CBSE Class 10 Social Science Complete Notes 2026-27

NCERT-Based Full Book Notes, MCQs and Solved Questions

All 20 chapters of the four NCERT Social Science textbooks for Class X - notes, 200 MCQs with answer keys, 100 solved short questions and 40 solved long questions.

Every chapter gets the same treatment: short revision notes first, then 10 MCQs, then 5 short questions, then 2 long questions - all solved in our own words, step by step.

Please read first. This is an independent study guide by Zahid Notes. We are not affiliated with CBSE, NCERT or any board, and this book is not an official CBSE or NCERT publication. The chapter list follows the CBSE 2026-27 syllabus and the 2026-27 rationalised NCERT editions - check it against the books issued to you. The paper pattern and question structure in this book are third-party reproduced from CBSE sample papers and the CBSE curriculum, not officially confirmed - confirm them on cbseacademic.nic.in. No exam date is printed in this book: the 2027 date sheet had not been released at the time of writing. All notes, solutions and questions are written in our own words; the official NCERT textbook PDFs are free on ncert.nic.in.

What is inside:

- 20 chapters - History 4, Geography 7, Civics 5, Economics 4 - notes for every chapter.
- 200 MCQs (10 per chapter) with an answer key at the end of each chapter.
- 100 solved short questions (5 per chapter) and 40 solved long questions (2 per chapter).
- Two short "also in your book" notes: The Age of Industrialisation and Consumer Rights.
- Paper pattern, map list, project note and a 3-round study plan.
- Revision checklist at the end of the book.

Contents

1. **History** - India and the Contemporary World – II
2. Chapter 1 - **The Rise of Nationalism in Europe** (History)
3. Chapter 2 - **Nationalism in India** (History)
4. Chapter 3 - **The Making of a Global World** (History)
5. Chapter 4 - **Print Culture and the Modern World** (History)
6. **Geography** - Contemporary India – II
7. Chapter 5 - **Resources and Development** (Geography)
8. Chapter 6 - **Forest and Wildlife Resources** (Geography)
9. Chapter 7 - **Water Resources** (Geography)
10. Chapter 8 - **Agriculture** (Geography)
11. Chapter 9 - **Minerals and Energy Resources** (Geography)
12. Chapter 10 - **Manufacturing Industries** (Geography)
13. Chapter 11 - **Lifelines of National Economy** (Geography)
14. **Civics** - Democratic Politics – II
15. Chapter 12 - **Power Sharing** (Civics)
16. Chapter 13 - **Federalism** (Civics)
17. Chapter 14 - **Gender, Religion and Caste** (Civics)
18. Chapter 15 - **Political Parties** (Civics)
19. Chapter 16 - **Outcomes of Democracy** (Civics)
20. **Economics** - Understanding Economic Development
21. Chapter 17 - **Development** (Economics)
22. Chapter 18 - **Sectors of the Indian Economy** (Economics)
23. Chapter 19 - **Money and Credit** (Economics)
24. Chapter 20 - **Globalisation and the Indian Economy** (Economics)

How to Use This Book

Round 1 - Learn: read the notes of one chapter, then answer its 10 MCQs without looking at the key. Read the short and long answers and compare them with your own. One chapter a day finishes the whole book in 20 days.

Round 2 - Revise: re-do only the MCQs and questions you got wrong the first time, using the answer keys in the book. Keep a small notebook for the things you keep forgetting - History dates, the map list, and the definitions in Civics and Economics. Revise that notebook, not the whole PDF, in the last three days.

Round 3 - Practise with papers: in the last weeks, solve official CBSE sample papers and previous year papers in 3 hours, no book, no phone. CBSE publishes its sample papers with marking schemes free at cbseacademic.nic.in. Use those first: they show exactly how CBSE frames questions and how many marks each step earns.

> **Board tip:** Social Science is one paper with four subjects inside it. Do not revise only your favourite part. History dates, the Geography map list, Civics definitions and Economics concepts all carry marks - give each book its share of time.

CBSE Class 10 Social Science Paper Pattern

Theory paper: 80 marks, 3 hours. Internal assessment: 20 marks. Total: 100 marks.

Passing marks: 33% in theory and 33% in internal assessment separately.

Subject split (official CBSE syllabus): History 20 marks (18 + 2 map pointing), Geography 20 marks (17 + 3 map pointing), Political Science 20 marks, Economics 20 marks. Each part is 25% of the theory paper.

Theory paper structure (80 marks, 41 questions): Section A - 20 MCQs, 20 marks; Section B - 4 short-answer questions of 2 marks each, 8 marks; Section C - 5 short-answer questions of 3 marks each, 15 marks; Section D - 4 long-answer questions of 5 marks each, 20 marks; Section E - 3 competency-based questions of 4 marks each, 12 marks; Section F - 1 map question, 5 marks. This structure is third-party reproduced from CBSE sample papers, not an official CBSE statement - confirm it on cbseacademic.nic.in.

Competency weightage (official CBSE syllabus): Remembering and Understanding 24 marks (30%); Applying 11 marks (13.25%); Analysing, Evaluating and Creating 40 marks (50%); Map Skill 5 marks (6.25%). Half the paper tests analysing, evaluating and creating - not memory alone. Practise case-based and source-based questions, not just definitions.

Internal assessment (20 marks): periodic assessment, multiple assessment, subject enrichment activity and portfolio, split as set by your school under CBSE guidelines. Every student also does one compulsory project (5 marks). For 2026-27 the project is the interdisciplinary project - The Making of a Global World (History, Chapter 3) + Lifelines of National Economy (Geography, Chapter 7) + Globalisation and the Indian Economy (Economics, Chapter 4) - marked on content accuracy and originality (2), presentation (2) and viva voce (1).

Map work (5 marks, official CBSE list): History - Congress sessions (1920 Calcutta, 1920 Nagpur, 1927 Madras), Satyagraha movements (Kheda, Champaran, Ahmedabad mill workers), Jallianwala Bagh and the Dandi March. Geography - major soil types; dams (Salal, Bhakra Nangal, Tehri, Rana Pratap Sagar, Sardar Sarovar, Hirakund, Nagarjuna Sagar, Tungabhadra); major rice and wheat areas; the largest producer states of sugarcane, tea, coffee, rubber, cotton and jute; iron ore mines (Mayurbhanj, Durg, Bailadila). The full map list is in the official CBSE syllabus - learn it from the syllabus, not from memory.

About This Book

Two-attempt exam: from 2026, CBSE holds the Class 10 exam twice a year - a compulsory first exam in February-March and an optional second exam in May. No 2027 date is printed here - the date sheet had not been released at the time of writing. Check cbseacademic.nic.in when it is published.

About this book: the 20 chapters follow the CBSE 2026-27 syllabus and the rationalised NCERT Social Science textbooks for Class X. Two chapters in your books have a special status, and this book marks them honestly: History Chapter 4, The Age of Industrialisation, is assessed in school periodic and mid-term tests only - not in the board theory paper - and Economics Chapter 5, Consumer Rights, is in the printed book but NOT in the 2026-27 board syllabus. Both get a short note in this book, not a full chapter. All solutions are written in our own words. Where a question is taken from an NCERT exercise, the answer is our own original solution. This is practice material - not a confirmed question list, and not an official CBSE publication. CBSE issues no official guess paper; the questions in this book are each chapter's important questions, chosen from NCERT exercises, previous year papers and chapter weightage. Use them the honest way: if you can answer every question in a chapter without the book, that chapter is ready.

Official sources: free NCERT textbook PDFs are available at ncert.nic.in; sample papers, marking schemes and the official syllabus are at cbseacademic.nic.in.

In India, "marking scheme / blueprint / unit-wise weightage" is the term for what the paper carries.

Chapter 1 - The Rise of Nationalism in Europe

History | India and the Contemporary World – II

Notes

- Before the French Revolution of 1789, Europe was divided into kingdoms, duchies and cantons ruled by monarchs, and most people owed loyalty to a king rather than to a nation.
- The French Revolution gave the idea of the nation a new meaning: the people, not the king, were the source of power, and all citizens were to enjoy equal rights under the law.
- Napoleon introduced the Civil Code of 1804, often called the Napoleonic Code, which removed privileges based on birth, made laws equal for all, and secured property rights.
- After Napoleon's defeat, the Congress of Vienna in 1815 tried to restore the old monarchies and redraw the map of Europe, but it could not stop the spread of nationalist ideas.
- Giuseppe Mazzini, an Italian thinker, believed that Italy should be one free and democratic nation, and he founded the secret society Young Italy to work for that goal.
- The unification of Germany was led by Prussia and its chief minister Otto von Bismarck, who followed a policy of 'blood and iron' and used war and diplomacy to unite the German states.
- In January 1871, after Prussia's victory over France, Kaiser Wilhelm I was proclaimed the emperor of a united Germany in the Hall of Mirrors at Versailles.
- Italy was unified by the efforts of Count Cavour, who used diplomacy and war, and Giuseppe Garibaldi, whose volunteer army helped win the south, under King Victor Emmanuel II.
- The Greek War of Independence began in 1821, and Greece became an independent nation in 1832 after a long struggle supported by many Europeans who admired ancient Greek culture.
- Nationalism also changed the Balkans, where different peoples under the Ottoman Empire began to demand freedom, but rivalry among the great powers made the region tense.
- By the end of the nineteenth century, nationalism had united Germany and Italy, but in the Balkans and in the colonies it also fed rivalry, suspicion and imperialism.
- The story of nationalism in Europe shows how the idea of a nation, born in France, inspired peoples across the continent to seek unity, freedom and a common identity.

Chapter 1 - MCQs (1 to 5)

1. What did the French Revolution of 1789 first give to the idea of the nation?

(a) The idea that the king alone was the source of power (b) The idea that the people were the source of power (c) The idea that only nobles could be citizens (d) The idea that each province should be a separate country

2. Which code introduced by Napoleon removed privileges based on birth and made laws equal for all?

(a) The Civil Code of 1804 (b) The Code of Vienna (c) The Code of the Zollverein (d) The Code of Young Italy

3. What was the main aim of the Congress of Vienna in 1815?

(a) To spread the ideas of the French Revolution (b) To unite Germany and Italy at once (c) To restore the old monarchies and redraw the map of Europe (d) To end all trade between European states

4. Who founded the secret society Young Italy?

(a) Count Cavour (b) Giuseppe Garibaldi (c) Otto von Bismarck (d) Giuseppe Mazzini

5. Who led the unification of Germany through the policy of 'blood and iron'?

(a) Kaiser Wilhelm I (b) Giuseppe Mazzini (c) Otto von Bismarck (d) Victor Emmanuel II

Chapter 1 - MCQs (6 to 10)

6. In which year was Kaiser Wilhelm I proclaimed emperor of a united Germany?

(a) 1832 (b) 1848 (c) 1861 (d) 1871

7. Who became the king of a united Italy?

(a) Victor Emmanuel II (b) Giuseppe Mazzini (c) Kaiser Wilhelm I (d) Count Metternich

8. In which year did the Greek War of Independence begin?

(a) 1789 (b) 1815 (c) 1821 (d) 1871

9. Which of the following was a result of the unification of Italy?

(a) Italy remained divided into small states (b) The Pope became the king of Italy (c) Most Italian-speaking states came under one kingdom (d) Italy was divided between France and Austria

10. Why did the Balkans become a region of tension by the early twentieth century?

(a) Because all Balkan peoples agreed to remain under one empire (b) Because different peoples demanded freedom while great powers competed for influence there (c) Because nationalism had never reached the Balkans (d) Because the Balkans had no contact with Europe

Answer Key - Chapter 1

Q	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Ans	b	a	c	d	c	d	a	c	c	b

Chapter 1 - Solved Short Questions (1 to 3)

1. What was the idea of the nation as it developed after the French Revolution of 1789?

Answer: After 1789, the nation came to mean a people united by a common history, language and will, rather than subjects of a king. The revolution declared that sovereignty belonged to the people and that all citizens should be equal before the law. French was made the common language of the nation, and the ideas of liberty and equality were spread through schools, the army and administration. This new idea inspired people in other parts of Europe to think of themselves as members of a nation and to demand freedom and unity.

2. What were the main features of the Napoleonic Code of 1804?

Answer: The Napoleonic Code, or Civil Code of 1804, did away with privileges based on birth and made all men equal before the law. It secured the right to property and removed many feudal dues and restrictions on trade. It also simplified administration by dividing France into departments and introducing a uniform system of laws and weights and measures. At the same time, it reduced the freedom of women and restored some old restrictions, so its effects were mixed.

3. Why did the Congress of Vienna in 1815 fail to stop nationalism in Europe?

Answer: The Congress of Vienna tried to restore the old rulers and draw new boundaries that ignored the wishes of the people. It placed many peoples under foreign rulers, for example Italians under Austrian rule, which created resentment. The ideas of liberty, equality and national unity had already spread widely through the French Revolution and Napoleon's armies. Secret societies, students, writers and liberal thinkers kept these ideas alive, and revolts soon broke out in several countries.

Chapter 1 - Solved Short Questions (4 to 5)

4. What role did Giuseppe Mazzini play in the unification of Italy?

Answer: Mazzini was an Italian thinker who believed that Italy should become one free, independent and democratic nation. In 1831 he founded Young Italy, a secret society that aimed to unite Italy through the efforts of the Italian people. His writings and speeches inspired many young Italians to join the nationalist cause. Although his plan for a democratic republic did not succeed, his ideas kept the dream of a united Italy alive and influenced later leaders.

5. How was Germany unified under Prussia?

Answer: Germany was unified under the leadership of Prussia and its chief minister Otto von Bismarck. Bismarck followed a policy of 'blood and iron', using war and diplomacy rather than speeches and votes to achieve unity. Prussia won wars against Denmark, Austria and France, and the German states gradually came together under Prussian leadership. In January 1871 Kaiser Wilhelm I was proclaimed emperor of the German Empire at Versailles, completing the process of unification.

Chapter 1 - Solved Long Questions

1. Explain how the French Revolution and Napoleon contributed to the growth of nationalism in Europe.

Answer: The French Revolution of 1789 changed the meaning of the nation in Europe. Before it, people were subjects of a king, but the revolution declared that the people were sovereign and that all citizens were equal before the law. It introduced the ideas of liberty, equality and fraternity, made French the common language, and created national symbols such as the tricolour flag and the national anthem. These changes gave ordinary people a sense of belonging to one nation. Napoleon carried these ideas to other parts of Europe through his armies and administration. His Civil Code of 1804 removed privileges based on birth, secured property rights, and introduced uniform laws, weights and measures in the territories he controlled. This helped trade and administration and made people think of themselves as citizens of a larger nation rather than of small local states. However, Napoleon's rule also became oppressive, with heavy taxes and forced military service, so people began to see him as a foreign ruler. Their resistance to Napoleon itself became a form of nationalism. Thus the revolution and Napoleon both spread nationalist ideas and, by provoking opposition, strengthened national feeling across Europe.

2. Describe the unification of Italy and Germany. What were the similarities and differences between the two processes?

Answer: Italy and Germany were both divided into many small states in the early nineteenth century, and both were unified in the second half of the century. In Italy, the movement was led by three men: Mazzini, who gave the idea of a united Italy; Count Cavour, the chief minister of Sardinia-Piedmont, who used diplomacy and war; and Giuseppe Garibaldi, whose volunteer army, the Red Shirts, won southern Italy. In 1861 Victor Emmanuel II was proclaimed king of Italy, and Rome became the capital in 1870. In Germany, unification was led by Prussia under Otto von Bismarck, who followed a policy of 'blood and iron'. After victories over Denmark, Austria and France, the German states united under Prussia, and Kaiser Wilhelm I was proclaimed emperor in 1871. The two processes were similar because both used war and diplomacy, both were led by one strong state, and both created a single nation-state from many small states. They differed in leadership and method: Italy had several leaders and a popular movement led by Garibaldi, while Germany was unified mainly from above by Prussia's army and Bismarck's diplomacy. In Italy the king was Victor Emmanuel II, while in Germany the emperor was Wilhelm I. Both unifications showed how powerful the idea of nationalism had become in Europe.

Chapter 2 - Nationalism in India

History | India and the Contemporary World – II

Notes

- The Rowlatt Act of 1919 allowed the British government to arrest and detain people without trial, and it caused widespread anger across India.
- On 13 April 1919, General Dyer ordered his troops to fire on a peaceful crowd at Jallianwala Bagh in Amritsar, killing hundreds of men, women and children.
- Gandhiji launched the Non-Cooperation Movement in 1920, asking Indians to boycott British goods, schools, courts and titles, and to support the Khilafat issue.
- The movement was called off in February 1922 after the Chauri Chaura incident, in which a crowd set fire to a police station and killed policemen.
- In 1928 the Simon Commission came to India to suggest constitutional reforms, but it had no Indian member, so Indians boycotted it with the slogan 'Simon Go Back'.
- On 12 March 1930 Gandhiji began the Salt March from Sabarmati to Dandi, where he broke the salt law on 6 April 1930 by making salt from sea water.
- The Civil Disobedience Movement of 1930-34 asked people to refuse to obey unjust British laws, boycott foreign cloth and liquor, and refuse to pay taxes in some areas.
- The Gandhi-Irwin Pact of 1931 ended the first phase of Civil Disobedience, and Gandhiji attended the Second Round Table Conference in London later that year.
- The Poona Pact of 1932, signed between Gandhiji and Dr B. R. Ambedkar, gave reserved seats to the Depressed Classes within the general electorate instead of separate electorates.
- The Quit India Movement of 1942 demanded that the British leave India at once, and Gandhiji gave the call 'Do or Die' to the people.
- Women, peasants, workers, businessmen and students all took part in the national movement, each in their own way, from picketing shops to joining processions and going to jail.
- By the 1940s the national movement had become a mass movement, and the demand for freedom was shared by people in villages and towns across the country.

Chapter 2 - MCQs (1 to 5)

1. What did the Rowlatt Act of 1919 allow the British government to do?

(a) Give Indians the right to vote (b) Arrest and detain people without trial (c) End all taxes on salt (d) Allow Indians to make their own laws

2. On which date did the Jallianwala Bagh massacre take place?

(a) 13 April 1919 (b) 12 March 1930 (c) 8 August 1942 (d) 26 January 1930

3. Which of the following was a part of the Non-Cooperation Movement?

(a) Paying more taxes to the British (b) Boycotting British goods, schools and courts (c) Joining the British army in large numbers (d) Accepting the Simon Commission

4. Why was the Non-Cooperation Movement called off in 1922?

(a) Because the British agreed to give India freedom (b) Because of the Chauri Chaura incident (c) Because Gandhiji was sent to London (d) Because the Salt March had begun

5. Why did Indians boycott the Simon Commission in 1928?

(a) It had no Indian member (b) It wanted to give India full freedom (c) It was led by an Indian (d) It had come to India in 1919

Chapter 2 - MCQs (6 to 10)

6. Where did Gandhiji break the salt law in 1930?

(a) Sabarmati (b) Chauri Chaura (c) Dandi (d) Amritsar

7. What was agreed in the Gandhi-Irwin Pact of 1931?

(a) The British would leave India at once (b) Civil Disobedience would end and political prisoners would be released (c) Salt tax would be doubled (d) India would get separate electorates for all communities

8. The Poona Pact of 1932 was an agreement between Gandhiji and whom?

(a) Muhammad Ali Jinnah (b) Jawaharlal Nehru (c) Dr B. R. Ambedkar (d) Subhas Chandra Bose

9. What was the famous call given by Gandhiji during the Quit India Movement of 1942?

(a) Simon Go Back (b) Do or Die (c) Swadeshi (d) Satyagraha

10. Which group did NOT take an active part in the national movement in large numbers?

(a) Women (b) Peasants (c) Businessmen (d) British officials who supported the Raj

Answer Key - Chapter 2

Q	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Ans	b	a	b	b	a	c	b	c	b	d

Chapter 2 - Solved Short Questions (1 to 3)

1. Why did Indians oppose the Rowlatt Act of 1919?

Answer: The Rowlatt Act allowed the government to arrest and imprison people without trial and to search homes without a warrant. Indians had hoped for more freedom after the First World War, in which many Indians had fought for Britain, so this law felt like a betrayal. Gandhiji called for a nationwide hartal against the Act, and protests broke out in many towns. The anger over the Act led directly to the tragedy at Jallianwala Bagh in Amritsar.

2. What happened at Jallianwala Bagh on 13 April 1919?

Answer: On 13 April 1919, a large crowd had gathered at Jallianwala Bagh in Amritsar for a peaceful meeting, and many people were also there for the Baisakhi fair. General Dyer entered the enclosed ground with his troops and, without warning, ordered them to fire on the crowd. The firing continued for about ten minutes until the soldiers ran out of ammunition. Hundreds of people were killed and many more were injured, and the massacre shocked the whole country.

3. Why was the Non-Cooperation Movement withdrawn after Chauri Chaura?

Answer: In February 1922, at Chauri Chaura in Gorakhpur district, a crowd of protesters set fire to a police station, killing 22 policemen. Gandhiji believed that the movement had become violent and that the people were not yet ready for a non-violent struggle. He felt that if the movement continued in this way, it would lose its moral force and lead to more violence. He therefore called off the Non-Cooperation Movement, a decision that disappointed many leaders but showed his commitment to non-violence.

Chapter 2 - Solved Short Questions (4 to 5)

4. What was the Salt March, and why was salt chosen as the symbol of protest?

Answer: The Salt March began on 12 March 1930, when Gandhiji walked from Sabarmati Ashram to the coastal village of Dandi with 78 followers. On 6 April he broke the salt law by making salt from sea water, which was illegal because the British had a monopoly on salt. Salt was chosen because it was used by every Indian, rich or poor, and the tax on it was felt by all. The march united people across the country and marked the start of the Civil Disobedience Movement.

5. What was the Poona Pact of 1932?

Answer: In 1932 the British announced separate electorates for the Depressed Classes, which meant they would vote separately from other Hindus. Gandhiji, who was in jail, fasted against this plan because he felt it would divide Hindu society. Dr B. R. Ambedkar, who spoke for the Depressed Classes, negotiated with Gandhiji, and the Poona Pact was signed. Under the pact, the Depressed Classes gave up separate electorates but received a larger number of reserved seats within the general electorate.

Chapter 2 - Solved Long Questions

1. Explain the causes, course and importance of the Non-Cooperation Movement of 1920-22.

Answer: The Non-Cooperation Movement grew out of several causes. The Rowlatt Act of 1919 and the Jallianwala Bagh massacre had created deep anger against British rule. The Khilafat issue also mattered: Indian Muslims were upset because the British had treated the Ottoman Caliph badly after the First World War. Gandhiji saw a chance to bring Hindus and Muslims together in a common struggle and launched the movement in August 1920. People were asked to surrender British titles, boycott government schools, colleges, courts and foreign cloth, and to use khadi and Indian goods instead. Students left government schools, lawyers gave up their practice, and foreign cloth was burnt in public. The movement spread to towns and villages, and peasants and workers joined it in their own ways. In the countryside, peasants refused to pay taxes and tribals protested against forest laws. The movement was at its height when the Chauri Chaura incident took place in February 1922, in which a mob killed 22 policemen. Gandhiji, who believed in non-violence, immediately called off the movement. Although it did not win freedom, the movement was important because it turned the freedom struggle into a mass movement for the first time. It showed that ordinary people were ready to suffer and go to jail for the country, and it gave the Congress a new confidence and a wider base.

2. Describe the Civil Disobedience Movement and the Quit India Movement. How did they take the freedom struggle forward?

Answer: The Civil Disobedience Movement began with the Salt March in March 1930, when Gandhiji walked to Dandi and broke the salt law. After that, people all over India refused to obey unjust British laws: they boycotted foreign cloth and liquor, refused to pay taxes, and broke forest laws in many areas. Women, students, peasants, workers and businessmen took part, and thousands went to jail. The movement was called off after the Gandhi-Irwin Pact of 1931, but it was revived when the Second Round Table Conference failed, and it continued until 1934. It showed that the demand for freedom had reached every section of society and that British rule could be challenged openly. The Quit India Movement began in August 1942, when the Congress demanded that the British leave India immediately. Gandhiji gave the call 'Do or Die', and the movement spread quickly despite the arrest of all the top leaders on the very first day. Ordinary people, students and workers organised strikes, processions and underground activities, and in some places they set up parallel governments. The British crushed the movement with great force, but it proved that the people of India would no longer accept British rule. Together, these two movements made the freedom struggle a truly mass struggle, weakened British control, and prepared the ground for independence.

Chapter 3 - The Making of a Global World

History | India and the Contemporary World – II

Notes

- The modern world was not made in a day: for thousands of years, people, goods, ideas and diseases travelled along land and sea routes between distant regions.
- The silk routes were among the oldest trade routes, linking China with Central Asia, India, Persia and Europe, and carrying silk, spices, pottery and ideas.
- In the pre-modern world, food also travelled long distances: noodles from China reached the West, and chillies, soya, potatoes and tomatoes came to India from other continents.
- Conquest and trade often went together, as rulers and traders opened new routes and brought different peoples into contact with one another.
- The discovery of the Americas by Christopher Columbus in 1492 changed the world, because it linked the Americas with Europe, Africa and Asia in new ways.
- Europeans carried diseases such as smallpox to the Americas, where the native peoples had no immunity, and millions died in the sixteenth century.
- The Spanish conquerors used the silver mines of Peru and Mexico, and the precious metals they took helped to fund trade with Asia and to increase Europe's wealth.
- The Columbian exchange meant that crops, animals, people and diseases moved between the Old World and the New World, changing diets, farming and populations on both sides.
- Potatoes, maize, tomatoes and chillies from the Americas changed food habits in Europe, Asia and Africa, while wheat, sugar and cattle went from Europe to the Americas.
- Trade in the pre-modern world was therefore not only about goods: it moved people, germs, ideas, religions and ways of life across the oceans.
- Sub-topics 2 to 4.4 of this chapter (the nineteenth century 1815-1914 onwards) are the interdisciplinary project, internally assessed, and are not part of the board theory paper.
- This chapter teaches us that globalisation has a long history, and that the world became connected through trade, conquest and the movement of people long before the modern age.

Chapter 3 - MCQs (1 to 5)

1. Which of these was one of the oldest trade routes linking China with Central Asia, India and Europe?

(a) The silk routes (b) The spice routes of the twentieth century (c) The Grand Trunk Road (d) The Atlantic slave route

2. Which food item is believed to have travelled from China to the West in the pre-modern world?

(a) Potatoes (b) Chillies (c) Noodles (d) Tomatoes

3. Who reached the Americas in 1492?

(a) Vasco da Gama (b) Christopher Columbus (c) Ferdinand Magellan (d) Marco Polo

4. Which disease caused the deaths of millions of native people in the Americas after the arrival of Europeans?

(a) Cholera (b) Malaria (c) Smallpox (d) Plague

5. Why did so many native Americans die from smallpox?

(a) Because they had no immunity to the disease (b) Because they refused all medicines (c) Because smallpox came from Asia only (d) Because they lived in very cold places

Chapter 3 - MCQs (6 to 10)

6. From which places did the Spanish take large amounts of silver in the sixteenth century?

(a) China and Japan (b) Peru and Mexico (c) England and France (d) Egypt and Turkey

7. What is meant by the Columbian exchange?

(a) The exchange of letters between Columbus and the king of Spain (b) The movement of crops, animals, people and diseases between the Old World and the New World (c) The trade of gold for silver in Europe (d) The exchange of silk for spices on the silk routes

8. Which of these crops came from the Americas to the rest of the world?

(a) Wheat (b) Barley (c) Potatoes (d) Rice

9. Which of these went from Europe to the Americas as part of the Columbian exchange?

(a) Chillies (b) Tomatoes (c) Sugar and cattle (d) Maize

10. What does the pre-modern world show us about globalisation?

(a) It began only in the twentieth century (b) It has a long history of trade, travel and exchange (c) It was limited to Europe alone (d) It involved only goods and never people or ideas

Answer Key - Chapter 3

Q	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Ans	a	c	b	c	a	b	b	c	c	b

Chapter 3 - Solved Short Questions (1 to 3)

1. What were the silk routes, and why were they important?

Answer: The silk routes were a network of land and sea routes linking China with Central Asia, India, Persia and Europe. Chinese silk, pottery and spices travelled west along these routes, while wool, glass and metals travelled east. The routes were important not only for trade but also for the exchange of ideas, religions, art and technology. Buddhist missionaries, for example, travelled along these routes, and new ideas about science and culture spread with the traders.

2. How did food travel in the pre-modern world? Give examples.

Answer: Food travelled long distances in the pre-modern world along with traders and travellers. Noodles are believed to have travelled from China to the West and become pasta in Italy. Chillies, potatoes, tomatoes, maize and soya came from the Americas and reached India, Europe and Asia after the sixteenth century. In the same way, wheat, sugar and many fruits went from Europe and Asia to the Americas. These exchanges changed what people ate in every part of the world.

3. How did the discovery of the Americas change the world?

Answer: The discovery of the Americas in 1492 linked two worlds that had been separate for thousands of years. Europeans began to settle in the Americas, take land and minerals, and bring enslaved people from Africa to work on plantations. The silver of Peru and Mexico enriched Europe and helped to pay for trade with Asia. The exchange of crops, animals and diseases between the Old World and the New World changed farming, food and population in both hemispheres.

Chapter 3 - Solved Short Questions (4 to 5)

4. Why was smallpox so deadly for the native peoples of the Americas?

Answer: Smallpox came to the Americas with the Europeans in the sixteenth century. The native peoples had lived apart from Europe and Asia for thousands of years, so they had never met this disease and had no immunity to it. When it spread, whole communities fell ill and died, and in some places the population fell by a very large number. The Spanish conquerors were able to defeat the Aztec and Inca empires partly because disease had weakened them before the fighting began.

5. What was the Columbian exchange?

Answer: The Columbian exchange is the name given to the movement of plants, animals, people, diseases and ideas between the Old World (Europe, Asia and Africa) and the New World (the Americas) after 1492. Crops such as potatoes, maize, tomatoes and chillies went from the Americas to the rest of the world, while wheat, sugar, horses and cattle went from Europe to the Americas. Diseases such as smallpox also travelled, with terrible results for the native peoples. The exchange changed diets, farming and the population of the world.

Chapter 3 - Solved Long Questions

1. Explain how trade, conquest and disease were linked in the making of the pre-modern global world.

Answer: In the pre-modern world, trade, conquest and disease were closely linked. Traders had travelled along the silk routes for centuries, carrying goods such as silk, spices and pottery between China, India, Persia and Europe, and with the goods travelled ideas, religions and ways of life. Food also travelled: noodles went from China to the West, and later chillies, potatoes and tomatoes came from the Americas to India and Europe. Conquest opened new routes and brought new peoples into contact. When Columbus reached the Americas in 1492, Europeans began to conquer the Aztec and Inca empires and to take their silver and land. The silver of Peru and Mexico was sent to Europe and then used to buy goods from Asia, so the wealth of the Americas helped to link the whole world in trade. But conquest also brought disease. Smallpox travelled with the Europeans, and the native peoples, who had no immunity, died in millions. This weakened the native empires and made conquest easier for the Spanish. At the same time, the Columbian exchange moved crops and animals between the continents and changed what people ate and grew. In this way, trade brought wealth and new foods, conquest brought new lands under European rule, and disease changed populations, and all three together made the world more connected than ever before.

2. Describe the silk routes and the Columbian exchange. How did they help to make a global world?

Answer: The silk routes were the oldest and best-known trade routes of the pre-modern world, linking China with Central Asia, India, Persia and Europe by land and sea. Along them travelled silk, spices, pottery, glass and metals, and traders also carried ideas, stories, art and religions from one region to another. Buddhism, for example, spread from India to Central Asia and China along these routes. The routes show that people in distant parts of the world were already connected long before modern times. The Columbian exchange began after 1492, when Columbus reached the Americas and linked the Old World with the New World. Crops such as potatoes, maize, tomatoes and chillies went from the Americas to Europe, Asia and Africa, and they changed the food and farming of millions of people. Wheat, sugar, horses and cattle went from Europe to the Americas and changed life there. But diseases also travelled, and smallpox killed millions of native Americans who had no immunity. Precious metals from Peru and Mexico flowed to Europe and then to Asia, linking the economies of three continents. Together, the silk routes and the Columbian exchange show how trade, travel and the movement of people, goods and germs gradually made the world one connected place.

Chapter 4 - Print Culture and the Modern World

History | India and the Contemporary World – II

Notes

- Print began in China, where paper and woodblock printing were used from an early time, and books were printed by rubbing paper against inked woodblocks.
- In Japan, Buddhist missionaries from China brought hand-printing, and later woodblock prints of pictures and books became very popular.
- Johann Gutenberg of Germany developed the first printing press with movable metal type around the 1430s, and his Bible of 1455 was one of the first books printed in this way.
- The printing press made books cheaper and faster to produce, so more people could read, and ideas spread quickly across Europe.
- Print helped the Protestant Reformation: Martin Luther's writings against the Catholic Church were printed in large numbers and read all over Germany.
- In India, the first printing press came with the Portuguese in the sixteenth century, and the first newspaper was the Bengal Gazette, started by James Augustus Hickey in 1780.
- Indian newspapers and books in local languages grew in the nineteenth century, and they spread new ideas about society, religion and freedom.
- Vernacular newspapers played a big part in the growth of nationalism, because they told people about British rule and encouraged them to think of themselves as one nation.
- Print also reached women and the poor: women writers wrote about their lives, and cheap books and magazines gave poor readers new stories and ideas.
- The British tried to control the press: the Vernacular Press Act of 1878 gave the government power to punish newspapers in Indian languages that criticised British rule.
- Print therefore became a powerful force: it spread knowledge, helped reform movements, supported nationalism, and gave a voice to people who had been silent before.
- The history of print shows how a new technology can change the way people think, learn and take part in public life.

Chapter 4 - MCQs (1 to 5)

1. In which country did woodblock printing begin?

(a) Japan (b) China (c) Germany (d) England

2. Who developed the printing press with movable metal type in Europe?

(a) Martin Luther (b) Marco Polo (c) Johann Gutenberg (d) James Augustus Hickey

3. In about which decade did Gutenberg develop his printing press?

(a) 1430s (b) 1330s (c) 1530s (d) 1630s

4. How did the printing press change the price and spread of books in Europe?

(a) Books became dearer and rarer (b) Books were banned in all countries (c) Books could be read only by kings (d) Books became cheaper and spread faster

5. Whose writings, printed in large numbers, helped the Protestant Reformation?

(a) Martin Luther (b) Johann Gutenberg (c) James Augustus Hickey (d) Raja Rammohun Roy

Chapter 4 - MCQs (6 to 10)

6. Who started the Bengal Gazette, the first newspaper in India?

(a) Raja Rammohun Roy (b) Bal Gangadhar Tilak (c) Mahatma Gandhi (d) James Augustus Hickey

7. In which year was the Bengal Gazette first published?

(a) 1680 (b) 1880 (c) 1780 (d) 1980

8. How did the vernacular press help the growth of nationalism in India?

(a) By telling people about British rule and encouraging a sense of national unity (b) By praising British rule in every issue (c) By refusing to print any news (d) By printing only in English

9. What did the Vernacular Press Act of 1878 do?

(a) It gave freedom to all Indian newspapers (b) It banned all printing in India (c) It made English the only language of newspapers (d) It gave the government power to punish newspapers in Indian languages that criticised British rule

10. Which of the following is true about print and women in nineteenth-century India?

(a) No woman ever wrote or read a printed book (b) Print was forbidden to women by law (c) Women writers used print to write about their lives and ideas (d) Women were not allowed to buy books

Answer Key - Chapter 4

Q	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Ans	b	c	a	d	a	d	c	a	d	c

Chapter 4 - Solved Short Questions (1 to 3)

1. How did print develop in China and Japan?

Answer: Print began in China, where paper had been invented and woodblock printing was used to print books. A woodblock was carved with the text, inked, and paper was rubbed against it to make a copy. Buddhist missionaries from China took this method to Japan, where hand-printing became common. In Japan, woodblock prints of pictures, poems and stories became very popular, and artists produced beautiful prints that ordinary people could buy.

2. What was Gutenberg's contribution to printing?

Answer: Johann Gutenberg of Germany developed the first printing press in Europe with movable metal type in the 1430s. Earlier books were copied by hand or printed from fixed woodblocks, which was slow and costly. Gutenberg's press used separate metal letters that could be arranged, inked and reused, so many copies of a book could be printed quickly. His Bible, printed around 1455, was one of the first books made in this way, and within a few decades printing presses had spread across Europe.

3. How did print help the Protestant Reformation?

Answer: Martin Luther, a German monk, wrote against the practices of the Catholic Church, and his ideas were printed in large numbers. His translation of the New Testament into German was printed and read by many people who could not read Latin. Cheap printed pamphlets and books carried his ideas to towns and villages across Germany and beyond. Print thus allowed ordinary people to read religious ideas for themselves, and it helped the Reformation to spread far more quickly than it could have by word of mouth alone.

Chapter 4 - Solved Short Questions (4 to 5)

4. What was the role of the vernacular press in the growth of nationalism in India?

Answer: The vernacular press means newspapers and books printed in Indian languages such as Hindi, Bengali, Marathi and Urdu. These newspapers reported news about British rule, taxes, famines and the unfair treatment of Indians, and they reached readers in towns and villages. They helped people in different regions to feel that they shared common problems and a common identity as Indians. Nationalist leaders used these papers to spread ideas of freedom, unity and self-rule, which is why the British tried to control them.

5. How did print help women and the poor in nineteenth-century India?

Answer: Print gave women a new voice in the nineteenth century. Women writers such as Rashsundari Debi wrote about their own lives, and magazines for women discussed education, widowhood and social reform. Cheap books, pamphlets and newspapers also reached poor readers, who could read stories, songs and religious texts at a low price. Libraries and reading rooms made books available to people who could not buy them. In this way print helped groups who had been kept out of learning to read, think and speak for themselves.

Chapter 4 - Solved Long Questions

1. Explain how the printing press changed Europe. What was its role in the Reformation and in the spread of new ideas?

Answer: Before the printing press, books in Europe were copied by hand, so they were costly, rare and read only by a few rich and learned people. Gutenberg's press with movable metal type, developed in the 1430s, changed this completely. Books could now be printed in large numbers, quickly and cheaply, and within fifty years printing presses had spread to most European countries. More people learned to read, and reading became a common activity rather than a privilege of the few. Print also changed the way ideas spread. Martin Luther's writings against the Catholic Church were printed in thousands of copies and reached towns and villages across Germany. His German translation of the New Testament allowed ordinary people to read the Bible for themselves, which was a key part of the Protestant Reformation. Print also spread new ideas in science, literature and politics, and it helped to create a reading public that could discuss and question old beliefs. In short, the printing press broke the control of a small group over knowledge and made books and ideas available to many more people.

2. Describe the growth of print in India and its connection with nationalism and censorship.

Answer: Print came to India with the Portuguese in the sixteenth century, and the first printing presses were used to print books in Konkani and other languages. The first newspaper in India was the Bengal Gazette, started by James Augustus Hickey in 1780, and by the nineteenth century many newspapers and journals were being printed in English and in Indian languages. Indian reformers and leaders used print to spread ideas about social reform, education and freedom. Vernacular newspapers reported the effects of British rule, criticised unjust laws, and helped readers in different regions to feel that they were part of one nation. Nationalist leaders such as Tilak used newspapers like Kesari to reach the people and to build support for the freedom movement. Print also gave a voice to women and to poor readers through cheap books, magazines and pamphlets. The British government saw the press as a threat and tried to control it. The Vernacular Press Act of 1878 gave the government the power to punish newspapers in Indian languages that wrote against British rule, and many editors were fined or jailed. Despite this, the press continued to grow, and it played a central part in the rise of nationalism and in the struggle for freedom.

Also in Your Book — The Age of Industrialisation

History | India and the Contemporary World – II | Not a board chapter — short note only

You will find a chapter called The Age of Industrialisation in your NCERT book, but it is not part of the board theory paper for the 2026-27 examination. It is meant for periodic and mid-term assessment in school, so your teacher may still ask questions from it in class tests. Do not worry about it for the board examination, but read it once, because it helps you understand how the modern world of factories and machines began.

The chapter explains how industrialisation began in Britain, where cotton and textiles led the way and factories replaced handwork. It also describes the decline of Indian handloom and textiles under British rule, when cheap machine-made cloth from Britain flooded Indian markets. Indian entrepreneurs, however, set up their own mills and businesses, and Indian workers, including women and children, worked in the new factories. The story shows both the growth of industry and the hardship it brought to craftspeople.

Chapter 5 - Resources and Development

Geography | Contemporary India – II

Notes

- A resource is anything in the environment that can be used to meet human needs when it is technically accessible, economically feasible and culturally acceptable.
- Resources are classified by origin as biotic, which come from living things, and abiotic, which come from non-living things.
- By exhaustibility, resources are renewable, like solar energy and forests, or non-renewable, like coal and petroleum, which take millions of years to form.
- By ownership, resources may be individual, community owned, national or international, and by status they may be potential, developed, stock or reserves.
- Resource planning in India means identifying resources, evaluating them in quantity and quality, and making a plan to use them in step with technology, skills and institutions.
- Land is a natural resource of great importance, and land use in India is shaped by relief, soil, climate, population pressure and technology.
- Land degradation in India is caused by mining, overgrazing, over-irrigation, deforestation, industrial waste and the overuse of chemicals.
- Over-irrigation in Punjab, Haryana and western Uttar Pradesh has caused waterlogging and salinity, while overgrazing has degraded land in Gujarat, Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh and Maharashtra.
- Alluvial soil is found in the northern plains and river deltas and is good for rice, wheat, sugarcane and pulses, while black soil of the Deccan trap is best for cotton.
- Red and yellow soil occurs in eastern and southern parts of the peninsular plateau, laterite soil in areas of heavy rainfall such as Karnataka and Kerala, arid soil in Rajasthan, and forest soil in mountain areas.
- Soil erosion takes place through running water, wind and human misuse, and it forms gullies and ravines, as in the Chambal valley.
- Soil conservation includes contour ploughing, terrace farming, strip cropping, shelter belts of trees, gully plugs and the control of overgrazing.

Chapter 5 - MCQs (1 to 5)

1. Which of the following is a renewable resource?

(a) Coal (b) Solar energy (c) Petroleum (d) Iron ore

2. Resources that come from living things are called

(a) Biotic resources (b) Abiotic resources (c) Non-renewable resources (d) Stock resources

3. Which soil is most suitable for growing cotton?

(a) Alluvial soil (b) Laterite soil (c) Arid soil (d) Black soil

4. Over-irrigation in Punjab and Haryana has mainly caused

(a) Soil erosion by wind (b) Formation of ravines (c) Waterlogging and salinity (d) Loss of forest cover

5. Alluvial soil is mainly found in

(a) The Deccan plateau (b) The northern plains (c) The Thar desert (d) The Western Ghats

Chapter 5 - MCQs (6 to 10)

6. Which of the following is a method of soil conservation?

(a) Shifting cultivation (b) Overgrazing (c) Mining (d) Terrace farming

7. Laterite soil is generally found in areas of

(a) Heavy rainfall and high temperature (b) Low rainfall (c) Snowfall (d) Desert climate

8. Which state has large areas of black soil in the Deccan trap region?

(a) Rajasthan (b) Punjab (c) Maharashtra (d) Assam

9. Gullies and ravines are a result of

(a) Contour ploughing (b) Shelter belts (c) Soil erosion by running water (d) Strip cropping

10. Resource planning involves all of the following EXCEPT

(a) Identification of resources (b) Evaluation of resources in quantity and quality (c) Matching a development plan with technology and institutions (d) Using resources without any plan

Answer Key - Chapter 5

Q	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Ans	b	a	d	c	b	d	a	c	c	d

Chapter 5 - Solved Short Questions (1 to 3)

1. What is a resource? How are resources classified on the basis of exhaustibility?

Answer: A resource is anything in the environment that can be used to satisfy human needs when it is technically accessible, economically feasible and culturally acceptable. On the basis of exhaustibility, resources are divided into renewable and non-renewable resources. Renewable resources, such as solar energy, wind and forests, can be renewed or reproduced in a short time. Non-renewable resources, such as coal, petroleum and minerals, are formed over millions of years and cannot be renewed once they are exhausted.

2. Why is resource planning important in India?

Answer: India has a huge and diverse stock of resources, but they are unevenly distributed across regions. Some areas are rich in minerals while others are rich in water or fertile soil. Resource planning helps in identifying and evaluating resources and in using them in a balanced way. It also helps to prevent overuse, reduce regional imbalance and support development that can be sustained for future generations.

3. What are the main causes of land degradation in India?

Answer: Land degradation in India is caused by several human and natural factors. Mining leaves deep scars and waste material on the land, and overgrazing by animals removes the protective plant cover. Over-irrigation causes waterlogging and salinity in Punjab, Haryana and western Uttar Pradesh. Deforestation, industrial effluents and the excessive use of chemical fertilisers and pesticides also damage the quality of the land.

Chapter 5 - Solved Short Questions (4 to 5)

4. Describe the main features of black soil.

Answer: Black soil is also known as regur soil and is made of fine clayey material. It is found mainly in the Deccan trap region of Maharashtra, Madhya Pradesh, Gujarat and Chhattisgarh. It is rich in soil nutrients such as calcium carbonate, magnesium and potash, and it can hold moisture well. It is most suitable for growing cotton, and it is also used for sugarcane, wheat, jowar and oilseeds.

5. Suggest any three measures to conserve soil.

Answer: Contour ploughing, in which ploughing is done along the contour lines of a slope, slows down the flow of water and reduces erosion. Terrace farming cuts steps into steep slopes so that water does not run off quickly and soil is held in place. Shelter belts of trees planted in rows protect fields from strong winds, especially in dry areas. Strip cropping, gully plugs and the control of overgrazing are other useful measures.

Chapter 5 - Solved Long Questions

1. Explain the classification of resources on the basis of origin, exhaustibility, ownership and status of development.

Answer: Resources are classified in several ways so that they can be understood and managed better. On the basis of origin, resources are biotic or abiotic. Biotic resources come from living things, such as forests, fisheries and livestock, while abiotic resources come from non-living things, such as rocks, minerals and water. On the basis of exhaustibility, resources are renewable or non-renewable. Renewable resources like solar energy and forests can be renewed, while non-renewable resources like coal and petroleum are limited and take a very long time to form. On the basis of ownership, resources may be individual, owned by a person, community owned, such as a village pond, national, such as minerals and forests within a country, or international, such as ocean resources beyond national boundaries. On the basis of the status of development, resources may be potential, which exist in a region but have not yet been used, developed, which are surveyed and ready for use, stock, which can be used with present technology but are not yet in use, or reserves, which are a part of the stock that can be used with present technology. This classification helps planners decide how each resource should be used and conserved.

2. Describe the main soil types of India, their regions and the crops grown on them.

Answer: India has several soil types because of differences in relief, climate and parent rock. Alluvial soil is the most widespread soil, found in the northern plains and in river deltas, and it is very fertile and good for rice, wheat, sugarcane, pulses and jute. Black soil, also called regur, is found in the Deccan trap region of Maharashtra, Madhya Pradesh, Gujarat and Chhattisgarh, and it is best known for cotton. Red and yellow soil occurs in the eastern and southern parts of the peninsular plateau, in Odisha, Chhattisgarh and southern Madhya Pradesh, and it is used for rice, millets, pulses and groundnut. Laterite soil develops in areas of heavy rainfall and high temperature, such as Karnataka, Kerala, Tamil Nadu and the hilly areas of Odisha and Assam, and it supports tea, coffee, cashew and rubber. Arid soil is found in western Rajasthan, where it is sandy and saline and needs irrigation for crops such as bajra and pulses. Forest soil is found in mountain areas and is loamy and rich in humus in valley floors, where it supports wheat, maize, barley and temperate fruits. Each soil needs care suited to its nature, so that its fertility is protected for future farming.

Chapter 6 - Forest and Wildlife Resources

Geography | Contemporary India – II

Notes

- India is one of the richest countries in the world in flora and fauna, and this variety of living things is called biodiversity.
- Forests provide timber, fuel, fodder, medicine and shelter to wildlife, and they help to keep the soil, water and climate in balance.
- The International Union for Conservation of Nature classifies species as normal, endangered, vulnerable, rare, endemic or extinct.
- Normal species are found in good numbers, endangered species are in danger of extinction, and vulnerable species are declining in number.
- Rare species have a very small population, endemic species are found only in a particular area, and extinct species no longer exist anywhere.
- Reserved forests are the most valuable forests and are under the direct control of the government, while protected forests are protected from further depletion.
- Unclassed forests and wastelands belong to both government and private individuals and communities.
- Deforestation has been caused by the expansion of agriculture, mining, large dams, fuelwood collection, grazing and industrial use.
- The Indian Wildlife Protection Act was passed in 1972 to protect habitats and to ban hunting of many species.
- Project Tiger was launched in 1973 to protect the tiger and its habitat, and several tiger reserves have been set up since then.
- The Chipko movement in the Himalayas, Joint Forest Management and the Beej Bachao Andolan show how local people take part in conservation.
- Sacred groves, the Bishnoi community in Rajasthan and the protection of blackbuck and chinkara are examples of community conservation.

Chapter 6 - MCQs (1 to 5)

1. Which of the following is an endangered species?

(a) A species found in large numbers (b) A species in danger of extinction (c) A species found only in one area (d) A species that no longer exists

2. Project Tiger was launched in the year

(a) 1972 (b) 1973 (c) 1980 (d) 1991

3. Which type of forest is under the direct control of the government and is the most valuable?

(a) Protected forest (b) Unclassed forest (c) Reserved forest (d) Open forest

4. The Chipko movement was mainly a movement to

(a) Save tigers (b) Protect trees from being cut (c) Build dams (d) Plant exotic species

5. An endemic species is one that

(a) Is found all over the world (b) Has become extinct (c) Is found only in a particular area (d) Has a very large population

Chapter 6 - MCQs (6 to 10)

6. The Indian Wildlife Protection Act was passed in

(a) 1972 (b) 1965 (c) 1986 (d) 2001

7. Which community in Rajasthan is well known for protecting blackbuck and chinkara?

(a) Bishnoi (b) Gond (c) Santhal (d) Toda

8. Joint Forest Management is based on the idea of

(a) Complete government control without local people (b) Local communities and the forest department working together (c) Cutting forests for industry (d) Banning all use of forests

9. Which of the following is a cause of deforestation?

(a) Afforestation (b) Expansion of agriculture and mining (c) Joint Forest Management (d) Sacred groves

10. Sacred groves are

(a) Forests protected by local communities for religious reasons (b) Commercial timber plantations (c) Forests cleared for farming (d) Reserved forests of the government only

Answer Key - Chapter 6

Q	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Ans	b	b	c	b	c	a	a	b	b	a

Chapter 6 - Solved Short Questions (1 to 3)

1. What is biodiversity? Why is it important?

Answer: Biodiversity means the variety of plants, animals and other living things found in an area. India is rich in biodiversity because of its varied climate, relief and soils. It is important because forests and wildlife keep nature in balance, give us food, timber, medicine and raw materials, and support the livelihoods of many people. Loss of biodiversity can disturb the food chain and make nature less able to recover from change.

2. Explain the IUCN categories of species.

Answer: The IUCN classifies species into six groups. Normal species are found in good numbers, endangered species are in danger of extinction, and vulnerable species are declining and may become endangered. Rare species have a very small population in the world, endemic species are found only in one particular area, and extinct species no longer exist anywhere. This classification helps us to know which species need urgent protection and which need careful watching.

3. What is the difference between reserved, protected and unclassed forests?

Answer: Reserved forests are the most valuable forests and are under the direct control of the government, with all activities strictly controlled. Protected forests are also owned by the government but are protected from further depletion, and some limited use is allowed. Unclassed forests and wastelands belong to both government and private individuals and communities, and they are managed with fewer restrictions than the other two types.

Chapter 6 - Solved Short Questions (4 to 5)

4. What was Project Tiger? Why was it started?

Answer: Project Tiger was launched in 1973 to protect the tiger, which had become an endangered species in India. The tiger is at the top of the food chain, so its decline showed that forests and wildlife habitats were in trouble. Under the project, tiger reserves were set up, poaching was controlled and the habitat of the tiger was protected. The project also helped to protect many other plants and animals that share the tiger habitat.

5. How do local communities help in the conservation of forests and wildlife?

Answer: Local communities play a big role in conservation through customs and movements. The Bishnoi community in Rajasthan protects blackbuck, chinkara and trees, and sacred groves are protected by villagers for religious reasons. The Chipko movement in the Himalayas stopped trees from being cut, and the Beej Bachao Andolan in Tehri saved traditional seeds. Joint Forest Management brings local people and the forest department together to protect and manage forests.

Chapter 6 - Solved Long Questions

1. Explain the main causes of deforestation in India and the steps taken for the conservation of forests and wildlife.

Answer: Deforestation in India has many causes. The expansion of agriculture has cleared large forest areas for farming, and mining, large dams and industrial projects have also taken forest land. Fuelwood collection, overgrazing and shifting cultivation have reduced forest cover further, while timber and other forest products have been taken out faster than they can grow back. This loss of forests disturbs rainfall, soil and wildlife habitats, and it pushes many species towards extinction. Conservation has been taken up through laws and programmes. The Indian Wildlife Protection Act of 1972 banned hunting of many species and set up national parks and sanctuaries. Project Tiger, launched in 1973, protects tigers and their habitats. Joint Forest Management involves local communities in protecting forests, and movements such as Chipko and Beej Bachao Andolan show the power of people's action. Sacred groves and community rules also protect forests, and afforestation and awareness programmes help to restore green cover. Together, these steps aim to keep forests healthy for people, wildlife and future generations.

2. Describe the different categories of species under the IUCN classification and explain why conservation of wildlife is necessary.

Answer: The IUCN classifies species into six categories to show how safe or threatened they are. Normal species are found in good numbers and do not face immediate danger. Endangered species are in danger of extinction because their numbers have fallen sharply. Vulnerable species are declining in number and may become endangered if the decline continues. Rare species have a very small population, either in a small area or spread thinly over a large area. Endemic species are found only in one particular area and in no other part of the world. Extinct species no longer exist anywhere because the last members of the species have died. Conservation is necessary because wildlife is part of the natural balance and the food chain. Animals and plants give us food, medicine, timber and other products, and they support farming through pollination and soil fertility. Many people depend on forests for their livelihood, and wildlife also has value for culture, science and recreation. If species are lost, the balance of nature is disturbed and cannot easily be restored, so protection of habitats, control of poaching and the involvement of local people are all needed.

Chapter 7 - Water Resources

Geography | Contemporary India – II

Notes

- Water is a renewable resource, and it moves in a cycle of evaporation from oceans and land, condensation into clouds, and precipitation as rain or snow.
- Only a small part of the water on the earth is fresh water, and much of it is locked up in glaciers and groundwater.
- Water scarcity can be quantitative, when there is not enough water, or qualitative, when water is polluted and unfit for use.
- Scarcity is caused by low rainfall, population growth, overuse of groundwater, intensive farming and the pollution of rivers and lakes.
- Multi-purpose river projects store water in large dams and use it for irrigation, power generation, flood control, drinking water, navigation and fishing.
- The Bhakra Nangal project is on the Sutlej, Hirakud is on the Mahanadi, Sardar Sarovar is on the Narmada, and Tehri is on the Bhagirathi.
- Large dams also create problems such as displacement of people, loss of forests and farmland, waterlogging, salinity and disputes between states.
- Rainwater harvesting is an old practice in India, with traditional structures such as khadins and johads in Rajasthan and underground tanks called tankas.
- Rooftop rainwater harvesting collects rain from roofs through pipes and stores it in tanks or sends it into the ground to recharge groundwater.
- Tamil Nadu made rooftop rainwater harvesting compulsory, Meghalaya uses it in Cherrapunji and Mawsynram, and Gendathur village in Karnataka is a well-known example.
- Groundwater is being overused in Punjab, Haryana and western Uttar Pradesh for irrigation, and the water table is falling in many areas.
- Water can be conserved by harvesting rainwater, reusing water, repairing leaks, protecting rivers and using water wisely in farming and industry.

Chapter 7 - MCQs (1 to 5)

1. The hydrological cycle is the continuous movement of water through

(a) The water in the oceans (b) Evaporation, condensation and precipitation (c) The water in rivers only (d) The water stored in dams

2. Quantitative water scarcity in India is mainly caused by

(a) Too much rainfall everywhere (b) Too many rivers (c) Low rainfall and overuse of water (d) Too much snowfall

3. The Hirakud dam is built on the river

(a) The Ganga (b) The Mahanadi (c) The Narmada (d) The Krishna

4. Multi-purpose river projects are built for

(a) Irrigation only (b) Power generation only (c) Flood control only (d) Irrigation, power, flood control and other uses

5. Which state was the first to make rooftop rainwater harvesting compulsory?

(a) Gujarat (b) Tamil Nadu (c) Rajasthan (d) Assam

Chapter 7 - MCQs (6 to 10)

6. Rooftop rainwater harvesting helps because

(a) It raises the groundwater level (b) It causes floods (c) It pollutes rivers (d) It reduces the groundwater level

7. The Bhakra Nangal project is built on the river

(a) The Ganga (b) The Sutlej (c) The Godavari (d) The Kaveri

8. Which of the following is a problem caused by large dams?

(a) Displacement of people and loss of land (b) Increase in rainfall (c) Increase in forest cover (d) Reduction in irrigation

9. Khadins and johads in Rajasthan are examples of

(a) Shifting cultivation (b) Large thermal power plants (c) Traditional rainwater harvesting structures (d) Deep tube wells for industry

10. Qualitative water scarcity means scarcity caused by

(a) Pollution of water by industries and sewage (b) Heavy rainfall (c) Large number of rivers (d) Rooftop harvesting

Answer Key - Chapter 7

Q	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Ans	b	c	b	d	b	d	b	a	c	a

Chapter 7 - Solved Short Questions (1 to 3)

1. What is the hydrological cycle?

Answer: The hydrological cycle is the continuous movement of water between the earth and the atmosphere. Water evaporates from oceans, rivers, lakes and land, and plants also give out water through transpiration. The water vapour rises, cools and condenses to form clouds, and then falls back to the earth as rain or snow. This cycle keeps water moving and makes fresh water available again and again.

2. What is water scarcity? Explain its two types.

Answer: Water scarcity means that there is not enough usable water to meet the needs of people. It can be quantitative, when the amount of water is too low because of low rainfall, overuse or a growing population. It can also be qualitative, when water is available but is polluted by sewage, industrial waste and chemicals and cannot be used safely. Both forms of scarcity affect drinking water, farming and industry.

3. What is a multi-purpose river project? Give two examples.

Answer: Multi-purpose river projects are large dams built on rivers to serve many purposes at the same time. They store water for irrigation, generate hydroelectric power, control floods and supply drinking water to towns and villages. They also support navigation, fish breeding and recreation. The Bhakra Nangal, Hirakud, Sardar Sarovar and Tehri projects are well-known examples of such projects in India.

Chapter 7 - Solved Short Questions (4 to 5)

4. What is rooftop rainwater harvesting? Give examples from India.

Answer: Rooftop rainwater harvesting is a method of collecting rain that falls on the roof of a house. The rainwater is carried through pipes into a storage tank, or it is filtered and sent into the ground to recharge groundwater. Tamil Nadu was the first state to make it compulsory, and it is widely used in Meghalaya and in Gendathur village in Karnataka. It reduces dependence on other sources of water and helps to raise the water table.

5. Why is groundwater overuse a problem in India?

Answer: Groundwater is being overused in many parts of India, especially in Punjab, Haryana and western Uttar Pradesh, where tube wells are used for irrigation. When more water is taken out than rain can replace, the water table falls and wells go dry. Overuse also increases the cost of pumping and can make the remaining water salty or polluted. Careful use of water, rainwater harvesting and better irrigation methods can slow down this decline.

Chapter 7 - Solved Long Questions

1. Describe the benefits and problems of multi-purpose river projects in India, with examples.

Answer: Multi-purpose river projects are large dams built on rivers to serve many purposes at the same time. The Bhakra Nangal project on the Sutlej river in Himachal Pradesh and Punjab provides water for irrigation and generates hydroelectric power. The Hirakud project on the Mahanadi river in Odisha controls floods and supplies water for irrigation and industry. The Sardar Sarovar project on the Narmada river in Gujarat provides irrigation, drinking water and power, while the Tehri project on the Bhagirathi river in Uttarakhand supplies water and power. These projects also help in flood control, inland navigation, fish breeding and recreation. At the same time, they have created problems. Large dams submerge vast areas of land and forests, and they displace many people from their homes and fields. They can cause waterlogging and salinity in irrigated areas, and they affect the flow of rivers and the life of fish. Some projects have led to disputes between states over the sharing of water, and large dams in earthquake-prone areas raise safety concerns. These benefits and problems show why every project needs careful planning and fair treatment of affected people.

2. What is rainwater harvesting? Explain rooftop rainwater harvesting with examples from India.

Answer: Rainwater harvesting means collecting and storing rainwater for later use, and it is one of the oldest and simplest ways to save water. Rooftop rainwater harvesting collects rain that falls on roofs through pipes and stores it in tanks or sends it into the ground to recharge groundwater. Tamil Nadu was the first state to make rooftop rainwater harvesting compulsory in houses, and in Meghalaya, rooftop harvesting is used in places such as Cherrapunji and Mawsynram, which receive very heavy rainfall. Gendathur, a village in Karnataka, has shown how rooftop harvesting can meet the water needs of every household. In Rajasthan, traditional methods such as khadins, johads and underground tanks, called tankas, store rainwater for drinking and farming. Rooftop harvesting reduces dependence on groundwater and surface water, improves the quality of water and helps to raise the water table. It also reduces flooding in towns during heavy rain. When combined with the reuse of water, the repair of leaking pipes and the protection of water bodies, rainwater harvesting can go a long way in solving water scarcity in India.

Chapter 8 - Agriculture

Geography | Contemporary India – II

Notes

- Agriculture is the main occupation of most people in India, and it provides food, raw materials for industry and employment.
- Primitive subsistence farming, also called shifting cultivation or slash and burn agriculture, is practised in the north-eastern states and in some forest areas.
- Intensive subsistence farming is practised in areas of high population pressure, where small plots are farmed with much labour and high-yielding inputs.
- Commercial farming uses modern inputs, such as high-yielding variety seeds, fertilisers and irrigation, and the produce is mainly sold in the market.
- Rabi crops are sown in winter and harvested in summer, kharif crops are sown with the monsoon and harvested in autumn, and zaid crops are grown in the short summer season.
- Rice is a kharif crop that needs high temperature, high humidity and plenty of water, while wheat is a rabi crop that needs a cool growing season.
- Millets such as jowar, bajra and ragi need less water and grow well in dry areas, and maize is used both as food and as fodder.
- Pulses are a source of protein and are grown in Madhya Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh and Rajasthan, while sugarcane needs hot and humid conditions.
- Oilseeds include groundnut, mustard, sesamum, soybean and sunflower, and they are used for cooking oil and for making cakes for animals.
- Tea is grown in Assam and West Bengal, coffee is grown in Karnataka, Kerala and Tamil Nadu, and both need a cool climate and well-drained soil.
- Cotton is grown on black soil in Maharashtra and Gujarat, jute is grown in West Bengal, and horticulture includes fruits, vegetables and flowers.
- The Green Revolution of the 1960s raised foodgrain production with high-yielding variety seeds, fertilisers and irrigation, and it improved food security in India.

Chapter 8 - MCQs (1 to 5)

1. Kharif crops are generally sown in

(a) October to December sowing (b) June to July sowing (c) March to June sowing (d) January to March sowing

2. Which of the following is a kharif crop?

(a) Wheat (b) Gram (c) Rice (d) Mustard

3. Wheat is mainly grown in the rabi season in

(a) Assam (b) Punjab (c) Rajasthan (d) Tamil Nadu

4. Which of the following are millets?

(a) Jowar, bajra and ragi (b) Wheat and barley (c) Tea and coffee (d) Cotton and jute

5. Which crop is known as a fibre crop and needs black soil and a warm climate?

(a) Sugarcane (b) Cotton (c) Tea (d) Coffee

Chapter 8 - MCQs (6 to 10)

6. Tea is mainly grown in

(a) West Bengal (b) Punjab (c) Assam (d) Gujarat

7. The Green Revolution in India was based mainly on

(a) The use of high-yielding variety seeds, fertilisers and irrigation (b) The use of only organic manure (c) Shifting cultivation (d) The growth of only one crop

8. Which crop is sown in winter and harvested in summer?

(a) Rice (b) Wheat (c) Jute (d) Tea

9. Rice needs

(a) Low temperature and low rainfall (b) High temperature and high rainfall (c) Cold climate and snowfall (d) Dry climate and frost

10. Slash and burn agriculture, practised in the north-eastern states, is also called

(a) Primitive subsistence farming (b) Commercial farming (c) Plantation farming (d) Intensive subsistence farming

Answer Key - Chapter 8

Q	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Ans	b	c	b	a	b	c	a	b	b	a

Chapter 8 - Solved Short Questions (1 to 3)

1. How is primitive subsistence farming different from commercial farming?

Answer: Primitive subsistence farming is a simple form of farming in which farmers grow crops mainly for their own family. It is often practised on small plots with simple tools and family labour. Shifting cultivation, also called slash and burn agriculture, is one form of it, in which a patch of forest is cleared, farmed for a few years and then left fallow. Commercial farming is different because it uses modern inputs, large areas and hired labour, and the produce is grown mainly for sale in the market.

2. Explain the difference between rabi and kharif crops with examples.

Answer: Rabi crops are sown in winter, from October to December, and harvested in summer, from April to June. Wheat, barley, peas, gram and mustard are important rabi crops. Kharif crops are sown with the monsoon in June and July and harvested in September and October. Rice, maize, jowar, bajra, cotton and jute are important kharif crops. Zaid is a short summer season in which watermelon, cucumber and vegetables are grown.

3. Describe the conditions needed for growing rice in India.

Answer: Rice is the most important food crop of India and the main food of people in the eastern and southern parts of the country. It is a kharif crop and needs high temperature, high humidity and plenty of water, so it grows well in areas of heavy rainfall or assured irrigation. It is grown mainly in West Bengal, Uttar Pradesh, Punjab, Tamil Nadu and Bihar. The crop is sown in June and July and harvested in September and October.

Chapter 8 - Solved Short Questions (4 to 5)

4. Describe the conditions needed for growing wheat in India.

Answer: Wheat is the second most important cereal crop of India and the main food crop of the north and north-western parts of the country. It is a rabi crop, sown in winter and harvested in summer, and it needs a cool growing season and bright sunshine at the time of ripening. It grows well on fertile alluvial and black soil with moderate rainfall or irrigation. Punjab, Haryana, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar and Madhya Pradesh are the main wheat-growing states.

5. What is the contribution of agriculture to food security and the Indian economy?

Answer: Food security means that all people have access to enough food at all times to meet their needs. Agriculture supports food security by producing foodgrains, pulses, vegetables and other foods for the country. The Green Revolution raised the production of wheat and rice and reduced dependence on imports. Agriculture also provides employment to a large part of the population and supplies raw materials to many industries, so it remains central to the Indian economy.

Chapter 8 - Solved Long Questions

1. Describe the three cropping seasons of India with examples of crops grown in each season.

Answer: India has three main cropping seasons. Rabi crops are sown in winter, from October to December, and harvested in summer, from April to June. Wheat, barley, peas, gram and mustard are important rabi crops, and they grow well in the cool season in the north and north-western parts of India. Kharif crops are sown with the start of the monsoon in June and July and harvested in September and October. Rice, maize, jowar, bajra, cotton, jute, groundnut and soybean are important kharif crops, and they need warm weather and plenty of water. Zaid is a short season between the rabi and kharif seasons, in the summer months. Watermelon, muskmelon, cucumber, vegetables and fodder crops are grown in this season. The choice of crop in each season depends on temperature, rainfall, soil and the availability of water. Irrigation, good seeds and modern methods have made it possible to grow more than one crop in a year on the same land.

2. What was the Green Revolution? Discuss its effects on Indian agriculture and food security.

Answer: The Green Revolution was a major change in Indian farming that began in the 1960s. It introduced high-yielding varieties of wheat and rice, along with chemical fertilisers, pesticides and assured irrigation, especially in Punjab, Haryana and western Uttar Pradesh. Foodgrain production rose sharply, and India became more self-sufficient in food. The Green Revolution also improved farm incomes and supported the growth of agro-based industries. At the same time, it had some negative effects. The use of chemical fertilisers and pesticides harmed soil and water, and the heavy use of groundwater lowered the water table. The benefits were not shared equally, as small farmers and dry regions gained less than large farmers in irrigated areas. Food security has improved because India now produces enough foodgrains, but it also depends on fair distribution, storage and access to food for all people. The Green Revolution shows that modern farming must be balanced with care for soil, water and small farmers.

Chapter 9 - Minerals and Energy Resources

Geography | Contemporary India – II

Notes

- Minerals are naturally occurring substances with a definite chemical composition, and they are found in rocks and ores.
- Ferrous minerals contain iron, such as iron ore and manganese, while non-ferrous minerals, such as copper and bauxite, do not contain iron.
- Non-metallic minerals include mica and limestone, and energy minerals include coal, petroleum and natural gas.
- Iron ore is found in the Odisha-Jharkhand belt, the Durg-Bastar-Chandrapur belt and the Bellary-Chitradurga belt in Karnataka.
- Bauxite is the ore of aluminium and is found in Odisha, the Amarkantak plateau and the Maikal hills.
- Mica is found in Jharkhand, Bihar and Rajasthan, and limestone is used mainly in the cement industry.
- Coal is found in Gondwana fields such as Jharia, Raniganj and Bokaro, and tertiary coal is found in Assam and Meghalaya.
- Petroleum is found in Mumbai High, Digboi in Assam, and Ankleshwar and Cambay in Gujarat.
- Natural gas is found with petroleum, and the Hazira-Vijaipur-Jagdishpur pipeline carries gas to fertiliser and power plants.
- Solar energy, wind energy, nuclear energy, biogas and tidal energy are non-conventional sources of energy in India.
- Wind energy is produced in Tamil Nadu, Gujarat and Maharashtra, and nuclear plants are located at Tarapur, Kalpakkam and Narora.
- Minerals and energy must be conserved through recycling, efficient use, the use of substitutes and planned mining, because they are limited.

Chapter 9 - MCQs (1 to 5)

1. Which of the following are ferrous minerals?

(a) Coal and petroleum (b) Iron ore and manganese (c) Copper and bauxite (d) Mica and limestone

2. The main iron ore belt of Odisha-Jharkhand is located in

(a) Odisha and Jharkhand (b) Rajasthan and Gujarat (c) Kerala and Tamil Nadu (d) Punjab and Haryana

3. Which mineral is the main ore of aluminium?

(a) Iron ore (b) Coal (c) Mica (d) Bauxite

4. Which of the following is a famous coal field in the Damodar valley?

(a) Jharia (b) Digboi (c) Mumbai High (d) Ankleshwar

5. Petroleum is found in large quantities in

(a) Rajasthan (b) Jharkhand (c) Mumbai High (d) Karnataka

Chapter 9 - MCQs (6 to 10)

6. The HVJ pipeline connects

(a) Hazira-Vijaipur-Jagdishpur (b) Delhi-Mumbai (c) Kolkata-Chennai (d) Mumbai-Pune

7. Which of the following is a non-conventional source of energy?

(a) Coal (b) Petroleum (c) Natural gas (d) Solar energy

8. Limestone is the main raw material for

(a) The cement industry (b) The iron and steel industry (c) The textile industry (d) The automobile industry

9. Which mineral is used in the electrical and electronic industries because it is an insulator?

(a) Copper (b) Iron ore (c) Mica (d) Bauxite

10. Conservation of minerals means

(a) Recycling and efficient use (b) Wasting minerals (c) Exporting all minerals (d) Mining without planning

Answer Key - Chapter 9

Q	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Ans	b	a	d	a	c	a	d	a	c	a

Chapter 9 - Solved Short Questions (1 to 3)

1. How are minerals classified? Give one example of each type.

Answer: Minerals are classified into three main types. Ferrous minerals contain iron, such as iron ore and manganese, and they are used mainly in the iron and steel industry. Non-ferrous minerals do not contain iron, such as copper, bauxite, lead and zinc, and they are used in many industries. Non-metallic minerals, such as mica, limestone and gypsum, do not give metals and are used in cement, fertiliser and other industries. Energy minerals, such as coal and petroleum, are a separate group because they give energy.

2. Describe the main iron ore belts of India.

Answer: Iron ore is the base of the iron and steel industry in India. The Odisha-Jharkhand belt, with Singhbhum in Jharkhand and Mayurbhanj and Keonjhar in Odisha, is the most important iron ore belt. The Durg-Bastar-Chandrapur belt in Chhattisgarh and Maharashtra includes the Bailadila range, which has very high-grade ore. The Bellary-Chitradurga belt in Karnataka supplies ore to the steel plants of the south.

3. Where is coal found in India? What is it used for?

Answer: Coal is formed from plant remains buried under the earth for millions of years, and it is the most important source of energy in India. Gondwana coal is found in the Damodar valley, in Jharia, Raniganj and Bokaro, and it is used in thermal power plants and in the iron and steel industry. Tertiary coal is younger and is found in the north-eastern states, such as Assam and Meghalaya. Coal is used for power generation, smelting iron and making cement.

Chapter 9 - Solved Short Questions (4 to 5)

4. Where is petroleum found in India? What are its main uses?

Answer: Petroleum is found in Mumbai High in the Arabian Sea, in Digboi in Assam, and in Ankleshwar and Cambay in Gujarat. Mumbai High is the largest offshore oil field in India, and Digboi is one of the oldest oil fields in the country. Petroleum is refined to give petrol, diesel, kerosene and other products, and it is used in transport, industry and homes. Natural gas is found with petroleum and is carried by pipelines such as the Hazira-Vijaipur-Jagdishpur pipeline.

5. Explain the importance of solar, wind and nuclear energy in India.

Answer: Solar energy is a clean and renewable source of energy that is available in plenty in India. It is used for lighting homes, heating water, cooking and pumping water in farms and villages. Wind energy is produced by wind mills in Tamil Nadu, Gujarat, Maharashtra and Karnataka. Nuclear energy is produced from uranium and thorium in plants at Tarapur, Kalpakkam and Narora. These sources cause less pollution than coal and petroleum and can be renewed, so they are important for the future.

Chapter 9 - Solved Long Questions

1. Describe the distribution of iron ore, bauxite, mica and limestone in India.

Answer: Iron ore is the most important ferrous mineral in India, and it is found in three main belts. The Odisha-Jharkhand belt includes the Singhbhum district of Jharkhand and the Mayurbhanj and Keonjhar districts of Odisha, where high-grade hematite is mined. The Durg-Bastar-Chandrapur belt lies in Chhattisgarh and Maharashtra, and the Bailadila range in Chhattisgarh is known for very high-grade ore. The Bellary-Chitradurga, Chikmagalur and Tumkur belt lies in Karnataka and supplies ore to steel plants in the south. Bauxite, the ore of aluminium, is found in the Amarkantak plateau, the Maikal hills and the plateau region of Odisha, and Odisha is the largest producer. Mica is found in Jharkhand, Bihar and Rajasthan, and it is used in the electrical and electronic industries. Limestone is found in Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan, Andhra Pradesh and other states, and it is the main raw material for the cement industry. These minerals are the base of Indian industry, and their mining supports jobs, trade and the growth of iron and steel plants.

2. Explain the main sources of energy in India and why conservation of minerals and energy is necessary.

Answer: India has several sources of energy, both conventional and non-conventional. Coal is the most important conventional source and is found mainly in the Gondwana fields of the Damodar valley, such as Jharia, Raniganj and Bokaro, while tertiary coal is found in Assam and Meghalaya. Petroleum is found in Mumbai High, Digboi in Assam, and Ankleshwar and Cambay in Gujarat. Natural gas is found with petroleum, and the Hazira-Vijaipur-Jagdishpur pipeline carries gas to fertiliser and power plants. Solar energy is available in plenty in India because of its sunny climate, and it is used in homes, farms and villages, especially in dry regions. Wind energy is produced in Tamil Nadu, Gujarat, Maharashtra and Karnataka, where wind mills generate power. Nuclear energy is produced from uranium and thorium, with plants at Tarapur, Kalpakkam, Narora and other places. These sources must be used wisely because coal and petroleum are limited and cause pollution. Solar, wind and other renewable sources are cleaner and can be renewed, so their use should grow. Conservation of minerals and energy through recycling, efficient use and the use of substitutes is necessary for future generations.

Chapter 10 - Manufacturing Industries

Geography | Contemporary India – II

Notes

- Manufacturing means changing raw materials into finished goods, and it adds value to raw materials and creates jobs.
- Manufacturing helps agriculture by providing machines, fertilisers and markets, and it reduces dependence on farming alone.
- Agro-based industries use farm products as raw material, such as cotton textiles, jute, sugar and vegetable oil.
- The cotton textile industry is the oldest industry in India and is centred in Mumbai, Ahmedabad, Surat, Coimbatore and Kanpur.
- The jute industry is located along the Hooghly river in West Bengal, near Kolkata, because jute is grown there and the river gives water and transport.
- The sugar industry is located in Uttar Pradesh, Bihar and Maharashtra, close to sugarcane fields.
- Mineral-based industries use minerals as raw material, and the iron and steel industry is the most important of them.
- Major steel plants are at Jamshedpur, Bokaro, Bhilai, Rourkela, Durgapur and Salem, and they are located near iron ore, coal and limestone.
- Aluminium, cement, chemical, fertiliser and automobile industries are other important mineral-based industries in India.
- The information technology and electronics industry has grown fast, with Bengaluru, Hyderabad, Pune, Mumbai and Chennai as major centres.
- Industrial pollution affects air, water, land and noise levels, and it harms the health of people and the environment.
- The National Thermal Power Corporation has taken steps such as optimum ash use, waste water recycling and ash pond management to reduce pollution.

Chapter 10 - MCQs (1 to 5)

1. Why is manufacturing called the backbone of development?

(a) It supplies raw material to other industries (b) It needs very little capital (c) It employs only a few people (d) It uses no raw material

2. The cotton textile industry in India first developed in

(a) Mumbai (b) Kolkata (c) Chennai (d) Delhi

3. The jute textile industry is mainly located in

(a) Maharashtra (b) West Bengal (c) Punjab (d) Tamil Nadu

4. Which city is famous as the Steel City of India?

(a) Mumbai (b) Ahmedabad (c) Chennai (d) Jamshedpur

5. Which steel plant is located in Jharkhand?

(a) Bhilai (b) Bokaro (c) Rourkela (d) Salem

Chapter 10 - MCQs (6 to 10)

6. Which industry is called a basic industry because it supplies raw material to other industries?

(a) Textile industry (b) Sugar industry (c) Iron and steel industry (d) Jute industry

7. The sugar industry is located close to the fields of

(a) Cotton (b) Sugarcane (c) Jute (d) Tea

8. Which city is the main centre of the information technology industry in India?

(a) Bengaluru (b) Kanpur (c) Jamshedpur (d) Bhilai

9. Which of the following is a step taken by the NTPC to protect the environment?

(a) It increases pollution (b) It increases noise (c) It wastes water (d) It reduces air and water pollution

10. Industrial pollution is mainly caused by

(a) Smoke, dust and waste water from factories (b) Planting trees (c) Using solar power (d) Recycling waste

Answer Key - Chapter 10

Q	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Ans	a	a	b	d	b	c	b	a	d	a

Chapter 10 - Solved Short Questions (1 to 3)

1. Why is manufacturing important for the development of a country?

Answer: Manufacturing is important because it changes raw materials into finished goods and adds value to them. It creates jobs for a large number of people and helps to reduce unemployment. It supports agriculture by providing machines, fertilisers and a market for farm products. Manufacturing also earns foreign exchange through exports and helps in the balanced development of the country.

2. What is the difference between agro-based and mineral-based industries? Give examples.

Answer: Agro-based industries use farm products as raw material. Cotton textiles, jute, sugar, vegetable oil and food processing are examples of such industries. Mineral-based industries use minerals as raw material. Iron and steel, aluminium, cement, chemical and fertiliser industries are examples of mineral-based industries. Agro-based industries are usually located near farms, while mineral-based industries are located near mines and sources of power.

3. Describe the cotton textile industry in India.

Answer: The cotton textile industry is the oldest and largest industry in India. It first developed in Mumbai and later spread to Ahmedabad, Surat, Coimbatore, Kanpur and Kolkata. It is located near cotton-growing areas, ports, power supply and a large market. The industry gives jobs to millions of people and earns foreign exchange through the export of cloth and garments.

Chapter 10 - Solved Short Questions (4 to 5)

4. Why is the iron and steel industry called a basic industry? Where are its main centres?

Answer: The iron and steel industry is a basic industry because it supplies steel to many other industries, such as engineering, construction, transport and defence. Its location depends on iron ore, coal, limestone, water, power, transport and markets. Jamshedpur, Bokaro, Bhilai, Rourkela and Durgapur are major steel centres in India, and they are all near raw material sources. The industry is important for building infrastructure and for the growth of other industries.

5. What are the effects of industrial pollution and how can it be controlled?

Answer: Industrial pollution affects air, water, land and noise levels. Smoke and dust from factories pollute the air, waste water pollutes rivers and groundwater, and solid waste pollutes the land. Noise from machines harms workers and nearby people. Pollution can be reduced by using filters, treating waste water, reusing solid waste, planting trees and using cleaner technology. The NTPC has taken steps such as ash utilisation and waste water recycling to reduce harm.

Chapter 10 - Solved Long Questions

1. Describe the location and importance of the cotton textile, jute and sugar industries in India.

Answer: Cotton textile is the oldest and largest agro-based industry in India. It began in Mumbai, where the first cotton mill was set up, and it spread to Ahmedabad, Surat, Coimbatore, Kanpur, Kolkata and other centres. The industry is close to cotton-growing areas in Maharashtra and Gujarat, and it also has ports, cheap labour, power and a large home market. Jute textile is centred on the Hooghly river in West Bengal, near Kolkata, because jute is grown in the region and the river provides water and transport. The sugar industry is located in Uttar Pradesh, Bihar and Maharashtra, close to sugarcane fields, because sugarcane is bulky and loses sugar if it is carried far. These agro-based industries give jobs to millions of people, support farmers by buying their produce and earn foreign exchange through exports. They also face challenges such as old machinery, competition from other countries and the need for modernisation. With better technology, power supply and markets, they can grow further and support rural development.

2. Explain the importance and location of the iron and steel industry in India and the problem of industrial pollution.

Answer: The iron and steel industry is called a basic industry because it supplies raw material to many other industries, such as engineering, construction, transport and defence. Its location depends on the availability of iron ore, coal, limestone, manganese, water and power, and on transport and markets. Jamshedpur in Jharkhand was the first large steel plant in India, and it is close to iron ore and coal fields. Bokaro in Jharkhand, Bhilai in Chhattisgarh, Rourkela in Odisha and Durgapur in West Bengal are other major steel plants, and they are all located near raw materials. The industry produces steel for rails, bridges, buildings, ships, cars and machines. Industrial pollution is a serious problem in this sector. Smoke and dust from furnaces pollute the air, waste water pollutes rivers, and solid waste pollutes the land. Noise pollution also affects workers and nearby people. To reduce pollution, plants use filters, treat waste water, reuse ash and solid waste, and plant trees around the factory. The National Thermal Power Corporation has also taken steps such as optimum use of ash, waste water recycling and ash pond management to reduce harm to the environment.

Chapter 11 - Lifelines of National Economy

Geography | Contemporary India – II

Notes

- Transport and communication are called the lifelines of the national economy because they connect people, places and markets.
- Road transport is the most important means of transport in India because it is cheap, flexible and connects villages with towns and cities.
- National Highways connect major cities and state capitals, State Highways connect state capitals with district headquarters, and district and rural roads connect villages.
- The Golden Quadrilateral connects Delhi, Mumbai, Chennai and Kolkata, and the North-South and East-West corridors connect the four corners of the country.
- Railways are the main means of transport for long distances and for heavy goods, and they run on broad, metre and narrow gauge lines.
- The Konkan Railway runs from Roha in Maharashtra to Mangalore in Karnataka and is a major engineering work.
- Pipelines carry crude oil, petroleum products, natural gas and water over long distances, and they are safe and cheap.
- National Waterway 1 is on the Ganga between Allahabad and Haldia, and National Waterway 2 is on the Brahmaputra between Sadiya and Dhubri.
- Airways are the fastest means of transport and are useful for distant and difficult areas, and Air India and other airlines provide domestic and international services.
- Communication includes postal services, telephone, mobile phones, the internet, radio, television and newspapers.
- International trade means the exchange of goods and services between countries, through exports and imports.
- Tourism is an important trade because it earns foreign exchange, creates jobs and promotes the culture and heritage of India.

Chapter 11 - MCQs (1 to 5)

1. The Golden Quadrilateral connects the four metropolitan cities of

(a) Delhi, Mumbai, Chennai and Kolkata (b) Delhi, Mumbai, Bengaluru and Hyderabad (c) Mumbai, Pune, Nagpur and Nashik (d) Kolkata, Patna, Lucknow and Delhi

2. The North-South Corridor connects

(a) Srinagar to Kanyakumari (b) Silchar to Porbandar (c) Delhi to Mumbai (d) Kolkata to Chennai

3. The Ganga between Allahabad and Haldia is which National Waterway?

(a) National Waterway 2 (b) National Waterway 1 (c) National Waterway 3 (d) National Waterway 4

4. Which gauge is the widest in Indian Railways?

(a) Broad gauge (b) Metre gauge (c) Narrow gauge (d) Standard gauge

5. The Konkan Railway runs from

(a) Delhi to Mumbai (b) Chennai to Bengaluru (c) Kolkata to Guwahati (d) Roha to Mangalore

Chapter 11 - MCQs (6 to 10)

6. Oil and natural gas are mainly carried over long distances by

(a) Air transport (b) Pipeline transport (c) Road transport (d) Water transport

7. A favourable balance of trade means that

(a) Exports are more than imports (b) Imports are more than exports (c) Exports are equal to imports (d) There is no trade

8. Tourism is important as a trade because

(a) It uses no fuel (b) It needs no transport (c) It earns foreign exchange and creates jobs (d) It exports only food

9. Which roads connect major cities and state capitals and are maintained by the central government?

(a) National Highways (b) State Highways (c) District roads (d) Village roads

10. Communication in India includes

(a) Postal, telecom and mass communication (b) Only postal service (c) Only newspapers (d) Only television

Answer Key - Chapter 11

Q	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Ans	b	a	b	c	d	b	a	c	a	a

Chapter 11 - Solved Short Questions (1 to 3)

1. Describe the different types of roads in India.

Answer: Roadways are important because they connect villages, towns and cities and carry goods and people to the doorstep. National Highways connect major cities and are maintained by the central government. State Highways connect state capitals with district headquarters. District roads and rural roads connect villages with towns and with each other. Road transport is cheap, flexible and useful for short distances.

2. What is the Golden Quadrilateral? What are the North-South and East-West corridors?

Answer: The Golden Quadrilateral is a network of highways that connects Delhi, Mumbai, Chennai and Kolkata. The North-South Corridor connects Srinagar in the north with Kanyakumari in the south. The East-West Corridor connects Silchar in the east with Porbandar in the west. These corridors have improved trade, travel and the movement of goods across the country and have helped in the development of towns along the routes.

3. Describe the railways in India.

Answer: Railways are the main means of transport in India for long distances and for heavy goods. Indian Railways runs on broad gauge, metre gauge and narrow gauge lines, and broad gauge is the widest. Railways connect almost all parts of the country and carry passengers and goods such as coal, foodgrains and steel. The Konkan Railway, from Roha to Mangalore, is a well-known railway line built through difficult terrain.

Chapter 11 - Solved Short Questions (4 to 5)

4. What are the main means of communication in India?

Answer: Communication means the exchange of information between people and places. In India, communication includes postal services, telephone, mobile phones, the internet, radio, television and newspapers. The postal service carries letters and parcels, while telephones and the internet allow instant contact. Mass communication through radio, television and newspapers spreads news, education and awareness to a large number of people.

5. What is international trade? How is tourism a trade?

Answer: International trade is the exchange of goods and services between countries. Exports are goods sold to other countries, and imports are goods bought from other countries. When exports are more than imports, the balance of trade is favourable, and when imports are more, it is unfavourable. Tourism is a trade because foreign tourists bring foreign exchange, create jobs in hotels, transport and handicrafts, and promote Indian culture and heritage.

Chapter 11 - Solved Long Questions

1. Describe the different means of transport in India and their importance.

Answer: Road transport is the most important means of transport in India because it connects villages, towns and cities and carries goods to the doorstep. National Highways connect major cities and state capitals and are maintained by the central government, while State Highways connect state capitals with district headquarters. District roads connect villages with towns, and rural roads connect villages with each other. The Golden Quadrilateral is a network of highways that connects Delhi, Mumbai, Chennai and Kolkata, and it has improved trade and travel between these cities. The North-South Corridor connects Srinagar in the north with Kanyakumari in the south, and the East-West Corridor connects Silchar in the east with Porbandar in the west. Railways are the main means of transport for long distances and for heavy goods, and they run on broad, metre and narrow gauge lines. The Konkan Railway, which runs from Roha in Maharashtra to Mangalore in Karnataka, is a major engineering work. Pipelines carry oil, gas and water over long distances, and waterways and airways connect distant places and support trade. Together, these means of transport form the lifelines of the national economy.

2. What is international trade? Explain the balance of trade and the importance of tourism as a trade.

Answer: International trade means the exchange of goods and services between countries, and it includes exports and imports. India exports agricultural products, textiles, gems and jewellery, engineering goods, chemicals, software and other products. It imports petroleum, machinery, fertilisers, gold and other goods that are not available in enough quantity in the country. When the value of exports is more than the value of imports, the balance of trade is favourable, and when imports are more than exports, it is unfavourable. Trade helps the country to earn foreign exchange, to get goods it does not produce and to create jobs. Tourism is also an important part of trade because foreign tourists bring foreign exchange and create jobs in hotels, transport, guides and handicrafts. India attracts tourists with its heritage, culture, natural beauty and historical places. Trade and tourism together support the economy and help India to connect with the rest of the world.

Chapter 12 - Power Sharing

Civics | Democratic Politics – II

Notes

- Power sharing means dividing power among different organs, levels and groups of society so that no single group controls everything.
- Belgium is a small country in Europe where the Dutch-speaking Flemish people live in the north and the French-speaking Walloons live in the south.
- In Belgium, the French-speaking minority is richer and more powerful, while the Dutch-speaking majority felt ignored in the past.
- Brussels, the capital of Belgium, has a special government in which both Dutch-speaking and French-speaking people have equal representation.
- Belgium also has a community government, elected by people of one language community, which handles cultural, educational and language matters.
- Sri Lanka is an island country where the Sinhala-speaking people form the majority and the Tamil-speaking people form a large minority.
- After independence, Sri Lanka followed majoritarianism, which means the majority community takes decisions without caring for the minority.

Chapter 12 - Power Sharing (continued)

Civics | Democratic Politics – II

Notes (continued)

- In 1956, Sinhala was made the only official language in Sri Lanka, and Sinhala speakers were given preference in government jobs and education.
- The Tamil people felt ignored and demanded equal rights, which led to a long conflict and finally a civil war in Sri Lanka.
- Power sharing is good because it reduces conflict between different social groups and helps people live together in peace.
- Power sharing upholds the spirit of democracy because all groups get a chance to take part in decision making.
- Power is shared horizontally among the legislature, the executive and the judiciary, so each organ checks the work of the others.
- Power is also shared vertically among the Union government, the State governments and local governments.
- Power can be shared among different social groups, and among political parties, pressure groups and movements.

Chapter 12 - MCQs (1 to 5)

1. Which community forms the majority in the Flemish region of Belgium?

(a) French-speaking Walloons (b) Dutch-speaking Flemish people (c) German-speaking people (d) Tamil-speaking people

2. What is the name of the government in Belgium that is elected by people of one language community?

(a) Community government (b) Union government (c) Municipal government (d) Federal government

3. In which year was Sinhala declared the only official language of Sri Lanka?

(a) 1948 (b) 1950 (c) 1960 (d) 1956

4. What is majoritarianism?

(a) Rule by the minority community (b) Rule by the judiciary alone (c) A belief that the majority community should rule a country in its own way (d) Sharing power equally among all groups

5. Which of the following is an example of horizontal sharing of power?

(a) Sharing of power among the legislature, the executive and the judiciary (b) Sharing of power between the Union and the States (c) Sharing of power between the Centre and the Panchayats (d) Sharing of power among political parties

Chapter 12 - MCQs (6 to 10)

6. Why is power sharing good for a democracy?

(a) It gives all power to one leader (b) It removes the need for elections (c) It makes the government faster by removing checks (d) It reduces the possibility of conflict between social groups

7. Which city is the capital of Belgium and has a special government with equal representation for both language groups?

(a) Antwerp (b) Brussels (c) Ghent (d) Liege

8. Which of the following is an example of vertical sharing of power?

(a) Power shared between the Prime Minister and the President (b) Power shared between the Lok Sabha and the Rajya Sabha (c) Power shared among the Union government, State governments and local governments (d) Power shared between the judiciary and the executive

9. Which community in Sri Lanka felt ignored by the majoritarian policies of the government?

(a) Sinhala-speaking people (b) Tamil-speaking people (c) Dutch-speaking people (d) French-speaking people

10. Which of these is NOT a form of power sharing mentioned in the chapter?

(a) Power sharing among different organs of government (b) Power sharing among different levels of government (c) Power sharing among political parties and pressure groups (d) Power sharing only among members of one family

Answer Key - Chapter 12

Q	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Ans	b	a	d	c	a	d	b	c	b	d

Chapter 12 - Solved Short Questions (1 to 3)

1. What is power sharing?

Answer: Power sharing means dividing power among different organs, levels and groups of society. In a democracy, power should not be held by one person or one group alone. It is shared among the legislature, the executive and the judiciary, and also between the Union, State and local governments. Power is also shared among different social groups, political parties and pressure groups. This system prevents the misuse of power and gives all groups a voice in decision making.

2. What is a community government in Belgium?

Answer: A community government is a government elected by the people of one language community in Belgium. There are three such governments, for the Dutch-speaking, French-speaking and German-speaking communities. This government has powers over cultural, educational and language-related matters. It was created so that each language community could protect its own culture and language. It is a good example of power sharing among social groups.

3. What is majoritarianism? How did it affect Sri Lanka?

Answer: Majoritarianism is the belief that the majority community should rule a country in whatever way it wants, without caring for the wishes of the minority. In Sri Lanka, the Sinhala majority followed this policy after independence. Sinhala was made the only official language, and Sinhala speakers were given preference in jobs and education. The Tamil minority felt ignored and discriminated against. This led to distrust, conflict and finally a civil war.

Chapter 12 - Solved Short Questions (4 to 5)

4. Why is power sharing desirable in a democracy?

Answer: Power sharing is desirable for two main reasons. First, it reduces the possibility of conflict between different social groups and helps people live together in peace. Second, it upholds the spirit of democracy because power is shared among different groups and organs, so all people get a chance to take part in government. It also prevents the concentration of power in one hand and protects the rights of minorities.

5. What is horizontal sharing of power? Give one example.

Answer: Horizontal sharing of power means sharing power among different organs of the government that are at the same level. These organs are the legislature, the executive and the judiciary. Each organ checks the work of the others, so no organ can misuse its power. For example, the judiciary can check whether the laws made by the legislature follow the Constitution. This system is also called a system of checks and balances.

Chapter 12 - Solved Long Questions

1. Compare the power sharing arrangements in Belgium and Sri Lanka. What lessons can we learn from them?

Answer: Belgium and Sri Lanka faced a similar problem of conflict between two language communities, but they chose very different solutions. In Belgium, the Dutch-speaking Flemish and the French-speaking Walloons both wanted respect for their language and culture. The Belgian leaders amended the Constitution between 1970 and 1993 and created a system in which power was shared equally. In Brussels, both language groups have equal representation. Belgium also set up a community government for each language group to handle cultural and educational matters. This model of accommodation brought peace and unity to the country. Sri Lanka, on the other hand, followed majoritarianism. The Sinhala majority made Sinhala the only official language in 1956 and gave Sinhala speakers preference in jobs and education. The Tamil minority felt ignored and demanded equal rights, but the government refused to share power. This led to distrust, protests and finally a long civil war that caused great suffering. The lesson is clear: power sharing and respect for all groups keep a country united, while majoritarianism creates conflict and divides a country.

2. Explain the different forms of power sharing in a modern democracy.

Answer: In a modern democracy, power is shared in four main ways. First, power is shared horizontally among the different organs of government, namely the legislature, the executive and the judiciary. Each organ checks the others, so no organ can misuse its power, and this is called a system of checks and balances. Second, power is shared vertically among governments at different levels, such as the Union government, the State governments and local governments. This is called federal division of power. Third, power is shared among different social groups, such as religious and linguistic groups. In Belgium, for example, the community government gives each language group control over cultural and educational matters, and in India seats are reserved for weaker sections. Fourth, power is shared among political parties, pressure groups and movements. In a democracy, different parties compete for power, and citizens can also influence decisions through pressure groups. All these forms of power sharing make democracy work better and protect the rights of all people.

Chapter 13 - Federalism

Civics | Democratic Politics – II

Notes

- Federalism is a system of government in which power is divided between a central authority and various constituent units of the country.
- In a federation, there are two or more levels of government, and each level has its own powers given by the Constitution, which is supreme and cannot be changed by one level alone.
- An independent judiciary settles disputes between different levels of government in a federation.
- India is a federal country with three levels of government: the Union, the States and the local governments.
- The Union List has subjects of national importance such as defence, foreign affairs and banking, on which only the Union government can make laws.
- The State List has subjects such as police, trade and agriculture, on which only the State governments can make laws.
- The Concurrent List has subjects such as education, forests and trade unions, on which both the Union and the States can make laws.
- Subjects that are not in any list, such as computer software, are called residuary subjects, and the Union government can make laws on them.

Chapter 13 - Federalism (continued)

Civics | Democratic Politics – II

Notes (continued)

- States in India were reorganised on the basis of language, which helped people who speak the same language to live in one State.
- India has no national language, and Hindi is an official language along with 22 other languages listed in the Eighth Schedule of the Constitution.
- Decentralisation means taking power away from the Central and State governments and giving it to local governments.
- The 73rd and 74th Amendments to the Constitution in 1992 gave constitutional status to Panchayati Raj institutions and municipalities.
- At the village level there is the Gram Sabha and the Gram Panchayat, at the block level the Panchayat Samiti, and at the district level the Zila Parishad.
- One-third of the seats in local bodies are reserved for women, and seats are also reserved for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes.

Chapter 13 - MCQs (1 to 5)

1. Which of the following is a key feature of federalism?

(a) Only one level of government (b) Two or more levels of government (c) No written Constitution (d) Judiciary controlled by the executive

2. Which subject is included in the Union List?

(a) Police (b) Agriculture (c) Defence (d) Trade within a State

3. On which list can both the Union and the State governments make laws?

(a) Union List (b) State List (c) Concurrent List (d) Residuary List

4. Who has the power to make laws on residuary subjects in India?

(a) State governments (b) Local governments (c) The Union government (d) The Gram Panchayat

5. In which year were the 73rd and 74th Amendments to the Constitution passed?

(a) 1950 (b) 1992 (c) 1980 (d) 2000

Chapter 13 - MCQs (6 to 10)

6. Which body works at the district level in the Panchayati Raj system?

(a) Gram Panchayat (b) Panchayat Samiti (c) Zila Parishad (d) Gram Sabha

7. What fraction of seats in local bodies is reserved for women?

(a) One-fourth (b) One-third (c) One-half (d) One-fifth

8. Which of the following is a subject in the State List?

(a) Foreign affairs (b) Banking (c) Police (d) Education

9. What is the Gram Sabha?

(a) A body of all adult voters of a village (b) A court at the district level (c) A committee of the State government (d) A municipal corporation

10. Which of these is an example of decentralisation in India?

(a) Giving more power to the Prime Minister (b) Giving powers to Panchayats and municipalities (c) Removing State governments (d) Making all laws only in Parliament

Answer Key - Chapter 13

Q	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Ans	b	c	c	c	b	c	b	c	a	b

Chapter 13 - Solved Short Questions (1 to 3)

1. What is federalism?

Answer: Federalism is a system of government in which power is divided between a central authority and various constituent units of the country. There are two or more levels of government, and each level has its own powers given by the Constitution. The Constitution is supreme, and the powers of each level are clearly written in it. An independent judiciary settles disputes between the levels of government. India, the USA and Belgium are examples of federal countries.

2. What are the Union List, State List and Concurrent List?

Answer: The Constitution of India divides subjects into three lists. The Union List has subjects of national importance such as defence, foreign affairs and banking, on which only the Union government can make laws. The State List has subjects such as police, trade and agriculture, on which only the State governments can make laws. The Concurrent List has subjects such as education, forests and trade unions, on which both the Union and the State governments can make laws. If there is a clash on a Concurrent List subject, the Union law prevails.

3. What is decentralisation? Why is it needed?

Answer: Decentralisation means taking power away from the Central and State governments and giving it to local governments such as Panchayats and municipalities. It is needed because local people know their local problems best and can solve them better. It also gives more people a chance to take part in decision making and makes democracy stronger at the grass-roots level. In India, the 73rd and 74th Amendments in 1992 gave constitutional status to local governments.

Chapter 13 - Solved Short Questions (4 to 5)

4. What is the Panchayati Raj system in India?

Answer: Panchayati Raj is the system of rural local government in India. At the village level there is the Gram Sabha, which is a body of all adult voters of the village, and the Gram Panchayat, which is elected by the Gram Sabha. At the block level there is the Panchayat Samiti, and at the district level there is the Zila Parishad. These bodies look after local matters such as water, roads, health and education. One-third of their seats are reserved for women.

5. How is language policy an example of federalism in India?

Answer: India has many languages, and the Constitution does not give the status of national language to any one language. Hindi is an official language, and 22 languages are listed in the Eighth Schedule of the Constitution. States are free to use their own official languages. This policy respects the diversity of languages in India and shows how federalism accommodates different groups. It has helped to keep the country united.

Chapter 13 - Solved Long Questions

1. Explain the key features of federalism. How is India a federal country?

Answer: Federalism is a system in which power is divided between a central authority and various constituent units. Its key features are: there are two or more levels of government; each level has its own jurisdiction given by the Constitution; the Constitution is supreme and cannot be changed by one level alone; sources of revenue for each level are clearly given; and an independent judiciary settles disputes between levels. India is a federal country because it has three levels of government: the Union, the States and local governments. The Constitution divides powers into the Union List, the State List and the Concurrent List, and residuary subjects go to the Union. The Constitution is supreme, and the Supreme Court can settle disputes between the Union and the States. States were also reorganised on the basis of language, and the 73rd and 74th Amendments gave constitutional status to local governments. All these features make India a true federation, even though the Union government is stronger in some matters.

2. Describe the steps taken towards decentralisation in India after 1992. What are its benefits and problems?

Answer: Decentralisation in India got a major push through the 73rd and 74th Amendments to the Constitution in 1992. These amendments gave constitutional status to Panchayati Raj institutions in rural areas and municipalities in urban areas. Regular elections to local bodies became compulsory, and one-third of seats were reserved for women, with seats also reserved for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. The Gram Sabha was made a body of all adult voters of a village, and local bodies were given powers over subjects such as health, education, water and roads. The benefits of decentralisation are clear: local people can take part in decisions that affect their daily lives, local problems are solved faster, and democracy reaches the grass roots. However, there are problems too. Many local bodies do not have enough funds or trained staff, and elections are sometimes not held regularly. In some places, the Gram Sabha does not meet often, and powerful people still dominate the Panchayats. Despite these problems, decentralisation has made Indian democracy deeper and more participatory.

Chapter 14 - Gender, Religion and Caste

Civics | Democratic Politics – II

Notes

- Gender division means the unequal roles given to men and women in society, and it is also seen in politics.
- Women in India have a lower literacy rate than men, and they are paid less than men for the same work in many places.
- Women's representation in the Lok Sabha has always been low, usually less than 15 per cent of the total seats.
- Religion and politics are linked when religious differences are used to gain political power, which is called communalism.
- Communalism means thinking that religion is the basis of the nation and that people of one religion must form a separate political community.
- India is a secular state, which means there is no official religion of the state and all religions are treated equally.
- The Indian Constitution gives every citizen the freedom to practise, profess and propagate any religion.
- Caste is a form of social division based on birth, and caste inequalities still exist in Indian society.
- Caste plays a role in politics when political parties choose candidates and appeal to voters on the basis of caste.
- Politics also plays a role in caste when caste groups organise themselves to demand more seats, jobs and benefits from the government.
- Caste and religion influence elections because voters sometimes vote for a candidate of their own caste or religion.
- In a democracy, caste, religion and gender should not decide who gets power, and all citizens should be treated equally.

Chapter 14 - MCQs (1 to 5)

1. Which of the following shows gender inequality in India?

(a) Women have a lower literacy rate than men (b) Women live longer than men (c) Women are more in number than men (d) Women vote in larger numbers than men

2. What is communalism?

(a) Treating all religions equally (b) Using religion to gain political power and treating one religion as superior (c) Keeping religion away from politics (d) Allowing every religion to build places of worship

3. Which of the following is a feature of a secular state?

(a) The state has one official religion (b) The state gives special favours to one religion (c) The state treats all religions equally and has no official religion (d) The state bans all religions

4. Women's representation in the Lok Sabha has usually been:

(a) More than 50 per cent (b) Around 40 per cent (c) Less than 15 per cent (d) Exactly 33 per cent

5. Which right does the Indian Constitution give to every citizen regarding religion?

(a) The right to follow only one religion (b) The freedom to practise, profess and propagate any religion (c) The right to force others to follow one religion (d) No right related to religion

Chapter 14 - MCQs (6 to 10)

6. What does 'politics in caste' mean?

(a) Caste groups organising to demand benefits and power from the government (b) Political parties ignoring caste completely (c) Banning caste from elections (d) Giving jobs only to one caste

7. Which of the following is an example of caste in politics?

(a) Parties choosing candidates on the basis of the caste of voters in a constituency (b) Parties giving tickets only on merit (c) Voters ignoring caste while voting (d) Government banning caste-based organisations

8. Which of these is a correct statement about India as a secular state?

(a) India has Hinduism as its official religion (b) The government can discriminate on the basis of religion (c) The government cannot give special favours to any one religion (d) Religious communities cannot run their own schools

9. What is one reason women are under-represented in politics?

(a) Women are not allowed to vote (b) Social attitudes and the burden of household work limit women's public role (c) The Constitution bans women from elections (d) Women do not want to study

10. Which of the following is the BEST way to reduce the negative influence of caste and religion in politics?

(a) Voting only for candidates of one's own caste (b) Banning all political parties (c) Treating all citizens equally and judging candidates by their work and policies (d) Giving power only to one religious group

Answer Key - Chapter 14

Q	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Ans	a	b	c	c	b	a	a	c	b	c

Chapter 14 - Solved Short Questions (1 to 3)

1. What is gender division? Give two examples from India.

Answer: Gender division means the unequal roles and status given to men and women in society. In India, women have a lower literacy rate than men, and fewer girls go for higher education. Women are also paid less than men for the same work in many places, and they do most of the unpaid household work. In politics, very few women are elected to the Lok Sabha and State Assemblies. This shows that gender division still affects Indian society and politics.

2. What is communalism? Why is it dangerous for a democracy?

Answer: Communalism is the idea that religion is the basis of the nation and that people of one religion form a separate political community. It treats one religion as superior and others as inferior. It is dangerous for democracy because it divides people on the basis of religion and creates hatred and violence. It also makes politicians use religion to win votes instead of working for development. Communalism goes against the secular values of the Indian Constitution.

3. How is India a secular state?

Answer: India is a secular state because there is no official religion of the state. The Constitution gives every citizen the freedom to practise, profess and propagate any religion of their choice. The government treats all religions equally and cannot discriminate against any citizen on the basis of religion. Religious communities are free to run their own educational institutions. These provisions make India a secular country.

Chapter 14 - Solved Short Questions (4 to 5)

4. What is the difference between caste in politics and politics in caste?

Answer: Caste in politics means that caste influences politics. Political parties choose candidates and appeal to voters on the basis of caste, and voters sometimes vote for a candidate of their own caste. Politics in caste means that politics influences caste. Caste groups organise themselves, demand more seats and benefits from the government, and try to gain political power. Both show that caste and politics are closely linked in India.

5. How do caste and religion influence elections in India?

Answer: Caste and religion influence elections in many ways. Political parties often choose candidates keeping in mind the caste or religion of the majority of voters in a constituency. Parties also appeal to voters on the basis of caste and religious sentiments. Some voters vote for a candidate of their own caste or religion rather than judging the candidate by merit. This can divide voters and weaken democracy, so voters should judge candidates by their work and policies.

Chapter 14 - Solved Long Questions

1. Discuss the role of women in Indian politics. What steps can increase their participation?

Answer: Women form about half of India's population, but their role in politics is still very limited. Women's representation in the Lok Sabha has usually been less than 15 per cent, and it is also low in State Assemblies. This is partly because of social attitudes that see politics as a man's job, and partly because women carry the main burden of household work and child care. Women also have lower literacy rates and less access to money and resources, which makes it harder for them to contest elections. However, the situation is changing. One-third of seats in Panchayats and municipalities are reserved for women, and many women sarpanches and councillors are doing good work. To increase women's participation, more seats should be reserved for women in the Lok Sabha and State Assemblies, and political parties should give more tickets to women. Girls' education should be promoted, and society should support women who want to enter public life. When more women take part in politics, democracy becomes fairer and decisions reflect the needs of all citizens.

2. Explain how religion and caste influence Indian politics, and how their negative effects can be controlled.

Answer: Religion and caste have a strong influence on Indian politics. Religion influences politics through communalism, when politicians use religious feelings to win votes and treat one religion as superior to others. This can lead to tension and violence between religious communities. Caste influences politics when parties choose candidates on the basis of caste, when voters vote for candidates of their own caste, and when caste groups bargain for seats and benefits. At the same time, politics also influences caste, as caste groups organise themselves to demand a share in power. The negative effects of these divisions can be controlled in several ways. First, the Constitution declares India a secular state and bans discrimination on the basis of religion or caste. Second, voters should judge candidates by their work, honesty and policies, not by their caste or religion. Third, political parties should avoid using caste and religious appeals in their campaigns. Fourth, education and awareness can help people see that caste and religion should not decide who governs. When these steps are followed, democracy becomes stronger and more inclusive.

Chapter 15 - Political Parties

Civics | Democratic Politics – II

Notes

- A political party is a group of people who come together to contest elections and hold power in the government.
- Political parties are needed because they give people a choice, form the government, and keep a check on the ruling party.
- Parties put forward policies and programmes, contest elections, and form and run the government if they win.
- Parties in the opposition criticise the government and offer an alternative to the people.
- Parties also shape public opinion and give people access to government machinery and welfare schemes.
- A national party is a party that is recognised in several states, while a state party is recognised in only one or a few states.
- The Indian National Congress (INC) was founded in 1885 and its election symbol is the hand.
- The Bharatiya Janata Party (BJP) was founded in 1980 and its election symbol is the lotus.
- The Bahujan Samaj Party (BSP) was founded in 1984 and its election symbol is the elephant.
- The Communist Party of India - Marxist (CPI-M) was founded in 1964, and the Communist Party of India (CPI) was founded in 1925.
- The Nationalist Congress Party (NCP) was founded in 1999 and its election symbol is the clock.
- State parties include the Aam Aadmi Party (AAP), Shiv Sena, DMK, AIADMK and Trinamool Congress.
- Challenges to political parties include lack of internal democracy, dynastic succession, money and muscle power, and lack of meaningful choice for voters.
- Reforms suggested for parties include internal elections, state funding of elections, and giving voters more information about candidates.

Chapter 15 - MCQs (1 to 5)

1. What is a political party?

(a) A group that contests elections and tries to hold power in the government (b) A government department (c) A social club for festivals (d) A court of law

2. In which year was the Indian National Congress founded?

(a) 1980 (b) 1885 (c) 1925 (d) 1964

3. What is the election symbol of the Bharatiya Janata Party?

(a) Hand (b) Elephant (c) Lotus (d) Clock

4. Which party was founded in 1984 and has the elephant as its symbol?

(a) Bahujan Samaj Party (b) Indian National Congress (c) Communist Party of India (d) Nationalist Congress Party

5. Which of the following is a state party?

(a) Bharatiya Janata Party (b) Indian National Congress (c) Dravida Munnetra Kazhagam (DMK) (d) Communist Party of India - Marxist

Chapter 15 - MCQs (6 to 10)

6. In which year was the Communist Party of India - Marxist founded?

(a) 1925 (b) 1964 (c) 1980 (d) 1999

7. What is the election symbol of the Nationalist Congress Party?

(a) Lotus (b) Hand (c) Elephant (d) Clock

8. Which of the following is a challenge faced by political parties in India?

(a) Too many internal elections (b) Dynastic succession (c) Too little money in elections (d) Too much choice for voters

9. What is the main function of the opposition party?

(a) To support every decision of the government (b) To criticise the government and offer an alternative (c) To stop all elections (d) To make laws without Parliament

10. Which party was founded in 1925?

(a) Communist Party of India (b) Bharatiya Janata Party (c) Bahujan Samaj Party (d) Aam Aadmi Party

Answer Key - Chapter 15

Q	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Ans	a	b	c	a	c	b	d	b	b	a

Chapter 15 - Solved Short Questions (1 to 3)

1. Why are political parties needed in a democracy?

Answer: Political parties are needed because they give voters a choice between different policies and leaders. They contest elections, form the government, and make laws and policies. Parties in the opposition keep a check on the ruling party and offer an alternative. Parties also shape public opinion and help people reach the government. Without parties, it would be very difficult for ordinary people to take part in politics and for the government to work in an organised way.

2. What are the main functions of a political party?

Answer: The main functions of a political party are to contest elections and put up candidates, to form and run the government if it wins, and to act as the opposition if it loses. Parties also put forward policies and programmes before the people, shape public opinion, and help people get access to government services. They train leaders and give political education to citizens. In short, parties link the people with the government.

3. What is the difference between a national party and a state party?

Answer: A national party is a party that has a presence in several states and is recognised as a national party by the Election Commission. Examples are the Indian National Congress, the Bharatiya Janata Party and the Bahujan Samaj Party. A state party is a party that is recognised in only one state or a few states. Examples are the DMK in Tamil Nadu, the Shiv Sena in Maharashtra and the Trinamool Congress in West Bengal. State parties focus mainly on the interests of their own state.

Chapter 15 - Solved Short Questions (4 to 5)

4. What is dynastic succession? Why is it a problem for political parties?

Answer: Dynastic succession means that the top leadership of a party is passed on within one family, from one generation to the next. It is a problem because ordinary workers of the party do not get a fair chance to rise to the top, even if they are able and experienced. Decisions are taken by a small family group instead of by the members of the party. This weakens internal democracy and reduces the quality of leadership in the party.

5. Suggest two reforms to improve the working of political parties in India.

Answer: Two reforms can improve political parties in India. First, parties should hold regular internal elections so that leaders are chosen by the members and not by a small group or a family. Second, there should be state funding of elections, so that parties do not depend on rich people and companies for money. Voters should also be given full information about the criminal record and wealth of candidates, so they can make an informed choice. These reforms would make parties more democratic and honest.

Chapter 15 - Solved Long Questions

1. Describe the major national parties of India, with their year of foundation and election symbol.

Answer: India has several national parties, each with its own history and symbol. The Indian National Congress (INC) is the oldest party, founded in 1885, and its election symbol is the hand. It played a leading role in the freedom struggle and has ruled the country for many years. The Bharatiya Janata Party (BJP) was founded in 1980 and its symbol is the lotus. It believes in cultural nationalism and has become a major ruling party in recent years. The Bahujan Samaj Party (BSP) was founded in 1984 and its symbol is the elephant. It works for the interests of the Bahujan Samaj, which includes Dalits, backward classes and minorities. The Communist Party of India - Marxist (CPI-M) was founded in 1964, and the Communist Party of India (CPI) was founded in 1925. Both believe in socialism and support the interests of workers and farmers. The Nationalist Congress Party (NCP) was founded in 1999 and its symbol is the clock. Along with these, there are many state parties such as the DMK, AIADMK, Shiv Sena, Trinamool Congress and Aam Aadmi Party, which play an important role in their states.

2. What are the major challenges faced by political parties in India? Suggest reforms to meet these challenges.

Answer: Political parties in India face four major challenges. The first is lack of internal democracy. Most parties do not hold regular internal elections, and a small group of leaders takes all the decisions. The second is dynastic succession, in which leadership passes within one family and ordinary workers do not get a chance to rise. The third is the growing role of money and muscle power in elections, because parties need huge funds and sometimes give tickets to rich or criminal candidates. The fourth is the lack of a meaningful choice for voters, because most parties have similar policies and there is little real difference between them. Several reforms can meet these challenges. Parties should be required to hold internal elections and file their income and spending details. The government can consider state funding of elections to reduce the role of big money. Voters should get full information about candidates, including their criminal record and wealth. The anti-defection law should also be used properly so that elected members do not change parties for personal gain. If these reforms are followed, parties will become more democratic, honest and useful to the people.

Chapter 16 - Outcomes of Democracy

Civics | Democratic Politics – II

Notes

- Democracy is expected to produce a government that is accountable, responsive and legitimate.
- An accountable government is answerable to the people for its decisions and actions.
- A responsive government listens to the needs and expectations of the people.
- A legitimate government is one that rules with the consent of the people through free and fair elections.
- Democracy is better than other forms of government because it allows people to choose their rulers and change them if they fail.
- Democracy does not guarantee economic development, and some non-democratic countries have grown faster in economic terms.
- However, democracy has a better record in reducing economic inequality than dictatorships in the long run.
- Democracy helps to accommodate social diversity because it gives different groups a chance to take part in politics.
- In a democracy, different groups can express their views openly and resolve their differences through talks and elections.
- Democracy promotes the dignity and freedom of citizens because it gives them rights such as freedom of speech and equality before law.
- In a democracy, the dignity of women and weaker sections is better protected than in a non-democratic system.
- Despite its shortcomings, democracy is the best form of government because it gives people freedom, dignity and a chance to correct mistakes.

Chapter 16 - MCQs (1 to 5)

1. Which of the following is expected from a democratic government?

(a) It should be accountable, responsive and legitimate (b) It should never hold elections (c) It should rule without the consent of the people (d) It should ban all criticism

2. What does an accountable government mean?

(a) A government that never explains its decisions (b) A government that is answerable to the people for its actions (c) A government that rules by force (d) A government that has no opposition

3. What is a legitimate government?

(a) A government that comes to power through free and fair elections with the consent of the people (b) A government that seizes power by force (c) A government that rules for life (d) A government that bans elections

4. Which of the following is TRUE about democracy and economic growth?

(a) Democracy always guarantees the fastest economic growth (b) Some non-democratic countries have grown faster in economic terms (c) Democracy has no effect on the economy (d) Only democracies can develop economically

5. How does democracy help in accommodating social diversity?

(a) By banning all social groups (b) By giving different groups a chance to take part in politics and express their views (c) By giving power to only one group (d) By ignoring the demands of minorities

Chapter 16 - MCQs (6 to 10)

6. Which right shows that democracy promotes the dignity and freedom of citizens?

(a) Freedom of speech and equality before law (b) Right to rule without elections (c) Right to ban other religions (d) Right to ignore the Constitution

7. Why is democracy considered better than dictatorship?

(a) It always makes quick decisions (b) It allows people to choose and change their rulers and correct mistakes (c) It has no corruption (d) It never faces any problems

8. What does a responsive government do?

(a) It ignores the needs of the people (b) It listens to the needs and expectations of the people (c) It rules without consulting anyone (d) It bans public meetings

9. Which of the following is a shortcoming of democracy?

(a) It gives people the right to vote (b) It can be slow in decision making because many people are consulted (c) It protects freedom of speech (d) It holds regular elections

10. Which statement BEST sums up the outcomes of democracy?

(a) Democracy is perfect and has no problems (b) Democracy is the best form of government despite its shortcomings, because it protects freedom and dignity (c) Democracy is worse than dictatorship (d) Democracy only helps the rich

Answer Key - Chapter 16

Q	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Ans	a	b	a	b	b	a	b	b	b	b

Chapter 16 - Solved Short Questions (1 to 3)

1. What are the three qualities expected from a democratic government?

Answer: A democratic government is expected to be accountable, responsive and legitimate. Accountable means it is answerable to the people for its decisions. Responsive means it listens to the needs and expectations of the people and tries to meet them. Legitimate means it rules with the consent of the people through free and fair elections. These three qualities make democracy better than other forms of government.

2. How does democracy accommodate social diversity?

Answer: Democracy accommodates social diversity by giving different social groups a chance to take part in politics. In a democracy, people of different religions, languages and castes can form parties, contest elections and express their views openly. Their differences can be resolved through talks, negotiations and elections instead of violence. This helps different groups live together in peace and feel that they are a part of the country.

3. Does democracy guarantee economic development? Explain.

Answer: No, democracy does not guarantee economic development. Some non-democratic countries, such as China, have grown faster in economic terms than many democracies. Economic growth depends on many factors such as natural resources, population, policies and world conditions, not only on the form of government. However, democracy has a better record in reducing inequality and in making sure that development benefits all sections of society in the long run.

Chapter 16 - Solved Short Questions (4 to 5)

4. How does democracy promote the dignity and freedom of citizens?

Answer: Democracy promotes the dignity and freedom of citizens by giving them fundamental rights. Citizens have freedom of speech, freedom to form associations, and equality before the law. They can criticise the government and vote it out if it fails. In a democracy, the dignity of women and weaker sections is better protected because they can raise their voice and demand their rights. This respect for dignity is not found in non-democratic systems.

5. Why is democracy called the best form of government despite its shortcomings?

Answer: Democracy is called the best form of government because it gives people the right to choose their rulers and to change them if they do not work well. It protects the freedom and dignity of citizens and allows open discussion of public issues. It also accommodates social diversity and gives all groups a voice. Democracy has shortcomings, such as slow decision making and corruption, but it provides a way to correct its own mistakes, which no other system offers.

Chapter 16 - Solved Long Questions

1. How can we assess the outcomes of democracy? Explain with reference to accountable, responsive and legitimate government.

Answer: The outcomes of democracy can be assessed by checking whether it produces a government that is accountable, responsive and legitimate. An accountable government is one that is answerable to the people for its decisions and actions. In a democracy, the government has to explain its policies in Parliament, answer questions from the opposition and the media, and face elections after a fixed period. A responsive government listens to the needs and expectations of the people and tries to meet them through its policies and programmes. For example, if people demand better schools and hospitals, a responsive government will try to provide them. A legitimate government is one that rules with the consent of the people, because it has been chosen through free and fair elections. People accept the decisions of such a government even when they disagree with them. Democracy is also judged by whether it reduces inequality and poverty, accommodates social diversity, and protects the dignity and freedom of citizens. If a democracy meets these tests, it can be called successful, even if it is slow in taking decisions.

2. Discuss the outcomes of democracy in terms of economic growth, reduction of inequality, and dignity of citizens.

Answer: Democracy has mixed outcomes in economic terms. It does not guarantee fast economic growth, and some dictatorships have grown faster than democracies. For example, China has achieved very high growth without democracy. However, democracy has a better record in the long run because it allows open debate, free media and people's participation, which help in making better economic policies. In the matter of inequality and poverty, democracy is expected to reduce the gap between the rich and the poor, but in practice many democracies, including India, still have high inequality. Yet democracy gives the poor a voice and a vote, so governments cannot ignore them completely. The strongest outcome of democracy is in the field of dignity and freedom. Democracy gives citizens fundamental rights, freedom of speech, and equality before the law. It protects the dignity of women and weaker sections and allows them to fight for their rights. No other form of government gives ordinary people this much freedom and respect. Therefore, despite its economic shortcomings, democracy remains the best form of government.

Chapter 17 - Development

Economics | Understanding Economic Development

Notes

- Development means different things to different people, because people have different goals in life.
- For some people, development means more income, while for others it means freedom, security, respect and a good quality of life.
- Income is important, but people also want non-material things such as equal treatment, health, education and a safe environment.
- Two people can have the same income and still want different things, so development cannot be judged by income alone.
- National development means thinking about what is fair and useful for the country as a whole, not only for one group.
- Per capita income is the total income of a country divided by its total population, and it is used to compare average incomes.
- Countries are often compared by per capita income, but this average can hide wide differences between rich and poor people.

Chapter 17 - Development (continued)

Economics | Understanding Economic Development

Notes (continued)

- The Human Development Index (HDI) compares countries on health, education and per capita income, not on income alone.
- In HDI, health is measured by life expectancy at birth and education by years of schooling and expected years of schooling.
- Kerala has a low per capita income compared to some states, but it has high literacy and better health because of good public facilities.
- Public facilities such as schools, hospitals, clean drinking water, electricity and public transport are needed for a good life.
- Sustainable development means meeting the needs of the present without harming the ability of future generations to meet their needs.
- Development must protect the environment, because overuse of resources such as groundwater and forests harms future development.
- The Public Distribution System (PDS) supplies foodgrains at low prices to poor families through ration shops.

Chapter 17 - MCQs (1 to 5)

1. What is per capita income?

(a) The income of the richest person in a country (b) The total income of a country divided by its total population (c) The total income earned by the government (d) The income of an average family in a city

2. Which of the following is a non-material goal of development?

(a) A regular income (b) A bigger house (c) A new car (d) Freedom and respect

3. The Human Development Index (HDI) is based on which three areas?

(a) Health, education and per capita income (b) Income, roads and factories (c) Population, area and rainfall (d) Exports, imports and taxes

4. Which state has high literacy and good health indicators despite a comparatively low per capita income?

(a) Haryana (b) Punjab (c) Kerala (d) Bihar

5. What does sustainable development mean?

(a) Using resources as fast as possible for quick growth (b) Stopping all use of natural resources (c) Developing only cities and towns (d) Meeting present needs without harming the needs of future generations

Chapter 17 - MCQs (6 to 10)

6. Which of the following is a public facility?

(a) A private shopping mall (b) A government school (c) A private car (d) A company office

7. Why is per capita income alone not enough to compare development?

(a) It is difficult to calculate (b) It changes every day (c) It is an average and hides differences between rich and poor (d) It is used only for small countries

8. What does the Public Distribution System (PDS) provide?

(a) Foodgrains at low prices through ration shops (b) Free mobile phones to all citizens (c) Loans to big companies (d) Free land to farmers

9. In HDI, health is mainly measured by:

(a) Number of hospitals in a country (b) Number of doctors in a city (c) Money spent on medicines (d) Life expectancy at birth

10. National development means development that:

(a) Benefits only rich people (b) Is fair and useful for the country as a whole (c) Increases only exports (d) Builds only factories

Answer Key - Chapter 17

Q	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Ans	b	d	a	c	d	b	c	a	d	b

Chapter 17 - Solved Short Questions (1 to 3)

1. Why do different people have different goals of development?

Answer: Different people have different goals because their lives, needs and situations are different. A farmer may want better irrigation and a fair price for crops, while a student may want good education and a job. A factory worker may want regular work and safe working conditions. A girl from a poor family may want freedom to study and equal treatment. Since goals differ from person to person, development cannot mean the same thing for everyone.

2. What is per capita income? Why is it used to compare countries?

Answer: Per capita income is the total income of a country divided by its total population. It gives an idea of the average income of a person in that country. Countries use it to compare average incomes because total income alone is misleading, as a large country may have a large total income but a low average income. However, per capita income is only an average, so it does not show how income is shared between rich and poor people.

3. How is the Human Development Index (HDI) different from per capita income?

Answer: Per capita income compares countries only on the basis of average income. HDI compares countries on three areas: health, education and per capita income. Health is measured by life expectancy at birth, and education by years of schooling. HDI therefore gives a wider picture of development, because a country can have a high income but poor health and education. This is why HDI is a better measure of overall human development.

Chapter 17 - Solved Short Questions (4 to 5)

4. Why are public facilities important for development?

Answer: Public facilities such as schools, hospitals, clean water, sanitation, electricity and transport are important because income alone cannot buy all of them. A family may have money but still suffer if there is no good school or hospital nearby. Public facilities help everyone, especially poor people who cannot afford private services. They improve health, education and quality of life, and they make development more equal.

5. What is sustainable development? Give one example.

Answer: Sustainable development means meeting the needs of the present without harming the ability of future generations to meet their needs. It means using resources carefully so that they last for the future. For example, groundwater should not be overused for farming, because if it runs out, future farmers will have no water. In the same way, forests should be protected, because cutting them down harms rainfall, soil and wildlife for future generations.

Chapter 17 - Solved Long Questions

1. Explain why income alone is not enough to judge development. Use examples of other goals people have.

Answer: Income is an important goal of development, because people need money to buy food, clothes, housing and other things. However, income alone is not enough to judge development, because people also want many non-material things. For example, people want freedom, security, respect, equal treatment and a clean environment. A person may have a good income but still feel unsafe, or may face discrimination because of caste or gender. People also want good health and education, which money alone cannot guarantee if there are no good schools and hospitals nearby. Two people with the same income may have very different lives if one lives in a place with clean water, good roads and public transport and the other does not. Kerala is a good example: it has a lower per capita income than some states, but its people have better literacy and health because of good public facilities. This shows that development must include health, education, equality and quality of life, not only income.

2. How do countries compare development? Explain per capita income and the Human Development Index (HDI).

Answer: Countries are often compared by per capita income, which is the total income of a country divided by its total population. It shows the average income of a person and helps us compare rich and poor countries. However, per capita income has limits: it is only an average, so it hides the gap between rich and poor people inside a country. It also says nothing about health and education. To get a fuller picture, the Human Development Index (HDI) is used. HDI is prepared by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and compares countries on three things: health, education and per capita income. Health is measured by life expectancy at birth, and education by years of schooling. A country ranks high in HDI only if its people live long, healthy lives and are well educated, along with a decent income. This is why some countries with a moderate income can rank higher than richer countries with poor health and education. HDI therefore shows that development is about people, not only about money.

Chapter 18 - Sectors of the Indian Economy

Economics | Understanding Economic Development

Notes

- The primary sector includes activities that use natural resources directly, such as farming, fishing, forestry and mining.
- The secondary sector turns natural products into other goods through manufacturing, such as making cloth from cotton or steel from iron ore.
- The tertiary sector provides services, such as transport, banking, teaching, health care, trade and communication.
- Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is the total value of all final goods and services produced within a country in a year.
- In India, the tertiary sector now contributes the largest share to GDP, while the primary sector employs the largest share of workers.
- Disguised unemployment means more people are working in a job than are actually needed, so some workers add little or nothing to output.
- Underemployment means people are working less than their capacity, for example in seasonal work or in jobs below their skill level.

Chapter 18 - Sectors of the Indian Economy (continued)

Economics | Understanding Economic Development

Notes (continued)

- The organised sector has regular jobs, fixed working hours, job security and benefits such as paid leave and pension.
- The unorganised sector has small, scattered units with no job security, low wages, long hours and almost no benefits.
- The public sector is owned and run by the government, such as railways and post offices, while the private sector is owned by individuals or companies.
- The government runs the public sector to provide essential services and to support development, not only to earn profit.
- MGNREGA 2005 guarantees 100 days of wage employment in a year to every rural household that asks for work.
- MGNREGA also helps build useful assets such as roads, wells and ponds, and gives preference to work that helps the poor.

Chapter 18 - MCQs (1 to 5)

1. Which activity belongs to the primary sector?

(a) Making cars in a factory (b) Teaching in a school (c) Growing wheat on a farm (d) Working in a bank

2. Which sector provides services?

(a) Tertiary sector (b) Primary sector (c) Secondary sector (d) Manufacturing sector

3. What is GDP?

(a) The total population of a country (b) The total value of all final goods and services produced in a country in a year (c) The total exports of a country (d) The total money in banks

4. Which sector employs the largest number of workers in India?

(a) Tertiary sector (b) Secondary sector (c) Information technology sector (d) Primary sector

5. What is disguised unemployment?

(a) When more people are working than are actually needed for the work (b) When a person has no job at all (c) When a person works in a foreign country (d) When a person retires early

Chapter 18 - MCQs (6 to 10)

6. Which of the following is a feature of the organised sector?

(a) No job security (b) Irregular wages (c) Paid leave and fixed working hours (d) No written rules

7. The Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA) was passed in which year?

(a) 1991 (b) 2005 (c) 2000 (d) 2010

8. Under MGNREGA, how many days of guaranteed wage employment are provided in a year?

(a) 50 days (b) 75 days (c) 150 days (d) 100 days

9. Which of the following is in the public sector?

(a) Indian Railways (b) A private shop (c) A private school (d) A small farm

10. Which sector contributes the largest share to India's GDP today?

(a) Primary sector (b) Secondary sector (c) Tertiary sector (d) Mining sector

Answer Key - Chapter 18

Q	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Ans	c	a	b	d	a	c	b	d	a	c

Chapter 18 - Solved Short Questions (1 to 3)

1. What are the three sectors of the economy? Give one example of each.

Answer: The three sectors are primary, secondary and tertiary. The primary sector uses natural resources directly, for example farming. The secondary sector changes natural products into other goods, for example making cloth in a textile factory. The tertiary sector provides services, for example teaching, banking, transport and health care. All three sectors depend on each other and together make up the economy.

2. What is disguised unemployment? Give an example.

Answer: Disguised unemployment means more people are working in a job than are actually needed to do the work. If some of these workers are removed, total output does not fall, because their work adds little or nothing. For example, if five members of a family work on a small farm that needs only three workers, two workers are disguisedly unemployed. This is common in agriculture in India, where many people depend on farming.

3. How is the organised sector different from the unorganised sector?

Answer: The organised sector has registered enterprises with regular jobs, fixed working hours and rules laid down by the government. Workers get job security and benefits such as paid leave, provident fund and medical facilities. The unorganised sector has small, scattered units that are not registered and do not follow government rules. Workers there have low wages, long hours, no job security and almost no benefits.

Chapter 18 - Solved Short Questions (4 to 5)

4. What is MGNREGA 2005?

Answer: MGNREGA is the Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act, passed in 2005. It gives every rural household the right to 100 days of guaranteed wage employment in a year if they ask for work. The work is mainly for building useful assets such as roads, wells, ponds and check dams. The Act helps reduce unemployment in villages and gives poor families a regular income.

5. Why does the government run the public sector?

Answer: The government runs the public sector to provide essential services that private companies may not provide, or may provide only at high prices. For example, railways, post offices, water supply and public hospitals serve everyone. The public sector also helps in the development of backward areas and supports poor people. Its main aim is public welfare and development, not only earning profit.

Chapter 18 - Solved Long Questions

1. Compare the three sectors of the Indian economy in terms of their share in GDP and employment. What problem does this difference show?

Answer: The three sectors of the economy are primary, secondary and tertiary. The primary sector includes farming, fishing, forestry and mining, the secondary sector includes manufacturing, and the tertiary sector includes services such as trade, transport, banking, education and health. In terms of GDP, the tertiary sector now contributes the largest share, followed by the secondary sector, while the share of the primary sector has fallen over the years. In terms of employment, the picture is very different: the primary sector still employs the largest number of workers in India, even though it produces a much smaller share of GDP. This means that a very large number of people depend on agriculture, but agriculture gives them low incomes. Many workers in farming are disguisedly unemployed, because more people work on the land than are needed. This difference between GDP share and employment share shows that India needs more jobs in the secondary and tertiary sectors. It also shows why programmes such as MGNREGA and support for small industries are important for giving people better and more secure work.

2. What is underemployment? How can more employment be created in rural areas?

Answer: Underemployment means that people are working, but they are working less than their full capacity. For example, a farmer may have work only during the sowing and harvesting seasons and remain idle for the rest of the year. A person may also work in a job that needs less skill than they have. Disguised unemployment is a form of underemployment, where extra workers on a farm add nothing to output. More employment can be created in rural areas in several ways. First, the government can invest in irrigation, roads and storage so that farming gives work for more days in a year. Second, agro-based industries such as food processing, dairy and cold storage can be set up in villages. Third, services such as transport, health, education and tourism can create jobs. Fourth, the government can provide credit and training to help people start small businesses. MGNREGA 2005 also helps by guaranteeing 100 days of wage work in a year. These steps together can reduce underemployment and raise incomes in rural areas.

Chapter 19 - Money and Credit

Economics | Understanding Economic Development

Notes

- Money is used as a medium of exchange, so goods and services can be bought and sold without direct exchange of goods.
- In the barter system, goods were exchanged directly, but it was difficult because both sides had to want what the other had.
- Modern money includes currency notes and coins, and also deposits in banks that can be paid through cheques.
- Demand deposits are bank deposits that can be withdrawn at any time, so they work like money and are called money too.
- Banks accept deposits from people and pay interest on them, and they use most of these deposits to give loans.
- Banks keep only a small part of deposits as cash for people who want to withdraw money on any day.
- A loan, or credit, is an agreement where a lender gives money or goods and the borrower promises to repay it later with interest.
- The terms of credit include the interest rate, collateral, documentation and the mode of repayment.

Chapter 19 - Money and Credit (continued)

Economics | Understanding Economic Development

Notes (continued)

- Collateral is an asset such as land, a house, a vehicle or jewellery that a borrower gives as security against a loan.
- Formal sources of credit include banks and cooperatives, while informal sources include moneylenders, traders, employers and relatives.
- Informal lenders often charge very high interest and may use unfair means, so borrowers can fall into a debt trap.
- Self-Help Groups (SHGs) are small groups, usually of poor women, who save together and take small loans from the group.
- The Grameen Bank of Bangladesh gives small loans to poor people, mostly women, without collateral, and has helped many families.
- The Reserve Bank of India (RBI) supervises banks, controls the money supply and makes sure banks follow rules and keep deposits safe.

Chapter 19 - MCQs (1 to 5)

1. What is the main function of money in the modern economy?

(a) To act as a medium of exchange (b) To be kept only in lockers (c) To replace all goods (d) To remove the need for banks

2. What is the problem in the barter system called double coincidence of wants?

(a) Both goods must have the same weight (b) Both people must live in the same village (c) Both buyer and seller must want what the other has (d) Both goods must be made on the same day

3. What are demand deposits?

(a) Deposits that cannot be withdrawn for ten years (b) Bank deposits that can be withdrawn at any time (c) Deposits kept only by the government (d) Money kept at home in a box

4. What do banks do with most of the deposits they receive?

(a) Keep all the money in cash (b) Send the money abroad (c) Give it to the government as tax (d) Give loans to people who need credit

5. Which of the following is NOT a term of credit?

(a) Colour of the currency note (b) Interest rate (c) Collateral (d) Mode of repayment

Chapter 19 - MCQs (6 to 10)

6. What is collateral?

(a) A written promise to vote (b) A type of bank account (c) An asset given as security against a loan (d) A government tax

7. Which of the following is a formal source of credit?

(a) A moneylender (b) A trader (c) A relative (d) A bank

8. Why are informal sources of credit risky for poor borrowers?

(a) They give loans without any interest (b) They often charge very high interest and may use unfair means (c) They ask for no repayment at all (d) They are supervised by the RBI

9. Self-Help Groups (SHGs) mainly consist of:

(a) Poor women who save and lend together (b) Rich businessmen (c) Government officers (d) Bank managers

10. Which institution supervises the functioning of banks in India?

(a) The State Bank of India (b) The World Bank (c) The Reserve Bank of India (d) The Finance Ministry only

Answer Key - Chapter 19

Q	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Ans	a	c	b	d	a	c	d	b	a	c

Chapter 19 - Solved Short Questions (1 to 3)

1. Why is money needed as a medium of exchange?

Answer: In the barter system, goods were exchanged directly for other goods, but this needed a double coincidence of wants. A shoe-maker who wanted wheat had to find a farmer who wanted shoes at the same time, which was difficult. Money solves this problem because it is accepted by everyone as a medium of exchange. A person can sell goods for money and use that money to buy anything they need, at any time.

2. What are demand deposits? Why are they considered money?

Answer: Demand deposits are deposits in a bank that can be withdrawn by the depositor at any time on demand. People can also pay through cheques drawn on these deposits. Since a cheque is widely accepted as a means of payment, demand deposits work like money. That is why they are treated as a modern form of money, along with currency notes and coins.

3. What are the terms of credit?

Answer: The terms of credit are the conditions on which a loan is given. They include the interest rate, which is the extra amount paid with the loan, and collateral, which is an asset given as security. They also include documentation, such as papers and proof of income, and the mode of repayment, which is how and when the loan will be repaid. These terms differ from lender to lender and affect whether a loan helps or harms the borrower.

Chapter 19 - Solved Short Questions (4 to 5)

4. How are formal sources of credit different from informal sources?

Answer: Formal sources of credit include banks and cooperatives, which are supervised by the Reserve Bank of India. They charge reasonable interest and follow rules. Informal sources include moneylenders, traders, employers and relatives, who are not supervised by any authority. They often charge very high interest and can use unfair means to recover loans. Poor borrowers suffer most from informal credit because they have little choice.

5. What is the role of Self-Help Groups (SHGs)?

Answer: Self-Help Groups are small groups, usually of 15 to 20 poor women, who save small amounts regularly and pool their savings. Members can take small loans from the group for their needs at a low interest rate. SHGs also help members get loans from banks, because the group gives the bank confidence that the loan will be repaid. SHGs have helped many poor women become self-reliant and start small businesses.

Chapter 19 - Solved Long Questions

1. Explain how banks work as lenders. Where do they get the money to give loans, and why do they keep only a part of deposits as cash?

Answer: Banks accept deposits from people who have extra money, and they pay interest on these deposits. People keep their money in banks because it is safe and they earn interest, and they can withdraw it when they need it. Banks use most of the deposits they receive to give loans to people who need money for farming, business, housing, education and other needs. They charge a higher rate of interest on loans than they pay on deposits, and this difference is their main source of income. Banks keep only a small part of deposits as cash, because on any one day only some depositors come to withdraw money. It is very unlikely that all depositors will withdraw their money on the same day. Keeping only a small part as cash lets banks lend most of the money and earn income. This system works because people trust banks and because the Reserve Bank of India supervises banks and makes sure they follow rules.

2. Why is cheap and affordable credit important for development? Explain with the example of a small farmer.

Answer: Credit is important for development because it helps people meet their needs and start or expand work. A small farmer, for example, may need credit to buy seeds, fertilisers, tools and water for irrigation. If the farmer gets a loan from a bank or a cooperative at a low interest rate, the crop can be grown on time and the loan can be repaid after the harvest, leaving a profit. This helps the farmer earn more and improve the family's life. But if the same farmer has to borrow from a moneylender at a very high interest rate, most of the income from the crop goes in repaying the loan. If the crop fails, the farmer may not be able to repay at all and may fall into a debt trap, borrowing again to repay the old loan. This is why cheap and affordable credit from formal sources is important, especially for poor people. It helps them escape poverty instead of pushing them deeper into debt.

Chapter 20 - Globalisation and the Indian Economy

Economics | Understanding Economic Development

Notes

- Globalisation means the integration of the economy of a country with the world economy through trade, investment and technology.
- Multinational Corporations (MNCs) are companies that own or control production in more than one country.
- MNCs set up factories where labour and raw materials are cheap, and they sell their products in many countries.
- Foreign trade means buying and selling goods and services between countries, and it helps countries get goods they do not produce.
- Foreign investment means investment by MNCs and others in a country, such as setting up factories or buying assets there.
- Rapid improvements in technology, especially in transport and communication, have made globalisation faster and easier.
- The internet, mobile phones and computers have made it easy to share information and to manage production across countries.

Chapter 20 - Globalisation and the Indian Economy (continued)

Economics | Understanding Economic Development

Notes (continued)

- Liberalisation means removing barriers and restrictions on trade and investment, and India started this process in 1991.
- Before 1991, India had many restrictions on imports, exports and foreign investment to protect Indian producers.
- The World Trade Organisation (WTO) is an international organisation that makes rules for world trade and aims to make trade free and fair.
- Globalisation has benefited consumers in India with more choice, better quality and lower prices of many goods.
- Globalisation has also created new jobs in some sectors, but it has hurt small producers and workers who face tough competition.
- The struggle for a fair globalisation means making sure that the benefits of globalisation reach all people, especially the poor and workers, not only rich countries and big companies.
- The detailed sub-topics on production across countries, the WTO and the struggle for a fair globalisation are part of the interdisciplinary project, which is internally assessed.

Chapter 20 - MCQs (1 to 5)

1. What is globalisation?

(a) Trade only within one state (b) Stopping all imports (c) Producing only for the local market (d) Integration of a country's economy with the world economy

2. What is a Multinational Corporation (MNC)?

(a) A company that works only in one city (b) A company that owns or controls production in more than one country (c) A government department (d) A small shop selling foreign goods

3. Which factor has enabled globalisation the most in recent years?

(a) Rapid improvements in technology, transport and communication (b) Slow postal services (c) Banning the internet (d) Closing borders

4. What is foreign trade?

(a) Trade between two shops in the same town (b) Selling only farm products (c) Buying and selling goods between countries (d) Giving goods free to other countries

5. What is foreign investment?

(a) Money spent by the government on roads (b) Investment by MNCs and others in another country (c) Savings kept at home (d) Money given as charity

Chapter 20 - MCQs (6 to 10)

6. In which year did India start liberalisation of trade and investment?

(a) 1947 (b) 1980 (c) 2005 (d) 1991

7. What does liberalisation mean?

(a) Removing barriers and restrictions on trade and investment (b) Increasing taxes on all goods (c) Banning foreign companies (d) Stopping all exports

8. What is the full form of WTO?

(a) World Transport Organisation (b) World Tourism Organisation (c) World Trade Organisation (d) World Technology Organisation

9. How has globalisation benefited consumers in India?

(a) By reducing choice of goods (b) By giving more choice, better quality and lower prices (c) By closing all shops (d) By increasing prices of all goods

10. What does the struggle for a fair globalisation mean?

(a) Stopping globalisation completely (b) Giving all benefits only to big companies (c) Banning trade with other countries (d) Making sure its benefits reach all people, especially the poor and workers

Answer Key - Chapter 20

Q	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Ans	d	b	a	c	b	d	a	c	b	d

Chapter 20 - Solved Short Questions (1 to 3)

1. What is globalisation?

Answer: Globalisation means the integration of the economy of a country with the world economy. It happens through foreign trade, foreign investment, movement of technology and spread of ideas. As a result, goods, services, money and information move easily between countries. For example, a phone made in one country can be sold in many countries, and a company can produce parts in different countries.

2. What is a Multinational Corporation (MNC)? Why does it set up production in different countries?

Answer: A Multinational Corporation is a company that owns or controls production in more than one country. It sets up factories and offices in different countries to get cheap labour, cheap raw materials and new markets. By producing in many countries, it can reduce costs and sell its products widely. Examples of MNCs are found in automobiles, electronics, food products and software services.

3. How has technology enabled globalisation?

Answer: Rapid improvements in technology have made globalisation faster and easier. Better transport, such as ships, planes and containers, has made it cheaper and quicker to move goods across the world. Advances in information and communication technology, such as the internet, mobile phones and computers, have made it easy to share information instantly. A company can now design a product in one country, make its parts in other countries and sell it everywhere.

Chapter 20 - Solved Short Questions (4 to 5)

4. What is liberalisation? When did India start it?

Answer: Liberalisation means removing barriers and restrictions set by the government on trade and investment. Before 1991, India had many restrictions on imports, exports and foreign investment to protect Indian producers from foreign competition. From 1991, the government started removing these restrictions, so foreign companies could invest and trade more freely in India. This opened the Indian economy to the world and increased competition.

5. What is the WTO?

Answer: The WTO is the World Trade Organisation, an international organisation that makes rules for trade between countries. It aims to make world trade free and fair by removing barriers to trade. It also helps settle disputes between countries on trade matters. India is a member of the WTO, and WTO rules affect how India trades with other countries.

Chapter 20 - Solved Long Questions

1. Explain the factors that have enabled globalisation. How have technology and liberalisation helped?

Answer: Globalisation has been enabled mainly by rapid improvements in technology and by liberalisation of trade and investment. Technology has changed transport and communication in a big way. Better ships, aeroplanes and containers have made it cheaper and faster to move goods from one country to another. Information technology, including computers, the internet and mobile phones, has made it possible to share information instantly across the world. A company can design a product in one country, get its parts made in several other countries and sell it in many markets. Liberalisation has also helped globalisation. It means removing government barriers and restrictions on foreign trade and foreign investment. India started liberalisation in 1991, after which foreign companies could invest more easily and trade more freely. Multinational Corporations took advantage of this and set up production in India and other countries. Together, technology and liberalisation have linked the economies of different countries more closely than before.

2. What has been the impact of globalisation in India? Explain its effects on consumers, producers and workers.

Answer: Globalisation has had mixed effects in India, bringing both benefits and problems. For consumers, it has been largely helpful, because they now have more choice of goods, better quality and often lower prices. For example, people can buy many brands of phones, cars and food products that were not available earlier. For producers, the effect has been mixed. Large companies have grown and some Indian companies have become global, but small producers and small industries have faced tough competition from cheaper foreign goods and from big MNCs. Many small units have closed down. For workers, globalisation has created new jobs in sectors such as information technology, call centres and export industries, but it has also made many jobs insecure. Workers in some industries face pressure to work longer hours for low wages. This is why people talk about the struggle for a fair globalisation, so that its benefits reach workers and poor people too, and not only rich countries and big companies.

Also in Your Book — Consumer Rights

Economics | Understanding Economic Development | Not a board chapter — short note only

Consumer Rights is Chapter 5 in the printed NCERT book, but it is not part of the CBSE Class 10 board syllabus for 2026-27, so no questions from this chapter will be asked in the board examination. It is included here only as a short note, so that students know what the chapter is about and can use it in daily life.

A consumer has the right to safety, the right to be informed, the right to choose, the right to be heard, the right to seek redressal and the right to consumer education. The Consumer Protection Act (COPRA) was passed in 1986 to protect these rights, and consumer forums work at the district, state and national levels to settle complaints. Quality marks such as ISI for industrial goods and Agmark for farm products help buyers trust what they buy, and the Right to Information Act of 2005 gives citizens the right to ask for information from public offices.

Revision Checklist - Before the Exam

1. I can answer the MCQs and solved questions of Chapter 1 (The Rise of Nationalism in Europe) without the book.
2. I can answer the MCQs and solved questions of Chapter 2 (Nationalism in India) without the book.
3. I can answer the MCQs and solved questions of Chapter 3 (The Making of a Global World) without the book.
4. I can answer the MCQs and solved questions of Chapter 4 (Print Culture and the Modern World) without the book.
5. I can answer the MCQs and solved questions of Chapter 5 (Resources and Development) without the book.
6. I can answer the MCQs and solved questions of Chapter 6 (Forest and Wildlife Resources) without the book.
7. I can answer the MCQs and solved questions of Chapter 7 (Water Resources) without the book.
8. I can answer the MCQs and solved questions of Chapter 8 (Agriculture) without the book.
9. I can answer the MCQs and solved questions of Chapter 9 (Minerals and Energy Resources) without the book.
10. I can answer the MCQs and solved questions of Chapter 10 (Manufacturing Industries) without the book.
11. I can answer the MCQs and solved questions of Chapter 11 (Lifelines of National Economy) without the book.
12. I can answer the MCQs and solved questions of Chapter 12 (Power Sharing) without the book.

Revision Checklist - Before the Exam (continued)

13. I can answer the MCQs and solved questions of Chapter 13 (Federalism) without the book.
14. I can answer the MCQs and solved questions of Chapter 14 (Gender, Religion and Caste) without the book.
15. I can answer the MCQs and solved questions of Chapter 15 (Political Parties) without the book.
16. I can answer the MCQs and solved questions of Chapter 16 (Outcomes of Democracy) without the book.
17. I can answer the MCQs and solved questions of Chapter 17 (Development) without the book.
18. I can answer the MCQs and solved questions of Chapter 18 (Sectors of the Indian Economy) without the book.
19. I can answer the MCQs and solved questions of Chapter 19 (Money and Credit) without the book.
20. I can answer the MCQs and solved questions of Chapter 20 (Globalisation and the Indian Economy) without the book.
21. I have memorised the History dates (Chapters 1-2) and the Geography map list (dams, soils, crops, mines).
22. I know the Civics definitions (power sharing, federalism, political parties) and the Economics concepts (development, sectors, money and credit, globalisation).
23. I have solved at least one official CBSE sample paper in 3 hours, with the marking scheme.

Final note: this book is practice material written in our own words from the NCERT textbooks. It is not an official CBSE or NCERT publication. Check the chapter list against your issued books, confirm the paper pattern and dates on cbseacademic.nic.in, and practise with the official CBSE sample papers before the exam. Good luck!