Every historical event had causes and effects. We proceed to describe the contemporary polity, society and economy of France and explain the forces that led to the outbreak of the Revolution. What caused the revolution? And what legacy was left behind by the revolution?

The first sentence of the Declaration of the Rights of Man and Citizen, 1789 gives the universal message of the French Revolution.

“Men are born free, and always continue, free and equal in respect of their rights.”

The Ancien Regime : Its Crises

The monarchy of the Bourbon dynasty was the political systems of France. During the last years of the dynasty, the French monarchy was facing a great crisis. The society and economy were of the feudal order which was based on the classes. The declining political, social and economic system and the institutions that existed before 1789 were called the Old Regime or the Ancien Regime.

The French society during the Ancien Regime, was a stratified society divided into three classes. This was known as the System of Estates. Estate was an order of a distinct social group or a social class. There were three estates or classes.

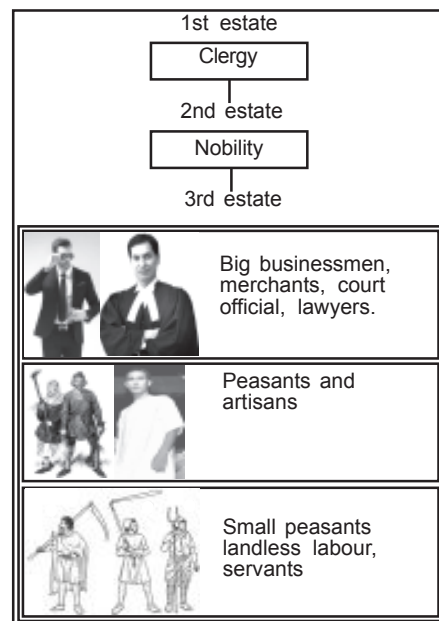


Figure 1 A society of Estates. Note that within the Third Estate some were rich and others poor.

The First Estate consisted of the Clergy which was the highest one.

The Second Estate was the Nobility.

The Third Estate was composed of three social categories. The first was the court officials, big businessmen, big merchants, the professionals such as the lawyers writers and scientists.

The second category was the peasants and artisans who were well to do and numerous.

The third category was the small peasants, who were the real poor people of France.

The privileged classes

The clergy and the nobility were the privileged classes of the French society. They enjoyed many privileges. The clergy was exempted from the payment of any taxes or revenues over the vast landed properties of the Church. The clergy meant the members of the Church hierarchy, the bishops, the priests and the pastors of the Churches. The churches imposed a kind of tax, known as tithes on the peasants and farmers. The higher clergy enjoyed all the benefits of the privileges whereas the lowest clergy, the parish priests who actually managed the Churches at the grass root levels were given very small share of the Church income.

The nobility which was hereditary controlled the administrative, military and judicial services. Recruitment to the officialdom or the bureaucracy was by birth. The nobility jealously guarded their privileges. They were, like the clergy, exempted from the payment of taxation though they were the biggest land owners. These feudal lords were the owners of manor in rural France. The nobility owned the land, controlled the administration and the military force. It was this nobility which in their collectivity controlled the monarchy. They lived in the court of Versailles and led a magnificent social life. The wars were always supported by the nobility. The irresponsible nobility who refused to contribute anything to the state exchequer was the greatest cause of the financial bankruptcy and the consequent decline of the French monarchy of which they were the most important part.

The most important and resourceful group was the upper layer of the Third Estate who comprised the powerful middle class. The Third Estate possessed immense wealth accumulated through business, trade and commerce. They were big merchants and big businessmen including the bankers who contributed most to the French exchequer. And they managed the economy of the country. These upper members of the Third Estate were the court officials. They were the lawyers and writers who dominated the intellectual life of France. France was the intellectual

capital of Europe during the Age of Enlightenment. This social class came to be known as the bourgeoisie.

The members of the Third Estate assumed important status in society not due to birth or hereditary rights but by dint of their sheer merit and hard work. Yet none of the bourgeoisie could enter into the military service. They were denied the military employment because they belonged to the Third Estate. And the military service was the monopoly of the nobility. They were denied the rights of political participation or membership of the court. So, it was the members of the Third Estate who attacked the privileged classes and led the revolution. A revolutionary leader was reported to have written about himself.

“I was educated at the residential college of Plessis. There I was in the company of important men. Once my studies ended, I was left with nothing. I started looking for a post. It was impossible to find one at the law courts in Paris. The choice of a career in the army was not open to me as I was not a noble by birth, nor did I have a patron. The Church too could not offer me a refuge. I could not buy an office as I did not possess a sou. My old friends turned their backs to me. The system had provided us with an education without offering a field where our talents could be utilized.” (George Danton, quoted in *India and Contemporary World*, NCERT : 2006).

The French bourgeoisie was restless and ambitious. But the French royal family was incompetent and the French state was going bankrupt.

The French monarchy and the government were in utter confusion. Theoretically, the French monarch was an absolute autocrat but it was ineffectual in practice in the decades before the revolution. Though an autocrat, the king depended on a complicated officialdom or the bureaucracy with ill-defined powers and overlapping jurisdiction. The administrative departments or the provinces were also in utter confusion and chaos. There was chaotic system in other fields like weights and measures, coinage, tolls or internal customs.

The administration of the public finance was in complete disarray. There was no budget, no differences between the national income and the personal income of the king.

The Social Forces that led to the Revolution

The French society was a stratified society. There was a clash of interests among the social classes, between the privileged and the unprivileged. There was a great tension between the hereditary aristocracy represented by the clergy and nobility, and the bourgeoisie representing the upper layers of the Third Estate.

The clergy and nobility were not only exempted from taxation, they themselves imposed taxes and other feudal dues on the peasants. The Church dues and the feudal dues imposed on the common people met the cost to upkeep of the privileged classes. But the bourgeoisie was over burdened with taxation. Naturally, there was clash between the privileged class and the unprivileged. This was the underlying cause of the revolts against the monarchy which protected the privileged classes.

A social phenomenon was emerging in the discontented bourgeoisie. Despite their wealth and contribution to the economy of the state and to the intellectual richness of the country, the bourgeoisie were denied social mobility, absorption or admission to the rank of nobility despite their distinction. They were also denied the right of political participation in the process of the French government which was controlled by the court consisting of the nobility and presided over by the monarch. They were denied entry into the upper bureaucracy and the armed forces, except the local levels of the administration. The discontented bourgeoisie who were endowed with education, wealth and a sense of social commitment wanted to destroy the feudal order.

Added to this was the resentment of the artisans in the urban centres particularly the city of Paris. The growth of the artisan class in large number was due to the industrial revolution which originated in England and had spread to France also. They depended on the food supplies from the rural areas. The supply of food was regulated by the government. There was high price of wheat and bread in the towns and cities. They resented the government's negligence of their problems. The urban artisans, shopkeepers, factory workers, bakery makers including women became the striking hands of the revolution.

The peasants had grievances. The French agriculture was well developed. But heavy taxation on agricultural lands impoverished the French peasantry. The large scale enclosure of agricultural fields by the land owning nobles alienated the peasants from the agricultural lands. The dissatisfied peasants resorted to local level protests and even armed resistance against the feudal lords and the Churches. These protests were suppressed with strong hands.

The intellectual consciousness of the French people particularly of the middle class was aroused by the philosophers of the time. The writings of the philosophers based on reason and rationality stirred the minds of the bourgeoisie. The writings of philosophers especially of John Locke and Jean Jacques Rousseau who explained the origin and the nature of the state as a political institution speculated that the state was not of divine origin but was created by a Social Contract among the people living in the state of nature. Of these works, Rousseau's "Contract Sociale"

was the most influential. The opening line of this work which declared, “Man is born free but everywhere he is in chains” expressed the social and political inequality in France. Paris was the main centre of the European intellectual life activity, some say, even the European civilization. The writings of the philosophers pleaded for the abolition of the unequal social order and establishment of a new order of hope, human rights, and freedom. They influenced the thinking minds of the French people.

The financial crisis during the reign of Louis XVI who was a well meaning but incompetent ruler compelled him to convene the age old Estates General of France to find a solution to the problem of finance. The Estates General was usurped by the leaders of the Third Estate to start the Revolution in 1789.

The Prelude

Louis XVI (1774-1792) ascended the throne of France at the age of 20 succeeding his grand-father, Louis XV who left behind internally a bankrupt state. Louis XVI was virtuous and well meaning but lacking in intelligence and will power. He married Marie Antoinette, daughter of Empress Maria Theresa. This was the matrimonial alliance between the Hapsburg dynasty of Austria and the Bourbon dynasty of France. Louis XVI was thoroughly influenced by the unpopular Marie Antoinette in the crucial affairs of the state.

To solve the financial crisis, the king appointed several finance ministers one after another. The first was Turgot, a capable and popular man, who tried to introduce financial reforms. There was opposition from the court and nobility. And due to the demand of the nobility he was dismissed in 1776. The next finance minister was Jacques Necker who sincerely tried to solve the problem of the national debts created by the French participation in the American War of Independence. But Queen Maria Antoinette did not like transparency in public finance. On her demand, Necker was dismissed in 1781. The French treasury was empty. The new finance minister Calonne negotiated fresh loans to meet the national debts. The crux of the financial deficit was the refusal of the privileged class to pay the taxes. The king was advised to withdraw the privileges and impose taxation on them. But there was a stiff opposition to such proposal. The king in desperation convened the Assembly of Notables in 1787. 145 Notables from among the Chief nobles, bishops and magistrates attended the Assembly. Without tackling the problem, the Assembly advised the king to convene the Estates General to decide on the imposition of taxes on the nobility and the clergy. They demanded the dismissal of finance minister Calonne. The king conceded and appointed the Archbishop Lomerine de Brienne as the next minister of finance who welcomed the proposals of the Assembly of

Notables. The pressure for the convention of the Estates General was so strong that the king agreed to convene the Estates General. The news that the king planned to impose taxes generated protests and anger against the system of privileges. This was an irony of history that convention of the Estates General turned out to be the instrument of the destruction of the French monarchy.

The Estates General, 5th May, 1789

Under the Ancien Regime the French monarch had no power of taxation. He had to convene the Estates General to introduce taxes. The Estates General was a political body to which the members of the three Estates sent their representatives. The monarch alone had the authority to convene this body, the last meeting being held in 1614 A.D.

Louis XVI convened the Estates General on 5th May, 1789 at the palace of Versailles. 300 representatives of the First Estate and the Second Estate were present in the assembly and were seated in two rows. And 600 representatives of the Third Estate were not given seats and made to stand at the back. They were the most prosperous and educated sections of the Third Estate. The peasants, the artisans and the women folk were denied entry into the hall of the assembly. However, the king allowed them to submit their letter of grievances. 40,000 letters were submitted to the king through their representatives.

In the past, the voting in the Estates General was decided on the principle of one vote for each Estate. The king decided to follow the old principle. But the members of the Third Estate demanded that the voting should be conducted by the assembly as a whole. The king rejected their demand. So as a protest, the members of the Third Estate walked out of the assembly. The Estates General failed to discuss the financial crisis for which it was convened.

Conversion of the Estates General into the National Assembly

The leaders of the Third Estate assumed the role of the representatives of the entire French nation. They assembled on 20 June, 1789 in the hall of the indoor tennis court in Versailles. They declared themselves to be constituted as the National Assembly of France. They also took an oath that they would not disperse till they drafted a new constitution for the country. This was known as the Tennis Court Oath.

The Fall of the Bastille, 14 July, 1789.

The National Assembly was drafting the constitution at Versailles. The whole country was in turmoil and disturbance. There was a bad harvest and the prices of wheat and bread were increased. The bakers of Paris exploited the scarcity situation

by hoarding the wheat and wheat flour. The women folk who were standing in long queues for the purchase of bread from the bakery shops were agitated. They stormed into the bakery shops. Men in the city of Paris were angry and protested. Louis XVI commanded the troops to march into Paris to suppress any violent agitation in the morning of 14 July, 1789. There was a rumour that the king's troops might fire upon the agitating people. About seven thousand men and women assembled at the town hall of Paris. They decided to resist any attack by the royal forces. They constituted themselves into a militia. A group of people, men and women were going out in search of arms. They marched to the fortress prison at the Bastille in eastern Paris. There was an armed fight. And the commander of the prison was killed. The agitators released only seven prisoners from the Bastille. They in their calculated fury demolished the Bastille as it was hated by the people as the symbol of the autocratic power of the French monarchy. More protests and riots occurred in Paris and other towns. There was a large scale attacks of the peasants on the manors of the feudal lords and of the king in the countryside.

The destruction of the Bastille was regarded as the beginning of the French Revolution in which the common people directly participated. The Tennis Court Oath of the Third Estate was a legal symbol of revolution by the bourgeoisie.

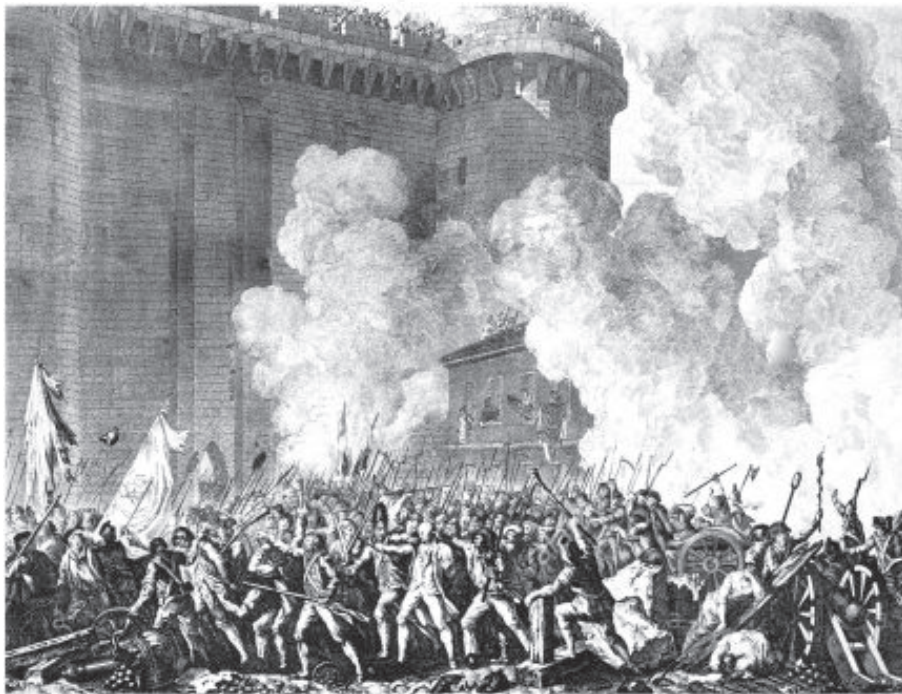


Figure 2. Bastille 14 July, 1789.



Figure 3. Oath at Tennis Court at Versailles 20 June, 1789.

The National Assembly 1789-91

Louis XVI was confronted with prospect of an open revolt of the people. Therefore, he accorded the recognition to the National Assembly as the legislature of the French state. He also accepted the principle that the powers of the king would be regulated by the constitution. The leaders of the Third Estate who were the members of the National Assembly were the supporters of the constitutional monarchy. They were moderate political liberals whose intention was not the



Figure 4. Mirabeau.

destruction of the monarchy but a constitutional monarchy. Their leaders were Mirabeau and Abbe Sieyes. Both of them belonged to the upper class. Both of them were elected as deputies to the National Assembly.

Mirabeau (full name, Honore Requate Counte de Mirabeau) was the son of a noble who was not so prosperous. Mirabeau as a youngman was wild and unruly that his father managed to put him in the jail for several times. Mirabeau found at last an opportunity in the stirring political event of 1789, to express his belief in the constitutional government. From the holding of the Estates General to his death in 1791, he was one of the prominent leaders of France who guided the course of the revolution. He brought out a journal and made powerful speeches to the crowds in Versailles and Paris.

Abbe Sieyes was originally a priest and less powerful but he was a doctrinaire. He was not devoted to Christianity but was interested in the critical philosophy of the time, practical art of politics and diplomacy. His famous pamphlet, “What is the Third Estate ?” provided a platform and programme for the Third Estate. Mirabeau with his imposing personality and a great capacity of oratory led the Third Estate to form the National Assembly and taking of the oath at Tennis Court hall. Many historians think that the Oath of the Tennis Court was the beginning of the Revolution.

Abolition of the Feudal Order and the Privileges

Amidst these tumultuous events, the National Assambly was engaged in the drafting of the constitution and promulgated measures of permanent nature. The first important work of the National Assembly was the abolition of the Feudal social order in France. On 4th August, 1789, the National Assembly abolished the Feudal system of obligation and taxes. The clergy was forced to give up their privileges. Tithe was abolished, the Church lands were confiscated by the state. Serfdom was abolished. The effect of the revolutionary reforms of “the August Days” was abolition of the distinction of ranks and class, making all the citizens of France as of equal status.

The Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Constitution of 1791

The second great work of the National Assembly was the Declaration of the Rights of Man in September, 1789.

Great Britain had her Magna Cartta and the Bill of Rights, the United States of America its Declaration of Independence and the constitution as the basis of freedom and rights of the citizens. Now, France had her Declaration of the Rights of Man and Citizen.

The Declaration reflected the political philosophy of Rousseau and it formed the

philosophy of the French Revolution. The opening lines of the Contract Sociale was almost copied. The Declaration stated, “ Men are born free and remain free and equal in Right”. The inalienable rights of man and citizen are the liberty, property, security and resistance to oppression. It was the duty of the state to protect the rights of the citizens. The Declaration defines the liberty, sovereignty, law and property. Sovereignty lay in the nation. The Declaration of the Rights of Man included the following main points:

The Declaration of the Rights of Man included the following points:

- (1) All men were born free with equal rights.
- (2) All citizens have the Rights to take part in electing representatives to make the laws.
- (3) Every person shall be free to speak, write, or print his pinion provided he does not abuse this privilege.
- (4) The amount of texes which a person is asked to pay shall be based on the amount of wealth that he owns.

Eventually, equality of all men in the eyes of the law is the essence of the Delaration of the Rights of Man.

There was disappointment among the women leaders of the revolution that women were excluded from the rights of man. A woman revolutionary named Olype-de Gouges protested against the discrimination against women and wrote out the Declaration of Rights of Woman and Citizen in 1791. She submitted the Declaration to the Queen and the National Assembly. The Declaration says,

“Woman is free and her rights are the same as those of man.

All citizens, be they men or women must be equally eligible for all public offices, position and job according to their capacity and without any criteria.

This feminist leader was executed during the Reign of Terror at the instigation of the Jacobin leader, Robespierre.

Framing of the constitution by the National Assembly was finally completed in 1791. The nobility had been abolished by the constitution. France became a limited monarchy with a unicameral (single) legislature, to be elected by propertied class.

The constitution of 1791 contradicted the spirit of the Declaration of the Rights of Man, 1789.

Secularization of the Catholic Church, 1790

The National Assembly had confiscated the Church lands and used them as the collateral for the issue of the Assignats, the revolutionary paper currency. In July, 1790, the Assembly enacted the Civil Constitution of the Clergy according to which the bishops and priests were to be elected and subject to the authority of

the state. Salaries were paid to them as state employees. This law made the Catholic Church of France as a national institution, free from the Pope of Rome.

Radicalization of the Revolution

Forced by the Parisian women and men, Louis XVI moved from his palace of Versailles to the city of Paris, making himself accessible to the masses, thus creating troubles for himself. The king had given approval to the constitution and he became the constitutional head of the French monarchy. But the king found it extremely difficult to adjust himself to the new situation. He entered into secret negotiations with the king of Prussia who consulted other rulers of Europe to rescue Louis XVI and put down the revolution. The National Assembly was aware of the plans of the European royal houses to bring down the revolution. So, they declared war in April 1792 against Prussia and Austria to save the revolution. This war was very popular with the people of France. Thousands volunteered to join the army. This war became a war of the French people against the royalty and aristocracy of France. A French poet Rager Isle de composed a patriotic song entitled “The Marseillaise” which was sung first by the volunteers from Marseillaise during their march to Paris. This was adopted as the French national anthem.

These revolutionary wars created apprehension in the mind of the people. Many people felt that the Revolution should continue vigorously but the constitution of 1791 was not adequate. Constitutional monarchy was established; rights and franchise were given to the people. The revolutionary leadership was weak. The death of Mirabeau 1791 created a great vacuum. Nor was the king able to provide the alternative national leadership. There grew up radical groups of revolutionaries who tried to lead the revolution. Many political clubs were established and these clubs became the forum for discussion of the policies of the government and they proposed the action plan for the revolution.

The Jacobin Club

The most prominent among the radical political clubs were the Jacobins. They got their name from the members of the Jacobin club who belonged to the lower classes of the society, small shopkeepers, artisans, the shoemakers, the pastry cooks, match makers, printers, daily wage labour and even servants. The outspoken leader of the Jacobins was Maximilien Robespierre. The Jacobins claimed to be the real revolutionary as they were against the nobility and monarchy. So they were the real bearers of freedom. In the summer of 1792, the Jacobins planned an insurrection of the people of Paris against the king and supporters of monarchy.

On 10th August, 1792, the Jacobins stormed the Palace de the Tuileries, the royal residence of Louis XVI and his family. The king was made a hostage for some hours. The Jacobin revolutionaries compelled the National Assembly to vote for the imprisonment of the king and the queen. The Assembly amended the constitution; all men of 21 years and above got the right to vote. They removed the property rights attached to franchise. And immediate election to the Assembly was held and the Jacobins captured the Assembly which was renamed as the National Convention.

National Convention 1792 : France, A Republic

The National Convention, controlled by the Jacobins led by Robespierre pushed the course of the revolution towards a radical direction. The National Convention abolished the monarchy and declared France, a Republic. Meanwhile, Louis XVI and his wife Maria Antoinette were keeping the secret relation with the rulers of Austria and Prussia though he had himself declared war against them. The Prussian Army warned the revolutionary government of France not to cause any physical harm to the captive royal family. This open warning made the royal couple suspects in the eye of the government of France.

The Jacobin leaders forced the National Convention to condemn the king and queen of treason. They were tried by a tribunal appointed by the Convention and condemned to death, on 21, January, 1793. Louis XVI was executed in public at the Palace-de-Concorde (also known as Palace-de Revolution). And Queen Maria Antoinette was also executed. The execution was carried out by a device known as guillotine, invented by one Dr Guillotin, a philanthropist of France. A report records the execution of King Louis XVI.

“King Louis XVI of France went to the guillotine at the palace-de la Revolution. The blade fell on his neck and the royal head tumble into the basket just before 10.30 on this cold and grey day.”

“Louis Capet as he was called by the judges in the Assembly met his death calmly.”

“Every shop was closed and there was a stillness in the city despite the curious crowd that hurried to the bloody spectacle.”

“The scaffold was surrounded by the armed guardsmen. No chance was taken against a royal rescue. Executioner Samson’s assistants reached out to grab him. He shook himself off and prepare for death untying his neck cloth and opening his shirt ... his hands are tied. He climbed the steps ... and turned to address the crowd. “I die innocent of all crime, laid to my charge. I pardon those who have occasioned my death and I pray to God that the blood you are going to shed may never be visited on France”. (Quoted in India and Contemporary World, NCERT, 2006).

Many historians praise Louis XVI for the dignity of his death. But blood was shed in the name of the revolution.

The Reign of Terror (Sept. 1793 to July, 1794)

The National Convention was in session from 1792 to 1795. It constituted the second phase of the revolution. The revolution faced both foreign wars and internal dissension. The foreign wars were more or less successful arousing the militant nationalism and political radicalism.

The Committee of Public Safety

The National Convention established the Committee of Public Safety to suppress the dissent and to strengthen the Revolution. The powerful members of the Committee of Public Safety were three, Marat, Danton and Maximilian Robespierre (1758-1794). The internal policy of suppression of dissent carried out by this Committee was known as the Reign of Terror and it lasted nearly one year.

Terror was let loose against the royalists, nobles, anybody related to the emigres, who were the French royalists who took refuge in foreign countries. It was estimated that 5000 men were executed in the city of Paris. Robespierre was an ambitious left wing lawyer. But he did not much influence the Convention which was dominated by the Girondists, the deputies from the province of Gironde. Of course, he was a hard



Figure 5. Robespierre, 1758-1794.

working and competitive advocate. But as a deputy, his soft voice failed him in the Assembly. His left wing views were shouted down. However, he was more successful in speaking to the masses. And he was known as an incorruptible politician.

When Robespierre was in full control of the Committee of Public Safety, he eliminated the moderate members like Marat and Danton through the instrumentality of the Tribunal. Robespierre advocated and justified the use of terror to eliminate the enemies of the Revolution and ensure the success of Revolution. He was a great follower of Rousseau whose revolutionary ideas and programmes were adopted both



Figure 6. Supreme Being worshipped by Robespierre.

in letter and spirit. Robespierre's Jacobin followers controlled the Commune of Paris which declared atheism as their cult and introduced the worship of 'Reason'. A picture of a woman personifying "Reason" was worshipped. Robespierre changed the atheistic cult of the Commune of Paris to the worship of Supreme Being and Nature. Robespierre organised the Festival of Supreme Being and Nature.

Robespierre justified the use of terror in the Assembly in which he declared. [according to a report of *Le Moniteur*. dt. 7, February, 1794, Paris].

"To establish and consolidate democracy, to achieve the rule of constitutional law, we must first finish the war of liberty against tyranny; . . .

We must annihilate the enemies of the Republic at home and abroad or else we shall perish.

In the time of revolution, a democratic government may rely on terror.

Terror is nothing but justice, swift, sense and inflexible and is used to meet

the most urgent need of the fatherland. To curb the enemies of liberty through Terror is the right of the founder of the Republic”.

The dictatorship of the Committee of Public Safety was short-lived. The committee saved France but it could not save itself. The republic was established for the upliftment of the peasantry and working class. They were opposed to the rising capitalism which was a result of the industrial revolution. The republic failed to check the rising prices caused by the foreign wars. The people were disgusted with the reign of terror of Robespierre. They did not accept the justification of terror. Many of the Jacobin followers were alienated from Robespierre himself.

By July, 1794, Robespierre and the Committee of Public Safety were completely isolated and without any ally, as he got all leaders executed through the guillotine. On the fateful day of 27 July, 1794, Robespierre was shouted down by his enemies while attempting to speak at the Convention. He tried to rally the loyal Jacobins to his defense and against the Convention. This plot was discovered by the Convention troops. Robespierre shot himself. But the wounded Robespierre was arrested along with 21 fellow conspirators. They were condemned to death and executed on 22nd July. The death of Robespierre left the leadership of the Convention to the conservatives who tried to promote the interests of the middle class. The political prisoners were released. And the Committee of Public Safety was divested of its powers. The situation made possible the return of the priests, royalists and emigres to France. In 1795, the Convention adopted a new constitution which established the Directory.

Directory (1795-1799)

The death of Robespierre ended the Reign of Terror. The Convention provided a so-called “permanent” constitution in 1795. The new constitution guaranteed the right to vote to every French adult who could read, write and own some property. They voted for the electors who would choose the members of the legislature. The constitution gave power to the propertied middle class.

The executive power was vested in the Directory consisting of 5 Directors who were men of low talents. There was a Bill of Rights and Declaration of the rights of citizens. They declared the sanctity of property as the foundation of the French social order.

The country was facing great internal problems, financial crisis and counter-revolution. France was fighting the foreign wars. The Directory conducted their first election in March, 1796. Majority of the deputies were constitutional monarchists. However, the Directory took the help of the army and annulled the results of the election. So there was a political dispute between the Directory and the Legislature. The Directory summoned General Napoleon Bonaparte on 9-10 November, 1799 and offered him the reins of the government. They declared him as the temporary Consul to restore order. Napoleon was the answer of the Directory; a strong, popular leader who was not a king. Abbe Sieyes, one of the Directors declared a virtual dictatorship with the words applauding

Napoleon which would provide “confidence from below and authority from above”. It marked the end of the revolutionary period.

The Republic existed in name only for 5 years. The Consulate was established in 1799 with three members. Napoleon was the First consul. In 1802, Napoleon was declared the First consul for life, and he still swore allegiance to the Republic. He used to say, “I am the son of the Revolution and the champion of “Liberty, Equality and Fraternity.”

Napoleon was crowned Emperor of France, 1804

In 1804, Napoleon coerced the Legislature named Senate to change the title of the First Consul to that of the hereditary Emperor. It was approved by a plebiscite. Thus on 2nd December, 1804, at the Cathedral of Notre Dam in Paris and in the presence of Pope Pius VII, General Napoleon Bonaparte crowned himself with title of Napoleon I, the Emperor of the French.

The Revolution came to an end in an Empire

The French Revolution during the 15 years of its existence abolished feudalism and monarchy. It proclaimed the democratic ideals of “Liberty, Equality and Fraternity”, declared the Rights of Man and Citizen, abolished serfdom and slavery. It introduced a republican principle in the polity of France. It made far reaching reforms in the social, economic and religious life of the French nation. The



Figure 7. General Napoleon.

management of the Church was brought under the authority of the state. Religion was made a private affair. Property was declared as the foundation of the social order. Sovereignty was made to be vested in the nation and nationalism took a definite shape. The French Revolution inspired national liberation struggles throughout the world in the coming centuries. French Revolution influenced the ideas and thoughts of the modern world.

Declaration of Rights of Man

1. Men are born and remain free and equal in rights.
2. The aim of every political association is the preservation of the natural and inalienable rights of man, these are liberty, property, security and resistance to oppression.
3. The source of all sovereignty resides in the nation, no group or individual may exercise authority that does not come from the people.
4. Liberty consists of the power to do whatever is not injurious to other.
5. The Law has the right to forbid only actions that are injurious to society.
6. Law is the expression of the general will. All citizens have the right to participate into formation, personally or through their representatives. All citizens are equal before it.
7. No man may be accused, arrested or detained, except in cases determined by the law.
8. Every citizen may speak, write, print freely, he must take responsibility for the abuse of such liberty in cases determined by the law.
9. For the maintenance of the public force and for the expense of administration a common tax is indispensable, it must be assessed equally on all citizens in proportion to their means.
10. Since property is a sacred and inviolable right, no one may be deprived of it, unless a legally established public necessity require it. In that case, a just compensation must be given in advance.

GLOSSARY

- Ancien Regime* : The social and political system of France before the Revolution.
- System of Estates* : A French social system in which the society was divided into three orders.
- Privileged Classes* : The members of the Church and nobility who imposed taxes and dues from the common people and enjoyed benefits based on their birth and status.
- Estates General* : The Assembly of the Clergy and Nobility convened by the king to impose taxation.

- Tennis Court Oath* : The oath taken by the members of the Third Estate who were denied by Louis XVI the right to vote in the National Assembly that they would not disperse the drafting of the constitution. The oath was taken at the indoor Tennis Court of the palace of Versailles.
- Bastille* : The name of the prison-fortress located in Paris, which was hated by the people as the symbol of oppression by the French monarchy.
- J.J. Rousseau* : A French philosopher whose book, ‘Contract Sociale’ inspired the leaders of the French Revolution.
- Jacobin* : A member of a political club known as the Jacobin club. It was named after St. Jacob of Christianity.
- Guillotine* : A device consisting of two poles and a steel blade with which a person was executed. It was invented by Dr. Guillotine, a philanthropist of France.
- Reign of Terror* : The rule of Robespierre who used terror to suppress and eliminate the enemies of the French Revolution.

EXERCISES

A. LONG ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS :

1. Describe the ‘Ancien Regime’ in France.
2. Describe the circumstances that led to the outbreak of the French Revolution.
3. What are the rights of man which were spread by the French Revolution ?
4. Explain how France was declared a Republic.
5. What do you mean by the ‘Reign of Terror’ ? What was its outcome ?
6. Describe the legacy of the French Revolution.
7. Describe the circumstances that led to the rise of Napoleon.

B. SHORT ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS :

1. Give an account on the ‘Third Estate’.

2. What was the 'Estates General' ?
3. Why was the 'Bastille' stormed ?
4. State the immediate changes undertaken by the National Assembly of 1789-91.
5. What was the justification of the use of terror by Robespierre ?

C. VERY SHORT ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS :

1. List the three Estates into which the French society was divided on the eve of the French Revolution.
2. When did the French Revolution take place ?
3. Who constituted the Estates General ?
4. When and where did Louis XVI convene the Estates General ?
5. Why was the Bastille hated by all ?
6. Who invented the Guillotine ?
7. Name the king and queen of France at the time of the French Revolution.
8. What is meant by the term 'Directory' ?

2 RUSSIAN REVOLUTION

2.1. Emergence of Socialism in Europe

In the previous chapter, we have studied about the great historical event known as the French Revolution. As a legacy of this revolution, the powerful ideas of freedom and equality had spread to the different countries of Europe and the world. There also occurred industrial revolution, beginning from England and spread to France, Belgium and Germany. The industrial revolution transformed the economy of Europe from agricultural to industrial economy. It was the change in the mode of production from home to the factory, the replacement of hand by machine and investment of huge capital by very rich individuals in their industries. These rich individuals who had a huge amount of money to finance the industries were the owners of the factories. They came to be known as the capitalists. This type of industrial economy came to be known as the capitalism. Under this system, there are the employers, the factory owners and the workers. The factories were located in new cities and towns. Capitalism was brought about by industrialization.

It brought men, women and children to factories. Working hours were long but the wages were low. Unemployment was common. Housing and sanitation were not provided for the workers. All these industries were owned by rich individuals. The lives of the workers were miserable. There grew up great social inequality between the workers and the capitalists.

Many social reformers and philosophers were aware of the great social inequality and economic hardships suffered by the workers. They pleaded for the establishment of a new society based on the loosely formulated ideas known as the socialism. They demanded political freedom, economic equality and a decent life for the workers. These thinkers formulated ideas which are vague but well intentioned.

The first among them was a French radical named Francois Noel Babeuf. He formed an organization known as the Society of Equals. He tried to remove all forms of social inequality. He made an attempt to overthrow the government to establish his society. He failed. And his attempt was known as Babeuf's conspiracy.

And socialism had emerged as a vision for the reconstruction of a new society to replace the capitalist system of society and economy. The ideas of socialism attracted widespread attention in the mid-nineteenth century Europe. What are the ideas that constitute socialism ?

Socialism is an economic and political ideology under which all the means of production, distribution and exchange in the economy of a country are owned and controlled by the state.

The socialist thinkers were against private property and they regarded it as

the root of all social evils.

The early socialist thinkers were Saint Simon, Charles Fourier, Louis Blanc of France and Robert Owen of England. They were the visionary thinkers who wanted to create a new society.

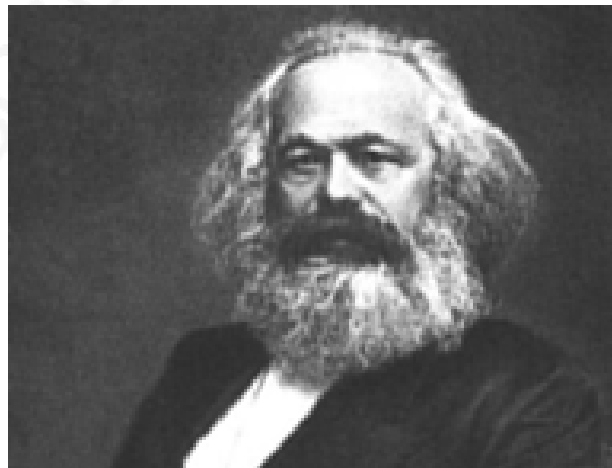
Saint Simon was the foremost of the group. He was against the private property. He advocated the state ownership of production. Charles Fourier was a thinker who believed that property was theft committed by the powerful individuals who took the property from the common resources of the society.

Robert Owen (1771-1858) was an English industrialist. He tried to improve the condition of the workers. He planned to build up a cooperative community for workers. But other socialists thought that cooperatives should be encouraged by the state and it should not be left to the individual efforts. Louis Blanc (1813-1882) was such a thinker. According to him every man has the right to live and he is entitled to a livelihood. He wanted the government to encourage cooperatives which are the associations of people who work and produce together and share the profits according to the work done by the members.

These thinkers could not bring any substantial change in the condition of the working class. However, their writings encouraged the workers to form their associations. Their associations launched movement for the improvement of their condition. These thinkers were known as the Utopian Socialists as their programme was vague and more idealistic rather than being practical.

Karl Marx and Scientific Socialism

In the history of socialism, Karl Marx (1818-1883) and Frederick Engels were the two most brilliant exponents of scientific socialism (or communism) as contrast to the Utopian socialism.



Karl Marx

The Communist Manifesto

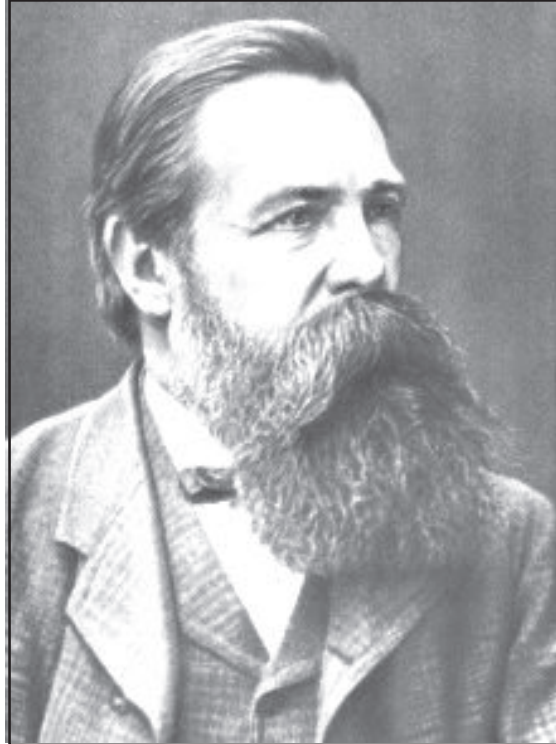
The Communist League was formed out of the League of the Just in June, 1847, on the initiative of Marx and Engels. In a Congress held in November, 1847 in London, the League entrusted both of them to prepare a clear formulation of the communist principles in a statement. Based on an earlier draft prepared by Engels, Marx wrote a document in Brussels. And the document with the attractive title of the Communist Manifesto was published in February, 1848. The publication of this historic document coincided with the outbreak of the February Revolution of 1848 in different countries of Europe.

The Manifesto has four sections. The first section deals with the history of society as a struggle of classes. It declares. "The history of all hitherto existing society is the history of class struggle". In ancient Rome, there were patricians, knights, plebeians and slaves. In the Middle Ages, there were the feudal lords and serfs, vassals and journey men. The modern bourgeoisie society grew out of the ruins of feudalism. There are the Bourgeoisie and the Proletariat, the capitalist and working class in the modern society. Marx predicted that the fall of the Bourgeoisie and victory of the proletariat. The second section deals with the position of the communists within the Proletarian class, the communist revolution and the nature of the communist society which is a classless society where man lives according to his needs. The third section criticizes other types of socialism, reactionary, bourgeoisie and utopian. The fourth deals with the communist revolutionary strategy. It ends with a stirring slogan. "Working men of all countries Unite".

Karl Marx was both a social thinker and a political leader. Marx was a German theoretician who collaborated with Frederick Engels in the theoretical development of scientific socialism and involvement in the socialist movements in Europe. In 1850s and 1860s Karl Marx laboured hard to publish a definitive analysis of the political economy of capitalism, entitled, *Capital* in 1867. It is observed by some historians that the history of socialism in the second half of the nineteenth century is to a degree the biography of Karl Marx. He propounded the philosophy and directed the movement for the spread of socialism.

Marx's philosophy runs thus. The industrial society was 'capitalist'. The capitalists owned the factories. But the workers who worked in these factories produced profit enjoyed by the capitalists. The condition of the workers was miserable. The conditions could not improve so long as the profits were expropriated by the capitalists. Marx pleaded that the workers who were the members of the proletariat had to overthrow capitalism through a communist revolution. The workers

should construct a Socialist society where all property was controlled socially. This would be the communist society which is a classless society.



Frederich Engels (1820-1895)

The First International (1864-1876)

The socialist philosophy as propounded by Marx and Engels was very definite and clearly thought out. Socialist ideas were spread to different countries of Europe. In order to direct the socialist activities, a central organization named, International Working Men's Association was established in 1864 in London. Marx who was permanently settled in England took the leadership to direct the movement. The aim of this international working class alliance was to overthrow capitalism and abolish private property. The Association was popularly known as the First International. Among the socialist leaders who were the members of the First International who entertained a different opinion other than that of Marx were the German leader Ferdinand Lassalle and a Russian socialist named

Bakunin. Marx insisted that the socialists should stick to its pure ideology. His stand was known as the Purist stand. The other two leaders tried to participate the bourgeoisie democratic process. Such stand was known as the Revisionist.

The First International under personal direction of Marx extolled the socialists of France in the radical activities of the Parisian Commune which controlled the government of France after the French defeat at the Franco-Prussian War of 1871. There was universal condemnation of the excessive use of violence in the civil war in France. Marx himself admitted the error and withdrew. The anti socialist wave was so strong that the headquarters of the First International was shifted to the United States in 1876 when it expired. The Second International was reorganized in 1889, after the death of Karl Marx. Workers in England and Germany began forming associations to fight for better living and working conditions. In Germany, the Social Democratic Party was established in 1875 under the leadership of Ferdinand Lassalle. It was later on led by Edward Bernstein who was a member of the German Parliament. Bernstein was condemned by the Marxists as revisionist. In France, the Socialist Party was founded in 1905. The Labour Party was founded in England in 1901.

2.2. The Crisis in Tsarist Russia

Tsar Nicholas II (1894-1917) was the last Russian Emperor of the Romanov dynasty which ruled Russia since 1613 with Michael Romanov as the first Tsar of



Tsar Nicholas II

the dynasty. Russian empire in the beginning of the twentieth century was very expansive. It included Finland, Latvia, Lithuania, Estonia, parts of Poland, Ukraine and Belarus. Territorially the empire stretched to the Pacific and covered central Asian states as well as Georgia, Armenia and Azerbaijan. The major religion was the Russian Orthodox Christianity, which grew out of the Greek Orthodox Church. There were Catholics, Protestants, Muslims and Buddhists.

The era of feudalism ended in Russia with the abolition of serfdom by Tsar Alexander II on 19 February, 1861. And the transition to the modern capitalist period started from this period. After half a century of the abolition of feudalism on paper, the Russian empire on the eve of the First World War was still a semi-feudal country. The modern industrialization was on the half way. Russia was an agrarian country. 85% of the Russian population was agriculturists. According to a report, there were 30,000 big landed estates, and ten million poor peasants in the European Russia alone.

Moreover, the peasants had no sufficient land for agriculture. The serfs who were emancipated from serfdom in 1861 were denied of the ownership of land due to the manipulation in favour of the landlords. The peasants were overburdened with semi-feudal dues and rents. They were compelled to move to the towns and cities where industries were located. Taking advantage of the their precarious condition, the factory owners cut down the wages of the workers. Yet Russia was a major exporter of grains.

Peasants cultivated most of the land in the countryside. These lands were mostly owned by the nobility, the crown and the orthodox Church. The Russian peasants had no respect for the nobility who received power and authority from the Tsar. The peasants wanted the lands owned by the nobles.

The large scale industrial production was started in the end of the 19th century. Many factories were established in the 1890s. The factories dealt with mostly heavy industries like iron and steel, metal working and fuel industries. The prominent industrial areas were in St. Petersburg and Moscow. Alongside the heavy industries, there were workshops employing craftsmen who undertook much of the production. Banks and financial institutions were monopolized and concentrated in St. Petersburg and Moscow. Most of the industries were owned by the industrialists. The government supervised the factories to ensure minimum wages and limited hours of work. The rules were more broken by the factory owners. The workers were exploited. They were to work for 15 hours a day. Accommodation was provided in the workers' dormitories. The workers were socially divided groups. Sometimes, they were united to go on strikes for common causes.

Politically, the Tsarist Russia was based on autocracy and extreme nationalism. The Tsar was the head of the Russian state; and he was an absolutist ruler.

His rule was arbitrary and it was imposed on all spheres of the government. There was no political freedom in the Tsarist Russia. The state suppressed any slightest attempt to assert or defend the rights of the people.

Russia, as an imperial power, had colonial possessions and many nationalities lived in the empire. The Russian imperial state tried to Russify the nationalists and the colonies. These problems added to the crisis of the Tsarist Russia.

At the same time, Russia was exposed to the influence of the liberal ideas of democracy and revolutionary socialism. The Russians developed a very high level of arts, science and literature. Enlightened sections of the population wanted fundamental changes in the economic and political system of the country. The leaders of the working class or the proletariat provided the leadership to demand changes. The working class suffered most from the effects of the semi-feudal exploitation and miserable working condition. Through various political groups, they tried to remove the feudal elements from the economic and political structure of the country.

At a crucial period, when Russia required the political and economic reforms, Tsar Nicholas II, a weak ruler was absolutely opposed to the reforms. He was an autocratic emperor. He was greatly influenced by his wife, a German Princess, Tsarina Alexandra. The empress was completely under the spell of a holy man called Rasputin who was opposed to the curtailment of the imperial power. However, before 1914, the outbreak of the First World War, Russia was outwardly prosperous and a powerful empire. But the imperial superstructure was moth eaten and it would collapse at a revolutionary blow.

2.3. Socialist Movement

History produces a great leader at the time of the crisis of a nation or crisis in a nation produces a leader to redeem a nation. The crisis of the imperial Russia was resolved by an ideology known as socialism and a leader who represented the ideology and the Russian nationalism. The leader was Vladimir Lenin (1870-1924).

Socialism in Russia

The Russian intellectuals and social reformers were fully conversant with the philosophy of scientific socialism as propounded by Karl Marx and Fredrich Engels. Michael Bakunin and George Plekhanov were well known names. It was Lenin who applied Marxian socialism in political and social action.

Vladimir Lenin was born on 22 April, 1870 in the town of Simbirsk. His father was an Inspector of Schools. Lenin grew up in an intellectual and

revolutionary family which was fully aware of the democratic ideas. He took a keen interest in politics. In 1887 his elder brother, Alexander Ulyanov was executed for involvement in the conspiracy to assassinate Tsar Alexander III. The martyrdom of his brother influenced the young Lenin towards a revolutionary career. In 1887, he



Lenin (1870-1924)

was admitted to Kazan University to study law. Soon he became a member of an illegal student study circle. He was arrested and exiled to a village near Kazan. Next year, he returned to his University. He joined a Marxist study circle. In the university, he was deeply engaged in the study of Marxism seeking answers to the problems of Russia. From 1889 to 1897 Lenin lived in Samara and established contacts with the revolutionary undergrounds.

In 1893, he went to St. Petersburg and came into contact with young students and prominent leaders of the workers. In 1895, on his initiative, the League of Struggle for the Emancipation of the Working Class was formed at St. Petersburg. It was the beginning of the Russian revolutionary movement. This League organized two great strikes in 1895 and 1896. The strike of 1896 was organized under the direction of a special committee formed in London in which Eleanor Aveling, Marx's daughter played an active part. Moreover, the League could not exist due to police suppression.

Russian Social Democratic Labour Party, 1898

Lenin founded the Russian Social Democratic Labour Party in 1898. The first congress of the party was held in the same year. And the Congress proclaimed its formation. The party could not function openly due to the state repression. Lenin also founded a newspaper named “Iskra” (The Spark). Lenin concentrated his activities on this newspaper which played a great role in the ideological and organizational preparation for a revolutionary party. The Second Congress of the party was held in 1903. The Congress adopted a programme who consisted of two parts; a maximum programme and a minimum programme. The minimum programme was aimed at achieving a bourgeoisie democratic revolution, with the overthrow of the Tsarist autocracy and the establishment of a democratic republic, introduction of an 8-hour working day, confiscation of the landed estates and the right to self-determination for all nations including the right of secession and creation of independent states.

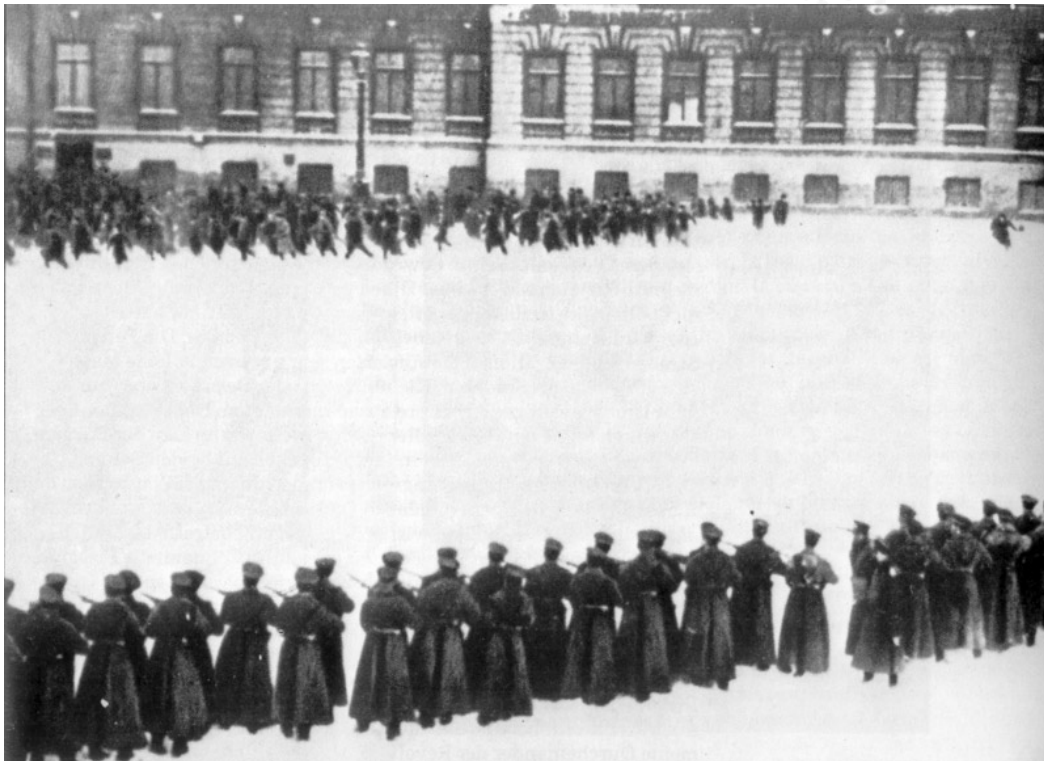
The maximum programme outlined the ultimate goal of the party, namely, the elimination of the capitalist mode of production, the creation of the dictatorship of the proletariat and socialist society.

The Congress also revealed the differences over the organizational principles. The difference became open when a vote was taken in the election of the editorial board of the Iskra and of the Central Committee of the party. Lenin’s supporters got the majority of these two bodies. Lenin’s followers came to be known as the Bolsheviks (majority) the other group was known as the Mensheviks (minority). The Bolsheviks and Mensheviks were two factions of a single party. But as time went by, their differences became ideological and strategic.

Revolution of 1905

There was a political ferment in Russia due to the revolutionary propaganda and the demand of the Liberals for a constitution of the Russian state. The Russo-Japanese war of 1904 resulted in the humiliating defeat of imperial Russia at the hands of an Asiatic power like Japan. This defeat affected the image of the Tsarist empire and the prestige of Tsar Nicholas II. The year 1904 was a bad one for the workers. The price of essential goods rose while the real wages declined. The membership of the workers association increased. Four members of a workers’ association known as the Assembly of Russian Workers formed in 1904 were dismissed at the Putilov Iron Works. There was a call of the workers for an industrial action. Over 110,000 workers in St. Petersburg went on strike demanding an 8-hour working day, increase in wages and improvement in the working conditions.

On Sunday, 9th of January, 1905, a procession of workers led by Father Gapon arrived at the Winter Palace in St. Petersburg to submit a petition listing their needs. The police and the Cossacks fired at the procession. In this unprovoked firing, 100 workers were killed and about 300 were wounded. This incident happened on a Sunday; it was popularly known as the Bloody Sunday. It started a series of protests which was known as the Revolution of 1905.



Bloody Sunday (9 January, 1905)

A storm of indignation swept across the country. Strikes took place all over the country. Universities were closed down as the students protested against the absence or lack of civil liberties. Lawyers, doctors, engineers and other middle-class workers established Unions and demanded a Constituent Assembly. This was the Revolution of 1905. During the revolution, the Soviets (Council) of Workers' Deputies were established to direct the movement that occurred at several places. About 70 Soviets of Workers' Deputies were established. The Revolution of 1905 was of great significance. Lenin described it as a "dress rehearsal" of the revolution of 1917. However, in two years the revolution was gradually suppressed.

Tsar Nicholas II granted the creation of an elected Consultative Parliament known as the Duma. But within 75 days the Tsar dissolved the first Duma. He constituted the second Duma in 3 months. He did not want any questioning of his authority in the Duma. The second Duma was also dissolved. The third Duma was constituted with conservative politicians. The Liberals and the revolutionaries were kept out. The Russian state suppressed all political and revolutionary activities. All political parties were declared illegal. Revolutionaries including Lenin went into hiding in foreign countries.

2.4. The First World War and Russia (1914-1916)

In 1914, the First World War broke out. It was a war between the two European alliances, the Central Powers consisting of Germany, Austria and Turkey, and other alliance consisting of France, Britain and Russia (later on Italy and Romania). As each belligerent nation had global empires, the war was fought in Europe as well as outside Europe. The United States joined the war against the Central Powers.

In Russia, when the war began in 1914, there was a popular support for the war and the Tsar. During the war period, Tsar Nicholas II refused to consult the political parties in the Duma. At this uncompromising attitude of the emperor, the support for the war became lessened. There was also a strong anti-German feeling among the Russians. St. Petersburg, a German name, was changed to Petrograd. Tsarina Alexandria's German origin and the advisers particularly a monk called Rasputin made the royal household unpopular. Moreover, Russia suffered great defeats in the war. Their defeats were shocking and demoralizing. The Russian army greatly lost in Germany and Austria between 1914-1916. By 1917, there were 7 million casualties.

During their retreat, the Russian army destroyed crops and buildings to prevent the enemy from living off the land. As a result, there grew up a large number of refugees, nearly 3 millions grew up in Russia. Such a situation discredited the Tsar and his government. The army also did not like to fight such a war.

There was a serious set back on the industries. The Germans controlled the Baltic Sea and cut off all contacts between Russia and other supplier countries. By 1916, the railway lines began to break down. The government called up all able-bodied men for military service. There was also labour shortage for the factories and workshops. Consequently, the industries were closed down. Large quantity of food grain were sent to the army in the front. Flour and bread became scarce for the people in the cities. By the winter of 1916, there occurred food riots in the cities. The war had devastated the Russian empire. Tsar Nicholas II had neither the will nor the capacity to continue the war.

2.5. The Russian Revolution of 1917

The year 1917 was the year of revolutions in Russia. Two revolutions occurred in this year. The first was the February Revolution. The second was the October Revolution. The February Revolution was directed against the Russian monarchy and it destroyed the Russian monarchy with the abdication of Tsar Nicholas II. A Provisional Government consisting of army and civil officials, industrialists, former members of the Duma formed a Provisional Government to convene a Constituent Assembly to draft a new constitution of Russia.

The October Revolution was an armed revolution launched by the Bolshevik Party under the direct guidance of Lenin. The revolution destroyed the Provisional Government, captured power and established the first socialist state in history.

February Revolution of 1917

In the early part of 1917, the situation, created by the disasters in the war, was grim in Petrograd, the capital city of Russia. The city bivouacked by the river Neva in two sectors represented the contradictions in the tottering imperial Russia. One sector of glittering fashionable areas, the Winter Palace, the official buildings and the Duma Palace represented the imperial Russia. The other sector of the quarters of the workers and the factories was a picture of discontent, hunger and anger to give a blow to the empire. In February, 1917, there was an acute food shortage which created a great hardship for the workers. The city was very cold due to heavy snow fall.

There was a discussion in the Winter Palace regarding the dissolution of the Duma by the Tsar. The members of the Duma were opposed to the Tsar's desire to dissolve the Duma. The imperial court appeared to be ignorant of the feeling of the people.

On 22 February, 1917 a factory in Petrograd was locked out by the factory owner. The workers of fifty factories called a sympathy strike on the next day. Women workers took the leading part in the strikes in the factories. The striking workers marched to the central square of the city. The demonstrating workers surrounded the government buildings. The government imposed curfew. The demonstrators dispersed by the evening of 23rd February. They continued to demonstrate on 24 and 25 February also. A panicky government called up the cavalry to control the situation. The situation was so electrifying that cavalry refused to fire at the demonstrators. The cavalry regiments mutinied and voted to join the workers. By that evening, the soldiers and workers gathered to form a Soviet (Council) of workers and soldiers of Petrograd. This was the signal of the revolution.

There was panic and commotion in the imperial household. The military commanders advised Tsar Nicholas II to abdicate. And he abdicated the imperial throne of Russia on 2nd March, 1917. Thus the Romanov rule came to an end.

The leaders of the Soviet of workers, soldiers of Petrograd and former leaders of the Duma formed a Provisional Government to run the government of Russia. The Provisional Government decided to convene a constituent assembly elected on the basis of universal suffrage. The February Revolution abolished the Russian monarchy.



Vladimir Lenin addressing a rally.

At this time of national crisis, Vladimir Lenin returned to Russia from exile in April, 1917. The Bolshevik Party led by him was opposed to the war since its beginning in 1914. Lenin issued “The April Theses” in which the party promised the end of the war, transfer of land to the peasants and nationalization of the banks.

In the summer of 1917, the workers’ movement spread all over the country. The factory committees were formed. Trade unions grew in number. The soldiers’ committees were formed in the army. By June, 500 Soviets sent their representatives to the All Russian Congress of Soviets which became the real centre of power. The Provisional Government, dominated by the army, officials, land-owners and

industrialists took stern action against the workers, arresting their leaders. They organized the popular demonstrations of the Bolshevik Party at Petrograd.



Bolshevik Demonstration on 17 July, 1917.

Many Bolshevik leaders went into hiding. In the countryside the peasants seized the lands of the nobility and the crown. The Provisional Government became counter revolutionaries.

October Revolution of 1917

The Bolshevik Revolution occurred in the month of October, 1917. Therefore, it was popularly known as the October Revolution. Lenin decided to capture power from the Provisional Government now led by Prime Minister Alexander Kerensky. It was essential to capture the All Russian Congress of Soviets. He worked patiently to win over different groups. Lenin won over a young and brilliant socialist named Leon Trotsky who was following an independent line. By 16 October, Lenin succeeded in convincing the Petrograd Soviet and the Bolshevik Party to seize the power through an insurrection.

A Military Revolutionary Committee was appointed with Leon Trotsky as the head of this important committee. The uprising began on 24 October, 1917. Prime Minister Kerensky, sensing trouble left the city to mobilize the pro-government troops. At dawn, the pro-government troops seized the two buildings of the Bolsheviks. Troops were sent to protect the Winter Palace, the post and telegraph offices.

The Military Revolution Committee in a swift movement ordered the seizure of all government buildings, arresting all the ministers. In the evening, the sailors from the naval ships sailing down the Neva River shelled the Winter Palace and captured all the military points. By nightfall the city of Petrograd was under the control of the Military Revolutionary Committee and all the ministers surrendered.

The All Russian Congress of Soviets in a meeting at Petrograd approved the Bolshevik action. Other uprisings occurred in many cities. There was heavy fighting in Moscow. By December, 1917, the Bolsheviks controlled Moscow-Petrograd areas.

Lenin acted very fast and implemented the Bolshevik programme. The Bolshevik Party was opposed to the private property. Industries and banks were nationalized in November, 1917. The government took over the management of all industrial enterprises. Land was declared a social property. The peasants were allowed to seize the lands of the nobles and their buildings in the city were appropriated to the workers. The use of old titles of aristocracy was banned.

In November, 1917, elections to the Constituent Assembly were held. But the Bolshevik Party could not gain the majority. In January, 1918, the Constituent Assembly rejected the Bolshevik measures. In retaliation, Lenin who had control of the armed forces dissolved the Constituent Assembly. He declared that the All Russian Congress of Soviets was more democratic than the Constituent Assembly.

In March, 1918, the Bolshevik government made peace with Germany at Brest Litovsk and Russia withdrew from the war. The state was controlled by the Bolshevik Party which was controlled by Lenin. The Bolshevik Party was the party which participated in the election to the All Russian Congress of Soviets. The Congress became the supreme parliament. Russia became a single party state.

Many political elements who were opposed to the Bolshevik Revolution and withdrawal from the war against Germany made contacts with foreign power engaged in the First World War. There was a Civil War between the Bolshevik (communist) Government and the foreign aided political forces. The Civil War ended with the success of the Bolshevik government.

In July, 1918, the first Soviet Constitution known as the Constitution of the Russian Socialist Federative Republic was adopted. All provinces and regions joined the Socialist Republic. On December 30, 1922, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR) was formed. All Union Congress of Soviets endorsed the formation

of the USSR in January, 1924. Thus Lenin who was the Chairman of the Council of People's Commission built up the first Socialist State. He died on 21 June, 1924.

Russian revolution was a very significant event in world history. The Socialist ideas of the revolution were spread widely. They influenced the social, economic and political movement in different countries of the world. Many Socialist countries are in existence. Revolution on Russian line occurred in different countries. Even India adopted Socialism as one of its national goals. Though USSR broke up in 1991, the Socialist ideas, Marxian principles, the Communist slogans are regarded as valid in many parts of the world.

GLOSSARY

- The Communist Manifesto*: The statement of principles of the Communist League, written by Karl Mark and published in February, 1848.
- Bourgeoisie* : The rich middle class which controlled the political economy of a country.
- Proletariat* : The working class.
- First International* : The International Association of Working Men established in 1864 in London. It expired in 1876.
- Revisionist* : The group of Socialists who made compromise and alliance with Liberal and Democratic Political groups.
- Purist* : The group of Socialists who stick to the original ideology of Karl Marx.
- Romanov* : The name of the ruling dynasty of Russian empire (1613-1917).
- Tsar* : The title of the Russian emperor.
- Cossack* : Mounted Cavalry Regiment.
- Duma* : The name of the Russian Parliament established by the Tsar.
- Bolshevik* : "Majority" section of the Russian Social Democratic Labour Party.
- Menshevik* : "Minority" section of the Russia Social Democratic Party.
- Soviet* : Council in Russian.
- Soviet State* : The Socialist State, formed with the representatives of the Soviets.
- The Iskra* : The newspaper founded by Lenin.
- The Winter Palace* : The royal residence of the imperial household of Russia.
- "April Theses"* : The Programme of action announced by Lenin in April, 1917. End of the War, Transfer of lands to the peasants and the nationalization of banks.
- The Military Revolutionary Committee* : The supreme military command of the Bolshevik to organise the revolution of October, 1917, with Leon Trotsky as its head.

Peoples Commissar : Minister of the Soviet State of Russia Lenin was the Chairman of the Council of People's Commissar.

EXERCISES

A. ESSAY TYPE QUESTIONS :

1. How did Socialism emerge in Europe ?
2. Describe the social and economic conditions of Russia before 1905.
3. Explain the causes and results of the Russian Revolution of 1905.
4. What led the February Revolution of 1917 ?
5. Describe the course of the October Revolution of 1917.
6. Explain why did the Tsarist rule collapse in Russia ?

B. SHORT ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS :

1. What is Socialism ?
2. What is Capitalism ?
3. Who are the capitalists ?
4. What type of society did the Utopian Socialists envisage ?
5. Mention the important differences between the Utopian Socialism and the Scientific Socialism (Communism).
6. What are the contents of the Communist Manifesto ?
7. Mention the achievements of the First International.
8. State the conditions of the Russian Peasantry during the later part of the 19th Century.
9. Point out the differences between the Bolsheviks and the Mensheviks.
10. What were the main programmes implemented by Lenin ?

C. VERY SHORT ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS :

1. Who formed the Society of Equals ?
2. What was the Babeuf's conspiracy ?
3. On whose initiative did the Communist League form ?
4. When was the International Working Men's Association established ?
5. Name the last Russian Emperor of the Romanov dynasty.
6. Who abolished the 'serfdom' in Russia ?
7. Who was Tsarina Alexandra ?
8. Who founded the Russian Social Democratic Party ?
9. Who were the Bolsheviks ?
10. What was the Duma ?
11. Who issued the 'April Theses' ?
12. Who was Leon Trotsky ?

3 THE RISE OF NAZISM

The Rise of Hitler and Nazism in Germany was a great historical phenomenon of the modern world with far reaching consequences. Hitler was greatly influenced by the German defeat in the First World War (1914-1919). The aggressive imperialism of Germany was mostly responsible for the Great War. Germany was defeated. The Treaty of Versailles which was settled by the victorious nations imposed very harsh and humiliating terms of peace on Germany.

Hitler visualized his philosophy of National Socialism which was popularly known as the Nazism, to capture the power of the German state, strengthen the German nationalism and transform Germany into a great world power. The political developments in post war Germany, the economic crises and the political instability favoured the rise of Hitler and his Nazi party.

Hitler was in a way the historical response of the frustrated German nationalism to the challenge of the international hegemony of the European Allied powers, the victor of the World War. Hitler symbolized the urge of the resurgent Germany which refused to accept the national defeat but provided a political philosophy and programme to build up a great future of the German nation.

The Growth of Social Democracy (Social Democratic Party) in Germany

With the publication of Karl Marx's The Communist Manifesto, several revolutions inspired by the scientific socialism occurred in different countries of Europe. And socialism was spread to different countries. However, among the thinkers of socialism, there were different views. In Germany, a strong socialist movement grew up in the last quarter of the nineteenth century. The prominent leaders were Ferdinand Lassalle and Eduard Bernstein who believed that the socialist goals could be attained through the parliamentary democratic process not on the violent revolution alone. Ferdinand Lassalle founded the Social Democratic Party in 1875 based on the synthesis of socialism and democracy. The followers of the party came to be known as Social Democrats or Socialists.

Bismarck, the great Chancellor of United German empire was opposed to socialism which was condemned as an anarchy. He banned the Social Democratic Party in 1880. However, he allowed the individual socialists to contest in the parliamentary elections. But as a party, they were not allowed to send up candidates during an election. Edward Bernstein (1852-1932) was a prominent socialist thinker and politician. He differed with Marx and Engels on the means to the attainment of socialist goals. He was condemned as the revisionist. Later on, he was a member of the Reichstag, the German parliament.

In 1890, Bismarck was dismissed from the post of the Chancellor by Emperor Kaiser William II (1888-1918). The difference over their policy towards the Socialists was the key issue between the Emperor and his Chancellor. William II revoked the ban on the Social Democratic Party. The Emperor, however, continued to carry on anti-socialist measures. He followed a repressive policy against the Social Democratic Party. He asked the schools to teach the dangers of socialism which preached class struggle and distinction between the classes. He did not permit the recruitment of the socialists to the civil services of the country.

The philosophy of the Social Democratic Party was the liberal socialism which was popularly known as the Social democracy. Socialism could be achieved through democracy. It believed in the participation in the democratic institutions, contest in the elections to the parliament, and force the government to adopt the socialist programme.

The Social Democratic Party, operated within the constitutional monarchy of the German Empire. The party grew from strength to strength. In the elections of the Reichstag in 1912, they polled one-third of the total votes. They captured 110 seats in the Parliament. The Socialists differed from the Communists. But the Socialists themselves were ideologically divided into two factions, the purist and the revisionist. The Social Democratic Party stuck to the purist ideology. In 1914, a conflict between the Party and the Emperor almost led to a constitutional crisis. But the outbreak of the First World War stopped the political activities of the Party which generally supported the war. And they were not in favour of the perpetual continuation of the German monarchy. After the defeat of Germany, the Socialists resumed their activities. Emperor William II had abdicated the throne of Germany. An Armistice was declared in 1918 and the war was concluded by the Treaty of Versailles in 1919.

The Crises in Germany

Germany which was a powerful empire in the beginning of the 20th century was defeated in the Great War (1914-1919). The victors of the War, the Allied powers concluded the Peace Settlement at Versailles in France. Germany, however, did not surrender, neither did she sign the Armistice in November, 1918, nor did she participate in the proceeding of the Peace Settlement. The Peace Treaty imposed humiliating and harsh terms on Germany.

The defeat of the empire and the abdication of the emperor gave an opportunity to the political parties to reconstruct the German polity. The Social Democrats or the Socialists, the Catholics and the Liberal democrats convened a National Assembly which

met at Weimar, and established a Republic. The Assembly drafted a democratic constitution with a federal structure. But the people did not welcome the Weimar constitution. Crisis after crisis plagued the Weimar Republic since its birth in 1919.

The Effects of the War and the Growth of Political Radicalism

The War produced a devastating effect on Germany, she lost her army, lost a chunk of the territory, colonies and rich provinces. She was compelled to pay the enormous amount of compensation. Germany had no financial resources. She was bankrupt. A historian remarked. “The infant Weimar Republic was being made to pay for the sins of the Empire. The Republic carried the burden of war guilt and national humiliation”. The political parties which created the Republic were attacked by the conservative nationalists.

The Spartacist Uprising

The establishment of the Weimar Republic coincided with the outbreak of the Spartacist Uprising in 1919. The Spartacist League (named after Spartacus, the leader of slave rebellion in ancient Rome) was formed by the Communists, the extreme followers of Marxism. They wanted to organise a Bolshevik type of revolution in Germany. Soviets of workers and sailors were established. The leaders of the Spartacist were two prominent Marxist thinkers, namely Rosa Luxemburg and Karl Liebknecht. They organized a proletarian revolution in Germany after the pattern of the Bolshevik Revolution of Russia. The political leaders who were meeting at Weimar ordered the war veteran organization called the Free Corps to suppress the revolution. A large number of people were arrested including the two leaders who were killed in the prison by the military personnel. The Spartacists failed. The remnants of this organization formed the Communist Party of Germany. The Socialists and the Communists were never reconciled in future.

The Weimar Republic

The Weimar constitution drafted by the National Assembly was based on the progressive, democratic, political and social philosophy. It had the following features.

- (i) It gave the universal suffrage to both man and woman.
- (ii) There was a cabinet form of government headed by the Chancellor, under the President who was the head of the state.
- (iii) There was a parliament named Reichstag to which regular elections were held.

- (iv) It provided a bill of rights guaranteeing civil liberties, rights of the citizens to employment, education and protection against the hazards of the industrial society.
- (v) The political parties were guaranteed participation in the legislature and executive branches of the state.

The Weimar Republic could not function properly from the very beginning. There were ploys from the radicals and the reactionaries. The Republic was born out of the circumstances that were forced upon Germany in the hour of her defeat. The German nation did not have any experience of parliamentary democracy. The Republic was not born of the desires of the nation. The Weimar Republic faced the problems that were not created by it but imposed by the Treaty of Versailles.

There was a strong sense of humiliation out of the defeat. Some conservatives were in search of the scapegoat for the national defeat. A legend was created and it grew up that the nation was stabbed at the back by the Socialists and the Jews in the government. The legend was not true but the people who were in search of a scapegoat blamed the Weimar Republic for this humiliation. That Germany needed a strong leadership to regain the respect of the world was the theme of the conservative campaign.

The Weimar Republic was compelled to reduce the strength of the army to 160,000 soldiers only. It faced the economic burden of paying the reparation which angered the majority of the people.

Economic Crisis

The greatest crisis of Germany was the finance of the country. The economic crisis was started in 1923. The Republic inherited an economic burden in the form of public debt from the previous government. Germany borrowed loans from the public to finance the last war. And after the war she was paying reparation to the Allied powers, in term of gold. The German exchequer was almost empty. By 1923, she refused to pay the reparation. France occupied the Ruhr industrial area to claim the coal. Germany retaliated by a passive resistance and printing of paper currency. Due to the over circulation of the paper currency the value of the German "Mark" fell. For example, in April, 1923, the dollar was equivalent to 24,000 mark. It increased to 35,000 in July and 98,860,000 in December, 1923. The prices of the goods sky rocketed. This crisis of inflation was termed "hyperinflation". This financial crisis evoked world wide sympathy especially from the United States. The Americans intervened, in the form of the Dawes Plan according to which the terms of reparation were reworked and Germany was bailed out of the crisis.

The Depression

Added to this inflation was the effects of the Depression on Germany with the crash of Wall Street Exchange of New York in 1929. Between 1924-1928, the German investments and the industrial recovery were dependent on the American loans. The financial assistance was withdrawn after the Exchange Crash. This was the beginning of the Great Economic Depression in the United States (1929-32) Banks collapsed, the factories were shut, farmers were badly hit due to overproduction and fall of price, the exports fell and the speculators withdrew money from the market. The effects of the Great Depression of the United States was felt worldwide including Germany.

The German economy was affected badly by the depression. The industrial production was reduced. The workers lost their jobs; unemployment increased leaps and bounds. But the jobs disappeared, the unemployed youth took to criminal activities. The crisis produced fears and anxiety in the mind of the people. The middle class including the salaried persons suffered. The small business also suffered. The apprehension was greatly felt by the working class. The peasants also suffered due to the fall of the prices of their agricultural products.

The Political Instability

The Weimar Republic faced a chronic instability in the working of its government. By the principle of proportional representation in the constitution, it was not possible to get majority on the part of any political party. And the coalition was the only means of running the government. At the end of the decade between 1920-30 there emerged a number of political parties. They were the Socialist and Centrist, the Communist Party the monarchist German People's Party, the Nationalist Party and the right wing radical the National Socialist German Workers Party (Nazi Party). These coalitions created the political instability. During this period of one decade the Republic had twenty cabinets, with 239 days as the average longevity of a government. Moreover the constitution empowered the Chancellor to introduce emergency in the country, suspend the civil rights and rule by the promulgation of decrees. These provisions were exploited by Hitler to establish a personal dictatorship. The crises in Germany could not be managed. It was beyond redemption. The people lost confidence in the parliamentary democracy of the Weimar Republic. The situation was ripe for a dictatorial rule.

In the elections of 1932, Marshall von Hindenburg, a war hero, was elected as the President. The Communist Party polled 5 million votes, the Nazi Party of Hitler polled 11 million votes. Hitler was in alliance with the Nationalist Party. The fate of the Weimar Republic was doomed.

Hitler's Rise to Power

Hitler's march towards power was started in 1919 when he joined the German Workers' Party in Munich. He converted this party in 1920, to the National Socialist German Workers' Party which came to be known as the Nazi Party (The word Nazi was the abbreviation of the word National Socialism based on the German National Sozialismus). Hitler came to power through the Nazi Party. The crisis in Germany provided the background to his rise to power.



Figure 8. Adult Hitler (1889-1945).

Adolf Hitler was born in 1889 in the small town of Braunau in northern Austria bordering Bavaria of Germany. He was the son of Alois Hitler, a petty official of the Austrian Custom Service. His father left enough for the maintenance of his family. Hitler's mother was over indulgent of her son. Hitler read up to the school. He went to Vienna in 1909 to study art in the Academy of Fine Arts. He could not get admission to the Academy. He worked as a painter for advertisement

and postcard. He did some paintings in water colours. While in Vienna, he was influenced by the anti-semitism which was openly talked in that city. He neither liked Marxism nor Socialism. Failing to get any employment, he tried to be recruited in the Austrian army in 1913, but he was declared unfit.

In 1914, when the First World War broke out, Hitler, though an Austrian citizen, was recruited to the German army. He continued to be in the roll of the German army till April, 1920. He showed bravery and devotion to duty during the War. He was a corporal while in the military service. Hitler realized self satisfaction, discipline, authoritarianism, and loyalty to the nation. He was also awarded medals, the Iron Cross, Second class in 1914, the Iron Cross, First class in 1918, when he was wounded and hospitalized. When the war ended, he was still in the hospital. He was deadly opposed to the Peace Settlement of Versailles and the humiliating terms of the Treaty. He was in his humble way, determined to undo the wrongs done to Germany. He decided to join politics to redeem the German nation. And he became the President of the National Socialist German Workers' Party in July, 1921.

Hilter earnestly started the propaganda campaign for his party. The political and financial crisis that befell Germany, the irresponsible activities of the Communist (Bolshevik) and the Socialists, the sheer inefficiency of the Weimar Republic provided the fodder for the propaganda work of Hitler. A paper of the Nazi Party called Popular Observer did the publicity among the masses. Hitler described the Nazi Party as a movement of the people to differentiate it from other political parties.

The abortive military coup, 1923

In 1923, Hitler organised a military revolt at Munich in Bavaria in collaboration with the local military groups against the Weimar Republic. His plan was to capture the government establishment at Bavaria and march to Berlin for a national revolution. His attempt failed, was arrested and tried of treason. He was sentenced to the five years imprisonment. But he was released after nine months. He wrote the first volume of his autopiography. Mein Kampf (My struggle) in prison in 1924. And the second volume was published in 1925.

The Nazi Party disintegrated due to the imprisonment of Hitlter. He reconstructed the party with great difficulties with the members who would become important personalities in Nazi Germany in future. But at that time, the economy of the country was improved due to the currency reform and the American financial aid. Moreover, he was forbidden to give speech in Bavaria and other parts of Germany upto 1928. And in 1929, the Depression again created the financial crisis and the resultant political instability.

Hitler made an alliance with Alfred Hugenberg of the Nationalist Party to organize a campaign against the government. Hitler for the first got a national audience through the National Party and the newspapers under their control. His great oratorical skill and passionate nationalism won for him the financial support of the big business and industrial magnets who desired a right wing government. The mass agitation and propaganda set against the failures of the government brought electoral success for the Nazi party. It got 2.6% in 1928 and 37% in the



Figure 9. Hitler addressing the Rally of the Nazi party.

1932 elections.

Hitler was a powerful speaker. His passion and powerful words moved the people. He promised to build up a strong German nation. He would undo the injustice of the Settlement of Versailles. He would restore the dignity and respect for the German people in the community of nations. He assured employment to the unemployed and a secure future to the German youth. He promised to weed out the foreign influences and resist all conspiracies against Germany. He adopted a new style of politics, use of symbol and ritual for the mobilization of the masses, mass rallies and public meetings. The party used big Red Banner with the Swastika symbol, the Nazi salute, the ritualized rounds of applause after the speech of Hitler. These were the spectacles of power, a mode of propaganda to carry the lowest of the intelligent people with the Nazi party.

Hitler was projected by the effective Nazi propaganda as the Messia or saviour, some one to deliver the German nation from their present distress.

Destruction of Democracy : Dictatorship of Hitler : 1933-1939

Since the abortive revolt of 1923, Hitler did not adopt any illegal means or activity for the Nazi movement. He adopted the parliamentary democratic process of the Weimar Republic. He sabotaged the constitution to establish his control of the German state and converted the republic to a dictatorship by destroying the democratic structure.



Figure 10. President Hindenburg with Hilter, 1933.

In the elections of 1932 the Nazi Party performed well. It secured 37% of the votes polled. But the election did not give the majority to the party to form the government. Hitler had managed a political understanding with President Hindenburg who was convinced that there could not be a cabinet without Hitler. On 30, January, 1933, Hindenburg offered the Chancellorship of Germany to Hitler who was too happy to accept. This was the beginning of dictatorship in Germany.

The building of the Reichstag was burnt down in the night of 27 February, 1933 in a mysterious way creating terror and apprehension. Hitler blamed the Communists for this destruction. (apparently, one Dutch Communist, named Marinus Vander Lubbi was suspected to have done the historic burning).

Taking advantage of the dangerous situation. Chancellor Hitler issued the First Decree on 28, February, 1933 by which he suspended the civil rights, the freedom of speech, press and assembly of the Weimar constitution. Hitler cracked down on the Communists who were his arch enemies, and sent them to the concentration camps, Communists belonged to 52 types of victims persecuted by the Nazi government. Hitler also immediately ordered an election on 5 March, 1933 in which the Nazis polled 43·9% of the total vote. The rest was polled by his allies, the Nationalist Party and the Centre Party.

Another dangerous and arbitrary law known as the Enabling Acts were adopted by the Reichstag on 23 March, 1933. The Acts established the dictatorship of Hitler.



Figure 11. Hilter as Fuhrer.

These Enabling Acts empowered the Chancellor to sideline the Parliament and rule the country with the issuance of the Decrees as he deemed appropriate. All the political parties were banned except the Nazi Party and its frontal or affiliated

organizations. Thus within two months of Hitler in power, he established complete control over the economy, media, army and judiciary. He introduced the Secret Service, Storm Troopers, the Gestapo (Secret State Police) and the SS. (Protection Equal and Security Service). Those were the instruments of the terror employed by the Nazi state. The state of Germany under Hitler became a dreaded rogue state. He withdrew Germany from the League of Nations, and recovered all the German territories occupied by the Allies through the plebiscite.

President Hindenburg died on August 2, 1934. The Nazi Party and its obliging allies agreed to the merger of the office of the Chancellor and the Presidency into one. Hitler assumed the two offices and he was designated as the Fuhrer, the leader of German nation. The officers of the state machinery, army, police and members of the Nazi party took the oath of allegiance to Hitler personally. The emergence of the dictatorship of Hitler was favoured by the economic recovery as a result of the successful solution of the Great Depression for which Hitler took the credit. He had established the Nazi state of Germany of which he was the head and leader. His rise to power continued upto the year 1939 when his position was fully consolidated. Under Hitler, both the domestic and foreign policy had achieved great success. Germany had assumed the status of a respected state in the world.

Hitler followed an aggressive foreign policy of conquest and territorial aggrandisement to build up a great German empire. His policy came into clash with the great powers of the western world, England, France, Russia and the United States. Against the Allies Hitler made an alliance with Italy and Japan called the Axis Alliance. This clash of interests between the Allied Powers and Axis Powers caused the outbreak of the Second World War (1939-1945). Germany was once again defeated by the Allies. The Red army of the Soviet Union occupied Berlin and Hitler committed suicide either by taking poison or shooting himself in May, 1945 in his bunker in Berlin.

The Ideology of Nazism

The ideology of Nazism was based on National Socialism developed by Hitler himself. National Socialism was the combination of the conservative national ideology with a socially radical doctrine, a strange integration of nationalism with a strange interpretation of socialism. As stated above, the name “Nazi” was coined as the abbreviation of National Socialismus or Nazismus.

The primary principle of Nazism was the blind faith in the racial superiority of the Nordic German Aryans over other groups of the human race. There was no equality among mankind. The Germans were the superior race to rule over mankind. Others were inferior race, the gypsies and the Jews occupied the lowest position.

In the political ideology, the Darwinian theory of the survival of the fittest was the guiding principle. The strongest race or the strongest community of pure German blood

would survive and dominate over others. The weak races or weaker peoples would perish. The Aryan race was the purest people and they would rule over the world. It produced an ultra-racist and ultra-nationalist state in Nazi Germany.

National Socialism had its peculiar German roots to be traced to the Prussian tradition where the militant spirit and discipline of the Prussian army were the models of all individual German citizens.

Nazism believed in the concept of the extraordinary and exceptional individual who would guide and rule over the masses. Hitler was projected as the superior individual endowed with the exceptionally superior knowledge and capacity. Hitler personified the superior man. He also personified the Nazi state. Hitler, the Fuhrer was the President, Chancellor, Leader of the Nazi party, and Nazi Government and the German peoples.

Nazism visualized a pan-German expansion and territorial aggrandizement.

The individuals were subordinated to the supreme authority of the Nazi party and the state. The party and state were combined into one and same institution.

Nazism believed and succeeded in creating a racist state in which the pure Aryans, the Germans were the citizens. And the non-Aryans including the Slavs, Jews and coloured people did not have any place. Anti Semitism, or anti Jewist were the main action of the Nazi state. They persecuted the Jews and executed 6 million Jews. And the persecution, torture and annihilation of the Jews were known as the Holocaust.

Nazism also believed in the geo-political concept of "Lebensraum" or the Living space for the Germans. It implied an empire building, conquest or acquisition of territories for settlement of the pure German race. It aimed at the enhancement of the area of the motherland and increase in the natural resources of the German nation.

Hitler claimed that Nazism was a revolutionary movement but it had negative features.

- (i) It rejected rationalism, liberalism, democracy, the rule of law, the human rights and all international peace and cooperation among the nations.
- (ii) It insisted on the subordination of the individual to the authority of the Nazi Party and Nazi State. There was no place of the individual, his rights in Nazi society.
- (iii) It believed in the inequality of men and races, and the rights of the strong to rule over the weak.
- (iv) It believed in the purification of the German nation and elimination of undesirable races particularly the Jews.
- (v) It sought to purge all religious, social and political institutions opposed to Nazism.

Lastly, Hitler adopted his sharp understanding of the mass psychology of the

importance of propaganda as a means of mass agitation or in the movement for the creation of the Nazi State.

Nazi Party gave importance to the training of the youth. The party organized the Party's Youth front as the Youth League of Nazis in 1922.

Nazi Party built the Nazi cult of Motherhood. The girls and wives were to maintain the purity of the race in their birth of children. Women were the bearers of the Aryan race and culture. The mothers were instructed to teach the Nazi value to the children. Hitler awarded medals to the mothers who gave birth to male children. The inter-race marriage was forbidden.

The Nazi thought and philosophy were not profound. But the method of achievement of the Nazi goal was very effective. The personal leadership and the personality of Hitler made the Nazism peculiar and special.

Legacy

Hitler achieved glory for himself and Germany. But he left behind a legacy of terror, the torture and the persecution of the Jews and many nations of Europe. He left behind a legacy of crime against humanity. His defeat in the Second World War showed the fallacy of the philosophy of Nazism. His theory of the superiority and invincibility of the German nation was proved wrong. Nobody took seriously his theory of racial superiority of the Germans. It created suffering and anguish for many people including the Germans themselves.

His Anti-Semitism and annihilation of 6 million Jews was unjustified and it was just cruelty perpetrated to humanity.

Yet we must remember that Hitler was the product of his times in the post World War I Germany. He was no doubt a great patriot. His patriotism was devoid of justice and sense of humanity. His nationalism was at the cost of peace and security of humanity.

GLOSSARY

- Nazi* : An abbreviation of Nacional Socializmus (National Socialism).
- Social Democrats* : The socialists who were the members of the Social Democratic Party.
- Reichstag* : The Parliament of Germany.
- Spartacist* : A radical group of communists who were the members of the Spartacus Club, named after Spartacus, a leader of slave rebellion in ancient Rome.
- Weimar Republic* : The Republic of Germany established as per the constitution drafted by a National Assembly which met at the town of Weimar.

<i>Fuhrer</i>	: The Leader.
<i>Lebensraum</i>	: The Living Space for the Germans.
<i>Holocaust</i>	: Persecution, torture and annihilation of the Jews by Hitler and the Nazi state.

EXERCISES

A. LONG ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS :

1. Explain the crises in Germany during the post World War I period.
2. Describe the problems faced by the Weimar Republic.
3. What were the features of the ideology of Nazism ?
4. How did Hitler rise to power ?
5. Explain the role of Nazi Party in the success of Nazism in Germany.
6. Describe the growth and fall of the Social Democratic Party.
7. Was Hitler a successful ruler ? What was his legacy ?

B. SHORT ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS :

1. What was the Weimar Republic ?
2. Briefly explain the Spartacist Uprising.
3. How did the Great Economic Depression that started in the USA in 1929 affect Germany ?
4. Briefly explain the role of Hitler in the destruction of Democracy in Germany.
5. Give a gist of Hitler's foreign policy.

C. VERY SHORT ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS :

1. Who was Bismarck ?
2. What was the German Parliament called ?
3. Why did Germany refuse to pay the war reparation ?
4. When did Hitler become the president of the Nationalist Socialist German Workers' Party ?
5. Who authored the 'Mein Kampf' ?
6. When did the Reichstag adopt the Enabling Acts ?
7. What is meant by the word 'Lebensraum' ?
8. What was the 'Holocaust' ?

UNIT-II

1. FOREST SOCIETY AND COLONIALISM

Relationship between Forest and Livelihood.

There has been always an eternal attempt of man to depend on nature for the sustenance of his livelihood and creation of his civilization. The forests and lands provide livelihood to man. There is a close relationship between man and his environment. A large number of people depend on forest for their particular way of life. They are the forest dwellers, mostly the tribes, shifting cultivators and food gatherers. Since the ancient times, the tribal people are living in the forests. They live in organised society with a distinct culture. Such tribal communities are still living in the modern world. They live in different parts of the world including India. We should understand their way of life, and the relationship between their livelihood and the forests.

The forests provide the habitat for both man and animal. The forests give shelter to the wild life and dwellers of the forests. The forests have trees, bamboo, grass and thatch. There are fish in the lakes and rivers of the forests. So, the forests provide food, housing and other means of livelihood for the tribes. The forest provide the fields for the shifting cultivation practised by the forest dwellers. The forests also provide fruits, roots and tubers for food, herbs for medicine, woods for making of yoke and plough for agriculturists, bamboo and creeper for making of mat and baskets and leaves for eating plates. Everything is available in the forests. There exists a symbiotic relation between man and the forest.

Men who live outside the forests, the dwellers of villages, towns and cities also depend on the forest and its produce for their livelihood. They require wood and bamboo, grass and thatch, for the construction of their houses and making furniture. They extract timber for industries, bamboo and pulp for making paper and plywood, plants and herbs for the the manufacture of medicines, timber for ship building and for the railway tracks. The bamboo has been called the poor man's timber. Men collect fuelwood, fodder for domestic animals, thatch for house roofing, and fruits, flowers including the orchids for markets. Men go for hunting the wild animals and trapping the birds for food. They do fishing in the wetlands in the forest, lakes and rivers. In the past, the rulers went for catching elephants for the royal stable and for the armed forces. They also went for hunting wild animals. Hunting of the tiger was a great royal game. For the colonial officers in modern India hunting tiger was the greatest game.

Tribes

Who are the communities who solely depend on the forests for their livelihood? They are known as the forest dwellers. Actually they are the tribes or tribal people. Tribe is a social group with a common origin, bound by kinship, speaking a common language or dialects, living in a well defined geographical region, organised into a well knit society and a common cultural pattern, with a primitive technology as the basis of their subsistence level livelihood and with religious belief. Such tribes still live in the well-organised society. Their subsistence level livelihood is dependent on forests and forest produces.

In the early times, the primitive tribes resorted to hunting, fishing and collection of forest produce for their livelihood, which was described as the economy of food gatherers. In course of time, they developed the agricultural technology; the wooden stick and later on stone or iron hoe was used in the process of agriculture. The forests, in a way, had become the mother of the tribals, the forest dwellers. They love the forest, protect and preserve the forests. In India, the tribes are officially called the Scheduled Tribes and they constitute 8.6% of India's total population according to 2011 Census.

The Shifting Cultivation

The shifting cultivation or Swidden agriculture is the traditional method of cultivation practised by the tribes living in the mountain regions of Asia, Africa and South America. It is known by different names, as Hading or Taungya in the south east Asia, Milpa in Central America, Tavy in Africa. In India, it is known by different names. In north east India, it is known as the Jhum. And in Manipur, it is called the Pamlou. This is also known as "Slash and Burn System" of agriculture. It takes a long process, of about 9 to 10 months in a year. It starts with clearance of a portion of the forests by cutting down the trees or bamboos, which are left to dry. Then they are burnt into ashes. The ashes are collected and scattered in the fields. Then the bunding of the agricultural fields on the hill slopes with the felled and half burnt trees is done, to prevent the washing away of the fertile soil during rains. The cleared plots are dug up by the hoe, and the paddy seeds or other crops are sown in the field. The sown plants are weeded two or three times. The harvest is done in September or October. The plot of the shifting cultivation is abandoned for several years and left as fallow lands which are overgrown with trees in a cycle of five to ten years. Shifting cultivation requires a large area for this cycling of the agricultural fields. The shifting cultivation is a wasteful form of agriculture.

With the increase of population and decrease in the number of years for the rotation, due to the non-availability of land, the shifting cultivation is no longer profitable. But it continues to give the sustenance to the tribal forest dwellers. Even now a large number of tribes practise this form of agriculture. The forests are destroyed by this form of agriculture. The land has become scarce; the forests are denuded, fertility of the soil has degenerated and the productivity has decreased. The shifting cultivation is uneconomical now. Alternatives to shifting cultivation have been suggested. States have started the jhum control programme for the rehabilitation of the tribal cultivators and to prevent the deforestation and degeneration of soil.



Figure 12. Shifting Cultivation field.

2. Changes in the Forest Societies under Colonialism

The forest areas of the world have been disappearing fast. It is estimated that since the 18th century 13·9 million sq. km. of forest (9·3% of world's total land area) were cleared for industrialization, agricultural purposes, pastures and collection of fuel wood. And the disappearance of the forests known as the deforestation has been going on for several centuries. It became more extensive during the colonial period. The decrease in the forest area was caused by the increase in population who cleared the jungles for cultivation and exploited the forests for the industrial purposes. During the colonial period, agriculture expanded; the colonial power encouraged the plantation of industrial cash crops like the jute, sugar, wheat, cotton, and tea. The colonial government thought that the forests were unproductive, and more forests were to be brought under agriculture to earn more revenues. They thought that expansion of agriculture was the sign of progress. So more forest areas were cleared for agriculture.

The ship building industries for the navy and maritime shipping in England required good timber, and the trees in the forest of India were cut down for supply to England. The railways from the middle of the nineteenth century required more timber. The railways were to be developed for the expansion of the colonial trade and commerce, and for the movement of the colonial troops. Wood was also required for the fuel and sleepers for the railway tracks. The government gave the contract to the individuals to supply the trees to railways and shipping companies. The forest contractors cut down the forest along the railway lines. The colonial government took over the forest land and gave permission to the planters to start tea plantations.

Rise of Commercial Forestry

The colonial government gradually realized the danger posed by indiscriminate deforestation by the forest contractors. And they decided to start a systematic management of forestry in India. The colonial Indian government established the Department of Forest. They appointed a German forester named Dr. Dietrich Brandes, as the first Inspector General of Forests of India.

Dr. Brandis introduced a proper system of administration and the management of the forests. He established the Indian Forest Service to man the department. He helped the government of India to formulate the India Forest Act, 1865. This Act



Figure. 13. Dr. Dietrich Brandis First Inspector General of Forest of India.

was amended twice in 1878 and in 1927. The government also established the Imperial Forest Research Institute in 1906 at Dehra Dun. The colonial government introduced commercial forestry and the “Scientific Forestry”.

Scientific Forestry

Scientific forestry is a system of cutting trees regulated by the Forest Department of the government in which the old trees are cut and the required new trees are planted in a systematic way. The forest law divided the Indian forests into three categories of forests.

- (i) The Reserved Forests,
- (ii) The Protected Forests,
- (iii) The Village Forests.

The best forests are found in the Reserved category. The villagers are not allowed to take anything for their own use. They are of course allowed to cut the trees and the bamboo from the Protected or Village forests for their domestic uses only. The natural forests consist of different varieties of trees. Under the Scientific Forestry, a variety of trees are cut down and in their place, tree of a particular species selected by the forester were planted in straight rows. The forest department officials surveyed the forests and

made the working plans for management of forests. They decided how much of the trees were to be cut and how much of new varieties of trees were to be planted in their place. The forest department planted commercial trees which were required for the industries, ship building and railways.

Impact

The forest policy of the colonial government affected the life of the indigenous forest dwellers. The colonial foresters and the indigenous forest dwellers had different opinions on forestry. The indigenous people wanted a mixed forest which could meet all their needs – fuel, fodder, land for shifting cultivation. The forest department wanted to plant trees to meet the requirement of the industries.

The forest laws and rules imposed great hardship on the villagers and peasants of the country. The age-old practice of cutting trees for their housing, grazing their cattle, collecting forest products for food, hunting and fishing were declared illegal. The forest guards did not allow their entry into the forest for continuation of their age old practice.

The practice of shifting cultivation caused differences between the tribals and the colonial government. The government thought that shifting cultivation destroyed the forests and it should be stopped. But the tribals thought that shifting cultivation was their age old agricultural practice. The end of this practice would mean the destruction of their means of livelihood. The ban on the shifting cultivation caused displacement of many tribal communities, uprooted from their forest habitat. Many were forced to become landless agricultural labourers. Many resisted through revolts even. Even now they continue to practise the shifting cultivation. The government has failed to stop shifting cultivation.

The forest laws changed the life style of the tribal communities. Before the establishment of forest department, many of them lived in and around the forests. Their hunting and fishing rights were banned by the Wild Life Protection Laws. Many ignorant tribals were punished for breaking these laws. But the hunting of big game like the elephant and tiger was extravagantly carried on even by petty colonial officials. Many species of animal became rare or extinct due to this excessive game of hunting. Only during the post-Independence period the environmentalists and conservationists strongly pressed for enactment of appropriate wild life protection laws and environment conservation laws.

The commercial forestry benefitted small sections of the people who changed their profession to trade in forest products, like timber, rubber, horns of animals, silk cocoon, ivory, bamboo, thatch, resin, etc.

The colonial government gave the sole right to the European companies to trade in forest products. Grazing and hunting were restricted. Many pastoral communities who depended on rearing and herding of the cattle lost their profession. They were forced to work in the factories and the plantations, particularly in the tea plantations.

Rebellions against the colonial forestry

There were several cases of movements and revolts against the colonial forestry in India and other parts of the world. We focus on the rebellion of the people of Bastar in Central India in the present state of Chhatisgarh in 1910. And the other rebellion was in Java in Indonesia in 1890 against the Dutch colonial forest policy. We take up the Indian case, the Rebellion in Bastar.

The Rebellion of Bastar, 1910

Bastar is now situated in the southernmost part of the state of Chhatisgarh and on the borders of Andhra Pradesh, Orissa and Maharashtra. The tribal communities like the Maria, Muria Gonds, Dhurwa, Bhatra and Halbas live in Bastar. They speak different dialects but share a common custom and religious belief. Throughout the colonial rule Bastar was a tribal state till 1947 when she was merged with the state of Kanker and became Bastar district in Madhya Pradesh. In 1998, it was divided into three districts : Kanker, Bastar and Danta Wade. In 2001, these districts became the parts of the new state of Chhatisgarh.

The people were mostly forest dwellers. According to their religious belief, the people revered the Earth as the mother. Each village was given land by Earth and the people in return looked after her and gave offerings to her during their agricultural festivals. Each village had clear cut boundaries and they looked after the natural resources of the village. They still protect the forests. The headmen of the villages of the Parganna met once a year to discuss common issues including forests.

In 1905, the colonial government established a reserved forest in Kanker, stopped the shifting cultivation, hunting and the collection of forest produce. The tribal people of Bastar were greatly disturbed because the government action alienated their lands and forests. Some villages were retained to live within the Reserved Forests. They came to be known as the forest villages. The dwellers worked without wages for the forest department. Many villages were displaced without any notice and compensation. The people were already suffering from the increased land rents and demands for free labour from the colonial officers. There was a famine in 1899-1900; and another in 1907-1908.

The leaders of the tribal people discussed the crucial issues in their village courts, in the bazars and festivals. The Dhurwas of Kanker where the reservation was first

introduced, took the initiative of the resistance against the authorities. This was a spontaneous movement of the people. The prominent among the village leaders was one Gunda Dhur.

The revolt started in 1910 with the circulation of the traditional “mango bough, and a lump of earth” among the villages. It was the message of revolt against the British. The bazaars were looted, houses of officials and traders were burnt. Schools and police stations were also burnt. The grains confiscated from the traders who were mostly immigrants were distributed among the poor people. There was panic in the state, everybody including, the police, merchants, forest peons, school masters and the immigrants rushed to Jagdalpur the headquarter of Bastar.

The British sent troops to suppress the rebellion. They marched into the villages, flogged the tribal villagers and punished the rebels. People fled into the jungles. For three months, from February to May, 1910, there was conflict between the British troops and the rebels. But they failed to capture the rebel leader Gunda Dhur who managed to escape from the British forces. The British suspended the work of reservation of the forest. The size of the reserved forest was reduced to half of the originally planned area. The movement was suppressed but some results were achieved.

The Dutch Colonial Forestry in Java (Indonesia)

Indonesia is a country of nearly three thousand islands. And Java is an important island province of Indonesia. The Dutch from Holland started their colonial or commercial forestry in Java. Java was an island rich in forest and rice.. There were also many villages in the fertile plains of the province. Many tribal communities were living in the mountainous region of Java, and they practised shifting cultivation.

The Mataran kings was ruling in Java in the 18th century. And those who were skilled wood cutters and shifting cultivators were a tribal community called the Kalangs. When the Dutch established their control over the forests of Java, they forced the Kalangs to work under them and for them. The Kalangs revolted in 1770 against the Dutch Forest Policy.

The Dutch ultimately conquered the whole territory of Java, controlled the people and their forest in the 19th century. The Dutch passed forest laws on the similiar colonial pattern of law elsewhere. The forest laws restricted the access of the villagers to the forests. They were not allowed to practise shifting cultivation and grazing of the cattle in the forest. Trees could not be cut for the making of boat and house. Like the British in colonial India, the Dutch required the trees in the forests of Java for ship building and making of the railways. They introduced a colonial forest service. The law declared that the Dutch state was the owner of the forests in Java. Any body violating the law was punished, bringing distress to the tribal farmers.

In 1890, one Surontiko Samin of the teak forest village of Randub Latung raised the standard of resistance against the Dutch colonial authorities. He questioned the Dutch state's ownership of the forests of Java. His argument was that the Dutch state or the Dutch colonial authority had not created the wind, water, earth and the trees. So it could not own it. A widespread movement was started. And Samin was engaged in spreading the message of the movement among all people of Java. It was a peaceful movement. By 1907, 3000 families who were forest dwellers became the followers of Samin. They resisted the survey works of the forest officials. They lay down on the grounds as a mark of protest. The message was carried far and wide but died down slowly. The Dutch colonial forestry was carried out. But the resistance movement left behind a legacy of the tribal ownership of the forests of Java.

By 1980s the governments in Asia and Africa had changed their forest policies. They adopted the policy of protection and conservation of the forest with the co-operation of the tribal people. Social forestry and later on Joint Forest Management was introduced in place of commercial forestry. But the legacy of the colonial "Scientific forestry" is still carried on in the administration of the forests in India. Yet the tribals of India still follow their shifting cultivation due to absence of a viable alternative. However, the environment and eco-system of the forests are being protected. Gradually the tribes are responding to the need of the protection and preservation of the forests.

GLOSSARY

- Tribe* : A group of people who have a common origin, a bond of kinship, speaking a similar language or dialects, a common society, culture, economy and polity.
- Shifting Cultivation* : A traditional method of agriculture in which the cultivation of the fields is done by rotation.
- Colonialism* : Rule of a foreign power over a subject people.
- Commercial Forestry* : The system of forestry introduced by the British colonial government in India according to which forests are exploited for meeting the industrial need of Britain like, ship building, railway track and furniture.
- Scientific Forestry* : The planting of trees in a forest whose the old trees were removed and the trees of particular species needed by the government and the industries were planted in rows.
- Reserved Forest* : The forests which are owned, controlled and managed by the government.

EXERCISES

A. LONG ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS :

1. Describe the relationship between the forests and the livelihood.
2. What is shifting cultivation? Why is it called a wasteful form of agriculture?
3. Discuss how the Forest policy of colonial India affected the livelihood of the shifting cultivators.
4. What were the objectives of the British colonial forest policy in India?
5. Why did the people of Bastar rise into a rebellion against the British in 1910?
6. Discuss the Dutch colonial forest policy in Java.
7. What were the causes of the resistance movement of Samin against the Dutch?

B. SHORT ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS :

1. What is a tribe?
2. What is 'Jhum' cultivation?
3. What is 'Commercial forestry'?
4. What is 'Scientific forestry'?
5. How was the Bastar Rebellion suppressed?

C. VERY SHORT ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS :

1. Name the greatest game of the British colonial officers in India.
2. Who was the first Inspector General of Forest of India?
3. When and where was the Imperial Forest Research Institute established by the British in India?
4. Who are the Kalangs?
5. What was the legacy left behind by the Resistance Movement led by Samin in Java?

2. FARMERS AND PEASANTS

Emergence of different forms of farming and the Peasant Societies

The farmers and peasants constitute majority of the world population. The farmers and peasants take to agriculture for their livelihood. They till the fields to produce crops for their consumption and exchange. In the early stages of human civilization every man was a farmer. He produced food grains for consumption of his family. He tilled a plot of land out of the community's common lands. He also planted some crops for exchange with others. It was the beginning of the barter trade. Agriculture consists of ownership of lands, laws to regulate the supply and demand of production and technology. There have been changes in the technology and the organization of agriculture in modern times. New technology, new idea of property and new laws have brought about great changes in the rural world.

The changes in modern agriculture produced influences on the farmers and peasants. The agricultural economy is integrated to the world market. Three case studies on agricultural changes in England, the United States and colonial India reflect the agricultural revolution in England, the large scale farming of cotton and wheat in the United States and the small production of agricultural cash crops in colonial India. These case studies show the emergence of different forms of farming and the resultant peasant societies.

Development of Agriculture

Development of agriculture by the primitive man was the beginning of human civilization. The primitive man used the neolithic (new Stone Age) tool for farming the agricultural lands. The wandering food gathering man became a settled farmer. He used the hewn stone implement to dig up the soil, uproot the plants; and he planted the seeds of crop by dripping into the soil. He waited some months for the germination, growth and harvesting of the crops. He constructed a small house to live with his family. He went on hunting, fishing and collecting fruits to subsist during the period of waiting. After the harvest, he stored his food grains for consumption during the coming year.

In course of time, with the invention of metals, copper, bronze and iron, man started using the iron hoe which replaced the stone tool for cultivation. Then the plough was invented; yoke was also used. The plough was first drawn by man, later on by the domestic animals, the bullock, the buffalo and the horse. Man tilled the lands reclaimed out of the community's lands. He was confined to the cultivation to meet the requirement of his family. He established his right of ownership over the land for cultivation and for

habitation. Then the community, at a later stage, the chief or the king asserted their ownership of the lands and regulated the use of land on the basis of possession and ownership. Thus emerged the community or village land, clan land, private lands, king's lands. Thus the kings and his nobles established their ownership rights over large tracts of land as their private land. Evolution of the private ownership of land encouraged the development of agriculture. The king rented out lands to his nobles who in their turn leased them out to the farmers. The farmers gave rent or tax in cash or in kind to the nobles and the king.

With the growth of big towns and cities, urban life had developed. Those who lived in the urban centres were mostly the members of the aristocracy, bureaucracy and the armed forces. They were paid salaries by the state or the king for their services. Their requirement of food was supplied by the farmers and peasants. Thus trade in surplus grains and crops grew up. The farmer had transformed his agricultural activity from the production for consumption to production for exchange.

Some enterprising farmers or owners of agricultural lands or scientists developed new agricultural technology in the form of improved plough, threshing machine and harvesting machine. Ploughing was done by the machines. This was known as the agricultural revolution. There was introduced the large enclosed farms, improved variety of crops, cash crops were planted in big farms and as a result, there was large scale production for national markets and colonial markets. With the establishment of large scale farming, the small farmers were thrown out of employment.

The rural world consists of large scale farms which are organised on the capitalist lines and improved technology. There are also small land holding peasants, so also the landless agricultural labourers. In the forests, the tribal shifting cultivators still live and practise their traditional system of agriculture. The tribal farmers are still using the small iron hoe. The Asian peasants are also using the plough drawn by animals. The plough machines, the tractors and power tillers are widely used. The plantation of crops like tea, coffee and rubber use intensive manual labour.

Changes in Rural Economy

The rural economy had undergone great changes with the coming of modern agriculture. How these changes occurred? The three case studies of three countries indicate the type of agricultural development and the changes in the rural economy. The first case study refers to the agricultural revolution in England.

Agricultural Revolution in England

The agricultural revolution occurred first in England and it was spread to other countries.

Before the agricultural revolution, the English countryside was wide open, and not yet partitioned into enclosed lands. Under the open field system of rural England, the individual peasants cultivated the strips of lands around the villages. Allocation of the strips of land to the farmers was done through a public meeting at the beginning of the year. There was the common lands which were beyond the strips of cultivated lands. The villagers, the farmers and the peasants were given access to the common land. They grazed their cattle and sheep, collected fire wood, fruits and berries for food. They fished in the rivers and ponds, hunted rabbits. The common land provided the means of survival to the poor. The common land supplemented their meagre income, sustained their cattle, helped them to tide over bad times when the harvests failed.

The Enclosure Movement

The first step in agrarian change in rural England was the movement for the enclosure of the private lands by the big landlords. It drastically changed the economy of the open field and the common lands. The price of wool was rising in the world market. The rich farmers were keen to improve the breed of their sheep, and ensure good feed for their sheep. They began dividing the common lands and enclosed their farm land with fencing within which they grazed their sheep. The villagers were driven out of their cottages in the common lands. The rich farmers did not allow the entry of the poor farmers to the common lands. Initially the enclosure movement was slow and in the middle of the 18th century, the enclosure movement swept across the English countryside. The Parliament passed many laws legalizing enclosure farming. Within a century from 1750 to 1850, 6 million acres of land were enclosed. The enclosure system became the sign of changing times. From the middle of the 18th century to the end of the 19th century, the English population increased from 7 million (1750) to 30 million (1900). Many people lived and worked in urban areas where the industries were located. There was large scale migration from rural to urban areas. The increased population with a large component of non-agrarian population required more food grains. Market for food grain expanded. The prices rose and the land owners were encouraged to enclose their lands for food production. The farmers still continued to use simple innovation in agriculture. They introduced the rotation of crops to increase fertility of the soil.

The effects of Enclosure movement in England were the following:

Open fields disappeared in rural England.

The customary rights of the peasants over the common land were curtailed.

The rich farmers expanded grain production.

They sold food grains in the world market made profit and became powerful.

The poor people were displaced from their villages and became landless

labourers. They migrated to southern England in search of jobs in the cities.

Resistance against the Agricultural Revolution

When the machinery used in the new agriculture deprived a large number of farmers and agricultural labourer of employment, there grew up resistance against the rich farmers who used agricultural machinery. particularly the threshing machine. A guerilla group led by one anonymous "Captain Swing" threatened the rich farmers not to use the threshing machine. The government suppressed them, nearly 2000 prisoners were tried, nine were hanged, nearly five hundred were transported to Australia, nearly six hundred were imprisoned.

Captain Swing was a mythic name used in the letters. He was the symbolic leader of these poor peasants who were alienated from their small fields and turned into landless agricultural labourers. The threshing machines deprived the poor farmers of their job. It led to the growth of what was known as the agricultural capitalism.

The landed proprietors were determined to meet the increased demand for food grains by farming large areas with the investment of more capital.

The land was made a negotiable commodity. It was not tied to ancient custom like the right over the common land.

Lands were placed in the hands of those who had capital to improve it and make it as profitable investment.

It created a mobile army of landless agricultural labourers. They were not tied to any piece of land. They were free to go anywhere for employment.

At the same time, the rural population was affected by the industrial revolution. There was the decline of the cottage industries carried on by the rural peasantry. The improved communication facilitated industrialization. It also enabled the central bureaucracy of England to collect taxes from the peasants.

Coming of Large Scale Agriculture in the United States : Wheat and Cotton plantations

The second case is the large scale agriculture in the United States of America. At the time of the Declaration of American Independence in 1776, settled agriculture had not developed on an extensive scale. It is estimated that the forest covered 800 million acres and grassland covered 600 million acres. These forests and grasslands were under the occupation of the indigenous American Indians. The Indian tribes practised some settled agriculture, planted corns, beans, tobacco, etc. And most of them were nomadic. They practised hunting, fishing and the gathering of food from the forests.

The process of the agricultural expansion was connected with the westward movement of the American white settlers after the creation of the United States of America. America was the land of plenty and the freedom as declared by Thomas Jefferson, the third American President. By this time, 700,000 white settlers had moved to the Appalachian mountain. Forest could be transformed into the agricultural fields, the trees could be cut for exports, wild animals hunted for their skin, the mountains mined for gold and minerals. This policy meant the displacement of the American Indians from their homeland and a continuous frontier war and conflict which was a part of the American frontier lore. The indigenous American Indians resisted but were forced to retreat.

Then the settlers came in successive waves. They occupied the Appalachian mountain, moved into the Missisipi valley. Then in 1860s they swept into the Great Plains across the Missisipi. This region became major wheat producing area of the United Sates. The southern states produced cotton.

Cotton Plantation

The most important feature of the American economic development was the expansion of commercial agriculture with cotton leading the way. The invention of the machinery in England for the manufacture of cotton such as the Spinning Jenny (1767), Spinning Mule (1799) encouraged the cotton plantation in the United States and the export of cotton to England. Eli Whitney, an American invented the Cotton Gin to separate the seeds from the fibre of cotton. This invention made the cotton available at a lower price. And these new machines kept the American plantation of cotton with slave labourers profitable. Supply was able to meet the demand.

From the beginning of the 19th century, the cotton plantations mushroomed in Georgia and South Carolina. In the Aglo-American War of 1812, the British put an embargo on the import of the American cotton with England. After the conclusion of

the war the cotton boom went ahead. It led to the opening of the rich south western lands to cotton plantation. Production grew by leaps and bounds. After 1815, a cotton belt was extended from North Carolina to Louisiana which became the world's largest cotton producing area. Cotton was America's leading export.

The cotton production was tied to the national as well as the international market system. The bulk of the cotton, shipped from New Orleans, Mobile and Charlestown, went to Europe. The process paid for the import from Europe into the United States. The imports from Europe were financed by the South's cotton through the purchase of the manufactures from the north east. For several decades from 1815, the ever mounting cotton exports were the most important factor in American economy's growth. The cotton production had become the greatest component of the expanding commercial agriculture.

In the southern states in the mid nineteenth century one historian commented, "the cotton was the king; and the south was his kingdom". The cotton production depended on the Negro slave labourers ; 60% of the slaves of America in 1850 were employed on cotton plantation. Cotton required continuous attention of the skilled labourers. By 1860, the cotton constituted two thirds of the total exports of the United States.

The growth in cotton production was brought about by a rapid expansion of the cotton growing area. The cotton plantation advanced from South Carolina and Georgia across the black belts and the Indian Cessions of Alabama and Mississippi. It further extended to Memphis, and pushed upto the Red River of Louisiana to the Red Indian territory.

Cotton plantation attracted new entrepreneurs, the moneyed immigrants from the north, the ambitious farmers who purchased a slave or two on credit, with good luck became the cotton magnets in the south.

The rich lands were utilized for cotton plantation. Scientific method was also introduced to keep the areas as good land, plentiful and cheap.

The size of the cotton plantation differed from place to place. Some plantations were large, about 1400 acres which were tilled by a plough gang of 30 men and a large hoe gang of women labourers. In total 135 slaves were employed. The owners of the plantations were usually absent. A middle size plantation would be 400 acres, some were as small as 10-40 acres.

The cotton plantation enriched the American commercial agriculture. It also led to the growth rich farmers who were great capitalists owning vast lands. They became very powerful. They influenced the American economy and politics. Rural America was a powerful section of the American society.

The Wheat Cultivation

In the early nineteenth century, there was a great expansion of wheat production in the United States. The population in towns and cities increased greatly. Wheat was their staple food. The export of wheat to Europe also increased. The price of wheat also increased. The profitability in wheat production encouraged the wheat farmers to invest more and more capital. The introduction of railways made the transportation of wheat from the mid west to the eastern sea coast easy.

The demand for wheat increased in the second half of the 19th century. It also increased greatly during the First World War as European countries imported American wheat.

“Plant more wheat and win the war” was a popular slogan of President Woodrow Wilson. Most of the wheat growing areas were in the great plains. The big farmers who carried out large scale wheat cultivation were the wheat barons who controlled both the production and export. By the beginning of the 20th century, 74 million acres were brought under wheat cultivation. And the size of a wheat farm was between 2000 to 3000 acres each. The large scale wheat production became a major factor in America’s expanding economy.

The pioneers of American agriculture who moved across the forest and plains employed the new technology to clear the forests, uproot the grasslands and plough the land. They employed an improved plough known as the Walking Plough. Later on they used the tractors and disk plough for wheat cultivation. In the big farms, hundreds of men and women were employed in reaping, threshing and harvesting. One Cyrus McCormick invented the mechanical reaper which would cut in one day as much as five men could cut in cradles and 16 men with sickle. A farm of 500 acres of wheat fields could be harvested in two weeks.

The massive expansion of the large scale wheat farming by the use of machines, and the mechanization of wheat cultivation produced environmental and ecological disasters in America. In 1930, there broke out terrible dust storms across the southern plains. Black blizzards were speed winds, 7000 to 8000 ft. high swept with monstrous waves of muddy water rolled in.

For many years, the skies were darkened, the dust swept in. The people were blinded and choked. Cattle were suffocated to death by the dusts. The sands buried the farms, covered the fields, coated the surface of the river till the death of all fish. Dead bodies of birds and animals were strewn all over the landscape. Tractors and machines were chugged with dusts and damaged.

The cause of the “disasters” was that in 1930s there was a period of continuous droughts. Rains failed for many years, heat increased, the wind blew in high speed. The ordinary dust storms became the black blizzard because the entire landscape was ploughed over, stripped of all grass. The wheat farmers had ruthlessly uprooted the vegetation, the tractors had turned the soil and the turned sods were broken into dusts. The whole region became a dust bowl.

This environment crisis taught a good lesson to the American farmers. And they introduced an environment friendly cultivation method and the wheat cultivation was restored to its former glory.

The small cultivation of cash crops in colonial India

The case of opium cultivation

The British rule was gradually established in India from the Battle of Plassey (1757) onwards. The British policy was to collect revenues imposed on the agricultural land. The land revenue was the major source of income for the government in the colonial India. Therefore, the British encouraged the expansion of the cultivable land.

The rural areas of India produced a number of cash crops for the world market. Indigo, jute, cotton were produced and exported to England. Cotton was needed for the textile industry of Manchester and Lancashire.

We will discuss the case of small cultivation of opium in India under the initiative of the colonial government. This is a peculiar and exploitative commercial agriculture of the colonial authorities. The opium plantation was a ruthless and immoral type of agriculture.

Trade with China

The trade in opium and opium plantation had the genesis in the trade of the British East India Company with China in the 18th century. During this period, England was trading with China in tea and silk. Tea became a popular drink for the English people. The trade in tea was monopolized by the East India Company and the volume of tea trade became quite voluminous.

The Company brought tea from China and sold it to England. This created a problem for the Company. England had to sell something in return to China. The Chinese empire under the Manchu dynasty did not encourage any foreign trade. They were suspicious of the foreign merchants. There was no exchange of goods between China and the foreign countries. The trade between China and England was one way traffic. The Company paid the price of tea in silver or bullion. There was outflow of treasure from England. It

was feared that the loss of treasure would impoverish England. In the 18th century, the volume of tea trade reached 30 million of pounds annually. The East India Company searched out a commodity that they could sell to China. And that sale would compensate the loss of silver due to tea trade.

Such a commodity was found in opium and the opium trade in China was introduced by the Portuguese. Opium was usually used for medicinal purpose. But China knew the evil uses and dangers of opium. It was banned in China. The western merchants started the illegal trade by the smuggling of opium in China in the middle of the 18th century. Opium was unloaded at the seaports of south east China. And the local agents carried the goods into the interior. The volume of opium trade in 1835 was 35,000 crates of opium. English merchants were involved in the opium trade.

The English welcomed the Chinese tea, and the Chinese had become addicted to opium. The shopkeepers of drug, peddlers, officials and armymen, aristocrats and common people had become the victims. It was estimated that there were 4 million smokers of opium in China by 1839 when the First Opium War broke out. The opium trade and the tea trade flourished simultaneously. The opium trade financed the import of tea to England.

Opium Plantation in Colonial India

The British made a great effort for the plantation of opium for export to China. They tried the first plantation of opium in Bengal. At the end of the 18th century. Bengal began to produce opium for the Company's trade. But the production of opium was not easy. The plantation of opium was neither popular nor profitable. The Indian peasants were not used to opium plantation, the poppy. They did not like the conversion of their paddy fields to opium fields. They planted paddy and pulses for their consumption and for trade. Paddy was to be replaced by poppy if the peasants accepted the opium plantation initiated by the colonial authorities. Moreover, the process of cultivation of poppy and production of opium was a difficult job. The price offered by the government for opium was low and so it was not profitable.

The Indian peasants of colonial India, particularly from Bengal and Bihar were lured by the government to start opium plantation by the system of offering of loans and advances to them. The peasants were continuously in debt. They had no enough income to survive. They had to pay rents to the landlords. In 1780, such peasants were offered advance by the headmen of the villages. And in return they were to cultivate opium. The peasants were tempted to accept the loans to meet their immediate financial need

and repay the loan in future. The government distributed money to the village headmen who offered the advance to the peasants. They planted the opium and paid the produce to the government at a very low price. But the poor peasants were permanently tied to the loan of the government.

The government refused to increase the price of opium. They purchased opium at cheap rate and sold at high price to China. Meanwhile, the Government of Bengal established their monopoly over the opium trade. Opium plantation was spread to non-British parts of India, particularly in central India and Rajasthan. In 1820s bands of armed traders went on purchasing opium from the growers direct at a higher rate. The colonial authorities tried to suppress this illicit opium trade in India. But the conflict and competition between the British, peasants and local agents continued for a long time.

Opium plantation was not profitable to the peasants. The opium trade was beneficial to the colonial government. With encouragement of the colonial authorities opium plantation became quite widespread. The British policy towards the Indian agriculture was to produce more revenues, and to get profit from the sale of the agricultural products like indigo, tea and cotton, etc. Opium plantation was the highest form of colonial exploitation of Indian agriculture.

Through opium plantation, the Indian peasants were exploited by the British. Opium plantation was done through small plantation.

Conclusion

We have seen that the agricultural revolution in England, the large scale plantation of cotton and wheat in the United States of America and the opium plantation in colonial India affected the life style of rural people in the modern world. While the agricultural changes in England and America benefitted their people, agriculture in colonial India made no progress. The Indian peasants suffered greatly. At the same time the effects of modernization in agriculture and industries transformed the rural economy of the western countries. And it linked to the world markets.

The people in the rural areas paid heavy prices for this tremendous change in agriculture and rural way of life. Despite the difficulties, the tribal shifting cultivation, the forest dwellers, the peasants and farmers still live in the rural world.

GLOSSARY

Enclosure Movement :The vast tracts of lands in rural England were enclosed by fencing by the land owners or the landlord.

Cotton Gin :A machine to separate the cotton seeds from the cotton fibre.

- King Cotton* : Cotton was the most important agricultural product of America in the nineteenth century. It was so important that it was nicknamed king cotton.
- Dust Bowl* : The degenerated soil of the tracts of land in America in 1930 which were over cultivated by the farmers.
- Poppy* : A plant whose flower is used for the manufacture of opium.
- Opium War* : A war fought between China and England in 1839 over the issue of smuggling of opium to China.
- Captain Swing* : An anonymous name used in letters to threaten the prosperous farmers who were using improved agricultural machines.

EXERCISES

A. LONG ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS :

1. Write an essay on the history of the development of agriculture.
2. Discuss the 'Enclosure Movement' in England.
3. Who was 'Captain Swing'? What did he do for the poor peasants of England?
4. Explain the westward expansion of settlement in America.
5. Why was the cotton called the 'King' in the southern states of the United States?
6. Explain the disasters caused by the massive expansion of wheat farming in the United States during the 1930s.
7. Give an account on the large scale wheat plantation in America.
8. Why and how was the plantation of opium introduced by the British in colonial India?

B. SHORT ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS :

1. Briefly state the changes effected in the rural economy with the coming of modern agriculture.
2. Write a note on the mode of agriculture practised in England before the 'Enclosure Movement'.

3. State the effects of the 'Enclosure Movement' in England.
4. How was the large scale cotton plantation affect the American economy ?
5. Why did the Indian peasants dislike to plant opium during the colonial period ?

C. VERY SHORT ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS :

1. Who was Thomas Jefferson ?
2. What was the popular slogan of the American President, Woodrow Wilson during the First World War ?
3. Who invented the 'Mechanical Reaper' ?
4. What were the 'Black Blizzards' ?
5. In which year did the First Opium War occur ?
6. Who lured the peasants of colonial India to take up opium plantation ?

UNIT-III

CLOTHES AND CULTURE

I. A short History of Changes in Clothing

Clothes are an aspect of society and culture. Man put on clothes to provide the cover to the human body from the rigours of nature, heat and cold. At the same time, to give dignity and respectability to the body. Every society has rules and norms of clothing. The quality and style of clothing reflect the sense of beauty and honour, the notions of proper conduct and behaviour.

All societies have dress codes; the type of clothing men, women and children should dress. Different classes present themselves with distinctive clothing in appropriate forms. These norms establish the identity of the people; what they see in themselves and what they want the others to see them, their notion of grace and beauty and the ideas of modesty and shame.

The norms of society relating to the style of clothing have a long history. History shows that as time changes, the societies are transformed. The changes in society are reflected in the dresses the members of the society put on from time to time. In this Unit, you will read the changes in the style of clothing in France and England in Europe and colonial India. You will also read the Swadeshi and Khadi movement during India's freedom struggle which contributed to national upsurge against the British. Mahatma Gandhi made Swadeshi and Khadi a symbol and weapon of freedom struggle. We will also learn about the dress and costume as an aspect of the cultural heritage of Manipur. The Meiteis, the Meitei Pangans, the Nagas and the Kuki Chins who are the inhabitants of Manipur possess a rich variety of clothes and dresses. This is a reflection of the richness of Manipur's composite culture.

Dress code and sumptuary laws in Europe

The dress codes for different social classes were imposed in medieval Europe. From the 13th century to the French Revolution in 1789, the sumptuary laws, which defined the use of food, dress and costume, were enforced in France. These laws controlled the behaviour of the men of the lower classes, preventing them from wearing certain clothes, food and beverage and hunting of games. The items of clothing which could be purchased by a person was regulated not by his income or wealth but by his birth and social class. Even the materials to be used for the manufacture of clothes was regulated by law. Only the royalty or the nobility could wear the material like ermine (a kind of expensive fur), common fur or silk, velvet and brocade. Other classes were debarred from wearing these items.

The French Revolution abolished all the distinctions in respect of clothing and dress. Both men and women began wearing clothes which were loose and comfortable. The colour of France, blue, white and red became popular. The red cap of liberty, long trousers and revolutionary cockade were widely used as revolutionary dress.



Revolutionary dress in the French Revolution.

The simplicity of clothing was meant to express the ideal of equality preached by the Revolution. However in reality, despite the declaration of equality of man and abolition of the aristocratic privileges, the difference in social strata, based on wealth remained. The poor could not dress like the rich nor eat the same food. Only the law did not bar these people from wearing the clothes they wished to dress. The difference in income, rather than sumptuary laws defined the rich and the poor. Different social categories developed their own culture of dress. The notions of what is beauty or ugly, proper or improper, decent or vulgar are reflected in the dresses.

With the expansion of the colonial empires and establishment of democratic governments, the European dress codes were adopted in the colonies in America, Asia and Africa. While the dress of European women was used exclusively among the European women, the European male dress, the trouser, the shirt, coat, hat and shoe became universal dress of man all over the world.

The dresses of women in England during the reign of Queen Victoria (1837-1901) were fashioned according to the moral values of the time. Women in Victorian England

were “groomed from childhood to be docile, and dutiful, submissive and obedient. While men were expected to be serious, strong, independent and aggressive, women were seen as frivolous, delicate, passive and docile”. The Victorian dresses of women reflected these ideas. Women put on tight fitting clothes. “Tightly laced small waisted were admired as attractive, elegant and graceful.” The



Victorian Women's Dress.

English women believed in these Victorian ideals.

But there were women who believed in the equality of man and woman and who demanded voting rights for women also. These women leaders campaigned for reforms in the dresses of women. They publicized that the tight fitting dress consisting of stays and corset caused sickness and physical deformities in women. There was a similar movement for reforms in female dress in the United States. The Rational Dress Reform Society was formed in England in 1881. Those who campaigned for voting rights for women were known as the Suffragists. They included the reforms in dress in their demands. The reformers were ridiculed and they failed to achieve their objectives. But time brought the changes. By the end of the 19th century, the ideals of beauty and styles of clothing were transformed. People began accepting the ideas of reforms which they had earlier rejected. The heavy, restrictive under clothes which created storm in the women's magazines were gradually discarded. Clothes got lighter, shorter and more simple.

Due to the two World Wars, the changes in women's clothing were brought about. Thousands of English women workers were employed in many industries particularly in ammunition factories. It was inconvenient and inefficient to work with long gowns and long shirts. Women put on uniform of trousers, blouse and shoe. It made them comfortable and efficient. Skirts became shorter, trousers became a vital part of women's clothing in the western world. Women also took to cutting their hair short. In modern times, a plain and austere style came to reflect the seriousness and professionalism of the modern society.



English women workers in trouser, blouse and coat working in an ammunition factory.

2. Debates over clothing in Colonial India

When the East India Company conquered India, the British officials and English merchants were liberal about clothing. They put on both western and traditional Indian clothes as they had been dealing with the Indian rulers and the Indian merchants. Gradually, when the empire was firmly established, the colonial authorities banned the use of the Indian dress by the British officials.

In the early nineteenth century, there were the colonial officials and the English citizens who put on hat. In contrast there was the Indian who put on traditional dress and wore the Turban. The Hat wearers and the turban wearers represented respectively the ruler and the ruled. The colonial authorities and the Christian Missionaries encouraged the use of western dress by Indian employees and the Christian converts. Many Indians

put on the traditional dress because it was thought that wearing of the foreign dress would lead to the loss of their culture. Some made a compromise by wearing western dress while working or attending the government offices and wearing traditional dress at home or on social occasions. In the early colonial period, there were debates and controversies over clothing on three issues : wearing of blouse by low caste women, wearing of turban by the Indians and removal of shoes by Indians while attending the government offices and the courts.

Caste conflict over the Blouse (1822-1859)

The Christian missionaries converted the Indian tribals and the low caste Hindus into Christianity. The Christian converts were made to put on western dress. The missionaries further encouraged the women to wear blouse. In 1822, the women of a low caste community known as Shanars (Nadars) of Travancore state started wearing blouse to cover the upper part of their body, which was bare. The wearing of blouse by Shanar caste was objected to by the Nairs caste. The Nairs attacked the Shanars and there was quarrels and riots between them. The Christian missionaries sympathised with the Shanar. The case went to the state government of Travancore which ruled in 1829 that the Shanar should not wear the blouse. In 1855, slavery was abolished in the state of Travancore. The abolition of slavery affected in the vested interests of the high caste Nairs. In 1859, riots broke out in which the Nairs attacked the Shanars. They tore off the blouses of Shanar women in market places. The government was compelled to intervene. And finally, it proclaimed an order by which the Shanars, whether Hindus or Christians were allowed to wear the blouse.



Indian Christian converts in early colonial India.

Turban vs Hat

In colonial India, the British introduced the wearing of hat. They also induced the Indians to wear the hat. The Indians wore the turban as a part of their traditional clothing. There were thus two groups of people, the British hat wearers and the Indian turban wearers. There was a conflict of culture over the head dress between the British and the Indians. The British removed their hat whenever they met their social superiors. The Indians did not remove their turban when they met the British officials. The British demanded that the Indians should remove their turban while meeting the white officials, attending government offices or the courts. The Indians continued to wear the turban; because it was a symbol of their dignity and respectability. Therefore, the Indians insisted that they could not remove the turban as dictated by the British. The conflict remained for quite a long time. Many Indians who adopted the western dress put on the turban of different kinds.



Dr. Visveswaraya an Engineer-statesman of Mysore state wearing the western dress with the turban.

The Question of Shoe Respect

In early part of their rule, the British officials removed their shoes whenever they attended the courts of Indian kings. But in 1830, the British officials were forbidden to wear Indian clothes and removal of shoes while attending the courts of the native Indian states, in order that their cultural identity and the British superiority were not undermined.

In 1826, Governor General, Lord Amherst issued an order that the Indians should remove their shoes when they appeared before him. Lord Dalhousie, another Governor

General made the so-called “Shoe Respect” code stricter. The Indians were made to take off their shoes while entering the government offices. Only those Indians wearing the western dress were exempted from the removal of their shoes. The British government insisted that since the Indians took off their shoes while entering a sacred place or in their homes, they should do so while entering the court rooms. There were several litigations over the shoe question. It took many years of tussle before the Indians were permitted to put on shoes while in the court rooms.

3. The Swadeshi and the Khadi Movement

During the national movement for independence, the Indian leaders were concerned over the national dress for man and woman. They wanted to show the national identity of India through dress. Poet Rabindranath Tagore suggested that instead of combining the Indian and European dress, India’s national dress should combine the identity of the Hindu and Muslim dress. Thus a long buttoned coat known as Chapkan was proposed by Poet Tagore.

A model dress for woman was suggested by Jnanadanandini Devi, wife of Satyendranath Tagore, the first Indian to be an officer of the Indian Civil Service (ICS). She adopted the Parsi style of wearing the Sari, pinned to the left shoulder with a brooch, with a blouse and shoes. But a pan Indian cloth for woman could not be adopted.



A group photo of Satyendranath Tagore and wife. See the male western dress and Saris of women.



A Parsi Lady wearing the Sari.

As for the adoption of western dress among the Indians, it was the wealthy Parsis of western India who first adopted the western dress; baggy trousers, phenta (cap), long clothed coat, boots and walking sticks.



A group of wealthy Parsis in western dress.

The Swadeshi Movement

Swadeshi means indigenous and use of traditional Indian clothes instead of mill made British cloth. The British textile industry monopolised the production and trade in clothes in India. The Indians were compelled to use cheap British cloth and Indian textile industry declined. Swadeshi movement was for the revival of the indigenous Indian industries. It became a part of India's national movement.

The Swadeshi movement came up as an Indian reaction against the partition of Bengal by Lord Curzon in 1905. The people were urged to boycott the British goods of all kinds and start their own industries. Mass protest movement was started. The use of Khadi was made a patriotic duty. Women of higher class threw away their costly silk clothes and glass bangles. Rough spun cloth known as the Khadi was glorified by the freedom fighters. The change of dress appealed to the upper castes and classes. But the Khadi was costly and many could not afford to wear it. Moreover, even prominent leaders and government officers did not accept it for popular use.

But Mahatma Gandhi used the Khadi as a symbolic weapon against the British rule. The spinning of cotton yarn at the spinning wheel known as the Charkha and wearing of Khadi clothes became the disciplined duties of Gandhiji and his followers. It was both a symbol of defiance and resistance against the British. The picture of Gandhiji and Charkha became the most inspiring symbol of freedom struggle.



Mahatma Gandhi and the Spinning wheel.

Mahatma Gandhi's experiment with clothing reflected the changing attitudes towards dress in colonial India. As a youngman from a Gujarati family, he wore a shirt and a dhoti, pyjama and coat. As a law student in England, he wore the western dress. Returning to India, he continued to wear the western dress with a turban. In South Africa, he still wore the western dress as a lawyer. In 1913, he put on the Lungi and Kurta with a head shaved off as a Satyagrahi. In 1915, he returned to India and put on the dress of the Kathiawadi peasant of Gujarat.

In 1921, during the first Non-cooperation movement Gandhiji put on an extremely austere dress; he put on a short loin cloth without a shirt, but with a Chadar. A British leader, Winston Churchill called him a half naked *fakir*. But Gandhi did not care. He met King George V in this dress, the khadi loincloth and chadar in 1931 in London.

Regarding the so-called "Gandhi cap", it is interesting to note the head dress Gandhiji used. In 1915, Gandhiji put on a Gujarati turban, later he put on an embroidered Kashmiri cap. He put on a white cap in 1920. This cap came to be known as the Gandhi cap. In 1921, Gandhiji shaved off his hair and discarded the cap. He never used

the cap upto his death in 1948. But the “Gandhi cap” was used by the freedom fighters and the members of the Indian National Congress.



Gandhi cap in 1920.

4. Clothing as an aspect of Manipuri culture

Manipur is a cradle of human culture and civilization. The people of Manipur are endowed with a rich cultural heritage. The variety of dress, cloth and costume worn by them are the reflection of this rich cultural heritage. Their sense of beauty and love of colour, their social behaviour are reflected in their dress code. In this Section you will read about the dresses and costumes of the Meitei and Meitei Pangan. You will also read the description of the dresses of the Naga tribes, the Rongmeis and the Tangkhuls, the Kom and Thadou Kuki dresses of the Kuki-Chin tribes. The period of our study is the 19th century and the colonial period.

The Meitei dress

The Meiteis are an ancient people. They were a nation of warriors with a monarchy supported by the nobility, a national militia and the peasantry. All classes in the society : the royalty, the nobility, the warriors and the peasants had appropriate dress codes. The Kings of Manipur introduced a sumptuary law.

The traditional male Meitei dress consisted of a Pheijom (dhoti), Phurit or shirt, a cotton sheet (chadar or ngoubong) or a woollen shawl.

In winter, those who could afford wore a padded or quilted coat. Common people did not wear shoes. The nobility and members of the royalty wore shoes. Menfolk wore turban or *kokyet*.

The female dress consisted of the *fanek*, a piece of cloth for covering the body. It was made of cotton or silk. The fanek had different stripes and patterns with appropriate colour. Over the fanek was worn a white sheet known as the Innaphi. This innaphi has rich varieties, pattern and qualities. In cold season a short jacket with long sleeves was worn in tight fitting. The material used was velvet or satin; black, blue and green were favourite colour. The female children before



Meitei princess (sitting) in 1890.



Meitei couple.

puberty wore the fanek.

National games and sports offered opportunity for special elaborate costumes : the annual boat-race, state wrestling, polo-games and popular races required the putting of appropriate clothes, Khamenchatpa, turban, jacket, tight pheijom and legging for the polo players. During the dances like the Lai haraoba, elaborate and refined clothes are put on.

Sumptuary Laws of Manipur

Manipur during the heydays of its monarchy enforced the dress code known as the sumptuary laws as was in Europe. According to this regulation, unless permitted by the King, various items of dress and ornaments could not be worn. And permission to wear them was very much coveted. Certain clothes could be worn when bestowed on by the authority of the King. A brief list is given below.

1. **Khamenchatpa :** Silk pheijom (dhoti) stamped with the purple pattern, supposed to represent the skin of the serpent god, Lord Pakhangba.
2. **Phirangji Phida Angangba :** A Red woollen cloth.
3. **Phirangji Phida Asangba :** Green woollen cloth.
[These two clothes were used by the dignitaries as rugs to sit on during official functions]
4. **Lan-Phi :** The red or green embroidered war cloth.
5. **Phige-Napu :** An orange coloured pheijom (dhoti).
6. **Jugi Mari :** A red silk pheijom (dhoti) to be worn by the members of the Court of Cheirap and royal favourites.
7. **Gulap-machu :** A rose coloured silk pheijom (dhoti).
8. **Kokyet :** Turban of silk pattern to be worn by the descendants or relatives of the king.
9. **Inna-phi :** Women were not allowed to wear the inna-phi or chadar embroidered with gold in the presence of the King or elsewhere without the royal permission.
[Reproduced from W. McCulloch (1859), T.C. Hodson (1908) and J.C. Higgins (1927)]

The royal coronation costumes are prescribed by the ancient historical texts.

The Meitei-Pangan Dress

The Muslims of Manipur are known as the Meitei-Pangans. They are the followers of the Sunni sect of Islam. They speak the Meitei language officially known as the Manipuri, which is their mother tongue.

A Pangan male dress consists of a cap known as the tupi, a shirt (kurta), a Pyjama, Lungi with a coat. They wear shoes and a woollen shawl. The Maulavis or Muslim religious priests wear the Arabi Kokyet or tupi.

The female dress of a Pangan consists of a Burka (Burkha) which is a gown which covers from head to the feet. The woman wears churidar with or without undergarments. They also wear the Punjabi shirt and blouse. But like the Meitei woman, they wear the fanek and an inna-phi.

Lungi became the most comfortable and popular cloth of the Pangan male during prayer and work. The wrestlers wear the khudei, a short loin cloth during the game.

The Naga Dress

Manipur has thirty four recognised tribal communities. They are grouped into the Nagas and the Kuki Chins. The tribals are expert weavers and possess different varieties of clothes for man and woman and according to social and ceremonial occasions.

The Rongmei Dress

The Rongmei (officially known as the Kabui) are among the earliest inhabitants of Manipur. The rich variety of their clothing reflects their rich cultural heritage. The Rongmei dance with their colourful costumes is a very well known form of tribal performing art. The Rongmei dress is categorized on the basis of gender (male and female) and age gradation : child, youth, married and elder, girl child, unmarried girl, married woman and elder woman. For example, the following description of the dress is given in brief.

Male Dress

<i>Age-grade</i>	<i>Name of cloth</i>
1. Walking child	Sineiphei
2. Cattle herding boys	Themphei
3. Youth	Mareipan
4. Senior married youth	Pheingao
5. Elder	Masin Pheipong
6. Old men	Kharam phei

(Mareipan and Pheingao are the most popular male cloth)

Female Dress

<i>Age-grade</i>	<i>Name of cloth</i>
1. Walking girl child	Lengli pheishoi
2. Adolescent	Pheiso and Nai (undergarment)

3. Married woman Pheiso, Nai of different patterns.
4. Elder woman Pheiso with the pattern of the Bunting chapi etc.

The Dance costume is colourful, both for male and female. The female dress is called Langhu Pheiso. The Rongmei dancers whose picture is given wearing the Langhu Pheiso.

The favourite colours of the Rongmeis are red, white, and black.



Rongmei Dancers, 1873, wearing Langhu Pheiso.

The Tangkhul Dress

The Tangkhuls are a very colourful tribe. Like the Rongmeis, they are also an ancient community of Manipur. Their clothings are varied and rich. Their favourite colour is red. They are popularly known as Phingang shetpa, the wearers of the red cloth.

The Tangkhul male clothes are the Haora, Luirim and Thangkang. Haora is of red and white colour. Haora is the most popular male cloth of the Tangkhuls. The Luirim is of white and black. Thangkang is of black and red colour. The Tangkhul male wears a

loin cloth known as Morao and a head dress known as the Paasi. Tangkhul male children also wear the Haora cloth.



Tangkhul warriors, wearing Morao loincloth, 1890.

The Tangkhul female dress consists of the body covering Kashan. There are eight kinds of Kashan. The Tangkhul woman, both girl and married ones put on blouses and undergarments.

Many new designs and patterns of the female Kashang are produced. Every Tangkhul family like their counterparts in different communities of Manipur is engaged in weaving. But the villages of western Tangkhul area in Ukhrul district, namely, Somdal, Tolloi, Phadang and Tuinem are great weaving villages.

The Kuki-Chin Dress

Sai-pi-Khup is the most popular shawl of the Kuki-Chin tribes. However, we deal with the Koms and the Thadou Kuki dresses only.

The Koms are the earliest of the Kuki-Chin tribes of Manipur. The Kom is a community of rich cultural heritage reflected in their festivals, music, dance and clothes.

The Kom Male Dress

The Kom male wears three kinds of shawls, Pungchai, Saipikhup and Thangnam pon. They put on the Phijom at the waist down.

Kom women wear the body covering dress known as Pumkok Hoi in the stripes of pink, black and yellow. The Kom women put on undergarment and wear green velvet blouse during the colonial period. They also put on different kinds of shawls. The Koms use turban type of head dress known as the Lukop.

The Thadou-Kuki Dress

The dress of the Thadou-Kuki is mostly black. But they wear different varieties of clothes. The Kuki male puts on a shawl called Saipikhup and another shawl is Thangnam pon. They wear the pheijom (short dhoti) to cover the waist downward.

Like other Kuki-Chin tribes, they use Lukop as the head dress. They wear a shirt in the form of a jacket made of Thangnam pon.

The female shawl of the Thadou-Kuki is called Pon bamsaung. It is white coloured. They wear a body cover cloth known as the Khamtang of black colour. They now wear blouse.

With the coming of the British rule and the Christian missionary activities, the western dress came to be in vogue. But women-folk either Hindu or Christian, tribal or non-tribal still continue to wear the traditional dress to preserve the cultural identity of the people. However, the use of western dress has become almost universal. Yet the use of traditional dress continues.

GLOSSARY

- Sumptuary laws* : The rule and regulation of wearing of dress and costume imposed by the Government in Europe.
- Sans culottes* : The dress worn by the Jacobin volunteers during the French Revolution. It literally means “without knee breeches”.
- Stays* : Support as part of a woman’s dress to hold the body straight.
- Corset* : A closely fitting and stiff bodice worn by women to give shape and support to the figure.
- Victorian Ideals of woman* : England during the reign of Queen Victoria (1839-1901) had developed a high morality towards social values. Women in Victorian England were groomed from childhood to be docile and dutiful, submissive and obedient. Norms of clothing reflected these

ideas. The girls were tightly laced up and dressed in stays. The girls wore corsets. Small waisted women were admired as attractive, elegant and graceful. Clothing played a role in creating the image of a frail and submissive Victorian woman.

The Rational Dress Society : It was founded in England in 1881. It advocated the wearing of trousers known as bloomers or rationals, by the women of England.

Hat wearers : The European officers in colonial India who wore Hat as a distinctive feature of the cultural or racial identity of the Englishmen.

Phenta : The hat which was part of the Parsi western dress.

The Chapkan : A long buttoned coat, designed by Rabindranath Tagore as a national dress.

Brahmika Sari : A sari worn by the women members of the Brahma Samaj.

Brahmo : Those who belong to the religious group known as the Brahma Samaj.

Swadeshi : Indigenous or national or traditional.

Khadi : Home spun coarse cotton yarn.

Charkha : The spinning wheel, adopted by Mahatma Gandhi as a symbol of the Swadeshi movement.

Gandhi cap : Mahatma Gandhi, during his life time wore three kinds of head dress; Turban, Kashmiri cap in 1915. In 1920 he wore a cap which came to be known as the Gandhi cap. He abandoned it in 1921. The Indian National Congress leaders, workers and volunteers put on the Gandhi cap. Gandhiji discarded it after one year.

Pheijom : A Meitei long dhoti.

Fanek : A Meitei woman body covering cloth.

Khamenchatpa : A short dhoti with pattern of Lord Pakhangba, bestowed by the King to the nobles and notables in Manipur.

Pheingao : A Rongmei shawl.

Haora : A Tangkhul shawl.

Sai-Pi-Khup : A shawl worn by the Kuki-Chin.

EXERCISES**A. LONG ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS :**

1. Explain the sumptuary laws prevalent in the Medieval Europe.
2. Define the ideals of the women of England relating to clothes during the reign of Queen Victoria.
3. Trace the history of Swadeshi movement and the Khadi movement in colonial India.
4. List the important dresses worn by the Meiteis.
5. List the important dresses worn by the Rongmeis and the Tangkhuls.
6. List the important dresses worn by the Koms and the Thadou-Kukis.

B. SHORT ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS :

1. Why do man put on clothes ?
2. Estimate the Victorian ideals about dress.
3. Why did the English women give up their traditional clothes during the First World War ?
4. Why was there a conflict between the Nairs and the Shanars of Travancore State during 1822–1859 ?
5. Name the dresses worn by the Meitei Pangans.

C. VERY SHORT ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS :

1. What ideas were reflected in the Dress Codes of the medieval Europe ?
2. Who introduced the wearing of hat in India ?
3. What is Swadeshi ?
4. What is Khadi ?
5. What is Phenta ?
6. What is a Burka (Burkha) ?
7. Who wears a Khamenchatpa ?
8. Who wears Sineiphei ?
9. What is a Haora ?
10. What is a Sai-pi-Khup ?
11. What is a Pumkok Hoi ?
12. What is a Thangnam Pon ?

**INDIA-LAND
AND
THE PEOPLE**

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INDIA – LAND AND THE PEOPLE

Chapter-1

India : Location and Size; Relief, Structure and Major Physiographic Divisions

India, one of the ancient civilisations on the Earth, has also contributed significantly to the making of world history. It has made remarkable progress in the field of agriculture, industry and technology during the last five decades.

Location and Size

India is located in the southern part of Asia. It lies entirely in the northern hemisphere. The Indian mainland extends between $8^{\circ}4'N$ and $37^{\circ}6'N$ latitudes and $68^{\circ}7'E$ and $97^{\circ}25'E$ longitudes. The Tropic of Cancer ($23^{\circ}30'N$) divides the country into almost two halves. The Andaman and Nicobar islands lie to the south-east of the mainland in the Bay of Bengal while the Lakshadweep islands are to the south-west in the Arabian Sea. Find out the location of these islands from Fig. 1-2.

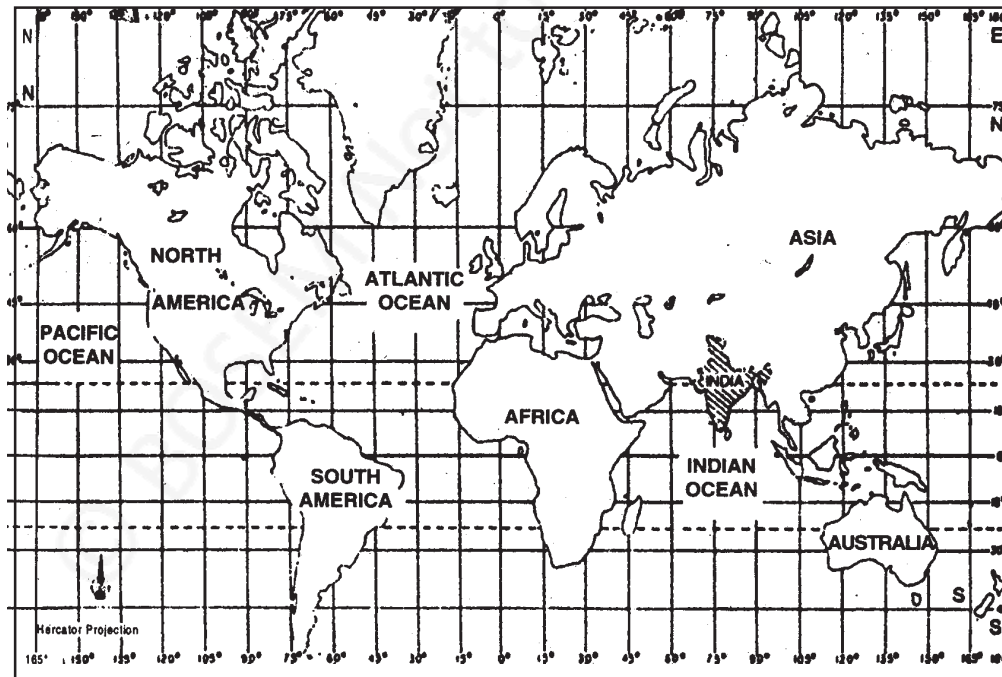


Figure 1-1. India in the world.

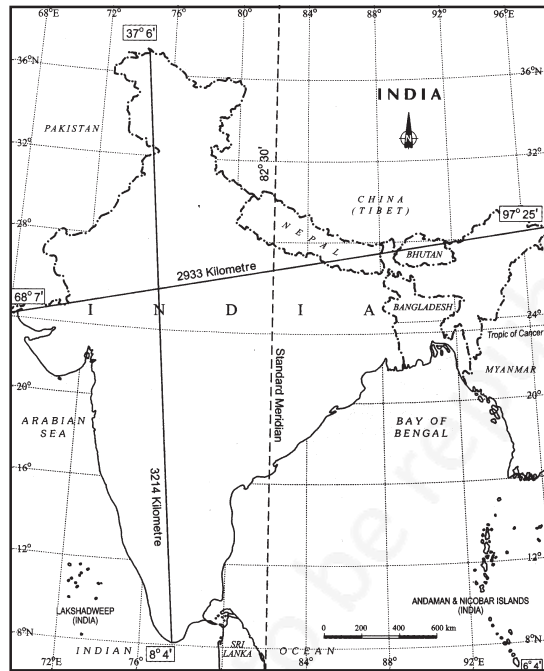


Figure 1-2. India : Location and Extent.

India has a total area of 3.28 million square kilometres. It is the seventh largest country in the world and has a land boundary of about 15,200 kilometres. The total length of the coastline of the country including the islands is 7,516.6 kilometres.

DO YOU KNOW ? *Indira Point, in the Andaman and Nicobar islands is the southernmost part of India. It extends up to 6°45'N nearly 2 degrees farther south of the mainland. It was submerged under sea water during the Tsunami of 2004.*

Relief

You have already learnt that India has a variety of relief or landform features. Can you name the type of relief you live in? Our country has all major relief features of the earth i.e., mountains, plateaus, plains, deserts and islands. These were formed during different geological periods of the earth. Various processes such as weathering, erosion and deposition have modified the relief to its present form.

Structure

Geologists have tried to explain the formation of relief or physical features with the help of some theories based on evidences. One such reliable theory is the 'Theory

of Plate Tectonics'. It states that the crust of the earth (upper portion) has been formed out of seven major and some minor plates (Fig. 1-3). The movement of the plates builds up stresses within the plates and the continental rocks above. Further increase in the accumulation of stress leads to folding, faulting and volcanic activity.

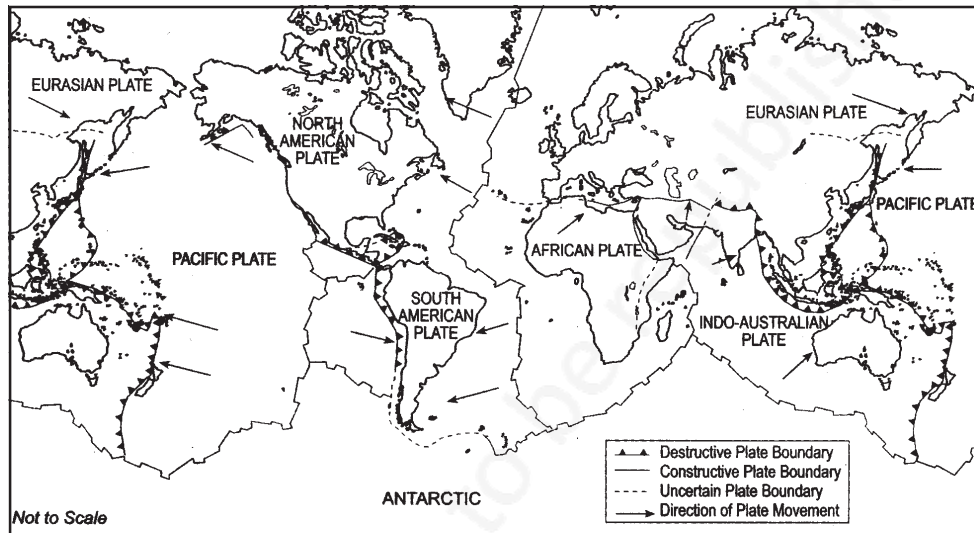


Figure 1-3. World Plate Margins.

Plate movements are of three types. Some plates move towards each other and form convergent boundary. Again, some plates move away from each other and form divergent boundary. Sometimes, two plates may move horizontally past each other and form transform boundary. In the case of convergent boundary, two plates may either collide or one may slide under the other. Thus convergent plate boundary is associated with folding of sedimentary strata. In fact, it has influenced the evolution of the present landform features of India.

DO YOU KNOW ? *Violent earthquakes are caused by the sudden movement of tectonic plates along fault lines and most volcanoes of the world are located at plate boundary.*

The Peninsular plateau of India was a part of the ancient landmass Gondwanaland. The Gondwanaland consisted of India, Australia, Antarctica, South America and Southern Africa as one single landmass. The convectional currents broke the crust into a number of pieces. It led to the northward drifting of the Indo-Australian plate after being separated from the Gondwanaland. As a result, the Indo-Australian plate collided

with the Eurasian plate. Because of this collision, the sediments which were deposited in the geosyncline known as the Tethys were folded to form the Himalayan mountains.

Gondwanaland : The southern part of the ancient super continent (Pangea) was called Gondwanaland while the northern part was known as Angaraland or Laurasia.

Geosyncline : A major depression on the earth's surface filled with sediments is known as Geosyncline.

Due to the uplift of the Himalayas and subsidence of the northern flank of the Peninsular plateau, a large basin was formed. Later on, this depression was filled with sediments brought down by the rivers from the Himalayas in the north and the Peninsular plateau in the south. Thus an extensive flat land of alluvium known as the northern plains of India was formed.

Structurally, the landform features of India display great variation. The Peninsular plateau represents one of the ancient landmasses on the earth. It is composed of hard igneous and metamorphic rocks. The Himalayas and the northern plains are of recent origin. The Himalayan mountains depict a youthful topography with high peaks, deep valleys and fast flowing rivers. The northern plains are made up of alluvial deposits.

Major Physiographic Divisions

According to surface features India can be divided into the following physiographic divisions (Figure 1.4).

1. The Himalayan Mountains
2. The Northern Plains
3. The Indian Desert
4. The Peninsular Plateau
5. The Coastal Plains
6. The Islands.

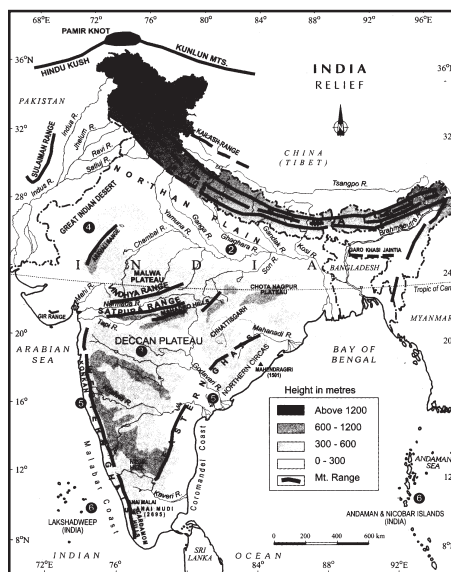


Figure 1.4. India : Relief.

The Himalayan Mountains

In figure 1.4 you will see that there are high mountain ranges in the north of India. These mountains form an arc covering a distance of about 2,400 kilometres. They run in a west-east direction from the Indus to the Brahmaputra. Their width varies from 400 kilometres in Kashmir to 150 kilometres in Arunachal Pradesh. The Himalayas represent the loftiest and most rugged mountain barriers of the world. They are geologically young and are known as fold mountains.



Figure 1.5. The Himalayas

The Himalayas consist of three parallel ranges. The northernmost range is known as the **Great or Inner Himalayas** or the **Himadri**. This range is continuous and contains all the prominent peaks. The average height of this range is 6,000 metres. The Great Himalayas are permanently snow clad and therefore a number of glaciers originate from this range.

Prominent Peaks of the Himalayas

<i>Peak</i>	<i>Country</i>	<i>Height in metres</i>
Mt. Everest	Nepal	8,848
Kanchenjunga	India	8,598
Makalu	Nepal	8,481
Dhaulagiri	Nepal	8,172
Nanga Parbat	India	8,126
Annapurna	Nepal	8,078
Nanda Devi	India	7,817
Namcha Barwa	India	7,756

The folds of the Great Himalayas are asymmetrical in nature. The central portion or core of the Great Himalayas is made up of granitic rocks. Do you know that the rocks of the Himalayas also contain marine fossils ?

***Find out** the name of the states of India where Kanchenjunga, Nanga Parbat, Nanda Devi and Namcha Barwa peaks are located.*

*Also **find out** the names of the glaciers and passes that lie in the Great Himalayas.*

To the south of the Great Himalayas lies the most rugged mountain system known as the **Lesser Himalayas or Middle Himalayas** or **Himachal**. This range is made up of highly compressed and altered rocks. It includes the Pir Panjal, the Dhaula Dhar and the Mahabharat ranges. The height of this range varies from 3,700 metres to 4,500 metres. The famous valley of Kashmir, the Kangra and the Kulu of Himachal Pradesh are located in this range. Therefore this range is noted for its hill stations.

***Find out** from your atlas the name of the states where Almora, Mussoorie, Nainital and Ranikhet are located.*

The southernmost range is called the **Outer Himalayas or Sub-Himalayas** or **Shiwaliks**. It is composed of unconsolidated sediments brought down by rivers from the two Himalayan ranges in the north. Longitudinal valleys known as **Duns** are located in between the Lesser Himalayas and the Shiwaliks. These valleys are made up of thick gravel and alluvium. Dehra Dun, Kotli Dun and Patli Dun are the well-known examples. The altitude of the Shiwaliks varies in between 900 and 1100 metres.

The Himalayas can also be divided into regions from west to east. These regions are demarcated by river valleys. The region that lies between the Indus and the Sutlej is known as Punjab Himalayas or Kashmir Himalayas or Himachal Himalayas. The part of the Himalayas lying between the Sutlej and the Kali rivers is called Kumaon Himalayas. The Nepal Himalayas lie in between the Kali and the Tista rivers and the part of the Himalayas lying between the Tista and the Dihang rivers is known as Assam Himalayas. Beyond the Dihang gorge, the Himalayas extend southwards as the Patkai, the Naga, the Manipur and the Lushai hills. These hills are mainly composed of sandstones and run as parallel ranges from north to south. They are known as the Purvachal or the Eastern Hills.

The Northern Plain

The northern plain was formed by the filling up of a large depression lying at the foothills of the Himalayas by sediments over millions of years. These sediments were brought down by the three major rivers viz., the Indus, the Ganga and the Brahmaputra along with their tributaries. Therefore, it is a fertile alluvial plain. The rich soil cover

combined with adequate water supply and favourable climate has made it agriculturally the most productive part of India. This plain is about 2400 km. long and its width varies in between 150 and 320 km. It covers an area of more than 7 lakh square kilometres and is densely populated.

Being a lowlying plain, the rivers are engaged in depositional work. Due to gentle slope, the velocity of the river decreases which results in the deposition of silt on its bed. It leads to the formation of **riverine islands**.

DO YOU KNOW ? *The largest inhabited riverine island in the world is Majuli in the Brahmaputra.*

In the lower course, the rivers also split into numerous channels because of the deposition of silt. These channels are referred to as **distributaries**.

From west to east the northern plain may be divided into three sections. The western part is known as the Punjab plain. It is drained by five tributaries of the Indus viz., the Jhelum, the Chenab, the Ravi, the Beas and the Sutlej. So, Punjab means the land of five rivers ('Punj' meaning five and 'ab' meaning water) and thus it is made up of '**doabs**'.

DO YOU KNOW ? *'Doab' refers to the land between two rivers. It is made up of two words – 'do' meaning two and 'ab' meaning water. Thus the land between the Beas and the Ravi is known as Bari Doab.*

The central part is known as the Ganga plain and extends between the Ghaggar and the Tista rivers. It includes Haryana, Delhi, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar and parts of Jharkhand and West Bengal.

The eastern part known as the Brahmaputra plain extends from Dhubri to Sadiya. Another name of this plain is the Assam plain.

Though the northern plain is described as flat land there are variations in surface relief. Thus due to differences in surface relief, the northern plain may be divided into four regions. The narrow belt all along the foot of the Shiwaliks which is made up of porous rocks mainly pebbles is known as **Bhabar**. All the rivers that flow down the mountains disappear in this belt. To the south of this belt, the streams and rivers re-emerge and create a damp and swampy region known as **Terai**. Once this region was thickly forested and full of wildlife. Nowadays the forests have been cleared for agriculture and settlement. Try to locate Dudhwa National Park in this belt from your atlas.

Most of the northern plain is made up of older alluvium. The older alluvium lies above the flood plains of the rivers and forms a terrace like feature. This part of the northern plain is called **Bhangar**. The soil of the Bhangar contains calcareous deposits known as kankar.

DO YOU KNOW ? *The soil that contains calcium carbonate is called calcareous soil.*

The flood plain which has newer alluvium is called **Khadar**. A new layer of alluvium is deposited by river floods every year. So, this part of northern plain is very fertile and is ideal for intensive agriculture.

The Peninsular Plateau

The Peninsular Plateau was formed by the breaking and northward drifting of a part of the Gondwanaland, the oldest landmass on the earth. Thus it is a tableland composed of hard crystalline igneous and metamorphic rocks. The surface features of the plateau consist of broad and shallow valleys and rounded hills. The river Narmada divides the plateau into two major divisions viz., the Central Highlands and the Deccan Plateau.

The part of the plateau lying to the north of the Narmada including the Malwa plateau is known as the Central Highlands. The Central Highlands are bounded by the Vindhyan range on the south and the Aravalis on the north-west. In the west, they extend further and merge with the sandy desert of Rajasthan. In the east, the Malwa plateau becomes narrower and extends as Bundelkhand, Baghelkhand and Chotanagpur plateaus. The region is drained by rivers such as the Chambal, the Sind, the Betwa and the Ken which rise from the Central Highlands. They are the tributaries of the Yamuna and flow from south-west to north-east, thus indicating the slope. The Chotanagpur plateau is mainly drained by the Damodar river.

The part lying to the south of the Narmada river is called the Deccan Plateau. It is a triangular landmass and bounded by the Satpura range on the north, the Eastern Ghats on the east and the Western Ghats on the west. To the east of the Satpura range the Deccan Plateau extends as the Mahadeo hills, the Kaimur and the Maikal ranges.

***Find out** the location of Mahadeo hills, the Kaimur and the Maikal ranges from the physical map of India in your atlas.*

The Meghalaya plateau and the Mikir hills in the north-eastern part are the extensions of the Deccan plateau. This region is separated from the Chotanagpur plateau by a fault or fracture in the earth's crust. The Meghalaya plateau consists of the Garo, the Khasi and the Jaintia hills.

The slope of the Deccan Plateau is from west to east and therefore most of the rivers of the plateau flow into the Bay of Bengal. The Narmada and the Tapi are the two exceptions which flow in the opposite direction i.e., from east to west. Note the course of these rivers from the atlas.

The Western Ghats consist of the Sahyadri, the Nilgiri, the Anaimalai and the Cardamom hills and mark the western edge of the Deccan Plateau. They are continuous and run parallel to the western coast from north to south. They can be crossed only through passes like the Thal, Bhor and the Pal Ghats. Their average height is in between 900 and 1600 metres. They cause orographic rain by obstructing the rain bearing moist winds from the Arabian Sea. The height of the Western Ghats goes on increasing towards the south. The Anai Mudi (2695 metres) is the highest peak of the Western Ghats. Another important peak is the Doda Betta (2637 m.). Find out the location of the two peaks from the physical map of India in your atlas.

The Eastern Ghats extend from the Mahanadi valley of Odisha to the Nilgiris in the south. They are discontinuous and dissected by rivers like the Mahanadi, the Godavari, the Krishna and the Kaveri which flow into the Bay of Bengal. The Eastern Ghats are comparatively lower than the Western Ghats. Their average height is 600 metres and Mahendragiri (1,501 m.) is the highest peak. Note the location of Javadi and Shevroy hills to the south-east of the Eastern Ghats. Also locate the famous hill stations of Udagamandalam (Ooty) and Kodaikanal.

A unique feature of the Peninsular plateau is the black soil region known as Deccan Trap. The rocks of this region were formed due to solidification of volcanic lava. Later on, these rocks were denuded by the agents of weathering to form the black soil. The Aravalis which mark the north-western boundary of the Peninsular plateau represent low, broken hills worn down by continued erosion.

The Indian Desert

The Thar or the Indian Desert occupies the western part of the Aravali range. This region receives very little rainfall i.e., below 15 cm. annually. So, it becomes a desert and the surface is covered with sand dunes. Because of the arid climate, streams appear only when it rains. They disappear into the sand as soon as the rain stops and have no enough water to reach the sea. The only river in this region is the Luni.

Crescent-shaped sand dunes called Barchans cover a large part of the Indian desert. If you visit Jaisalmer in Rajasthan, you may be able to see a group of Barchans. Near the Indo-Pakistan border longitudinal sand dunes are more important.

The Coastal Plains

The Peninsular plateau is flanked by the narrow coastal plains all along the Bay of Bengal on the east and the Arabian Sea on the west. The Western coastal plain is narrow and dissected by a number of swift-flowing streams. It has three sections viz., the northern part between Mumbai and Goa known as the Konkan coast, the central portion called

the Kannad plain and the southern part known as the Malabar coast. Estuaries and backwaters are the important features of the western coast.

The Eastern coastal plain, on the other hand, is wide and level. Rivers like the Mahanadi, the Godavari, the Krishna and the Kaveri have formed extensive deltas on the eastern coast. The northern part of the eastern coastal plain is known as the Northern Circar while the southern part is called the Coromandel coast. The Chilika and the Pulicat lakes are the important features of the eastern coast.

DO YOU KNOW ? *The Chilika lake in Odisha is the largest salt water lake in India.*

The Islands

Besides the mainland, the country has two groups of islands. In the Bay of Bengal, you will see the elongated chain of islands extending from north to south. The entire group of islands is of two parts – the Andaman in the north and the Nicobar in the south. They are collectively known as the Andaman and Nicobar islands. It is believed that these islands are the elevated portions of a submarine ridge which is of volcanic origin. Note that the Andaman and Nicobar islands lie close to the equator. So, these islands enjoy the equatorial type of climate and have thick forest cover. These islands are of great strategic importance for the country.

DO YOU KNOW ? *India's only active volcano is found on the Barren island in the Andaman and Nicobar islands.*

The Lakshadweep islands lie close to the Malabar coast of Kerala in the Arabian Sea. Earlier, these islands were known as Laccadive, Minicoy and Amindive. They were renamed as Lakshadweep in 1973. These islands were formed by the deposition of skeletons of dead coral polyps. Such islands are referred to as coral islands. The Lakshadweep islands have great diversity of flora and fauna. The Pitti island is uninhabited but has a bird sanctuary.

Though the physiographic units of India have unique features of their own they are complementary to each other. The Himalayan mountains are the major sources of water and forest resources. The northern plains are the granaries of the country. These two physiographic units provide the base for early civilisations. The Peninsular plateau is a storehouse of minerals. These minerals have played an important role in the industrialisation of the country. The coastal plains and islands provide ideal sites for fishing, ports and harbours. Thus each unit complements the other and helps the country develop in all respects.

EXERCISE

1. Choose the correct answer from the four alternatives given below :
 - (i) The northernmost latitude of India is
 - (a) 27°16'N
 - (b) 37°6'N
 - (c) 35°26'N
 - (d) 43°12'N.
 - (ii) The Tropic of Cancer does not pass through
 - (a) Gujarat
 - (b) Jharkhand
 - (c) Manipur
 - (d) Rajasthan.
 - (iii) The part of the Himalayas lying between the Tista and the Dihang rivers is called
 - (a) Assam Himalayas
 - (b) Kumaon Himalayas
 - (c) Nepal Himalayas
 - (d) Punjab Himalayas.
 - (iv) The lowlying area of the northern plains which has newer alluvium is called
 - (a) Bhabar
 - (b) Bhangar
 - (c) Khadar
 - (d) Terai.
 - (v) The southern part of the eastern coastal plain is known as
 - (a) Coromandel
 - (b) Konkan
 - (c) Malabar
 - (d) Northern Circar.
2. Answer the following questions briefly :
 - (i) Which island group of India lies to its south-west ?
 - (ii) What does the theory of Plate tectonics state ?
 - (iii) Name the continents and the countries that constituted the Gondwanaland.
 - (iv) What are the three parallel ranges of the Himalayas ?
 - (v) What is Terai ?
 - (vi) Name the plateau that lies between the Aravali and the Vindhyan ranges.
 - (vii) Which part of the north-east India is an extension of the Deccan plateau ?
3. Distinguish between :
 - (i) Convergent plate boundary and Divergent plate boundary.
 - (ii) Bhangar and Khadar.
 - (iii) Eastern Ghats and Western Ghats.
4. What are the major physiographic divisions of India ? Give an account of the eastern coastal plains.
5. Compare the relief of the Himalayan region with that of the Peninsular plateau.

6. Give an account of the Northern plains of India.
7. Explain how the Himalayas were formed.
8. Write short notes on the following :
 - (i) The Deccan plateau (ii) The Indian Desert (iii) The Lakshadweep islands.

Map Skills

Draw an outline map of India and show the following :

- (i) Mountains – the Aravali range, the Cardamom hills, the Karakoram, the Vindhya range, the Zaskar range.
- (ii) Plateau – the Malwa plateau, the Chotanagpur plateau.
- (iii) The Andaman and Nicobar islands, Eastern Ghats, the Thar Desert.

Project / Activity

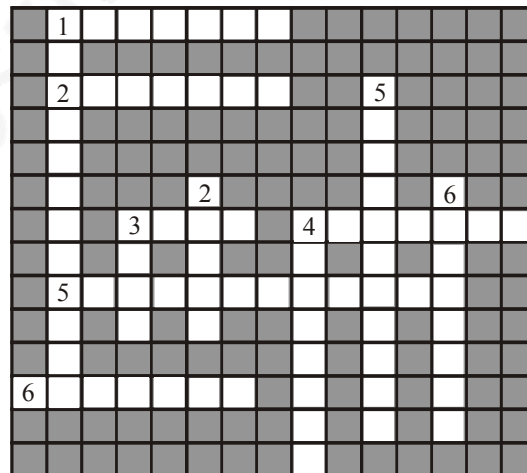
Solve this crossword puzzle with the help of given clues.

Across

1. Southern part of the Western Coast
2. Another name of the Great Himalayas
3. Land between two rivers
4. A low and old mountain
5. An ancient landmass
6. Hill of the Western Ghats

Down

1. Highest peak of the Eastern Ghats.
2. A plateau of the Central Highlands.
3. Longitudinal valleys between Lesser Himalayas and Shiwaliks.
4. Highest peak of the Western Ghats.
5. Eastern extension of the Malwa plateau.
6. Southern hill of the Western Ghats.



Chapter-2

Drainage

Look at the physical map of any country in your atlas. You will see that small streams from different directions meet to form a main river which finally falls into a lake or sea. Such a river system of an area is referred to as **drainage**. The area which is drained by the river and its tributaries is called a **drainage basin**. If you look closely at the map you will find that a mountain or an elevated region separates two drainage basins. Such an elevated region is called a **water divide**.

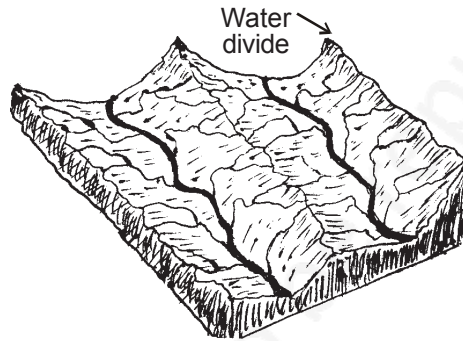


Figure 2-1 Water divide.

DO YOU KNOW ? *The Amazon River has the largest drainage basin in the world.*

Find out : *Which river basin is the largest in India ?*

Major Rivers and Their Tributaries

The drainage system of India is influenced by the relief features of the sub-continent. Thus we can divide the Indian rivers into two major groups viz., the Himalayan rivers and the Peninsular rivers.

Drainage Patterns : *The rivers within a drainage basin form different patterns depending on the slope of land, underlying rock structure and climatic conditions of the area. When the main river and its tributaries take the pattern of the branches of a tree, it is called **dendritic**. If the main river is joined by its tributaries at right angle, a **trellis** pattern is developed. The **radial** drainage pattern develops when streams flow in different directions from a central dome like structure. A **rectangular** drainage pattern is developed on a hard rocky surface. A drainage basin may have a combination of different patterns.*

The Himalayan Rivers

The Indus, the Ganga and the Brahmaputra are the major Himalayan rivers. They receive water from rain and melting snow. Thus they are perennial i.e., they have water all the year round. They are also long and have many large tributaries. A main river alongwith its tributaries may be termed as a **river system**.

The Indus River System

The Indus rises in Tibet near the Mansarowar lake. It flows north-westwards and enters India in the Ladakh district of Jammu and Kashmir. The river forms a spectacular gorge in this part. The Zaskar, the Nubra, the Shyok and the Hunza are the tributaries that join the Indus in the Kashmir region. The river flows through Baltistan and Gilgit and emerges from the mountains at Attock. The Jhelum, the Chenab, the Ravi, the Beas, and the Satluj meet together to join the Indus near Mithankot in Pakistan. The Indus flows south-westward across Pakistan and falls into the Arabian Sea in the east of Karachi. The Indus has a total length of about 2,900 km. and it is considered as one of the longest rivers of the world. About one third of the Indus basin is located in India in the states of Jammu and Kashmir, Punjab and Himachal Pradesh and the rest is in Pakistan.

DO YOU KNOW ? *Under the regulations of the Indus Water Treaty (1960) signed with Pakistan, India can utilize only 20 per cent of the total water carried by Indus river system. India's share is used for irrigation in Haryana, Punjab and Rajasthan.*

The Ganga River System

The Ganga rises in the Himalayas in Uttarakhand. Its headwater known as the 'Bhagirathi' is fed by the Gangotri Glacier. At Devaprayag, the Bhagirathi and the Alaknanda unite to form the Ganga. The Ganga emerges from the mountains at Haridwar.

Many large tributaries from the Himalayas such the Yamuna, the Ghaghara, the Gandak, and the Kosi join the Ganga. The Yamuna rises in the Yamunotri Glacier in the Himalayas. It flows south-eastwards parallel to the Ganga. The river joins the Ganga at Allahabad as a right bank tributary. Another right bank tributary of the Ganga is the Son. It rises in the drier plateau of the south. The Ghaghara, the Gandak and the Kosi are the left bank tributaries of the Ganga. They rise from the Nepal Himalayas. These rivers cause widespread flood in the northern plains every year thus enriching the soil for agriculture.

The tributaries of the Yamuna viz., the Chambal, the Sind, the Betwa and the Ken originate from the central highlands. Since they rise from the semi arid areas, they have shorter courses and do not carry much water in them.

Fed by the waters of its tributaries, the Ganga flows eastwards till Farakka (West Bengal), the northernmost point of the Ganga delta. Here the river bifurcates – the Hooghly (distributary) flows southwards in West Bengal and falls into the sea. The mainstream enters Bangladesh as Padma and meets the Brahmaputra (which is known as Jamuna) and Meghna here. This mighty river finally falls into the Bay of Bengal. The world's largest delta – the **Sundarban** is formed by these rivers.

DO YOU KNOW ? *The Sundarban is also the world's fastest growing delta. It is the home of Royal Bengal tiger. The name Sundarban is derived from the Sundari tree which grows well in this delta region.*

The total length of the Ganga is more than 2,500 km. Ambala town is situated on the water divide between the Indus and the Ganga river systems. The slope of the plain from Ambala to the Sundarban is so gentle that the Ganga develops large meanders. Look at the physical map of India (Fig. 1.4) and try to identify the type of drainage pattern formed by the Ganga and its tributaries.

The Brahmaputra River System

The Brahmaputra originates in the east of the Mansarowar lake in Tibet, very close to the source of the Indus. Though it is longer than the Indus, most of its course lies outside India. In Tibet, it flows eastwards parallel to the Himalayas and reaches Namcha Barwa in Assam Himalayas. Here, the river bends southwards and enters Arunachal Pradesh as Dihang. It is joined by the Dibang, the Lohit and other tributaries to form the Brahmaputra in Assam.

DO YOU KNOW ? *The Brahmaputra is called Tsang Po in Tibet and Jamuna in Bangladesh.*

The river has smaller volume of water and less silt in Tibet because of cold and dry climate. In Assam, it carries a large volume of water and more silt as it passes through a region of high rainfall. Due to the formation of braided channels, the river has many riverine islands. Can you remember the name of the world's largest riverine island formed by the Brahmaputra? During the rainy season the river overflows its banks and causes widespread flood in Assam and Bangladesh. Because of the deposition of silt on its bed, the river becomes shallower year after year.

The Peninsular Rivers

The Western Ghats form the main water divide in Peninsular India. The major rivers of the Peninsula such as the Mahanadi, the Godavari, the Krishna, and the Kaveri flow eastwards and fall into the Bay of Bengal. These rivers have deltas at their mouths. A

number of small streams flow westwards from the Western Ghats. The Narmada and the Tapti are the two long rivers of the Peninsula which flow westwards and fall into the Arabian Sea. The Peninsular rivers have small drainage basins.

The Mahanadi Basin

The Mahanadi river rises in the highlands of Chhattisgarh. It is about 860 km. long and flows through Odisha to drain into the Bay of Bengal. Its drainage basin includes parts of Maharashtra, Chhattisgarh, Jharkhand and Odisha.

The Godavari Basin

The Godavari rises in the Western Ghats in the Nasik district of Maharashtra. It is the longest as well as the largest river of the Peninsula. So, this river is also known as the **Dakshin Ganga**. It flows south-eastwards and drains into the Bay of Bengal. Its drainage basin covers parts of Maharashtra, Madhya Pradesh, Odisha and Andhra Pradesh. The river is about 1,500 km. long and has a number of tributaries such as the Purna, the Wardha, the Pranhita, the Manjra, the Wainganga and the Penganga.

The Krishna Basin

The Krishna rises from a spring near Mahabaleswar and falls into the Bay of Bengal. It is about 1,400 km. long and has many tributaries such as the Tungabhadra, the Koyna, the Ghatprabha, the Musi and the Bhima. Its drainage basin includes parts of Maharashtra, Karnataka and Andhra Pradesh.

The Kaveri Basin

Rising from the Brahmagiri range of the Western Ghats, the Kaveri flows for about 800 km. before draining into the Bay of Bengal. Its main tributaries are the Amravati, the Bhavani, the Hemavati and Kabini. The Kaveri drainage basin is shared by Kerala, Karnataka and Tamil Nadu.

Find out the name of the biggest waterfall in India.

DO YOU KNOW ? *Sivasamudram, the second biggest waterfall in India lies in the Kaveri. It supplies hydro-electricity to Bangalore, Mysore and the Kolar Gold mine.*

The Narmada Basin

The Narmada rises in the Amarkantak hills in Madhya Pradesh and flows westwards for a distance of 1,300 km. to drain into the Arabian Sea. It flows in a rift valley formed due to faulting. The river creates many picturesque locations on its way to the sea. The 'Marble rock' near Jabalpur where the river flows through a deep gorge and the

'Dhuadhar falls' are worth mentioning. The Narmada has some short tributaries and its basin covers parts of Madhya Pradesh and Gujarat.

The Tapti Basin

Rising from the Satpura ranges in the Betul district of Madhya Pradesh, the Tapti also flows in a rift valley parallel to the Narmada. Its course, however, is shorter than that of the Narmada. The Tapti basin includes parts of Madhya Pradesh, Gujarat and Maharashtra. The western coastal plain is very narrow and therefore the coastal rivers are short and swift. The Sabarmati, the Mahi and the Periyar are the main west flowing rivers. Find out the states in which these rivers flow.

In addition to the above major rivers, there are some minor east flowing rivers such as the Damodar, the Brahmani, the Subarnarekha and the Baitarani. Find out these rivers from your atlas.

Lakes

You must have visited the Loktak lake and the Loukoi Pat and enjoyed boating and other water games. Then you will know that they attract many tourists everyday. Likewise, the Dal lake of Kashmir and other tourist places attract thousands of tourists every year. Have you ever tried to know the importance of lakes in making a place attractive to tourists ? Not only lakes attract tourists, they are also useful to man in many ways.

DO YOU KNOW ? *Lakes of immense size e.g., the Aral, the Caspian, etc., are referred to as seas.*

India has many types of lakes. Most of them are permanent i.e., they contain water throughout the year. Some lakes may contain water only during the rainy season, like the Sambhar lake in Rajasthan, which is a salt water lake. Its water is used for making salt. Fresh water lakes are found in the Himalayan region. These lakes are formed by the action of glaciers. Sometimes glaciers dug out a basin, which was later filled with water from melting ice. The Dal lake, Bhimtal and Nainital are the fresh water lakes of the Himalayan region. However, the Wular lake in Jammu and Kashmir is formed as a result of tectonic activity. It is the largest fresh water lake in India. In the north-east, the Loktak and the Barapani are the important fresh water lakes. In the plains of the Ganga, a meandering river across a flood plain forms cut-offs that later develop into ox-bow lakes. In the coastal areas, spits and bars form lagoons like the Chilika lake (Odisha), the Kolleru lake (Andhra Pradesh) and the Pulicat lake (Tamil Nadu).

Besides these natural lakes, damming of rivers for the generation of hydro-electricity has created artificial lakes like the Guru Gobind Sagar of the Bhakra Nagal Project.

Find out : *Natural and artificial lakes of India from your atlas and make a list.*

Lakes are very useful to human beings. They help to regulate the flow of rivers. They can also be used for generating hydel power. During rainy season, they prevent flooding by absorbing the excess rain water. In the dry season, they help to maintain an even flow of water. Moreover, lakes moderate the climate of the surroundings and provide recreation. They also help maintain the aquatic ecosystem. They enhance natural beauty and help develop tourism.

Role of Rivers in the Economy

Rivers have played an important role throughout the human history. Water from the rivers is a basic natural resource. It is essential for various human activities. So, river banks have been attracting people from ancient times. The settlements grow bigger and bigger and they become big cities.

Activity : *Make a list of the towns in your district which are located on the bank of a river.*

In India, rivers are used for irrigation, navigation, hydro-power generation, etc. Such utilisation is of special importance in our country where agriculture is the main source of livelihood of the majority of its population.

Pollution of Rivers

The growing demand for water from rivers for domestic, agricultural, and industrial purposes affects the quality of water. More and more water is being extracted from the river thereby reducing its volume. Besides, a large amount of untreated sewage and industrial effluents are dumped into the river. This affects the quality of water as well as the self-cleansing capacity of the river. The water of the Ganga, for instance, given the adequate streamflow, is able to dilute pollution loads within 20 km. of large cities. However, the ever increasing urbanisation and industrialisation do not allow it to happen and the pollution level of many rivers has been rising. This has led to the launching of various action plans to clean the polluted rivers. Have you heard about the Ganga Action Plan? Can you think about life of human beings without fresh water? Discuss it with your friends in the class.

National River Conservation Plan (NRCP)

The work of the Ganga Action Plan (GAP) Phase-I, was started in 1985 and closed on 31st March, 2000. The Steering Committee of the National River Conservation Authority reviewed the progress of the GAP and the necessary correction on the basis of experiences gained from GAP Phase-I. These have

been applied to the major polluted rivers of the country under NRCP.

GAP Phase-II has been merged with the NRCP. The NRCP now covers 152 towns located along 27 interstate rivers in 16 states. A total of 215 schemes of pollution abatement have been sanctioned. So far, 69 schemes have been completed under this action plan. A million litres of sewage is targeted to be intercepted, diverted and treated.

EXERCISE

1. Choose the correct answer from the four alternatives given below :
 - (i) Which of the following drainage patterns takes the shape of the branches of a tree ?

(a) Dendritic	(b) Radial
(c) Rectangular	(d) Trellis.
 - (ii) Which one of the following is a right bank tributary of the Ganga ?

(a) Gandak	(b) Ghaghara
(c) Kosi	(d) Son.
 - (iii) Which one of the following falls into the Arabian Sea ?

(a) Godavari	(b) Kaveri
(c) Krishna	(d) Narmada.
 - (iv) Which one of the following is also known as the Dakshin Ganga ?

(a) Bhima	(b) Godavari
(c) Kaveri	(d) Krishna.
 - (v) Which one of the following is a salt water lake ?

(a) Barapani	(b) Dal
(c) Sambhar	(d) Wular.
2. Answer the following questions briefly :
 - (i) What is a drainage basin ?
 - (ii) What is a water divide ? Give an example.
 - (iii) Where does the Indus river rise ?
 - (iv) What are the two headwaters of the Ganga ? Where do they meet to form the Ganga ?
 - (v) Why does Brahmaputra have many riverine islands ?
 - (vi) Where do the rivers Narmada and Kaveri have their origin ?

- (vii) Which two rivers of the Peninsula flow through rift valley ?
- (viii) Name two freshwater lakes of the Himalayan region.
3. Below are given names of some lakes of India. Group them under two headings – natural and man-made.
- | | |
|-----------------------|---------------------|
| (a) Chilika | (b) Dal |
| (c) Gobind Sagar | (d) Hirakund |
| (e) Loktak | (f) Nagarjuna Sagar |
| (g) Nizam Sagar | (h) Pulicat |
| (i) Rana Pratap Sagar | (j) Nainital. |
4. Compare the Himalayan rivers with those of the Peninsula in respect of source, volume and flow.
5. Compare the Godavari basin with that of the Narmada.
6. Give three points of difference between the east flowing and the west flowing rivers of the Peninsular plateau.
7. State the economic benefits of lakes and rivers.
8. Explain how rivers are polluted and suggest measures to control pollution of rivers.

Map Skills

- (i) On an outline map of India mark and label the following rivers :
- | | |
|------------------|----------------------|
| (a) the Ganga | (b) the Narmada |
| (c) the Godavari | (d) the Kaveri |
| (e) the Satluj | (f) the Brahmaputra. |
- (ii) On an outline map of India mark and label the following lakes :
- | | |
|-------------|-------------|
| (a) Chilika | (b) Kolleru |
| (c) Loktak | (d) Pulicat |
| (e) Sambhar | (f) Wular. |

Project / Activity

Collect photographs showing a polluted river in Manipur and write five measures to be taken up in order to prevent it from pollution.

Chapter-3

Climate

You have learnt about the landforms and the drainage of India. In this chapter you will learn about the atmospheric conditions that prevail over our country. These are the three basic elements that one has to learn about the natural environment of any area. When you have gone through this chapter you will be able to answer questions like – Why do we wear woollens in January or why it is hot in May and why it rains in July ?

The atmospheric conditions of a place at a given time show the weather of that place. It may be sunny, rainy, etc. Thus weather refers to the state of the atmosphere over an area at a given time. On the other hand, climate refers to the sum total of weather conditions over a large area for a long period of time (about 35 years). However, the elements of weather and climate are the same i.e. temperature, precipitation, atmospheric pressure, humidity and wind. You may have observed that weather changes very often within a day. But there is some common pattern over a few weeks or months i.e., wet or dry, bright or cloudy, etc. On the basis of such generalised monthly atmospheric conditions, the year is divided into different seasons viz., summer, winter, etc.

Do you know that the world is divided into a number of climatic regions ? To which climatic region does India belong ? You will learn about it in this chapter.

India has a 'monsoon' type of climate. The countries of south and south-east Asia enjoy this type of climate. Though there is unity in the general pattern, regional variations in climatic conditions exist within the country. Let us examine how the two important elements viz., temperature and precipitation differ from place to place and season to season.

DO YOU KNOW ? *The word monsoon is derived from the Arabic word 'mausim' meaning season. Monsoons are the winds that change their direction with the change of seasons.*

In summer, day temperature rises up to 50°C in the Rajasthan desert whereas it is only 20°C in Gulmarg in Jammu and Kashmir. In winter, night temperature may be as low as minus 40°C in Drass in Jammu and Kashmir whereas it is around 22°C in Tiruvananthapuram (Kerala).

DO YOU KNOW ? *In the Thar Desert, the day temperature may rise to 50°C and drop to around 10°C the same night. But there is hardly any difference in day and night temperatures in Kerala or Andaman and Nicobar islands.*

Precipitation also differs in form as well as in its amount. It is in the form of snowfall in the higher regions of the Himalayas while it rains over the rest of the country. The amount of annual precipitation varies from 400 cm. in Meghalaya to 10 cm. in Ladakh and western Rajasthan. While most parts of the country receive rainfall from June to September, the coastal areas of Tamil Nadu get most of its rain during October and November.

In the northern plains, rainfall decreases from east to west. The coastal areas enjoy moderate climate but the interior parts of the country experience seasonal contrasts in temperature conditions. Such variations affect the lives of people in respect of the food they eat, the type of houses they live in and the clothes they wear.

- Find out :**
- *Why do the houses in the western coastal plain and the north-east have sloping roofs ?*
 - *Why do the houses in Rajasthan have flat roofs and thick walls ?*

Climatic Controls

The climate of any place is influenced by **latitude, altitude, pressure and wind system, distance from the sea, ocean currents and relief features**. Near the equator, the sun's rays are always vertical whereas they are oblique near the poles. So, the air temperature decreases from the equator towards the poles. If we go high up in the sky, the air becomes less dense and temperature decreases. The top of a hill is therefore cooler than a place located in the plains. Winds generally blow from high pressure to low pressure regions. A low pressure is associated with cyclones whereas a high pressure heralds fine weather. Thus pressure and wind system influences the temperature and rainfall conditions. As the sea exerts a moderating influence on climate, the coastal areas enjoy mild climate. But the interior parts of continents which are far away from the sea experience extreme climatic conditions i.e., very hot summers and very cold winters. We call this condition continentality. Any coastal region with warm or cold ocean currents flowing past it, will be warmed or cooled if the prevailing winds are onshore. Moreover, high mountains act as climatic barriers and they prevent cold or hot winds from entering a country. They also cause orographic rain on the windward side if they lie in the path of rain bearing winds. The leeward side becomes a rain-shadow area.

DO YOU KNOW ? *Onshore winds blow from sea to land while offshore winds blow from land to sea.*

The side of a mountain that faces the wind is called windward side while the other is known as leeward side. A rain-shadow area generally occurs on the leeward side of a mountain.

Factors Affecting India's Climate

Latitude

You know that the Tropic of Cancer divides the country into two halves. The southern half lies in the tropical zone whereas the northern half is in the sub-tropical zone. So, the climate of India has features of both tropical and sub-tropical climates.

Altitude

The northern Himalayan mountains have an average altitude of about 6000 metres. So, these mountains remain cool throughout the year. In winter, they prevent the cold winds of Siberia from entering the country. The Peninsular plateau has an average height of about 700 metres while the maximum elevation of the coastal areas is around 30 metres. Because of lower elevation, these regions are comparatively warm.

Pressure and winds

India lies in the belt of north-east trades. These winds originate from the sub-tropical high pressure belt of the northern hemisphere. They blow south, get deflected to the right due to the Coriolis force and blow further towards the Equatorial low pressure belt. Thus they blow from north-east to south-west over the country. Since the winds originate from land and blow over land they bring little or no rain. In this case, India should have been a desert, but it is not so. Why ?

Coriolis force : *This is also known as 'Ferrel's law' and it is caused by the earth's rotation. The Coriolis force is responsible for deflecting winds towards the right in the northern hemisphere and towards the left in the southern hemisphere.*

In winter, a high pressure area develops over central Asia in the north of the Himalayas. Cold dry winds from this high pressure region blow towards the low pressure regions over the oceans to the south. In summer, conditions are reversed i.e., a low pressure area is developed over central Asia as well as north-west India and a high pressure area over the oceans to the south. Thus moisture laden winds from the Indian Ocean blow in a south-easterly direction, cross the equator, turn right (Coriolis force) and move south-westerly towards the low pressure area over the north Indian plain. That is why they are known as **south-west monsoon winds**. They bring widespread rain all over the country.

The upper air circulation over India is dominated by a westerly jet stream. In winter, it blows over India south of the Himalayas roughly parallel to 26°N latitude. The western disturbances (cyclones) experienced in the northern and north-western parts of the country

are brought in by this westerly jet. In summer, the westerly jet stream moves north of the Himalayas but an easterly jet stream flows over Peninsular India roughly parallel to 14°N latitude.

Jet stream : These are the strongest winds in the troposphere found at a height of 10 to 15 km. from the earth's surface. Their speed varies from about 110 km/h in summer to about 185 km/h in winter. A number of jet streams have been identified. Mid latitude and sub-tropical jet streams are the most constant.

Western Disturbances : These are the temperate cyclones of the winter months brought in by the westerly jet from the Mediterranean region. They affect the weather conditions of the north and north-western parts of India in winter. Tropical cyclones are part of the easterly jet stream and occur during the south-west monsoon and retreating monsoon seasons. These cyclones affect the coastal regions of Andhra Pradesh and Odisha.

The Indian Monsoon

The climate of India is dominated by the monsoon winds. The sailors who came to India in ancient times first noticed the phenomenon of the monsoon. They took advantage of the reversal in the wind system as they came by sailing ships at the mercy of winds. The Arabs who also came to India as traders named this wind system 'monsoon'.

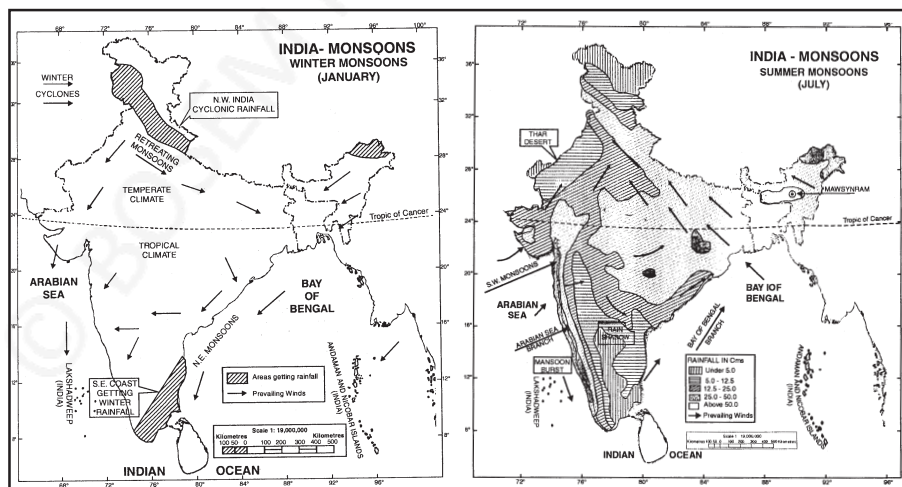


Figure 3-1 Winter Monsoon (January). Figure 3-2 Summer Monsoon (July).

To understand the mechanism of the monsoons, one should have the knowledge of the following facts.

- (a) Differential heating and cooling of land and water creates low pressure over India and high pressure over the seas around it.
- (b) Shifting of the position of Inter Tropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) over the Ganga plain in summer. Normally it is positioned about 5°N of the equator and known as the equatorial trough. It is referred to as monsoon trough during the south-west monsoon season.
- (c) Presence of the high pressure area, east of Madagascar over the Indian ocean at 20°S. The intensity and position of this high pressure affects the Indian monsoon.
- (d) Intense heating of the Tibetan plateau during summer results in strong vertical air currents and the formation of low pressure over the plateau at about 9 km. above sea level.
- (e) Movement of the westerly jet stream to the north of the Himalayas in early summer and the presence of the tropical easterly jet stream over the Indian peninsula at 14°N during summer.

Inter Tropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) is a trough of low pressure in equatorial latitudes where the north-east and the south-east trade winds meet. This zone lies parallel to the equator but moves north or south with the apparent movement of the sun.

Moreover, it has been observed that changes in the pressure conditions over the southern oceans also affect the monsoons. Normally, the tropical eastern south Pacific Ocean has high pressure when there is low pressure over the tropical eastern Indian Ocean. But in certain years, there is reversal in the pressure conditions and the tropical eastern south Pacific Ocean has low pressure and the tropical eastern Indian Ocean experiences high pressure. Such a change in pressure conditions is referred to as Southern Oscillation (SO). The difference in pressure over Tahiti in the Pacific Ocean (18°S, 149°W), and Darwin in the Indian Ocean (12°30'S, 131°E) is calculated to predict the intensity of the monsoons. If the pressure differences are found to be negative, it does mean a bad monsoon. The Southern Oscillation is connected with the El Nino event during which a warm ocean current appears along the Peruvian coast in place of the cold Peruvian Current. Therefore, this phenomenon is also known as ENSO (El Nino Southern Oscillation) event.

El Nino : *This is a warm ocean current that appears occasionally along the coast of Peru in place of the cold Peruvian Current. 'El Nino' is a Spanish word meaning 'the child'. It refers to the child Jesus Christ because it usually appears around Christmas time.*

The Onset of the Monsoon and Withdrawal

The Monsoons are not steady because they encounter different atmospheric conditions on its way over the warm tropical seas. The duration of the monsoon is about 110 days (from early June to mid-September). When it arrives, rainfall increases suddenly and continues for several days. This is known as the 'burst' of the monsoon. The monsoon normally strikes at the southern tip of the Indian Peninsula by the first week of June. The Peninsula divides it into two – the Arabian Sea branch and the Bay of Bengal branch. The Bay of Bengal branch advances rapidly and reaches the north-east in the first week of June. The Himalayan mountains cause the monsoon winds to deflect westward towards the Ganga plains. The Arabian Sea branch reaches Mumbai around June 10 and advances over Saurashtra – Kuchchh and the central part of the country by mid-June. The Arabian Sea and the Bay of Bengal branches unite over the north-western part of the Ganga plains. Delhi gets the monsoon showers from the Bay of Bengal branch around June 29. By the first week of July, the monsoon reaches western Uttar Pradesh, Punjab, Haryana and eastern Rajasthan and by mid-July, it covers the whole country.

The withdrawal or retreat of the monsoon starts from western Punjab by early September. It withdraws from the northern half of the Peninsula by mid-October. By early December, the monsoon has completely withdrawn from the country.

The Andaman and Nicobar islands experience the very first monsoon showers by the end of April. The withdrawal from the islands takes place by mid-December when the Indian mainland is under the influence of the N.E. Monsoon.

The Seasons

The Indian monsoon has a distinct seasonal pattern. The weather conditions vary from one season to the other. Thus four different seasons are identified in India. They are the cold season, the hot season, the south-west monsoon season and the retreating monsoon season.

The Cold Season

The cold season starts in December and stays till February. During this season, the north-east trade winds blow over the country. As these winds originate from land, they do not provide rain and it is a dry season. However, they provide rain in the eastern coast of Tamil Nadu since they pick up moisture from the sea. Temperature decreases from south to the north and therefore the north-western and northern parts experience frost and snowfall. A feeble high pressure area is also developed over the plains of the north-west, with light winds moving outwards from this region. Because of the relief, these winds blow down the Ganga valley from the west and the north-west. The weather is generally fine throughout the country characterized by clear skies, low temperature and light winds. Such a fine weather is occasionally disturbed by Western Disturbances which

originate from the Mediterranean sea. They cross Iraq, Iran, Afghanistan, Pakistan and finally reach the northern parts of the country. In fact, they are brought into this country by the westerly jet stream. They cause light winter rain which is most beneficial to 'rabi' crops.

The Hot Season

The hot season begins in March and lasts till the end of May. As the sun moves apparently towards north the global heat belt also shifts northward. Thus temperature increases rapidly and in May it is as high as 48°C in the north-western parts of the country. The rapid rise in temperature results in the falling of air pressure. Thus by the end of May, an elongated low-pressure area extending from the Thar Desert to Patna and Chotanagpur plateau is developed. Circulation of air begins to set in around this low-pressure trough.

The season is so dry that very often hot, gusty, dry winds blow during the day over the north and north-western parts of the country. These winds are known as '**loo**' and exposure to them may be fatal. Dust storms associated with light rain occur during May in northern India and they lower the temperature to some extent. Local thunderstorms are also common and they are characterized by violent winds, torrential rain, hail and thunder. In Assam and West Bengal these thunderstorms occur in the evening and they are called **Nor'westers**. Locally, these storms are known as 'Kaal Baisakhi' in West Bengal.

Towards the end of May, Kerala and Karnataka receive pre-monsoon showers. These showers help in the early ripening of mangoes and therefore, they are known as '**mango showers**'.

The South-west Monsoon Season

By early June, the low pressure area over the northern plains is so pronounced that it even attracts the south-east trades of the southern hemisphere. Thus, moisture-laden winds from the Indian Ocean rush towards this low pressure region. These winds are deflected to the right when they cross the equator and blow in a south-westerly direction. So, they enter the Indian Peninsula as the south-west monsoon. The windward side of the Western Ghats gets very heavy rainfall of over 250 cm. Though the Deccan plateau lies in the rain-shadow area of the Western Ghats, it receives some amount of rain. The north-eastern region receives the maximum rainfall of this season. **Mawsynram**, in the southern flank of the Khasi Hills of Meghalaya is the rainiest place in the world. In the Ganga valley, rainfall decreases from the east to the west.

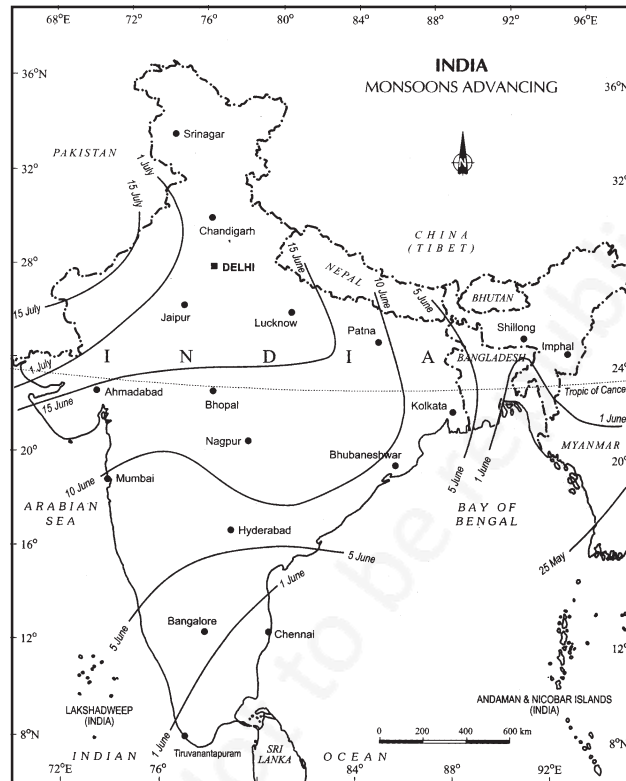


Figure 3.3 Advancing Monsoon.

An important feature of the monsoon is the tendency to have ‘breaks’ in rainfall i.e., rainless intervals. These breaks are related to the movement of the monsoon trough. When the axis of the monsoon trough lies over the northern plains, rainfall is good in these areas. If the axis moves closer to the Himalayan foothills, there are long breaks in the monsoon over the plains and widespread rain occurs in the catchment areas of the Himalayan rivers. These heavy rains cause devastating floods over the plains. The tropical depressions that form at the head of the Bay of Bengal move towards the mainland. They usually follow the axis of the ‘monsoon trough of low pressure’. Thus they also determine the amount and duration of monsoon rains.

The monsoons are well known for their uncertainties. The alternation of heavy rain and partial breaks vary in frequency and duration. While it causes widespread floods in one part, it also causes droughts in other parts. It is irregular in its arrival as well as in its retreat. Thus it often disturbs the farming schedule of millions of farmers in the country.

The Retreating Monsoon Season

Due to the apparent movement of the sun towards the south during October and November, the low pressure or monsoon trough of the northern plains also moves towards the south over the Bay of Bengal. This shifting is associated with the formation of cyclonic storms which originate from the Andaman sea. These cyclones are referred to as 'post monsoon cyclones' and they often hit the eastern coasts of India. They are very destructive to life and property particularly in the thickly populated deltas of the Godavari, the Krishna and the Kaveri. Sometimes they move towards the north and affect the weather conditions of the north-eastern states.

The low-pressure of the northern plains is now replaced by a high pressure system. As a result, the south-west monsoon winds start withdrawing. By the first week of October, the south-west monsoon withdraws from the northern plains. The season is a transitional period from hot-wet conditions to cool-dry conditions. The retreat of the monsoon is marked by clear skies and rise in day temperature. Because of high temperature and humidity, the weather becomes oppressive during the day. Such a weather is known as 'October heat' in the northern plains. By the end of October, the mercury begins to fall rapidly.

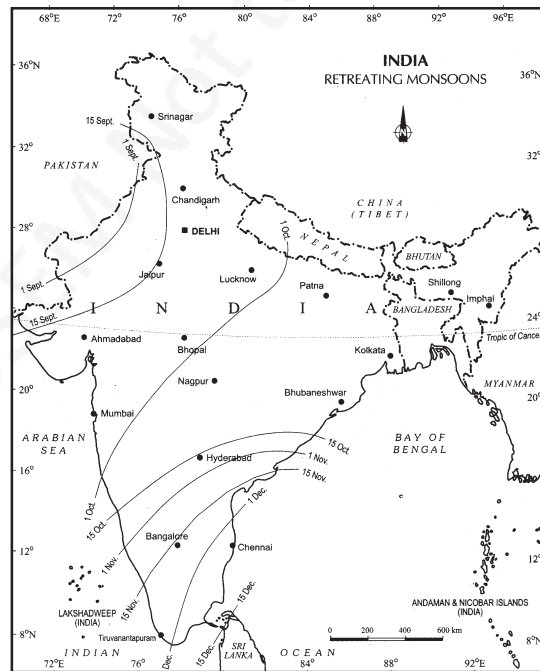


Figure 3-4 Retreating monsoon.

Distribution of Rainfall

The western coastal plain and the north-eastern parts of India receive more than 400 cm. of rainfall annually. In western Rajasthan, northern Gujarat, Haryana and Punjab it is less than 60 cm. annually. Rainfall is also low in the interior parts of the Deccan plateau and east of the Sahyadris. You know that these regions lie in the rain-shadow area of the Western Ghats. Another region of low precipitation is around Leh in Jammu and Kashmir. The remaining parts of the country receive moderate rainfall. In the Himalayan region, precipitation is in the form of snowfall. The annual rainfall in India varies from year to year due to the uncertain nature of the monsoons. While areas of high rainfall are liable to floods, areas of low rainfall are drought-prone.

Unifying Role of the Monsoon

You know that the Himalayas protect the country from the cold winds of Siberia. So northern India has higher temperatures in comparison with other regions on the same latitudes. Likewise, the peninsular plateau has moderate temperatures because of sea influence from three sides. In spite of these moderating influences, there are great variations in temperature conditions. However, the unifying influence of the monsoon is noticeable in the country. The reversal of the wind system and associated weather conditions provide a rhythmic cycle of seasons. The uncertainties of rain and uneven distribution have become a matter of routine. The landscape of the country, plant and animal life, agricultural activity,

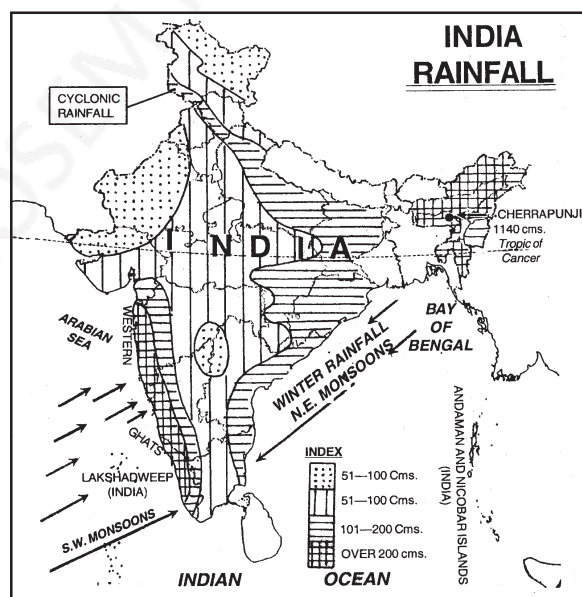


Figure 3-4 Annual Rainfall.

the life of the people and their festivities respond to the seasonal rhythm of the monsoons. Every year, the people of India eagerly await the arrival of the monsoon. Thus the monsoon winds bind the whole country by supplying water to set the agricultural activities in motion.

Climate and Human Life

There is a close relation between climate and human life. Climate affects the life of the people directly or indirectly. You know that in tropical regions cyclones are very common during summer. These cyclones are caused by the differences in temperature and pressure conditions on the earth's surface. Do you remember that temperature and pressure are the elements of weather and climate? You must have seen from televisions the devastation caused by the cyclones. They cause much damage to life and property. Let us read the following text which describes one of the worst natural disasters of the 20th century.

'On 29th October, 1999, a Super Cyclone with a wind speed of over 300 km. per hour lashed the densely populated coastal districts of Odisha. Torrential rain persisted for more than two days. The storm surge created the Bay of Bengal water level 30 feet higher than normal. The Super Cyclone travelled more than 250 kilometres inland and within a period of 36 hours ravaged more than 200 lakh hectares of land, devouring trees and vegetation, leaving behind a huge trail of destruction. The violent cyclone was merciless and killed thousands and devastated millions of people. In fact, it broke the backbone of the state of Odisha'.

EXERCISE

1. Choose the correct answer from the four alternatives given below :
 - (i) The monsoon strikes at the southern tip of the Indian peninsula by the
 - (a) first week of May
 - (b) first week of June
 - (c) first week of July
 - (d) first week of August.
 - (ii) The monsoon covers the whole of India by
 - (a) mid-June
 - (b) mid-July
 - (c) mid-August
 - (d) mid-September.

- (iii) The withdrawal of the monsoon starts from western Punjab by
- (a) early August (b) early September
(c) early October (d) early November.
- (iv) The wind blowing over the north and north-western parts of India in summer is
- (a) Nor'wester (b) North-east trade winds
(c) Loo (d) South-east trade winds.
- (v) Which one of the following causes light winter rain in the northern parts of India ?
- (a) Tropical cyclone (b) South-west monsoon
(c) North-east monsoon (d) Western disturbances.
2. Answer the following questions briefly.
- (i) What are the factors that influence the climate of India ?
- (ii) How do Jet streams affect the climate of India ?
- (iii) What are the four different seasons of India ?
- (iv) What do you mean by 'break' in monsoon ?
- (v) What are 'post monsoon cyclones' ?
- (vi) How do the post monsoon cyclone originate ?
- (vii) What do you mean by 'October heat' ?
- (viii) How does "October" Heat occur ?
3. Give reasons as to why
- (i) the amount of rainfall decreases from the east to the west in the Ganga plain.
- (ii) the Tamil Nadu coast receives winter rain.
- (iii) seasonal reversal of wind direction takes place over the Indian sub-continent.
- (iv) the bulk of India's rainfall is concentrated over a few months.
- (v) the interior parts of the Deccan plateau receive little rain.
4. Give a brief account of the mechanism of the monsoons.
5. Give an account of the onset of the south-west monsoon in India.
6. Write an account of weather conditions of the cold season of India.
7. Discuss the regional variations in the climatic conditions of India with examples.
8. Describe the characteristics and effects of the monsoon rainfall in India.

Map Skills :

Draw an outline map of India and show the following.

- (i) Areas having annual rainfall of over 400 cm.
- (ii) Areas having less than 20 cm. of annual rainfall.
- (iii) The direction of the south-west monsoon over India.

Project / Activity

- (i) Collect information from newspapers about the nature of rainfall in the north-eastern region of India during the south-west monsoon period.
- (ii) Identify songs, dances, festivals and food items associated with the summer season in Manipur and see whether they have some commonality with other regions of India.

Do it Yourself

1. In Table – 1, the average monthly temperature and rainfall of five stations are given. Convert them into temperature and rainfall graphs. One such graph is already prepared for you. It will be a great joy of learning for you.
2. Now, do the following activities.
 - (i) Re-arrange the five stations according to their distance from the equator.
 - (ii) Name two rainiest stations.
 - (iii) Name two driest stations.
 - (iv) Name two stations with extreme climate.
 - (v) Name two stations influenced by the Bay of Bengal branch of south-west monsoon.
 - (vi) Name two stations influenced by the Arabian Sea branch of south-west monsoon.
 - (vii) Name two hottest stations in the month of May.
 - (viii) Name two stations influenced by both branches of the south-west monsoon.
 - (ix) Name two coldest stations in the month of January.
 - (x) Name two stations having highest annual range of temperature.

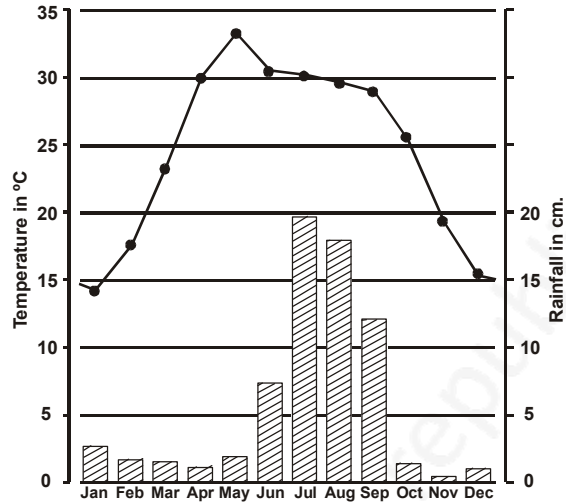


Figure 3-5 Temp. & Rainfall graph of Delhi.

TABLE – 1

Stations	Latitute	Altitude (Metres)	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec	Annual Rainfall
Temp. °C Tiruvanapuram	8°29'N	61	27	27	28	29	29	27	26	26	26	27	27	26	182
Rainfall cm.			2	2	4	11	21	36	22	15	14	27	21	7	
Temp. °C Nagpur	21°9'N	312	21	24	28	33	35	32	28	27	28	27	23	21	125
Rainfall cm.			1	2	2	2	2	22	38	29	19	5	2	1	
Temp. °C Delhi	29°N	219	14	17	23	30	33	33	30	29	29	26	19	16	67
Rainfall cm.			3	2	1	1	2	7	19	18	12	1	–	1	
Temp. °C Jodhpur	26°18'N	224	17	19	27	30	33	34	31	29	20	27	20	15	37
Rainfall cm.			1	1	–	–	1	3	11	13	6	1	–	–	
Temp. °C Shillong	24°34'N	1461	10	11	16	18	19	20	21	21	20	17	13	10	226
Rainfall cm.			1	3	6	15	29	48	36	34	30	19	4	1	

Chapter-4

Natural Vegetation and Wild Life

Natural vegetation refers to a plant community which has grown naturally without human aid. If the plant community has been left undisturbed by human beings for a long period, it is known as virgin vegetation. Though cultivated crops, fruits and orchards form a part of vegetation, they are not natural vegetation in the true sense.

Did you ever observe the type of trees, bushes, grasses and birds in the fields in and around your school? Can you imagine the types of bio-forms that should be available in a vast country like India? With about 47,000 plant species India occupies tenth place in the world and fourth in Asia in plant diversity. There are about 15,000 flowering plants in the country. She has also many non-flowering plants such as ferns, algae and fungi. Moreover, she has 89,000 species of animals and a variety of fish.

DO YOU KNOW ? *Exotic plants are those which have come from outside India while the virgin vegetation, which are purely Indian are called endemic or indigenous species.*

All the plants of a particular region are known as flora whereas the species of animals are called fauna. The diversity in flora and fauna is caused by the following factors.

Relief (land)

The nature of land affects the natural vegetation directly or indirectly. Do you think that mountains, plateaus and plains have the same type of vegetation? No, the fertile plains are mostly used for agriculture. The rough terrains of the mountains and the plateaus are covered with different types of woodlands and grasslands.

Soil

Different types of soils support different types of vegetation. Thus, we find cactus and thorny bushes in the sandy soils of the desert. While wet, marshy, deltaic soils support mangroves, the hill slopes with some depth of soil support conical trees.

Climate (temperature)

In the Himalayas, because of the decrease in temperature with height, vegetation changes from tropical to sub-tropical, temperate and alpine vegetation.

Photoperiod (sunlight)

The duration of sunlight varies at different places due to differences in latitude, altitude, season, etc. Because of the longer duration of sunlight, trees grow faster in summer.

Find out : *Why do the southern slopes of the Shiwaliks have thick vegetation cover as compared to the northern slopes ?*

Precipitation

In India, areas of heavy rainfall have dense vegetation as compared to other areas of less rainfall.

Find out : *Why are the western slopes of the Western Ghats covered with thick forests ?*

Do you know the importance of forests in the life of human beings ? Forests play an important role in enhancing the quality of environment. They modify local climate, supply oxygen, check soil erosion, regulate stream flow, support a variety of industries, provide livelihood for several communities and offer scenic view for recreation. Moreover, they control temperature and wind speed and cause rainfall. They also provide humus to the soil and shelter to the wildlife. But the area under forests in the country has been decreasing due to the growing demand for cultivated land, development of industries and mining, urbanisation, etc.

Activity : *On Sundays and holidays, plant few saplings in your locality and watch them to grow.*

Ecosystem

Groups of plant communities occur in areas having similar climatic conditions. In general, the nature of the plants in an area determines the animal life in that area. Thus all the plants and animals in an area are interdependent to each other and form an **ecosystem**. Human beings are also a part of the ecosystem. But they cause much damage to it. The greed of human beings leads to overutilisation of natural vegetation and wildlife. They cut the trees and kill the animals creating ecological imbalance. Therefore, some of the plants and animals are on the verge of extinction.

A **biome** is a large ecosystem on land having distinct types of vegetation and animal life. The biomes are identified on the basis of plants.

Types of Vegetation

In India, five major vegetation types can be identified. They are (i) Tropical Evergreen Forests (ii) Tropical Deciduous Forests (iii) Tropical Thorn Forests and Scrubs (iv) Mountain Forest and (v) Mangrove Forests.

Tropical Evergreen Forests

These forests are found in heavy rainfall (more than 200 cm.) areas of the Western Ghats, Lakshadweep, Andaman and Nicobar islands, Upper parts of Assam and Tamil Nadu coast. As these regions are warm and wet throughout the year, they have a luxuriant vegetation such as trees, shrubs and creepers forming a multilayered structure. The trees attain great heights of more than 60 metres and never shed their leaves. So these forests appear green all the year round. Important trees include ebony, mahogany, rosewood, rubber and cinchona. Some of the animals found in these forests are elephants, monkey, lemur and deer. The one horned rhinoceros live in the forests of Assam. There are plenty of birds, bats, sloth, scorpions and snails in these forests.

Tropical Deciduous Forests

These forests are so widespread in India that they are also known as the **monsoon forests**. They are found in regions having rainfall between 70 cm and 200 cm. The trees shed their leaves during hot, dry summer that lasts for about two months. On the basis of rainfall, these forests are further divided into moist and dry deciduous. The moist deciduous forests are found in the north-eastern states, foothills of the Himalayas, Jharkhand, west Odisha, Chhattisgarh and eastern slopes of the Western Ghats where the rainfall is between 100 cm and 200 cm. Teak is the most important species of this type of forest. Other commercially important species include bamboos, sal, shisham, sandalwood, khair, kusum and mulberry.

The dry deciduous forests are found in the plains of Bihar and Uttar Pradesh and in some parts of the peninsular plateau where the rainfall is between 70 cm and 100 cm. Trees such as teak, sal, peepal and neem grow in open stretches but most of the forests have been cleared for cultivation.

The common animals found in these forests include lion, tiger, deer and elephant. A variety of birds, lizards, snakes, and tortoises are also found.

Thorn Forests and Scrubs

In areas where the rainfall is less than 70 cm, the natural vegetation consists of thorny trees and bushes. These stunted forests are found in the semi-arid regions of Gujarat, Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, Uttar Pradesh, Punjab and Haryana. The scattered trees have long roots which penetrate deep into the soil to get water. The leaves and stems are succulent to conserve water. Acacias, palms, euphorbias and cacti are the important species. These forests give way to thorny scrubs in arid areas. Rats, mice, rabbits, fox, wolf, tiger, lion, wild ass and camels are found in these forests.

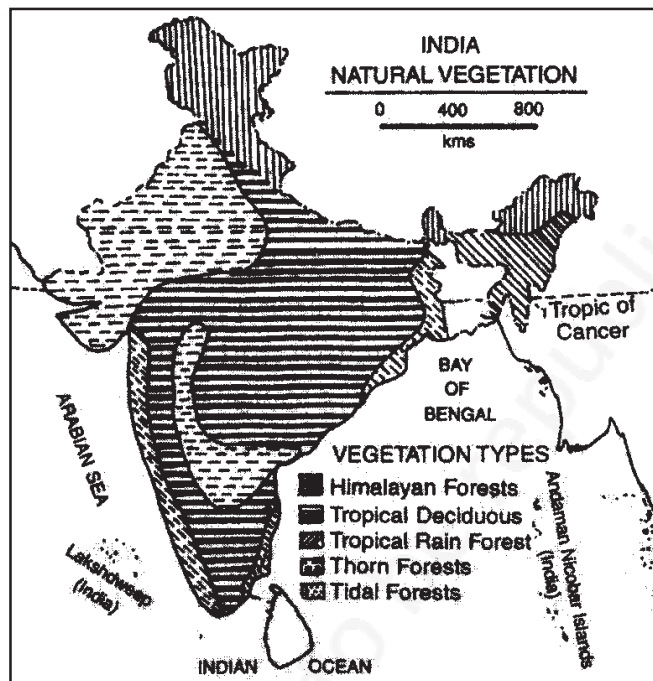


Figure 4-1. India : Natural Vegetation.

Mountain Forests

In high mountains, the decrease in temperature with increasing height leads to the change in natural vegetation. Thus between a height of 1000 and 2000 metres, sub-tropical evergreen trees such as oak and chestnuts grow. Temperate forests containing coniferous trees like pine, silver fir, spruce, deodar and cedar are found between the altitudes of 1500 and 3000 metres. These forests cover the southern slopes of the Himalayas, higher regions in southern and north-east India. The coniferous trees are replaced by shrubs, scrubs and Alpine grasslands at a height of 3,500 metres and above. These grasslands are used for grazing by nomadic tribes like the Gujjars and the Bakarwals. At high altitudes, tundra vegetation such as moss and lichens are found. Some of the animals found in these forests are Kashmir stag, spotted deer, jack rabbit, yak, snow leopard, squirrels, bear, red panda, sheep and goats.

Mangrove Forests

The mangrove or tidal forests occur in the coastal areas influenced by tides. Mud and silt are deposited in these coasts. Mangrove trees with their roots submerged under water grow densely in the deltas of the Ganga, the Mahanadi, the Godavari, the Krishna and the Kaveri. Sundari trees are found especially in the Ganga-Brahmaputra delta. Can

you remember the other name of the Ganga-Brahmaputra delta which is named after Sundari trees? These trees provide durable hard timber. Palm, coconut, agar, etc., also grow in some areas of the delta.

The Ganga-Brahmaputra delta is noted for the Royal Bengal Tiger. Crocodiles, Gharials, turtles and snakes are also found in these forests.

Discuss with your friends in the class

What would happen if plants and animals were removed from the earth's surface? Can we survive without them?

Some Medicinal Plants of India

The following are the commonly used medicinal plants in India.

- Arjun – The juice of leaves is used to cure earache. It is also used to regulate blood pressure.
- Babool – Leaves are used to cure eye sores. Its gum is used as a tonic.
- Jamun – The juice from ripe fruit is used to prepare vinegar which has digestive properties. The powder of the seed is used for controlling diabetes.
- Kachnar – It is used to cure asthma and ulcers. The buds and roots are good for digestive disorders.
- Neem – It has antibiotic and antibacterial properties.
- Sarpagandha – It is found only in India and used for treatment of blood pressure.
- Tulsi Plant – It is used to cure cold and cough.

Make a list of the medicinal plants found in Manipur. Which plants are used as medicines to cure some diseases? Consult with your parents about it.

Wild Life

India is rich in wild life. She has more than 89,000 of animal species and 1200 species of birds. Moreover, there are 2,500 species of fish in its fresh and marine waters.

Among the mammals, elephants are the most important. They are found in the hot-wet forests of Assam, Karnataka and Kerala. Assam is also noted for its one-horned rhinoceros which live in the marshy lands of Kaziranga. Arid regions of the Rann of Kachchh and the Thar desert are the habitat for camels and wild ass. Indian bison, nilgai (blue bull), Chousingha (four horned antelope), gazel and various species of deer are the other mammals of India. The country has also different species of monkeys.

DO YOU KNOW ? *In India, Wildlife Protection Act was implemented in 1972.*

You will be surprised to know that India is the only country in the world which has both tigers and lions. Tigers are found in the Sundarbans of West Bengal, forests of Madhya Pradesh and the Himalayan region. The Gir forest in Gujarat is the natural habitat of the Indian lion. Among the animals of prey, leopards are important. They too, belong to the cat family.

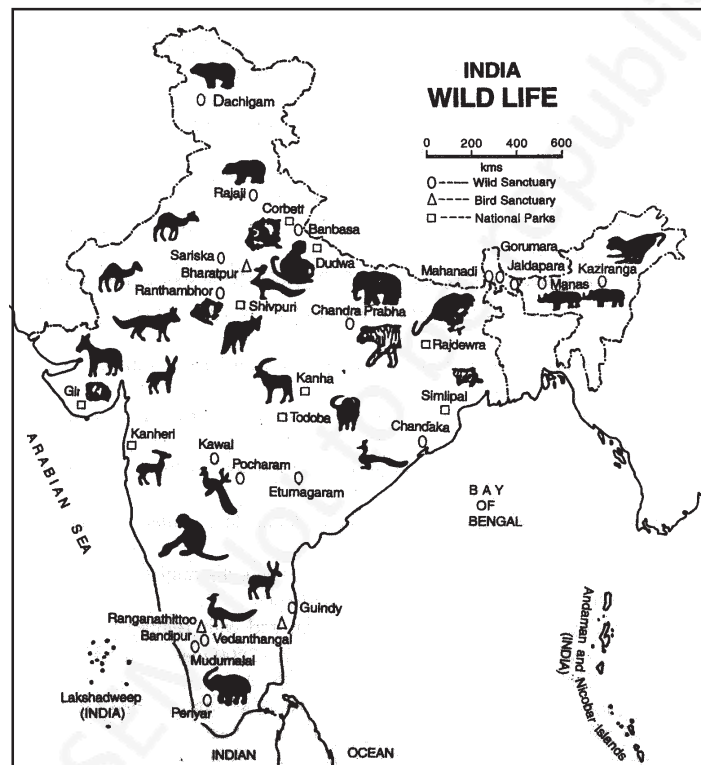


Figure 4-2. India : Wild Life Reserves.

The Himalayas give shelter to a hardy range of animals, which can withstand severe cold. Thus yak, the shaggy horned wild ox, the Tibetan antelope, the bharal (blue sheep), wild sheep and the Kiang (Tibetan wild ass) are found in Ladakh's freezing heights. The shaggy horned wild ox weighs around one tonne. Moreover, the ibex, bear, snow-leopard and very rare red panda live in certain pockets.

Crocodiles, gharials and turtles are found in rivers, lakes and coastal areas. Gharial is the only species of a variety of crocodile, found in the world today.

With more than 1,200 species, bird life is colourful in India. Among the birds inhabiting the forests and wetlands of the country, peacocks, pheasants, ducks, parakeets, cranes and pigeons are important.

Need and Various Measures for Conservation

We get our crops from a bio-diverse environment i.e., from the reserve of edible plants. We also procure many medicinal plants. We choose the required animals from the large reserve provided by nature. These animals provide us draught power, transportation, meat, milk and eggs. Fish give us protein. Even the insects help in pollination of crops and fruit trees. They also exert biological control on other harmful insects. Thus every species has a role to play in the ecosystem. Here, the need for conservation arises. You have learnt that the ecosystem has been disturbed due to excessive exploitation of the plants and animal resources by human beings. In fact, more than 1,200 plant species are endangered and 20 species are extinct. A few animal species are also endangered and some have become extinct.

The major threat to ecosystem is the hunting of animals for commercial purposes. The greedy hunters kill the animals for the sake of money. Other causes such as reckless cutting of the forests to bring land under cultivation and settlement, pollution of air, land and water due to chemical and industrial waste, acid deposit, etc., are also responsible for ecological imbalance.

The government has taken various measures to protect the natural ecosystem of the country.

(a) To protect the flora and fauna, the government has set up eighteen biosphere reserves in different parts of the country. Out of these, four biosphere reserves viz., the Sundarbans in West Bengal, Nanda Devi in Uttarakhand, the Gulf of Mannar in Tamil Nadu and the Nilgiris (Karnataka, Kerala and Tamil Nadu) have been included in the world network of Biosphere reserves.

Migratory Birds

Do you know that migratory birds from far off places like Siberia visit some of the wetlands of India in winter? Among them, Siberian crane come in large numbers. The Rann of Kachchh where the desert merges with the sea is one such favourable place for birds. Flamingo with their brilliant, pink plumage, come in thousands to build nest mounds from the salty mud and raise their young ones. This is one among many other attractive sights in India. Find out other wetlands.

Eighteen Biosphere Reserves

1. Sundarbans
2. Gulf of Mannar
3. The Nilgiris
4. Nanda Devi
5. Nokrek
6. Great Nicobar
7. Manas
8. Simlipal
9. Dihang-Dibang
10. Dibru Saikhowa
11. Agasthyamalai
12. Kanchenjunga
13. Pachmari
14. Achanakmar-Amarkantak
15. Kachchh
16. Cold Desert (Himachal Pradesh)
17. Sheshachalam
18. Panna

(b) The government has been providing financial and technical assistance to many Botanical Gardens in the country since 1992.

(c) Project Tiger, Project Rhino, Project Great Indian Bustard and many other eco-developmental projects have been introduced by the government.

(d) In order to preserve Natural heritage, 100 National Parks, 515 wildlife sanctuaries and zoological gardens have been set up in different parts of the country.

Now, we know the importance of the natural ecosystem for our own survival. So, every one of us has a responsibility to protect and preserve the flora and fauna of the country.

EXERCISE

1. Choose the correct answer from the four alternatives given below :
 - (i) Rubber trees are found in the areas of rainfall between

(a) 50 – 70 cm.	(b) 70 – 100 cm.
(c) 100 – 150 cm.	(d) 200 – 300 cm.
 - (ii) To which one of the following types of vegetation do cinchona trees belong ?

(a) Tidal	(b) Tropical Evergreen
(c) Tropical Deciduous	(d) Himalayan.
 - (iii) Teak is the most important species of the

(a) Tropical Evergreen Forests	(b) Tropical Deciduous Forests
(c) Mangrove Forests	(d) Thorn Forests.
 - (iv) Which one of the following is included in the world network of bio-reserve ?

(a) Simlipal	(b) Nokrek
(c) Sundarbans	(d) Pachmari.
 - (v) In which of the following states is the Manas bio-reserve located ?

(a) Arunachal Pradesh	(b) Assam
(c) Odisha	(d) West Bengal.
2. Answer the following questions briefly.
 - (i) How does an ecosystem form ?
 - (ii) What is a biome ? On what basis are biomes identified ?
 - (iii) Why are biosphere reserves set up in India ? Give two examples.

- (iv) What are the factors affecting the distribution of plants and animals in India ?
 - (v) Name two animals having habitat in Mangrove and Mountain Forests.
3. Distinguish between
- (i) Flora and Fauna
 - (ii) Tropical Evergreen and Tropical Deciduous Forests.
4. What are the different types of vegetation found in India ? Write a brief account of the vegetation of semi-arid regions.
5. Give an account of the wild life in India.
6. What are the various measures taken by the government to protect the natural ecosystem of the country ?
7. Why does the need for conservation of flora and fauna arise ? What causes imbalance in the ecosystem ?
8. 'Quite a few species of plants and animals are endangered in India'. Explain this statement.

Map Skills

Draw an outline map of India and show the following.

- (i) Areas of Tropical Evergreen Forests.
- (ii) Areas of Mangrove Forests
- (iii) Two National Parks each in Eastern, Western, Northern and Southern parts of India.

Project / Activity

- (i) Find out the relation between depletion of forests and ecological imbalance.
- (ii) Collect some medicinal plants from your locality and write their uses.
- (iii) Write a paragraph describing the importance of wildlife.
- (iv) Plant a sapling on your birthday and watch it to grow.

Chapter-5

Population

Just think – ‘What would happen if there were no human beings on this earth’ ? Resources would remain intact and there would be no social and cultural environment. The people are responsible for the development of the economy and society. They learn how to use resources and become themselves resources. Coal is a rock until people invented the technology to obtain it and make it a ‘resource’. Natural events like cyclones and earthquakes (Tsunami) become a ‘disaster’ only when they affect human population. Therefore, population is the pivotal element in social studies.

Human beings are producers and consumers of the earth’s resources. So, it is important to know how many people are there in a country, where do they live, why are their numbers increasing and what are their qualities. The census of India provides us with information regarding the population of our country.

Census

An official enumeration of population in a country is known as census. Though the first census in India was held in 1872, a complete census was taken again in 1881. Since then, censuses have been held regularly after every ten years. The Indian Census is an important source of demographic, social and economic data. When was the last census held.

Our main concern is to give answer to the following questions about the population.

(i) *Population size and distribution* – How many people are there in India and where do they live ?

(ii) *Population growth and population change* – How has the population grown and changed through time ?

(iii) *Characteristics or qualities of the population* – What are their age, sex-composition, literacy levels, occupational structure and health conditions ?

Population Size and Distribution by Numbers

The total population of India according to the 2011 census is 1210 million. It accounts for 17.5 per cent of the world's population. These 1.21 billion people are unevenly distributed over India's vast area of 3.28 million square kilometres.

The 2011 census shows that Uttar Pradesh is the most populous state of India. With a population size of 199 million, Uttar Pradesh accounts for 16.5 per cent of India's population. Sikkim, on the other hand, has a population of about 6 lakhs and Lakshadweep has only 64 thousand people.

About half of India's population lives in the states of Uttar Pradesh, Maharashtra, Bihar, West Bengal and Andhra Pradesh. These five states account for 49 per cent of India's population. Rajasthan, the largest state of India, accounts for only 5.6 per cent of the country's population.

Find out the reasons for the uneven distribution of population in India.

Distribution by Density

The population density of India in 2011 was 382 persons per sq. km. Population density is calculated as the number of persons per unit area. West Bengal has a population density of 1028 persons per sq.km., whereas Arunachal Pradesh has only 17 persons per sq. km.

India is one of the most densely populated countries of the world. Bangladesh and Japan are the two countries which have higher population densities than India. Fig. 5.1 shows the population density of India in the year 2011.

Find out the population densities of Bangladesh and Japan.

Note the states with population densities between 101 and 250 persons per sq. km. These regions are sparsely populated due to rugged terrain and unfavourable climatic conditions. Find out the states with population densities below 100 persons per sq. km. Can you give the main reason why these states have the lowest population densities in India ?

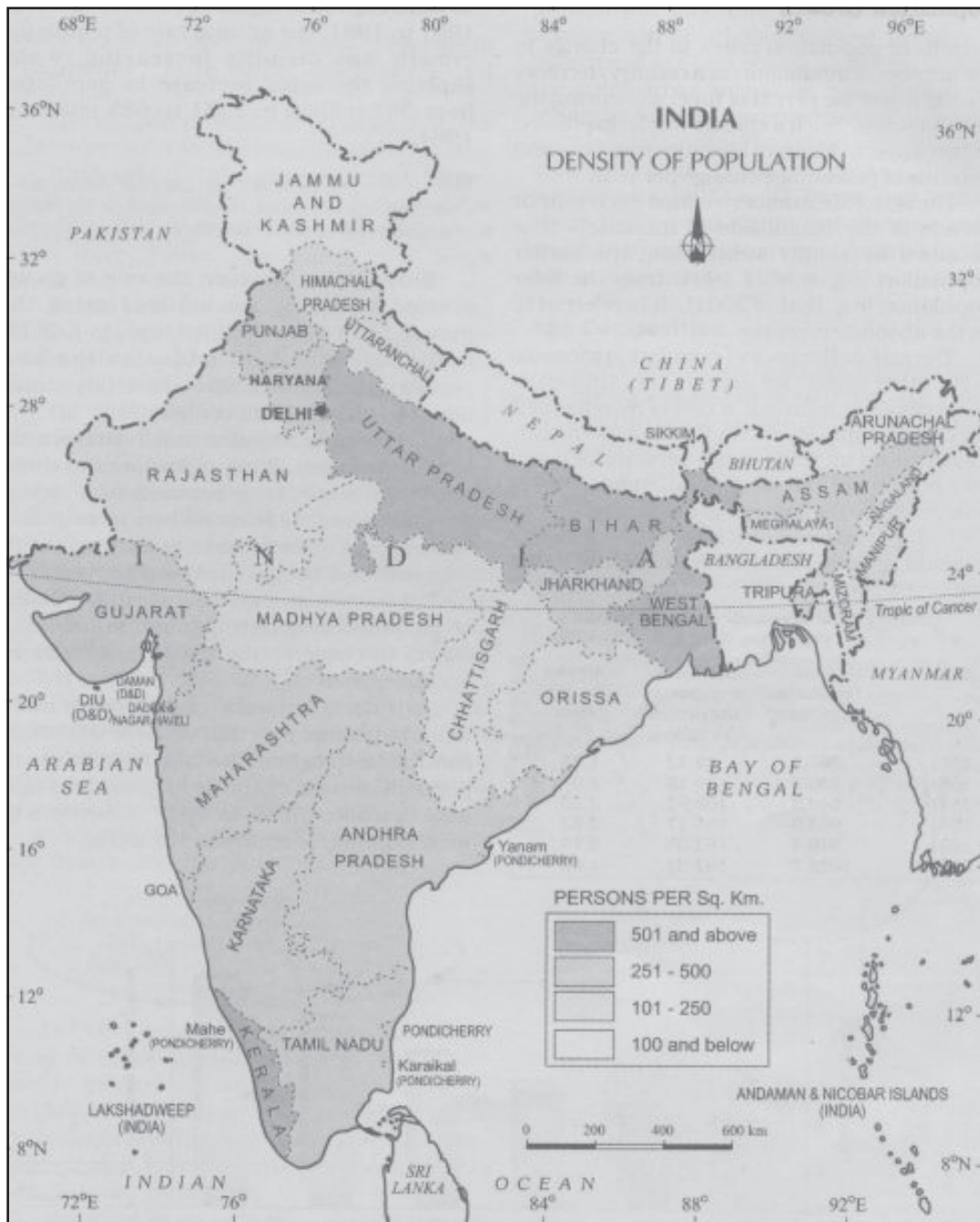


Figure 5-1. Density of Population of India.

The Northern Plains and Kerala in the south have high population densities because these regions are fertile plains with abundant rainfall. Which are the three densely populated states of the Northern plains ?

Assam and most of the states of Peninsular plateau have moderate population densities. Dense forests and hilly terrain have influenced population density in Assam whereas dissected plateaus, low rainfall and less fertile soils are responsible for moderate population densities in the Peninsular states.

Growth of Population and Processes of Population Change

Population is dynamic by nature and therefore it keeps on changing. The numbers, distribution and composition of the population are always changing. This is caused by the interaction of the three processes viz., births, deaths and migration.

Growth of Population

Growth of Population is the change in the number of people living in a country or region during a specific period of time, say during the last 10 years. This change may be expressed in two ways – (i) in terms of absolute numbers and (ii) in terms of percentage change per year.

The number of people added each year or decade shows the magnitude of increase. It can be obtained by subtracting the total population of 2001 from the total population of 2011. The number thus obtained is referred to as the absolute increase.

The other important aspect is the rate or the pace of population increase. It is expressed in per cent per annum. For example, a rate of increase of 3 per cent per annum means that in a given year, there was an increase of 3 persons for every 100 persons in the base population. This is known as the annual growth rate.

There has been rapid increase in India's population from 361 million in 1951 to 1210 million in 2011. From Table 2 and Fig. 5.2 we can see that the annual rate of population growth was increasing rapidly from 1951 to 1981. But after 1981, the rate of population growth started decreasing. This was due to the decrease in birth rates. However, the absolute increase in the decade (1991-2001) was 182 million people. This annual addition was larger than ever before.

Year	Total Population (in millions)	Absolute Increase in the Decade (in millions)	Annual Growth Rate (%)
1951	361.0	42.43	1.25
1961	439.2	78.15	1.96
1971	548.2	108.92	2.20
1981	683.3	135.17	2.22
1991	846.4	163.09	2.14
2001	1028.7	182.32	1.93
2011	1210.8	181.45	1.90

Table 2. The Magnitude and Rate of India's Population Growth.

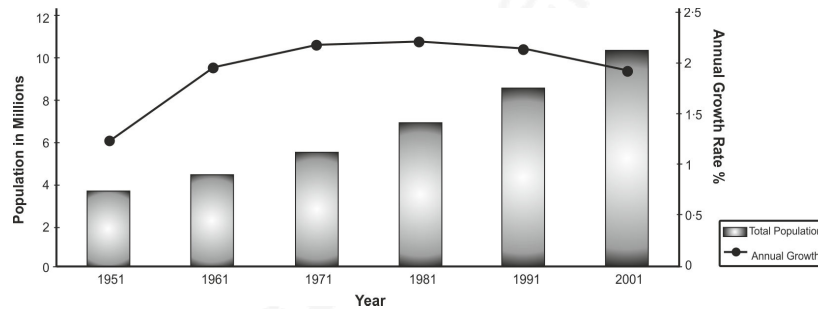


Figure 5-2. India's Population and Population Growth Rates during 1951-2001.

Processes of Population Change / Growth

The three main processes of change in population are (i) birth rates (ii) death rates and (iii) migration.

Birth rate is the total number of live births per 1000 persons in a year. In India, birth rates have always been higher than death rates. This has led to increase in the rate of population growth.

Death rate is the total number of deaths per 1000 persons in a year. The decline in death rates is the main cause of the high rate of population growth in India.

The difference between birth rate and death rate is known as natural growth of population.

Migration is the third component of population growth. The movement of people from one region to another is called migration. Migration may be **internal** (within the country) or **international** (between the countries).

Internal migration does not affect the size a country's population, but it influences the distribution of population within the nation. Thus, migration plays an important role in changing the composition and distribution of population.

In India, people generally migrate from rural to urban areas. This is because of the 'push' factor in rural areas viz., poverty and unemployment. But the increased employment opportunities and better living conditions in the cities attract people and they become 'pull' factor of the urban areas. The rural-urban migration has resulted in the steady increase in the percentage of population in towns and cities. In 1951, the urban population was 17·29 per cent of the total population but in 2011, it was increased to 31·16 per cent. The number of 'million plus cities' has also increased from 23 in 1991 to 35 in 2001. Thus, migration changes not only population size but also the composition of urban and rural populations in terms of age and sex composition. Therefore, migration has become an important determinant of population change.

Age Composition

Age composition is one of the most important characteristics of a population. It refers to the number of people in different age groups in a country. To a greater extent, a person's age determines what he needs, buys, does and his capacity to perform. Thus, according to age, the population of a country is classified into three broad categories.

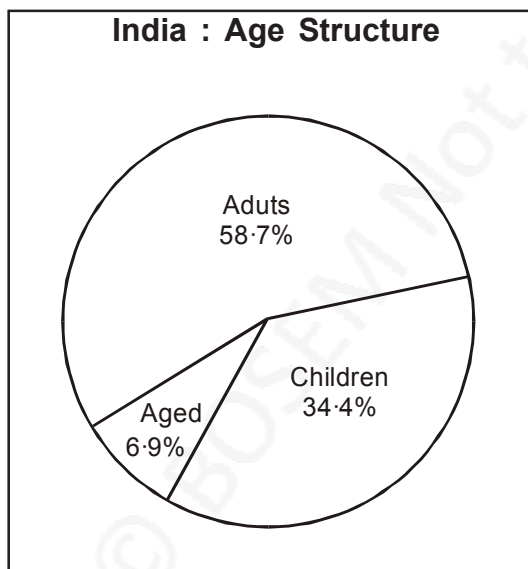


Figure 5-3. India : Age Composition.

Children (below 15 years)

The children of this age group are economically unproductive. They are to be provided with food, clothing, education and medical care.

Working Age (15-59 years)

The people of this age group are the most important and form the working population. They are economically productive as well as biologically reproductive.

Aged (above 59 years)

The people of this age group are generally not physically strong. They can be economically productive if they work voluntarily. But they are not available for employment through recruitment.

Since children and the aged are not producers, the percentage of these groups affect the dependency rates. The proportion of the three categories in India's population is shown in Fig. 5-3.

Activity

- (i) **Find out** the number of children working as household helpers, labourers in your locality.
- (ii) **Find out** the number of unemployed adults in your locality.
- (iii) **Find out** the number of aged persons who are economically unproductive in your locality.

Sex Composition and Sex Ratio

Sex composition means the proportion of male and female in the total population. It is expressed with the help of a ratio, known as sex ratio. Sex ratio is defined as the number of females per 1000 males in the population. If the sex ratio of a country is 1000, it implies that the total number of male and female in that country is equal. If the ratio is 1,070 or 1,100, it indicates more females than males in that country. This figure suggests that the sex ratio is favourable to females. If the sex ratio is less than 1,000, say 900 or 940, it means that the sex ratio is unfavourable to females. The sex ratio in India has always remained unfavourable to females. Table 3 shows the sex ratio of our country from 1951 to 2011.

Census Year	Sex ratio (Females per 1000 males)
1951	946
1961	941
1971	930
1981	934
1991	929
2001	933
2011	943

Table 3. India : Sex Ratio (1951-2011).

Activity

Find out the reasons – Why does the sex ratio in India remain unfavourable to females?
DO YOU KNOW? Kerala has a sex ratio of 1084 females per 1000 males whereas Haryana has only 879 females per 1000 males. Which state has a sex ratio favourable to females?

Literacy Rates

In India, a person aged 7 years, and above who can read, write and understand a simple message in any language is treated as literate. Only educated persons can make

intelligent choices and undertake research projects. Low levels of literacy are a serious obstacle for economic development. So, literacy is a very important quality of a population.

At the time of Independence, only about one-sixth of the population was literate. Since then, there has been a steady improvement in the literacy levels in India. According to the census of 2011, the literacy rate in the country has gone up to 73 per cent. But more males of our country are literates than females. Why is it so ?

Occupational Structure

The distribution of population according to different types of occupation is termed as the **occupational structure**. A number of occupations are available in any country. These occupations are classified into three groups viz., (i) Primary, (ii) Secondary and (iii) Tertiary.

Primary occupations include agriculture, animal husbandry, mining, fishing, forestry, etc. **Secondary** occupations are those activities associated with manufacturing industry, building and construction work etc. **Tertiary** occupations include activities associated with transport, communications, commerce, administration etc.

Developed countries have a high proportion of people in secondary and tertiary activities. On the other hand, developing countries have a higher proportion of their people engaged in primary occupations. In a developing country like India, about 64 per cent of the population is engaged in agriculture. Secondary and tertiary sectors have a proportion of about 13 and 20 per cent respectively. However, in recent years, there has been an occupational shift in favour of secondary and tertiary sectors as a result of growing industrialisation and urbanisation.

Health

There have been significant improvements in the health conditions of the Indian population due to concerted efforts of the government. Death rates have declined from 25 per 1000 population in 1951 to 8 per thousand in 2001. Life expectancy has also increased from 37 years in 1951 to 64 years in 2001. These achievements were made possible as a result of many factors including improvement in public health, prevention of infectious diseases and application of modern medical practices in diagnosis and treatment of ailments.

In spite of these achievements, the health situation in India is a matter of great concern. Malnutrition afflicts a large percentage of our population because per capita calorie consumption is much below the recommended levels. Safe drinking water and basic sanitation amenities are not available for most of the rural population. Thus, an appropriate population policy should be adopted to solve these problems.

National Population Policy

The Government of India initiated the Family Planning Programme in 1952 for the improvement of individual health and welfare. The main objective of the Family Welfare Programme is to promote responsible and planned parenthood on a voluntary basis. The National Population Policy (NPP) 2000 is a culmination of years of planned efforts of the government.

The NPP 2000 provides a policy framework for imparting free and compulsory school education up to 14 years of age, achieving universal immunization of children against all vaccine preventable diseases, reducing infant mortality rate to below 30 per 1000 live births, promoting delayed marriage for girls and making family welfare a people-centered programme.

Adolescent Population

The size of the Adolescent Population is fairly large in India. It constitutes about one-fifth of the total population. The age group between 10 to 19 years belongs to adolescents. They are the most important future resource of the country. Nutrition requirements of adolescents are much higher than those of a normal child or adult. Poor nutrition may lead to deficiency diseases and stunted growth. But in our country, the diet provided to adolescents is not sufficient in all nutrients. As a result, a large number of adolescent girls suffer from anaemia. Such problems have not received adequate attention in the process of development. So, the adolescent girls have to be sensitized to the problems they confront. Awareness among them can be improved through the spread of literacy and education.

NPP 2000 and Adolescents

National Population Policy 2000 identified adolescents as under-served population group that needs greater attention. In addition to nutritional requirements, the policy stresses greater emphasis on other important needs of adolescents. These include protection from unwanted pregnancies and sexually transmitted diseases (STD). The adolescent girls must know that abstinence from sex is the most effective way of preventing unwanted pregnancy. There has been a growing tendency among adolescents to involve themselves in irresponsible sexual behaviour, putting them at risk to HIV/AIDS/STI's. The policy calls for programmes that aim towards encouraging delayed marriage and child-bearing, education of adolescents about genital hygiene, the risk of unprotected sex, making contraceptive services accessible and affordable, providing food supplements, nutritional services, strengthening legal measures to prevent child marriage.

People are the country's most valuable resource. A well-educated healthy population will help the nation march forward towards self-sufficiency.

EXERCISE

1. Choose the correct answer from the four alternatives given below :
 - (i) Which one of the following is the most populous state of India ?
 - (a) Assam
 - (b) Bihar
 - (c) Uttar Pradesh
 - (d) West Bengal.
 - (ii) The magnitude of population growth means
 - (a) the total population of a region
 - (b) the number of persons added each year
 - (c) the number of females per thousand males
 - (d) the rate at which the population increases.
 - (iii) Which one of the following is not affected by internal migration ?
 - (a) the distribution of a country's population
 - (b) the size of a country's population
 - (c) the age composition of a country's population
 - (d) the sex composition of a country's population.
 - (iv) In India, a 'literate' person is one who
 - (a) can read and write his/her name
 - (b) can read and write any language
 - (c) is 5 years old and can read and write his/her name
 - (d) is 7 years old and can read and write any language with understanding.
 - (v) Which one of the following belongs to Primary occupation ?
 - (a) Architect
 - (b) Doctor
 - (c) Farmer
 - (d) Mason.
2. Answer the following questions briefly.
 - (i) Why are northern plains of India densely populated ?
 - (ii) Define birth rate and death rate

- (iii) What do you mean by the natural growth of population ?
 - (iv) Why is the rate of population growth in India decreasing since 1981 ?
 - (v) How is migration a determinant factor of population change ?
3. Distinguish between
 - (i) Population growth and population change
 - (ii) Primary occupation and secondary occupation.
 4. Find out the relation between occupation structure and development with special reference to India.
 5. Discuss the advantages of having a healthy population.
 6. What are the significant features of the National Population Policy 2000 ?
 7. Discuss the problems faced by the adolescent population in India.

Map Skills

On an outline map of India, show the following

- (i) two densely populated states of the northern plains
- (ii) one densely populated state of the Peninsular plateau.

Project / Activity

Conduct a class census by preparing a questionnaire. The questionnaire should contain three questions relating to students family members, class performance and health. Each student is to fill-up the questionnaire.

Chapter-6

Manipur

Manipur is one of the north-eastern states of India. It is surrounded by ranges of high hills on all sides. There is a small plain in the central part of the state. This plain is also known as the Imphal valley and situated at a height of about 800 metres above sea level. In fact, Manipur is a land of hills with narrow valleys in between.

Location and Size

Manipur is located in the extreme north-eastern border of India. It is bounded on the north by Nagaland, on the south by Myanmar and Mizoram, on the east by Myanmar and on the west by Assam. The state is situated in between $23^{\circ}50'N$ and $25^{\circ}41'N$ latitudes and $93^{\circ}2'E$ and $94^{\circ}47'E$ longitudes. The Tropic of Cancer runs very close to the southern boundary of Manipur.

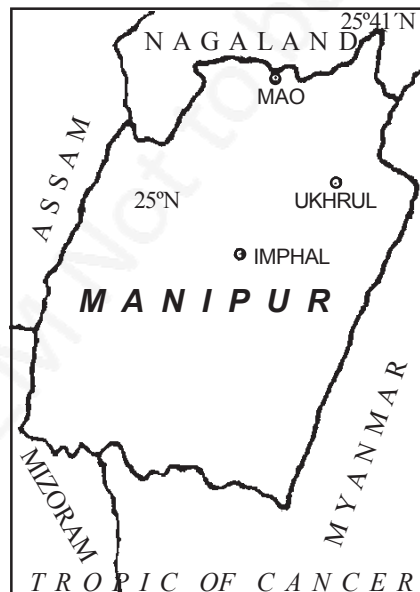


Figure 6-1. Location of Manipur.

The state has a total area of 22,327 square kilometres. The Imphal Valley covers a small area of only 1,843 square kilometres while the hills surrounding the valley cover the remaining area of 20,484 square kilometres. So, the hills constitute more than nine-tenths of the total area of Manipur.

DO YOU KNOW ? *Manipur is located outside the tropics i.e., in the north of the Tropic of Cancer. So, it does not experience overhead sun during any time of the year.*

Structure

Look at the Fig. 1·5 showing the Himalayas. You will see that in the north-eastern corner of India the Himalayas bend southwards and extend as the Patkai, the Naga, the Manipur and the Mizo hills. Thus, the hills of Manipur belong to the young fold mountains of the Himalayas which were uplifted from the bed of the Tethys. The region was formed as a part of the Himalayan orogeny in the early Tertiary period of the earth's geological history. While the Barak Valley in the south-western part is an alluvial plain, the Imphal Valley in the central part represents a lacustrine plain i.e., plain formed by the filling up of a lake.

DO YOU KNOW ? *The present Loktak lake is a remnant of a huge ancient lake which once covered the whole of Imphal Valley.*

Relief

According to relief or surface features, Manipur may broadly be divided into two physiographic divisions viz., (i) the Central plain or the Imphal Valley and (ii) the Hills surrounding the Central plain.

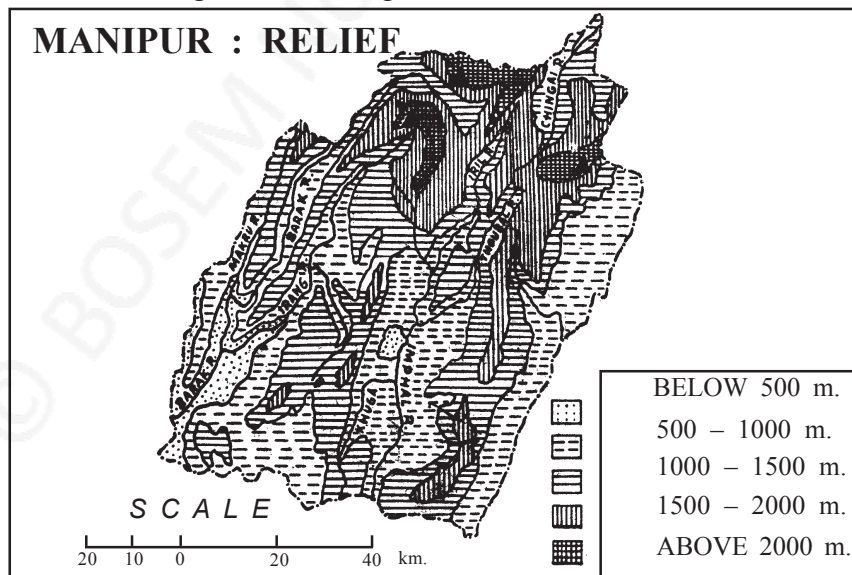


Figure 6-2. Manipur : Relief.

The Central Plain

This plain is located in the central part of Manipur. It is also known as the Imphal Valley because the Imphal river runs through the middle of it. It forms an oval-shaped depression and therefore its north-south extent is longer than its east-west extent. The north-south extent is about 60 km. while the east-west extent is about 30 km. The four districts viz., Imphal East, Imphal West, Bishnupur and Thoubal lie in the Central plain.

The Central plain or the Imphal Valley is not smooth and level like that of the Ganga. Isolated hills and low winding ridges are found scattered throughout the valley. Since the slope of the valley is from north to south, most of the rivers rise in the highlands of the north and flow towards the south.

The Imphal Valley was formed by the filling up (silting) of an ancient lake which once covered the whole valley. Such a plain formed by the filling up of lakes is referred to as lacustrine plain. A part of the ancient lake is still found in the southern part of the valley. This fresh-water lake is called the Loktak. The process of silting can be seen in the Loktak where many rivers deposit their load and thereby lessening the size of the lake. As the valley is formed by the deposition of sediments brought down by rivers, it is extremely fertile. So, most of the people live in this valley where farming and transport of goods are much easier.

Find out *the location of the Loktak from the atlas and also name the District in which it is located.*

The Hills Surrounding the Central Plain

The hills of Manipur are the southward extension of the Naga Hills. They consist of a series of parallel ranges and extend up to the southern part of the state. If you look at the relief map of Manipur you will see that the central plain divides the hill ranges into two groups. The hill ranges that lie to the east of the central plain are known as the Eastern hills while those to the west of the plain are called the Western hills. The Eastern and the Western hills meet in the southern part of Manipur and extend further as the Mizo and the Chin hills.

The Eastern hills run as a continuous chain along the eastern border of Manipur. They are about 200 km. long and 30 to 50 km. wide. The Mapithel, the Chingai, and the Mulain are the important ranges of the Eastern hills. The average height of these ranges is 1,500 metres. Prominent peaks include Khayangbung (2,833 metres), Shirui (2,568 m.) and Kachaobung (2,498 m.). The eastern slopes of the hill ranges are more steeper than the western slopes. The Eastern hills are mainly composed of limestone and shale.

DO YOU KNOW ? *The Eastern hills have more than 150 flowering plants of the herb variety. Mt. Shirui is famous for the rock lily, popularly known as Shirui Lily.*

The Western hills cover the entire western part of the state. They consist of parallel ranges and series of valleys. Among the valleys, the Khoupum Valley is the most important. The total length of these ranges is about 180 kilometres. In the north, they are about 50 km. wide but in the south their width increases up to 70 km. The Yangpujilong, the Daimikilong, the Uningthou, the Koubru, the Khoupum, the Nungba and the Kalanaga are the important hill ranges of the Western hills. From the relief map of Manipur, you will see that there are high peaks in the north and the west. **Mount Iso** (Tenipu), which is located in the north-western part of Mao, is the highest peak in Manipur. It is about 2,994 metres high above sea level. Other important peaks include Leikot (2,831 m.), Tampaba (2,564 m.) and Koubru (2,562 m.). Mt. Koubru is easily recognized by its humped peak. It is considered as a sacred place and the Meiteis climb it once in a year.

DO YOU KNOW ? *The Dzuko Valley is located at the foot of Mt. Iso.*

Like the Eastern hills, the eastern slopes of the Western hills are also very steep. Sandstone, shale and clay mainly constitute the rocks of the Western hills.

Find out the name of the districts of Manipur where Iso, Khayangbung, Leikot, Shirui, Tampaba, Koubru and Kachaobung peaks are located.

Drainage

Look at the Fig. 6-3. showing the drainage pattern of Manipur. You will see that the Imphal river and its tributaries drain the central part while the western part is drained mainly by the Barak and its tributaries. The eastern ridge line of the Western hills forms the water divide between the Barak and the Imphal river basins. While the Barak river basin belongs to the Brahmaputra river system of the west, the Imphal river basin is a part of the Chindwin-Irrawaddy river system of the east.

The Imphal River Basin

The central plain or the Imphal valley is drained mainly by the Imphal river and its tributaries. The Imphal river rises in the highlands to the west of Kangpokpi and flows towards the south. On its way through the valley, the river is joined by many tributaries such as the Sekmai, the Kongba, the Iril and the Thoubal. Among them, the Iril and the Thoubal are the most important. The Iril rises in the north-eastern part of Mao and flows southwards to join the Imphal river at Lilong. The Thoubal river rises in the Huimi hills of Ukhrul. It flows south-westwards and joins the Imphal river at Mayang Imphal.

DO YOU KNOW ? *Another name of the Imphal river is Turel Achouba.*

The Imphal river does not fall into the Loktak, rather it flows to the eastern part of the lake. A river called the Khordak drains the water of the Loktak to the Imphal

river. In the south of the Loktak, the Imphal river is known as the Manipur and it is joined by the tributaries viz., the Khuga and the Chakpi. The Khuga river rises in the Thinghat hills of Churachandpur district and flows north-eastwards to join the Manipur river at Ithai. The Chakpi river originates from the Laimatol hills of Chandel district. It flows south-westwards and joins the Manipur river at Sugnu. The Manipur river crosses the southern boundary through narrow gorges and enters the Chin hills of Myanmar. In the Chin hills it is joined by a north flowing river called the Myittha and finally it falls into the Chindwin river of Myanmar.

The Nambul is another important river that drains the Imphal valley. It rises in the Kangchup hills that lie to the western part of the valley. The river passes through the heart of the Imphal city and follows a course west of the Imphal river till it falls into the Loktak. Other rivers of the valley that fall into the Loktak are the Nambol and the Moirang. The Nambol (Maklang) rises in the Kangchup hills while the Moirang river originates from the western hills of Moirang.

The Imphal and the Nambul cause widespread floods in the central plain during the rainy season. In the past, these two rivers served as useful inland waterways in the valley.

A number of small rivers rise in the eastern slopes of the Eastern hills. They also belong to the Chindwin river system. The Chingai and the Chalou drain the northern parts of the Eastern hills. They flow to the north-east and later on to the south-east to join the Chindwin river. In the south, the Maklang and the Tuyungbi join to form the Yu river in the Kabow Valley of Myanmar. Further south, the Lokchao and the Taret flow south-eastwards to join the Yu river. The Yu river finally falls into the Chindwin.

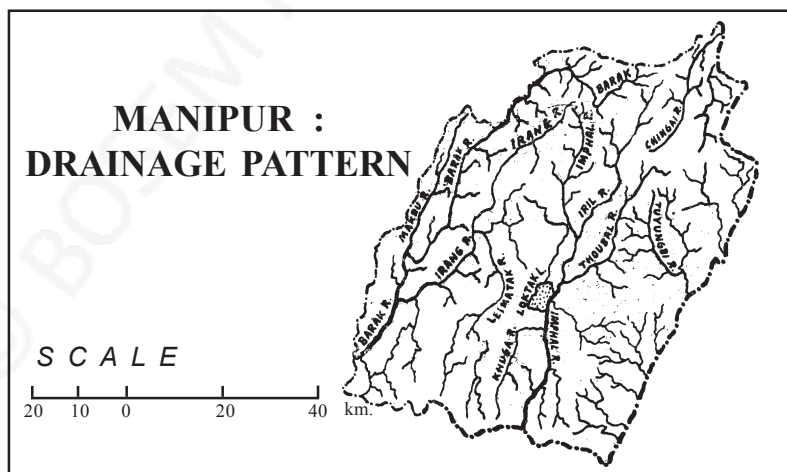


Figure 6-3. Manipur : Drainage Pattern.

Find out the river which has the largest basin in Manipur. Can you recognise the drainage pattern found in the northern part of the Imphal Valley ?

The Barak River Basin

The Barak and its tributaries drain the western hills of Manipur. The Barak is the largest river of the state and it rises in the northern highlands to the east of Mao. Near the source, it follows a south-westerly direction. At Karong, the river takes a sharp bend towards the north and then flows westwards to form a short boundary between Manipur and Nagaland. From here, the river flows southwards through the Western hills. On its way to the south, it is joined by the Makru and the Irang. Further south at Tipaimukh, the Barak is joined by a north flowing river called the Tuivai. Here, the river turns north and forms the natural boundary between Manipur and Assam. The river is again joined by the Jiri river at Jirimukh. It then flows westwards towards Cachar and Sylhet plains where it is known as the Surma. It finally falls into the Brahmaputra in Bangladesh.

The Makru and the Irang are the two main tributaries of the Barak. The Makru rises in the north-eastern part of the Barail range. It flows southwards in the west of the Barak and almost parallel to it. It joins the Barak to the south of the Kalanaga village in Tamenglong district. The Irang river originates from the northern part of the Yangpujilong range to the west of Karong. It flows in the next valley east of the Barak. The river follows a south-westerly course and joins the Barak in the north of Tipaimukh. The Leimatak and the Ijei are the two main tributaries of the Irang.

Observe carefully how the Khuga river and the Irang river join the Imphal and the Barak respectively in the Fig. 6-3. Can you identify the drainage pattern of the two.

Lakes

There are many lakes in the southern part of the Imphal Valley of which the Loktak is the largest. This fresh-water lake is about 12 km long and 8 km wide. But the size of the lake is considerably increased during the rainy season. This large expanse of water is covered with aquatic vegetation, floating weeds (Phumdi) and water hyacinths. Isolated, half-submerged hills in the form of islands are located in the midst of the lake. The people who live in these islands are engaged in fishing. In fact, the Loktak is an important source of fish in the state. Other lakes of importance include the Waithou, Ikop, Pumlun and Kharungpat. The lakes and the rivers form important fishing grounds in this hilly state.

Can you name the half-submerged hills located in the midst of the Loktak ?

Climate

You have learned that India has a monsoon type of climate. You also know that Manipur is located entirely in the north of the Tropic of Cancer. Thus, the state enjoys a sub-tropical monsoon type of climate. The word sub-tropical is added because the state lies outside the tropics.

Many factors influence the climate of Manipur. These include elevation, topography, proximity to the Himalayas and the Bay of Bengal, temperate as well as tropical cyclones that originate from the Mediterranean region and the Bay of Bengal respectively.

Elevation above sea level varies from 200 metres in the Barak basin of the south-west to about 3000 metres in the northern highlands near Mao. You know that temperature of the atmosphere decreases with the increase in height. So, temperature goes on decreasing as one moves from the south-western part to the highlands of the north.

Topography of the state consists of parallel ranges and series of valleys. Thus the foothill plains, sheltered valleys and the hill ranges of Manipur are marked with temperature differences. Hills cover more than nine-tenth's of the total area of Manipur. Therefore, temperature is neither too hot nor too cold throughout the year.

The state is very near to the Himalayas as well as to the Bay of Bengal. So, the climate of this state is influenced by the western disturbances (temperate cyclones) in winter and tropical cyclones in summer. The western disturbances are brought by the westerly Jet stream that blows south of the Himalayas in winter. The tropical cyclones originate in the Bay of Bengal and they often move towards Manipur during the period from April to October.

DO YOU KNOW ? *Average July temperature of Jiribam in the south-west is about 31°C whereas it is around 24°C at Mao in the northern highlands.*

Seasons

Based on temperature and rainfall, a year in Manipur is divided into four different seasons. They are (i) the cold season (Dec., Jan., Feb.), (ii) the hot-dry season (March, April and May), (iii) the rainy season (June, July, August and Sept.) and (iv) the retreating monsoon season (Oct. and Nov.).

The Cold Season

The cold or winter season starts in December and lasts till the end of February. The season is considered to be the most pleasant period of the year and the temperature rarely drops below freezing point. The average temperature ranges between 12°C and 18°C. Morning fogs are very common and in January frost is seen on the roof of thatched

houses and on the grass. The season is characterised by clear skies, warm sunny days and cold nights. Such a fine weather is occasionally disturbed by the western disturbances which are brought by the westerly jet stream. They cause light winter rain which is known as **Wakchinggi Nong** in Manipur. In February, local winds blow frequently over the plain.

The Hot-dry Season

The month of March is characterised by a sudden increase in temperature and gusty winds. Because of lower elevation, the temperature over the central plain is warmer than that of the surrounding hills. The hot air over the plain, being light, rises upward and in order to fill the vacuum, cool winds from the surrounding hills blow towards the plain. Such a windy weather of March is referred to as **Ashit Awan Tha**. As the rain seldom falls, the surface is so dry that the winds easily pick up dust from the roads and blow it in the air. So, dust-raising winds are also very common. The average temperature of this season varies between 18°C and 28°C. In April, thunderstorms occur due to the interaction of dry westerly air and moist southerly air from the Bay of Bengal. The intense heat of the sun during May is termed as **Kalen Nungsa**. Such a hot weather is checked by the cyclones that originate from the Bay of Bengal.

DO YOU KNOW ? *On a clear winter night, when there is no wind, cold air collects in the valley bottoms. Thus in Manipur, lowest temperatures are recorded in the valley bottoms.*

The Rainy Season

This is the longest season of Manipur and it is characterised by high temperature and heavy rainfall. The south-west monsoons enter Manipur in the first week of June and they provide abundant rain throughout the state. The Western hills which lie across the monsoon current receive heavy rain. Tamenglong, in the western hills, has an annual rainfall of 400 cm while Imphal, in the central plain has only 140 cm. The amount of rainfall increases towards the Eastern hills and thus, Ukhrul has an annual rainfall of 180 cm. In general, rainfall is heavy during June and July but it is moderate in August and September. During the rainy season floods are very common in the Imphal Valley.

The Retreating Monsoon Season

This is a period of transition from rainy season to cold season. In October, the south-west monsoons begin to withdraw from Manipur and as a result, rainfall decreases considerably. Skies become clear and fogs of short duration occur in the early morning. The season is noted for its cool moonlit nights. Such a pleasant weather is sometimes affected by the cyclonic storms that originate in the Bay of Bengal. They bring much rain and cause floods in the Imphal valley. In November, days are warm but nights are cold. The average temperature ranges between 20°C and 25°C.

Natural Vegetation

Forests are the only important natural vegetation of Manipur. They cover more than two-thirds of its total area. These forests are mainly confined to the surrounding hills. The central plain is used for settlement and agriculture.

Types of Forests

Relief plays an important role in deciding the forest types of Manipur. The Barak basin where the elevation is less than 500 metres, bamboo forests are abundant. Higher up, in between 500 and 1200 metres, teak forests are found. Between the altitudes of 1200 to 2400 metres, pine forests occur. In regions where the altitude is more than 2400 metres flowering plants and grasses grow. Thus, depending on elevation, four different types of forests are identified in Manipur. They are (i) Sub-tropical deciduous forests (ii) Sub-tropical evergreen forests (iii) Tropical moist deciduous forests and (iv) Tropical moist semi-evergreen forests.

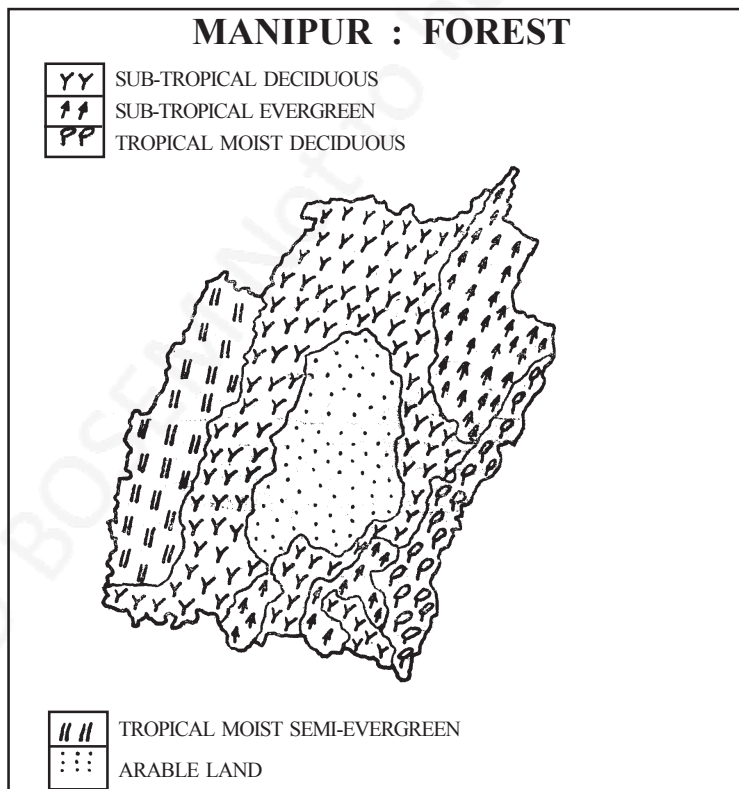


Figure 6-4. Manipur : Forest Types.

Sub-tropical deciduous forests are found in the hill slopes overlooking the central plain. These forests have been exploited for timber, firewood, etc. and therefore have a denuded appearance. Oak, toon, chestnut are the important species of these forests. Most of the isolated hillocks in the valley are also covered with oak and chestnut.

Sub-tropical evergreen forests occur in the north-eastern part of Manipur at elevations varying from 1200 to 2400 metres. The colder climate of this region favours the growth of soft coniferous trees like pine. The pine forests are confined to higher altitudes but they are mixed with oak and chestnut at lower altitudes. The total area covered by these forests is about 1,300 sq.km.

Tropical moist deciduous forests are located in the south-eastern part of Manipur along the boundary with Myanmar. The hot and moist climate of this region is suitable for the growth of trees such as teak, gurjan, toon and khi. Teak thrives well on the alluvial banks of rivers like the Maklang, Tuyungbi, Lokchao, etc. These forests cover about 900 sq.km. Here, palm trees of areca nut are also grown.

Tropical moist semi-evergreen forests are confined to the Barak river basin of the south-west. Because of lower elevation, this region is hot and wet all the year round. Such a climate favours the growth of dense vegetation. Bamboos constitute the most important vegetation and these forests contain more than 15 major species of bamboos. Important trees include Haldi, Agar, Toon, Jarul, Bonsum, Ironwood, etc. These forests also produce cinnamon and canes in large quantities.

Orchids

The hill forests of Manipur abound in various types of orchids. The only blue orchid in the world, Kwaklei (*Vanda caerulea*) is found in the western hills of Manipur. Other important species include *Lilium napalensis*, Irish Bakerly etc. Among the flowering plants of herb variety, Shirui Lily and Dzuko Lily are noted for their beauty. Shirui Lily grows on the heights of Shirui hills in Ukhrul district while Dzuko Lily is found in the Dzuko valley to the north-west of Mao in Senapati district.

DO YOU KNOW ? *The Manipur government has set up an orchid yard at Khonghampat, on the National Highway No. 39 where we can see more than 110 varieties of orchids.*

Wild Life

Manipur has a rich variety of wild life. These include animals, birds, reptiles, fishes and insects. The state has some animal species that do not exist anywhere in the world. The brow-antlered deer, locally known as **Sangai**, lives only in Keibul Lamjao, the last natural habitat of this rare species. Keibul Lamjao is a National Park and it is situated on the south-eastern fringes of the Loktak lake. This National Park has been set up by

the government to protect and preserve this endangered deer species. The floating weed (Phumdi) and marshy surrounding of this region provide the natural habitat for Sangai.

In the olden days, tiger, leopard and elephants were abundant in the forests of Manipur. Very often, cows were attacked by tigers that roamed the Imphal valley in the dead of night. Other important animals include wild pig, bear and Santhou (wild bull). Wild pig is found in all the hill forests. The Himalayan black bear and the Indian sloth bear live in the northern forests while Santhou is found in the forests of the south-east. Various species of porcupine, mole and rats are found in large numbers especially in the forests of the western hills.

The lake basins of the valley are teeming with birds like partridge, fowl, quail, snipe, duck etc. The Loktak lake is famous for these game birds. During the colonial period, the Britishers and the kings of Manipur went to the Loktak for shooting of these birds. Now, the shooting of these birds has been regulated.

DO YOU KNOW ? *The Loktak lake is an important wetland of India which is visited by the migratory birds of Siberia in winter.*

Reptiles such as pythons, snakes, lizards, etc., are found throughout the state. Pythons and snakes live in swamps while lizards are mostly found on land.

Fishes such as Khabak (Bangana dero), Ngaton (Labeo bata), etc., are native to Manipur. In the past, these fishes were noted for their special taste. They become so rare nowadays that the Manipur government is trying to save these species by establishing fish-seed farms. Minnows, minor carps, climbing perch, etc., are the other important varieties of fish.

Apart from Keibul Lamjao, the Manipur government has set up a wildlife sanctuary at Lokchao in Chandel district. There is also a zoological garden at the foothills of Iroisemba in Imphal West district.

Population

Population (distribution by numbers and by density)

In the last census of 2011, Manipur had a total population of 28,55,794 persons. These were distributed in four valley and five hill districts. The following table shows that Imphal West is the most populous district with a population of more than 5.1 lakhs. Tamenglong district, on the other hand, has a population of only 1.4 lakhs.

Table 4
Distribution and Density of Population in Manipur (2011)

State/District	Population	Density (per sq. km.)
Manipur	28,55,794	128
Imphal West	5,17,992	998
Imphal East	4,56,113	643
Thoubal	4,22,168	821
Senapati	4,79,148	146
Churachandpur	2,74,143	60
Bishnupur	2,37,399	479
Ukhrul	1,83,998	40
Chandel	1,44,182	44
Tamenglong	1,40,651	32

The state as a whole, has an average density of 128 persons per sq. km. The four valley districts viz., Imphal West District, Imphal East District, Thoubal District and Bishnupur District are densely populated. These districts have a density of more than 400 persons per sq. km. In the Imphal Valley, lands are level and fertile, transport and communication systems are well developed and other amenities of modern life are available. Because of these reasons, the Imphal valley or the central plain is densely populated. On the contrary, the hills surrounding the Imphal valley are sparsely populated because in these regions steep slope, infertile soil and lack of transport facilities hamper settlement. Note that Imphal West District has a density of 998 persons per sq. km. whereas Tamenglong District has a density of only 32 persons per sq. km.

Growth of Population

In 1951, the total population of Manipur was only 5.8 lakhs. It was increased to 7.8 lakhs in 1961, to 10.7 lakhs in 1971 and to 14.2 lakhs in 1981. It was further increased to 18.3 lakhs in 1991 and 22.9 lakhs in 2001. In the last census of 2011, the total population of Manipur was increased to 28.5 lakhs. During the last 60 years i.e., from 1951 to 2011, the state registered five times increase in its population. Thus a very high growth rate of population is being observed in Manipur. This is due to the migration of people from other states of India as well as decrease in the death rate. We can see the decadal growth of population and absolute increase from the following table.

Table 5
Growth of Population in Manipur (1951-2011)

Year	Total Population (in lakhs)	Absolute increase in the Decade (in lakhs)
1951	5.8	0.6
1961	7.8	2.0
1971	10.7	2.9
1981	14.2	3.5
1991	18.3	4.1
2001	22.9	4.6
2011	28.5	5.6

Sex Ratio

In 2011, Manipur had a sex ratio of 985 females per 1000 males as against the all India average of 943. Though the number of females per thousand males is larger than the national average, the sex ratio in the state is unfavourable to females. Among the districts of Manipur, Imphal West District, Imphal East District and Thoubal District have a sex ratio favourable to females. These three districts have a sex ratio of 1031, 1017 and 1002 females respectively per 1000 males. This may be due to better health care facilities for females in these districts. Chandel District, on the other hand, has a sex ratio of 933 females per 1000 males.

Manipur : Sex Ratio (2011)

State/District	Sex Ratio (Females per 1000 males)
Manipur	985
Imphal West	1031
Bishnupur	999
Chandel	933
Churachandpur	975
Thoubal	1002
Imphal East	1017
Senapati	937
Tamenglong	943
Ukhrul	943

Literacy Rates

Before 1950, the literacy rate of Manipur was very low. Since then, there has been a steady increase in the literacy levels in the state. According to the census

of 2011, the literacy rate of Manipur has gone up to 77 per cent which is well above the national average of 73 per cent.

EXERCISE

1. Choose the correct answer from the four alternatives given below :
 - (i) Which of the following is a range of the Western hills of Manipur ?
 - (a) Mapithel
 - (b) Chingai
 - (c) Uningthou
 - (d) Mulain.
 - (ii) Which one of the following falls into the Loktak lake ?
 - (a) the Iril
 - (b) the Nambul
 - (c) the Khuga
 - (d) the Chakpi.
 - (iii) The longest season of Manipur is
 - (a) Cold season
 - (b) Hot-dry season
 - (c) Rainy season
 - (d) Retreating monsoon season.
 - (iv) The most important vegetation of the Barak basin is
 - (a) Pine forest
 - (b) Bamboo forest
 - (c) Oak forest
 - (d) teak forest.
 - (v) Which one of the following has the lowest density of population ?
 - (a) Chandel district
 - (b) Churachandpur district
 - (c) Tamenglong district
 - (d) Senapati district.
2. Answer the following questions briefly.
 - (i) What are the two physiographic divisions of Manipur ?
 - (ii) How was the Imphal valley formed ?
 - (iii) Name two important tributaries of the Barak.
 - (iv) Why is there light rain during the cold season in Manipur ?
 - (v) Why do winds blow frequently in Manipur during March ?
 - (vi) Name two important trees of the tropical moist deciduous forests of Manipur.
 - (vii) Why is Imphal Valley densely populated ?

3. Distinguish between
 - (i) Alluvial plain and Lacustrine plain.
 - (ii) Eastern and Western hills of Manipur.
4. Give an account of the central plain of Manipur.
5. Write an account of the drainage of the Barak basin of Manipur.
6. Explain the factors that influence the climate of Manipur.
7. What are the different forest types found in Manipur ? Where are they located ?
8. Give an account of the distribution of population in Manipur.

Map Skills

Draw an outline map of Manipur and show the following.

- (a) the Imphal river.
- (b) the Barak river.
- (c) the Loktak lake.

Project / Activity

- (i) Draw a temperature and rainfall graph of the following stations.

Station	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Jiribam												
Temp. in °C	15	17	21	24	28	30	31	30	28	25	20	16
Rainfall in cm.	2	4	8	26	28	48	41	41	35	19	5	2
Imphal												
Temp. in °C	12	15	19	22	24	25	25	25	25	23	18	14
Rainfall in cm.	2	3	3	11	27	28	27	16	13	10	3	1
Ukhrul												
Temp. in °C	12	14	18	21	24	24	25	24	24	22	17	13
Rainfall in cm.	2	4	4	5	10	24	24	22	17	14	8	1

- (ii) Prepare a list of endangered species of flora and fauna of Manipur and collect information about the efforts being made by the state government to save them.

DEMOCRATIC POLITICS–I

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Chapter-1

Democracy

In modern times governments are either democratic or non-democratic. The end of the World War II brought many colonies of Asia and Africa to the democratic path by setting free from the grip of foreign rules. Several countries of Latin America could revive democracy after 1980. The Soviet Union comprising 15 republics disintegrated in 1991 and some of the republics became democracies. Poland and several other countries became free from the control of Soviet Union. Our democratic country, India has a number of neighbours that cannot be called real democracies.

Several times Pakistan had been under military rule. Pakistan was under the control of a military general, Parvez Musharraf and his military officials. Now it is under the Prime Ministership of Nawaz Sharif who is an elected member. Similarly Myanmar after a long time of its independence held election for the first time in 1990. The National League for Democracy under the leadership of Aung San Suu Kyi won the election. But the military leaders of Myanmar refused to step down and nullified the election results. Suu Kyi and her associates were kept under house arrest. The military government is imposing martial law in the country. Recently in the month of September, 2007 a big rally was organised by thousands of monks and others for democracy. But the military government suppressed it by force. Most of the countries of the world and the United Nations condemned the action. However military rule of Myanmar ended in 2011 giving way to a quasi-reformist civilian government under Myanmar's powerful army Chief, Aung Min Hlaing. Now Myanmar will be having a general election in November, 2015. The leader of National League for Democracy Aung San Suu is expecting huge gains at the ballot box if the election is free and fair. Both Nepal and Bhutan have kings as their rulers and pretend to have democratic governments. Now Nepal has a parliamentary form of government under the Prime Minister, Sunil Koirala. We have heard concepts like 'controlled democracy' of Pakistan and 'guided democracy' of Indonesia. These countries do not have regular general elections to choose rulers. They were ruled by military dictators. Sometimes elections are held but not free and fair elections. The voters are forced to vote for the selected candidates. The people cannot elect their favourites freely.

What is democracy ?

The term democracy is derived from the Greek words 'Demos' which means the people and 'Kratia' implies power. According to Greek philosopher Aristotle, "Democracy is the government of many poor". In the words of Prof. Seeley, "Democracy is a government in which everyone has a share". To Barker democracy is a government by discussion. American President Abraham Lincoln defines democracy as "a government

of the people, by the people and for the people”. According to Garner, “Democracy is that form of government in which the mass of the population possesses the right to share in the exercise of sovereign power”.

We can put in simple words, Democracy is a form of government in which the rulers are elected by the people. Power is vested in the people and hence it is governed by the people. Naturally such a government is constituted and run by the people either directly or indirectly through their representatives. Thus we have two kinds of democracy – direct and indirect. Modern democracies involve such a large number of people that it is physically impossible for them to sit together and take a collective decision. Even if they could the citizens do not have the time, the desire or the skills to take part in all the decisions. Therefore, in the present age we cannot have direct democracy, we have indirect or representative democracy only.

Democratic Principles

The principles on which a democratic government functions are described below :-

1. Equality and Liberty – Equality and Liberty are the two basic principles of democracy. Political equality is extended to the idea of economic equality. Each adult citizen must have one vote and each vote must have one value.
2. A democratic government must be based on a free and fair election. Elections must offer a real choice between political alternatives. If not satisfactory, the rulers can be replaced by another in next election.
3. In a democracy the final decision making power must rest with those elected by the people. In democracy discussions precede decisions.
4. Tolerance is one of the principles that democracy demands. Intolerance on the part of the majority leads to despotism on the minority.
5. In democracy people have the power to change the government through constitutional means. The bullet is replaced by ballot and minimum force is permitted.
6. Democracy is not only a form of government but also a way of life. As a way of life it has social and economic implications.
7. Democracy stands for a rule of the majority with adequate safeguards to the minorities. Governmental machinery shall move accordingly to the wishes of the people.

While choosing the representatives, the electors should be free from any external threat. That means elections must be free and fair thereby encouraging maximum participation of citizens. For this democracy is also known as government by consent.

Elections are contested by party candidates and independent candidates. The majority party will be rulers while the minority party will be in the opposition. In democracy the rulers cannot rule according to their wishes. They are to rule within limits set by constitutional law and citizens' rights. It cannot be an autocratic rule.

Alternatives to democracy

Nowadays governments may be either democratic or dictatorial (autocratic). These non-democratic countries may be ruled by a monarch, a dictator or a single party. Dictatorship does not require all citizens to take part in politics. In fact dictatorial governments would like minimum participation of citizens in politics. In dictatorial government news and view of the people are censored. However, democracy favours active participation of all the citizens. We can say that Pakistan and Myanmar had alternative governments run by military juntas commanding dictatorial rules. In communist countries there had been autocratic rule with an iron hand like that of Lenin, Stalin in USSR and Mao-Zedong in China. But Mao and his followers claimed that they succeeded in establishing 'New Democracy'. However, in such governments public criticism is completely banned.

We have to remember the case of the independence of South Africa and establishment of democracy. The leader of African National Congress, Nelson Mandela and his followers were tried for treason by the white government of South Africa. Nelson was sentenced to life imprisonment in 1964 because they opposed the apartheid or racial segregation policy. Only in 1994, the struggle against the white government succeeded and established a popular government.

Why Democracy ?

Democracy has become the most prevalent form of government in our times. It has been accepted as the best form of government and therefore many governments run after it. It is the like of the people and a way of life also.

Merits of Democracy

1. Democracy is better than any other forms of government in responding to the needs of the people. A non democratic government may respond to the peoples' needs but it all depends on the wish of the rulers. Democracy is more accountable than others.
2. Democracy is based on consultation and discussion. A decision involves many persons, discussions and debates. The wisdom of the many is always better than that of a few. The voice of the people is the voice of God.
3. Differences and conflicts are easily dealt with. The preference of one group can clash with those of other groups. Democracy teaches tolerance to the people. It

stands for peaceful and persuasive methods. It improves the quality of decision making.

4. Democracy enhances the dignity of citizens. It is based on political equality. The poorest and the least educated has the same status as the rich and educated on the principle of one man, one vote.
5. Democracy allows the people to correct their own mistakes. When there are mistakes either the rulers have to change their decisions or the rulers can be changed. This cannot happen in dictatorial governments.
6. Democracy makes people patriotic and free from the fear of violence and revolution to a great extent. Changes in the government may be brought by peaceful methods.
7. It has great educative value because it allows freedom of speech and expression. These freedoms develop the personalities of citizens also. But in dictatorial governments these are kept suppressed.

Demerits of Democracy

1. People can make mistakes while making decisions. The elected are not experts and do not know the best interest of the people.
2. Democracy emphasises quantity than quality. It is more expensive.
3. As many people are to be consulted it leads to delays. Decision making may be slow during emergencies.
4. Democracy leads to corruption for it is based on electoral competition.
5. Leadership keep changing in a democracy and leads to instability.
6. It is all about political competition and power play. There is no scope for morality.

These arguments reveal that democracy may not be an ideal form of government. But it is definitely true that when compared with other forms of government it is the best. That is why with the beginning of the present century many governments have stories of transition to democracy. This form of government is superior to its available alternatives. Every democracy may have same institutions like legislature, executive and judiciary. However, the nature and powers of these institutions will have variations according to the forms of the governments. In USA the President is very powerful while the Congress is weak. The cabinet is also very weak. It works under the control of the American President. But in India and Great Britain they have very weak nominal heads. Their Prime Ministers are very powerful as they are directly elected by the people. The American President is the head of the state as well as the head of the government. Naturally there will be differences between Parliamentary and Presidential forms of democracy. Likewise some differences exist between unitary and federal democracy also.

GLOSSARY

Censorship : A condition under which the freedom of expression is taken away. For making a speech or publishing news and views prior permission is necessary from the government. Anything objectionable by the government cannot be published.

Colony : Territory under the immediate political control of another state. Several western countries had many colonies before the World War II.

Coup : A coup de tat or simply a coup, is the sudden overthrow of a government illegally. It may or may not be violent in nature. The term is French for a ‘Sudden blow or strike to a state’.

Martial law : A system of rules that takes effect when a military authority takes control of the normal administration of justice.

EXERCISES

A. Choose the correct answer from the alternative answers given in each case :

1. Military rule in Pakistan in 1999 was brought by
(a) Ayub Khan (b) Yahya Khan (c) Zia-Ul-Haq (d) Parvez Musharraf.
2. A rally by the monks of Myanmar was organised in against the military ruler.
(a) August 2007 (b) September 2007 (c) October 2007 (d) December 2007.
3. In 1994, Nelson Mandela and his followers were successful in establishing
(a) socialist government (b) communist government (c) military government (d) popular government.

B. Answer the following questions in one sentence each :

1. In which year was the Soviet Union disintegrated ?
2. When did General Parvez Musharraf bring back army rule in Pakistan ?
3. Name the leader of the National League for Democracy of Myanmar who fought against military rule in that country.

C. Give short answers to the following questions:

1. What is the concept of ‘controlled democracy’ or ‘guided democracy’ ?
2. Give the definition of democracy.
3. How is democracy superior to other alternative government ?
4. What are the two most important ideals of democracy ?

D. Answer the following questions:

1. Why did India follow democracy ? Give the history that led to the development of democracy in the country.
2. Why can't the communist have free and fair elections ? Give reasons for why they cannot be called real democratic country.
3. State how the dignity of man can be enhanced by democracy.

Chapter-2

Constitution

Designing of Democracy

In a democracy the rulers cannot exercise absolute powers. They are to work under certain rules and limits. There are certain basic rules that the government and the citizens have to follow. All such rules together are called constitution. The constitution determines the rights of citizens, the powers of the government and how the government should function.

We can take the constitution of South Africa as a good sample for designing the constitution. In South Africa there were three groups of people – the white (rulers) the black (the native people) and the coloured (mixed) including the Indians. The blacks made up about three fourth of the population. There was a system of apartheid or racial segregation in the rule of the whites. The white rulers treated all non-whites as inferiors. The non-whites did not have voting rights.

This system of treatment was very oppressive particularly for the blacks. Everything like train, schools, colleges, cinema halls, even public toilets was kept separate for the blacks. Therefore, since 1950 the blacks, coloured and Indians had fought against the apartheid system. Nelson Mandela, the leader of the African National Congress and some other leaders were kept in jail for 28 years. When the movement became very serious Mandela was released from jail and as the President of South Africa unfurled the new national flag on 26 April, 1994. South Africa became a republic and the rule of racist government came to an end.

The relevant portion is how the constitution of South Africa was made. The black leaders appealed to fellow blacks not to offend the whites for the atrocities they had committed while in power. They wanted to build a new South Africa based on equality of all races, men and women on democratic values, social justice and human rights. After two years of discussions and debates South Africa produced one of the finest constitutions the world has ever had.

The constitution of South Africa inspired democrats all over the world. A state denounced by the entire world till recently as the most undemocratic one is now seen as a model of democracy. The change could be brought by the determination of the people of South Africa to work together, to transform bitter experiences into the binding glue of a rainbow nation. The constitution spoke of both the past and the future. Their constitution shall never permit a repetition of their racist, brutal and repressive past. It is a country truly shared by all its people.

Why do we need a constitution ?

What does a constitution do ?

The South African example is a good way to understand why we need a constitution and what does a constitution do. The oppressor and the oppressed in this new democracy were ready to live together as equals. The white minorities were keen to protect its privileges and property while the majority blacks wanted substantial social and economic rights. After long negotiations both parties agreed to a compromise. They agreed on some basic rules. They also agreed that these rules will be supreme that no government will be able to ignore them. This set of basic rules is called a constitution.

Thus the constitution of a country is a set of written rules that are accepted by all people living together in a country. In Great Britain, there is no set of written constitution. It is the supreme law that determines the relationship among people living in a country and also the relationship between the people and government. A constitution does many things.

1. It generates a degree of trust and co-ordination that is necessary for different kind of people living together.
2. It specifies how the government will be constituted, who will take decision.
3. It lays down the limits on the powers of the government and mentions their rights.
4. Lastly, it expresses the aspirations of the people about creating a good society.

All countries that have constitutions are not necessarily democratic. But all countries that are democratic will have constitutions.

Making of the Indian Constitution

India was born after a century of freedom struggles. It was not an easy affair to make a constitution for a huge and diverse country. The partition of 1947 was a traumatic experience for the people of India and Pakistan. At least ten lakh people were killed on both sides during the violence of the partition. There was another big problem regarding the princely states to which the British gave the option of joining either India or Pakistan or remaining independent. The merger problem aggravated the tension between the two nations. The makers of the constitution had anxieties about the present and the future of the country. The people of India were emerging from the status of subjects to that of citizens.

In India the idea of democracy developed mainly during our struggle for freedom. All sections of Indian people joined the struggle to win freedom. It was a country full

of diversities and mutual tolerance must exist in it. There was the need for political, social and economic equality of the whole people. It was only natural that the constitution that would be adopted after independence, would be democratic constitution, It would ensure freedom and political equality to all sections of Indian citizens. Moreover, the Indian political leader of the past like Mahatma Gandhi and Jawaharlal Nehru were democrats. For all these reasons India became a democracy. The French Revolution of 1789, the Russian Revolution of 1917 had inspired many Indians to think of shaping a system based on social and economic equality. All these factors contributed to the making of the constitution.

The Constituent Assembly

The work of drafting the constitution was entrusted to an assembly of elected members called the Constituent Assembly. Dr. Rajendra Prasad was the Chairman of the Constituent Assembly while Dr. B.R. Ambedkar was that of the Drafting committee. The Constituent Assembly had 299 members. The first meeting of the Constituent Assembly was held in December, 1946 and it adopted the constitution on 26th November, 1949. The constitution of independent India came into force on January 26, 1950. Every year we celebrate January 26 as Republic Day.

Why should we accept the constitution ?

1. The constitution does not reflect the views of its members alone. It expresses a broad consensus of its time. The experience of our constitution is different. Several groups might have questioned some provisions of the constitution over the last half a century, but no large social group or political party has ever questioned the legitimacy of the constitution itself. This is an unnatural achievement for any constitution.
2. The Constituent Assembly represented the people of India. Of course there was no universal adult franchise at that time. But it ensured a fair geographical share members from all the regions of the country. In social terms also the Assembly represented members from different language groups, castes, classes, religions and occupations.
3. Finally, the working manner of the Constituent Assembly gave sanctity to the constitution. It worked in a systematic, open and consensual manner. More than 2000 amendments were considered and members deliberated for 114 days spread over a period three years. Every document presented and every word spoken in the Constituent Assembly has been recorded and preserved. This record is used to interpret the meaning of the constitution.

Guiding Values of the Indian Constitution

We can study the exact overall provisions of the constitution on different subjects. We have to understand the overall philosophy of what our constitution is all about. The Preamble to the constitution clarifies these values.

The Dream and the Promise

To our surprise Mahatma Gandhi, the father of the Nation was not a member of the Constituent Assembly. Yet there were many members who followed his vision. Mahatma Gandhi wanted to have an India that have no social inequality and untouchability. This dream of an India that has eliminated inequality was shared by Dr. Ambedkar. He visualised the idea of political equality but opposed inequality in social and economic life. That was expressed in his concluding speech in the Constituent Assembly. We ought to turn to Jawaharlal Nehru giving his famous speech to the Constituent Assembly at the stroke of midnight on August 14-15, 1947.

Tryst with Destiny Speech

“Long years ago we made a tryst with destiny, and now the time comes when we shall redeem our pledge, not wholly or in full measures, but very substantially. At the stroke of midnight hour, when the world sleeps, India will awake to life and freedom It is fitting that at this solemn moment we take the pledge of dedication to the service of India and her people and to the still larger cause of humanity

Freedom and Power bring responsibility. The responsibility rests upon this Assembly, a sovereign body representing the sovereign people of India. Before this birth of freedom we have endured all the pains of labour and our hearts are heavy with the memory of this sorrow. Some of those pains continue even now. Never the less, the past is over and it is future that beckons to us now.

That future is not one of ease or resting but of incessant striving so that we may fulfil the pledges we have so often taken and the one we shall take today. The service of India means the service of the millions who suffer. It means ending of poverty and ignorance and disease and inequality of opportunity. The ambition of the greatest man of our generation has been to wipe every tear from every eye. That may be beyond us, but as long as there are tears and suffering, so long our work will not be over”.

Philosophy of the Constitution

Values that inspired and guided the freedom struggle and were in turn nurtured by it, formed the foundation for India's democracy. These values are embedded in the preamble of the Indian constitution. It contains the philosophy on which the entire constitution has been constructed. Taking inspiration from American model Indian constitution like most of the countries begin with a preamble. It is the soul of the Indian constitution.

Preamble

“WE, THE PEOPLE OF INDIA, having solemnly resolved to constitute India in a SOVEREIGN SOCIALIST SECULAR DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC and to secure to all its citizens :

JUSTICE, social, economic and political ;

LIBERTY of thought, expression, belief, faith and worship ;

EQUALITY of status and of opportunity :

and to promote among them all

FRATERNITY assuring the dignity of the individual and the Unity and integrity of the Nation ;

IN OUR CONSTITUENT ASSEMBLY this twenty-sixth day of November, 1949, do HEREBY ADOPT, ENACT AND GIVE TO OURSELVES THIS CONSTITUTION”.

The words ‘socialist’ and ‘secular’ have been added in the preamble by the 42nd amendment in 1976 that came into force on 3.1. 1977.

For proper understanding the values enshrined in the Indian constitution we need to know their meaning :

- *We the people of India* : The constitution has been drawn up and enacted by the people through their representatives.
- *Sovereign* : People have supreme right to make decisions. No external power can dictate the government of India.
- *Socialist* : Wealth is generated socially and should be shared equally by society. Government should regulate the ownership of land and industry to reduce socio-economic inequalities.
- *Secular* : There is no state religion for India. Government treats all religious beliefs and practices with equal respect.
- *Democratic* : A government where people enjoy equal political rights, elect their rulers and hold them accountable.
- *Republic* : The head of the state i.e. the President is an elected person and not hereditary.
- *Justice* : Citizens cannot be discriminated on the grounds of caste, religion and gender. Social inequalities have to be reduced.
- *Liberty* : There are no unreasonable restrictions on the citizens in what they think and express.
- *Equality* : All are equal before the law. The government should ensure equal opportunity for all.
- *Fraternity* : All citizens should behave as brothers and sisters of the same family. No one is inferior to another.

Institutional Design : Constitutional Amendments

A constitution is not merely a statement of values and philosophy. It is mainly about embodying these values into institutional arrangements. The Indian constitution is a very long and detailed document having 395 articles and 9 (now 12) schedules. Therefore it needs to be amended quite regularly to keep it updated. The framers of the constitution did not see it as a sacred, static and unalterable law. They made provisions to incorporate changes from time to time. These changes are called constitutional amendments.

The institutional design of the constitution of India lays down a procedure for choosing persons to govern the country. It defines who will have how much power to take which decisions. It also puts limits to what the government can do providing some rights to the citizens that cannot be violated. So, we can say that a constitution is not static but dynamic. It is a living document and undergoes changes when need arises. The constitution of India is said to be first and foremost social document. It contains principles of a welfare state.

Salient features of Indian Constitution

- *Written Constitution* – The constitution of India is written. It contains 395 articles and 12 schedules. After nearly three years of deliberation the Constituent Assembly adopted the constitution on November 26, 1949 and came into effect on January 26, 1950.
- *Rigid and Flexible* – The constitution is rigid in the sense that most of its parts cannot be amended easily. At the same time some portions of it can be easily amended by a simple majority like making of an ordinary law.
- *Sovereign Democratic Republic* – India as a nation does not owe allegiance to any foreign power.

India is a democracy means that sovereignty rests with the people of India.

It is a republic because the head of the state is an elected ruler.

- *Secular state* – India has no state or official religion. There is religious tolerance and anybody can follow any religion according to his faith.
- *Socialist state* – The two words ‘secular’ and ‘socialist’ were added in the preamble after the 42nd amendment of the constitution in 1976. India has its own pattern of socialism different from other socialist countries.
- *Fundamental Rights and Duties* – Indian constitution has a comprehensive Bill of Rights. They are enforceable in the law court. There are a number of fundamental duties to be obeyed by citizens of India.

- A distinctive feature of the constitution is that it contains a chapter on Directive Principles of State Policy. These directives relate mostly to social and economic justice. The Central government and State governments must implement them in the governance. They are in justiciable.
- *Partly federal and partly unitary* :- The constitution has federal materials relating to the power of judicial review and independence of judiciary. It is also partly unitary because the State Chief Ministers can be summoned by the central leaders for explanation of certain issues.
- *Parliamentary System of Government* :- Both in the centre and the State governments the executive is responsible to the legislature. The Prime Minister and his Cabinet are the real executive while the President of India is the nominal head.

These are the basic features of the Indian Constitution. Besides, there are certain features like Universal adult franchise, Reservation of seats for S.T. and S.C. in the Central and State legislatures. The framers of Indian Constitution drew many elements from the US constitution like independence of judiciary, judicial review and fundamental rights; parliamentary system from England; Directive Principles from Ireland concurrent list from Australia etc. However, the Constituent Assembly did not merely imitate them but inserted after long deliberation and consensus.

GLOSSARY

Apartheid : The official policy of racial segregation and ill treatment of blacks followed by the government of South Africa between 1948 and 1989.

Constitution : Supreme law of a country, containing fundamental rules governing the politics and society in a country.

Constitutional amendment : A change in the constitution made by the supreme legislative body in a country.

Draft : A preliminary version of a legal document.

Philosophy : The most fundamental principles underlying one's thought and actions.

Preamble : An introductory statement in a constitution which states the reasons and guiding values of the constitution.

Treason : The offence of attempting to overthrow the government of the state to which the offender owes allegiance.

Tryst : A meeting or meeting place that has been agreed upon.

EXERCISES**A. Choose the correct answer from the alternative answers given in each case :**

1. "The ambition of the greatest man of our generation has been to wipe every tear from every eye" (Nehru)
 - (a) Subhash Chandra Bose
 - (b) Mahatma Gandhi
 - (c) Gangadhar Tilak
 - (d) Dr. Ambedkar.
2. Who was the chairman of the Constituent Assembly ?
 - (a) Pandit Nehru
 - (b) Dr. Ambedkar
 - (c) Dr. Rajendra Prasad
 - (d) Dr. S. Radhakrishnan.
3. The Constituent Assembly had
 - (a) 278 members
 - (b) 287 members
 - (c) 291 members
 - (d) 299 members.

B. Answer in one sentence.

1. Why do we need a constitution ?
2. Why are constitutional principles unalterable ?
3. What do you mean by Secularism ?
4. Why is India called a republic ?

C. Give short answers to the following questions.

1. What is the difference between economic equality and social equality ?
2. "The Constitution of South Africa speaks of both the past and the future" Why is it said so ?
3. What is a racist government ? Give one example of it practised in any country.

D. Answer the following questions.

1. What are main principles borrowed by the framers of the Indian constitution from foreign countries ?
2. What are the main agreements arrived at by the majority and the minority people of South Africa before the adoption of its constitution.

Chapter-3

Parliamentary Democracy

Overview of Central Governmental Structures

The rulers in a democracy have to work with and within institutions. This chapter will concern with the working of such institutions in a democracy. There are mainly three institutions that play a key role in making major decisions. They are Legislature, Executive and Judiciary. These institutions are also known as organs of the government. We must try to understand how all these institutions together carry on the works of the government. In this chapter by government we mean the working of the national level government called Central Government, Union government or just Government of India. For easy understanding let us see how a government order was issued which was very much controversial in the Indian Society.

A Government Order

The Government of India issued an order on August 13, 1990 in the form of an Office Memorandum. It was signed by a joint secretary in the Department of Personnel and Training in the Ministry of Personnel, Public Grievances and Pensions.

The order related to a major policy decision of the government. It said that 27 per cent of the vacancies in civil post and services under the Government of India are reserved for the Socially and Economically Backward Classes (SEBC). The benefit of job reservation was till then available only to Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. Now a new third category called SEBC has been added.

The Decision Makers

The person who signed the document could not be the maker of such a major decision. The Joint Secretary was merely implementing a government decision. He was just following an instruction issued by the relevant Ministry. Let us examine some of the major institutions that might have authority to make the decision.

1. The President of India is the head of the state and is the highest authority in the country.
2. The Prime Minister is the head of the government and actually exercises all government powers. He takes most of the decisions in the Cabinet meetings.
3. Indian Parliament has two houses – Lok Sabha and Rajya Sabha. The Prime Minister must have the support of majority members of Lok Sabha.

This Office Memorandum was the result of a long chain of events. The Government of India appointed the Second Backward Classes Commission in 1979. B.P. Mandal

headed it and hence it is known as Mandal Commission. It recommended 27 per cent government job reservation for the socially and economically backward classes along with others. The Report was submitted in 1980 and the Parliament started discussion on the recommendations.

Many parliamentarians and political parties kept on demanding its implementation. In the election of 1989 the Janata Dal in its election manifesto promised implementation if voted to power. The Janata Dal formed the Government with V.P. Singh as the Prime Minister.

- (a) The President of India in his address to the Parliament announced the intention to implement it.
- (b) On 6 August, 1990 the Union Cabinet took a formal decision on it.
- (c) V.P. Singh informed the two houses of Parliament about the decision.
- (d) The decision of the Cabinet was sent to the department of Personnel and Training and the Office Memorandum was issued accordingly.

This order was hotly debated and filled news papers and magazines in the country that led to wide spread protests and counter protests. Some persons and associations filed a number of cases in the law courts against the order. By a majority judgment of the supreme court in 1992 it was declared valid. The dispute came to an end and ever since the policy has been followed.

The government has to do so many things like decision making, its implementation and settling disputes if needed etc. Therefore, several arrangements are made in all modern democracies. Such arrangements are called institutions. A democracy works well when these institutions perform functions assigned to them. In India the constitution lays down basic rules on the powers and functions of each institution.

1. The Prime Minister and his cabinet are to take all important policy decisions.
2. The civil servants are to implement the minister's decision.
3. If disputes arise between the citizens and the government the Supreme Court has to settle.

Why do we need a Parliament ?

In all democracies, an assembly of elected representatives exercises supreme power of the government on behalf of the people. Such a national assembly is called Parliament in India. The Indian Parliament exercises political authority on behalf of the people in many ways.

1. Parliament is the final authority for making laws. It can make new laws, change existing laws and replace old laws by new ones.

2. It has control over those who run the government. In India this control is direct and full. The cabinet can take decisions so long as it enjoys support or confidence of the parliament.
3. Parliament controls all the money that a government has. No single rupee can be spent without the sanction of the parliament.
4. It is the highest forum of debate and discussion on public issues and national policy.

Two Houses of Parliament

Parliament of India consists of the President and two Houses. The Lower House is called the House of the people (Lok Sabha) while the Upper House is known as the Council of States (Rajya Sabha).

The President of India is a part of the Parliament although he is not a member of either house. That is why all laws made in the Houses come into force only after they receive the assent of the President.

The Rajya Sabha represents the states and the Lok Sabha represents the people of India. The Rajya Sabha consists of 250 members out of which 12 are nominated by the President. The members are elected indirectly by the members of the state assembly.

The Lok Sabha has 545 including 2 nominated members and are elected directly by the people.

The council of states is a permanent chamber not subject to dissolution. The term of its members is six years. One third of its members retire on the expiration of every second year. The term of the House of the people is five years. But it can be dissolved earlier by the President.

Which one is more powerful ?

It might appear that the Rajya Sabha is more powerful as it is known as the Upper House. The Indian Constitution gives Rajya Sabha special power over the state. But on most matters, the Lok Sabha exercises supreme power.

1. Any ordinary law is passed by both the Houses. But if there is a difference of opinion between the two Houses, the final decision is taken in a joint session. The Lok Sabha is likely to prevail because of larger number of members.
2. All the money bills starts from Lok Sabha only and when it is passed, the Rajya Sabha cannot reject it. The Rajya Sabha can only delay it by 14 days or suggest changes in it. The Lok Sabha may or may not accept these changes.
3. The Lok Sabha controls the Council of Ministers. If the majority of the House say they have 'no confidence', in the Council of Ministers, all ministers including the Prime Minister have to quit. The Rajya Sabha does not have this power.

If a Prime Minister cannot get the support of the majority members of the Lok Sabha he cannot take any decision freely. Thus we know that at different levels of the government many institutions take day to day decisions but cannot exercise supreme power on behalf of the people. All those functionaries are collectively known as the executive. They are called executive because they are in charge of the 'execution' of the policies of the government. When we talk about 'the government' we usually mean the executive.

Political and Permanent Executive

There are two categories of executive in a democracy. The elected executive members of the legislature are called Political Executive. They are appointed for a specific period and are leaders who take major decisions. In the second category there are officials who are appointed on a long term basis. They are civil servants and professional rather experts in many fields. They are known as Permanent Executive. They remain in office even when the ruling party changes. These officers work under political executives and assist the latter in carrying out day to day administration. This happened in the case of the issue of the Office Memorandum.

Which one is more powerful ?

Definitely ministers are more powerful than the civil servants. In a democracy the will of the people is supreme and ministers are elected by the people. They are empowered to exercise the will of the people. He is finally answerable to the people for all the consequences of his decisions. That is why the minister takes all the final decisions.

Of course, the civil servant is usually more educated and has more professional knowledge of the subject. The advisors working in the Finance Ministry knew more about economics than the finance minister. The minister is amateur and has little knowledge about technical matters. The minister cannot be expected to be an expert. He takes the advice of the experts on all technical matters. But very often experts hold different opinions or place before the minister more than one option. Here the final decision is given by the minister. The experts can tell the route, but the minister decides the destination. Thus most important decisions are taken by the political executives i.e. the ministers.

Prime Minister and Council of Ministers

The Prime Minister of India holds the most important position and in fact he is more powerful than the President of India. Yet there is no direct election to the post of

the Prime Minister. Constitutionally the Prime Minister is appointed by the President. But the President has little choice in the matter. He cannot appoint anyone he likes. The President appoints the leader of the majority party or the coalition of parties that commands a majority in the Lok Sabha, as Prime Minister. In case no single party or alliance gets a majority, the President appoints the person most likely to secure a majority support.

The Prime Minister does not have fixed tenure. He continues in power so long as he remains the leader of the majority party or coalition. The President appoints other ministers on the advice of the Prime Minister.

The ministers are usually from the party or the coalition that has the majority in the Lok Sabha. The Prime Minister is free to choose ministers, as long as they are members of parliament. Some times a non-member may be appointed minister. But he must become a member of the Parliament within 6 months of his appointment.

The Council of Ministers are usually top level leaders of the ruling party. Council of Ministers is the official name for the body that include all ministers. The Council usually has 60 to 80 ministers of different ranks.

1. Cabinet ministers are top level leaders of the ruling party or parties who are in charge of the major ministries. The Cabinet ministers meet to take decisions in the name of the Council of Ministers. Cabinet is thus the inner ring of the Council of Ministers. It comprise about 20 ministers.
2. Minister of State with independent charge are in charge of smaller ministries. Only when invited they participate in the Cabinet meetings.
3. Ministers of State are attached to and required to assist cabinet ministers.

All ministers cannot meet regularly and discuss every thing. That is why discussions are taken in cabinet meetings. For this reason parliamentary democracy is also known as cabinet form of government. Since the cabinet is wholly responsible to the Parliament it is also known as responsible government. The cabinet works as a team and any minister cannot criticise any decision of the government. Every ministry is assisted by a Secretary and the Secretaries taken together is known as Cabinet Secretariat. The senior civil servants try to co-ordinate the different ministries.

The Powers of the Prime Minister

The Prime Minister has wide ranging power as the head of the government. He presides over cabinet meetings. He co-ordinates the work of the different departments. His decisions are final in case disagreements arise between departments. All ministers work under his leadership and supervision. He distributes and redistributes portfolios to

the ministers. He can dismiss any minister if he displeases him. When the Prime Minister quits office the entire ministry quits. Thus if the cabinet is the most powerful institution, the Prime Minister is the most powerful functionary. He is the maker of the cabinet and is central to its formation, central to its life and central to its death. He is leader of the Parliament, leader of cabinet and leader of the nation.

Jawaharlal Nehru, the first Prime Minister of India and his daughter Indira Gandhi could exercise enormous authority while they were in office. However in recent years the rise of coalition politics has imposed certain constraints on the power of the Prime Minister. He has to accommodate different groups and factions in the ministry and hence cannot take decisions as he likes. The present Prime Minister Narendra Modi won overwhelming majority in the elections of 2014 and exercises enormous power as the executive head.

The President

In India the Prime Minister is the head of the government and the President is the head of the state. In parliamentary democracy the head of the state exercises only nominal powers, the real powers are exercised by the Prime Minister and his cabinet. Like the Queen of England, the President's functions are to a large extent ceremonial. He supervises the overall functioning of the political institutions.

All the Members of Parliament (MPs) and members of state assemblies (MLAs) elect the President. So, the President is not directly elected. His tenure of office is five years. He can be removed from office by means of impeachment only which requires a special procedure. The indirect election shows that the President is representing the entire nation.

Outwardly there is nothing that President cannot do. All governmental activities take place in the name of the President. All laws and major policy decisions of the government are issued in his name. In his name all major appointments are made. The appointments include those of the Chief Justice of India, the judges of Supreme Court and High Courts of States, the governors of the states, the election commissioners, ambassadors to other countries, Comptroller and Auditor General of India, members of the Election Commission and the Union Public Service Commission. He is the supreme commander of the defence forces in India. All international treaties are concluded in his name.

It is to be noted that the President exercises powers only on the advice of the Council of Ministers. He can ask the Council of Ministers to reconsider its advice. But if the same advice is given again, he is bound to act accordingly. Likewise, a bill passed by the Union Parliament becomes a law only after the President gives his assent. If the President wants he can delay the bill for sometime and send the bill back to Parliament for reconsideration. But if the Parliament passes the bill again he has no option but to sign it.

The President can exercise his discretionary power at the time of appointment of the Prime Minister when a party or a coalition of parties cannot enjoy clear majority in the election. The President has to appoint a leader who in his opinion can enjoy majority support in the Lok Sabha. The President can ask the newly appointed Prime Minister to prove majority support in the Lok Sabha within a specified time. Such situation arose in 1979 when the President appointed Chaudhuri Charan Singh as the Prime Minister.

These are the main powers and functions of the President of India. But his emergency power are exceptionally powerful. He also has the power of pardons, reprieves etc. In short as a nominal head he can do nothing contrary to the advice of the Council of Ministers, nor can he do anything without their advice. The emergency powers also can be exercised on the advice of the cabinet only.

The Presidential System

Quite contrary to the position and powers of the President of India there are powerful presidents all over the world. In presidential form of governments, the President is both the head of the state and the head of the government. The President of the United States of America is the most well known example of such kind. The President of USA is directly elected by the people. He personally chooses and appoints all ministers. He has power to dismiss the ministers. The President can veto any law passed by the Congress (US legislature). The President does not require the support of the majority of members of the Congress. He has fixed tenure of 4 years and completes it. He is not answerable to the Congress.

This model is followed in most countries of Latin America. This system is called Presidential form of government. But in India the executive is accountable and responsible to the Parliament.

GLOSSARY

Coalition government : A government by an alliance of two or more parties, usually when no single party enjoys majority support of the members in a legislature.

Executive : A body of persons having authority to initiate major policies, make decisions and implement them on the basis of the constitution and laws of the country.

Judiciary : An institution empowered to administer justice and provide a mechanism for the resolution of legal disputes. All the courts in the country are collectively referred to as judiciary.

Legislature : An assembly of people's representatives with the power to enact laws for a country. In addition to enacting laws, legislatures have authority to raise taxes and adopt the budget and the other bills. It can exercise power of impeachment.

Office Memorandum : A communication issued by an appropriate authority stating the policy or order of the government.

Reservations : A policy that declares some positions in government employment and educational institutions 'reserved' for people and communities who have been discriminated against, are disadvantaged and backward.

State : Political association occupying a definite territory, having an organised government and possessing power to make domestic and foreign policies. Government may change, but the state continues. In common speech, the terms country, nation and state are used as synonyms.

EXERCISES

A. Choose the correct answer from the alternative answers given in each case :

1. The tenure of office of the President of USA is
(a) 3 years (b) 4 years (c) 5 years (d) 6 years.
2. The total number of members of Lok Sabha is including two nominated members.
(a) 540 (b) 543 (c) 545 (d) 550.
3. The Mandal Commission recommended per cent of government job reservation for the socially and economically backward classes with others.
(a) 25 (b) 27 (c) 29 (d) 33.

B. Give very short answer of the following questions:

1. Who presides over the meetings of the Union Cabinet ?
2. Who are the Civil Servants of the country ?
3. What is the full form of SEBC ?

C. Give short answers to the following questions:

1. Draw the differences between political executive and permanent executive.
2. Write the condition under which a democratic government works well.
3. How is the Report and recommendations of the Mandal Commission unfair to some group of educated youths ?

D. Give answers of the following questions:

1. When has the President of India a chance to exercise his discretionary power in the appointment of the Prime Minister ?
2. How does the position and power of the President of a Parliamentary government differ from those of the counterpart in the Presidential form of government ?

Chapter-4

Citizens' Rights and Duties in Democracy

To make a government democratic, elections and institutions need to be combined with a third element i.e. enjoyment of rights. Even the most properly elected rulers working through the established institutional process must learn not to cross some limit. Citizens' democratic rights set many limits in a democracy. To have an idea what would happen to our lives in the absence of rights let us read the following case histories.

Prison in Guantanamo Bay

The United States forces secretly picked up about 600 people from different countries and put in prison in Guantanamo Bay, an area near Cuba. It was under the control of US Navy. The American government said that these prisoners were enemies of USA and linked to the attack on New York on September 11, 2001. Families of the prisoners were not informed of the arrest but they came to know it through media only. No one including the UN representatives were allowed to meet the prisoners. There was no judicial trial nor could these prisoners approach courts in their own country.

The Amnesty International, an international human rights organisation got the information and produced condemned reports on the conditions of the prisoners. Even prisoners of war are not treated in that brutal condition. The prisoners tried protesting against these conditions by going on hunger strike. The UN Secretary General said the prisoners should be closed down while the US Government refused to accept these pleas. Prisoners were not released even after they were officially declared not guilty.

Citizens' Rights in Saudi Arabia

Let us see the case of Saudi Arabia and the position of citizens with regard to their government, consider these facts :

- The country is ruled by a hereditary king and people have no role in electing or changing the ruler.
- The king selects the legislature as well as the executive. He appoints the judges and can change any of their decision.
- Citizens cannot form political parties or any political organisations. Media cannot report anything that the monarch does not like.
- No freedom of religion. Every citizen is required to be Muslims Non-Muslim residents can follow their religion in private.

- Women are subjected to many public restrictions. The testimony of one man is equal to that of two women.

Ethnic Massacre in Kosovo

Kosovo was a province of Yugoslavia before its split. In Kosovo Albanian population was overwhelming. However in the entire country, Serbs were in majority. Milosevic, a narrow minded serb nationalist won the election and his government was very hostile to ethnic Albanians. He wanted the serbs to dominate the country.

This is what happened to an Albanian family in Kosovo in April, 1999. One Batisha Hoxha, a 74 year old woman was sitting in the kitchen with her old husband Izet. They heard explosions but did not realise that Serbian troops had already entered the town. Next moment 5 or 6 soldiers broke into the kitchen and were demanding "Where are your children? they shot Izet three times in the chest". The soldiers pulled the wedding ring off her finger and told her to get out. Hardly she reached outside the gate when the house was set ablazed.

It happened to thousands of Albanians. This massacre was being carried out by the army of their own country. This was the worst instances of killings based on ethnic prejudices. Milosevic lost power and was tried by Intertionational Court of Justice for crimes against humanity.

Rights in Democracy

After reading the above stories of the victims you would perhaps desire a system where security, dignity and fair play are assured to everyone. You would like that no one should be arrested without proper reason and information. If someone is arrested, he or she should have a fair chance to defend themselves. In democracy some assurances must be enforced and those who violate these assurances must be punished. There should be a system where at least some assurance are guaranteed to everyone – powerful or weak, rich or poor, majority or minority. According to Harold Laski the excellence of a state can be judged by the right it makes available to its citizens.

The possession of rights has been regarded as an essential characteristic of citizenship in all ages and climes. Rights define the position of the individual in a state. Man neither lives alone nor can satisfy his wants single handed. He has to live and work in co-operation with others. He must have the opportunity of free thought and action. He puts forth certain claims but these cannot be selfish claims. All of his claims require social recognition. No true right is based on individual fantasy. Rights are as much the product of social as of the individual need.

What are rights ?

Rights are claims of a person over other fellow beings over the society and over the government. Man wants to live happily without any fear and doubt. For this he expects others to behave in such a way that does not harm him or hurt him. So, a right is possible when you make a claim that is equally possible for others. The claims we make should be reasonable. They should be such that as can be made available to others in an equal measure. Thus a right comes with an obligation to respect other's right.

Just because we claim something it does not become our right. It has to be recognised by the society we live in. Rights have significance only in society. Every society makes certain rules to regulate our conduct. They tell us what is right and what is wrong. What is recognised by the society as rightful becomes the basis of rights. That is why the notion of rights changes from time to time and society to society. Right to properly once became a fundamental right of Indian citizens but it no longer is one at present. If we want to call any claim a right, it has to have three qualities. Rights are reasonable claims of persons recognised by society and sanctioned by law. That means claims must become enforceable to become rights. In the words of Laski, "rights, in fact, are those conditions of social life without which no man can seek, in general, to be himself at his best."

Basic elements of Rights

1. Right is a claim 2. Claim should be just and reasonable 3. Social recognition 4. Rights imply duties 5. Rights change with time and place.

Why are Rights needed in a democracy ?

Rights are necessary for the very existence of democracy. Every citizen must have right to elect and the right to be elected to government. While participating in political party he must have right to express, to form unions, to strike against the government policy, to criticise etc. which are very much essential in a democratic state. The minority should have right to protection from the oppression of the majority. Rights need to be placed higher than the government otherwise the government may even attack the rights of their own citizen. Therefore, rights should be written down in the constitution.

Rights in the Indian Constitution

Democratic philosophy considers some of the individual rights as basic or fundamental. These rights must be guaranteed by the state and secured against

encroachment by governmental agencies. In democratic countries such rights are enshrined in the constitution of the state. India has followed their example. Dr. B.R. Ambedkar emphasised the two fold object of the Fundamental Rights : “Citizen must be in a position to claim these rights. Secondly they must be binding on every authority”.

Some rights which are fundamental to our life are given a special status. The preamble to our constitution talks about securing for all citizens equality, liberty and justice. Fundamental Rights put this promise into effect. They are important basic features of India's constitution. The Indian constitution provides six fundamental rights.

1. Right to Equality :

The constitution says that the government shall not deny to any person equality before the law or the equal protection of the laws. Rule of law is the foundation of any democracy. No person can legally claim any special treatment or privilege on grounds of high birth, religion race, colour, status etc. There cannot be any distinction between a political leader, government official and an ordinary citizen. The government shall not discriminate against any citizen on the above grounds. It says that every citizen shall have access to all public places.

The same applies to public jobs. All citizens have equality of opportunity. Equality means giving everyone an equal opportunity to achieve whatever one is capable of. Sometimes it is necessary to give special treatment to someone to ensure equal opportunity. Job reservation for disabled, Scheduled Tribes and Scheduled Castes is of this kind. It extends to social life also. It refers to any belief or social practice which looks down upon people on account of their birth with certain caste labels Therefore, untouchability has been legally abolished from the Indian society.

2. Right to Freedom :

Freedom means absence of constraints. It means absence of interference in our affairs by others and government. Others should not dictate us what we should do. We want to live in society but we want to be free. Under the Indian constitution all citizens have six freedoms.

- to freedom of speech and expression
- to assemble peacefully without arms
- to form associations and unions
- to move freely throughout the territory of India
- to reside and settle in any part of India
- to practise any profession or to carry on any occupation, trade or business.

Every citizen has the right to all these freedoms. It means we cannot exercise our freedom in such a manner that violates other's right to freedom. Freedoms should not cause public nuisance or disorder. You are free to do everything which injures no one else. Freedom is not unlimited license to do what one likes. The government can impose certain reasonable restrictions in the larger interests of the society.

Our idea and personality develops only when we can express our views freely. We can not use freedom of speech and expression to instigate violence against others. It should not incite people to revolt against government.

When we exercise freedom to hold meeting, processions, rallies and demonstrations on any issue we want to discuss a problem, exchange ideas, mobilise public support etc. But such meetings are to be peaceful and they should not lead to public disorder or breach of peace. All citizens have the freedom to travel to any part of the country and are free to reside and settle in any part of India. The same freedom extends to choice of occupations.

The constitution says that no person can be deprived of his life or personal liberty. It means that no person can be executed unless the court has ordered a death sentence. That means the citizens enjoy right to life.

3. Right Against Exploitation :

Once the right to liberty and equality is granted, it follows that every citizen has a right not be exploited. The constitution mentions three specific evils and declares these illegal.

- (a) It prohibits 'traffic' in human beings. Traffic means selling and buying of human being specially women for immoral purposes.
- (b) The constitution prohibits forced labour or 'begar' in any form. Begar is a practice where the worker is forced to render service free of charge or at a minimum remuneration. It is a form of bonded labour.
- (c) The constitution also prohibits child labour. No one can employ a child below the age of fourteen to work in any factory or mine.

4. Right to Freedom of Religion :

Every person has a right to profess, practise and propagate the religion he or she believes in. Every religious group or sect is free to manage its religious affairs. A person is free to change religion on his own will. Freedom to practise religion does not mean that a person can do whatever he wants in the name of religion. One cannot sacrifice animals or human beings as offering to Gods. One cannot force a widow to shave head or wear white clothes.

A secular state is one that does not confer any privilege or favour on any particular religion. The government cannot compel any person to pay any taxes for promotion or maintenance of any particular religious institutions. There shall be no religious instructions in the government educational institutions. In private bodies no person shall be compelled to take part in any religious instruction. No person shall be coerced to take part in my religions instructions or to attend any religious congregations against his or her will.

5. Cultural and Educational Rights :

It includes the following :

- (i) Any section of the people of India having its own language, script or culture shall have a right to conserve the same.
- (ii) All minorities, whether based on religion or language have the right to establish and administer educational institutions of their choice.
- (iii) No citizen shall be denied admission to any educational institution maintained by the state or receiving aid out of state funds on grounds only of religion, race, caste, language or any of them.
- (iv) The state shall not, in granting aid to educational institutions, discriminate against any educational institution on the ground that it is under the management of a minority, whether based on religion or language.

6. Right to Constitutional Remedies :

How to secure the above rights? If rights are like guarantees, they are of no use if there is no one to honour them. The fundamental rights are important because they are enforceable. We have the right to seek the enforcement of the above mentioned rights. This is called the Right to Constitutional Remedies. This itself is a fundamental right. This right makes other rights effective. When any of our rights are violated one can seek remedy through courts. That is why Dr. Ambedkar called the Right to Constitutional Remedies 'the heart and soul' of our constitution. In addition to these rights Right to Education and Right to Information etc. become very popular among citizens.

Fundamental rights are guaranteed against the actions of the legislature, the executive and any other authorities instituted by the government. There can be no law or action that violates the fundamental rights. In case of any violation of a fundamental right the aggrieved person can go to a court of law for remedy. The Supreme Court, the High Courts have the power to issue directions, orders or writs for the enforcement of fundamental rights. They can also award compensation to the victims and punishment to the violators.

Public Interest Litigation (PIL)

When fundamental rights are violated either by the government or private bodies the aggrieved person can take the help of the courts of law for remedy. But now, any person can go to court of law against the violation of the fundamental rights, if it involves public interest. It is called Public Interest Litigation (PIL) Under the PIL any citizen or group of citizens can approach the Supreme Court or High Courts for the protection of the public interest against a particular law or action of the government. One can write to the judges even on a post card. The court will take up the matter if the judges consider it to be in public interest. Judicial activism has become a popular practice in India.

National Human Rights Commission

National Human Rights Commission is an independent body. It was set up by law in 1993. There has been the growing awareness of human rights and struggles for human dignity. Many cases of human rights violation are being brought to the public notice from across India. Human Rights Commissions and the media often criticise government agencies for not seriously pursuing these cases or punishing the culprits.

The Gujarat riots took place in 2002. A large number of cases were filed in the courts against those accused of rioting and massacre of nearly 2000 persons mostly Muslims. These are brutal actions violating human rights.

With regard to violation of human rights someone had to intervene on behalf of the victims. This is where the National Human Rights Commission starts actions. The commission is appointed by the President of India and includes retired judges, officers and eminent citizens. Yet it does not have the burden of deciding many cases. So it can focus on helping the victims and secure to them human rights.

The commission cannot by itself punish the guilty. That is the responsibility of law courts. The commission is there to make independent inquiry into any case of violation of human rights. It also enquired case of violation or negligence in controlling it by any government officer and takes other general steps to promote human rights in the country. It has wide ranging to carry out its inquiry. Like any court it can summon witness, question any official paper, visit any prison for inspection or send its own team for on the spot inquiry. At present most of the states of India including Manipur have state Human Rights Commissions.

Critical estimate of the Fundamental Rights

- Although the rights guaranteed by the constitution of India are important, they are difficult to obtain. Positive rights such as the right to work, medical care, maintenance in old age and sickness are not found in the constitution.

- The Right to equality is not absolute and is subject to certain exceptions such as reservation. Critics argue that reservation whether in legislature or in services is against the spirit of equality. But the supporters of reservation argue that it aims at establishing social and economic democracy.
- The right to freedom is very much restricted. The state has enormous powers to control the right to freedom in the interest of sovereignty and integrity of India. The interests of an individual or a group are not in strict consonance with the interests of the nation as a whole.
- The special rights guaranteed to the minorities also violate the principle of equality. The minorities have the right to establish and administer educational institutions. They have the rights to get financial aid from the state for their institutions. But the Hindus have no such right being majority in India. The Hindus argue that it is disadvantageous to be Hindus.
- No fundamental right to property. The original constitution guaranteed to all citizens the right to acquire, hold and dispose of property. But the article relating to this right has been repealed by the 44th Amendment Act of 1978. Now the right to property is no more a fundamental right.
- The President of India has the power to proclaim Emergency in certain conditions. While a proclamation of Emergency is in operation the fundamental rights can be suspended, including the right to move any court for the enforcement of such rights.

In spite of these criticisms, we can say that some of these fundamental rights fulfil the aspiration of the people of India. For example, Right to Freedom, Right to Freedom of Religion, Right to constitutional remedies are the fundamental contribution of the Drafting Committee. Their objective is in the interests of the whole of India. Therefore, we have to appreciate the makers of the Indian Constitution for giving to the people of India such high quality fundamental rights.

Fundamental Duties

We cannot expect rights without duties. Rights imply duties. The two are correlated. They are just like the two faces of the same coin. Duties are of two kinds – duties towards the society and duties to other individuals. Every individual has a duty i.e. to respect the rights of others.

The citizens of India should obey the constitution and respect the National Flag and the National Anthem. They must protect the Sovereignty, Unity and Integrity of India. They must defend the country and render national service when the Nation calls upon

to do so. They must preserve the value of the rich heritage of the composite culture of India. They are also asked to safeguard public property and not to take violence. To ensure the dignity of women and to protect the varied wild life of the country are also important duties to promote harmony in the diversities of religions, languages and cultures. Lastly they must develop scientific temper, humanism and the spirit of inquiry and reform.

The Judiciary

All the courts at different levels in a country put together are called the Judiciary. An independent and powerful judiciary is considered essential for democracy. Judiciary is one of the most important organs of the government.

The Indian judiciary consists of a Supreme Court for the entire nation, High Courts for the states, district courts and the local courts at local level. India has an integrated judiciary which means the Supreme Court controls the judicial administration in the country.

The Supreme Court can take up any disputes.

- (a) between citizens of the country.
- (b) between citizen and government.
- (c) between two or more state governments.
- (d) between Union and any state government.

The Supreme Court is the highest court of appeal in civil and criminal cases. It can hear appeals against the decisions of the High Courts.

Independence of Judiciary

Independence of Judiciary means that it is not under the control of the legislature or the executive. The judges do not act on the direction of the government or according to the wishes of party in power. That is why modern democracies have courts that are independent of the legislature and executive.

The judges of the Supreme Court and High Courts are appointed by the President on the advice of the Prime Minister and in consultation with the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court. In practice the senior judges of the Supreme Court select the new judges of the Supreme Court and High Courts. The senior most judge of the Supreme Court is usually appointed the Chief Justice. There is very little scope for interference by the political executive.

Removal

Once appointed a judge of the Supreme Court holds office until he attains the age of 65 years. It is nearly impossible to remove him from that position. A judge can be removed only by an impeachment motion passed separately by two thirds members of the two Houses in Parliament. It has never happened in the history of Indian judiciary.

Judicial Review

The Supreme Court and High Courts have the power to interpret the constitution of the country. They can declare invalid any law of the legislature or actions of the executive. In many democratic countries we may not find this power of judicial review. This is a special power of the courts to review the actions of the government officials.

Guardian of the Fundamental Rights

The Indian Judiciary is the guardian of the fundamental rights. Citizens have a right to approach courts of law to seek remedy in case of any violation of their rights. In recent years the courts have given several judgments and directions to protect public interests and human rights. Any one can approach the courts if public interest is hurt by the actions of the government. This is called Public Interest Litigation (PIL). The courts intervene to prevent the misuse of the government's power. They check malpractices on the part of the public officials. Thus the judiciary can command a high level of confidence of the people.

GLOSSARY

Amnesty International : An international organisation of volunteers who campaign for human rights. This organisation brings out independent reports on the violation of human rights all over the world.

Claim : Demand for legal or moral entitlements a person makes on fellow citizens, society or the government.

Traffic : Selling and buying of man, women or children for immoral purposes, Trafficking of women is more common.

Summon : An order issued by a court asking a person to appear before it.

Writ : A formal document containing an order of the court to the government issued only by High Courts or Supreme Court.

EXERCISES**A. Choose the correct answer from the alternative answers given in each case :**

1. The right to properly has been repealed by the Amendment Act of 1978.
(a) 44th (b) 46th (c) 48th (d) 50th.
2. The National Human Rights Commission was setup by the Government of India of India in
(a) 1992 (b) 1993 (c) 1994 (d) 1995.
3. No one can employ a child below the age of
(a) 14 years (b) 15 years (c) 16 years (d) 17 years.

B. Give very short answers.

1. How do rights imply duties ?
2. What is meant by Judicial Review ?
3. What fundamental right is called the 'heart and soul' of the constitution of India by Dr. Ambedkar ?
4. What is the independence of judiciary ?

C. Give short answers to the following questions.

1. Why limitations and restrictions are necessary on the exercise of certain rights ?
2. What are the basic elements of rights ?
3. Write the six freedoms guaranteed by the constitution of India.

D. Give answers of the following questions.

1. Explain the powers and functions of the Supreme Court of India.
2. Show the importance of rights in modern democracy.
3. Give a critical estimate of the fundamental rights of Indian citizens.

UNDERSTANDING ECONOMICS - I

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Theme-I

The Khwairamband Market

Thousands of people visit the Khwairamband market from dawn to late in night. They come to buy what they need and to sell what they have. Innumerable goods such as vegetables, fish, cereals, household goods, luxury items etc. exchange hands in the market. Labourers wait patiently to be engaged for some work. Why do they come to the market? Are they able to get what they want? Why are some goods produced and services rendered in the first place? Why at all certain goods are brought to the market? Why are goods produced using a particular technique rather than another? Why are goods sold at the price they are sold in the market? In short why does onion sell at Rs 50 per kg? Why does a kilogram of passion fruit cost Rs 20 at Imphal when it is available at Rs 8 at Mao? What determines the level of output of a particular commodity? Why and how does the government intervene in the operation of the market? These are some of the questions that economics deals with. The three basic questions economics deals with are : what goods are to be produced? How should the goods be produced? For whom the goods are to be produced? The classification in terms of capitalism, communism and socialism is closely associated with the way these issues are settled.

Economics is the social science that studies the production, distribution and consumption of goods and services. Goods are tangibles like ice cream, fish, books etc. When a doctor examines a patient he is rendering a service. So is the case of a teacher.

Economy refers to the manner in which the basic issues of economics are tackled. By Indian economy we mean the manner in which India tackles the questions : what to produce, how to produce and for whom to produce? It can also be interpreted as the system in which people get their living.



A scene in the Khwairamband market.

Many people come to the market to sell their goods and services. They may sell what they themselves produce. What they get on selling their products is their revenue. Revenue should cover at least the cost of production. Profit is the amount by which revenue exceeds cost. A producer incurs loss when cost exceeds revenue. No producer would like to produce at a loss.

Tomba is a farmer. He grows rice mainly once in a year. He grows different types of vegetables in his land after rice is harvested. His wife sells most of their produce in the market. With what they get from the market they educate their children and meet their day to day requirements.

This is the common story in the rural area where agriculture is the main source of livelihood. These people flock in agriculture by compulsion because they do not have skills for other activities. Some of them migrate to the urban areas to work as unskilled labourers.

Some of them may be selling what they have collected from actual producers through an elaborate network. Many of the actual producers do not sell their products in the Khwairamband market. They sell their products in their locality and smaller markets from where the sellers in the Khwairamband market buy.

Ibemhal is a vegetable vendor in the evening market at Keishamthong. Daily she buys vegetables from the Khwairamband bazaar early in the morning which she resells in the evening. Sometimes she goes to Shamurou bazaar and Nambol bazaar to get vegetables. The difference between her expenses and her receipts is her profit.

Unlike Ibemhal who operates at a low scale there may be rich people who buy from big metropolitan markets like Kolkata, Delhi and Mumbai and sell in the local market. The market of most of the household goods, ready made garments, and shoes operate in this manner.

Jalan provision store is a big shop in the market which specializes in grocery items. Most of the items available in the shop have been brought from outside the state. It buys in bulk at cheaper rates. The margin takes care of the transport cost.

Sometimes unlike the case of Ibemhal, the producers themselves deliver their products to certain buyers with whom they have entered into either formal or informal contracts. Fish is cheaper in Moirang than in Khwairamband mainly because of the transport cost. The Loktak lake in Bishnupur district is a major source of fish in Manipur. Fishing is a major source of livelihood for people in Thanga. If the transport cost rises

due to rise in the price of diesel and petrol and spare parts of the vehicles used in transport, fish will be even costlier. You should not be surprised to find passion fruit being sold in the Khwairamband market at Rs 20 per kilo when it is being sold at Rs 8 per kilo at Mao. Transporters have to be paid to take the fruits to the Khwairamband market. Some of the fruits may be damaged while in transit and unlike in Mao, bulk producers may not know where to deliver the fruits in Imphal at price acceptable to them. The wastage in transit and the search for the buyer are also components of cost. So you know why the prices of diesel and petrol are so keenly watched. Do you know why the price of petrol has been rising inspite of the keen desire to lower it ?

The demand for fish in Manipur cannot be met with local production alone. Therefore fish is brought from places as far as Andhra Pradesh. When fresh fish from Andhra Pradesh is brought to Manipur, it cannot be brought as is done from Moirang. To retain their freshness, fish and other perishable goods like tomatoes have to be brought with special arrangements. Fish is brought in ice boxes. For the seller at the Khwairamband bazar, cost includes both the cost of production and transport cost. These sellers also cannot operate at a loss. However you must have noticed that local fish is costlier than fish from places like Andhra Pradesh. It is because fish in Andhra Pradesh when bought in large quantities is so cheap that even after the inclusion of the transport cost it is cheaper than local fish. These large sellers of fish also provide the service of cleaning and cutting the fish for a nominal cost, a service not generally provided by the local sellers. Yet they cannot capture the market because they donot sell all varieties of fish and the consumers also rate the freshness of local varieties very high.



Women vendors offloading their goods.

When you go to Moirang from Imphal to buy fish, are you really getting it cheap ?

If you sell the fish that you bought from Moirang at Rs 50 per kg, at Rs 50 per kg in Imphal, can you continue your business ? Give some reasons as to why



A fish market.

you should sell it at a higher price ?

Why is it that sometimes tomatoes are very cheap and sometimes very costly ? If every farmer produces tomatoes which are sold only in the local market, what happens to the price of tomatoes ? What happens to the farmer ? If a blockade on the national highway makes goods of a different nature e.g. salt scarce, what will happen ? Is there any substitute for salt ? What can happen to the price of fish during flood ?

The following table shows the record of transaction of Tomba, a vegetable seller who bought a 100 kg bag of potatoes from Mao. What will be the minimum price of potatoes per kg that will ensure that he does not loss in the transaction ?

Potatoes	100 kg	Rs 450
Transport cost		Rs 75
Wastage detected at home	5 kg	

The people who come to the market to buy goods and services are known as consumers. When items like vegetables, fish etc. are bought they are buying goods. When they hire labourers to get their work done they are buying services. Labourers are people who are available for work. When they do not get work they become unemployed. If one is not available for work he is not in the labour force. Thus not everyone is in the labour force. Removal of unemployment is one of the top priorities

of our government. The consumer pays tax to the government when he buys certain goods and services. Tax is paid to the government by the citizen. The well known taxes are income tax, sales tax, Value Added Tax, customs duty, etc. Behind every decision of the consumer it is assumed that they seek to maximize their satisfaction and get the maximum value of their money.

Some people come to the market to sell their labour. They are hired for different types of work. Though they do not sell any tangible good, they sell their service. Every morning they are found thronging the market place. Just like most of the goods sold in the market where bargaining for the price is an essential aspect of transaction, how much they are paid for their services depends largely on the negotiation between the seller and the buyer. The bargaining is direct with local labourer but with migrant labourers from outside the state the wage negotiation is generally done through a Sardar. Just as goods on offer may not get any buyer, some of them will not be able to sell their service and thus have to remain unemployed.

Goods and services can only be produced with inputs. A farmer needs worker, land, fertilizers, quality seeds etc. The requirements of the farmer to produce a commodity e.g. paddy are the inputs. Without these inputs there cannot be any output. However the proportion in which these factors are used may vary depending on the technology used. Primitive technology is characterized by extensive use of labour. Modern technology uses more capital. Capital is produced means of production. Fertilisers, quality seed, tractors etc. come under this category. The amount of money spent in acquiring these inputs is the cost of production.

In the process of production inputs are transformed into goods. A barber produces a service. Lawyers and doctors also produce service. Farmers need land, labour, seeds, fertilizer, irrigation and agricultural implements to produce foodgrains. A carpenter needs a workshed, wood and certain tools to make a chair. Factors of production are divided into land, labour, capital and entrepreneurship. We need land, labour, capital and organization to produce goods and services. This is actually a simplification because many factors enter into any production process. It is important to organize the inputs efficiently. Land includes all natural resources – land, water, air, wildlife, vegetation, sunshine, mineral deposits, fossil fuels and everything else that comes with nature. Labour includes factory workers, clerical staff, managers, accountants, teachers, legislators, auto-mechanics, farmers and anyone who puts in any mental or physical effort to transform natural resources into products. Capital includes all the factories, buildings, machinery and equipment used to transform natural resources into products. It is where entrepreneurship enters. The transformation must be achieved efficiently using minimum of the inputs at as little cost as possible. The transformation should be preceded by several decisions

regarding what to produce, how to produce and for whom to produce. Entrepreneurship can make a big difference. Whenever we eat anything, watch a movie, visit a doctor and go to a school we are using these resources.

Each of these inputs has to be paid for. If they are not paid adequately, the owners of inputs will not supply the inputs. In general it is the market that determines the price of an input. You must have heard of rent. Your parents may be paying rent for the house in which you live. If your parents own the house you need not pay the rent. Farmers pay rent to the owners of land to cultivate it. Rent in economics is the payment for the use of land. The payment for labour is known as wage. It is the amount one is paid for work done in accordance with the contract. One may be paid in cash or in kind. A worker may be paid part of the harvest in grain. Many of your relatives must have borrowed either from banks or local money lenders for various purposes. A farmer may borrow to buy a plough. He may also borrow for his daughter's marriage. The former is productive and the latter is non productive. What you have borrowed should normally be returned in addition to some extra amount. This extra amount is known as interest. Interest is the payment for capital used. Having land, labour and capital does not ensure success in business. The business may fail. This calls for some one who takes the risk. Profit is the payment for taking risk. The risk taker may not even get anything if the business fails.

Between production of a commodity and its final consumption there are many stages. In economics consumption indicates the final use of goods and services to provide utility. An ice cream is consumed when it is eaten. When a teacher teaches you, his service is consumed. Traditionally consumption was considered unimportant compared to production. However with the development of a consumer society, increasing consumer power in the market place, the growth in marketing, advertising, sophistication of consumers, it is recognized as central to modern society.

Distribution is very important as there is a need for reaching the numerous and scattered consumers. How to reach the product or service to the consumer? Should the product be sold through a retailer? Should the product be distributed through wholesale? Should it be distributed through public arrangements like fair price shops? After a product is manufactured, it is sold to a distributor who sells it to retailers or consumers. There may be many intermediaries each passing the product down the chain until it finally reaches the consumer or end user. This is known as distribution chain. The products of the Kangla Food are in great demand and they are distributed across the state through agents and retailers. Some of the alternative channels of distribution are

- Selling direct
- Selling through agents
- Selling through distributors who sell to retailers
- Selling through retailers

Though cooking gas (LPG) is supposed to be distributed only by authorized agents at fixed prices, unscrupulous agents sell them in black market. Illegal sale



A gas queue.

of cooking gas cylinders at exorbitant prices is fairly common. The consumers cannot enjoy the subsidy provided by the government.

Distribution of services is also equally important. Hotels may rent out their rooms, directly or through travel agents, tour operators, airlines, tourist boards etc. There have



A Cyber cafe scene.

been tremendous improvements in the distribution of services. The advances in information technology, through the use of internets, have dramatically reduced the transaction costs.

In the urban areas the emergence of malls is a new experience where one gets everything under one roof.

Nowadays it is common to see advertisements for many free goods. When you buy two shirts you get one shirt free. A toothbrush comes free of cost when you buy a family pack of Colgate toothpaste. When you buy a laptop, a mobile handset comes free. Our concept of a free good is anything that comes as an add on when you buy something. What is a free good anyway? Are we really getting it without having to pay anything?



Goods and services are scarce because of the limited availability of resources i.e. factors of production along with the limits on our technology and skillful people relative to the total amount desired. Goods that are scarce are called economic goods. Other goods are free goods if they are desired but available in such abundance that they are not scarce such as air and seawater. Goods for which there is no economic cost of production are available as free goods. Air is an example of free good. A free good is available in as great a quantity as desired with zero opportunity cost to society. Opportunity cost of something is the opportunity foregone in committing ourselves to a

particular activity. The opportunity cost of a student going to school is the earning that he would have received by joining the workforce rather than going to school. A free good may be produced as a by-product of something more valuable. Waste products from factories and homes such as discarded packaging are often free goods.

If you visit the market you will not find any free good. Strictly speaking, you have to pay a price for every thing available in the market. A good for which you have to stand one whole day in the queue cannot be free good. The time in the queue is its price. The price you have to pay depends on the demand for and supply of the commodity. Contrary to many advertisements and promotional 'give away' nothing is actually free. Everything has a price. The price of the 'free' good may be part of the purchase price. Someone always pays. Every free 'give away' has a price somewhere. The price of offered goods are paid in one of the three ways.

- Higher price: the price you are paying covers the price of the free good.
- Subsidization: the government pays for you. But the resources of the government are largely obtained from the public through taxes and payments for the use of services provided by the government. So ultimately you pay.
- Promotional investment giving free goods to customers is considered an investment for raising future sales. Once you become used to a particular product the offer can be withdrawn and you will be willing to pay a price. In short what you have obtained as free today has to be paid for in the future.

How free is a gold coin obtained from scratching your document in buying a mobile handset? How free is a shirt you get from a 'buy two, get one free' scheme?

EXERCISES

1. Why are oranges very cheap in remote areas of Tamenglong?
2. "Three oranges for Rs. 10. An orange is available at less than Rs. 1 in Tamenglong". Can you explain?
3. Why should a farmer sell his products in the market?
4. Why should we buy vegetables in Khwairamband when these are available at cheaper prices in Nambol?
5. Where is bargaining a common feature of transaction?

6. Can you explain why has candle from Moreh replaced candle made in Manipur ?
7. You intend to sell in your locality a blanket which cost you Rs. 1300/- in Moreh. What are the costs you have to add ?
8. When bird-flu struck, what happened to the market for chicken ?
9. Make a list of inputs for producing rice. Classify them into land, labour and capital.
10. Why should we buy fish from Andhra Pradesh when fish can easily be obtained from Loktak Lake ?
11. Are you unemployed ?
12. Classify the following items into appropriate factor category :
Loan from the bank, a stapler, nurse, pen, book, teacher, agricultural land.
13. Can you explain why cooking gas cylinders are sold in the black market ?
14. Make a list of services you buy from the market.
15. Make a list of items, from news-papers, one can obtain 'free' when you buy something.
16. Can you explain why computers are very cheap today ? Should we expect its price falling even further in the future ?
17. What will happen if the products of the Kangla Foods are sold in Nambol only ?
18. Activity :
 - (a) Visit a local grocer. Ask him why the prices of commodities in the shop vary from time to time.
 - (b) Visit your local vegetable market. Make a list of vegetables produced in your locality and another list of vegetables being brought from outside.
 - (c) Make a list of your requirements in school. Find out which items are produced in your locality.
 - (d) Visit a furniture workshop in your locality. Make a list of problems faced by the owner in his business.

Theme-II

People as Resource



You often come across statements like 'India's population touches a billion mark' or 'India occupies second position after China in terms of size of population'. Do you know how the size of population of a country is measured? It is measured in terms of number of persons in a country at a given point of time. The information relating to number of people living in a country at a specific point of time is collected through the Census.

Census

Census is conducted every ten years in our country. In India, seven Censuses have been conducted so far by the Government since 1951. Census not only counts the number of persons in a country, but also collects many other details of social and economic life of people.

Find out :

- When was the last census conducted in our country?
- Are Censuses conducted every ten years in all the countries of world?

The population of India was only 23.84 crores at the beginning of the twentieth century (1901). It quadrupled in a period of 100 years to reach 102.70 crores at the beginning of this century (2001). It was said that we were adding one Australia to our country every year. The figures of total population and its annual growth rate are given in the following table,

Table 1
Growth of population in India
(1901-2011)

Year	Total Population (in crores)	Annual Growth Rate (in %)
1901	23.84	–
1911	25.21	0.56
1921	25.13	– 0.03
1931	29.90	?
1941	31.87	?
1951	36.11	?
1961	43.92	?
1971	54.82	?
1981	68.33	?
1991	84.34	?
2001	102.70	?
2011	121.02	?

Looking at the Table, discuss the following questions :

1. Try to work out the annual growth rate of population in India.
2. Why was year 1921 different from other years?
3. Why is the year 1921 very significant for population analysts?
4. The year 1921 is known as ‘_____’.
5. Which year witnessed the beginning of 3 decades of accelerated population growth?

How does population change ?

There are mainly three factors which determine the size of population : the Birth rate, the Death rate and Migration.

The Birth Rate is the number of live births per thousand persons in a year. It is different from the actual number of births. The Death Rate is the number of deaths per thousand persons in a year. In our country, both the birth rate and death rate are declining, but the death rate is declining at a faster rate. The reasons of declining death rate include improvement in public health measures and progress in medical sciences during the last three decades. On the other hand, birth rate continues to be high because of early and near universal marriages, lack of education and ineffective birth control measures. The most important reason of high growth rate of Indian population is the widening gap between the birth rate and the death rate.

Migration means movement of people across regions and territories. Internal migration (within the country) does not change the size of population. You must have seen some of your friends migrating from rural areas to urban areas. People migrate in search of jobs that fetch them higher salaries than what they may get at their native places. Unemployment is the reason for rural-urban migration in India. They migrate for better employment opportunities and better education in urban areas. This has resulted into the steady growth of population in towns and cities. Technically qualified persons, like engineers and doctors, migrate to other countries because of higher salaries that they may get in such countries. Migration is a big issue in the north eastern region of India. The contribution of migrant workers from outside the country to the host country is quite controversial. If migrant workers replace local workers from job opportunities, it is bound to become a destabilizing factor. In Assam, a few years back there was a popular upsurge against the foreigners.

Let's Discuss :

- If 1000 people from Churachandpur migrate to Imphal, will it increase the population of Manipur ?
- If 2000 people from Myanmar migrate to Imphal, what will happen to the total population of Manipur ?
- What are the other reasons of migration ?

Are Human beings resources ?

You must have heard the terms like, 'population bomb' and 'population explosion'. Generally it is believed that all social ills such as poverty, malnutrition, ill-health, environmental pollution, shortage of basic amenities are results of our large numbers. But remember the proverb 'united we stand, divided we fall'. Our large number can be turned into a vast pool of human resources. Just as a country can turn physical factors like land into physical resources, people can be turned into human resources.

Why do parents spend money on their children's education? It is because, educated children become self-reliant and do not become a burden on parents in their old age. Similarly, if a country spends money on education and training of people, they can be self-reliant and do not become a burden on the country. India has the advantage of a large population, which many other countries of the world do not have. There are countries where population has started declining. Human beings are also a form of wealth.

Physical and human capital

Physical capital is tangible and can be bought and sold in the market. Human capital is intangible and cannot be bought and sold in the market. Human capital is an integral part of the owners and cannot be separated from them. Only the services of the owners can be bought and sold. For example, a computer is a physical capital and a computer engineer is a human capital. Physical capital is perfectly mobile between two countries or states; human capital is not. Inside the country, the mobility of human capital is restricted due to cultural differences and outside the country, it is due to various rules related to nationality.

Education and Training

Human beings can be converted into capital by providing them good education and health care. Educated, skilled and healthy people can earn higher income and add to economic growth of the country. If people do not have access to education, training and health facilities, they become a burden on the nation, as it was perceived in India for many decades. Thus, education and health are two prerequisites for converting people into human resource. Any activity which augments man's productive capacity contributes to human resource development. These are mainly, (1) health facilities and services, including all that affect life expectancy, strength and stamina of people, (2) on-the-job training, including apprenticeship organized by firms, and (3) formally organized education at the elementary, secondary and higher levels. Education is visualized as a measure which would help in improving the human resource in general on the one hand, and would bridge the gap between the rich and the poor on the other. Our country is also launching various programmes for ensuring free and compulsory education for all. It will improve the capabilities of poor people and enable them to increase their family earnings.

Educated and healthy people are known as human resources as they are not only beneficial for themselves or their families, they also play an important role in the development of the society. Physical capital in the form of machines available in any country can be efficiently utilized by technical and professional people. Land and capital do not become useful on their own.



People as resource

Mr. Singh has four sons and two daughters. All children went to school. Mr. Singh could not manage with his salary, so his wife sold clothes in Ima Keithel of Imphal. In evenings, Mr. Singh took tuition of children at home and his wife did household chores. The children completed class XII. One of the sons got admitted to a course in computer training and another joined B.A. programme in college. One of the two daughters was admitted to nurse's training course and the younger daughter started learning tailoring. In the evening, all the children taught children of neighbours and earned money which they could utilize for their tuition fee. The elder two contributed to the education of the younger two. After completing their education, all children started earning and helped the parents also. Mr. Singh spent a relaxed retired life and his wife stopped selling clothes in market.

People as burden

Mr. Sharma had three children, two sons and one daughter. As Mr. Sharma was the eldest in the family, he had to take responsibility of his parents and younger brothers and sisters. He was left with little money to send his own children to a good school. His eldest son dropped out of school and sat at home. The daughter got married to a boy from the same locality who was not much educated. The younger son failed in class X. Both the sons married early and brought their wives home. They had children also. Mr. Sharma was the only earning member in the family. Soon, he became sick due to family burden and made mistakes at work. Later, he lost his job, further worsening the plight of the family.

People as resource

Ibomcha was a farmer in Thoubal. He had one acre of land where he grew paddy. He had three children, who went to a local school. When his eldest daughter, Ibemhal passed class X, Ibomcha got her admitted to a women's poly-technique in Imphal. The younger son Inao also got admitted to a school in Imphal and both of them stayed in a rented room together. After completing her education, Ibemhal applied for a bank-loan in Thoubal and started a weaving centre of her own. Their family income increased. Her brother, after doing class XII, joined a computer-course. After completing the course, he became a computer instructor in the same institute. Now, both of them started earning and could easily support the youngest sister's education. The youngest sister completed M.A. and is doing Ph. D in Manipur University.

People as burden

Sheela Devi was a widow with two children, Ram and Rina. She used to sell fish in the locality for her livelihood. The children were admitted to a Government primary school. As there was nobody to stay at home and do the household work, Rina had to leave the school and stay at home to do the work. With great difficulty, Sheela Devi managed to keep Ram in school, so that he could complete class XII. Now, Ram has passed class XII, but cannot go for further studies. He is still unemployed because he has no particular skill. He tried to get a peon's job in an office, but could not get it because there were people with better qualification. In the mean time, her mother became very sick due to lack of proper treatment and good food. As she was unable to sell fish, Ram had to start selling fish in market in place of his mother.

Activity :

What do you learn from these stories ?

Do you still regard population as burden? Discuss in class if you know similar stories.

Health and Nutrition

Like education, health is considered to be an important factor for the development of an individual. A person who does not maintain sound health will not be able to work. A sick person who does not have access to medical facilities is compelled to abstain from work, which is a loss for a nation also. A person who has a good health can do

better work than a sick person. Hence, health is an important pre-requisite of converting human beings into capital that can add to the development of a country.

Improvement in the availability of health facilities to people with special focus on poor people has remained a priority in our country since independence. Two things are essential for good health: (i) balanced and nutritious diet, and (ii) medical care. According to the census of 1951, the life expectancy at the time of birth in India was 37.2 years for females. Since then, it has risen to 61.8 years for males and 63.5 years for females in 1999-2003. Diseases like plague and small pox have been eradicated. Malaria has been brought under control. The total number of hospitals, medical colleges, doctors and nurses have increased considerably.

The medical facilities have increased, but their benefits have not been distributed uniformly among the people. The health standard of an average Indian is still very low. Most of the people in rural areas and small towns have poor health and fall sick quite often. This is due to lack of nutritious diet, inadequate medical care and unhygienic conditions of living. All these factors are linked to the poverty of the people. Many people in the rural areas of our country do not have two square meals a day. They cannot afford medical care since it is very costly. Hospitals are usually located in urban areas and are out of the reach of people living in rural areas and suburbs.

Human Resource Development in India

We know that the skill of an educated person is more than that of an uneducated person and that the former contributes more to economic growth of a country than the latter. Similarly, health is an important factor for economic growth, as a healthy person is able to provide his services without break for a longer period of time.

Human resource and human development

Human development is related to the well being of human beings through their ability to read and write and to lead a healthy life. It focuses on the general well being of the people even if it does not lead to the increase in personal assets of the people. Basic education and health should be made available to every individual as a matter of right. Education and health help in enhancing the well being of society by increasing the output of goods and services. It is like a form of capital which can lead to the enhancement of general well-being of society.

Who takes care of education and health of people in India? Ours is a developing economy. A large section of population is living below poverty line. Many of us cannot afford basic education and health care facilities. To get basic education

and basic health care is the right of every individual. They also add to the worth of people by adding to their productivity. Large scale investment in human resources is needed. It is, thus, essential that the government provides education and health services free of cost to people, especially to those who cannot afford these. Over the years, both central and state governments have increased the expenditures on education and health of the citizens to fulfill the objective of attaining a literate and healthy society. Thus, large population which is perceived as a burden can be turned into human resource by spending on their education, training and medical care. Increasing the ability to read and write, to lead a longer life and to make other choices in their lives, can enhance the productivity of people.

Human resource of Manipur :

Table 2
Population of Manipur (1951-2001)

Year	Population	Density (per sq. km.)	Literacy rate in percent
1951	5,77,635	26	12.57
1961	7,80,037	35	36.04
1971	10,72,753	48	38.47
1981	14,20,953	64	49.66
1991	18,37,149	82	59.89
2001	22,93,896 *	103	70.53
2011	27,21,756	122	79.85

Note : * including estimated population of Mao-Maram, Paomata and Purul.

Between 1951 and 2011, the population of Manipur has increased more than four times. The literacy rate, an indicator of the enrichment of the human resource, also has grown several times. The contribution of our youth in sports is well known in India. Our students are studying not only in different parts of the country but also abroad. They have evinced their excellence in dance, music and other performing arts. However the human resource has not been utilized properly. The extent of underemployment and unemployment has been rising day by day. In order to convert the population into resources, education and training should be imparted to the people in general and the youth in particular in opportunities generated by the process of development. This is a call for proper manpower planning.

EXERCISES

1. When was the first census held in India ?
2. What are the factors which determine the size of population ?
3. What are the factors which determine the size of population in India ?
4. Why are death rates declining ?
5. Why are birth rates high in India ?
6. What is the cause of rural-urban migration in India ?
7. Why do people migrate ?
8. Why do our skilled personnels migrate to the U.S.A. ?
9. When do migrant workers become a problem of the receiving economy ?
10. Why do parents spend money on their children's education ?
11. Is population increasing in every country ? Give one example where it has stopped growing.
12. How can people be converted into human resource ?
13. Distinguish between physical capital and human capital.
14. When do people become a burden to the society ?
15. Why is health considered an important factor for the development of a country ?
16. How have the benefits of medical facilities been distributed in India ?
17. How can Manipur's population be converted into human resources ?
18. Activity :
 - (a) Visit your local health centre. Find out the common health problems.
 - (b) With the help of your class teacher, organise a debate on a theme pertaining to population growth.
 - (c) Visit your local market. Find out the activities involving migrants from outside your locality.
 - (d) With the help of your class teacher, find out the reasons behind the cancellation of census results in Senapati district in 2001.

Theme-III

Poverty

Poverty is a degrading experience. The tragedy is that still millions of Indians are poor. It exists when one falls short of a level of economic welfare deemed to constitute a reasonable minimum. All the talk about economic development lose relevance when millions are poor. Rightly poverty has long been considered a challenge facing India. Inadequate command over commodities is the most important dimension of poverty. Poor people face many risks including climate change, rising food prices and cost of access to safe water, threats to health, and the loss of traditional social protection based on the family and community. Another reason why the issue of poverty alleviation has acquired a sense of urgency is the growing awareness of the poor of the relative deprivation – the feeling of being left behind-which can destabilize any country.

According to the United Nations about 25,000 people die everyday of hunger or hunger related causes. Hungry people are trapped in severe poverty. It determines other aspects of welfare such as health, longevity and self esteem. A poor person does not even have the minimum expenditure to meet his essential food requirements for sustenance. Since for most of the people food items have top priority, not having enough food means not having access to education, health etc. which make our lives complete. You can imagine the condition of those who do not have two meals a day and who are also doomed to a future of endless poverty. Because of their poverty they do not send their children to school, when they fall sick they do not get proper medical care. Constant undernourishment weakens them and increasingly they are unable to work which make them even poorer and hungrier. They thus are doomed to a life of endless struggle merely for survival.

Any effective anti poverty measure should start from the definition of poor. Who is a poor person? How they have become poor? What is being done by the government and the public to escape from poverty? The change in the number of poor persons will throw light on the effectiveness of anti poverty policies. However policy makers are confronted by increasingly complex challenges arising from globalization, climate change and changes in energy prices.

Two case studies of poverty :**Rural case**

A rural poor in work.

A Rural poor family

Tomba is only 20 years old yet he has been doing odd jobs for nearly 12 years. He is illiterate. His sick parents and 8 siblings depend on the meager earning of Tomba and his even younger wife. They share a dilapidated house. Every day they have to worry about the next meal. It is no longer economic to further subdivide his parents meager land. His siblings also do odd jobs like collecting firewoods from the nearby forests, tending cattle of other villagers. No one from the family goes to school. Though it is said the government is doing a lot for them, they are not aware of any programme meant for the upliftment of their lot. They would depend on the village money lender rather than the public sector bank for their financial needs. They do not know what a bank account means. They have no access to potable treated water. When they are sick they depend on freely available herbs and medicinal plants as the primary health centre in the village does not function. They cannot hope to visit the hospitals in Imphal.

Urban case :

An urban poor family.

An Urban poor family

Chaoba, an unemployed graduate of 35 years, belongs to a family of eight. No one is employed in the family. He is unmarried because no suitable match has been found for this unemployed young man belonging to a poor family. His father is an alcoholic. When his siblings were young his mother could support them as a vegetable seller. Now it is never enough. Through sheer determination of their mother and his siblings they became educated. Not only Chaoba but also his elder brothers and sisters cannot get any government job. The educated family does not consider odd jobs adequate with their education. What they earn among themselves from tuition is never enough. Numerous social obligations make their lives difficult. They have become resigned to their fates.

Poverty estimates in our country are derived from household consumer expenditure data collected by National Sample Survey Organisation pertaining to expenditure on food, beverages & tobacco, fuel & light, clothing and footwear, private expenditure incurred per school going child and non-institutional household expenditure on health incurred per treatment not requiring hospitalisation and institutional expenditure per reported case of hospitalization. Poverty is multidimensional. Poverty line is the cost of a basket of goods and services. The poverty line basket is a basket of goods and services the access to which separates the poor from the non poor. Survival is threatened if the available items are below this norm.

Table 1 : Trends in poverty in India (Tendulkar methodology)

Year	NSS Round	Poverty ratio	Decline in poverty ratio (% point per year)
1993-4	50	45.3	
2004-05	61	37.2	0.74
2011-12	68	21.9	2.18

Source : Report of the Expert Group to Review the methodology for measurement of poverty, Planning Commission, 2014

The proportion of population living below the poverty line declined from 45.3% in 1993-4 to 21.9% in 2011-12. Their monthly per capita expenditure on the poverty line basket were less than Rs 816 in rural area and Rs 1000 in urban area. These cut off points were Rs 447 for rural and Rs 579 for urban in 1993-4. The International poverty line is US\$1.25 per person per day measured at 2005 international price and adjusted to local currency using purchasing power parity conversion factor. These cut-off points are known as poverty lines. Has the extent of poverty changed in India? Has the decline been uniform ?

The following table highlights the different poverty experience in urban and rural India.

Table 2 : Poverty ratio

Year	Poverty ratio (%)			Number of poor (in millions)		
	Rural	Urban	combined	Rural	Urban	combined
1993-4	50.1	31.8	45.3			
2004-5	41.8	25.7	37.2	3266.6	807.6	4076.1
2011-12	25.7	13.7	21.9	2166.6	531.2	2697.8

The poor are not uniformly distributed across the states. According to Expert committee report there were 2697.8 lakh persons in India below the poverty line in 2011-12. The top three in terms of size of population below the poverty line Uttarpradesh (22.17%), Bihar (13.28%) and Madhyapradesh (8.6%) accounted for 44.12 % of persons below the poverty line. Mizoram is the only state where poverty ratio rose during 1993-4 to 2011-12.

Table 3 : **Headcount poverty ratio by major states:**

States	1993-4	2011-12
Andhrapradesh	44.6	9.2
Arunachal pradesh	54.5	34.7
Assam	51.8	32.0
Bihar	60.5	33.7
Chattisgarh	50.9	39.9
Delhi	15.7	9.9
Goa	20.8	5.1
Gujarat	37.8	16.6
Haryana	35.9	11.2
Himachalpradesh	34.6	8.1
Jammu& Kashmir	26.3	10.3
Jharkhand	60.7	37.0
Karnataka	49.5	20.9
Kerala	31.3	7.1
Madhyapradesh	44.6	31.6
Maharastra	47.8	17.4
Manipur	65.1	36.9
Meghalaya	35.2	11.9
Mizoram	11.8	20.4
Nagaland	20.4	18.9
Orissa	59.1	32.6
Punjab	22.4	8.3
Rajasthan	38.3	14.7
Sikkim	31.8	8.2
Tamilnadu	44.6	11.3
Tripura	32.9	14.0
Uttarpradesh	48.4	29.4
Uttarakhand	32.0	11.3
West Bengal	39.4	20.0
Puducherry	30.9	9.7

A&N Islands		1.0
Chandigarh		21.8
Dadra & Nagar Haveli		39.3
Daman & Diu		9.9
Lakshadweep		2.8

Source : Report of the Expert Group to Review the methodology for measurement of poverty, Planning Commission, 2014

Rank the states in terms of poverty ratio. Find out which state has improved its rank most.

Poverty in Manipur :

The following table shows the trend of poverty in Manipur both for rural and urban areas.

Table 4 : Poverty ratio in Manipur

Year	Rural	Urban	Combined
1993-94	64.4	67.2	65.1
2004-5	39.3	34.5	38.0
2011-12	38.8	32.6	36.9

Source : Report of the Expert Group to Review the methodology for measurement of poverty, Planning Commission, 2014.

In absolute terms it was estimated that number of persons below poverty line in Manipur were 7.4 lakhs in rural and 2.8 lakh in urban areas in 2011-12. The poverty line for rural Manipur in 2011-12 was Rs 1118 per capita per month. For urban Manipur it was Rs 1170 per capita per month. What can you say about the incidence of rural and urban poverty in Manipur? Prepare a bar chart of table 4.

Table 5 : comparative poverty profile for the NER in 2011-12

	poverty ratio	No. of persons in lakh
Arunachal	34.7	4.9
Assam	32	101.3
Manipur	36.9	10.2
Meghalaya	11.9	3.6
Mizoram	20.4	2.3
Nagaland	18.9	3.8
sikkim	8.2	0.5
Tripura	14	5.2
NER	4.9	131.8
All India	21.9	2697.8

Nearly 5% of India's poor are in the northeast. 77% of the poor in NER are to be found in Assam. Though Manipur has the highest poverty ratio in the NER, only 7.7% of the poor in the region are found in Manipur.

International comparison of poverty is a challenging task as the poverty lines differ across nations. It can be done meaningfully with an international poverty line. The world bank's Poverty line, also regarded as international poverty line is \$ 1.25 a day in ppp dollars of 2005. the following table gives a across some countries. comparative profile of incidence of poverty.

Table 6: International comparison of Poverty at \$1.25 a day in 2005 PPP terms

Country	Survey Year	Population below \$1.25 a day
India	2005	41.6
Argentina	2009	<2
Bangladesh	2005	49.6
China	2005	15.6
Pakistan	2006	22.6
Nigeria	2004	64.4
Nepal	2004	55.1
Russian federation	2008	< 2
Thailand	2009	12.8

Source: World Development Report 2012 "Gender Equality and Development

It shows that the performance of poverty alleviation programmes across nations has not been uniform. Though the poverty ratios in India is declining it is still very high with as many as 41% of the population unable to spend \$ 1.25ppp per person per day.

Global poverty i.e. number of people living on \$1.25 per capita per day in 2005 referred to as extreme poverty, declined from 1.92 billion in 1990 to 1.01 billion in 2011. It represents 14.5 % of the global population. According to 2011 World bank estimates almost three fifth of the world's extreme poor are concentrated in Bangladesh, China, the Democratic Republic of Congo, India and Nigeria with India emerging with the biggest share (30%).

Region	1990	2005	2011
East Asia and Pacific	58.2	16.7	7.9
Eastern Europe and central Asia	1.5	1.3	0.5
Latin America and the Carribean	12.0	7.4	4.6
Middle east and North Africa	5.8	3.0	1.7
South Asia	53.2	39.3	24.5
Sub Saharan Africa	56.6	52.8	46.8
Total (developing world)	43.5	24.8	17.0
Total	36.4	21.1	14.5

Source : Global Monitoring Report 2014/2015: Ending poverty and Sharing prosperity

In the 2002 Monterrey conference, 22 of the world's wealthiest countries agreed to make a concrete effort towards the goal of each giving 0.7% of their national income as aid to the poorest countries. This would provide \$ 195 billions per year to tackle poverty substantially. Halving poverty by 2015 is one of the millennium development goals.

PPP or Purchasing Power Parity is a rate of exchange that accounts for price differences across countries allowing international comparisons of real output and

income. At the PPP US \$ rate, PPP US \$1 has the same purchasing power in the domestic economy as \$1 in the United States.

Inequality is considered the handmaiden of poverty. It plays an important role in the perpetuation of poverty. It is said to have a built-in tendency to inefficiency by not allowing the poor people to fully exploit their capabilities. It replicates inefficiency. Inequality rises at low levels of per capita income and then falls.

Inequality can be of many dimensions. Our concern is with inequality in distribution of resources which largely determine whether one is poor or not. If 1% of national income accrue to 90% of the people and 99% of national income to 10% of population, there is inequality. If national income is distributed equally, then, 1% of population receives 1% of national income, 99% of population has 99% of national income and so on. Economic inequality permits one individual certain material choices which is denied to another person. Disparities in wealth and income make a lot of difference in the choices open to an individual. The consequence of poverty is magnified several times when low income is distributed unequally. Access to credit and finance is also restricted for the poor. A poor person who wants to start an enterprise with good prospects will find it difficult to borrow from the bank inspite of the slogan for 'inclusive banking'. He is compelled to continue his dependence on the village money lender who invariably charges very high interest rate. The village money lender charges high interest rates because the risk of default i.e. the failure to repay has been high.

An individual's consumption, income and wealth indicate his command over goods and services available in the market thereby contributing directly to the well being of the individual. This is also a cause of rampant poverty because the poor cannot afford to pursue activities to free themselves from the clutch of poverty in the long run. Take for example the case of education. The rich can afford to give the best education to their children and with this advantage the children of the rich can rise even higher in the social hierarchy .On the other hand the poor who cannot afford even two square meals a day cannot hope to give that type of education to the children. In this highly competitive world they fall even further behind. The rich become richer and the poor poorer.

The following table examines the trend in inequality in the distribution of consumer expenditure by using a measure called the Gini coefficient. The higher the value of the measure, greater is the extent of inequality. It lies between 0 and 1. When everyone has the same income there is perfect equality and its value is 0. When one person has all the income and everyone else has zero income there is perfect inequality and its

value is 1. The following table shows the static nature of inequality in rural India and the deteriorating inequality in urban India.

Table 8 : Gini coefficient of distribution of consumer expenditure in India

Year	Rural	Urban
1983	30.4	33.9
1987-8	29.9	35.0
1993-4	28.6	34.4
2004-5	30.5	37.6

Source : Himanshu (2007) Recent trends in poverty and inequality : “Some preliminary any results” Economic & Political Weekly, vol. XLII No. 6.

Look at the following illustrations of inequality :

A Rich Family

Chaoba is a rich man. His two sons are studying in Delhi. They are planning to appear in the civil services examinations. His eldest daughter Lakshmi is completing her M.B.B.S. this year. He has a number of shops in the Khwairamband market. His pisciculture firms are also doing well. Every year he visits Bangkok and Singapore with his wife. He has two servants, two maruti cars and two kinetic Hondas. He is going to take a huge loan from NEDFi to start an industry to take advantage of India's Look East policy.

A Poor Family

Tomba is a poor farmer. His eldest son dropped out of school and is now working as a casual labourer in a brickfield. His two sons and two daughters cannot hope to study beyond class X. There is no higher secondary school in his village. Though Tomba's wife Ibeni also works very hard, it is difficult to make both ends meet. They have no other source of income. Among themselves they donot even have a bicycle. Though they know that greater mobility and higher educational qualification will definitely improve their lot, they cannot afford it. He needs some loan but doesnot know whom to approach for it. In a way they are trapped in a cycle of poverty.

Clearly Chaoba's family has an advantage over Tomba's family. The gap between these two families will widen. While Chaoba's children will get all the opportunities,

deprivation will be the lot of Tomba's children. Given the keen competition for everything Tomba's children will be even more marginalized. This growing difference in capability is highly undesirable

Poverty is mainly due to our continued dependence on agriculture. Raising the productivity of agriculture through more widespread use of modern technology and introduction of multiple cropping will go a long way in reducing poverty. This should also be supplemented by reforms to ensure that land, labour and capital are properly utilised. To reduce poverty several poverty alleviation, employment generating and basic services programmes are being implemented currently both by the central government and the state government. In the beginning it was believed that economic growth would automatically reduce poverty and experience belied this. Then from the mid 70s, direct poverty alleviation programmes became popular. Garibi Hatao became a national slogan. Some of the schemes currently in operation are as follows :

- PradhanMantri Jan DhanYojana (PMJDY), a financial inclusion initiative was launched on 28 August,2014 with a target of 10 crore accounts by 26th January 2015. It seeks to provide universal access to banking facilities starting with “Basic Saving Bank Account” with an overdraft uptoRs 5000 subject to satisfactory operation in the account for six months and RuPay debit card with inbuilt accident insurance cover of Rs 1 lakh and providing social security schemes i.e. Pradhan Mantri Suraksha BimaYojana, Pradhanmantri Jeevan Jyoti BimaYojana & Atal Pension Yojana. More than 17.5 crore bank accounts were opened under this scheme. As on 22 ndAug.2015 ,8.17crore beneficiaries have been enrolled under the Pradhanmantri Suraksha Bima Yojana and 2,76 crore under Pradhanmantri Jeevan Jyoti BimaYojana. Under Atal Pension scheme 6.83 lakh account holders have been enrolled.
- PradhanMantri Gram Sadak Yojana (PMGSY) was launched on 25 December 2000 as a 100 percent centrally sponsored scheme. Its primary objective is to provide all weather connectivity to all the eligible unconnected habitations in the rural areas.
- Indira AwaasYojana was launched in 1985 as a subscheme of the Rural Landless Employment Guarantee programme. It became an independent scheme in 1996. The aim of Indira Awaas Yojana is to provide financial assistance to the rural poor living below the poverty line for construction of a house. BPL rural households of Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes, non scheduled castes & non scheduled tribes, ex – servicemen of the armed & paramilitary forces killed in action, physically & mentally challenged persons, freed bonded labourers & minorities, transgenders will be the beneficiary. Priority is to be given to

families of manual scavengers, households with single girl child and households where a member is suffering from leprosy and cancer.

- National Rural Livelihood Mission (NRLM) was launched after restructuring Swarnajayanti Gram SwarozgarYojana (SGSY) with the aim of organising rural poor households and nurturing and supporting them till they are out of abject poverty. DeenDayal Upadhyaya Grameen Koushalya Yojana (DDU-GKY) is a placement linked skill development scheme for rural poor youth. It is part of NRLM and seeks to build the capacity of rural poor youth to address the needs of the domestic and global skill requirements.
- Swarna Jayanti Sahari RozgarYojana(SJSRY) was launched in Dec.1997 after subsuming the earlier three schemes for urban poverty alleviation, namely Nehru Rozgar Yojana, Urban Basic Services for the Poor and Prime Minister's Integrated Urban Poverty Eradication Programme. SJSRY has been restructured into National Urban Livelihood Mission (NULM). NULM seeks to organise the urban poor in self help groups, imparting skill training to urban poor for self and wage employment and helping them to set up self employment ventures by providing credit at subsidised interest rate. Shelters for urban homeless and infrastructure for street vendors can be taken up under this.
- Valmiki Ambedkar Awaas Yojana (VAMBAY) is a centrally sponsored scheme shared on 50:50 basis with states for the benefit of slum dwellers. It seeks to provide shelter or upgrade the existing shelter for BPL people in urban slums with a view to achieve the goal of 'Shelter for all'. The target group is slum dwellers in urban areas. Nirmal Bharat Abhiyan, a national city sanitation project, is an integral sub component of VAMBAY.
- National Rural Employment guarantee programme (NREGP) was implemented from Feb. 2006 in 200 identified districts of the country with the objective of providing 100 days of guaranteed unskilled wage employment to each rural household opting for it. The ongoing programmes of SGRY and National Food for Work programme have been replaced in these districts by NREGP. It will cover the entire country gradually. It focuses on works relating to water conservation, drought proofing (including afforestation/tree plantation), land development, flood control/ protection (including drainage in water logged areas) and rural connectivity in terms of all weather roads. In Manipur it is being implemented in Tamenglong, Churachandpur and Chandel.
- Jawaharlal Nehru Urban Renewal Mission (JNURM) was launched in

Dec.2005. the objective of the Mission, inter alia , includes planned development of identified cities including semi-urban areas, outgrowths and urban corridors and improved provision of basic services to the urban poor. Atal Mission for Rejuvenation and Urban Transformation (AMRUT), named after former prime minister Shri Atal Bihari Vajpayee will replace JNURM in 2015. AMRUT mission will be implemented in 500 cities and towns each with a population of one lakh and above. It seeks to lay foundation for cities and towns to grow into smart cities. JNURM projects sanctioned during 2005-14 will be supported till March 2017 under AMRUT. AMRUT follows a project approach to ensure basic infrastructure services relating to water supply, sewerage management, storm water drains, transport and development of green spaces and parks . it will be implemented through area based approach consisting of retrofitting, redevelopment and development of new cities.

- Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA) was launched in February 2006 in 200 identified districts of the country with the objective of providing 100 days of guaranteed unskilled wage employment to each rural household opting for it. Now it has been extended to all districts. Its bottom-up, people centred, demand driven, self selecting, rights based design is a novelty. It focuses on work relating to water conservation, drought proofing (including afforestation /tree plantation), land development, flood control/protection (including drainage in water logged areas) and rural connectivity in terms of all weather roads. It has emerged as the largest employment programme in human history.
- Swachh Bharat Mission (gramin) was launched on 2 nd October 2014 which aims at attaining an open defecation free India by 2nd October, 2019. It seeks to cover every household by total sanitation by 2019, the 150th birth anniversary of Mahatma Gandhi. It is not only a programme of cleanliness and hygiene, it is also a programme of preventive health care . Under this programme the target is six crore toilets.
- Aajeevika , the national rural livelihood mission aims to eliminate rural poverty through sustainable livelihood options. Women SHGs across 250 districts are provided bank loans at 4% and at 7% in all other districts.
- An important initiative is the public distribution system aimed towards supplying the basic commodities, particularly food, throughout the country

as the poor spend a large proportion of their income on food. There are more than 4 lakh Fair Price Shops across the country. Until 1992 PDS was universal .it was substituted by targeted public distribution system(TPDS) in 1997 aimed at BPL people in all parts of the country. Antyodaya Anna Yojana(AAY) was launched in December 2000 . it seeks to provide foodgrains like wheat and rice at highly subsidized rates of Rs 2 per kg of wheat and Rs 3 per kg of rice. The scale of issue is 35 kg per family per month.' According to the Department of Consumer Affairs, Food & Public Distribution there are 406593 ration card holders in Manipur with the following breakup 240593 BPL,102400 AAY and 63600 APL. There are 2453 Fair Price Shops in Manipur. Recently the government enacted the The National Food Security Act 2013. Yet few states are ready to implement it even in 2015.The National Food Security Act ,2013 marks a paradigm shift in addressing the problem of food security – from a welfare approach to a right based approach. About two thirds of 1.2 billion people of India will be entitled to receive subsidized foodgrains under TPDS .In a country where almost 40% of children are undernourished the importance of the scheme increases significantly.

- The Act converts into legal entitlements the existing food security programmes of the Government of India. It includes the Midday Meal Scheme, Integrated Child Development Services scheme and the Public Distribution System. Further, the NFSA 2013 recognizes maternity entitlements. Under the provisions of the Act, beneficiaries of the Public Distribution System are entitled to 5 kilograms per person per month of cereals at the following prices:
 - Rice at Rs3 per kg
 - Wheat at Rs2 per kg
 - Coarse grains (millet) at Rs1 per kg.

Pregnant women, lactating mothers, and certain categories of children are eligible for daily free meals.

- Swavalambam Yojana is a Government of India scheme for workers of unorganised sector.This is a pension scheme available to provide the retirement benefits to workers of unorganised sector under which Government will contribute Rs 1000 per year to each NPS- Swavalambam account for five years. A citizen of India in the age group 18-60 years who belongs to the unorganised sector can open an account. The benefits will depend on the amounts contributed and investment growth upto the point of exit from NPS. This has been replaced by Atal Pension Yojana (APY) in June,2015. All subscribing workers below the age of 40 would be eligible for pension of up to Rs 5000 per month on attainment of 60 years.

Though these schemes are laudable our record in implementation has been poor and allocation for such programmes also has been meagre. Less than 1 per cent of gross domestic product, a related measure of national income, is spent on social sector programmes. The ignorance of the beneficiaries and the indifferent attitude of those who implement those schemes have resulted in poor results. The enactment of the Right to information Act will make the functioning of the government more transparent. NGO's operating at grass roots can make a huge difference by organising the beneficiaries to get what is meant for them.

EXERCISES

1. What are the threats faced by poor people ?
2. How are the poor trapped in a cycle of poverty ?
3. Explain the concept of the poverty line.
4. How are the estimates of poverty derived in India ?
5. "The cut-off point of rural poverty has risen from Rs. 49.09 in 1973-74 to Rs. 356.35 in 2004-05". Explain.
6. Where do you see most of the poor in India ?
7. Which state has the highest proportion of our poor population ?
8. Looking at Table 4, highlight the difference in the change in rural and urban poverty in Manipur.
9. How is global poverty ratio changing ?
10. What is the millennium development goal in terms of poverty ratio ?
11. Why does a villager borrow from a village money lender, rather than a public sector bank ?
12. What is the main cause of our poverty ?
13. Suggest some means for raising agricultural output.
14. How does PDS differ from TPDS ?
15. How can the ignorance of beneficiaries of poverty alleviation programmes be reduced ?
16. Activity :
 - (a) With the help of your class teacher, find out the details of MGNREG Act. Can anyone benefit from it ?
 - (b) Find out the details of an AAY Card holder household in your locality.
 - (c) Visit a Fair Price Shop in your locality. Find out the details of its transactions last month.
 - (d) With the help of your class teacher, find out the details of two poverty alleviation programmes being implemented in your locality.

Theme -IV

Food Security

What is food security?

Security of our lives and properties is an integral part of development. If we are threatened day and night and we are always insecure, wealth is of little use. Security has many dimensions, of which food security is one. By food security we mean availability of sufficient foodgrains to meet the domestic demand as well as access, at the individual level, to adequate quantities of food at affordable prices. Both quantity and affordability are important. The level of foodgrain output and its management are equally important. A large section of our population, because of their poverty, do not have access to adequate quantity of food and they are said to be food –insecure.

According to the World Food Summit 1996, food security exists when all people at all times have access to sufficient, safe, nutritious food to maintain a healthy and active life.

It is based on three pillars

- Food Availability
- Food Accessibility
- Food Appropriateness

Can you think of a situation when even rich people are food insecure? It happens at the time of natural calamities like earthquakes, draughts, floods and tsunami. Famines are largely due to crop failure and partly due to mismanagement of available supply. Crop failures lead to shortage of foodgrains leading to price rise. If the situation continues for a long time, food may be beyond the reach of many and a famine may occur. The infamous famine of Bengal in 1943 killed lakhs of people. The Nupial in 1939, a very significant event in women's empowerment in Manipur, was the outcome of mismanagement. Export of rice continued when the crop had failed. Today we have been successful in abolishing widespread famine which used to cause hunger and malnutrition. It happens in small pockets in some of the regions in the country such as Uttarpradesh, Bihar, Orissa, Madhyapradesh etc with large sections of poor people. India has developed a robust food distribution system through the Food Corporation of India. It has been strengthened substantially by the National Food Security Act, 2013 which can also be interpreted as a right to food as the right to education and right to employment.

A food insecure family

Nelson is a farmer from Litan village of Manipur. He lives with his wife, two sons, two daughters, his mother and his father. He has a plot of jhum land which produces an annual crop of about 15 quintals of paddy and some fruits. This is enough for feeding the entire family for the whole year. This year, his paddy crop has failed. The untimely rain has damaged the crops resulting in a total produce of only 5 quintals of paddy. He has to buy about 5 quintals of rice this year from the market to meet his needs. He has started working as daily wage labourer on the road construction work in his village in order to earn additional income. His son, Angam looks for work in a nearby brick field. Wage earning of father and son is uncertain as they get work only for a few months after the rainy season when they are not busy in their own fields. A large part of Nelson's wage earnings are also spent on the treatment of his ailing father. Nelson has a ration card which enables him to buy about 30 Kgs of rice for his family from the ration shop in Litan every month. The price of rice in the ration shop is cheaper than market price. Still, Nelson can not afford to buy full quantity of allotted rice as his income is low and his own fields do not grow enough. This has made life difficult for his family. Sometimes they have to sleep without food. Nelson's family has become food-insecure.

Let's discuss :

- Was Nelson food insecure earlier ?
- Discuss with your class mates, how can he become food secure ?
- Why is Nelson's income uncertain ?

A food secure family

Ngamling owned a small piece of farm land in his village in Chandel district, which he had to sell off to repay his father's debt. He has shifted with his family to Kakching to work as bicycle mechanic. He lives in a hut with his wife, younger brother, two sons and a daughter. The survival of his family is dependent on his earnings. His earnings fluctuate depending on the number of repair work he gets everyday. While on some days he gets a lot of work, he gets only one or two bicycles for repair on other days. His wife earns some additional income by working in handloom cooperative as a weaver. Since they have no field of their own, Ngamling has to buy all their food from the market. The prices of rice and dal in the market have gone up many times this year because of economic blockade of National Highway. However, Ngamling has a BPL ration card. This card enables him to obtain 30 Kgs of rice, and 5 kgs of dal and sugar per month from the ration shop in

Kakching. Since the prices in the ration shop are lower than in the market, Ngamling does not buy goods from the shops outside to meet his needs. Ngamling's family is able to manage even though they have no agricultural produce of their own. The ration card has helped his family solve their food problem. Ngamling's family is food-secure.

Let's discuss :

- How has the BPL ration card helped Ngamling ?
- Do you think that families above poverty line should be given ration cards ?



A well-to-do family eating healthy foods.

A poor man eating only rice and curry.

How is food security ensured ?

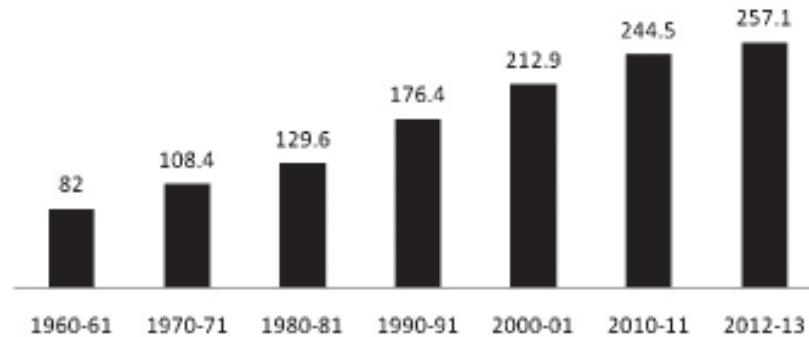
We have to produce more for our growing population. We have to manage the available foodstock through buffer stock which will accumulate in times of plenty and be drawn down in times of scarcity. Thus the extent of food security depends on domestic foodgrain production and the people's access to foodgrain market.

Foodgrain production over time :

As the following diagram shows, in five decades foodgrain production has grown by more than three times. Foodgrains consist of rice, wheat, millet, pulses etc. Rice is the most important crop of India followed by wheat.

The mid 60s witnessed the Green Revolution in agriculture in India. It was the result of a strategy aimed at promoting agricultural production with the help of high yielding varieties of seeds, fertilizers, irrigation and improved farm equipments. The regions of Punjab, Haryana, Western Uttarpradesh which had assured irrigation facilities benefited largely from this initiative. Despite the limitations of this strategy Indian agriculture prospered and India became self sufficient in foodgrains. No longer are we dependent on largescale imports of foodgrains or donations from other foodgrain producing countries such as the U.S.A. and Canada. Total foodgrain production increased from 50.8 million tonnes in 1950-51 to 257.1 million tonnes in 2012-13. The yield of foodgrain in kg per hectare increased from 872 in 1970-71 to 2128 in 2012-13. In the case of rice it rose from 1123 to 2462. The yield of wheat rose from 1307 to 3117. Per person availability of foodgrains in the country also increased from 395 gm in 1950-51 to nearly 450.3 gm. In 2013-14 West Bengal and Uttarpradesh were the top producers of rice and wheat respectively. The top three states in terms of share of production to All India in 2013-14 for rice were West Bengal (14.4%), Uttarpradesh(13.7%) and Andhrapradesh (12.2%). For wheat the states were Uttarpradesh(31.5%), Punjab (17.8%) and Madhyapradesh (14.5%). We are self sufficient and also a net exporter of foodgrains. India exported 20 lakh metric tonnes of wheat from the stock of Food Corporation of India during 2013-14. Yet millions of poor Indians still suffer from persistent hunger and malnutrition with 21.9 % of the population languishing under the poverty line in 2011-12.

Graph 1 :Foodgrain output in India in million tonnes



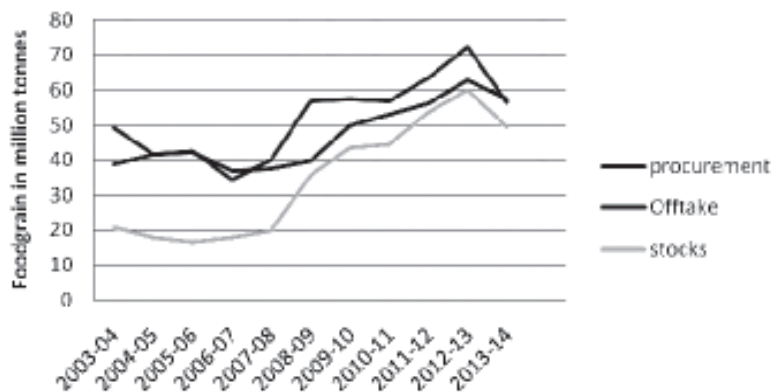
Source : Economic Survey 2014-15 Management of foodstock

The Department of Food & Public distribution under the Ministry of Consumer Affairs, Food & Public Distribution looks after the issue of foodgrains management for citizens of India. The main functions of the department are

- i. Formulation and implementation of national policies relating to procurement, movement, storage and distribution of foodgrains
- ii. Implementation of the public distribution system
- iii. Formulation of national policies pertaining to export and import, buffer stocking etc.

The Food Corporation of India (FCI) is a public sector enterprise set up on 14 January 1965 in the erstwhile department of Food. It is responsible for implementation of the food policies of the central government regarding procurement, storage, movement, distribution and sale of foodgrains on behalf of the central Government. The import-export policy of foodgrains depends on national food security. No export is allowed when there is ever a shortage in the domestic market. The shortage is indicated by rapid rise in their market prices.

FCI coordinates, inter alia, the targeted public distribution system in India. This is the main pillar of government initiatives for ensuring food security of the people.

Graph 2: Public Distribution system

Source : Economic Survey 2014-2015

Foodgrains are procured at minimum support price fixed by the government by taking into account the costs of production to encourage the farmers to increase crop production. MSP are announced before the sowing season.

The following table shows the changes in MSP during 2010-2015.

Table 1 : Minimum Support price of some foodgrains Rs per quintal

Item	2010-11	2014-15
Paddy common	1000	1360
Paddy A grade	1030	1400
Wheat	1120	1450

Source : Annual report 2014-15, Deptt. of Food & Public Distribution, Govt. of India

The foodgrain so procured are meant for distribution at a price that is kept at a level lower than the market price. The lower price facilitates access of the poor. This is also known as the issue price.

The following table shows the central issue price of foodgrains under TPDS for different categories of cardholders.

Table 2: Central Issue Price (CIP) of foodgrains under TPDS (figure in Rs. per kg)

	APL	BPL	Priority households
Rice	8.30 (Grade A) 7.95 (common)	5.65	3.00
Wheat	6.10	4.15	2.00
Coarse grain	4.50	3.00	1.00

Source: Annual report 2014-15, Deptt. of Food & Public Distribution, Govt. of India

Procurement operations are seasonal. There are two marketing seasons :kharif and rabi broadly referring to summer and winter crops.Kharif marketing season is from 1st October to next 30th September. Paddy/rice and coarse grains like jowar,bajra,ragi& maize are procured during this season. The rabi marketing season is from 1st April to next 31st march. Wheat and barley are procured during this season.Whether this is excessive or not depends on buffer stock norms.

Table 3: Minimum buffer norms for stocking foodgrains in central pool(w.e.f. 22 nd January 2015)

	wheat	rice	Total
1 st April	74.6	135.8	210.4
1 st July	275.8	135.4	411.2
1 st October	205.2	102.5	307.7
1 st Jan.	138.0	76.1	214.1

Source : Annual report 2014-15, Deptt. Of Food & Public Distribution, Govt. of India

The above norms include strategic reserve of 30 lakh MT of wheat and 20 lakh MT of rice.

The Food Corporation of India (FCI) undertakes sale of wheat at predetermined prices/ reserve prices in the open market also from time to time to increase market supply of foodgrains. The reserve price is always above the minimum support price. During the year 2014-15, 100 lakh metric tonnes of wheat has been allocated for sale in the domestic market under Open Market Sale Scheme (domestic). There is a policy of differential prices to encourage sale of older stock first.

The Central Government extends price support to paddy, wheat and coarse grains through the Food Corporation of India and the State Agencies. All the foodgrains meeting the requisite specifications are bought by the public procurement agencies. The producers can sell their produce either to FCI/State Agencies at support prices or in the open market. No targets are fixed for the procurement of foodgrains. The producers are to be supported as far as possible. They should not be penalized for a bumper crop.

In addition to procurement, Rice is also collected by way of statutory levy on rice millers and rice dealers. The percentage of levy rice is fixed by State Governments with the approval of Central Government taking into account requirements for the Central Pool, domestic consumption and marketable surplus. Marketable surplus is the excess of production over domestic demand. It varies from State to State. Prices of levy rice are fixed before commencement of every Kharif Marketing Season.

In June 1997, the Government of India launched the Targeted Public Distribution System (TPDS) with focus on the poor by abandoning the earlier universal approach. TPDS is operated under the joint responsibility of Central Government and State/Union Territory (UT) Governments. The Central Government is responsible for procurement, allocation and transportation of foodgrains upto the designated depots of the Food Corporation of India. The operational responsibilities for lifting and distributing the allocated foodgrains within the States/UTs, identification of eligible Below Poverty Line (BPL) families, issuance of ration cards to them and supervision over distribution of allocated foodgrains to eligible card holders through the fair price shops are that of the State/UT Governments.

Government of India allocates subsidized foodgrains Government under Targeted Public Distribution System (TPDS) for all the BPL families including Antyodaya Anna Yojana (AAY) families @ 35 kg per family per month. It is not that subsidized foodgrains are only for BPL families. Allocation of subsidized foodgrains are also made to Above Poverty Line (APL) families based on the availability of foodgrains in

the Central pool and past offtake. Presently, the allocation of foodgrains to APL families to the States/UTs range between 15 kg. and 35 kg. per family per month. It means they are no longer the priority. Government also allocates foodgrains for other welfare schemes such as Midday Meal Scheme and Wheat Based Nutrition Programme under ICDS, Nutritional Programme for Adolescent Girls, Annapurna Scheme and Emergency Feeding Programme, etc.

In order to make Targeted Public Distribution System (TPDS) more focused and targeted, the "Antyodaya Anna Yojana" (AAY) was launched in December, 2000 for one crore poorest of the poor families. Now the total coverage of AAY families has been raised to 2.50 crore. AAY initially planned identification of one crore poorest of the poor families from amongst the number of BPL families covered under TPDS within the States/UT and providing them food grains at a highly subsidized rate of Rs.2/ per kg. for wheat and Rs. 3/ per kg for rice. The permissible amount is 35 kg per family per month with effect from 1st April, 2002. Up to 2.50 crore families may be covered under the scheme. However, as on 30.09.2014, so far 2.42 crore families have been issued AAY cards by the States/UTs.

Recently the government enacted the The National Food Security Act. The bill was introduced in India's parliament on December 22, 2011, promulgated as a presidential ordinance on July 5, 2013, and enacted into law on September 12, 2013. Yet few states are ready to implement it even in 2015. Foodgrains under NFSA 2013 has been allocated to 11 states/UTs namely Haryana, Rajasthan, Delhi, Himachal Pradesh, Punjab, Karnataka, Chhattisgarh, Maharashtra, Chandigarh, Madhya Pradesh and Bihar. The National Food Security Act, 2013 marks a paradigm shift in addressing the problem of food security – from a welfare approach to a right based approach. About two thirds of 1.2 billion people of India will be entitled to receive subsidized foodgrains under TPDS. In a country where almost 40% of children are undernourished the importance of the scheme increases significantly.

The Act converts into legal entitlements the existing food security programmes of the Government of India. It includes the Midday Meal Scheme, Integrated Child Development Services scheme and the Public Distribution System. Further, the NFSA 2013 recognizes maternity entitlements. The Midday Meal Scheme and the Integrated Child Development Services Scheme are universal in nature whereas the PDS will reach about two-thirds of the population (75% in rural areas and 50% in urban areas). Under the provisions of the Act, beneficiaries of the Public Distribution System are entitled to 5 kilograms per person per month of cereals at the following prices:

- Rice at Rs3 per kg
- Wheat at Rs2 per kg
- Coarse grains (millet) at Rs1 per kg.

Pregnant women, lactating mothers, and certain categories of children are eligible for daily free meals.

Under National Food Security Act (NFSA), 2013, coverage under TPDS has been delinked from poverty estimates. The coverage of 75% and 50% of the rural and urban population respectively prescribed under the Act is substantially above the poverty estimates. Subject to coverage determined for each State/UT, the State Government or UT Administrations are required to identify the eligible households and issue ration cards to them. Thus, States/UTs will issue ration cards to the eligible households covered under the Priority Households and Antyodaya Anna Yojana (AAY).

However, under NFSA 2013, the APL and BPL categories have been done away with and instead, only, eligible households i.e. priority households and the households covered under the AAY shall be entitled to receive foodgrains under TPDS i.e. rice, wheat and coarse grains @ Rs 3/-, 2/- and Rs. 1/- per kg respectively. The entitlements of priority households shall be @ 5 kg per person per month and the AAY families will get 35 kg per family per month.

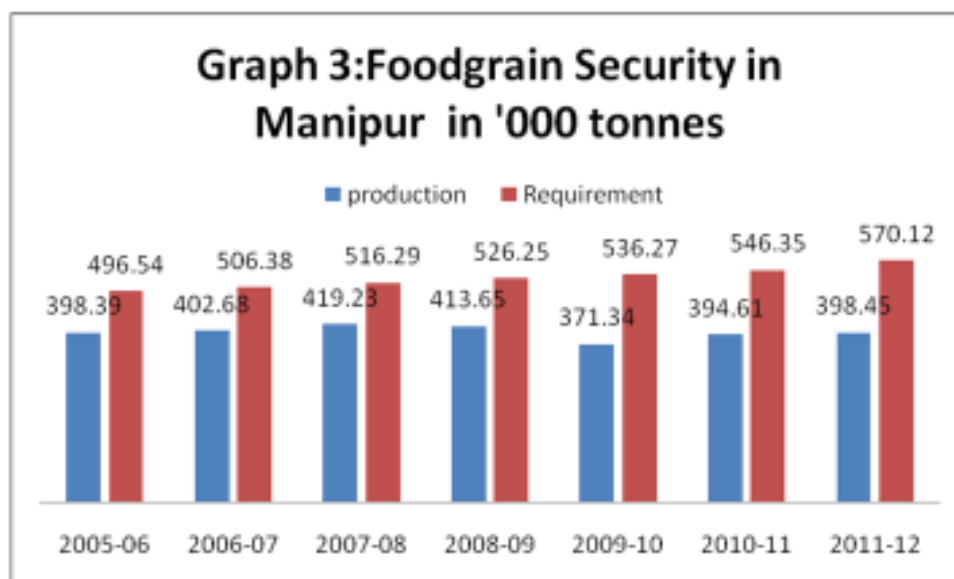
Public Distribution System (Control) Order, 2001 mandates the States/UT Governments to issue licenses to Fair Price Shops owners, monitor their operations and take all required action to ensure smooth functioning of TPDS. The State/UT Governments have been given flexibility in the matter of fixing the margin for the fair price shops. The issue prices of foodgrains at Fair Price Shops are fixed by the State/UT Governments keeping into consideration the transport and handling charges, margin to be paid to the fair price shops owners, etc.

The import export policy in respect of foodgrains is basically subservient to the main policy of first ensuring national food security.

Food security in Manipur

Earlier Manipur used to produce not only her requirements of foodgrains but also could export it to neighbouring states. Now Manipur is marginally deficit in foodgrain, oilseeds and pulses. In 2011-12 Manipur produced 398.45 thousand tonnes of foodgrains when the requirement was estimated at 570.12 thousand tonnes. Natural events like draught, flood and flowering of bamboo can reduce foodgrain output significantly. As the following diagram shows, in the last few years our production always fell short of requirements. The concept of food security at state level need not be pursued to the extreme by insisting on production of foodgrains

irrespective of the cost of production. What is required is not only high level of foodgrain production, the access of the people with adequate purchasing power is equally important. The TPDS should work properly to safeguard the interest of the poorest of the poor. TPDS has unfortunately been unable to function properly because of various vested interests and only a fraction of the benefits reach the intended beneficiary. The case of PDS rice is one such example. PDS rice finds its way to the open market. The leakage needs to be plugged as soon as possible. According to the Department of Consumer Affairs, Food & Public Distribution there are 406593 ration card holders in Manipur with the following breakup 240593 BPL, 102400 AAY and 63600 APL. There are 2453 Fair Price Shops in Manipur. Manipur is going to implement NFSA 2013 by December, 2015. Only a few other states have implemented it.



Source : Economic Survey Manipur 2014-15

The adoption of HYVs in the state has been very slow in the state. The total area under HYVs of paddy constitutes about 54.71% of the total area under paddy in 2011-12.

The following table shows the comparative picture of allotment and offtake of foodgrains by various states in north eastern India. It gives us an idea of the needs of various states and the shortage they have to make up to ensure food security.

Table 4 : Comparative Annual allotment and actual offtake in Northeastern India

	wheat			Rice		
	Annual allotment	Actual offtake *	Projection +	Annual allotment	Actual offtake *	Projection +
Assam	3.87	3.82	1.27	18.19	13.95	4.65
Arunachal Pradesh	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.15	0.90	0.30
Manipur	0.19	0.18	0.06	2.0	1.56	0.52
Meghalaya	0.20	0.17	0.06	1.96	1.61	0.54
Mizoram	0.09	0.08	0.03	1.46	1.07	0.36
Nagaland	0.30	0.23	0.08	1.33	1.22	0.41
Tripura	0.29	0.23	0.08	3.34	2.69	0.90
total	4.94	4.71	1.58	29.43	23.0	7.68

Note: * upto Dec., 2014 + projections for Jan. to March 2015

Source: Annual report 2014-15, Deptt. Of Food & Public Distribution, Govt. of India.

However despite the overflowing warehouses of FCI , hunger exists in India. If public distribution system is effective , why do poor people have to depend on open markets rather than fair price shops for their requirements ? In some states only a small proportion of wheat and rice consumption of the poor comes from fair price shops. Often foodgrains meant for public distribution system get diverted to open markets and inferior quality foodgrain are sold in fair price shops to discourage dependence on FPS. Piling up unsold stocks becomes an excuse for further diversion. The transition of PDS from universal to targeted system is also another reason for lower off-take. The APL group is no longer a priority . They prefer to buy straight from the open market instead of waiting for the release of monthly quotas of foodgrains not necessarily at lower price. These systemic issues have to be taken care of , if measures for ensuring food security are to be more effective.

EXERCISE

1. If food grains production has increased four times, why are many people still hungry ?
2. What are the characteristics of the agricultural strategy which led to green revolution ?
3. Does a bumper harvest mean food security ?
4. Does plenty of rice alone mean food security ?
5. When can food security be ensured ?
6. Why does seasonal hunger persist in rural areas ?
7. Why do farmers need a minimum support price ?
8. What is the role of FCI in ensuring food security ?
9. What is a ration card ?
10. What is an issue price ?
11. What does the coexistence of overflowing granaries of the FCI and widespread hunger indicate ?
12. How has the rise in MSP affected the poor ?
13. Who benefits from MSP ?
14. Who benefits from AAY Scheme ?
15. Who are affected acutely by calories deficiency ?
16. What is the purpose of mid-day meal programme ?
17. How can flowering of bamboo lead to shortage of food grains ?
18. Activity
 - (a) Identify a BPL Card holder in your locality. Ask a member of the household whether he gets his monthly quota regularly.
 - (b) Prepare a chart showing how a flood affects the food security of a farmer.
 - (c) Do you belong to a food secure household ? Discuss it with your parents.
 - (d) With the help of your teacher, find out the necessary steps for acquiring a BPL Card.

DISASTER MANAGEMENT

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Unit-5 : Disaster Management

Chapter-1

Understanding Key Terms

What is a hazard ?

Hazard is a dangerous natural or man made condition that could cause injury, loss of life, damage to property or environment.

Natural hazards include earthquake, volcanic eruptions, tsunamis which are of natural origin. Floods, droughts, fires and landslide are socio-natural hazards because these are caused by both natural and man made factors.

Man made hazards are connected with industries and factories. These include leakage of toxic gas, explosion, pollution and dam failures. War and civil strife also belong to man made disasters.

What is a disaster or calamity ?

Disaster is a natural or man made event that kills a lot of people or causes a lot of damage to property or environment. It may be cyclone, earthquake, tsunami, flood, drought, fire, leakage of toxic gas and war.

A disaster disrupts the normal functioning of society and affects large number of people. Since it affects a large community, external aid is required to make up the losses.

What is vulnerability ?

Vulnerability is the extent to which a person or community can be affected by natural disasters or man made conditions.

A person living in a thatched hut in coastal area is vulnerable to cyclones because the gales may blow the hut away. But he or she is less vulnerable to the impact of an earthquake compared to a person living in an improperly built brick house.

Economically or socially backward people are more vulnerable to disasters because they do not have access to safe shelters, awareness, education, training, etc.

In a community, women, children and old people are more vulnerable to disasters than healthy adults who need lesser support. Physically challenged persons need more attention during a disaster.

The combination of vulnerability and hazard gives us disaster risk or possibility of a disaster in an area.

Vulnerability	Hazard
Factors	Trigger Event
1 Location	1 Earthquake
1 Social and Economic backwardness	1 Cyclones
1 Illness and disabilities	1 Floods
1 Age and sex	1 Drought
1 Lack of awareness and education	1 Landslide
1 Inadequate planning for disaster management	1 Fire
1 Lack of training	1 War
1 Population growth	1 Terrorism
1 Urbanisation	1 Nuclear hazard
	1 Chemical hazard
	1 Biological hazard
	1 Environment hazard

What is Risk ?

Risk is a measure of the potential to cause damage. When vulnerability and hazard are high, disaster risk is also high. Disaster risk is the product of hazard and vulnerability divided by capacity for convenience. Capacity is defined as the community to intervene and manage a hazard in order to reduce potential impact.

Risk : The probability of harmful consequences or expected losses (deaths, injuries, damage to property or environment) resulting from interactions between natural or human induced hazards and vulnerable conditions.

Risk is expressed by the notation :-
$$\text{Risk} = \frac{\text{Hazards} \times \text{Vulnerability}}{\text{Capacity}}$$

If we can reduce hazard, disaster risk is also reduced. But in most cases, the extent of hazard is given and cannot be changed. We know that more than 60 per cent of land in India is prone to earthquakes. About 70 per cent of the cultivable land in India is drought-prone, 12 per cent is prone to flood and 8 per cent to cyclones. Kashmir and parts of the North-east are facing the hazard of terrorism and war. Thus it is not possible to relocate population to areas which are not hazard-prone.

EXERCISE

1. Match each of the items on the left side with one of the items on the right.

A. Rain (torrential)	1. Natural hazard
B. Densely populated	2. Hazard characteristics
C. Landslides	3. Disaster
D. Earthquake	4. Vulnerability
E. Devastating everything in its path (people, cattle, homes, trees etc.)	5. Socio-natural hazards
2. Classify the following disasters as natural or man made.
Air crash, forest fires, cold wave, epidemic, snow avalanche, train accident, tsunami, global warming, heat wave, volcanic eruption.
3. List two hazards in the mountainous areas of Manipur.
4. Name the hazard which is caused by environmental degradation.
5. List five risk inducing factors in your home and school.

Chapter-2

Components of Disaster Management

The Commonwealth Government recognizes four elements of emergency disaster management, viz., preparedness, response, recovery and prevention/planning (PRRP), and advocates the development of disaster arrangements to embrace all of them.

‘PRRP’

- 1 Preparedness – measures to ensure that communities and services are capable of coping with the effect of disaster.
- 1 Response – measures taken during and immediately after a disaster to ensure that the effects are minimised.
- 1 Recovery – measures which support affected communities in the reconstruction of physical infrastructure, economic and emotional well being.
- 1 Prevention – measures to reduce the severity of disaster.

-
- 1 Preparation of Disaster management plans for community/school/individual.
 - 1 Mock drill, training and practice.
 - PREPAREDNESS 1 Inventory of both material and human resources.
 - 1 Proper warning system.
 - 1 Identifying the vulnerable groups.

-
- 1 Activate the emergency centres (control room).
 - 1 Setting up community kitchen, using local groups.
 - RESPONSE 1 Medical camps.
 - 1 Issuing updated warnings.
 - 1 Providing adequate shelter and toilet facilities.
 - 1 Deployment of search and rescue teams.
-

	1	Awareing the community on health and safety measures.
	1	Counselling programme for those who have lost the near and dear ones.
RECOVERY	1	Restoring the essential services – roads, communication links, etc.
	1	Collecting usable material for construction from rubble.
	1	Providing financial support.
	1	Reconstructing new buildings.
	1	Preventing habitation in risk zones.
	1	Finding ways to reduce risk even before the disaster strikes.
PREVENTION / PLANNING	1	Disaster resistant buildings.
	1	Community awareness and Education.
	1	Land use planning.

In case of an early warning, the first step is PREPAREDNESS, which ensure that communities and services are capable of coping with the effect of disaster. It refers to specific measures taken before a disaster strikes to facilitate rapid response. During the RESPONSE phase, the Government and Non Government Organisations distribute food, clothing and shelter to those affected. In the RECOVERY phase, those affected reconstruct their homes, and essential services like the construction of roads, bridges, schools, etc., are restored. In the last phase, there is the PREVENTION activities where actions are carried out to minimise the impact of potential disaster.

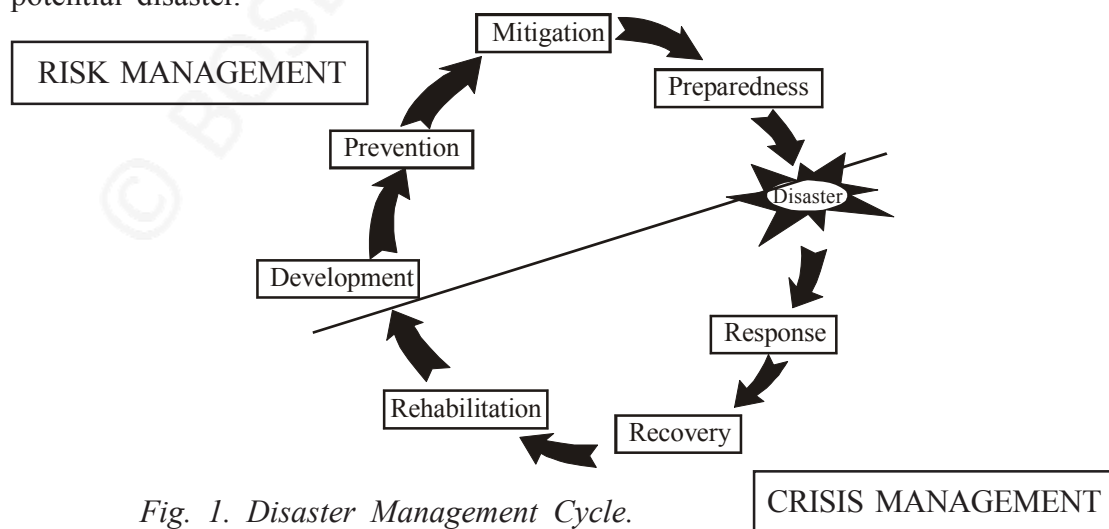


Fig. 1. Disaster Management Cycle.

There has been a shift from ‘disaster response and recovery’ to ‘disaster risk management and risk reduction’ strategies and from ‘Government – centered approach’ to ‘Community participation’.

Disaster Management is actually a series of activities that run parallel to each other rather than in a sequence of pre and post disaster. It is like an EXPAND AND CONTRACT model because it assumes that the disaster intervention measures – prevention, mitigation, response and recovery can be carried out at all times in a disaster prone community. However, the various components ‘expand’ and ‘contract’ depending on the relationship between the hazard and vulnerability of the community.

EXERCISE

1. What common man made hazards can you identify in your city or area ? Which of them according to you may result in a disaster, it not adequately addressed through prevention, mitigation and preparedness activities ?
2. Visit a nearby Fire Station, and request a fire-fighter to explain how to distinguish between different types of fires.

Chapter-3

Man Made Disaster – Nuclear, Biological and Chemical

Some common man made disasters are fires, traffic accidents, terrorist attacks and epidemic. But more dangerous are the nuclear, biological and chemical weapons that we use at the time of war.

Nuclear weapon

Bomb or other warhead that derives its force from either nuclear fission, nuclear fusion, or both. It is delivered by an aircraft, missile or other system. Fission weapons are also known as Atomic bombs while fusion weapons are called Hydrogen bombs. Nuclear weapons are the most potent explosive devices ever invented. Their destructive effects include not only a blast equivalent to thousands of tons of TNT but also blinding light, searing heat and lethal radioactive fallout. The first Atom bomb was dropped at Hiroshima, Japan by the United States on 6th August, 1945 in the Second World War. Many people were killed and those who survived, face a fate worse than death.

Chernobyl nuclear power accident (April 26, 1986) – In the worst nuclear power accident, fires and explosions resulting from an unauthorized experiment at the Chernobyl nuclear power plant near Kiev, USSR (now in Ukraine), left 31 dead and spread radioactive material over much of Europe. About 1,35,000 people were evacuated from the region and as a result of the radiation released, thousands of cancer deaths were expected.

Biological weapon

Biological warfare agents include many bacteria which cause Anthrax, Brucellosis and Typhus and viruses that cause diseases such as equine Encephalitis. Following the horrors of the First World War, the Geneva Protocol of 1925 prohibited the use of biological weapons. However, Japan used them in China during the Second World War. During the Cold War, the Soviet Union and the United States built huge stockpiles of biological agents. Many countries have also been suspected of developing biological warfare agents.

Chemical weapon

Chemical weapons include choking agents such as the chlorine and phosgene gas employed by the Germans and the Allies in the First World War ; blood agents such as hydrogen cyanide which block red blood cells from taking up oxygen ; blister

agents like sulfur gas which burn and blister the skin and nerve agents such as Tabun, Sarin, Soman etc., which block the transmission of nerve impulses to the muscles, heart and diaphragm. The heavy casualties suffered in the First World War led to the 1925 Geneva Protocol, which made it illegal to employ chemical weapons. But chemical weapons were used by Italy in Ethiopia (1935-36), by Japan in China (1938-42), by Egypt in Yemen (1966-67) and by Iran and Iraq against each other (1984-88).

Bhopal Chemical Gas leak (December 2-3, 1984) was one of the worst industrial disasters of all times. It was a technological accident in which 45 tonnes of highly poisonous methyl isocyanate (MIC) gas along with Hydrogen Cyanide and other reaction products leaked out of the pesticide factory of Union Carbide into the night air of Bhopal at around 12-30 a.m. The official death toll reached 3,598 in 1989. Thousands, who survived, however face a fate worse than death.

In the event of explosions, fires and chemical leaks occurring in industrial establishments, people are exposed to the following dangers.

- 1 Heat waves.
- 1 Poisonous gas.
- 1 Low oxygen levels.
- 1 Combustion of various products and heat waves.
- 1 Falling of structural elements.
- 1 Contamination of the nearby environment (air, land and water).

23rd December, 2003, Gas Well Blowout in Gas Qiao, Chongqing, China, 243 people died, 9,000 were injured and 64,000 were evacuated. Many of the confirmed dead were children and elderly people who were unable to flee after the explosion. Those who did not escape in time suffered burns to their eyes, skin and lungs from the gas.

STUDENTS : FIND FURTHER INFORMATION

- 1 Radiation effects of the 1986 Chernobyl nuclear power accident.
- 1 Causes of the gas leak in the Bhopal Gas tragedy.
- 1 Major chemical or industrial disasters that have occurred in India.
- 1 Consider an industry to be located in close proximity to your school premises. List down possible risk reduction measures that need to be taken by the school.

Chapter-4

Common Hazards – Prevention and Mitigation

There are several types of hazards that are of widespread concern to us. For a simple understanding, we can classify hazards as follows.

Sudden onset hazards – earthquakes, volcanic eruptions, tsunamis, landslides, floods, tropical cyclones, avalanche, cloud burst.

Slow onset hazards – drought, famine, environmental degradation, desertification, pest infection.

Epidemics – water/food borne diseases, person to person diseases, vector-borne diseases.

Industrial/Technological Accidents – system failures, fire, explosion, chemical leakage/spillage.

Earthquakes

An Earthquake is a sudden release of energy accumulated in deformed rocks causing the ground to shake or tremble.



Fig. 2. Buildings destroyed by an earthquake.

Earthquakes may occur at any time without any warning sign. In recent years, extensive research has been conducted but there is no accepted method of earthquake prediction.

Effects

Physical damage – loss of buildings, fires, floods (due to dam failures) and landslides could occur.

- Casualties** – high near the epicentre and in densely populated areas where buildings are not earthquake resistant.
- Public health** – breakdown in sanitary conditions and other unhygienic situations could lead to epidemics.
- Water supply** – severe problems due to failure of the water supply distribution network.
- Transport network** – severely affected due to failure of roads, bridges, railway tracks, etc.
- Electricity and Communication** – all links affected. Transmission towers and transformers may collapse.

Mitigation Strategies

Engineered structures to withstand ground shaking. Analyse soil type before construction and avoid building structures on soft soil.

The Bureau of Indian Standards has published buildings code and guidelines for safe constructions against earthquakes. Before the building is constructed, the building plans have to be checked by the Municipality, according to the laid down bylaws.

Public awareness is to be created through sensitization and training programmes for Architects, Builders, Contractors, Designers, Engineers, House owners, Masons, etc.

Landslides

Landslides are slippery masses of rock, earth or debris which move down mountain slopes or river banks.

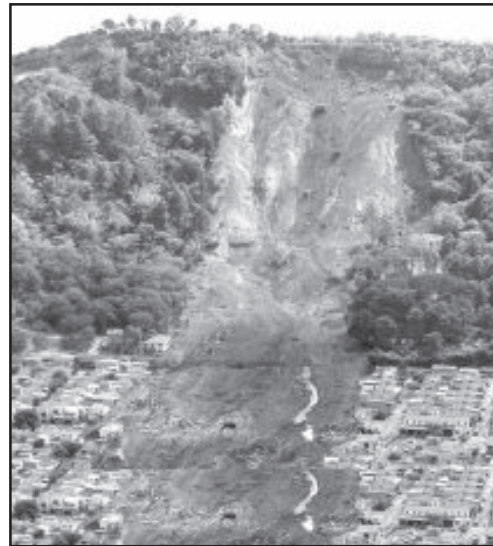


Fig. 3. Landslide.

Effects

Physical damage – landslides block or bury roads, lines of communication, settlements, river flow, agricultural land, etc.

Casualties – they cause maximum fatalities depending on the place and time of occurrence. Catastrophic landslides such as the debris slide on the slopes of Huascarán in Peru triggered by an earthquake in 1970, killed over 18,000 people.

Mitigation Strategies

Hazard mapping will locate areas prone to slope failures. This will help to identify avoidance of areas for building settlements.

Land use practices such as existing natural vegetation in good condition should be preserved. Denuded upper slopes are to be reforested.

Retaining walls can be built to stop land from slipping.

Surface drainage control works are implemented to control the movement of landslides accompanied by infiltration of rain water and spring flows.

Engineered structures with strong foundations can withstand the ground movement forces.

Increasing vegetation cover is the most effective way of arresting landslides. It helps to bind the top soil with layers below, while preventing excessive run-off and soil erosion.

Floods

Floods are temporary inundation of large areas as a result of overflowing rivers due to heavy rains, cyclones, tsunami, melting snow, dam bursts, etc.



Fig. 4. Flood.

Effects

Physical damage – structures damaged by washing waters, landslide triggered on account of water getting saturated, boats and fishing equipments may be lost or damaged in coastal areas.

Casualties and public health – people and livestock deaths by drowning, outbreak of epidemics.

Water supplies – contamination of water, clean drinking water may become scarce.

Crops and food supplies – food shortage can be caused due to loss of entire harvest and spoiling of stored grains.

Mitigation Strategies

Mapping of the floodplain is the primary step involved in reducing the risk of the region.

Land use control will reduce danger of life and property. No major development should be permitted in the areas which are subjected to flooding. Important facilities should be built in safe areas e.g., on elevated land.

Construction of engineered structures in the flood plains and strengthening of structures to withstand flood forces is important. The buildings should be built on an elevated area or on stilts.

Flood Control aims to reduce flood damage. This can be done by **flood reduction** which decreases the amount of run-off by reforestation, protection of vegetation, clearing of debris from streams and other water bodies. **Flood diversion** includes levees, embankments, dams and channel improvement. Dams can store and release water when required. **Flood Proofing** measures include use of sand bags to keep flood water away, blocking or sealing of doors and windows of houses. Houses may be raised through structural means.

Cyclones

Cyclones are violent storms of vast extent, characterised by high winds rotating about a calm centre of low atmospheric pressure.



Fig. 5. A Cyclonic Storm.

Effects

Physical damage – structures will be damaged or destroyed by the wind force, flooding, storm surge, etc. Roofs of light weight material suffer severe damage.

Casualties – casualties may be caused by flooding and flying objects. Contamination of water supplies may lead to epidemics.

Crops and food supplies – high winds and rains will ruin the standing crops and food stock lying in lowlying areas. Plantation crops e.g., banana and coconut are extremely vulnerable.

Transport and communication – transport links may be curtailed. Severe disruption in the communication links.

Mitigation Strategies

Hazard mapping will illustrate the areas vulnerable to the cyclones. It is an effective mitigation tool.

Land use control – location of settlements in the flood plains is of utmost risk. Vulnerable areas should be kept for parks, playgrounds or as grazing grounds.

Engineered structures – structures need to be built to withstand wind forces.

Multi-purpose cyclone shelters have been constructed in vulnerable locations of coastal Orissa.

Coastal Shelterbelt Plantation Programme will mitigate the impact of strong cyclonic winds thereby protecting cultivated fields, houses and homesteads adjoining the coasts.

Fires

Fires are very dangerous. It is an event of something burning and is often destructive to life and property. It is observed that more people die in fires than in earthquakes, floods and cyclones.

Causes of Fire

1. **Heating sources** such as space heaters, electric heaters etc., are often cause of fire. These should be used with caution.
2. **Cooking accidents** are a major cause of home fires. Unattended cooking or mechanical failure of cooking equipment causes fire.



Fig. 6. Fire.

3. **Electrical wiring** can cause a fire if it is overloaded. Overheating of electrical appliances, poor wiring connection and multi-point adaptors can result in fires.
4. **Accumulation of rubbish and waste materials** can easily contribute to the spread of fire. Keep these materials in a suitable container located in a safe position outside the building.
5. **Combustible materials** such as glues, solvents, flammable liquids or gases should be kept in a secure area outside the premises.
6. **Hazardous materials** like adhesive, paints, chemicals or gas cylinders should be kept separately away from any sources of ignition.
7. **Smoking** is a major cause of fire.
8. **Arson** is also another cause.

Safety measures for fire prevention in home

- 1 *don't keep flammable liquids in the house.*
- 1 *don't plug several devices into one socket.*
- 1 *keep away matches from children.*
- 1 *don't allow anyone to smoke inside the house.*
- 1 *have a fire extinguisher in your house and learn how to use it.*
- 1 *when you leave your house, make sure to shut off all electrical and gas applications.*
- 1 *try to know the cause of the fire and take necessary actions. If the fire is caused by electrical defects water cannot be used as one may get electrocuted.*
- 1 *in the event of a fire, call the fire department and provide them with your address.*
- 1 *in a smoke filled corridor, crawl on the floor and escape.*
- 1 *remember fire safety rules and your evacuation route.*

Traffic Accidents

Transport networks are for better connectivity and service. But the number of traffic accidents is on the rise. The main causes are the violation of traffic regulations, speeding, drunk driving, lack of maintenance, human error, sabotage, hijacking, mountainous terrain, technical problems, etc.

SAFETY MEASURES		
<p style="text-align: center;">ROAD</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1 drive only when you are competent enough. 1 to be safe on the roads is to follow Lane Driving. 1 know Road Signs and honour them. 1 be careful while driving in the rainy season, driving up a hill and driving during night. 1 while driving, avoid sudden acceleration and deceleration. 1 drive your vehicle at the recommended speed. 1 look on either sides of the road before crossing. 1 do not try to overtake unnecessarily. 1 do everything to avoid a head-on collision. 1 in case a mishap occurs, stay calm and do your best. <p style="text-align: center;">RAIL</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1 at railway crossings, pay attention to the signal and the swing barrier. 1 in case of a unmanned crossing, get down the vehicle and look at either sides before crossing the track. 1 do not take flammable material in the train. 1 do not smoke in the train. 1 while travelling in a train, do not stand and lean out of the door. 1 do not pull the chain unnecessarily. <p style="text-align: center;">AIR</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1 pay attention to the flight crew safety demonstration. 1 read carefully the safety briefing card. 1 know where the nearest emergency exit is and know how to open it. 1 always keep your seat belt fastened when in your seat. <p style="text-align: center;"><i>If you are in an air accident, you should remember the following.</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1 stay calm and listen to the crew members and do what they say. 1 before opening any emergency exit yourself, look outside the window. If you see a fire, do not open it. Use another escape route. 1 try to stay down if there is smoke in the cabin. Follow the track of emergency lights embedded in the floor; they lead to an exit. If you have a handkerchief, put it over your nose and mouth.

Terrorist Attacks

The most upsetting of the disasters are the deliberate acts of mass murder by carrying out suicide attacks, bombings, etc. The terrorist attacks on the World Trade Centre in New York and the Pentagon in Washington on 11 September, 2001 killed thousands of people. In India, Mumbai has been under frequent terrorist attacks and the city is always on high alert. The serial blasts that took place in 1993 killed many innocent people. On 25th August, 2003, a powerful bomb blast at two crowded areas of the city, near Zaveri Bazar and the Gateway of India, killed at least 45 people and injured over 150. The explosive devices are placed in the most unexpected places like roads, public spaces and public transport. Car bombs are on the increase and these are placed inside the car and they blow off as per the time set.



Fig. 7. Attacks on the World Trade Centre.



Fig. 8. Bomb blast.

In the event of a bomb scare –

- 1 don't panic.
- 1 do not approach the object yourself and don't let other people do so.
- 1 be wary of the objects that are left unattended in public areas e.g., boxes, suitcases, packages, etc.
- 1 inform the police and after their arrival leave the premises.

EXERCISE

1. List down actions that could be taken in your school and home to reduce vulnerability to earthquake damage. Discuss with your teacher and parents.
2. Write the name of the States of India prone to earthquakes.
3. List the common factors triggering landslides and the areas in Manipur prone to it.
4. Write the beneficial effects of flooding.
5. Write the names of different tropical cyclones that cause much damage to life and property.
6. List down other possible causes of fire.

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Chapter-5

Community Based Disaster Management

The Process of Community Planning for Disaster

Different communities share some commonalities. They might be living in the same environment exposed to hazards and having been affected by a disaster. The aim of community planning is to reduce the vulnerabilities and increase the capacities of the individuals and the community to cope with damaging effects of disasters. Therefore community planning involves people's participation, as they are the 'First Responder.'

Communities as the First Responder

During and after a disaster, it is the neighbours or people of the community who respond first. 'First responders' are people who are the first to act as a response to a disaster. They have basic response skills for medical or other emergencies and are part of the community. The first few hours before and after a disaster are critical and precious for saving lives and reducing further injury. Generally, external help takes time to reach the disaster site. Thus trained community members are life-saving assets in such situations. Moreover, communities play a vital role in risk reduction, without whose education and involvement, no disaster management plan could be complete. Therefore, the plan belongs to the community.

The Government of India strongly advocates the building of community capacities in various aspects of disaster response. It also urges communities to develop disaster management plans to prevent, mitigate and prepare better for disasters. It sees a prime role for teachers and students as educated members of the community in facilitating such planning in communities to reduce disaster risks.

- 1 One bad thing about disasters –
Sometimes they knock before they come, sometimes they don't
- 1 Another bad thing about disasters –
They do not discriminate between unequals.
- 1 One good thing about disasters –
If we are adequately prepared, the hazards do not become disasters.

India : Traditionally a community based society

India is traditionally a community based society. The birth of a child, moving into a new home, a marriage, a festival, every part of our life in India is community based. From ancient times to the modern joint family or rural villages, community based decision making has been our strength. But the increasing number of nuclear families in urban areas has made us lonely and helpless in the face of disaster. Let us rebuild our links with community and learn to act together as a team to reduce our vulnerabilities.

In Chapter 4, you have read about how one can try to mitigate the impact of disasters. Here the use of the word ‘one’ is a misnomer because unless we all stand up against hazards, we cannot stop them from causing disasters. At the individual level, we can protect ourselves from personal hazards by wearing a helmet when we are sitting on a two-wheeler. But how much can an individual or his/her family do against a mighty cyclone or a devastating earthquake? This is where the role of the community comes in. It is the community that can ensure proper preparedness and a quick response after the disaster occurs.

‘Why should the community be at the heart of any disaster management initiative?’

1. **First Responder** : Since the community is at the site of the disaster, it is the first one to respond to it.
2. **Source of maximum information** : When a disaster occurs in an area, the inhabitants of the area will have a better and more comprehensive and up-to-date information on the people living there.
3. **Local coping mechanisms** : Since disasters are recurrent, there is always a traditionally established coping mechanism that is handed down over the generations. This would be the most immediate response measure for the local environment.
4. **Self-help is in self interest** : It is the natural instinct of the community to respond quickly to such an occasion because dependence on external help may be time-consuming and even ineffective.

‘Involvement of the community helps create a less vulnerable community’.

School Planning for Disaster Management

Study your school building carefully and its surroundings and make a detailed plan for disaster preparedness. Answer the following questions after verifying the real situation.

1. Is your school building safe? (Ask a civil engineer to survey)
2. Are there partitions made of flammable board for sound proofing?
3. Are the fire extinguishers serviced and filled at least every year?
4. Are there shelves, decorations which are heavy and could fall during an earthquake and cause injury?
5. Is there sufficient evacuation routes known to all in the school?
6. Is the approach to the school free to reach by bus, truck, etc.?
7. Can an ambulance, fire engine reach the school easily?
8. Is the school near a river and could be flooded?
9. Is the school building well equipped to serve as a disaster relief centre?
10. Is there sufficient storage space for water?
11. Are the lavatories well maintained?
12. Does your school have the telephone numbers of the following to be contacted in case of an emergency?
 - (a) Nearest fire station.
 - (b) Nearest Hospital or Primary Health Centre.
 - (c) Nearest Police Station.
 - (d) District Magistrate or Municipal Commissioner.
 - (e) Local Civil Defence Warden.

School Disaster Management Committee
Task Force – 1 Warning dissemination.
Task Force – 2 Evacuation, Search and Rescue
Task Force – 3 Emergency, First Aid.
Task Force – 4 Awareness Generation
Task Force – 5 Mitigation.

The duties of the Disaster Management Committee members should be prominently displayed with addresses and contact details so that they can be contacted both at home and school.

EXERCISE

1. Prepare a school disaster management plan for various hazards like fire, earthquake, floods and cyclones. The class teacher can divide the students into groups and help in preparing the disaster management plan.
2. What can you do as a student towards the community for disaster management ?

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