

CUET · SOCIOLOGY · CLASS XII · CODE 326

Change and Development in Rural Society

CUET unit: Social Change and Development in India

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Snapshot

- Establishes that India is primarily rural (69% per 2011 Census) and that agricultural land is the most important productive resource and form of property.
- Explains the agrarian structure: distribution of landholdings, intersection of caste and class, and the concept of "dominant caste" (M.N. Srinivas).
- Traces land reforms after independence — zamindari abolition, tenancy regulation, and land ceiling acts — and their uneven success.
- Analyses the Green Revolution (1960s-70s), its productivity gains, its negative social consequences (differentiation, displacement, regional inequalities), and the second phase in dry/semi-arid regions in the 1980s.
- Covers post-Independence transformations — patronage to exploitation (Jan Breman), feminisation of agricultural labour, circulation of migrant "footloose" labour, and the impact of liberalisation, WTO, contract farming, and farmers' suicides.

Detailed Notes

2.1 Core concepts

- Indian society is primarily a rural society even though urbanisation is growing; the majority of India's people live in rural areas — **69 per cent according to the 2011 Census** — and they make their living from agriculture or related occupations. Agricultural land is therefore the most important productive resource for a great many Indians, and it is also the most important form of property (NCERT §intro, p. 42).
- Land is not just a "means of production" or a "form of property" — it is a way of life; many cultural practices and patterns can be traced to agrarian backgrounds, and most New Year/harvest festivals (Pongal in Tamil Nadu, Bihu in Assam, Baisakhi in Punjab, Ugadi in Karnataka) actually celebrate the main harvest season and herald a new agricultural season (NCERT §intro, p. 42).
- Rural life also supports artisans (potters, carpenters, weavers, ironsmiths, goldsmiths) and specialists (story-tellers, astrologers, priests, water-distributors, oil-pressers); their numbers have steadily lessened since the colonial period due to the

influx of manufactured goods that displaced hand-made products (NCERT §intro, pp. 42–43).

- The diversity of occupations in rural India was reflected in the caste system, which in most regions included specialist and 'service' castes such as Dhobis (Dry Cleaners), Potters and Goldsmiths. Increasing interconnection of rural and urban economies has led to diverse rural non-farm employment — postal/education services, factory work, the army (NCERT §intro, p. 43).
- The term **agrarian structure** refers to the structure or distribution of landholding. Agricultural land is not equally distributed within a village or region — in some parts the majority own at least some land (usually very small plots), while in other areas **40–50 per cent of families do not own any land at all** and are dependent on agricultural labour (NCERT §4.1, p. 44).
- In most regions, women are usually excluded from land ownership because of the prevailing **patrilineal kinship system and mode of inheritance**, despite the legal right to equal share of family property; in reality they have only limited rights and access only as part of a male-headed household (NCERT §4.1, p. 44).
- Access to land shapes the rural class structure: **medium and large landowners** earn sufficient or large incomes from cultivation (subject to agricultural prices and the monsoon); **agricultural labourers** are more often than not paid below the statutory minimum wage, are mostly daily-wage workers with no work for many days of the year (**underemployment**); **tenants** (cultivators who lease their land from landowners) have lower incomes than owner-cultivators because they pay rent often as high as **50 to 75 per cent of the income from the crop** (NCERT §4.1, p. 44).
- Class structure is itself structured by caste — in many areas higher castes have more land and higher incomes, but Brahmins, though the highest caste, are not major landowners and so fall outside the agrarian structure although they are part of rural society (NCERT §4.1, p. 44).
- In each region there are usually one or two major landowning castes who are also numerically important; sociologist **M.N. Srinivas** termed such groups **dominant castes** — in each region the dominant caste is the most powerful group, economically and politically, and dominates local society. Examples: **Jats and Rajputs of U.P., Vokkaligas and Lingayats in Karnataka, Kammas and Reddis in Andhra Pradesh, Jat Sikhs in Punjab** (NCERT §4.1, p. 45).
- Most marginal farmers and landless belong to lower caste groups — Scheduled Castes/Tribes (SC/STs) or Other Backward Classes (OBCs); the former 'Untouchable' or **dalit** castes were not allowed to own land in many regions and provided most of the agricultural labour, creating a labour force that allowed dominant landowners to cultivate intensively and earn higher returns (NCERT §4.1, p. 45).
- **Box 4.1**: assured-irrigation regions (rice-growing areas like Kaveri basin in Tamil Nadu) developed the most unequal agrarian structures with a large proportion of

landless bonded workers belonging to the lowest castes (Kumar 1998) (NCERT Box 4.1, p. 45).

- Practices like **begar** (free labour) and hereditary labour ties were prevalent in northern India — members of low-ranked caste groups had to provide labour for a fixed number of days per year to the village **zamindar** or landlord. Although abolished legally, such practices continue informally (NCERT §4.1, p. 45).
- **Colonial period:** zamindars (often Kshatriya or other high castes) controlled land; the British ruled through them, granted them property rights, and imposed heavy land revenue. Zamindars extracted as much as possible from cultivators; agricultural production stagnated/declined during much of British rule because peasants fled and famines decimated population (NCERT §4.2 Colonial Period, pp. 45–46).
- In areas under direct British rule the **raiyatwari system** prevailed (**raiyat = cultivator in Telugu**) — the 'actual cultivators' (often landlords themselves) paid tax directly; with less burden of taxation, cultivators had more incentive to invest, so these areas became relatively more productive and prosperous (NCERT §4.2 Colonial Period, p. 46).
- After Independence Nehru and his policy advisors embarked on a programme of planned development focused on agrarian reform and industrialisation; from the 1950s to the 1970s a series of land reform laws were passed nationally and by states. Three categories of land reform laws were enacted (NCERT §4.2 Independent India, p. 46): 1. **Abolition of the zamindari system** — the first important legislation, which removed the layer of intermediaries between cultivators and the state; this was probably the most effective land reform, succeeding in most areas in taking away superior rights of zamindars and weakening their economic-political power (NCERT §4.2, pp. 46–47). 2. **Tenancy abolition and regulation acts** — attempted to outlaw tenancy or regulate rents; in most states never implemented effectively, but **West Bengal and Kerala** saw radical restructuring of agrarian structure that gave land rights to tenants (NCERT §4.2, p. 47). 3. **Land Ceiling Acts** — imposed an upper limit on land owned by a family; productive land had a low ceiling, unproductive dry land a higher ceiling. State was supposed to identify surplus and redistribute to landless SCs/STs. In most states these acts proved **toothless** — many loopholes; some rich farmers actually divorced their wives (but continued to live with them) to keep extra share allowed for unmarried women; such fictitious transfers were called '**benami transfers**' (NCERT §4.2, p. 47).
- The **Green Revolution** (1960s–1970s) was a government programme of agricultural modernisation largely funded by international agencies, providing high-yielding variety (HYV)/hybrid seeds along with pesticides, fertilisers and other inputs to farmers. It was introduced **only in areas that had assured irrigation** (sufficient water was necessary for new seeds and methods), targeted at wheat and rice — so **Punjab, western U.P., coastal Andhra Pradesh, and parts of Tamil Nadu** received the first wave (NCERT §4.3, pp. 47–48).

- Productivity rose sharply and India became self-sufficient in foodgrains for the first time in decades; but **medium and large farmers** were primarily able to benefit because inputs were expensive (NCERT §4.3, p. 48).
- **Peasants vs Farmers** — when agriculturists produce primarily for themselves and are unable to produce for the market, it is called '**subsistence agriculture**' and they are usually termed '**peasants**'. **Farmers** are those who produce surplus for the market — and it was farmers who reaped the most benefits from the Green Revolution and the commercialisation that followed (NCERT §4.3, p. 48).
- In the first phase the introduction of new technology was **increasing inequalities** in rural society — well-to-do farmers with land, capital, technology and know-how could invest in new seeds/fertilisers; landowners began to take back land from tenants (because cultivation was now profitable) and **tenant-cultivators were displaced**; the introduction of tillers, tractors, threshers and harvesters (in Punjab and parts of Madhya Pradesh) led to the **displacement of service-caste groups** and accelerated rural-urban migration (NCERT §4.3, p. 48).
- Ultimate outcome of the Green Revolution was a process of '**differentiation**' — the rich grew richer and many of the poor stagnated or grew poorer. Employment and wages for agricultural workers did increase in many areas (demand for labour rose), but rising prices and a shift in mode of payment from kind (grain) to **cash** actually worsened the economic condition of most rural workers (NCERT §4.3, p. 49).
- **Second phase** of the Green Revolution in the **1980s** spread to dry/semi-arid regions; farmers shifted from dry to wet (irrigated) cultivation, changed cropping patterns and crops grown (e.g., cotton). Increasing commercialisation **increased rather than reduced livelihood insecurity** — when a single crop is grown a fall in prices or a bad crop can spell financial ruin. Farmers shifted from multi-crop systems (which spread risks) to **mono-crop regimes** (with nothing to fall back on in case of crop failure) (NCERT §4.3, p. 49).
- Another negative outcome was the **worsening of regional inequalities** — Punjab, Haryana and western U.P. developed while eastern U.P. and Bihar continued to have an entrenched 'feudal' agrarian structure with caste/class exploitation that has given rise to various kinds of violence including inter-caste violence (Das 1999) (NCERT §4.3, p. 49).
- **Box 4.2 (A.R. Vasavi 1994)**: hybrid/modern agriculture lacks the 'wholeness' of traditional organic/local cultivation. Traditional Indian farmers have very deep knowledge of land and crops; much of this knowledge — like the many traditional varieties of seeds developed over centuries — is being lost as hybrid, HYV and genetically modified varieties are promoted as more 'scientific' (Gupta 1998; Vasavi 1999b) (NCERT Box 4.2, pp. 49–50).
- **Four post-Independence transformations** in rural society, especially in Green Revolution areas (NCERT §4.4, p. 50): 1. an increase in the use of agricultural labour as cultivation became more intensive; 2. a shift from payment **in kind (grain) to cash**; 3. a loosening of traditional bonds/hereditary relationships between farmers/

landowners and agricultural workers (bonded labour); 4. the rise of a class of **'free' wage labourers**.

- **Jan Breman (1974)** described the change in the nature of the relationship between landlords (usually dominant castes) and agricultural workers (usually low caste) as a shift from **'patronage to exploitation'**. Some scholars regard this transformation in labour relations as indicative of a transition to **capitalist agriculture** — the capitalist mode of production is based on separation of workers from means of production (land) and the use of 'free' wage labour (NCERT §4.4, p. 50).
- For regular agricultural growth, uninterrupted power supply to rural India is a necessity; **Deen Dayal Upadhyaya Gram Jyoti Yojana** launched in 2014 is a laudable government effort in this direction (NCERT §4.4, p. 51).
- In agriculturally rich regions (coastal Andhra Pradesh, western U.P., central Gujarat), well-to-do dominant-caste farmers invested profits in business ventures and diversified — giving rise to new entrepreneurial groups and **new regional elites** that became economically and politically dominant (Rutten 1995); spread of higher education (private professional colleges) allowed these rural elites to educate children who joined white-collar occupations, feeding the urban middle classes (NCERT §4.4, pp. 51–52).
- In contrast, **eastern U.P. and Bihar** saw little change in agrarian structure due to lack of effective land reforms, political mobilisation, and redistributive measures. **Kerala** underwent a different process — political mobilisation, redistributive measures and linkages to an external economy (primarily **Gulf remittances**) substantially transformed the countryside; Kerala's rural is a **mixed economy** integrating agriculture with retail sales/services and remittances (NCERT §4.4, p. 52).
- **Circulation of labour** (§4.5): as traditional patronage bonds broke down and seasonal demand for labour rose in prosperous regions like Punjab, a pattern of seasonal migration emerged — thousands circulate between home villages and prosperous areas. Migrants come from drought-prone regions, work part of the year on Punjab/Haryana farms, U.P. brick kilns, or construction sites in Delhi/Bangalore (NCERT §4.5, pp. 52–53).
- Jan Breman termed these migrant workers **'footloose labour'** but this does not imply freedom — Breman's 1985 study shows landless workers do not have many rights and are usually not paid minimum wage. Wealthy farmers prefer to employ migrants for harvesting because they are more easily exploited; this has produced a peculiar pattern where local landless labourers move out of home villages while migrants are brought in (especially in sugarcane areas) (NCERT §4.5, p. 53).
- **Feminisation of agricultural labour force**: in poor areas where male family members spend much of the year working outside, cultivation has become primarily a female task; women earn lower wages than men for similar work, their insecurity is greater; until recently they were hardly visible in official statistics; patrilineal kinship

and other cultural practices privileging male rights largely exclude women from land ownership (NCERT §4.5, p. 53).

- **§ 4.6 Globalisation, Liberalisation, Rural Society:** Liberalisation policy since the late 1980s and WTO membership have exposed Indian farmers to global competition; India's decision to import wheat reversed the earlier policy of self-reliance and brought back memories of dependency on American food grains in the early post-Independence years (NCERT §4.6, p. 53).
- **Contract farming:** in regions such as Punjab and Karnataka, farmers contract with multinational companies (e.g., **PepsiCo for tomatoes and potatoes**) — the company identifies crop, provides seeds, inputs, know-how, and often working capital, and assures purchase at a fixed predetermined price. Common in specialised items: cut flowers, grapes, figs, pomegranates, cotton, oilseeds. While giving financial security, it creates greater insecurity due to dependence; diverts land away from food grain production; disengages farmers from production and makes indigenous knowledge irrelevant; caters to elite items; uses heavy fertilisers/pesticides — often not ecologically sustainable (NCERT §4.6, pp. 53–54).
- **Box 4.3 — Farmers' suicides:** linked to "agrarian distress" — cost of production increased tremendously due to decrease in agricultural subsidies; markets are unstable; farmers borrowed heavily for expensive inputs. According to official statistics there have been **8,900 suicides by farmers between 2001 and 2006 in Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka, Kerala and Maharashtra** (Suri 2006). MNC seed/fertiliser/pesticide agents replaced state extension services, increasing dependence on expensive inputs and creating an ecological crisis (NCERT Box 4.3, p. 55).
- Government schemes mentioned: **Pradhan Mantri Fasal Bima Yojana, Gram Uday se Bharat Uday Abhiyan, National Urban Mission, National Mission for Sustainable Agriculture, Kisan Credit Card** — meant to provide unified help to farmers and improve quality of life in rural India (NCERT §4.6, p. 55).

2.2 Definitions to memorise

Term	Definition	Page
Agrarian structure	The structure or distribution of landholding in a rural society.	44
Dominant caste	Numerically large, economically and politically powerful landowning caste in a region (M.N. Srinivas).	45
Begar	Free/unpaid labour provided by low-caste members to the village zamindar or landlord for a fixed number of days per year.	45
Underemployment	Condition where workers (e.g., daily-wage agricultural labourers) have no work for many days of the year.	44
Raiyat		46

Term	Definition	Page
	Cultivator (Telugu); raiyatwari = colonial system in which the cultivator/landlord paid tax directly to the British.	
Zamindari system	Colonial intermediary system where zamindars received property rights over land and extracted revenue from peasants.	46
Benami transfers	Fictitious land transfers to escape Land Ceiling Acts — including divorcing wives to claim extra unmarried-women shares.	47
Land Ceiling Acts	Third category of post-Independence land reform imposing an upper limit on family landholding; proved toothless in most states.	47
Tenant	A cultivator who leases land from a landowner and often pays rent as high as 50–75% of the crop's income.	44
Subsistence agriculture	Cultivation primarily for self-consumption rather than the market; such producers are called peasants.	48
Peasant	A subsistence cultivator who produces primarily for self, not the market.	48
Farmer	A cultivator who produces a surplus for the market and is linked to commercial agriculture.	48
HYV seeds	High-Yielding Variety (or hybrid) seeds introduced under the Green Revolution package.	47
Differentiation	Process where rich farmers grew richer while poor stagnated or became poorer (outcome of Green Revolution).	49
Mono-cropping	Single-crop regime that replaces multi-crop risk-spreading and worsens livelihood insecurity.	49
Patronage-to-exploitation	Jan Breman's (1974) characterisation of the shift from hereditary landlord-labourer patronage to commercialised exploitation.	50
Bonded labour	Hereditary labour relationship binding agricultural workers to landowners; loosened post-Independence.	50
Free wage labourers	Class of agricultural workers who sell their labour for cash, separated from land.	50
Footloose labour	Migrant rural labourers (Jan Breman 1985) — not free, usually denied minimum wage.	53
Feminisation of agricultural labour	Trend where cultivation becomes primarily a female task as men migrate out, with women earning lower wages.	53
Contract farming	System where a company provides seeds, inputs, know-how, and guarantees purchase at a fixed price.	54

Term	Definition	Page
Agrarian distress	The condition behind farmers' suicides — high-cost inputs, withdrawal of subsidies, unstable markets, debt.	55
Liberalisation	Policy since late 1980s involving WTO membership and opening Indian markets to global agricultural competition.	53
Deen Dayal Upadhyaya Gram Jyoti Yojana	2014 scheme for uninterrupted power supply to rural India.	51
Pradhan Mantri Fasal Bima Yojana	Crop insurance scheme listed among government interventions in rural distress.	55

2.3 Diagrams / processes to remember

- Festival-to-region mapping: Pongal (Tamil Nadu), Bihu (Assam), Baisakhi (Punjab), Ugadi (Karnataka) — all harvest festivals that anchor the cultural significance of land (p. 42).
- Map-style listing of dominant landowning castes by region — Jats/Rajputs (U.P.), Vokkaligas/Lingayats (Karnataka), Kammas/Reddis (Andhra Pradesh), Jat Sikhs (Punjab) (p. 45).
- **Three categories of land reform laws** after Independence: zamindari abolition → tenancy abolition/regulation → land ceiling acts (NCERT §4.2, pp. 46–47).
- **Three-stage outcome of Green Revolution:** HYV inputs → productivity boost for medium/large farmers → differentiation, displacement, mono-cropping (NCERT §4.3, pp. 48–49).
- **Four post-Independence transformations** list (p. 50): increased labour use, payment shift kind→cash, loosening of bonded labour, rise of free wage labourers.
- Box 4.1 — link between assured irrigation, intensive cultivation, and most unequal agrarian structure (Kaveri basin, Tamil Nadu) (p. 45).
- Box 4.2 — Vasavi's hybrid/organic contrast: loss of 'wholeness' and traditional seed varieties (p. 49–50).
- Box 4.3 — chain leading to farmers' suicides: cash crops + liberalisation + high-cost MNC inputs + decline in state extension + debt + crop failure (p. 55).
- Regional contrast triad — Punjab/Haryana/western U.P. (Green Revolution prosperity) vs eastern U.P./Bihar (entrenched feudal structure) vs Kerala (mixed economy + Gulf remittances) (pp. 49, 52).

2.4 Common confusions / NTA trap points

- **Peasant vs farmer:** Peasants = subsistence (produce for themselves); farmers = surplus for the market. NTA often swaps these.
- **Zamindari vs raiyatwari:** Zamindari = colonial intermediary collected tax; raiyatwari = cultivator paid tax directly. Telugu **raiyat** = cultivator.

- **Dominant caste ≠ highest caste:** Brahmins are often NOT major landowners; dominant castes are usually middle/high-ranked **landowning** castes (M.N. Srinivas).
- **Most effective land reform:** zamindari abolition. Ceiling Acts were largely toothless due to benami transfers (including sham divorces).
- **First-phase Green Revolution areas:** Punjab, western U.P., coastal Andhra Pradesh, parts of Tamil Nadu — NOT eastern U.P. or Bihar. NTA loves planting Bihar as a distractor.
- **'Footloose labour' does NOT mean free:** Jan Breman uses it for migrant workers denied minimum wage and rights.
- **Patronage to exploitation** — Jan Breman 1974, NOT M.N. Srinivas. Don't confuse the two thinkers.
- **Payment shift:** from kind (grain) to cash — and this **worsened** the condition of workers due to rising prices, even though wages rose.
- **2011 Census rural %:** 69 per cent — distractors include 59% and 79%.
- **Farmers' suicide states (Box 4.3):** AP, Karnataka, Kerala, Maharashtra — official statistic of 8,900 between 2001 and 2006 (Suri 2006); Punjab is **not** in this Box 4.3 list.
- **Differentiation outcome:** Green Revolution increased rural inequality; **employment and wages did rise** but cash payments + rising prices worsened workers' real condition. NTA may oversimplify the outcome.
- **Tenancy radical restructuring** happened only in **West Bengal and Kerala** — not in most other states.

2.5 Thinkers & theories

Name	Concept	Key Idea	NCERT page
M.N. Srinivas	Dominant caste	Numerically large landowning caste, economically and politically powerful in its region.	45
Dharma Kumar	Irrigation and inequality	Rice-growing assured-irrigation regions developed most unequal agrarian structures with bonded labour.	45 (Box 4.1)
Jan Breman	Patronage to exploitation	Landlord-labourer relations shifted from hereditary patronage to commercialised exploitation (1974).	50
Jan Breman	Footloose labour	Migrant rural workers are not free — denied minimum wage and rights (1985).	53
A.R. Vasavi	Hybrid vs organic		49–50 (Box 4.2)

Name	Concept	Key Idea	NCERT page
		Modern agriculture lacks the 'wholeness' of traditional cultivation; loss of traditional seed knowledge.	
A.R. Vasavi	Agrarian distress in Bidar	Studied state, market and suicides in dry-land cultivation.	55 (Refs)
Akhil Gupta	Postcolonial developments	Modern agriculture's promotion as 'scientific' has undermined indigenous knowledge.	50 (Refs)
Raju J. Das	Geographical unevenness	Green Revolution was promoted in western/southern parts while eastern regions stagnated.	49
Mario Rutten	New rural entrepreneurial class	Profits from agriculture diversified into business, creating new regional dominant elites.	51-52
K.C. Suri	Political economy of agrarian distress	Documented 8,900 farmer suicides 2001-06 in AP, Karnataka, Kerala, Maharashtra.	55
Bina Agarwal	Gender and land rights	"A field of one's own"; women's exclusion from land ownership in South Asia.	Refs
Alice Thorner	Modes of production debate	Semi-feudalism vs capitalism debate on Indian agrarian classes.	Refs
Daniel Thorner	Agrarian structure	Classic essay on Indian agrarian structure in Dipankar Gupta (ed.).	Refs
Jawaharlal Nehru & advisors	Planned development	Embarked on agrarian reform + industrialisation; series of land reforms 1950s-1970s.	46
Government of India	DDU-GJY and rural schemes	Power supply (2014), PM Fasal Bima Yojana, Gram Uday se Bharat Uday, Kisan Credit Card.	51, 55

Practice MCQs

PYQ Alignment

This chapter is a CUET high-yield zone: questions regularly appear on the dominant caste concept (M.N. Srinivas), land reform categories (especially zamindari abolition vs. ceiling acts), Green Revolution regions and its negative consequences, peasant vs. farmer distinction, Jan Breman's "patronage to exploitation" and "footloose labour", feminisation of agricultural labour, contract farming (PepsiCo), Box 4.3 farmers' suicides figures, and Kerala/Bihar contrast. Expect a mix of direct factual (Census %, regional caste-region matching), statement-correctness, and passage-based questions every CUET cycle.

CUET 2025 — Actual PYQs from this chapter

Q.5 (CUET 2025) In order to avoid the provisions of the Land Ceiling Act, which strategy was adopted by landlords?

- A) Benami transfers B) Contract farming C) Abolition of zamindari system D) Pay tax
- Tests:** Evasion of land-ceiling laws through benami transfers. **Answer:** Not in extracted key

Q.8 (CUET 2025) What was the Ryotwari system?

- A) The tenants could keep two-thirds of agricultural produce B) A situation based on sharecropping C) Buying land in the name of others after land ceiling D) Direct settlement between cultivator and British government
- Tests:** Ryotwari — direct settlement between ryot/cultivator and the British state. **Answer:** Not in extracted key

Q.26 (CUET 2025) Which among the following statements are correct about the Ryotwari system? (A) Ryot means cultivator. (B) The cultivator was responsible for paying tax. (C) Zamindars played a dominant role. (D) Colonial government dealt directly with the farmer.

- A) (A), (B) and (D) only B) (A), (B) and (C) only C) (A), (C) and (D) only D) (B), (C) and (D) only
- Tests:** Features of the Ryotwari settlement (no zamindar intermediary). **Answer:** Not in extracted key

CUET 2023 — Actual PYQs from this chapter

Q.22 (CUET 2023) Match List-I with List-II: A. Zamindari system B. Ryotwari system C. Tenancy abolition and regulation D. Land ceiling / I. Benami transfer II. Radical restructuring of agrarian structure III. Less burden of taxation IV. Agricultural production stagnated.

- A) A-III, B-I, C-IV, D-II B) A-IV, B-III, C-I, D-II C) A-I, B-III, C-IV, D-II D) A-IV, B-III, C-II, D-I
- Tests:** Land-reform categories and their distinctive features. **Answer:** Not in extracted key

Q.28 (CUET 2023) Arrange the following events: A. Green Revolution introduced in dry regions B. New technology introduced C. Displacement of service caste groups D. Increasing commercialisation.

- A) A, B, C, D B) B, C, A, D C) D, C, A, B D) B, C, D, A **Tests:** Sequence of agrarian change linked to the Green Revolution. **Answer:** Not in extracted key

