SOCIAL SCIENCE

(HISTORY-CIVICS-GEOGRAPHY)

STANDARD X

*Untouchability is a Sin
Untouchability is a Crime
Untouchability is Inhuman*
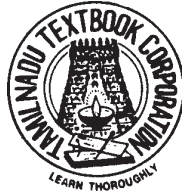
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(Modern Indian History) – Time Line

1700

1 unit = 10 years

1707 Death of Aurangazeb

1724 Independent Nizam at Hyderabad

1740 Bengal Nawab becomes independent

1746 First Carnatic War
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1756 Third Carnatic War
1757 Battle of Plassey

1764 Battle of Buxar
1767

Mysore Wars

1799

1806 Vellore Mutiny

1828

William Bentinck's Administration

1835

1848
Dalhousie becomes Governor - General
1850

(v)

Time Line (Continued)

Year	Event
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1856	
1857	Great Revolt
1876	Lytton's Administration
1880	Ripon's Administration
1884	
1885	Foundation of the Indian National Congress
	Moderate Period
1905	
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1920	Non – Co-operation Movement
1927	Simon Commission
1930	Civil Disobedience Movement
1939	Second World War
1942	Quit India Movement
1945	End of World War
1947	India wins Freedom
	Nehru as Prime Minister
1964	Lal Bhahadur Shastri as Prime Minister
1966	Indira Gandhi as Prime Minister
1977	Janata Rule
1980	Congress Rule
1989	National Front Government
1991	Congress Government
1996	United Front Government
1998	BJP - NDA Government
2000-04	
2004-	Congress Government

Lesson – 1

THE ADVENT OF THE EUROPEANS

Learning Objectives

1. Pupil learns how the Discovery of New Sea routes by the Europeans was a turning point in the history of India.

2. Pupil understands that the coming of the Europeans to India led to revolutionary changes in her destiny in the future.

3. Pupil acquires knowledge about the establishment and growth of trading centres by the Portuguese, the Dutch, the British, the French and the Danes.

The coming of the Europeans to India forms an important event in the history of our country. Our country was well known in Europe, for its immense wealth, through the accounts of **Marcopolo,** a Venice Merchant. India had trade relations with the western world from the ancient times. Indian commodities like spices, certain drugs, metal works, textiles, silk, gold, silver and precious stones were in great demand in the European markets throughout the Middle Ages. These goods used to reach Europe either by land or partly by land, and partly by sea.

However, difficulties arose on account of the capture of Constantinople (Modern Istanbul in Turkey) by the Turks in 1453 A.D. It blocked the traditional trade route through land between Europe and the Eastern countries. It made European traders to find out new sea routes to reach the **Golden East** i.e. India and China.

The Portuguese

The Kings of Portugal and Spain encouraged the sailors to discover new sea routes. The Portuguese were the pioneers in this field. **Prince Henry** of **Protugal** patronised the sailors. He set a

regular school for the training of seamen on scientific lines. He supported all those who took up the work of navigation.

> Due to his encouragement and interest in the field of Navy he is nicknamed in history as *"Henry, the Navigator."*

Bartholomeu Diaz : In 1487 Bartholomeu Diaz travelled along the west coast of Africa. He reached its southern most tip. However, he could not continue his voyage further due to heavy storms. This voyage gave hope to the navigators. Hence the southern most tip of Africa is known as *Cape of Good Hope.*

Vasco da Gama : Vascoda Gama, a Portuguese explorer, sailed through the route of Bartholomeu Diaz. He reached the cape of Good Hope and then Mozambique. From there he continued his journey for a month. He reached near *Calicut* on 20 May 1498 A.D. He was cordially received by King *Zamorin,* the local ruler. Vascoda Gama got certain privileges also. They opened the way for commercial relations with India.

Vasco da Gama

> Vascoda Gama stayed three months in India. He carried back a rich cargo with him on his return. It tempted many other rich merchants of European nations to come to India.

Vascoda Gama founded a factory at *Cannanore* on his second visit to India in 1501. In due course, *Calicut, Cochin* and *Cannanore* became the Portuguese trading centres.

The Arabs could not reconcile the Portuguese reaping their profits. They created enmity between the Portuguese and King Zamorin. King Zamorin attacked the Portuguese in Cochin. But he suffered a defeat. The supremacy of the Portuguese was established.

Francisco de Almeida (1505 – 1509) : Francisco Almeida came to India in 1505. He was the first Governor of Portuguese possessions in

India. He had the aim of developing the naval power of the Portuguese in India. He wanted to make the Portuguese the masters of the Indian Ocean. His policy is known as the **Blue water policy.**

Alfonso de Albuquerque (1509 – 1515) : The real founder of Portuguese power in India was **Alfonso de Albuquerque.** He captured Goa from the rulers of Bijapur in 1510. It was made their headquarters. He also strengthened his relationship with the Vijayanagar Empire. In 1511 he captured Malacca. He built the **Port of Ormuz** in the Persian Gluf in 1515. Eventhough he was a good administrator, he became unpopular with the Muslims due to his religious policy . He treated the Hindus well. He opened schools for their education. He encouraged marriage relationship between the Indians and the Portuguese.

> He took steps to do away with Sati. He was the precursor of Lord William Bentinck.

His good qualities won him respect among the Indians. By the end of the 16th Century, the Portuguese brought **Goa, Diu, Daman** and **Salsette** and a vast area around them under their rule. However, their power was shortlived. They were displaced with the coming of other European merchants.

Causes for the decline of the Portuguese power :

1. Portugal was a small country. It could not control a big dominion like India. It did not have resources necessary for building up a large overseas trade colony.

2. There appeared corruption in administration. The Portuguese Merchants were rarely honest.

3. The religious policy followed by the Portuguese created enmity of the Muslims. Hindus also did not like forcible conversion of the natives by the Portuguese.

4. The Portuguese often indulged in piracy against the Indian merchants.

5. The prosperity of Goa depended on that of the great Hindu Capital of Vijayanagar. The fall of Vijayanagar in 1565 A.D. was a great blow to the Portuguese.

THE PORTUGUESE
ROUTE TO INDIA
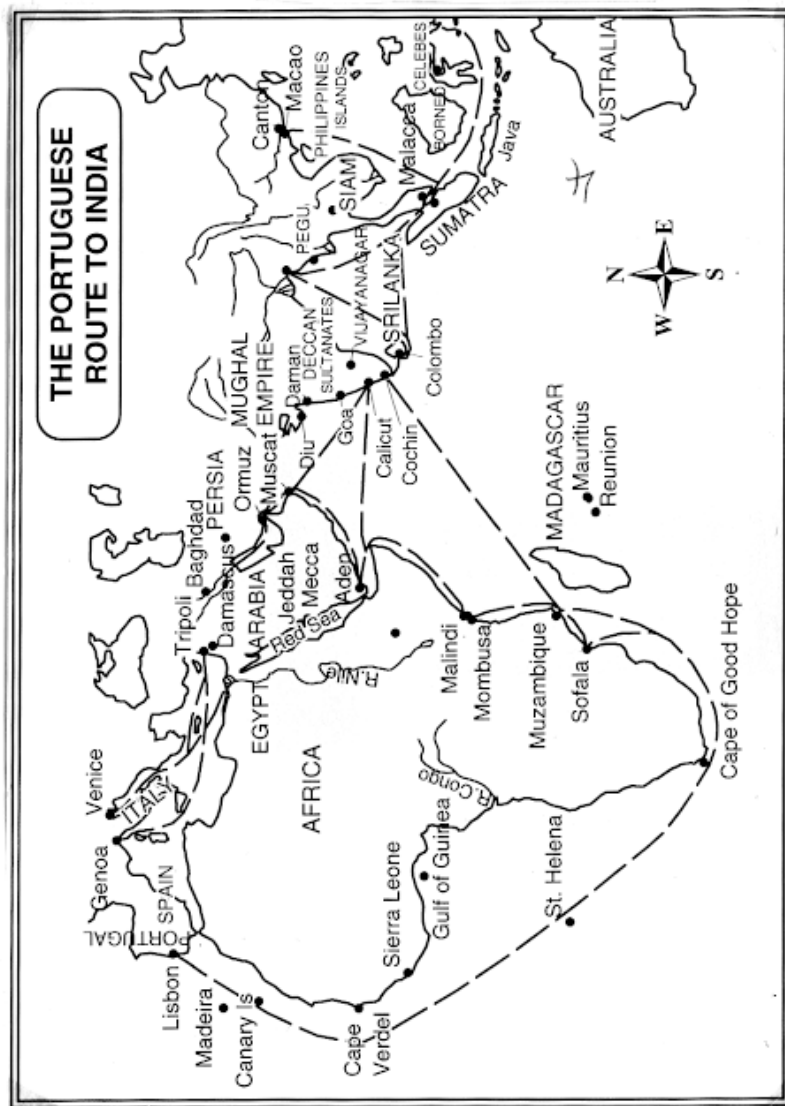
6. The rise of Mughal power under Akbar and his successors made Portuguese expansion not possible.

7. Lastly the Dutch and the English became strong rivals to the Portuguese in India. These led to the fall of the Portuguese power in India.

The Dutch

The Dutch were a hardy race of simple, adventurous, maritime people. They rose to prominence by the end of the 16th Century. The **United East India Company** of the **Netherlands** was founded in 1602 in Holland. They established their settlements first in Indonesian Islands. Then they turned their attention towards India. They founded a factory at Masulipatnam in 1605. They built their first fort on the main land of India at **Pulicut** in 1609, near (Madras) Chennai. They captured **Nagapattinam** from the Portuguese. They made **Agra, Surat, Masulipatnam** and **Chinsura** in Bengal as their trading centres.

The Dutch did not aim at establishing an empire in India. Their main object was trade. They were happy with the huge profits they got from the commercial ventures. Moreover, they concentrated their attention on the **Spice Islands** in the Far East. Greatmen like **Coen** and **Van Diemen** were responsible for the success of the Dutch in the east.

Causes for the decline of the Dutch

1. The rivalry between the English and the Dutch increased to such an extent that in 1623 the Dutch perpetrated a massacre of the English at **Amboyna.** After this tragedy, the English were forced to leave the Spice Islands (Indonesia). They retired to the mainland of India.

2. The Dutch had to yield their position in India to the English. They concentrated trade with **Indonesia** rather than India.

3. From the beginning to the end the position of the Dutch in India was insignificant.

The Danes

Danish Settlements : The Danish East India Company was established in 1616 in Denmark. They came to South India and

founded a factory at **Tranquebar (Tharangambadi)** in 1620. They also made settlements at **Serampore** near Calcutta. Excepting the Danish missionaries, their merchants were not prominent. They sold their factories to the English in 1845.

The English

Like other Europeans, the English men were also fond of Indian commodities. They wanted to have direct trade with India. In 1600. Queen Elizabeth of England gave permission to a group of hundred merchants of London to establish Trade with the East. Later on, they formed a company known as the **English East India Company.**

The East India Company sent **Sir William Hawkins** to the court of the Mughal Emperor **Jahangir** in 1609 to obtain permission to erect a factory at Surat. But due to the Portuguese influence, the Mughals did not give permission. In 1613 the Mughal Emperor allowed the English to open a trading centre at Surat.

In 1615, **Sir Thomas Roe,** another British merchant, came to Jahangir's court. He stayed for three years and succeeded in getting permission to set up their trading centres at **Agra, Surat, Ahmedabad** and **Broach.** In 1639. **Francis Day,** an English merchant bought the site of Madras from a local Nayak, who was the subordinate of the ruler of Chandragiri. He built a fortified factory called **Fort.St. George.** In 1651 a factory was set up at **Hugli** near Kolkata. In 1661. Charles II leased out Mumbai **(Bombay)** to the East India Company. King Charles got Bombay as dowry after his marriage with Portuguese Princess.

> Can you believe the rent for Mumbai (Bombay) was just £ 10 (Approximately 500 rupees) per year in those days. (£ Pounds, the currency used in England)

In 1690, the British got permission from Aurangazeb to build a factory on the site of **Kolkata.** In 1696 a fort was built at that place. It was called **Fort William.**

The ruler of Bengal was pleased with the British doctor, William Hamilton, for having cured the disease of one of his relatives. As a result, the company was given permission to establish a trading centre on the banks of Hugli.

The English East India company expanded its influence and laid down strong roots in India till 1857. After the Revolt of 1857, Queen Victoria took over the administration of India.
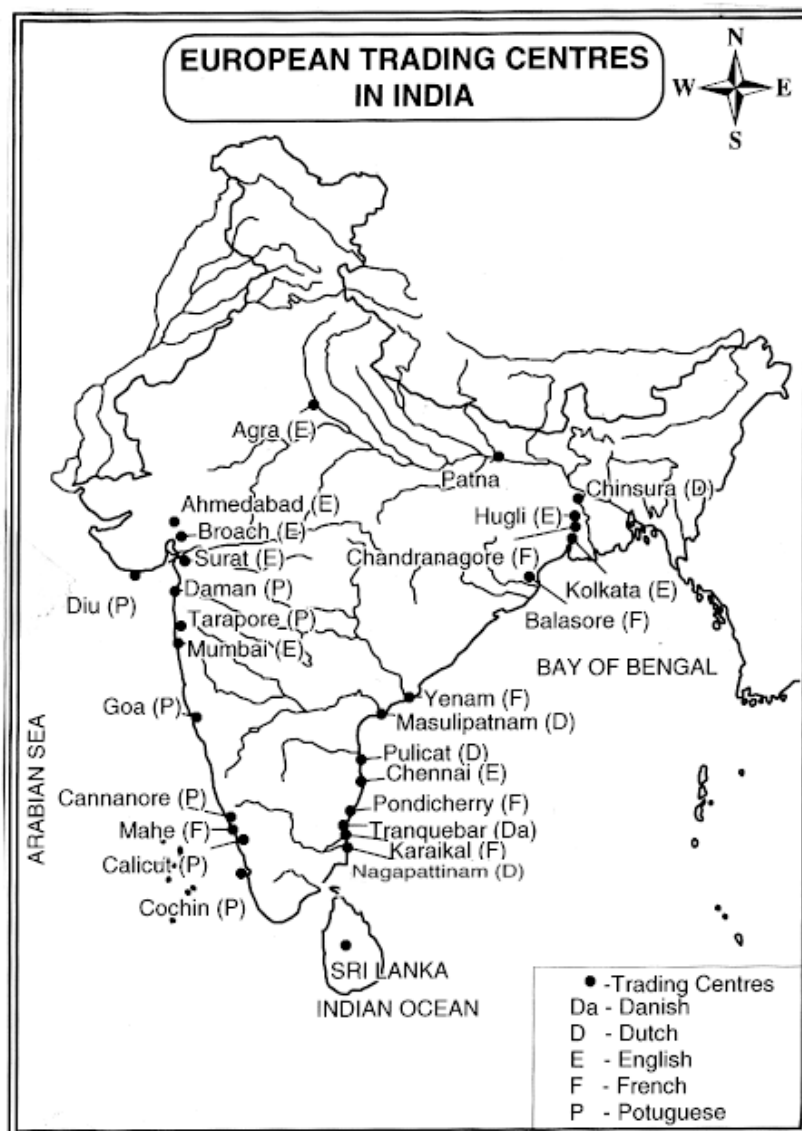
The French

The French were the most serious rivals to the English in India. The French East India Company was established in 1664 under the inspiring and energetic leadership of **Colbert,** the economic adviser of the French King Louis XIV. In 1667 the first French factory was established at **Surat** by **Francis Caron** who was nominated as Director - General. In December 1669 another French factory was established at **Masulipatnam.**

Francis Caron was replaced by **Francis Martin.** He founded the settlement of **Pondichery** in 1674 under a grant from Sher Khan Lodi, the Sultan of Bijapur. He made Pondicherry as the French headquarters. The French had gained settlements in **Chandranagore, Balasore** and **Qasim Bazar.** On the Malabar coast the French got **Mahe** in 1725 **Karaikal,** on the coromandal coast, became a French settlement in 1739.

Dupleix

Dumas was the French Governor in India from 1735 to 1741. His successor **Dupleix** was an able statesman. He wanted to found a French empire in India. He had to wage several wars for retaining French power in India. However, the French could retain only **Pondicherry, Mahe, Chandranagore, Karaikal** and **Yenam.** The English overtook them in establishing their rule in India.

EUROPEAN TRADING CENTRES IN INDIA

N
W — E
S

Agra (E)
Patna
Chinsura (D)
Ahmedabad (E)
Hugli (E)
Broach (E)
Surat (E)
Chandranagore (F)
Daman (P)
Kolkata (E)
Diu (P)
Balasore (F)
Tarapore (P)
Mumbai (E)
BAY OF BENGAL
Goa (P)
Yenam (F)
Masulipatnam (D)
Pulicat (D)
Chennai (E)
Cannanore (P)
Pondicherry (F)
Mahe (F)
Tranquebar (Da)
Karaikal (F)
Calicut (P)
Nagapattinam (D)
Cochin (P)
ARABIAN SEA
SRI LANKA
INDIAN OCEAN

● -Trading Centres
Da - Danish
D - Dutch
E - English
F - French
P - Potuguese

Self-Evaluation

I. Choose the correct answer

1. In 1453 A.D. Constantinople was captured by

   a. The Turks   b. The Dutch

   c. The French   d. The English

2. The Kings who encouraged the sailors were the rulers of

   a. England and France   b. France and Spain

   c. Spain and Portugal   d. Portugal and England

3. Vascoda Gama was permitted to land at Calicut by

   a. Sultan of Bijapur   b. King of Vijayanagar

   c. King Zamorin   d. Ruler of Chandranagore

4. Goa was conquered by

   a. Almeida   b. Vascoda Gama

   c. Albuquerque   d. Zamorin

5. Sir William Hawkins belonged to

   a. Portugal   b. Spain

   c. England   d. France

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6. King Charles II got Bombay as dowry after his marriage with the Princess of

a. France   b. Spain

c. England   d. Portugal

7. William Hamilton was a

a. Teacher   b. Trader

c. Doctor   d. Soldier

8. The East India Company got Bombay on lease for just a rent of

a. £ 10   b. £ 20

c. £ 30   d. £ 40

9. The French East India Company was established under the leadership of

a. Francis Caron   b. Colbert

c. Dupleix   d. None of the three

10. The French got Mahe in the Malabar Coast in

a. 1725   b. 1735

c. 1715   d. 1745

II. Fill in the blanks

1. The European explorers tried to find out new sea routes of reaching the _____.

2. The_____were the pioneer in finding new sea routes.

3. The first Governor of the Portuguese in India was_____.

4. _____strengthened his relationship with the Vijayanagar Empire.

5. Alfonso de Albuquerque was the precursor of _____.

6. First Fort of the Dutch was built at_____in 1609.

7. Sir Thomas Roe stayed in_____court for three years.

8. Fort St. George was built at _____.

9. The economic advisor of King Louis XIV was _____.

10. The first French factory was established at Surat by_____.

III. Match the following

A

1. Marco Polo   -- Blue Water Policy
2. Zamorin   -- Sea route to India
3. Francis Co de Almedia -- Persian Gulf
4. Port of Ormuz   -- Venice Merchant
5. Vascoda Gama   -- Ruler of Calicut

B

1. The Dutch   -- Portugal Princess
2. King Charles II   -- Spice Islands
3. Amboyna Massacre   -- Governor-General
4. Francis Caron   -- Headquarters of the French
5. Pondicherry   -- 1623 A.D.

IV. Answer briefly

1. Name the Indian Commodities which were in great demand in European markets.

2. How did the fall of Constantinople affect the European Traders?

3. Why Prince Henry is called "Henry, the Navigator"?

4. Give a short note on Bartholomeu Diaz.

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5. Why did King Zamorin attack the Portuguese?

6. What is meant by 'Blue water Policy'?

7. Name the trading centres of the Portuguese in India.

8. What were the main aims of the Dutch?

9. Mention the trading centres of the Dutch.

10. What were the causes for the decline of the Dutch?

11. Give a short note on Francis Day.

12. Mention the trading centres of the English in India.

13. Name the important Forts built by the British in India.

14. How did Pondicherry become the headquarters of the French?

15. What do you know about Dupleix?

V. Answer in detail

1. How did the Portuguese establish their trading centres in India?

2. Mention the contributions of Alfonso de Albuquerque to Portugal and to the Indians.

3. What were the causes for the decline of the Portuguese power in India?

4. How did the British establish their trading centres in India?

VI. Practical exercise

1. Mark the trade settlements of the Portuguese, the Dutch, the British and the French on the outline map of India.

2. On the outline map of the world, show the sea-route of Vascoda Gama.

ESTABLISHMENT AND EXPANSION OF BRITISH POWER IN INDIA

Learning Objectives

1. Pupil learns the reasons for the conflicts between the English and the French in India in the 18th Century.

2. Pupil acquires knowledge about the growth of British Power in India.

3. Pupil analyses the causes and results of Carnatic wars, Mysore wars and Maratha wars.

4. Pupil knows the growth of British power in Bengal.

5. Pupil understands the expansion of British Power in India.

6. Pupil gains knowledge about the Subsidiary Alliance concluded by Lord Wellesley.

7. Pupil learns the social reforms of Lord William Bentinck.

8. Pupil knows how the Policy of Doctrine of Lapse, introduced by Lord Dalhousie, led to the expansion of British power in India.

During the 18th Century the English and the French succeeded in ousting the Portuguese and the Dutch traders from the Indian soil. The English and the French came to dominate the Indian trade with Europe. They established their trading centres in different parts of India. These trading centres were mostly in the coastal areas. The profits, that the companies made through their trade, led to competitions and rivalries among them. It also often led to violent conflicts. The governments of England and France supported their companies in the wars.

After the death of Aurangazeb in 1707 the Mughal Empire began to disintegrate. The Marata Empire, assiduously built by **Shivaji** from 1645, expanded vastly under the Peshwas in the Western part of India. **Asaf Jah,** the Nizam-ul-Mulk, founded the state of Hyderabad in the Deccan in 1724. **Alivardi Khan** declared himself an independent

Nawab of Bengal in 1740. **Saadatullah Khan** (1710-1732) became the Nawab of the Carnatic region with **Arcot** as its capital. His nephew and successor **Dost Ali** was killed by the Marathas in the battle in 1740 Asaf Jah, the Hyderabad Nizam, came down upto Tiruchirapalli. He appointed **Anwar-ud-din Khan** as the Nawab of Arcot. He was unpopular. Dost Ali's son-in-law Chanda Sahib, imprisoned by the Marathas and released in 1748, created problems to Anwar-ud-din. The local Palayakkars also rebelled. This political instability made the English and the French to interfere in the political affairs of the country.

I. THE CARNATIC WARS

The First Carnatic War (1746 – 48) – Causes : The rivalry of the trading companies reached its climax with the arrival of **Dupleix** as the French Governor of **Pondicherry** in 1742. He wanted to strengthen the French position. It was at that time the **Austrian War of Succession** broke out in Europe. England and France took opposite sides in that war. The war echoed in India too. The English started the war against the French in 1746.

Events : The English captured the French ships in the Indian waters with the help of **Commodore Barnett.** Dupleix appealed for help to the French Governor of Mauritius **La Bourdonnais.** The French fleet came and blockaded Madras Port. With the joint efforts of Dupleix and La Bourdonnais Madras was captured. Anwar-ud-din sent a huge army under Mehpuzkhan to restore Madras. But it was defeated by a small disciplined French force at the **Battle of Adyar.** Dupleix tried to capture Fort St. David, but failed. Meanwhile the Austrian War of Succession ended in Europe. The English and the French stopped their fight in India.

Results : The Treaty of **Aix-la-Chapelle,** concluded in 1748, put an end to the Austrian War of Succession. The first Carnatic war also stopped. As per the treaty, **Madras** was given back to the English company in exchange of **Louisburg** in North America to France.

The First Carnatic War demonstrated that a small group of disciplined soldiers, regularly paid, using guns, newly developed in Europe, could easily defeat a much larger number of soldiers of the Indian rulers.

The Second Carnatic War (1748 – 1754) : Though the enmity between the French and the English ended in Europe, their rivalry continued in India. The success of Dupleix against the Nawab's forces made him more confident and ambitious. Dupleix aimed to promote the French interests. He began to fit one Indian ruler against the other. The English were cautious and alarmed of the growing French influence.

Causes : The Nizam of Hyderabad died in 1748. There arose a war of succession between *Nasir Jung,* the second son of the departed ruler and *Mussafar Jung,* his grandson. In the Carnatic *Chanda Sahib,* son-in-law of Dost Ali, claimed the throne of Arcot against *Anwar-ud-din.* Mussafar Jung and Chanda Sahib joined together and sought the French help. Nasir Jung and Anwar-ud-din got the English help. Thus the disputes for the throne of Hyderabad and Arcot became the cause for the war.

Events : The armies of Mussafar, Chanda Sahib and the French defeated Anwar-ud-din at *Ambur* in 1749. Anwar lost his life in the battle. His son *Muhammed Ali* escaped to Tiruchirapalli for safety. He surrendered to the English. Chanda Sahib became the Nawab of the Carnatic. He rewarded Dupleix's help by giving *Valudanoor, Villianoor* and *Bahur* near Pondicherry. Then he marched towards Tiruchirapalli to capture Muhammed Ali. The English came to the rescue of Muhammed Ali. *Robert Clive,* an army officer of the English East India Company, suggested a plan to attack Arcot. The English Governor *Saunders* accepted it. He sent an army with Robert Clive and Major Lawrence. Clive captured Arcot without any serious opposition in 1751. The French forces and Chanda Sahib were defeated at *Arni* and *Kaveripakkam.* Chanda Sahib surrendered and he was beheaded in 1752. Dupleix failed to capture Tiruchirapalli. He was recalled to France in 1754. With his recall the second Carnatic war came to an end.

Robert Clive

The French were however strongly entrenched at Hyderabad. Nasir Jung lost

his life in an encounter in 1750. Muzaffar Jung became the Nizam and amply rewarded the French.

The capture of Arcot was the most remarkable achievement of the English in Carnatic war. Clive was hailed as the **Hero of Arcot.**

Results : In 1755, the **Treaty of Pondicherry** was signed. French possessions were given back to the French. The English emerged as the winners in the Carnatic region. Whereas in Hyderabad the French general Bussy maintained a steady ascendancy of the French.

The Third Carnatic War (1756 – 1763) Causes : The out-break of the **Seven Years War** in Europe was the immediate cause for the Third Carnatic War. The French Government sent **Count-de-Lally** as the Governor and commander-in-chief of French possessions in India. Soon after his arrival in India, he attacked and captured **Fort.St. David.** With a view to capture Chennai, he recalled Bussy, the French General from Hyderabad. That was a great blunder. As soon as Bussy left Hyderabad, the English conquered the Northern Circars. **Salabat Jung,** the Nizam of Hyderabad was forced to change sides. The French lost their political influence in Hyderabad. The French generals **Lally** and **Bussy** were decisively defeated by the English. The French even surrendered Pondicherry in 1761.

Results : The Third Carnatic War came to an end in 1763 by the **Treaty of Paris.** According to the terms of the treaty, **Pondicherry, Karaikal** and other French possessions were returned to the French on condition that they should not fortify them. The Third Carnatic war put an end to the French ambition in India.

Causes for the success of the English : (1) The English had a much better financial position compared to the French, (2) The British Government rendered adequate support to the company which was not given by the French Government, (3) The English had acquired better trade facilities compared to the French, (4) England had a very strong and superior naval power than the French, (5) There was good understanding between the English Generals, (6) Peace prevailed in England and hence they concentrated more on their affairs in India and (7) Dupleix, an able Governor, was recalled when his services were very much required in India and his successor was not as efficient as Dupleix.

II. THE GROWTH OF BRITISH POWER IN BENGAL

Alivardi Khan declared his independence in 1740. He became the Nawab of Bengal. On his death in 1756, **Siraj-ud-daulah,** his grandson became the Nawab of Bengal at the age of 24. Soon after his accession to the throne, the young Nawab came into conflicts with the English in Bengal.

Battle of Plassey – Causes : Siraj-ud-daulah prevented the English from fortifying **Fort William.** The English refused to stop the new fortification. So he attacked their factory at **Cassim Bazar.** He captured Fort William. Many prominent Englishmen escaped. But one hundred and forty six English were taken as prisoners. They were said to have been kept in a very small room. It is said that on 20 June 1756 hundred and twenty three of them died out of suffocation. Only twenty three survived. The English historians describe this incident as the **Black Hole Tragedy.**

This incident made the English at Chennai to send a relieving force under Robert Clive along with **Admiral Watson** to Bengal. Clive entered into a conspiracy with **Mir Jafar,** the Commander-in-Chief of Siraj-ud daulah.

Events : Clive marched towards Plassey, on 23 June 1757 which was near to the Nawab's capital **Murshidabad.** As agreed earlier, Mir Jafar, the Chief commander of Siraj-ud-daulah, did not take up arms against the English army. On the other hand Nawab's soldiers fled from the battlefield. Later the Nawab was killed and Mir Jafar was made the Nawab of Bengal as promised by Clive. The **Battle of Plassey** was merely a skirmish. But in its results it was one of the most decisive battles in Indian History. The battle paved the way for the foundation of the English rule in India.

Results : The English acquired a large sum of money from the new Nawab. The English company got the territory of the **24 Parganas.** Mir Jafar became a puppet in the hands of Clive. He had no powers. He could not satisfy the demands of the English. So he was forced to resign in 1760. Then his son-in-law **Mir Kasim** was appointed as the Nawab of Bengal. In course of time, he also could not satisfy the growing demands of the English.

Battle of Buxar - Causes : Mir Kasim was an young, energetic and ambitious ruler. He wanted to be independent. He shifted his capital to *Monghyr,* a place far away from Kolkata. He also employed foreign experts to train his army. So a quarrel broke-out between him and the English. The English decided to overthrow him. It resulted in the *Battle of Buxar* in 1764. The combined armies of *Mir Kasim, Shuja-ud-daulah,* the Nawab of *Oudh,* and the Mughal *Emperor Shah Alam II* were defeated by the English General Major Munro. Mir Kasim fled from the battle and the other two surrendered to the English.

Results : The battle came to an end with the *Treaty of Allahabad,* concluded in 1765. As per the treaty, the Province of Oudh was returned to Shuja-ud-daulah. But he had to pay a war loss of Rs.50 lakhs to the English. The districts of Kara and Allahabad were given to Shah Alam. Shuja-ud-daulah was forced to maintain English troops for the defence of his state. Shah Alam granted the *Diwani Right* of *Bengal, Bihar* and *Orissa* to the English. In turn, the English agreed to pay him a pension of rupees 26 lakhs per year. The Battle of Buxar made the English virtually the masters of Bengal. It also proved their military superiority and unchallenged power.

As a result of his success in Bengal, Robert Clive was appointed as the first *Governor of Bengal* (1758 – 1760). He consolidated the British power both in Bengal and in the Deccan. He introduced a new administrative system in Bengal called *Dual* or *Double* Government. The administration of Bengal was carried on by two powers. The Nawab of Bengal was a nominal head. But the real power was exercised by the English.

III. MYSORE WARS

Hyder Ali : Hyder Ali was born in 1721. He was the son of *a faujdar* of the *Mysore Army.* He started his career as an ordinary soldier. Though unlettered he was endowed with strong determination, admirable courage, keen intellect and commonsense. By his hard work he became the Commander-in-Chief of the army. When the ruler of Mysore died, he proclaimed himself as the ruler and became the Sultan of Mysore.

First Mysore War (1767 – 1769) – Causes : Hyder Ali strengthened his army by including the French soldiers into his service. He extended his territories by conquering many areas in South India. The rapid rise of Hyder Ali naturally excited the jealousy of the *Marathas, the Nizam of Hyderabad* and *the English*. They joined together and formed a

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triple alliance and declared a war on Hyder Ali. By his diplomacy, Hyder Ali, cleverly won over the Marathas and the Nizam. But under the leadership of the English General, **Smith,** Hyder Ali was defeated at **Changam** and **Tiruvannamalai** in 1767. At the same time, **Tippu Sultan,** son of Hyder Ali advanced towards Chennai. So the English were forced to enter into an agreement.

Hyder Ali

Results : The war ended by the **Treaty of Madras** (Chennai) in 1769. Territories conquered during the war were restored to each other. The English agreed to help Hyder Ali in case of attack by his enemies, the Nizam and the Marathas.
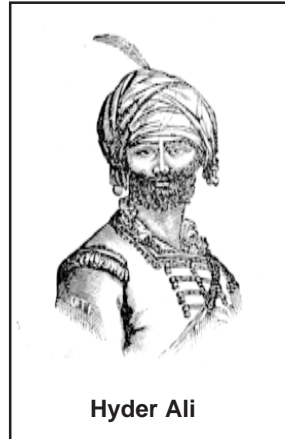
Second Mysore War (1780 – 1784) – Causes : Mysore was attacked by the Marathas in 1771. As per the treaty of Madras, the English did not help Hyder Ali. So Hyder Ali got angry. He wanted for an opportunity to strike at the English. When **Mahe,** a French possession in the dominion of Hyder Ali was attacked by the English, Hyder Ali declared war on the English in 1780. He defeated the English force in the Carnatic. He made them surrender. Hyder Ali occupied almost the whole of the Carnatic. But the English, under **Sir Eyre Coote,** defeated Hyder Ali at **Porto Novo** in 1781. In the meantime, Hyder Ali died of cancer in 1782. But his son Tippu Sultan continued the war with the English for two more years.

Tippu Sultan

Results : The war came to an end with an agreement signed in 1784, called the **Treaty of Mangalore.** Both the sides agreed to exchange the captured territories and war prisoners. Thus the Second Mysore War came to an end without any tangible results.

Third Mysore War : **Lord Cornwallis** (1786-1793) became the Governor General of Bengal in 1786. He was also made Commander-in-Chief of the English army. He fought against Tippu in the Third Mysore war.

Causes : The English started improving their relationship with the Nizam and the Marathas. Tippu, on the other hand, improved his resources. He got the French help. He attacked *Travancore* in 1789 which was a friendly state of the English. So Cornwallis declared a war on Tippu in 1790. Both the troops had victories and defeats alternately. The war came to an end in 1792.
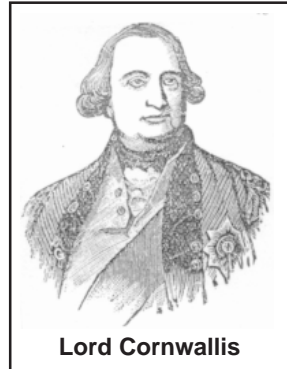
Lord Cornwallis

Results : Tippu signed the *Treaty of Srirangapatnam* with the English. He had to give half of his kingdom to the English. The English got *Malabar, Coorg, Dindugal, and Baramahal* (now the Salem and Erode areas). Tippu was compelled to pay a huge war indemnity of over three crore rupees. He had to surrender two of his sons as hostages to the English until he paid the indemnity.

The Fourth Mysore War 1799 – Causes : The Treaty of Srirangapatinam failed to bring peace between Tippu and the English. Tippu refused to accept the subsidiary alliance of Lord Wellesley. He wanted to take revenge on the English. He sent emissaries to *Kabul, Constantinople, Arabia* and *France* to get their support. When Wellesley came to know all about Tippu's activities, he declared war at once against him in 1799. Tippu suffered defeats at the hands of *General Stuart* and General *Harris.* Wellesley himself besieged Srirangapatinam. Tippu fought bravely but died in the battle.

Results : The English annexed large portions of Mysore. The central part of Mysore was given to *Krishna Raja* of *Wadiar* dynasty. Tippu's family was removed from Srirangapatinam and sent to Vellore prison.

IV. SUBSIDIARY ALLIANCE SYSTEM AND EXPANSION OF BRITISH POWER

Lord Wellesley was the Governor-General of Bengal from 1798 – 1805. He adopted several policies to turn the English East India Company from a trading corporation into a supreme power in India. He adopted three methods to expand the British empire. They were : *1. Subsidiary Alliance System, 2. Wars and conquests* and *3. annexation of territories.* Let us know the Subsidiary Alliance System. The Indian rulers were persuaded by Wellesley to sign a

friendly treaty with the English. The States in turn had to follow certain conditions. They were : 1. The States had to accept the English as their Supreme Power, 2. A British Resident and British subsidiary forces were to be stationed inside the State, 3. They had to cede territories to the company for the maintenance of subsidiary force, 4. They should not entertain any other Europeans, other than the English, 5. The States were not allowed to negotiate with any other kingdom without the permission of the Governor-General and 6. In return, the English promised them protection against any external attacks and non-interference in their internal matters.

Lord Wellesley

States which entered into the Subsidiary Alliance : 1. The Nizam of Hyderabad was the first to accept the subsidiary alliance system. He handed over the territories of *Cuddappah, Bellary, Anantapur* and *Carnool,* 2. After the death of Tippu Sultan, his kingdom was handed over to *Krishna Raja Wadiar* who accepted the scheme, 3. The Nawab of Oudh accepted this scheme and surrendered *Rohilkhant* and *Southern districts of Doab* region. 4. Peshwa Baji Rao II and many Rajput rulers also entered into this alliance.

Merits : 1. By this system the English became the supreme power in India, 2. The resources and influence of the company increased greatly, 3. The alliance helped the English to maintain control over the Indian rulers, 4. It enabled the company to maintain a large standing army at the expense of Indian Princes and 5. The extent of British Empire in India increased greatly as several rulers had ceded parts of their kingdoms.

Defects : 1. The native rulers lost their prestige and dignity, 2. The subsidy demanded from the Indian rulers was beyond their means and they could not afford it. So they taxed their people very heavily, 3. The Indian rulers were compelled to disband their own armies. The disbanded soldiers, in course of time, joined robber gangs such as Thugs and Pindaris and troubled the public, 4. The local rulers lived a life of irresponsibility and degradation because they considered

ENGLISH POSSESSIONS
UNDER WELLESLEY
(1799 - 1805)

that their security was the British concern and 5. Though the Indian rulers were not allowed to wage war with each other directly, they were slowly preparing themselves for wars and they were plotting against one another.

> Lord Wellesley's annexation improved the political power of the English to a great extent and hence some historians call him "The Akbar of the English East India Company".

V. MARATHA WARS

First Maratha War : During the administration of **Warran Hastings** (1772 – 1785) the First Maratha War was fought. In 1772, **Madhava Rao,** the Peshwa of the Maratha Kingdom died. He had no issue. His younger brother **Narayana Rao** succeeded to the throne. But his ambitious uncle Raghoba alias **Raghunath Rao** murdered him. He announced himself as the next Peshwa. **Nana Fadnavis,** a senior and loyal statesman objected to it. He wanted to make **Madhva Rao Narayanan,** the son of Narayana Rao, as the next Peshwa. Raghoba went to the English for help. He signed a treaty in 1775, known as the **Treaty of Surat,** with the Governor of Bombay. By this treaty, Raghoba agreed to handover the islands of **Salsette** and **Bassein** to the English in return for their help to get the Peshwaship. This was done without the knowledge of the Governor-General, **Warren Hastings** and he rejected the treaty.

> The Governor of Bengal was also the Governor-General of Bengal and he was the supreme head of the English in India.

Nana Fadnavis signed a treaty called the **Treaty of Purandhar** in 1776 with the English. Thus Nana Fadnavis raised his position and defeated Raghoba. The war ended with the signing of the **Treaty of Salbai** in 1782.

Results : Madhava Rao Narayanan became the Peshwa. The English returned the territories except **Salsette.** Raghoba was granted a pension of three lakhs rupees a year.

The Second Maratha War 1803 – Causes : The great Maratha statesman Nana Fadnavis died in 1800. After his death war brokeout among the Maratha chiefs, **Bhonsle** and **Sindhia.** Peshwa Baji Rao II was a weak ruler. He sought the help of the English for protection. The English defeated the combined armies of Scindia and Bhonsle.

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Results : Both the Scindia and the Bhonsle entered into subsidiary system. The Maratha power was gradually weakened.

The Third Maratha War (1817 – 1818) – Causes : In 1817, Peshwa Baji Rao II tried to organize a confederacy of Maratha chiefs against the English. When an envoy was killed by his minister, Baji Rao II was asked to sign a humiliating treaty. He refused to do so and declared war on the English. But he was defeated by the English. By this success *Lord Hastings* the Governor-General, established British Supremacy in India.

Results : The power of the Peshwa was shattered beyond recovery. All the Maratha chiefs were reduced to a subordinate position under the English. The Maratha efforts to save India from the English had failed. Baji Rao II was given an annual pension of 8 lakh rupees. *Mumbai (Bombay) Presidency* was formed with this region.

> According to historian Marshman, the results of the Maratha wars subdued not only the native armies but also the native minds.

The English themselves raised *Pratab Singh* a descendant of *Chatrapathi Shivaji* to *Satara,* but he also remained a small subordinate ruler of the English.

Causes for the decline of the Marathas : They were 1) Internal weakness of the Marathas, 2) Lack of political sagacity, 3) Incapable leadership, 4) Feudal organization 5) Weakness in the social organization of the Marathas, 6) Neglect of economic affairs of the state and 7) The superior diplomatic skill and spy system of the English.

VI. WELFARE OF INDIANS UNDER LORD WILLIAM BENTINCK

Lord William Bentinck (1828 – 1835 A.D.) was appointed as Governor-General in 1828. He was a very capable, benevolent and intelligent administrator. He was the first enlightened Governor-General to act on the principle that the welfare of the Government lies in the welfare of the Governed.

Lord William Bentinck

He made his marks in the field of administration by carrying out some

beneficial reforms. His reforms may be classified under three headings : *1. Financial Reforms, 2. Administrative Reforms* and *3. Social Reforms*

Let us analyse his social reforms here. Social evils like *Sati, polygamy, child marriage, female infanticide, sale of women* and the *plight of the widows* prevailed in India during the 19th century. These evil practices were deep rooted. They affected the culture and unity among the Indians. Bentinck tried to eradicate some of these evils.

Abolition of Sati : Sati was one of the most cruel practices among the Hindus. According to this system a widow was supposed to burn herself alive on the funeral pyre of her deceased husband. At first it was a voluntary act. But, as days went on, the widow was forced to die by her relatives. Bentinck could not tolerate this in human treatment towards women. So he passed a law in 1829. It declared the practice of Sati as a criminal and illegal offence. The law said that anyone who forced a woman to perform Sati would be given capital punishment. To achieve this task Bentinck got the support of Raja Rammohan Roy and Devandranath Tagore, the noted social reformers of Bengal.

Abolition of Human Sacrifice and Female Infanticide : To please the Gods and Goddesses human sacrifice was offered among certain communities in India. Female infanticide, that is, the practice of killing female children at the time of their birth, was in practice particularly in Rajastan and in some parts of Western and Central India. Among the Rajputs, it was either because of paucity of youngmen who died in large numbers in wars or because of the difficulties of earning a livelihood in the desert regions. In other places it was primarily because of the custom of dowry. Both the practices were declared illegal by Bentinck and severe punishments were given to the offenders.

Suppression of Thugs : The Thugs used to attack innocent travellers and caravans of traders. The Thug problem prevailed in Central India. They lived in jungles and less alerted regions. Travelling became dangerous since they looted the Caravan traders. Bentinck wanted to put a stop to such anti-social activities. So he started a new department under *Major Sleeman.* The Thugs were caught in large numbers. They were either put to death or punished severely. The

children of the Thugs were put through reformation programmes. An Industrial school was started to teach them useful crafts. The Thug menace was completely removed.

Educational Reforms : During William Bentinck's Governor-Generalship English became the medium of instruction in Schools and Colleges. **Lord Macaulay,** the Governor-General's Law member, was responsible for it. He brought a resolution in 1835. According to it Bentinck made English, the official language of India. Bentinck also encouraged the Christian missionaries to establish schools and colleges in India. From that time the Western system of education began to spread among the middle and upper class Indians.

VII. DOCTRINE OF LAPSE AND EXPANSION OF BRITISH POWER

Lord Dalhousie (1848 – 1856) was one of the greatest Governors-General of India. He was a great annexationist. He followed the policy of annexation by waging wars. He annexed the Punjab and Lower Burma by war. He adopted the policy of Doctrine of Lapse for the establishment of British Imperialism in India. At the same time he also laid the foundation for the modernization of India.

> Sir W.W. Hunter, his biographer, sums up Dalhousie's work in India just in three words **Conquests, Consolidation** and **Development.**

Doctrine of Lapse (Becomes the property of the British in India) : Every Hindu has a right to adopt a male child as his heir in the absence of a natural heir. The adopted son enjoys all the rights and privileges. He shares all the responsibilities as a natural heir to his father. In the beginning, the English accepted this right of Hindu native rulers without any hesitation.

When Lord Dalhousie became the Governor-General he used the **Doctrine of Lapse** to extend the British power. There were three categories of Indian States at that time, namely, creations, dependents and independent States.

I. **Creations :** They were created by the English. The rulers of these States were not allowed to adopt heirs to their thrones.

II. **Dependents :** These States existed by depending on the British power. They were bound to seek permission of the English in case of adoption. They could be granted or refused.

III. **Independent States :** The rulers of these states were free to adopt their heirs. But the heirs could succeed to the personal property only and not to the throne. To succeed to the throne, they were also asked to seek the permission of the British.

States annexed under this scheme : Applying the Doctrine of Lapse, Dalhousie annexed *Satara, Jaitpur, Sambalpur, Udaipur, Jhansi* and *Nagpur.* Of these Satara, Nagpur and Jhansi were important ones whose annexation was not justified. In the Great Revolt of 1857 *Rani Lakshmi Bai* of *Jhansi* took a dreadful revenge for the loss of her throne. She massacred every European who fell into her hands.

Results of the Doctrine of Lapse : The English earned the displeasure of the Indian rulers who became victims of this policy. They became strong enemies. It was one of the main causes for the revolt of 1857. The Doctrine of Lapse spread a wave of hatred against the English. There was a constant fear among the Indian rulers. They feared that their kingdom would be annexed. The people also began to hate the English. They preferred the native rulers. The Doctrine was considered as a violation of Hindu Law which permitted adoption.

Modernisation measures of Dalhousie : Lord Dalhousie introduced many reforms. His period is memorable for the introduction of Railways, Telegraphs and Cheap Postage.

Railways : The first railway line from *(Bombay) Mumbai* to *Thana* (about 20 miles (36 k.m.) was constructed in 1853. Then in 1854 *Howrah* and *Ranikanj* were connected. In 1856 a Railway line was laid between *(Madras) Chennai* and *Arakonam.* Dalhousie is considered as the father of Indian Railways and Telegraphs.

BRITISH AREAS UNDER LORD DALHOUSIE(1848 - 56)

Kabul
Peshawar
KASHMIR
Srinagar
TIBET
AFGHANISTAN
PUNJAB
Lahore
Multan
KAPURTHALA
Patiala
Delhi
RAMPUR
BAHAWALPUR
RAJASTAN
OUDH
NEPAL
SIKKIM
BHUTAN
KHAIRPUR
AJMER
Jaipur
Lucknow
SIND
Jodhpur
Karauli
Gwalior
Allahabad
BIHAR
ASSAM
KUTCH
HOLKAR
SINDHIA
JHANSI
Benares
BENGAL
GUJARAT
BARODA
BHOPAL
REWA
Chandernagore (F)
TIPPERAH
KATHIAWAR
UDAIPUR
Sambalpur
Diu
NAGPUR
Kolkata
(P)
BERAR
Nagpur
BURMA
Surat
(Assigned in 1853)
NIZAM
ARAKAN
Mumbai
Poona
OF HYDERABAD
SATARA
Hyderabad
Yanam (F)
ARABIAN SEA
KARNUL
BAY OF BENGAL
GOA (P)
MYSORE
N
Mahi (F)
R.Kaveri
Chennai (E)
W   E
Calicut
Pondicherry (F)
COCHIN
Karikal (F)
S
TRAVANCORE
SRI LANKA
INDIAN OCEAN

28

Public Works Department : This department was set up in order to construct new roads, canals and bridges. It was also to repair the existing ones. The **Ganga Canal** was dug. The **Grand Trunk Road** connecting Calcutta and Peshawar were constructed during his period.

Posts and Telegraphs : Lord Dalhousie introduced ½ anna (3 paise) postal system. The telegraph system was also introduced. From 1853 to 1856, nearly 4000 miles (6400 k.m.) of telegraphic lines connecting **(Calcutta) Kolkata** with **Peshawar, (Bombay) Mumbai** and **(Madras) Chennai** was installed. The military value of this was realized during the revolt of 1857.

Education : Lord Dalhousie introduced certain educational reforms on the basis of the **Sir Charles Woods' Despatch of 1854.** The Department of Public Instruction (DPI) was opened in each province. He took steps to establish universities at **Bombay, Calcutta** and **Madras.** They were opened in 1857. Vernacular instruction was given more importance. Dalhousie introduced the grants-in-aid scheme to help the private institutions.

These reform measures of Dalhousie led to the modernization of India.

Learning Outcome

1. Pupil will be able to explain the establishment and expansion of British Power in India.

2. Pupil will be able to point out the causes and results of Carnatic, Mysore and Maratha Wars.

3. Pupil will be able to recall the battles of Plassey, Buxar and their results.

4. Pupil will be able to describe the Subsidiary Alliance system, its merits and defects.

5. Pupil will be able to estimate the social reforms of Lord William Bentinck.

6. Pupil will narrate the expansion policy of Dalhousie and his reforms.

Self - Evaluation

I. Choose the correct answer

1. The Austrian War of Succession took place in
   a. America
   b. Africa
   c. Europe
   d. Asia

2. The Capital of the Carnatic Nawab was
   a. Chennai
   b. Pondicherry
   c. Arcot
   d. Karaikal

3. La Bourdonnais was the French Governor of
   a. Chennai
   b. Mauritius
   c. Kolkata
   d. Mumbai

4. Chanda Sahib was the son-in-law of
   a. Anwa-ud-din
   b. Mussafar Jung
   c. Dost Ali
   d. Mohammad Ali

5. The ruler of Bengal in 1757 was
   a. Shuja-ud-daulah
   b. Siraj-ud-daulah
   c. Mir Kasim
   d. Mir Jafar

6. The battle of Plassey was fought in
   a. 1757
   b. 1764
   c. 1765
   d. 1771

7. The English General who defeated the Indian rulers in the battle of Buxar was
   a. Col. Smith
   b. Major Munro
   c. Lord Clive
   d. Admiral Watson

8. Hyder Ali was the son of a
   a. King
   b. Faujdar
   c. Minister
   d. Trader

9. In the First Mysore war Hyder Ali was defeated at
    a. Changam   b. Tanjore
    c. Mahe   d. Pondicherry

10. In 1781 Sir Eyre Coote defeated Hyder Ali at
    a. Porto Novo   b. Chennai
    c. Travancore   d. Mysore

11. The First Maratha war took place during the period of
    a. Robert Clive   b. Dalhousie
    c. Warren Hastings d. Lord Bentinck

12. Hyder Ali died of
    a. Pneumonia   b. Cancer
    c. Ulcer   d. Illness

13. Lord Wellesley is praised as
    a. Lion of the Company   b. Nation builder
    c. Akbar of the Company   d. Captain of the
                                 Company.

14. General Stuart took part in the
    a. First Mysore war   b. Second Mysore war
    c. Fourth Mysore war   d. First Maratha war

15. Thugs were active in
    a. `Himalayan region   b. Gangetic Plains
    c. Central India   d. South India

16. Sati was abolished in
    a. 1828   b. 1829
    c. 1835   d 1838

17. In 1835 William Bentinck made the following as the official language of India
    a. French   b. English
    c. Urdu   d. Hindi

18. The Doctrine of Lapse was considered as a violation of

    a. Hindu Law   b. Muslim Law

    c. Christian Law   d. Roman Law

19. In 1856 railway line was laid between

    a. Mumbai to Thana   b. Thana to Poona

    c. Madras to Arakonam   d. Howrah to Ranikanj

II. Fill in the blanks

1. Dupleix was the Governor of _____.

2. The English captured the French ships with the help of commodore_____.

3. The immediate cause for the Third Carnatic War was the outbreak of the_____in Europe.

4. The French Governor Count-de-Lally captured the Fort _____.

5. The Commander-in-Chief of Siraj-ud-daulah was _____.

6. According to the Treaty of Paris_____and _____were given back to the French.

7. The English General who defeated Hyder Ali was_____.

8. The Dual system was introduced by_____in Bengal.

9. In 1776 Nana Fadnavis signed the Treaty of_____.

10. Raghoba was the uncle of_____.

11. By the Treaty of Surat, the English obtained _____ and_____from Raghoba.

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12. When_____, a French possession under Hyder Ali was attacked, he declared war on the English.

13. _____was the son of Hyder Ali.

14. Tippu Sultan attacked_____, a friendly state of the English.

15. After the death of Tippu Sultan, Mysore was handed over to_____.

16. Tippu sent emissaries to_____, _____ and _____to get help.

17. Female infanticide was practiced particularly in _____.

18. The first railway line was laid between_____ and _____.

19. Dalhousie introduced_____postal system.

20. Dalhousie introduced some educational reforms on the basis of the_____Despatch.

III. Match the following

A

1. Fort William   --   Governor

2. Saunder   --   Kolkata

3. Robert Clive   --   Mughal Emperor

4. Monghyr   --   Army Officer

5. Shah Alam   --   Capital

B

1. Nana Fadnavis   --   1776
2. Salsette   --   1782
3. Treaty of Purandar --   Governor General
4. Treaty of Salbai   --   Island
5. Warren Hastings   --   Senior Maratha Statesman.

C

1. The Treaty of Aix-La–Chapple -- Third Carnatic War
2. The Treaty of Pondicherry   -- First Mysore War
3. The Treaty of Paris   -- Battle of Buxar
4. The Treaty of Allahabad   -- Second Carnatic War
5. The Treaty of Chennai   -- First Carnatic War

D

1. Rani Lakshmi Bai   -- Abolition of Sati
2. William Bentinck   -- Law Member of the Governor General's council
3. Major Sleeman   -- Postal System
4. Lord Macaulay   -- Thugs
5. Lord Dalhousie   -- Queen of Jhansi

IV. Answer briefly

1. Bring out the causes for the First Carnatic war.
2. What was the result of First Carnatic War?
3. What were the causes for the Second Carnatic War?
4. Mention the results of the Second Carnatic War.

5. Who was known as "The Hero of Arcot? Why?

6. What great blunder was committed by the French Governor Count de Lally?

7. Bring out the results of the Third Carnatic war.

8. Give a short note on 'Black Hole Tragedy'.

9. What were the benefits derived by the English after the battle of Plassey?

10. Mention the causes for the battle of Buxar.

11. How did Hyder Ali become the Sultan of Mysore?

12. What were the causes for the First Mysore war?

13. Why did Cornwallis declare war on Tippu in 1790?

14. Bring out the results of the Third Mysore war.

15. Give a short note on Nava Fadnavis.

16. Bring out the results of Third Maratha war.

17. Mention the causes for the downfall of the Marathas.

18. What were the measures adopted by Lord Wellesley to expand the British power in India?

19. Name the states that entered into subsidiary alliance.

20. What do you know about the Thugs?

21. Which were the states annexed by Dalhousie by the application of the Doctrine of Lapse?

22. How did Rani Lakshmi Bai take revenge on the English?

23. Who is known as the Father of Indian Railways? Why?

24. Mention the reforms of Dalhousie in the field of Education.

V. Answer in detail

1. What were the causes for the First Carnatic War? Bring out its results?

2. Write an essay on the Second Carnatic war.

3. Explain the causes for the success of the English in Carnatic wars.

4. How did the English attain supremacy in Bengal?

5. Give an account of the Second Mysore war.

6. Explain the causes, events and results of the First Maratha war

7. How did Lord Wellesley expand the British power in India? Explain the merits and defects of the Subsidiary Alliance system.

8. Write an essay on the social reforms of Lord William Bentinck.

9. Describe the policy adopted by Dalhousie to expand the British empire in India.

10. Enumerate the modernization measures of Dalhousie in India.

IV. Practical exercise

1. Mark the following on the outline map of India :

a. Shade the British territories during the period of Lord Wellesley and mark the following regions Carnatic, Northern Circar, Bengal, Bihar and Oudh.

b. Sketch the British possessions in India during the time of Lord Dalhousie and mark the following

   Jhansi, Satara, Oudh, Nagpur, Udaipur, Mumbai, Thana, Chennai, Kolkata.

THE FIRST WAR OF INDIAN INDEPENDENCE (GREAT REVOLT OF 1857) — END OF EAST INDIA COMPANY'S RULE

Learning Objectives

1. Pupil gets an idea about the early revolts against the English rule.

2. Pupil gains knowledge about the political, administrative, economic, social, religious and military causes for the outbreak of the Revolt of 1857.

3. Pupil understands the causes for the failure of the revolt and the results of the revolt.

4. Pupil recognises the significance of Queen Victoria's Proclamation.

The period after the Battle of Plassey witnessed exploitation of the wealth and resources of India by the East India Company. The British treated the Indians as conquered people. They introduced new political, legal and economic institutions in India. They were completely different from those prevailing during the 18th Century. Many people were affected due to their political and economic policies. They became unhappy. The grievances of the Princes, soldiers and the people added to the growing discontent. It resulted in mutinies and revolts in some parts. But the great revolt of 1857 was the most important one.

Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru, in his famous book, ***"Discovery of India",*** has written, "the very fact that a country with such a great illustrious past should be ruled over by a handful of people from a distant Island is something that makes me wild." It was the inner feeling of the entire country.

Early revolts against the British Rule – (1765 – 1856) : There was opposition, generally against the British, by the Hindu Sanyasins and Muslim Fakirs in the eastern parts of India. In South India, *Palayakkars* (Poligar) resisted the extension of the British authority in their area. They rose against the British under the leadership of *Maruthu Brothers, Veera Pandya Katta Bomman, Pulithevan* and *Veluthambi.* They all were noted for the patriotism, courage, self-respect and sacrifice. The *Sepoy Mutiny* at *Vellore* in 1806 manifested to the British that the Indians were not passive to accept everything. The *Barrackpore mutiny* in 1824 was another important revolt against the British authority.

The First War of Indian Independence or **The Great Revolt of 1857:** The Indian soldiers in the East India Company's army rebelled against the British in 1857. The English historians have painted this revolt as a mutiny of the sepoys. But the Indian historians describe it as the *First war of Indian Independence.* It is also known as the *Great Revolt of 1857. Lord Canning* was the Governor-General of India at that time. The causes of the Great Revolt were many. They may be classified as *political, administrative, economic, social, religious, military* and *immediate causes.*

Political Causes : The annexation policy of British was one of the major causes. The terms of the Subsidiary treaties signed by Wellesley with different rulers were never honoured unless it suited the British interests. The *Doctrine of Lapse* introduced by Dalhousie led to the outright annexation of eight states. Nana Saheb lost his pension. Rani of Jhansi was not permitted to adopt a son. They turned against the British. They were the most able leaders of the revolt. The annexation of Oudh and deposition of its ruler *Wazid Ali Shah,* made Oudh the most prominent centre of the revolt. Bahadur Shah II, the Mughal Emperor and his successors were humiliated by the British. They were prohibited from using their ancestral palace, the Red Fort, in future. Besides, the Muslims were in general dissatisfied with the British. They felt that they had lost their political power.

Administrative Causes : The Indians disliked and distrusted the administration of the British. For example, the replacement of Persian language by English as the court language was not liked by the people. The judicial system of the British was costly, mechanical and involved much time. The poor could draw no advantage from it. The

rich disliked it because they could be brought to trial even by appeals of the common men who had been subservient to them for centuries. The police system of the British was not effective by that time. The people always felt insecure of their property, life and honour. The most affected part of British administration was the revenue system. Under the British the peasants and the landlords suffered equally. The peasants had to pay heavy revenue taxes. The landlords were devoid of their special privileges. The British excluded the Indians from all high civil and military jobs. So the educated Indians who expected to get gainful employment in the service of the company were disappointed.

Economic Causes : The economic exploitation of the country, the huge drain of wealth and the disappearance of the native industries dislocated the economic life of the people in India. The British crippled Indian trade and manufacture. They imposed heavy protective duties in Britain while British goods were imported into India at a nominal duty. The machine made British goods flooded the Indian markets and ruined Indian manufacture. With the disappearance of the old aristocratic Zamindars and rulers, the Indian artisans and craftmen lost their patronage. The Indian weavers and handicraftsmen were forced to work according to the desires of the servants of the company. They in return received very little wages. Naturally they lost their interest. It destroyed the cotton textile industry of India which was the largest and most beneficial industry. Thousands of people who held administrative posts under the Indian rulers were deposed. Loss of employment affected others who were dependent on those employees for their livelihood. Lord Bentinck's resumption of rent-free tenures reduced the landowners to poverty. The out-break of seven famines in the first half of the nineteenth century made the economic distress more acute.

Social Causes : The British regarded the Indians as an inferior race. They exhibited racial arrogance. They showed contempt in their dealing with the Indians. The Indians could not travel in first class train compartments. They were kept away from all social gatherings. They were not allowed to mix up with the English men. The conservative section of the Indians were alarmed by the rapid spread of Western culture and English education in India. Measures like the suppression of Sati and female infanticide, remarriage of widows and the right of inheritance to Christian converts offended the Indian orthodox sentiments.

Religious Causes : The Christian missionaries were active in propagating Christianity. These activities created a sense of fear in the minds of the Indians. They suspected that the British were out to destroy their religions and convert India into a Christian land.

> R.D. Mangles, a member of the British Parliament, declared openly that 'Every British must try his utmost to convert every Indian to Christianity and the banner of Christ should wave triumphant from one end of India to the other.

This declaration created a great anger and disbelief against the British rule. Religious sentiments were aroused when the British imposed taxes on the lands belonging to temples and mosques. The priests and the maulvis showed their discontent against the British rule. All these activities made the British unpopular.

Military Causes : The Indian soldiers were called the Sepoys. They constituted the majority of the British army in India. In fact, the sword of the British power rested on the loyalty and strength of these Indian Sepoys. But they were treated with contempt and made to feel inferior by the British. They were paid less than their British counterparts. The Indian sepoys had no chance of promotion in the army. They were prohibited from their traditional religious practices like wearing a saffron mark on their forehead, growing beard and wearing turbans. Lord Cannings' Government passed in 1856, *"The General Services Enlistment Act".* It compelled the Indian Sepoys to serve abroad, if there was need. They had to cross the seas. It made them angry against the British.

Immediate Cause : The immediate cause was the introduction of new enfield rifles by the British. The cartridges were greased by animal fat. The bullets had thick covering which had to be bitten off before loading. Believing that the fat of cow and pig had been used to grease these cartridges both the Hindu and Muslim sepoys refused to use them. They thought that this would offend their religious tradition because the cow is sacred to the Hindus and the pig is detestable to the Muslims. On 29 March 1857 at *Barrackpore,* near Kolkata, *Mangal Pandey,* a young Indian Sepoy from Bengal Regiment, refused to use the greased cartridge, and shot down his sergeant. He was arrested, tried and executed. When this news spread many sepoys started the revolt.

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The course of the Revolt : The Sepoys brokeout into open revolt at *Meerut* in April 1857. They refused to touch the greased cartridges. They were courtmartialled and sentenced to ten years rigorous imprisonment. The regiments in *Meerut* rose in open revolt on 10 May 1857. They broke and opened the prison. They released the imprisoned soldiers. Then they marched to Delhi on 11 May and brought it under their control. They proclaimed the reluctant *Bahadur Shah II,* the old king of Delhi, as the Emperor.

The revolt at *Cawnpore* was led by *Nana Saheb,* the discontented adopted son of Peshwa Baji Rao II. The troops of Nana Saheb were led by a loyal and gallant leader *Tantia Tope.* In *Lucknow,* the revolt was directed by *Begum Hazrat Mahal* of Oudh. In *Central India* the revolt was guided by *Rani Lakshmi Bai* of Jhansi. She was one of the greatest patriots of India. Dressed in male attire, she fought like a true soldier with unprecedented courage and military skill. She captured *Gwalior.* She fought very bravely till she was killed in the battle in June 1858.
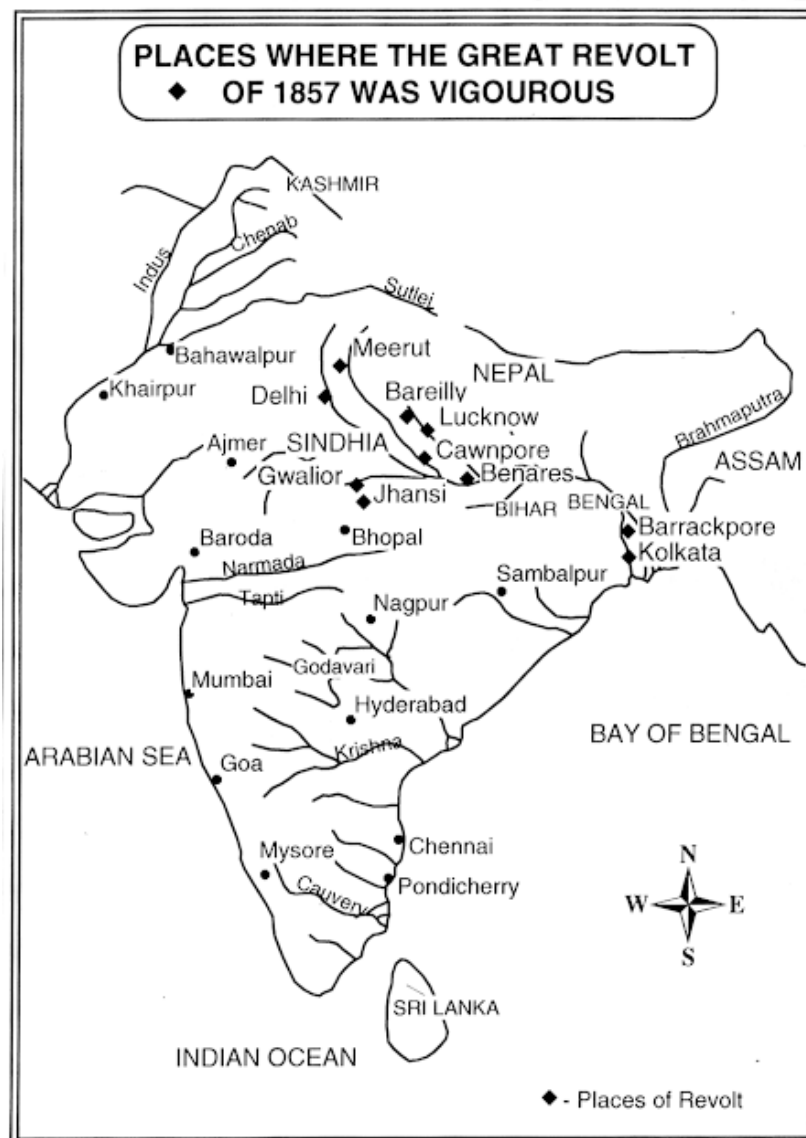
> According to the British historians, present at the time of revolt, Rani Lakshmi Bai was the best and the bravest of the leaders of the Revolt of 1857.

At *Bareily,* the capital of Rohilkhand, the Sepoys revolted. They declared a Rohila Chief as the Governor. *Kunwar Singh,* the 80 year old landlord of *Jagdishpur* was the most outstanding military leader of Western Bihar.

The greatest heroes of the revolt were however, the thousands of sepoys, peasants and the artisans who joined the leaders. They fought valiantly with great courage. In some places the civil population rose in revolt. In fact, the participation of peasants, artisans and general population gave the revolt its real strength. It made the revolt a popular uprising. However, the revolt failed to succeed due to effective suppression by the British.

Causes for the failure of the Revolt : Various causes led to the failure of the Revolt of 1857.

Lack of Unity : There was no unity among the rebels. The ideas of nationalism and unity had not yet developed. There was no common purpose among the rebels. The Sepoys of Bengal wanted to revive the medieval glories of the Mughals. Nana Saheb and Tantia Tope tried to

PLACES WHERE THE GREAT REVOLT
◆ OF 1857 WAS VIGOUROUS

KASHMIR

Indus
Chenab
Sutlej

Bahawalpur
Khairpur
Delhi
Meerut
Bareilly
Lucknow
NEPAL
Brahmaputra
ASSAM
Ajmer SINDHIA
Gwalior
Cawnpore
Benares
BIHAR BENGAL
Barrackpore
Kolkata
Jhansi
Baroda
Bhopal
Narmada
Tapti
Sambalpur
Nagpur
Mumbai
Godavari
Hyderabad
ARABIAN SEA
Goa
Krishna
BAY OF BENGAL
Mysore
Chennai
Cauvery
Pondicherry

N
W E
S

SRI LANKA
INDIAN OCEAN

◆ - Places of Revolt

re-establish the Maratha power. Rani Lakshmi Bai fought to regain her lost State. Secondly, the revolt was not widespread. It took place only in the Northern and Central parts of India. Even Bombay, the Punjab, Sind, Rajastan and South India remained quiet. The British managed to get the loyalty of the Sikhs, Afghans and the Gurkha regiments. The Gurkhas actually helped the British in suppressing the revolt.

Lack of Modern Weapons and Techniques : Mere participation or heroism could not match the latest weapons of the British. The sepoys who joined with the civilians could not face the well organised and well disciplined army of the British. The lack of resources both in trained men and money made the rebels to give up the struggle on many occasions. The Telegraphic system and Postal communications helped the British to speed up their operations.

Leadership : There was lack of good leaders on the part of the Indians. There was no organisation and planning. The rebel leaders were no match to the British Generals. Rani Lakshmi Bai, Tantia Tope and Nana Saheb were courageous but they were not good generals. Finally the English mastery of the sea enabled them to get timely reinforcement from England.

Results of the Revolt : 1. After the revolt, the English East India Company's rule came to an end, 2. The administration of India was taken over by the British Crown, 3. By a special Act, both the Board of Directors and the Board of control were abolished. In their place the office of the Secretary of State for India was created. He was assisted by an India council of 15 members, 4. The Indian army was thoroughly reorganized and 5. The policy of ruthless conquests in India was given up. The British realized the mistake of antagonising the rulers of the Indian states.

End of East India Company's Rule : With the suppression of the revolt in 1858, a new phase appeared in the history of the British rule in India. There were important changes in the British policy towards India. There were administrative changes also.

Act of 1858 and Queen Victoria's Proclamation : In August 1858, the British Parliament passed an Act. It put an end to the rule of the East India Company. The British Crown took over the administration. The Governor–General of India was also called as *Viceroy.* It meant the representative of the Crown.

Queen Victoria was the ruler of Britain at that time. A proclamation was issued in her name. Lord Canning, the Governor – General read it out at a Durbar held at **Allahabad** on **1 November 1858**. The **Queen's Proclamation** is described as the **Magna Carta** of the Indian people. It assured some privileges to Indians. It confirmed the earlier treaties of East India Company with the Princes. It promised to pay due regard to the ancient traditions and customs of India. The right of adoption was given to the Indian princes. The policy of annexation was ended. The Proclamation declared that all Indians would be eligible to enter the administrative services on the basis of their education and ability, irrespective of race and creed. Unconditional pardon was granted to the rebels except those who had been responsible for the murder of the British during the revolt.

Learing outcome

1. Pupil will be able to point out the early revolts against the British.

2. Pupil will be able to recall the political, administrative, economic, social, religious, military and immediate causes of the Great Revolt of 1857.

3. Pupil will explain the course of the Revolt.

4. Pupil will narrate the causes for the failure of the Revolt.

5. Pupil will be able to explain the results of the Revolt.

6. Pupil will explain about the Queen's Proclamation.

Self-Evaluation

I. Choose the correct answer

1. In the South, Palayakkars led the revolt under the leadership of
   a. Rani Lakshmi Bai   b. Nana Saheb
   c. Maruthu Brothers   d. Tantia Topi

2. The English Historians paint the revolt of 1857 as
   a. Mutiny of Sepoys   b. The Great Revolt
   c. War of Independence   d. Freedom Struggle

3. During the time of the Great Revolt, the Governor-General of India was

   a. Wellesley   b. Dalhousie

   c. Canning   d. Clive

4. The machine made British goods flooded the

   a. English markets   b. Indian markets

   c. Arabian markets   d. American markets

5. General Services Enlistment Act was passed in

   a. 1856   b. 1857

   c. 1858   d. 1859

6. The Revolt at Cawnpore was led by

   a. Nana Saheb   b. Rani Lakshmi Bai

   c. Mangal Pandey   d. Peshwa Baji Rao II

7. Kunwar Singh was a

   a. Teacher   b. Sepoy

   c. Landlord   d. Craftsman

8. The Sepoys of Bengal wanted to revive the medieval glories of the

   a. Marathas   b. Mughals

   c. Sikhs   d. Hindus

9. Rani Lakshmi Bai led the Revolt at

   a. Cawnpore   b. Central India

   c. Lucknow   d. Delhi

10. Viceroy means

   a. Representative of the Crown   b. Captain of the ship

   c. General of an army   d. Religious leader

II. Fill in the blanks

1. The Palayakkars were noted for their _____ and _____.

2. Indian historians describe the Revolt of 1857 as the_____.

3. The most able leaders of the Revolt of 1857 were and_____.

4. The Indian Sepoys were prohibited from their traditional and religious practices like_____,_____ and _____.

5. The General Services Enlistment Act insisted that the Indian Sepoys should serve_____.

6. The troops of Nana Saheb were led by_____.

7. The leaders who tried to re-establish the Maratha Power were_____and_____.

8. The_____helped the British in suppressing the Revolt.

9. The _____and_____systems helped the British to speed up their operation during the Revolt.

10. Queen Victoria's Proclamation was read by_____ at_____.

III. Match the following

A

1. Sepoy Mutiny of Vellore   --   1857
2. Barrackpore Mutiny   --   Emperor
3. The Great revolt   --   Jhansi
4. Bahadur Shah II   --   1824
5. Rani Lakshmi Bai   --   1806

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B

1. Mangal Pandey   --   Cawnpore
2. Bahadur Shah II   --   Oudh
3. Nana Saheb   --   Central India
4. Begum Hazrat Mahal   --   Delhi
5. Lakshmi Bai   --   Barrackpore

IV. Answer briefly

1. What do you know about the Palayakkars? Name some of them.

2. How did the annexation policy of the British lead to the Revolt?

3. Why were the muslim community dissatisfied with the British?

4. How did the British cripple Indian Trade?

5. What were the reasons for the disappearance of cotton industry in India?

6. Give a short note on R.D. Mangles' declaration.

7. What was the immediate cause for the Revolt of 1857?

8. Bring out the results of Meerut revolt.

9. What was the part of Rani Lakshmi Bai in the Revolt?

10. Mention the achievement of Kunwar Singh.

11. Why the Revolt was not widespread?

12. Prove that there was no common purpose among the leaders of the Great Revolt of 1857.

13. What was the importance of Queen Victoria's proclamation?

V. Answer in detail

1. What were the causes for the Great Revolt of 1857?

2. How did the Revolt spread in Northern and Central parts of India?

3. Enumerate the causes for the failure of the Revolt of 1857.

4. State the results of the Great Revolt of 1857.

VI. Practical exercises

On the outline map of India mark the following centres of the Revolt:

Delhi, Cawnpore, Lucknow, Meerat, Barrackpore, Barielly, Gwalior, Allahabad.

Lesson – 4

SOCIAL AND RELIGIOUS REFORM MOVEMENTS IN THE 19TH CENTURY

Learning Objectives

1. Pupil acquires knowledge about the causes for the social and religious reform movements in India.

2. Pupil gains knowledge about the aims and services of Brahmo Samaj, Arya Samaj and Ramakrishna Mission.

3. Pupil understands how Theosophical Society was formed and the services of Dr. Annie Besant to Indian Society.

4. Pupil learns about Muslim Reformation Movements and the services of Syed Ahmed Khan.

5. Pupil knows about Parsi and Sikh Reform Movements.

6. Pupil understands the effects of the social and religious reform movements.

The 19th Century India witnessed a strong wave of reformation activities in religion and society. There were attempts made by the educated young Indians to end the evils and abuses in religion and society.

Western ideas of reason, equality, liberty and humanity inspired them. They tried to remove the defects in their culture. They wanted to revive the glory of Indian culture. Hence we call the socio-religious reform movement of the 19th century India as the *Indian Renaissance* movement. Raja Rammohan Roy was the pioneer of this movement.

Causes for the Social and Religious reform movement - Political Unity : India was politically united due to the expansion and consolidation of British rule. It led to the understanding of many common problems of the Indians. The nature of the British rule provoked many young Indians to find out the causes of their misery and degradation.

Reaction against the propaganda of Christian Missionaries : The Christian missionaries made all possible attempts to spread Christianity particularly among the poor and the oppressed. Educational institutions, hospitals, charity services and official support were also made use for this purpose. Therefore, both the Hindus and the Muslims made efforts to protect their religions.
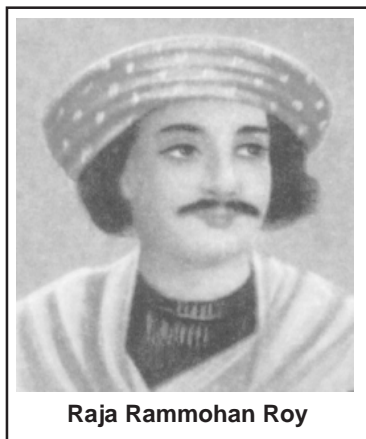
Contribution of foreign scholars : Many western scholars like *Max Muller* and *William Jones* rediscovered India's past. They studied the scholarly works of Indians of the ancient period. They brought to light the rich cultural heritage of India which was even superior to the western culture. They translated many literary and religious texts. These works received worldwide recognition. It made the educated Indians develop faith in their culture. They wanted to establish the superiority of Indian culture against the western culture.

Indian Press : The Europeans introduced the printing press in India. It made possible the appearance of many newspapers and magazines. Books were also published in different Indian languages. Mostly their subject matter was Indian. It certainly helped to open the eyes of the educated Indians with regard to the national heritage and glory. Therefore they started to work for the revival of Indian culture.

Western Education : The spread of western education led to the spread of the western concepts of democracy, liberty, equality and nationalism. The Indians who went abroad came in direct contact with the working of these concepts. After their return they were pained to see the lack of awareness among the Indians about such concepts. They did the spade work for the spread of such ideas.

> There is no denying the fact that Indian nationalism and modernism are largely the result of the efforts of the English educated Indians in different fields of life.

The Brahmo Samaj – 1828 : The *Brahmo Samaj* was established by *Raja Rammohan Roy* in 1828. He was born in a Brahmin family of Bengal. He learnt many languages like Arabic, Sanskrit, Persian, English, French, Latin, Greek and Hebrew. He also studied several religious philosophies like Hinduism, Islam, Christianity and Sufism. His primary aim was to reform the Hindu society and religion. He wrote a number of books in Bengali, Hindi, Sanskrit, Persian and English. *Precepts of Jesus Christ, The Guide* to *Peace* and *Happiness* are some of them. He started newspapers one in Bengali, and the other in Persian. He was given the title of *Raja* and sent to England by the Mughal Emperor Akbar II as his envoy.

Raja Rammohan Roy

The Brahmo Samaj was an assembly of all those who believed in a universal religion based on the principle of one Supreme God. Raja Rammohan Roy condemned idol worship, rites and rituals. But he never lost his faith in Hinduism and the Vedas. The Brahmo Samaj condemned caste, untouchability, the practice of Sati and image worship.

In order to improve the position of women Raja Rammohan Roy and Lord William Bentinck tried to abolish Sati. Bentinck declared in 1829 that the practice of Sati as an offence, punishable with death sentence.

> Do you know the incident which made Rammohan to turn against this evil practice? The young Rammohan had seen how the wife of his elder brother, who was so dearer to him, was forced to commit Sati. It made a deep wound in his tender heart. Therefore he made up his mind to eradicate this evil practice at his young age.

The Brahmo Samaj also opposed child marriage and polygamy. It supported widow remarriage. Due to the efforts of *Keshab Chandra*

Sen, one of the leaders of Brahmo Samaj, an Act was passed in 1872. It abolished polygamy and childmarriage. The Act also supported intercaste marriage and widow remarriage.

After the death of Raja Rammohan Roy, the work of the Samaj was carried by great men like **Keshab Chandra Sen** and **Devendranath Tagore.**

The Arya Samaj – 1875 : *Swami Dayananda Saraswathi* started the *Arya Samaj* in 1875. He was born at a small town in Gujarat in a conservative Brahmin family. His childhood name was **Mul Shankar.** He met **Swami Vrajanand** at **Mathura.** He became the disciple of Vrajanand. There he studied **Vedas.** He devoted his life to the propagation of the Vedas. He wanted to reform the Hindu Society.

Swami Dayananda Saraswathi

According to Dayananda Saraswathi the Vedas contained all the truth. His motto was *"Go Back to the Vedas".* His book **Sathyartha Prakash** contains his views about Vedas.

In the field of religion Arya Samaj opposed *idol worship, ritualism, animal sacrifice, the idea of heaven* and *hell* and *the concept of fatalism.* Dayananda Saraswathi started **Suddhi movement** to reconvert the Hindus who had been converted to other religions earlier. By his efforts, large number of people were taken back within the fold of Hinduism.

Swami Dayananda Saraswathi is described as the Martin Luther of Hinduism. Martin Luther was a great religious reformer of Germany.

The Arya Samaj provided useful service to Hindu society. It opposed child marriage, polygamy, purdah system, casteism and the practice of Sati. The Samaj insisted the education of the women and upliftment of the depressed classes. Intercaste marriages and inter-dining were encouraged. The Samaj established a number of educational institutions in India particularly in the North. Gurukulas and

Kanya Gurukulas provide education mostly on Sanskrit, the Vedas and Ayur Vedas. Dayanand Anglo-Vedic (DAV) Schools and Colleges provide modern education in humanities and sciences. His followers *Lala Lajpat Rai, Lala Hansraj* and *Pandit Guru Dutt* propagated the ideas of the Arya Samaj. Many Indian national leaders like *Bala Gangadhara Tilak* and *Gopala Krishna Gokhale* were deeply influenced by the philosophy and principles of the Arya Samaj.

> Swami Dayananda was perhaps the first Indian to preach the gospal of 'Swadesh' and 'India for Indians'. His another motto was 'Satyam Eva Jayate', 'Na Anritam' which means truth alone triumphs and not untruth.

Theosophical Society – 1875 : The word *theosophy* has been coined by combining two Greek words *Theos* and *Sophos.* Theos means God and Sophos means wisdom. Therefore theosophy means *knowledge of God.* In Sanskrit it is called *Brahma Gyan.* The society was first established by *Madame Blavatsky* and *Colonel H.S. Olcott* in the United States of America. They were inspired by Indian thought and culture. Then they shifted the headquarters of the society to *Adyar* in Chennai.

The main principles of the Theosophical Society : They are 1. To form an organization of all people on the basis of fraternity, 2. To study ancient religion, philosophy and science and 3. To find out the laws of Nature and development of divine powers in man.

Mrs. Annie Besant, a prominent member of this Society came to India in 1893. She became the President of this society. She devoted herself to the revival of Hindu religion. Her activities in the field of education were more significant. She founded the *Central Hindu College* at *Benares* which was ultimately merged with the *Benares Hindu University.* Her paper *"New India"* spread the theosophical ideas. Later she started the *Home Rule Movement* to give momentum to the national movement in India.

Rama Krishna Mission – 1897 : Another important reformer of the 19th century was *Rama Krishna Paramahamsa.* He was a priest in a temple of Kali at *Dakshineswar* near Kolkata. He had no formal education. However, he won the hearts of all who gathered around him by his simplicity of character and homely wisdom. He had deep faith in the basic truth of all religions. He preached the unity of all religions. He

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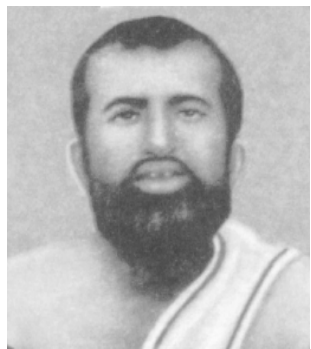
Rama Krishna Paramahamsa

explained the principles contained in the Vedas and Upanishads through simple stories, called *parables.* He stressed that every individual is a part of God. Therefore, according to him *"service to man means service to God."*

The credit of propagating his ideas goes to his great disciple, *Swami Vivekananda.* Vivekananda's childhood name was *Narendra Nath.* He was educated in English schools and graduated himself. He studied the works of the western philosophers. Once he went to meet Ramakrishna in the Kali Temple. He was attracted by him. From that time onwards he moved closer with Ramakrishna Paramahamsa. After the death of Ramakrishna, Vivekananda carried the messages of his master all over India. His eloquence and personality endeared both Princes and Peasants around him. According to Vivekananda, *"The best way to Serve God is to serve the poor and the downtrodden."* It became his motto.

Swami Vivekananda

He participated in the *World Religious Congregation* held at *Chicago* in the United States of America in 1893. He started his speech by addressing the audience with the words, *"Brothers and Sisters of this universe."* Vivekananda raised the prestige of Indian culture and religion in the eyes of the world. His speeches at Chicago and other places in the United States of America and the United Kingdom brought him fame and friends.

Ramakrishna Mission was established in 1897 by Swami Vivekananda at Belur near Kolkata. It has branches all over India and the other parts of the world. The Missions' motto is *"Service to humanity".* It serves for the education, upliftment of women, removal of poverty among the poor and downtrodden. The Mission has opened

many schools, technical institutions, Orphanages and hospitals. It also rendered service to the people in times of distress caused by natural calamities like flood and famine.

> Swami Vivekananda made a solid contribution towards Hindu religion, culture, society and Indian nationalism. The Ramakrishna Mission, therefore, became a strong movement. It is still doing useful service to the Indian Society.

Muslim Movements : For a long time, the Muslims remained outside the influence of western education and the British rule. Reform movements among the Muslim community began in the later half of the 19th century. They aimed at the spread of modern education and removal of social abuses like the Purdha System and polygamy. In the beginning **Mohammeden Literary Society** of Kolkata was founded in 1863 by **Nawab Abdul Latif.** It played an important role in the spread of education among the Muslims and started a number of schools in Bengal.

Syed Ahmed Khan and Aligarh Movement : The most important movement for the spread of modern education and social reforms among the Muslims was started by **Sir Syed Ahmed Khan.** He had been in the service of British Government as a judicial officer. He remained loyal to them during the revolt of 1857. He insisted on the co-operation of the Muslims with the British Government. So he opposed the Indian National Congress. He believed that the Muslims would be affected if they started taking part in political agitation.

Though Syed Ahmed Khan opposed the Indian National Congress, he insisted the unity between the Hindus and Muslims. He viewed that both the Hindus and the Muslims belong to the same country and the progress of the country depend on their unity.

Sir Syed Ahmed Khan

In 1864 Sir Syed Ahmed Khan started a school at **Ghazipur.** It was later called as the **Scientific Society.** The Society translated many

scientific works into Urdu and published them. His greatest achievement was the establishment of the **Mohammeden Anglo Oriental College (MAO)** at **Aligarh** in 1875. In course of time, this became the most important educational institution of Indian Muslims. It later developed into the **Aligarh Muslim University.** The reform movement started by Sir Syed Ahmad Khan was called the **Aligarh Movement.** He was in favour of the abolition of Purdah and education of women. He propagated his views through his magazine called **Tahzil-ud-Akhlaq** (Reform of Morals). A large number of societies were started for the service of the Muslim community.

Parsi and Sikh Reform Movements : **Dadabai Naoroji** and **Naoroji Furdoonji** were the pioneers of religious and social reform among the Parsi community. For the progress of women and the spread of modern education they, together, started a journal **Rast Goftar.** Another important social reformer in the Parsi community was **Sorabji Bengali.**

Among the **Sikhs,** the movement for reform was started by the **Singh Sabhas.** They were started at **Amristar** and **Lahore.** The two Sabhas merged together and played an important role in the spread of education. The **Khalsa College** was founded at **Amristar** in 1892 and many schools were also started.

In the early decades of the 20th century, the **Gurudwaras** (the places of worship for the Sikhs) were under the control of priests and Mahants. They treated them as their private property. Both **Shiromany Gurudwara Prabandhak Committee** and the **Akali Dal party** aimed at handing over the control of the Gurudwaras to the representative of the Sikh community. The leaders of the freedom movement supported them. In 1925 a law was passed which gave the right of managing the Gurudwaras to the Shiromany Gurudwara Prabandhak Committee.

Effects of The Reform Movements : 1. The reform movements brought about remarkable changes in the society and religion. Initially the great changes affected a small group of people, but gradually these ideas spread among many sections of the people, 2. The reform movements strengthened the Hindu and Muslim religions and made efforts to remove social evils among them, 3. The educated Indians started to think reasonably, 4. The reform movements helped in the revival of the past glory. They also helped in making up of a modern

India, 5. It led to the progress of literature in different regional languages, 6. The caste system began to lose its hold on the society, 7. There was a significant achievement in the field of emancipation of women. Some legal measures were introduced to raise their status, 8. To travel abroad, which was considered as a sin before, was accepted, 9. The reform movements created the rise of a middle class which consisted of the teachers, the doctors, the lawyers, the scientists, and the journalists who helped in the progress of India in different fields and 10. The reform movements also contributed for the growth of Indian Nationalism as the reform activities united the people all over India and created a feeling of oneness.

Learning Outcome

1. Pupil will be able to explain the causes for the social and religious movements in the 19th century.

2. Pupil will be able to narrate the services of Raja Rammohan Roy and Dayananda Saraswathi.

3. Pupil will recall the services of Ramakrishna Paramahamsa, Vivekananda and Annie Besant to the Indian Society.

4. People will describe the rise of Aligarh movement and the services of Sir Syed Ahmad Khan.

5. Pupil will gain knowledge about Parsi and Sikh Movements.

6. Pupil will estimate the effects of social and religious movements.

Self-Evaluation

I. Choose the correct answer

1. During the 19th century, the people who made attempts to end the evils and abuses present in the society were the
   a. Indian soldiers   b. educated Indians
   c. uneducated Indians   d. landlords

2. The pioneer of the socio-religious reform movement in India was
   a. Rammohan Roy   b. Dayananda Saraswathi
   c. Annie Besant   d. Vivekananda

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3. The Brahmo Samaj was established by
   a. Dayananda Saraswathi
   b. Raja Rammohan Roy
   c. Sir Syed Ahmad Khan
   d. Dr. Annie Besant

4. Rammohan Roy started two newspapers in
   a. English and Bengali
   b. Bengali and Persian
   c. Persian and Hindi
   d. Hindi and English

5. The childhood name of Swami Dayananda Saraswathi was
   a. Narender
   b. Mul Shankar
   c. Dayananda
   d. Chandra Sen

6. The word Theosophy is derived from the
   a. English language
   b. Greek language
   c. Persian language
   d. Urdu language

7. The Headquarters of the Theosophical society is in
   a. Chennai
   b. Kolkata
   c. Delhi
   d. Mumbai

8. World Religious Congregation in 1893 was held at
   a. London
   b. Chicago
   c. Kolkata
   d. Egypt

9. Rast Goftar was a
   a. city
   b. journal
   c. king
   d. social movement

10. Sir Syed Ahmed Khan propagated his views through his magazine called
    a. Madras Mail
    b. The Maratha
    c. Tahzil ud Akhlaq
    d. The Hindu

II. Fill in the blanks

1. The second half of the 19th century was marked by a strong wave of reformative activities in _____ and _____.

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2. The famous western scholars who studied the ancient Indian literature were _____and _____.

3. The_____made all possible attempts to convert many Indians to their religion _____.

4. The western concepts which the Indians came in contact with during the 19th century were_____and _____.

5. The books written by Raja Rammohan Roy were_____and _____.

6. The primary aim of Raja Rammohan Roy was to improve_____.

7. Mul Shanker became the disciple of _____and studied the Vedas.

8. The motto of Dayananda Saraswathi was_____

9. The Indian National leaders who were influenced by the principles of the Arya Samaj were _____and _____.

10. In Sanskrit, theosophy is called _____.

11. The Theosophical society was established by _____and _____.

12. According to Vivekananda, the best way to serve God is to serve _____and _____.

13. The social abuses like _____and _____ prevailed among the Muslim community.

14. The pioneers of religious and social reforms in the Parsi community were _____and _____.

15. In 1892 the _____College was founded at Amristar.

III. Match the following

A

1. Brahmo Samaj	--	Bala Gangadara Tilak
2. Sathyarth Prakash	--	Modern education
3. National Leader	--	Vedas and Upanishads
4. DAV School	--	Swami Dayananda Saraswathi
5. Gurukulas	--	Devandranath Tagore

B

1. Raja Rammohan Roy	--	Arya Samaj
2. Swami Dayananda Saraswathi	--	Ramakrishna Mission
3. Dr. Annie Besant	--	Brahmo Samaj
4. Swami Vivekananda	--	Aligarh Movement
5. Sir Syed Ahmad Khan	--	Theosophical Society

IV. Answer briefly

1. Mention the western ideas which inspired the Indians to remove the defects of their culture.

2. Bring out the results of the new thoughts which impressed the Indians.

3. What was the necessity for the Hindus and Muslims to protect their religions from the Christian Missionaries?

4. What were the contribution of Western scholars to our literature?

5. Mention the role of Indian Press in social and religious reform movement in the 19th Century.

6. Explain the services of Rammohan Roy for the improvement of the position of women.

7. Give a short note on Keshab Chandra Sen.

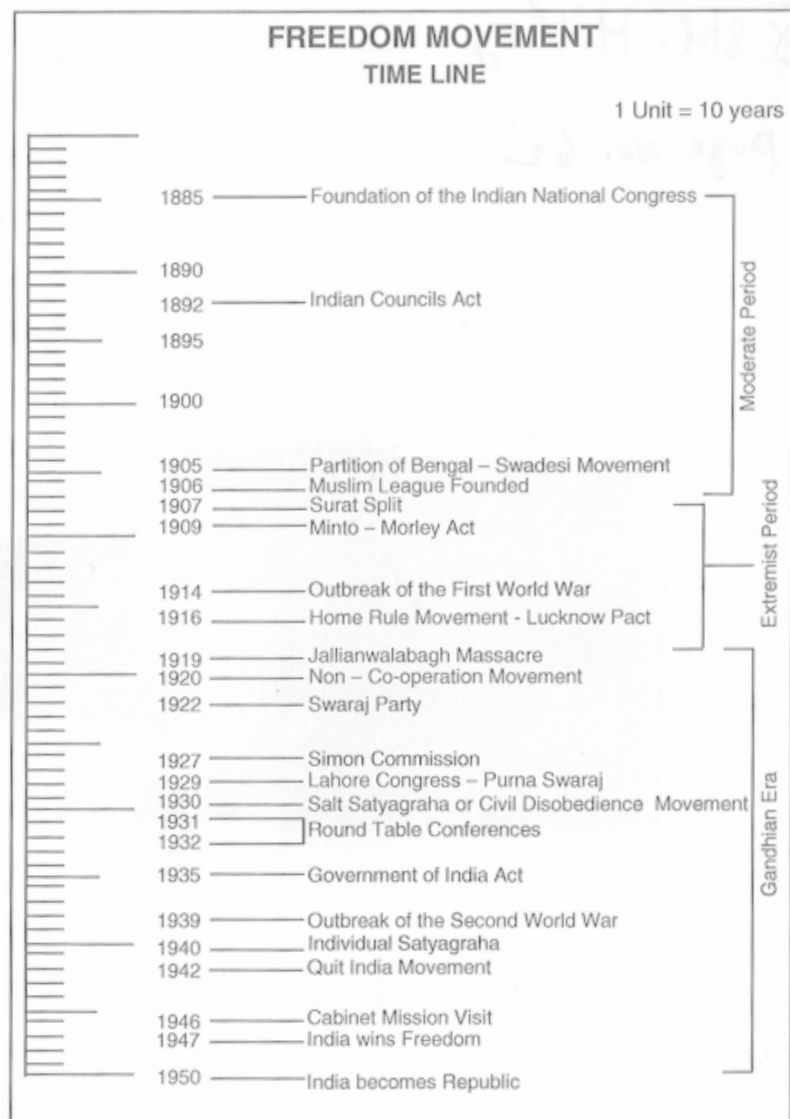8. Who is known as Martin Luther of Hinduism? Why?

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9. Mention the services rendered by Arya Samaj to Hindu Society.

10. Name some of the followers of Swami Dayananda Saraswathi.

11. When, where and by whom the Theosophical Society was formed?

12. What are the main principles of the Theosophical Society?

13. How did Dr. Annie Besant spread the ideas of the Theosophical Movement?

14. How did Sri Ramakrishna preach the people?

15. Give a short note on the Religious Congregation at Chicago in 1893.

16. Bring out the services of Ramakrishna Mission.

17. What was the main aim of Mohammedan Literary Society?

18. Why did Sir Syed Ahmed Khan oppose the Indian National Congress?

19. How did the Gurudwaras come under the control of the representatives of the Sikh community?

V. Answer in detail

1. Bring out the causes for the social and religious reform movements in India.

2. Discuss the role of Raja Rammohan Roy and the Brahmo Samaj in reforming the Hindu Society.

3. Give an account of Muslim Reform Movements

4. Enumerate the effects of the social and religious movements in the 19th Century.

VI. Practical exercise

1. Read books on the lives and works of the reformers.

2. Involve yourself in rendering service to the society like the members of Ramakrishna Mission.

FREEDOM MOVEMENT
TIME LINE

1 Unit = 10 years

Year	Event
1885	Foundation of the Indian National Congress
1890	
1892	Indian Councils Act
1895	
1900	
1905	Partition of Bengal – Swadesi Movement
1906	Muslim League Founded
1907	Surat Split
1909	Minto – Morley Act
1914	Outbreak of the First World War
1916	Home Rule Movement - Lucknow Pact
1919	Jallianwalabagh Massacre
1920	Non – Co-operation Movement
1922	Swaraj Party
1927	Simon Commission
1929	Lahore Congress – Purna Swaraj
1930	Salt Satyagraha or Civil Disobedience Movement
1931 1932	Round Table Conferences
1935	Government of India Act
1939	Outbreak of the Second World War
1940	Individual Satyagraha
1942	Quit India Movement
1946	Cabinet Mission Visit
1947	India wins Freedom
1950	India becomes Republic

Moderate Period

Extremist Period

Gandhian Era

Lesson – 5

EMERGENCE AND GROWTH OF
THE INDIAN NATIONAL MOVEMENT

Learning Objectives

1. Pupil understands how the administrative measures of Lord Lytton were against the interests of the Indians.

2. Pupil knows about the reforms of Lord Ripon and Lord Curzon.

3. Pupil learns the factors leading to the emergence and growth of Indian Nationalism.

4. Pupil understands the aims of Indian National Congress.

5. Pupil understands the goal of the Extremists.

6. Pupil acquires knowledge about partition of Bengal, Swadeshi Movement, Formation of Muslim League, Surat Spilt and Minto Morley Reforms.

7. Pupil learns about the Home Rule Movement, Lucknow Pact and Montague-Chelmsford Reforms.

CHANGES IN ADMINISTRATION AFTER 1858

After the Great Revolt of 1857 the administration of India passed from the hands of the Company to the British Crown in 1858. The Crown, acting through the Secretary of State for India, directly assumed the Indian administration. A 15 member *India Council* was set up at London to assist the Secretary of State, who controlled the administration of India.

The Governor-General of India was also designated as the *Viceroy.* He was made answerable to the Secretary of State in

England. The British Parliament passed the Indian Councils Act in 1861. It increased the number of members of the Governor-Generals Council to 12. The Governor-General could nominate these members. Among the members some were Indians. The Legislative Council had only limited powers.

In respect of Provincial Administration, Legislative Councils were introduced in 1861. These Councils were only the handmaid of the British Governor in the Provinces. Their main intention was to protect and promote the British political and economic interests in India. The British administration protected the interests of the British merchants, industrialists and civil servants. These groups adopted policies which were harmful to Indians. Inspite of all these things, it is to be mentioned that in 1870 a Telegraph line was laid between India and England. The imperial policy of the British was asserted. It was more visible from the steps of Lord Lytton.

INTERNAL ADMINISTRATION OF LORD LYTTON, LORD RIPON AND LORD CURZON

Lord Lytton (1876 – 1880) : Lord Lytton became the Viceroy of India in 1876. He was a man of literary taste. But he had no previous experience of administration. He also lacked knowledge about Indian affairs. He effected several administrative changes in India. They were meant only to serve the interests of Britain. Indians became dissatisfied of his measures.

The Second Afghan War : When Lytton was the Governor-General of India, the British feared the increased influence of Russia in Afghanistan. It was thought that Russia would invade India. To prevent Russian expansion, Lord Lytton decided to have a complete control over Afghanistan. So he sent the British troops to attack Afghanistan in 1878. The ruler Amir *Sher Ali,* fled to Russia. The British signed a treaty with the new ruler. An English Resident was stationed at Kabul. To suppress a revolt Afghanistan was invaded for the second time and occupied by the British. This unnecessary war was waged when the Indian economy was in very bad shape.

Famine 1876 – 1878 : A serious famine occurred in India during the period from 1876 to 1878. The worst affected areas were *Chennai, Mumbai, Hyderabad, Punjab* and some parts of *Central Madhya*

Pradesh. Lakhs of people died. Many villages were depopulated. Vast stretch of lands were left uncultivated. At that time Lord Lytton imposed Custom duty on textile goods exported to England. He also held a *Durbar at Delhi* in 1877 in which Queen Victoria was declared as the *Empress of India.* This extravagant Darbar cost millions of ruppes.

> It was a case of Nero fiddling when Rome was burning.

Vernacular Press Act 1878 : Indian newspapers sympathised with the grievances of the people. They wrote against Lyttons' measures and the British rule. Therefore Lytton restricted the liberty of the Indian Press by passing the Vernacular Press Act in 1878. The vernacular newspapers and periodicals were subjected to strict censorship. This was naturally resented to by the Indians.

The Indian Arms Act 1878 : Lytton's Government passed the Indian Arms Act in 1878. It compelled the Indians to have licence to keep, sell or purchase arms. The offenders were to be punished both with fine and imprisonment. But the English, Anglo-Indians and government servants of certain categories were exempted from this Act. Thus most of the administrative measures of Lord Lytton were against the interests of the Indians.
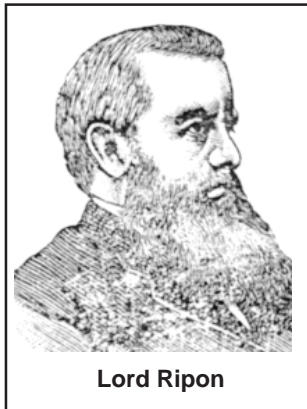
Lord Ripon (1880 – 1884) : Lord Ripon became the Governor-General of India in 1880. He was liberal minded. He not only understood the aspirations of the educated Indians but also sympathised with them. He wanted to give the Indians an increasing share in the administration of the country. He, therefore, abolished the repressive measures of Lytton.

Lord Ripon

Factory Act 1881 : Ripon's Government passed the *First Factories Act in 1881.* It fixed the number of working hours for children below the age of twelve. It also insisted that dangerous machines should be fenced. Inspectors were appointed to supervise the implementation of the Act.

Repeal of the Vernacular Press Act 1881 : In the same year Lord Ripon repealed the most hated Vernacular Press Act passed by Lord Lytton. It led to the freedom of the press again.

Census of India 1881 : With a view to administer the country in a better manner, Lord Ripon introduced the Census system in India in 1881.

Education Commission 1882 : Lord Ripon appointed an Education Commission in 1882. Its Chairman was *Sir W.W. Hunter.* The Commission suggested the improvement of Primary and Secondary education. It also suggested the establishment of model schools in every district. Secondary education was encouraged with the further extension of grants-in-aid to private institutions. The commission also recommended to the government to pay more attention towards female education. Lord Ripon was instrumental in the foundation of the *Punjab University.*

Local Self Government : The most popular reform of Ripon was his measure for the decentralization of administrative and financial control. His Government passed a series of Acts in 1883 – 1884 for the establishment of *Local Self Government* in India. According to them *District* and *Taluk Boards* were set up throughout the country. These local self-governing bodies were entrusted with the task of promoting education, public health, drinking water, hygiene and sanitation and the maintenance of roads. They had appropriate funds to carry out these duties. In order to give training to the Indians to manage their affairs, election, rather than nomination, was adopted. This reform earned Lord Ripon the title *'Father of Local Self Government'.*

Ilbert Bill : The Law Member of Ripon's Government, *C.P. Ilbert* brought a Bill in 1883. It is called as *Ilbert Bill.* According to it Indian magistrates were to be given the right to try the British accused. It made the Indian judges equal in power to the European judges. Therefore the European community, opposed the Bill vehemently. The bill had to be amended subsequently. According to it the British accused could be tried by a 'jury consisting of atleast half European members.'

Lord Ripon was a firm believer in free trade. He abolished many import duties. He reduced the salt tax and tried to improve the collection of land revenue.

Lord Curzon (1899 – 1905) : Lord Curzon had visited India several times before his appointment as Viceroy. He was a determined and laborious man. He believed in the superiority of the English race and its right to rule over India.

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Reforms - Famine and Plague Relief : When Lord Curzon came to India, a severe famine affected various parts of Central and North India due to the failure of monsoons. In addition to that plague broke out in several parts of India. Curzon appointed a *Famine Commission* and allocated a large sum of money for relief work.

Agricultural Reforms : To help the rural people, Lord Curzon introduced various agricultural reforms. Loans were given to peasants on easy terms of repayment. Co-operative societies were established in different parts of the country. An *Agricultural Research Institute* was started at *Pusa* in Bengal. Its aim was to carryout researches in the field of agriculture. Irrigation was improved and canals were dug in large numbers.

Military Reforms : Curzon reorganized the transport system of the army. He provided new arms and guns. The *Imperial Cadet Corps* was founded to train young men for military service.

Ancient Monuments Preservation Act : In 1904, Lord Curzon passed this Act to preserve the ancient monuments. He established the *Department of Archaeology and Epigraphy.* The priceless treasures of Indian Art and Architecture at Nalanda, Taxila, Sanchi, Elephanta caves and Saranath were preserved.

Educational Reforms : The Indian Universities Act was passed in 1904. Lord Curzon revised the whole system of education. He centralized it under a Director General of Education. Grants were given to primary schools. A vigorous campaign was started to improve education. A committee was set up to improve the functions of the universities.

Partition of Bengal 1905 : Lord Curzon's decision to partition Bengal in 1905 was the greatest blow to the national aspirations of Indians. No doubt Bengal, which included Bihar and a part of Orissa, was a very large province. Administration of such a large province was difficult. But the problem could have been solved as it was done later by making Bihar a separate province. But Curzon declared that Bengal would be partitioned by merging East Bengal and Assam into one province and West Bengal and Bihar into another. Dacca was the headquarters of East Bengal and Kolkata was the headquarters of West Bengal. The Muslims were the majority community in East Bengal and the Hindus were large in number in Western Bengal.

The main aim of Curzon was to break the solidarity of the Bengali speaking population and to check the progress of the national movement. He wanted to create a rift among the Hindus and Muslims. But it resulted in opposite reaction. The population of Bengal rose in protest as one people. Muslims, moderates and extremists made joint efforts to stop the partition. They called it as an introduction of the policy of *Divide and Rule.* Due to the violent criticism and agitation by the Indians Bengal was unified as one province in 1911.

Emergence of Indian Nationalism : The period after the great revolt of 1857 was a period of disappointment. The promises made by Queen Victoria in her proclamation were never kept. Indians realized that foreign rule was the real barrier to India's economic, political and cultural progress. The growth of Indian Nationalism started in this period. The religious and social reform movements contributed to its further development.

Factors leading to the emergence of Indian Nationalism - Political unity : British rule brought about the political unification of the country. It enabled the people to think India as one nation. The social and religious reform movements also brought awakening and the people together.

Economic Exploitation by the British : The aim of the British was to drain the wealth of India to their country. Towards the end of the 19th Century India became an exporter of raw materials and a market for British finished products. It was also a place for investing British capital to make profit.

Contact with other European Nations : English language became the language of the educated Indians. Indians came in contact with the ideas and culture of western countries. Moreover the Indians were motivated by the unification of Germany and Italy. Hence they wanted to fight for their freedom.

Social and Religious movements of the 19th Century : Raja Rammohan Roy, Swamy Dayananda Saraswathi, Ramakrishna Paramahamsa, Swami Vivekananda and Dr. Annie Besant revived the glory of India and the Indians. They did the spade work for the birth of the national movement in India. Dayananda Saraswathi was the first Indian who used the word Swaraj.

Development of Communication and Transport : Railways, telegraphs, wireless, postal services, construction of roads and canals helped industrial growth. The industrial growth united the people of India.

Press and newspapers : Indian press played an important role in the growth and spread of Nationalism. A large number of newspapers were published in different regional languages. Most of these papers were anti-British. *The Social Reformer, the Times of India, the Madras Mail, the Statesman, the Hindu, the Amrit Bazaar Patrika, the Kesari, the Maratha, the Tribune, the Bombay Samachar and Rast Goftar* were quite popular. They echoed the public opinion and developed a national outlook among the masses. The writings of Bankim Chandra Chatterjee, Rabindranath Tagore, Subramania Bharathi and other patriotic writers brought national awakening among the Indians. *The Vernacular Press Act of 1878* curbed the freedom of the press. The Arms Act of 1878 forbade the possession of arms by Indians. It was in these circumstances that the *Indian National Congress* was formed in *1885* to fight for the rights of the Indians.

The Indian National Congress – 1885 : The dis-illusioned people of India formed an organization called the *Indian National Congress.* It was founded in 1885. *Allan Octavian Hume,* a retired British civil servant, was mainly instrumental in the formation of the Congress. The first session of the Congress was held at *Mumbai. W.C. Bannerjee* chaired the first session. Delegates from all parts of the country including Dadabai Naoroji, Surendranath Banerjee, Madan Mohan Malavya, M.G. Ranade, Gopala Krishna Gokhale, Pheroze Shah Metha, G. Subramaniya Iyer and other liberal leaders attended the meeting.

Initial aims of the Indian National Congress - The initial aims of the Indian National Congress were : 1. Greater representation and expansion of legislative councils, 2. Spread of education, 3. Freedom of press, 4. Separation of Judiciary from executive, 5. Holding of Indian Civil Service (I.C.S.) examination in India, 6. Reduction of military expenditure and 7. Increase of import duties on foreign goods.

Moderates (1885 – 1909) : The Congress was initially peaceful and moderate in its activities. The Congress leaders, in the early stages, came from educated middle class. They believed in the fairness of British justice. They adopted peaceful methods to press their demands and claims. *Surendranath Banerjee, Dadabai Naoroji, Pheroze*

Shah Metha, Gopalakrishna Gokhale and *M.G. Ranade* were some of the leaders. They were known as the Moderates of the Congress. Throughout the 19th Century, the Congress was concerned with its criticism of the government policies and demands for reforms. The demands of the moderates were described as *Political Mendicancy* by the younger elements in the Congress. Their aggressiveness led to the birth of extremism in the national movement.


Gopalakrishna Gokhale

Militant Nationalists : The British Government was friendly towards the Congress in the beginning. But with the growth of radical ideas in the Congress, there was a change in the attitude of the government towards the Congress. It did not pay any attention to the demands of the Congress. A section of the Congress began to lose faith in the methods of the Moderates. The important leaders of this section were *Bala Gangadhara Tilak (Bal), Lala Lajpat Rai* (Lal)*, Bibin Chandra Pal* (Pal)*, and Arabindo Ghosh.*

Lala Lajpat Rai, Bal Gangadhar Tilak and Bipin Chandra Pal

They had a strong determination to fight for Indian independence. They believed in organizing mass protests, criticising policies, boycotting foreign goods and use of Swadeshi (home made) goods instead of making petitions to the government. They did not depend on the mercy of the government for independence. On the contrary, they believed that it was their right. Bala Gangadhara Tilak declared, **"Swaraj is my Birth Right and I shall Have it".** Subramania Bharathi, Subramania Siva and V.O. Chidambaranar in Tamilnadu were the
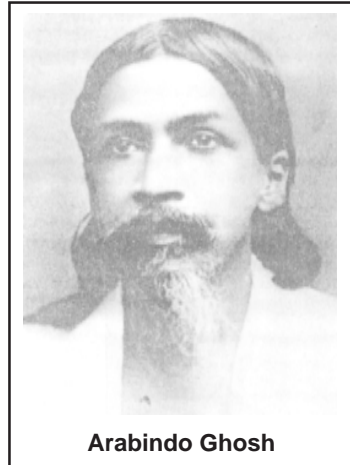
Arabindo Ghosh

close associates of Tilak. Tilak propagated his ideas through his newspaper **Kesari.** Bipin Chandra Pal expressed his views with the help of **New India.** The moderate policy of passive resistance, which means not doing anything that helps the government, was explained by Arbindo Ghosh in the magazine **Bande Matram.** Thus the Militant Nationalists desired to change not only the aim of the Congress but also the means to attain it.

Swadeshi Movement : Lord Curzon partitioned Bengal in 1905. It had indirectly helped the Congress movement. Instead of dividing the people, the partition of Bengal united them. It paved the way for the birth

V.O. Chidambaram Pillai

of the **Swadeshi Movement,** an economic boycott. Swadeshi, literally means of "one's own country". It aimed at the promotion of native industries. Inspired by Swadeshi movement, many people boycotted British goods, especially textiles. They promote, indigenous industries. They collected the foreign clothes and burnt them to ashes in the central parts of the cities. A large number of young men left their studies and joined this movement. They adopted the Slogan **Vande Matharam** –

A great regard to the Mother country. In the South, **V.O. Chidambaram Pillai** of Tuticorin, popularly known as V.O.C., established the **Swadeshi Steam Navigation Company** for carrying trade between India and Ceylon.

Formation of the Muslim League – 1906 : The foundation of Indian National Congress created a fear among the Muslims. A large number of educated Muslims also felt the need for a separate organisation to represent the interests of the Muslims. The British who followed the policy of **Divide and Rule** accepted the demand of the Muslims. The Muslim League was set up under the leadership of **Salimullah Khan,** the Nawab of Dacca, in 1906. The Muslim League aimed to protect the rights of the Muslims and to remain loyal to the British Government.

Surat Split – 1907 : The difference of opinion between the **Moderates** and the **Militant Nationalists** or the **Extremists** went on increasing. The Extremists desired that the Congress should declare Swaraj as its goal. But the Moderates were not prepared to take such aggressive steps which would bring direct conflict with the British Government. A rift arose between them over the election of the Congress President at the Surat Session in 1907. The Congress became divided and the Extremists left the Congress. This is known as the **Surat Split.**

Minto Morley Reforms – 1909 : Minto, the Viceroy and Morley, the Secretary of State for India jointly proposed reforms to the Indian Councils. An Act, called the **Indian Councils Act or the Minto-Morley Reforms Act** was passed in 1909. It introduced reforms in the functioning of the Indian Councils. It increased the number of elected members in the Councils. A separate communal electorate was introduced for the Muslims. It was strongly disapproved by the Congress. The triple leadership of **Bal, Lal** and **Pal** by their vigorous speeches and writings aroused a fighting spirit all over India. The words of Mazzini *"take up the Sword and Destroy the Government. Because it is foreign and aggressive"* echoed in the minds of Indians. In fact, the policy of Divide and Rule made the Moderates indifferent towards the Government and paved the way for their re-union with the Extremists at the **Lucknow Session** in 1916.

The First World War 1914 – 1918 : The First World War broke-out in 1914. The British Government wanted India to participate in the war on behalf of Britain. Eventhough the leaders were unwilling in the beginning, they did not object to Indian soldiers taking part in the war.

Home Rule Movement 1916 : Bala Gangadhara Tilak formed the *Home Rule League* in Mumbai in 1916. Mrs. Annie Besant, an Irish lady, was associated with the Theosophical Society at Adyar. Gradually she involved herself in the Indian National Movement. She also started a Home Rule League in Chennai. The two leagues carried on propaganda in favour of Home Rule Movement or Self Government for Indians. *Motilal Nehru* and *C.R. Das* supported the movement. Dr. Annie Besant created tremendous enthusiasm among the people by her speeches and writings.
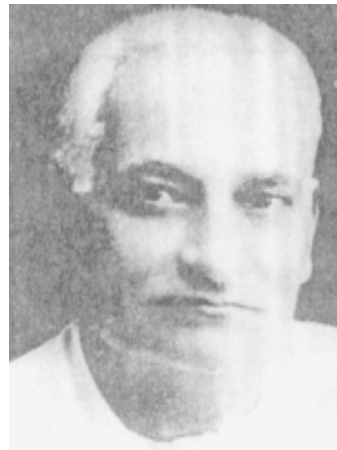
Motilal Nehru

C.R. Das

Her paper *New India* was banned. Both the leaders Tilak and Annie Besant were arrested. It was at that time the famous *August Declaration* of Montague was announced in 1917. It promised responsible Government to the people of India by stages. The Indians whole-heartedly supported the British war efforts in the hope of getting self-government after the war. Hence the Home Rule Movement lost its importance.

Lucknow Pact–1916 : Two important historic developments took place in the Lucknow Session of the Indian National Congress. Firstly, the Moderates and the Extremists joined together. They presented a united front. Secondly, the Congress and the Muslim League signed a pact agreeing to Co-operate with each other in order to achieve self-government.

It was at this session Jawaharlal Nehru met Gandhiji for the first time.

End of the World War I – 1918 : The First World War came to an end in 1918. The Indians who fought on behalf of the British were eagerly waiting for some concessions to come from the British.

Montague – Chelmsford Reforms Act, 1919 : Montague, the Secretary of State for India and **Chelmsford,** the Viceroy of India were jointly responsible for passing of this Act in the British Parliament. By this Act separate electorates were given to three other communities – *Christians, Anglo Indians* and *the Sikhs.* The Act expanded the Legislatures at the Centre and in the Provinces. It introduced Dyarchy in the Province. More Indians entered the Legislative bodies. However the Indian National Congress rejected the Act. Following it there was the Jallianwallahbagh Tragedy and the Non-Co-operation movement in India.

> Mrs. Annie Besant described this Act as ungenerous for England to offer and unworthy for India to accept.

Learning outcome

1. Pupil will be able to explain how the measures of Lord Lytton was against the interests of the Indians.

2. Pupil will be able to recall the services of Lord Ripon to Indian Community.

3. Pupil will be able to describe the reforms of Lord Curzon.

4. Pupil will be able to explain the 'divide and rule' policy of Lord Curzon.

5. Pupil will be able to explain the causes for the emergence of Indian Nationalism.

6. Pupil will be able to compare the aims and activities of the Moderates with Extremists.

7. Pupil will be able to point out why the Surat split took place.

8. Pupil will be able to narrate the services of Dr. Annie Besant to Indians.

9. Pupil will indicate the aim of the Home Rule movement.

10. Pupil will be able to point out the importance of the Lucknow Pact.

11. Pupil will be able to list out the changes introduced by the Montague-Chelmsford Act.

I. Choose the correct answer

1. Delhi Durbar was held by
   a. Lord Macaulay
   b. Lord Ripon
   c. Lord Lytton
   d. Lord Curzon

2. Lytton restricted the liberty of the Indian Press through the
   a. Vernacular Press Act
   b. Factory Act
   c. Ilbert Bill
   d. University Act

3. Census was introduced in India by
   a. Lord Lytton
   b. Lord Ripon
   c. Lord Curzon
   d. Lord Clive

4. The First Factory Act was passed in
   a. 1881
   b. 1882
   c. 1883
   d. 1885

5. The Father of Local Self Government in India is
   a. Lord Curzon
   b. Lord Ripon
   c. Lord Lytton
   d. Lord Minto

6. C.P. Ilbert was a
   a. Commander-in-Chief
   b. Law Member
   c. Governor-General
   d. Judge

7. Co-operative – Credit societies were introduced by
   a. Lord Ripon
   b. Lord Curzon
   c. Lord Lytton
   d. Lord Dalhousie

8. The Archaeological Department was created during the time of
   a. Lord Lytton
   b. Lord Ripon
   c. Lord Curzon
   d. Lord Morley

9. Bengal was partitioned in
   a. 1911
   b. 1912
   c. 1905
   d. 1910

10. The slogan adopted during Swadeshi Movement was
    a. Go back to Vedas
    b. Vande Matram
    c. Swaraj is my birth right
    d. None of them

11. First World war took place between
    a. 1914 – 1916
    b. 1912 - 1915
    c. 1914 - 1918
    d. 1918 – 1921

12. Dr. Annie Besant was an
    a. English Lady
    b. Indian Lady
    c. American Lady
    d. Irish Lady

13. The August Declaration was announced by
    a. Morley
    b. Montague
    c. Mountbatten
    d. Curzon

II. Fill in the blanks

1. In 1870, a telegraphic line was laid between _____and England.

2. The Act which compelled the Indians to seek licence to keep, sell or purchase arms was the_____.

3. The Factory Act, 1881 fixed the working hours of _____.

4. Lord Ripon's Government repealed_____Press Act.

5. Lord Ripon was instrumental in the foundation of the _____University.

6. Curzon appointed a _____Commission and allocated a large sum of money for relief work.

7. To train young men for military services Lord Curzon founded_____.

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8. The headquarters of East and West Bengal were _____ and _____ respectively.

9. The promises made by the_____ in her proclamation in 1858 were never kept.

10. Indians were motivated by the unification of_____ and_____ and wanted to fight for their freedom.

11. The writings of _____, _____ and _____ brought national awakening among the public.

12. The demands of the Moderates were described as political _____.

13. During Swadeshi Movement, Indians boycotted _____ goods.

14. The leaders who joined the Home Rule Movement were _____ and_____.

15. In the Congress session at Lucknow Jawaharlal Nehru met_____for the first time.

III. **Match the following**

A

1.	Vernacular Press Act	--	1877
2.	Hunter's Commission	--	1881
3.	Delhi Durbar	--	1904
4.	Factory Act	--	1882
5.	Indian Universities Act	--	1878

B

1.	Amir Sher Ali	--	Ancient Monuments
2.	Father of Local Self Government	--	Law Member
3.	Ilbert	--	Afghan Ruler
4.	Lord Curzon	--	Pusa
5.	Agricultural Research Institute	--	Ripon

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C

1.	Dayananda Saraswathi	--	Moderates
2.	Arbinda Ghosh	--	Bande Matram
3.	Dr. Annie Besant	--	Kesari
4.	Bala Gangadhara Tilak	--	New India
5.	Political Mendicancy	--	Swaraj

IV. Answer briefly

1. Give a brief note on the Vernacular Press Act.

2. What do you know about the Factory Act of 1881?

3. Why did Ripon repeal the Vernacular Press Act?

4. Mention the educational reforms of Lord Ripon.

5. What were the provisions of Ilbert Bill?

6. What were the Agricultural Reforms of Lord Curzon?

7. How did Lord Curzon preserve the ancient monuments of India?

8. Why was Bengal partitioned?

9. Bring out the role of press and newspapers in the growth and spread of Indian Nationalism.

10. What was the result of Arms Act of 1878?

11. When and by whom the Indian National Congress was founded?

12. What were the initial aims of the Indian National Congress?

13. Who were known as Moderates? Name a few of them.

14. What were the aims of the Militant Nationalists?

15. Who were the close associates of Tilak from South India?

16. What were the aims of Muslim League?

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17. When and why the extremists left the Congress?

18. How did Dr. Annie Besant create a national feeling among the Indians?

19. Mention the importance of Lucknow Pact.

V. Answer in detail

1. Mention the policies that undermined the popularity of Lord Lytton.

2. Elucidate the reforms of Lord Ripon.

3. Estimate the reforms of Lord Curzon.

4. Explain the factors that led to the growth of nationalism in India.

5. Explain the events leading to Surat Split.

6. Who were the Militant Nationalists? What was their goal?

7. Discuss the role of Dr. Annie Besant in India's freedom struggle?

VI. Practical exercise

1. Prepare a time line showing the important events of our freedom struggle – from the emergence of the Indian National Congress to 1919.

2. Read the chapters on freedom movement in the book 'Discovery of India' written by Jawaharlal Nehru.

3. Read the biographies of V.O. Chidambaram Pillai and Subramania Bharathi.
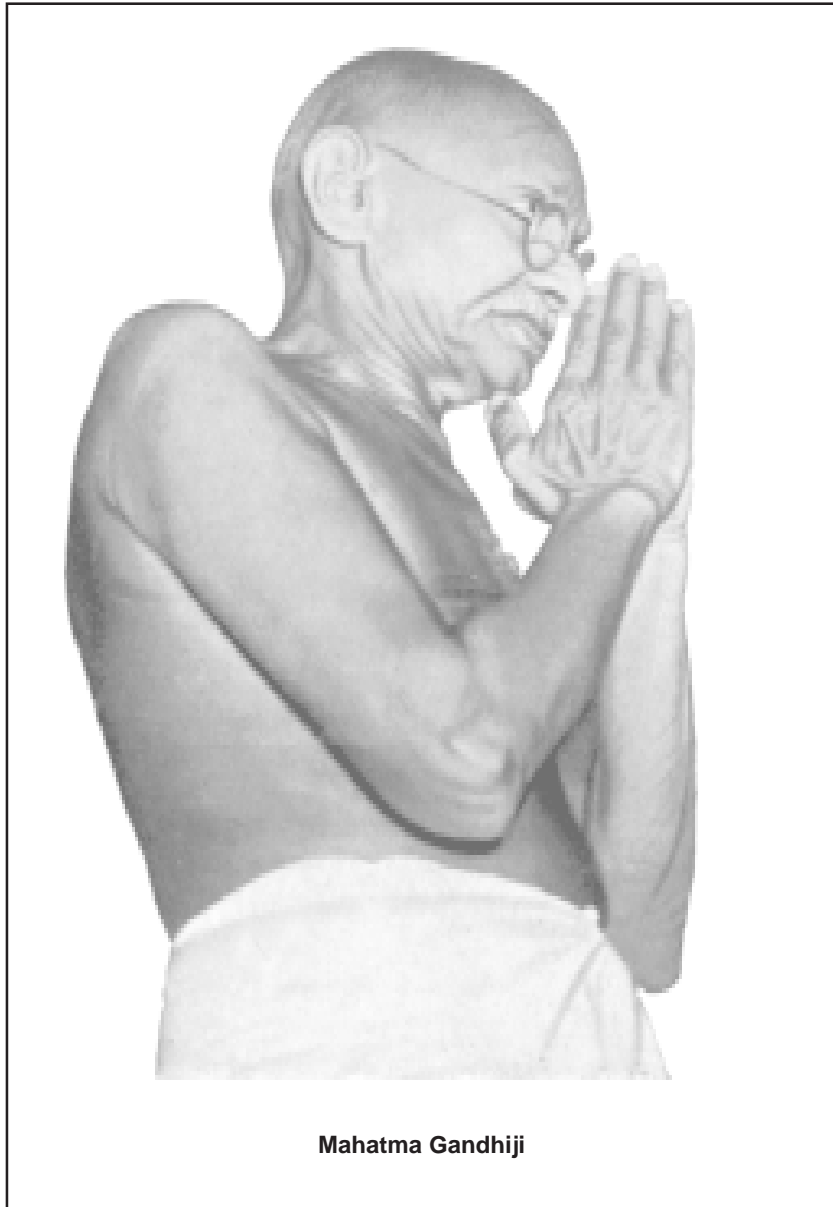
Mahatma Gandhiji

Lesson – 6

INDIA'S STRUGGLE FOR FREEDOM – GANDHIAN ERA

Learning Objectives

1. Pupil acquires knowledge about Gandhi's role in India's Freedom struggle.

2. Pupil knows about the Jallianwalabagh massacre and Khilafat movement.

3. Pupil understands the Non-Co-operation movement.

4. Pupil gains knowledge about the Swaraj Party, the importance of Lahore Congress, Salt Satyagraha, Round Table Conferences and the Poona Pact.

5. Pupil understands the provisions of the Government of India Act, 1935.

6. Pupil knows the services of Netaji in our freedom struggle.

7. Pupil acquires knowledge about Cripps Mission, Quit India Movement, Cabinet Mission, 1946 and the Interim Government.

8. Pupil knows about the Mount Batten Plan.

9. Pupil understands the role of Vallabhai Patel in the integration of princely states.

The year 1919 marked a different stage in the history of India's freedom struggle. *Gandhiji* involved himself in the freedom struggle from 1919 to 1947. Hence this period is called as *Gandhian Era.* He prepared the Indians to wage a war without drawing the sword and shedding blood against the British. Instead he used the weapons of Satyagraha and Non-violence.

Rowlatt Act 1919 : The Rowlatt Act was passed in 1919. It empowered the British Government to arrest anyone without a warrant. Anyone could be imprisoned without trial. Gandhi gave a call to protest against the Rowlatt Act. Nationwide harthals and demonstrations were organized in response to it.

Jallianwalabagh Massacre, 13 April 1919 : Two prominent leaders Satyapal and Saifuddin Kichlew were arrested in the Punjab in connection with the hartal. The people of Amritsar assembled in a park in Jallianwala to protest against the unlawful arrest. This park was surrounded by high walls on all the sides with a small entrance in one side and a well in the centre. *General Dyer,* the military commander of Amritsar, ordered his troops to block the entrance. Then he ordered them to shoot on the peaceful and unarmed crowd without any warning. There were many women and children. There was a virtual massacre. About 500 persons were killed and 1200 people wounded. This incident is called as the *Jallianwalabagh massacre* or *Punjab Tragedy.* Gandhi condemned this incident. He became a non-co-operator with the British Government. He emerged prominent. He launched the Non-Co-operation movement in 1920.

The Punjab tragedy had a lasting impact on succeeding generations. Rabindranath Tagore renounced his Knighthood as a measure of protest. Gandhiji returned the Kaiser-i-Hind medal given to him by the South African Government. C.F. Andrews, a friend of Tagore, Gandhi and Nehru, wrote to Mahadev Desai, after a visit to Amritsar, "It was a massacre, a butchery."

The Khilafat Movement : The Muslims in India also had their grievances against the British. Turkey was an ally of Germany in the First World War. After the defeat of Germany in the war, the Turkish empire was broken up. The territories were shared by Britain and France. The Sultan of Turkey was humiliated. The Sultan was also the Caliph or the religious leader of the Muslims. So the Muslims all over the world started the *Khilafat movement* against the British Government. The Ali brothers Muhammad Ali and Shaukat Ali started the Khilafat Movement in India. The Congress supported this movement. Gandhi thought that it was an opportunity for uniting the Hindus and the Muslims. The Khilafat movement brought the Muslim League and the Indian National Congress closer.

Muhammad Ali

The Non-Co-operation Movement 1920 : The Congress observed the Non-Co-operation movement in 1920. The main aim of this movement was to attain Swaraj through non–violent and peaceful means. The movement was observed in three stages. *Firstly,* Indians who received titles and honours from the British renounced them in protest. In the *second stage,* there were large scale demonstrations including hartals. All government institutions including schools, colleges, offices and legislatures were boycotted. About 30,000 patriots including Motilal Nehru, Jawaharlal Nehru, C.R. Das, Rajaji and E.V. Ramasami (Thanthai Periyar) were arrested and imprisoned.

The most important and *final stage* of this movement was non-payment of taxes. The Congress session held in 1921 at Ahmedabad called upon the people not to pay taxes to the Government till their demands were met.

The Chauri Chaura Incident 1922 : When the Non-Co-operation movement was observed at Chauri Chaura in Utter Pradesh the peasants set fire to the police station in response to wanton police firing. About 22 police men were killed in that incident. This is known as the *Chauri Chaura* incident. Gandhiji was upset with the violent incidents. It was against his policy of non-violence. Gandhi realized that the people were not yet ready for a non-violent – Non-Co-operation Movement. Therefore he suspended the Non-Co-operation Movement immediately. The British Government arrested Gandhiji. He was imprisoned for six years.

The Swaraj Party 1923 – 1925 : After Gandhiji's arrest, there was no proper leader to guide the freedom fighters. *Motilal Nehru* and *C.R. Das,* formed the Swaraj Party in *Alipore Prison.* The aim of this party was to contest and win the elections. It advocated council entry and fight against the British Government from within. It passed a resolution demanding the establishment of a responsible Government in India. It also appealed for a Round Table Conference to consider their demands and needs. But after the death of C.R. Das in 1925, this party became actionless and then it was dissolved.

The Simon Commission 1927 : The British Government appointed a seven member commission in 1927. It was led by *Sir John Simon.* All the members of the Commission were Europeans. Therefore the Indians rejected it. People boycotted this Commission when it came to India with the slogan *"Simon Go back".*
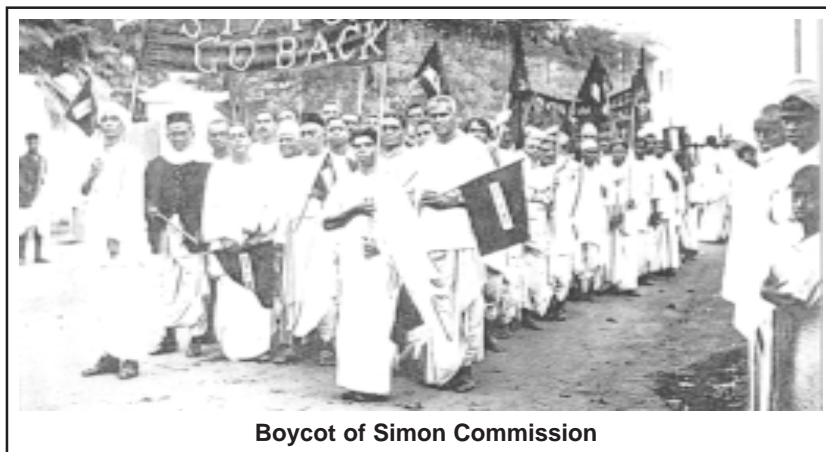
Boycot of Simon Commission

Lala Lajapat Roy, the Lion of Punjab, who led a demonstration against the Simon Commission at Lahore, died out of police lathi charge. His death was avenged by **Bhagat Singh.** He shot down the police officer responsible for Lala's death. Later he had to face death sentence by the British.

The Lahore Congress 1929 : The Congress met at Lahore under the presidentship of Jawaharlal Nehru in 1929. It passed a resolution demanding **Complete Independence** or **Purna Swaraj** from the British. Another resolution was also passed. According to it **Civil Dis-obedience Movement** was launched against the British. The session decided to observe January 26 every year as the **Independence Day** all over the country. Accordingly the Independence Day was observed on 26 January 1930 all over the country.

The Congress tri-colour flag was hoisted on 26 January 1930. The people took pledge to fight for achieving complete independence. It became a red letter day for the Congress. To make this day memorable in our history, the Indian Constitution was formally adopted on 26 January 1950. This day is now celebrated as the **Republic Day.**

The Salt Satyagraha of 1930 or The Civil Disobedience Movement : Government levied tax on common salt used by millions

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of people. Salt, available naturally, could not be used by all easily due to the tax. It hit the poor hard. So Gandhi decided to defy the salt tax. He undertook the historic march to **Dandi** in Gujarat on 12 March 1930.

> Gandhi covered the distance of 241 miles (about 400 K.M.) from Sabarmathi Ashram to Dandi on foot in 25 days with 78 chosen followers including **Sarojini Naidu.** The slogan Vande Matharam echoed everywhere.

He reached Dandi on 6 April and picked up a handful of salt from the beach. This incident sparked a mass movement throughout India. Women also participated in it. In South India **Rajagopalachariar** led the Salt march from **Trichinopoly** to **Vedaranyam.** In Malabar Coast, **Kelappan,** a Congress leader, led the march from **Calicut** to **Paiyanur** to violate the salt law. This movement is known as **Salt Satyagraha** or the **Civil Dis-obedience Movement.**

There were countrywide demonstrations, harthals and boycott of foreign goods. People refused to pay tax. By the end of May 1930, all important leaders including Gandhi, Nehru and Rajaji were arrested. The people of the North Western Frontier Provinces also joined in this Civil Dis-obedience Movement. They were led by **Khan Abdul Ghaffar Khan,** the **Frontier Gandhi.**

The Civil Dis-obedience movement is different from the Non-Co-operation Movement. The goal of this movement was complete independence. It was to be achieved by breaking the law. The Civil Dis-obedience movement induced Indians to defy the Government at all levels and make its functioning difficult and impossible.

ROUND TABLE CONFERENCES 1930 – 32

The First Round Table Conference 1930 : The British could not suppress the Civil Dis-obedience Movement. As a conciliatory measure, they called for a Round Table Conference at London in 1930. It was not attended by the Congress leaders since they were all imprisoned.

The Gandhi-Irwin Pact, 1931 : Gandhi was released in 1931. An agreement, known as the *Gandhi-Irwin pact*, was signed. According to it Gandhi agreed to call off the Civil Dis-obedience Movement. He also agreed to attend the Second Round Table Conference on the condition of release of all political prisoners. However, the agreement did not provide for the release of revolutionary leaders like Bhagat Singh and Rajguru who were awaiting execution.

The Second Round Table Conference : The Second Round Table Conference was held in 1931. Gandhi attended it. But there was no concrete outcome from that Conference. Gandhi came back to India. His efforts to meet the Viceroy failed. The Congress was declared illegal by the British Government. Gandhi and other important Congressmen were imprisoned.

Gandhi at London to attend the Second Round Table Conference

The Third Round Table Conference 1932 : The Third Round Table Conference also ended in failure without the participation of the Congress leaders.

The Communal Award and Poona Pact of 1932 : In 1932, when Gandhi was in jail, the British Government under *Ramsay Mac Donald,* announced a scheme known as the *Communal Award.* It

provided separate electorates for the Minorities and the Depressed classes. **Dr. B.R. Ambedkar,** the leader of the depressed classes, accepted it. But Gandhi considered it as a plan to divide the Indian society further. So he rejected it. He undertook a fast unto death. His fast ended with the signing of an agreement, known as the **Poona Pact (1932)** between Gandhi and Ambedkar. According to it the proposal of providing separate electrorates for the Depressed classes was abandoned. Instead, it was accepted for the increase of the number of reserved seats for the depressed and weaker classes in the legislature. Thus the plan of divide and rule policy of the British was defeated.

The Government of India Act 1935 : The Government of India Act was passed in 1935. It was based on the **Simon Commission** report and the proposals of the three Round Table Conferences. It introduced the following changes. This act(1) Introduced provincial autonomy, (2) Abolished dyarchy in the provinces, (3) Established federal Government at the Centre, (4) Provided for the establishment of a federal court to decide the conflicts between the provinces and the centre and (5) Provided for the establishment of a Federal Reserve Bank.

This Act was not upto the expectation of the Congress. Hence, the Congress continued its agitation. However, the Congress contested the elections conducted under the Act in 1937. It formed ministries in eight provinces.

Second World War : The Second World war brokeout in 1939. The position of Britain was precarious. The British Government involved India in the war without consulting the Congress leaders or the members of the Legislative Assemblies. Initially Congress did not agree for the involvement of India in the war. Later it accepted it subject to the condition that India would be given freedom at the end of the war.

Jinnah's Two Nation Theory 1940 : **Muhammed Ali Jinnah** put forth the Two Nation Theory in 1940. He demanded a separate nation Pakistan for the Muslims.

The August offer 1940 : The British **Viceroy Linlithgow** was responsible for involving Indians in the Second World War. He made some offer to satisfy the Congress. Dominion Status for India, after the

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war, was promised. It was promised that a Committee would be set up for framing the Indian Constitution. And an Indian would be appointed in the War Council of the Viceroy. These offers were made in the month of August 1940. So it is called the August Offer. The Congress totally rejected it.

The Indian National Army 1942 : Netaji (means the leader) Subash Chandra Bose was one of the great patriots. He was not satisfied with the peaceful means of struggle adopted by Gandhi. He joined the Indian National Congress in 1927. He worked with Jawaharlal Nehru. Netaji was the source of inspiration for the youth and the masses. He made several youth join the national movement. He was elected as the President of the Indian National Congress in 1938. He started the *Forward Bloc Party* in 1939. He toured

Subash Chandra Bose

many countries and earned their sympathy for India. He was kept under house arrest for some time. Disguised as an Afghan, he escaped from India and reached Germany. He met, Hitler, the leader of Germany, and sought his help. He went to Japan and met her Prime Minister.

Then he went to Burma in 1942. Burma had been then occupied by the Japanese. The Japanese had captured a large number of Indian prisoners who served under the British. They were more than 20,000 in number. They were released from the Japanese. Subash Chandra Bose formed the *Indian National Army* with these Indians. In 1943 Subash went to Singapore. There the Presidentship of the *Indian Independence League* was handed over to Subash by Rash Behari Bose.

> Rash Behari Bose was an Indian who had settled in Japan since 1915. He organized a freedom conference in Tokyo in March 1942.

Subash became the Supreme commander of the *INA or Azad Hind Fauj.* From then onwards, Subash Chandra Bose was popularly called *Netaji.* A women's regiment named after the Rani of Jhansi was organized under the captaincy of *Lakshmi* from Tamilnadu.

His slogan **Jai Hind** echoed throughout India and it became the popular form of salutation. 'Delhi Chalo' was another famous slogan of Bose. His army reached upto Manipur, the North Eastern part of India. Unfortunately due to heavy rains and other adverse circumstances the army met with disaster. The soldiers had to retreat. Many lost their lives in Burma. In 1945 Japan was forced to surrender. Indian soldiers were arrested. Netaji hurried back to Tokyo from Bangkok. It is believed that Bose was killed in an aircrash on the way.

Eventhough Nethaji's dream of liberating India was not fulfilled, his heroic struggle aroused a tremendous sense of patriotism. He himself was a source of inspiration to the people of India.

The Cripps Mission 1942 : Sir Stafford Cripps came to India with a few proposals. He wanted the co-operation of the Congress. He explained his report in the following way.

The Indians should render their help to the British in their war efforts forgetting their hatred towards them. At the end of the war new proposals would be given to frame the Indian Constitution. But he did not mention anything about giving independence to India. Mahatma Gandhi rejected the assurance as a **post-dated cheque** on a failing bank. The Cripps Mission ended in failure.

The Quit India Movement, 1942 : The failure of Cripps Mission brought about a change in Gandhi's attitude. He felt that non-violent methods so far followed did not yield the desired effect. Therefore he asked for the complete withdrawal of the British from India. He openly declared that there could be no friendly understanding and co-operation between India and Britain.

Gandhiji wrote a series of articles in the magazine, **the Harijan.** He explained his ideas which were soon to take shape as the historic Quit India Movement. He made it clear that he could no longer afford to wait. He said., "If I continue to wait I might have to wait till doomsday." Gandhi was so impatient that he said, "personally I am so sick of slavery that I am even prepared to take the risk of anarchy."

The Congress Working Committee passed a resolution on **8 August 1942.** It demanded the British withdrawal from India. This historic Quit India resolution was passed at Bombay followed by

Gandhiji's memorable speech. "I am not going to be satisfied with anything short of complete freedom. We **shall do or die.** We shall either free India or die in the attempt." It was indeed a clarion call for unarmed revolt on a mass scale.

On the very next day Gandhi, Nehru, Abul Kalam Azad and other prominent leaders of the Congress were arrested. Due to lack of proper leadership violent riots took place everywhere.

The Second World War came to an end in 1945. The Labour Party came to power in England. The leader of the Labour Party was **Attlee.** He was the supporter of Indian freedom struggle. He became the Prime Minister of England. He withdrew all the prohibitory orders imposed on the Congress by the British. Attlee deputed a mission to find a solution for India's problems. This mission recommended India's independence.

The Cabinet Mission, 1946 : In March 1946, the three member Commission of Pethick Lawrence, the British Indian Minister, A.V. Alexander, the President of Commercial Committee and Sir Straford Cripps visited India. All the three were the members of the British Cabinet. Hence the mission was called **Cabinet Mission.** They recommended the formation of provinces based on the majority of Hindus and Muslims. The Committee also recommended Federal Government. The British decided to solve the problems of India by setting up an Interim Government.

The Interim Government : An Interim Government was set up with Nehru as the Prime Minister. Nehru sought the help from Jinnah to form the Interim Government. But Jinnah refused to Co-operate with Nehru. He became adamant in his demand of Pakistan. Hence partition of India became inevitable.

The Mount Batten Plan 1947 : In 1947 Lord Mount Batten became the Governor-General of India. He was the last British Governor-General. He provided a solution for the political and constitutional dead-

Lord Mount Batten

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lock created by the Muslim League. According to his plan India had to be divided into two independent countries namely the **Indian Union** and the **Pakistan Union.** The Princely States were given the option to join either of the two new nations or to remain independent. Both the Congress and the Muslim League accepted this plan. The British Government passed the Indian Independence Act in July 1947 on the basis of this plan.

Partition of India was effected in 1947. Powers were transferred to the two states, India and Pakistan. The new State Pakistan comprised of West Punjab, Sind, North West Frontier Province and East Bengal. These provinces had majority Muslim population.
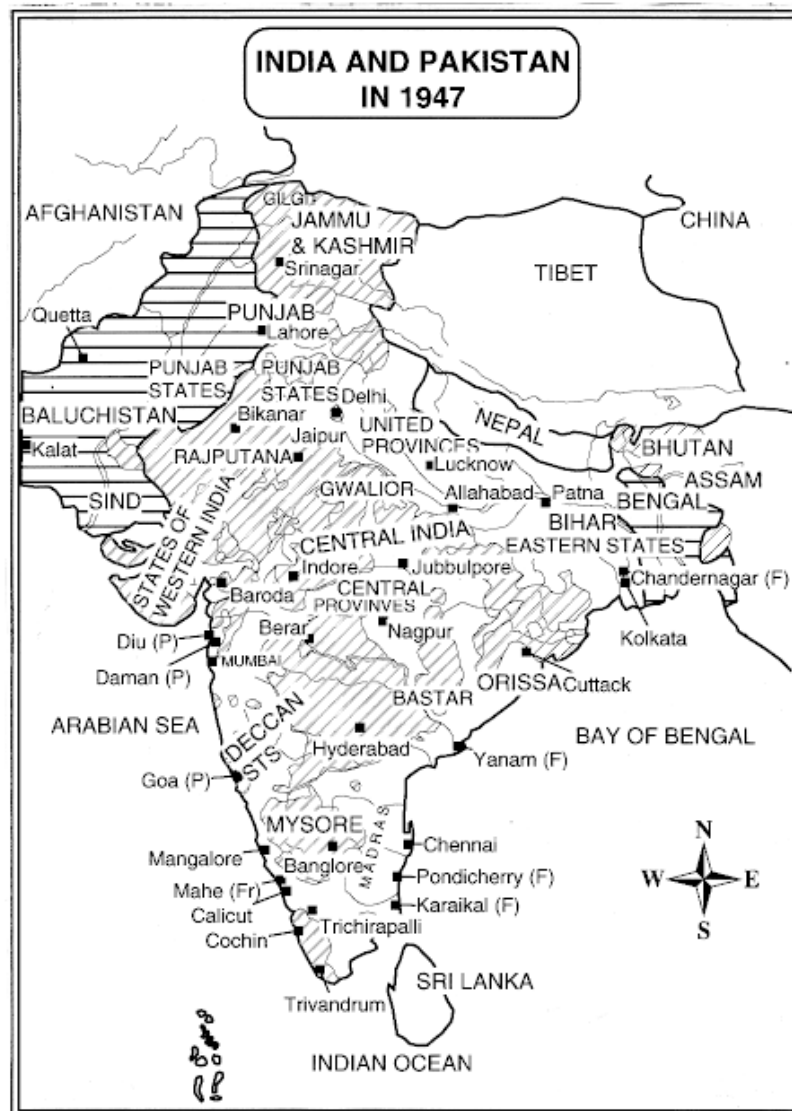

C. Rajagopalachariar

India became free on 15 August 1947. Tricolour Indian flag was hoisted in the place of British Union Jack on the Historic Red Fort at Delhi. **Lord Mount Batten** became the first Governor-General of free India and Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru became the first Prime Minister. Later **C. Rajagopalachariar** became the first and last Indian Governor-General of India. When India became a Republic on 26 January 1950 **Dr. Rajendra Prasad** became the first President of our country.

THE INTEGRATION OF THE PRINCELY STATES

On the eve of Indian Independence there were nearly 565 States in India. They were ruled by the native Nawabs, kings and Nizams. The task of unifying them was undertaken by Sardar Vallabhbai Patel. The Indian States Department was created. Patel became the Minister of that department. In the beginning many of the rulers wanted to remain independent. Patel invited them to join the Indian union. Many responded promptly to his appeal. About 562 princely States were merged with the Indian union. Thus the danger for India's unity and security was

Sardar Vallabhbai Patel

INDIA AND PAKISTAN
IN 1947

AFGHANISTAN

GILGIT
JAMMU
& KASHMIR
Srinagar

CHINA

TIBET

Quetta

PUNJAB
Lahore

PUNJAB
STATES

PUNJAB
STATES Delhi

BALUCHISTAN

Bikanar

Jaipur

UNITED
PROVINCES

NEPAL

BHUTAN

Kalat

RAJPUTANA

Lucknow

ASSAM
BENGAL

SIND

STATES OF
WESTERN INDIA

GWALIOR

Allahabad

Patna

BIHAR

CENTRAL INDIA

EASTERN STATES

Indore

Jubbulpore

Chandernagar (F)

Baroda

CENTRAL
PROVINVES

Diu (P)

Berar

Nagpur

Kolkata

Daman (P)

MUMBAI

ARABIAN SEA

DECCAN
STS

Goa (P)

ORISSA Cuttack

BASTAR

Hyderabad

BAY OF BENGAL

Yanam (F)

MYSORE

Mangalore

Banglore

Mahe (Fr)

Calicut

Cochin

Trichirapalli

Chennai

Pondicherry (F)

Karaikal (F)

N
W   E
S

SRI LANKA

Trivandrum

INDIAN OCEAN

removed. But some states like **Kashmir, Hyderabad** and **Junagath** were reluctant to join. Patel, by his diplomacy and stern actions integrated them with Indian union and earned the name, the **Iron man of India.**

Kashmir : The ruler of Kashmir Maharaja **Harisingh** was a Hindu. Most of his subjects were Muslims. The ruler did not want to accede either to Pakistan or to Indian Union. Meanwhile Pakistan encouraged the mountain tribes to invade Kashmir and indirectly helped them. The tribal forces advanced upto Srinagar, the capital of Kashmir. Having no other way Maharaja Harisingh acceded Kashmir to the Indian Union in 1946. By that time Pakistani forces entered into Kashmir and occupied some territories. A short war between India and Pakistan in 1948 made Kashmir to remain with India.

Hyderabad : Hyderabad was the biggest of the Indian states. Most of the subjects were Hindus and the ruler was a Muslim. A small, but powerful section of Muslims started the Razakar Movement under the leadership of **Kasim Razvi,** the Prime Minister of the Nizam. There were great atrocities against the Hindus. There was great danger to their lives and properties. The Nizam refused to accept the instrument of accession inspite of the requests of Lord Mount Batten and Patel. He even entered into an agreement with Pakistan. So his subjects began to agitate. There was lawlessness in the state. So the Indian Union had no option but to interfere. The military operation was started by Patel. Within three days the whole of Hyderabad was occupied and the Nizam submitted. It acceded to the Indian Union in 1948.

Accession of Junagath 1949 : Junagadh was a small state in Kathiawar. Its subjects were Hindus, but the ruler was a Muslim. Without caring for the willingness of his subjects he acceded to Pakistan. This led to a popular internal revolt. The ruler could not control it and he fled to Pakistan. A popular vote was taken in 1948. The people unanimously decided to join the Indian union. Junagath was integrated with Indian Union on 29 January 1949.

Accession of French possessions 1954 : With the consent of the French Government, **Pondicherry, Karaikal, Mahe, Yenam** and **Chandranagore** became the parts of the Indian Union in 1954.

Accession of the Portuguese possessions 1961 : **Goa, Diu** and **Daman** were the Portuguese settlements in India. The Portuguese ruler did not agree for the annexation as the French did. But the people

of these places wanted to merge with India. So the Government of India had to resort to military action over these areas in 1961. They became finally a part of the Indian Union after 1961.

Learning outcome

1. Pupil will be able to narrate the services of Gandhi to India's freedom.

2. Pupil will explain the Jallianwalabagh Massacre and realize how our patriots struggled for freedom.

3. Pupil will be able to narrate the Khilafat Movement and the Non-Co-operation Movement.

4. Pupil will describe the Chauri Chaura incident and the formation of the Swaraj party.

5. Pupil will be able to describe the historic Dandi March.

6. Pupil will explain the Round Table Conferences and their results.

7. Pupil will be able to narrate the important points of Poona Pact and the Government of India Act 1935.

8. Pupil will be able to describe Lahore Session, August offer and the role of Netaji in freedom struggle.

9. Pupil will be able to point out the Cabinet Mission and Mount Batten Plans.

10. Pupil will be able to describe the services of Patel in the integration of princely states.

11. Pupil will recall the contributions and sacrifices of our freedom fighters.

Self-Evaluation

I. Choose the correct answer

1. Rowlatt Act was passed in

   a. 1919 b. 1917

   c. 1918 d. 1921

2. The British General connected with the Jallianwalabagh tragedy was

   a. Major Sleeman b. General Dyer

   c. Sir Arthur Wellesly d. Col. Manson

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3. After Jallianwalabagh Massacre Rabindranath Tagore renounced his

   a. Leadership   b. Knightship

   c. Lordship   d. Kingship

4. To protest against the injustice done to Turkey by the British, the Ali brothers started the

   a. Muslim League   b. Swaraj Party

   c. Khilafat Movement   d. Non-Co-operation Movement

5. Swaraj Party was formed at

   a. Alipore Prison   b. Delhi

   c. Chauri Chaura   d. Allahabad

6. In 1929, the Lahore session of Congress met under the presidentship of

   a. Gandhiji   b. Nehruji

   c. Nethaji   d. Rajaji

7. In South India the Salt Satyagraha march was led by

   a. Gandhiji   b. Rajagopalachariar

   c. Kamaraj   d. Khan Abdul Ghaffar Khan

8. The Second World War broke out in the year

   a. 1937   b. 1939

   c. 1941   d. 1942

9. The Indian National Army was formed by

   a. C.R. Dass   b. Nethaji

   c. Gandhi   d. Rajaji

10. Separate State for Muslims was demanded by

   a. Nawab Salimullah   b. Nethaji

   c. Jinnah   d. Ali brothers

11. The Prime Minister at the time of Interim Government was
    a. Nehru   b. Rajaji
    c. Patel   d. Gandhi

12. The first Indian Governor-General of free India was
    a. Gandhi   b. Nehru
    c. Jinnah   d. Rajaji

13. India became a Republic on
    a. 26 January 1935   b. 15 August 1947
    c. 26 January 1950   d. 26 August 1950

II. Fill in the blanks

1. The two prominent Punjab leaders who were arrested in 1919 were_____and_____.

2. After the Jallianwalabagh Massacre Gandhi returned the_____medal given to him by the South African Government.

3. In India the Ali brothers_____and _____started the Khilafat Movement.

4. After the death of_____the Swaraj Party was dissolved.

5. _____ is known as Frontier Gandhi.

6. In 1940, at the Lahore Session_____put forth the two nation theory.

7. The British Viceroy _____ was responsible for involving Indians in the Second World War.

8. In Indian National Army a women regiment was organized under the captaincy of _____

9. The Second World War came to an end in_____.

10. Jawaharlal Nehru sought the help from_____the leader of Muslim League to form an interim Government.

11. The first Indian Governor-General of free India was_____

12. _____ was the first President of our Indian Republic.

13. The ruler of Junagath was a_____.

14. Harisingh, the ruler of _____ wanted to remain independent.

15. The French possessions in India acceded to Indian Union in _____

16. The Portuguese possessions_____, _____ and_____became a part of Indian Union in 1961.

17. Sardar Patel is hailed as the_____of India.

III. Match the following

A

1. Rowlatt Act	--	Gandhiji
2. Dandi March	--	Netaji
3. Jai Hind	--	Military Commander
4. General Dyer	--	1927
5. Simon Commission	--	1919

B

1. Motilal Nehru	--	Uttar Pradesh
2. Chauri Chaura	--	Swaraj Party
3. Lion of Punjab	--	Khan Abdul Ghaffar Khan
4. Frontier Gandhi	--	Ramsay Mac Donald
5. Communal Award Scheme	--	Lala Lajpat Rai

IV. Answer briefly

1. Why did the Congress oppose the Rowlatt Act?
2. Give a short note on the Jallianwalabagh Massacre.

3. Why was the Khilafat Movement started?

4. Why was Swaraj party started?

5. Who was Rash Behari Bose?

6. Why did Gandhiji reject Cripps proposal?

7. Who were the members of the Cabinet Mission?

8. Explain Mount Batten plan.

V. Answer in detail

1. Explain the three stages of Non-Co-operation Movement.

2. Describe Dandi March and its consequences.

3. Bring out the importance of the Round Table Conferences.

4. What changes were introduced by the Government of India Act, 1935?

5. Explain the Quit India Movement and its results.

6. Write about the role of Subash Chandra Bose and the National Army.

7. Why Patel is called as the Iron Man of India?

8. Draw a Time Line for the following events.

   a. Non-Co-operation Movement

   b. Chauri Chaura Incident

   c. Swaraj Party

   d. Salt satyagraha and

   e. Round Rable Conferences.

9. Mark any five important events on the Time Line between 1930 and 1945.

VI. Practical exercise

1. Mark the following places in the outline map of India: Hyderabad, Junagath, Kashmir, Goa, Diu Daman, Pondicherry, Yenam and Mahe

2. Collect pictures of freedom fighters and prepare an album.

INDIA SINCE INDEPENDENCE (1947 – 2000)
SOCIAL PROGRESS

Learning Objectives

1. Pupil knows the social challenges faced by India after Independence.

2. Pupil learns the steps taken for social progress in India.

3. Pupil understands the measures taken for abolition of untouchability.

4. Pupil acquires knowledge about social progress in India since 1947.

5. Pupil learns the effects of social and educational progress.

India faced many challenges after Independence. There existed social imbalances, problems of women, child, and the depressed classes. Illiteracy was the worst drawback. They created hurdles to India's social progress. Therefore the need for social progress was deeply felt. Many steps were taken to achieve social progress in India. They were taken through ***Social Movements, Social Legislations*** and ***Education.***

The Bhoodan Movement : *Acharya Vinoba Bhave* started this movement on 18 April 1951. It aimed at creating a just and equitable social order. It wanted the re-distribution of excess lands from the landlords among the landless poor. It encouraged voluntary surrenders. The Central and State Governments enacted laws to fix ceilings on land holdings due to the awareness created by this movement. This movement focussed on the plight of the landless poor.

The Sarvodaya Movement : This was also started by Vinoba Bhave. It had the blessings of our national leaders. It aimed at the upliftment and welfare of all. ***Promotion of Cottage Industries*** and Khadi

became the key areas of this movement. It wanted to bring a silent non-violent socio-economic revolution in India.

Development of Women : The position of women in India prior to independence was miserable. Several social legislations were passed since 1947 to improve their position. Our constitution guarantees equality of sexes. The other measures are as follows :

The Marriage Act of 1954 : This Act made inter-caste and inter-religious marriages legal. It fixed the marriage age of boys 21 years and girls 18 years. Child marriage is punishable.

The Hindu Code Bill 1955 – 56 : This Bill is the *Magna Carta* in the history of women development in India. It explains about marriage, divorce, succession, guarandianship and adoption.

The Hindu Marriage Act, 1955 : This Act made monogamy legal. It outlaws polygamy among all Hindus. It confers equal rights of divorce on both men and women.

The Hindu Succession Act, 1956 : This Act gave equal right to a daughter and her children to succeed equally with the son and his children to all the property of either parent.

The Hindu Minority and Guardianship Act, 1956 : This Act safeguards the mother's right to be the natural guardian of her children. It also gives women the right to adopt a son or a daughter as in the case of men.

The Dowry Prohibition Act, 1961, (Amended in 1984) : This Act protects women against dowry exploitations. Dowry demand is severely punished.

The Maternity Benefits Act, 1961 : This Act gives the working women the right to maternity leave.

The Medical Termination of Pregnancy Act, 1971 : This Act allows women to terminate pregnancy which would risk their physical and mental health.

The Equal Remuneration Act, 1976 : This Act provides for the payment of equal remuneration to women workers along with men. It prevents discrimination on grounds of sex in matters of employment.

Other Socio-Economic Programmes : The Government of India set up the ***Central Social Welfare Board in 1953.*** There are ***State Social Welfare Boards*** in every state. They promote the welfare of women, children and the poor. Physically handicapped women, widows, orphans and destitutes are taken care of by these bodies.

National Commission for Women Act, 1990 : *A National Commission for Women* was set up on 31 January 1992 according to this Act. It has a President, Secretary and other members. It hears complaints from women on refusal of rights, cruelties and other atrocities. It redresses their grievances.

The Rashtriya Mahila Kosh or The National Credit Fund for Women : This was formed on 30 March 1993. Poor and needy women who form ***Self-Help Groups (SHG)*** to start an industry or occupation are assisted financially from this fund.

The Balika Samriddhi Yojana : This scheme was started on 2 October 1997. It was modified in 1999. Female children born to poor mother below poverty line benefit by this scheme. Every female child of this category is deposited with Rs.500/- in the post-office or bank. It can be used for educational or marriage purpose when they complete 18 years. Besides they are also given scholarships to study upto X Standard.

Swa – Shakti Project : This scheme came into operation from 16 October 1998. Self-Help Groups, formed by 15 to 20 women to start some productive work, are financially assisted by the Government through this scheme.

There are many more steps taken by the Government and Non-Government Organisations (NGOs) aimed at the development of women in India. The U.N.O. announced 1978 as the ***International Women's Year.*** In Tamil Nadu 30 percent jobs are reserved for women. Women are entitled to 33 per cent reservation in the Local Bodies. There are women officers, doctors, engineers, police, Members of Legislative Assemblies (MLAs) and Members of Parliament (MPs). India has seen a woman Prime Minister, Governors and Chief Ministers. All these speak of the improvements in the position of women and the social progress achieved after independence.

Child Welfare : Child labour in India is a major social problem. Poor children are forced by circumstances to go for work. Our Constitution prevents the employment of children in industrial establishments. The *Indian Factories Act, 1948* prohibits employment of a boy or girl below 14 years in factories. The *Plantation Labour Act, 1951* bans the employment of children below 12 years in coffee and rubber plantations. The *Mines Act, 1952* restricts the employment of persons below 15 years in mines. *Child Welfare Boards* have been set up in all states according to the Children's Act, 1960. The *Female Infanticide Act, 1961* prevents the killing of female children. It punishes the offenders. Many steps have been taken to eradicate child labour and educate them. Yet the problem exists in one part or other in the country due to several reasons.

Welfare of Depressed Classes : Social imbalance due to the caste system is another challenge to India. Our Constitution prevents discrimination in any form. The *Untouchability Offences Act, 1955* awards punishment to those who practise untouchability. The *Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe (Prevention of Atrocities) Act, 1989* provides severe punishment against atrocities to the S.C. and S.Ts. Apart from the legal measures the Central and State Governments follow the policy of reservation of posts in jobs and seats in educational institutions for the Scheduled castes, Scheduled Tribes and other Backward Classes. Educational scholarships, fee concessions, special and vocational training and hostels meant for these classes have helped to bring harmonious social progress in India.

Welfare of the Minorities : The Indian Constitution gives right to the Minorities to establish educational institutions to promote their social and cultural rights. The *National Commission for Minorities Act, 1992* provided for the set up of National and State Minorities Commissions. These measures have instilled a sense of security among the minority people in the country.

Welfare of the Disabled : The Government and Non-Government bodies work for the removal of physiscal disabilities. The *Disabilities Act, 1955* was passed to take care of rehabilitating the disabled people. The *Artificial Limb Manufacturing Corporation of India* was set up at Kanpur in 1976. It produces artificial human parts for the handicapped. The *National Handicapped Finance and*

Development Corporation was set up on 24 January 1997. It extends loans to the handicapped persons for education and employment.

Welfare of the Aged : There are Government and voluntary efforts to take care of the welfare of the aged people. *Old Age Homes* have been set up for their stay and comfort. The Government renders assistance to several of them.

Progress of Education : Education is the powerful means to bring social progress. Education helps to bring harmonious social development. The literacy rate in India stood at 16.1 per cent in 1951. Women education was badly neglected. Education received good attention after independence. Both the Central and State Governments are responsible for the development of education in India. The Government of India appointed the *University Education Commission in 1948* under the Chairmanship of Dr. S. Radhakrishnan.

> His birthday September 5 is celebrated as the **Teacher's Day** every year.

His report of 1949 led to the reorganization of our country's educational system. Another Commission under *Dr. A. Lakshmana Swamy Mudaliar* was appointed in 1953. It made the school learning teaching – cum – activity based one. It wanted to make the aim of *Secondary Education* to produce ideal democratic citizens of India and the world. It emphasized the all round development of the child at the secondary level. The *Kothari Commission* or the *National Education Commission* was appointed in 1964. Its report of 1966 wanted to make the educational structure uniform in India. It gave importance to vocational, technical, engineering, agricultural and science education. The *New Education Policy (NEP)* of 1986 and the *Programme of Action 1992* aimed to provide education of a satisfactory quality to all children upto 14 years of age before the start of the 21 Century. Elementary education was given much importance in the post-independent years. Therefore the enrolment in elementary education increased form 42.6 per cent in 1951 to 94.9 per cent in 1999. Secondary education, Higher Education and University Education also received equal importance. There are more than 1.1 lakh Secondary and Senior Secondary Institutions in India. There are more than 12,350 Colleges for General, Technical, Medical and Agricultural Education. More than 250 Universities exist in India. It is due to the increase in enrolment and the number of institutions the literacy rate has gone up to more than *65 per cent* by 2000 A.D.

As a result of the social and educational progress in India after 1947, there has been a tremendous social change. The caste hierarchy has been dismantled. Social mobility has become possible. The benefits of modernization reach all sections of the society. An egalitarian society is emerging in India.

Learning outcome

1. Pupil will be able to explain the aims of the Bhoodan and Sarvodaya Movements.

2. Pupil will be able to describe the development of women in the post-independent India.

3. Pupil will be able to explain the measures taken for the welfare of the depressed classes, children and the minorities.

4. Pupil will be able to narrate the progress of education after 1947.

Self – Evaluation

I. Choose the correct answer

1. Bhoodan Movement was started in the year

   a. 1960   b. 1950

   c. 1952   d. 1951

2. Dowry Prohibition Act was passed in the year

   a. 1961   b. 1960

   c. 1962   d. 1963

3. The reservation of jobs in Tamil Nadu for women is

   a. 30 per cent   b. 33 per cent

   c. 31 per cent   d. 32 per cent

4. Teacher's Day is celebrated on

   a. 5 September   b. 10 September

   c. 15 September   d. 25 September

5. The Kothari Commission was appointed in the year

    a. 1966   b. 1962

    c. 1960   d. 1964

II. Fill in the blanks

1. Sarvodaya movement was started by _____

2. The Hindu Marriage Act, _____ made monogamy legal.

3. Equal remuneration to women is ensured by the _____

4. Employment of Children in factories is prohibited by the _____

5. The Untouchability Offences Act was passed in _____

6. Dr. A. Lakshmanaswamy Mudaliar Commission was appointed in _____

III. Match the following

1. Vinoba Bhave   --   1953

2. Central Social Welfare Board --   1986

3. Female Infanticide Act   --   Bhoodan Movement

4. New Education Policy   --   1961

IV. Answer briefly

1. What was the aim of the Bhoodan Movement?

2. What right is given by the Hindu Succession Act?

3. What is the work of the Central and State Social Welfare Boards?

4. What is the aim of the Mines Act, 1952?

5. When was the National Handicapped Financial Development Corporation set up?

6. What was the literacy rate in India in 1951?

V. Answer in detail

1. Explain the steps taken for women development in India.

2. Write on the progress of education in India since 1947.

3. Give an essay on social progress in India after independence.

VI. Practical exercise

1. Arrange for a debate on the prevention of dowry.

2. Conduct a quiz on the steps taken for the development of education in India.

PLANNED ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT AND GROWTH OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY IN INDIA

Learning Objectives

1. Pupil acquires knowledge about the economic problems that India faced at the time of independence, the objectives of planning and about the Five Year Plans.

2. Pupil understands the achievements made through the Five Year Plans.

3. Pupil knows about Privatisation, Liberalisation, Globalisation processes and India's stand with regard to these trends.

4. Pupil understands about the scientific and technological developments that took place in India after independence.

The British rulers had kept India a producer of raw material. They neglected India's industrial development. The needs of the First and Second World Wars led to some industrial progress in India. But it was not appreciable. Partition of India had badly affected India's economy. About 68 per cent of the irrigated area of undivided India went to Pakistan. Due to it food production decreased. It led to shortage of food grains. The per capita income was very low. The standard of living was poor. Population increase led to unemployment. Hence India had to face many economic problems when she got independence in 1947. To overcome such problems India adopted the method of *Planned Economic Development.*

The Planning Commission, 1950 : Systematic planning is needed for the achievement of any long term or short-term goals. To make such planning for the country, Nehru's Government set up the *Planning Commission* in March,1950. Nehru became its first Chairman. The functions of this Commission are to 1. Draw Five Years Plans,

2. Assess the material, capital and human resources, 3. Determine the areas of resource allocation, 4. Appraise the economic progress of the country, and 5. Advise the Government on economic policies and programmes. Another body, known as the **National Development Council**, was also set up in 1952 to strengthen the planned economic development of the country. There is the involvement of the States in this body.

Objectives of Planning : The following became the main objectives of India's planning: 1.Increasing the National Income and the Per Capita Income of the people, 2. Raising the standard of living of the people, 3. Reducing poverty and unemployment, and 4. Providing equal opportunities to all.

Mixed Economy : Nehru's Government followed the policy of **Mixed Economy.** It means the co-existence of both the government owned (**Public Sector**) and private owned (**Private Sector**) industries. During the 1950's huge capital was needed to establish certain basic and heavy industries that are pillars of industrial development. The Government's Industrial Policy Resolution of 1948 and 1956 identified about 20 such industries. They are : Defence and Strategic Industries, Space Research, Atomic Power, Aircraft, Shipbuilding, Electrical, Railways, Steel Plants, Oil and its products, and Power Generation etc. They were to be promoted by the Government. Later Banking and Insurance also came under Government's control. The Indian Parliament accepted in 1956 the establishment of a **"socialistic pattern of society"** as an objective of the social and economic policies of the Government. It means the **Central Planning** of the economic activities of the country. It also led to the increased Government control over the private industries. The private sector was allowed to establish industries with license from the Government. They were controlled through the rules and regulations of the Government. Industries like Textiles, Cement, Automobiles, Engineering, Small and Cottage industries were left for private enterprises. But in the recent times, after liberalization, privatization since 1991 and globalisation in the last five years of the 20th Century, the concept of mixed economy has underwent a change.

Five Year Plans and Economic Achievements : India has executed **Nine** Five Year Plans so far. Now the **Tenth** Five Year Plan (2002-

2007) is in operation. The **First Five Year Plan** (1951-1956) was inaugurated in 1951. It gave importance to the development of **Agriculture.** Irrigation, Power, Industry and Transport also received attention**.** Multi-purpose River Valley Projects such as the **Damodar Project** (West Bengal and Bihar), the **Hirakud Dam** (*the world's longest dam*) across the Mahanadhi river in Orissa, **Bhakra Nangal Dam** across the river Sutlej (*India's biggest multi-purpose river valley project*), the **Tungabhadra** (Andhra Pradesh and Karnataka), **Kosi** (Bihar), **Chambal** (Madhya Pradesh and Rajasthan), **Mayurakshi** (West Bengal), and **Nagarjuna Sagar** (Andhra Pradesh) projects were taken up. The **Second Five Year Plan** (1956-1961) laid stress on heavy industries. Four **Steel Plants** at Bhilai, Bokaro, Durgapur and Rourkela came into existence. Additional plants came up at Salem, Vishkhapatnam, and Badravati. **Aluminium plants** came at Koyn and Korba. **Copper mining** started at Khetri, Agnikundla, Rakha and Malanjhand. **Zinc smelters** were set up at Udaipur and near Dhanbad. The **Third Five Year Plan** (1961-1966) gave importance to both agriculture and industry. It was during this period the **Green Revolution** (means **Agricultural Progress**) started in India. India attained **Food Self-Sufficiency** due to Green Revolution.

> The total production of food grains was 54,921,000 tonnes in 1949-50. It increased to 108,422,000 tonnes in 1970-71. Similarly wheat production increased from 6,759,000 tonnes to 26,477,000 tonnes in the same period.

Annual Plans were executed from1967 to 1969. The **Fourth Five Year Plan** (1969-1974) set up the target of 5 per cent Agricultural growth per annum and 9 per cent Industrial growth per annum. Out of the 600 major and medium irrigation projects taken up since 1951, 360 were completed by 1973.

The **Fifth Five Year Plan** (1974-1979) was a long term **Perspective Plan.** It wanted to cover a period of 10 years upto 1985. There was a new slogan **Garibi Hatao** (Remove Poverty) during this period. **Growth for Social Justice** became the ideal of Planning during this period. The Government of India adopted **Industrial Policy Resolutions** in 1973, 1978 and 1980. The **Operation Flood** programme began in the 1970's enabled India to become World's number one milk producer in 1997. Poultry development gained India

the fifth status in the world in egg production. Egg is available in every nook and corner of the country. Due to planned economic development our industrial production has increased. There is balanced regional development. The **Sixth Five Year Plan** (1980-85)**, Seventh Plan** (1985-90), **Eighth Plan** (1992-97) and **Ninth Plan** (1997-2002) had all set growth targets. They aimed at the development of agriculture, industry, human resources, physical and social infrastructure, employment generation, increase of national income, and removal of poverty.

> The First Five Year Plan had the Government outlay of Rs.2,400 Crores and the Ninth Plan (1997-2002) had Rs.8,59,000 Crores.

India's **National Income** that was Rs.9140 Crores in 1950-51 rose Rs.16,80,000 Crores in 1998-99. The **Per Capita Income** that was Rs.255 only in 1950-51 increased to about Rs.16,500 in 2000-01. The percentage of the population who lived below the **poverty line** was 55 in 1974 and it came down to 26 per cent in 2000 (people who earn below Rs.328/= in rural areas and Rs.454/= in urban areas are considered as living below the **poverty line**). In spite of our planned economic development, we still face poverty, unemployment and economic inequality. Population explosion is one of the main reasons for such a state of condition.

Privatisation : The policy of privatizing the state-owned industries emerged in the 1980s. It started in England during the Thatcher Era (1976-89). It spread to both the developed and developing countries. Basic and key industries, which were under the exclusive control of the Government such as Airways, Railways, Shipping, Power Generation, Water Works and Telecommunication etc., have been thrown open for private enterprises. Privatisation gained momentum when liberalization started in India after 1991.

Liberalisation : The restrictions imposed upon the private establishments to start industries that were exclusively owned and controlled by the Government were relaxed. This process began in India after 1991. After liberalization the number of industries reserved for the public sector in India has come down from 17 to 3. Now private sector is allowed to start steel, air transport, shipping, heavy-machinery and even defence industries. Similarly there has also been

the relaxation of all rules and regulations with regard to license, permissions to import and export, price control and marketing. This process is called as liberalization. *Disinvestment* has become the next step in liberalization. The *New Industrial Policy,* announced in 1991, has made Strategic and High-Tech Industries and Infrastructure as the Government investment areas. The Government began to raise resources by selling its equities in the Public and Public Undertakings to the Private sector. The Private sector is encouraged to become more professional and competitive. The Public sector has to face the challenge and become efficient.

Globalisation : Nations are economically interdependent at the global or international level. They have to necessarily integrate themselves with the global trade, business and market. World has become a global village due to communication and information revolution. This has made the member countries of the United Nations Organisation (UNO) to come together to set up the *World Trade Organisation* (**WTO**) on 1 January 1995. Its purpose is to promote trade among the world countries. Its headquarters is at *Geneva.* The member countries of WTO have to enter into liberal bilateral trade agreements. They must allow free flow of goods, capital, technology and labour. They have to relax trade restrictions in their countries. They have to remove the limits on import and export quotas. At the same time they have to accept WTO conditions. The WTO sets the global norms of trade which the member countries have to accept and follow. This is called as the *Globalisation process.* India is a member of the WTO.

Scientific and Technological Developments after Independence : Prior to independence India produced scientists like J.C.Bose, C.V.Raman and S.Ramanujan. A new chapter began in the history of Science and Technology in India after independence. Jawaharlal Nehru was a great believer in science and technology. He considered them as effective tools to bring rapid socio-economic changes in India. Therefore his Government promoted research in science and technology. The Parliament adopted Nehru's **"***Science Policy Resolution***"** in 1958. Three organizations played very important role in the promotion of science and technology in India. They are 1. The *Department of Atomic Energy* (**DAE**) which functioned under *H.J.Bhabha,* 2. The *Council of Scientific and Industrial Research*

(**CSIR**) that worked under **S.S.Bhatnagar***,* and 3. The ***Defence Science Organisation*** (**DSO**) headed by ***D.S.Kothari****.* Nehru laid the foundation for the National Physical Laboratory at Delhi in 1947.

> It is at this Laboratory an inscription bears the words of ***Louis Pasteur****:* "Take interest, I implore you in the sacred dwellings which one designates by the expressive term, laboratories. Demand that they be multiplied and advanced. These are the temples of the future (-temples of well-being and happiness). There it is that humanity grows greater, stronger, better."

Atomic Research: The Atomic Energy Commission was set up in August 1948. It became full-fledged Department of Atomic Energy (DAE) in 1954 under **Homi Jehangir Bhabha.** He was the founder of the Atomic Energy programme in India. The ***Bhabha Atomic Research Centre*** was set up at Mumbai in 1957. India uses Atomic Energy for the peaceful purpose of power generation. The first nuclear power station at ***Tarapur*** started generating power in October 1969.Two such centres came at ***Kota*** in Rajasthan and ***Kalpakkam*** near Chennai in Tamil Nadu. The fourth one was set up at ***Narora*** in Uttar Pradesh. Besides the availability of Hydro-electric power, these centres generate power which is very essential for industrial development.

> India carried out peaceful nuclear explosions at Phokran in Rajasthan on18 May 1974 and 11 May 1998.

Council of Scientific and Industrial Research : The Council of Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR), which was set up in 1942, was re-organised after independence. Nehru became its president. It was placed under ***S.S. Bhatnagar,*** a great scientist. Due to his efforts thirty national laboratories in different parts of India came up before 1964. Many more centres have come up all over India.

Space Research : Space research has made appreciable progress in India. ***Vikram A.Sarabai*** expanded the work of the ***Indian Space Research Organisation***

Vikram A. Sarabai

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(**ISRO**) which is situated at Bangalore. Space centres in India are located at **Bangalore** in Karnataka(the ISRO), **Thumba** near Thiruvanantha-puram in Kerala (the Vikram Sarabhai Space Centre), **Sri Harikota** (Satish Dhawan Space Centre) in Andhra Pradesh, **Mahen-dragiri** in Tamil Nadu (the Liquid Propulsion Systems Centre) and **Ahmedabad**. Satellite launching programme started
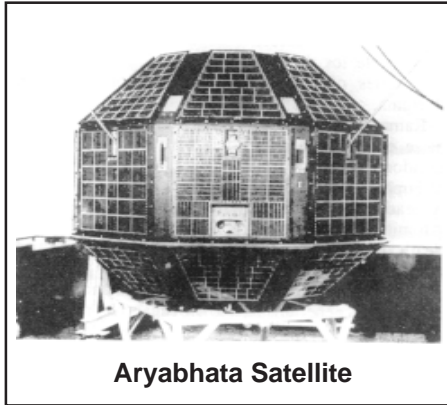
Aryabhata Satellite

in India in 1972. India's first satellite, **Aryabhata,** was launched in 1975.India has also launched other satellites Bhakara I and II. India has launched Satellite Launch Vehicles (SLVs), Augmented Satellite Launch Vehicles (ASLVs), Geo-Synchronous Satellite Launch Vehicle (GSLVs) and Polar Satellite Launch Vehicles (PSLVs).A series of Indian National Satellites (INSATs) launched from 1982 onwards have revolutionized our television, telecommunication, resource survey and management, environmental monitoring meteorological and information technology systems.

In **Oceanography** Indian scientists have made good progress. Our scientists have set up a research centre at Antarctica. It is called as the **Dakshin Gangotri.** In the field of agricultural research **M.S. Swaminathan** has contributed much for the success of the Green Revolution in India. Our missile technology has improved due to the contribution of **A.P.J. Abdul Kalam**. Research has progressed in many fields like food, fuel, fertilizers, physics, electronics, aeronautics, cosmic rays and chemistry.

Nehru's Government appointed a **Scientific Manpower Committee** in 1947 to assess the technical personnel needed for the country. It led to the establishment of the **Indian Institutes of Technology (IITs)** at Chennai, Delhi, Kanpur, Karagpur and Mumbai. Later two more have come at Roorkee and Assam. They have produced many trained technologists. India stands third in having trained technologists next to the United States and Russia. Computer engineering is popular in India. There are many computer scientists and professionals in the country.

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SELF-EVALUATION

I. Choose the correct answer

1. The Planning Commission was set up in the year

   a. 1956   b. 1950

   c. 1952   d. 1954

2. Five Year Plans are drawn by the

   a. Planning Commission   b. National Development
                                 Council

   c. Atomic Energy   d. Prime Minister's Office
      Commission

3. Nehru's Government followed the policy of

   a. Privatisation   b. Liberalisation

   c. Mixed Economy   d. Globalisation

4. Atomic Energy Commission was set up in India in the year

   a. 1945   b. 1948

   c. 1954   d. 1955

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5. The Indian Space Research Organisation is situated at

   a. Bangalore   b. New Delhi
   c. Hyderabad   d. Chennai

II. Fill in the blanks

1. The First Five Year Plan gave importance to——————.

2. The World Trade Organisation was set up in——————.

3. The founder of India's Atomic Energy Programme is ————————.

4. The Atomic Power station in Tamil Nadu is at ———————————.

III. Match the following

1. H.J.Bhabha   --   Uttar Pradesh
2. S.S.Bhatnagar   --   D S O
3. D.S.Kothari   --   Rajasthan
4. Kota   --   C S I R
5. Narora   --   D A E

IV. Answer briefly

1. Mention the functions of the Planning Commission.

2. Point out the objectives of planning.

3. What is meant by mixed economy?

4. What is meant by privatization?

5. Mention the places where the Atomic power stations are located in India.

6. Name the places where our Space Centres are located.

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V. Answer in detail

1. Write on the planned economic development of India after independence.

2. Estimate the growth of science and technology in India since independence.

VI. Practical exercise

1. Ask pupil to collect information on the industries in their locality.

2. Pupil to study the economic changes taking place in their vicinity.

Lesson – 9

INDIA'S FOREIGN POLICY

> **Learning Objectives**
>
> 1. Pupil understands the main features of *India's* foreign policy.
>
> 2. Pupil acquires knowledge about Panch Sheel.
>
> 3. Pupil learns about Non-alignment policy.
>
> 4. Pupil understands the importance of Regional Co-operation.
>
> 5. Pupil knows India's relationship with her neighbours and other countries.

A country's relation with the other countries of the world is known as her *External Relations.* The External relation of a country is based on certain principles and policies. They are collectively called as *External Policy* or *Foreign Policy.* The involvement of a country on the basis of such policy in world matters is known as the *Role of that country in World Affairs.*

India's foreign policy was evolved with the background of her colonial sufferings. Jawaharlal Nehru, the first Prime Minister of India, was the chief architect of India's foreign policy. *1. Promotion of World Peace, 2. Anti-Colonialism, 3. Anti-Imperialism, 4. Anti-Racialism, 5. Panch Sheel, 6. Non-Alignment, 7. Good Neighbourhood, 8. Regional Co-operation, 9. Role in the Common Wealth* and *10. Anti-Terrorism* became the main features of India's foreign policy since 1947.

1. **Promotion of World Peace :** India believes in the United Nations Organisation's principle of *Peace* and *Development.* Without peace there is no progress of mankind. India is a member of the U.N.O. from 1945. Nehru's sister *Mrs. Vijayalakshmi Pandit* was the first woman President of the U.N. General Assembly (1953 – 54). As a member of the U.N.O. India played an active role in reducing world tension when there was a war between North Korea and South Korea in 1950, during the Indo-China

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Crisis in 1954, the Suez Crisis in 1956, the Cango problem (1960 – 64) and the Angolan Crisis. India sent her military forces to help the U.N. maintain peace in Congo, Angola, Gaza and Cyprus. India lent her full support to the U.N. in resolving the Gulf Crisis in 1991.

2. **Anti-Colonialism :** India suffered a lot under the colonial rule of the British. India knew the evils of economic exploitation under colonialism. Therefore she did not want the continuation of colonialism in any part of the world under any form. She was interested particularly in the de-colonisation of the Asian, African and Latin American countries. Hence anti-colonialism became one of the main features of her foreign policy.

3. **Anti-Imperialism :** India was conscious of the serious consequences of imperialism by the West. ***Conquest, annexation and administration of a weak country by a powerful nation is called imperialism.*** Imperialism was one of the major causes for the First and Second World Wars (1914 – 18 and 1939 – 45). Since India was worst affected during these wars and got independence immediately after the Second World War, she was opposed to imperialism wherever it existed and in whatever form. The Economic Imperialism of the advanced countries is worst than the earlier form of imperialism. India is always opposed to any form of imperialism.

4. **Anti-Racialism :** The Western countries practised racialism. They treated the Asian and African people as inferior. They did not accept the racial equality of the Asians when Japan fought for it in 1919 at the Paris Peace Conference. However, the rise of Japan and China put an end to their superior attitude. Gandhi fought against it in South Africa before he involved in India's freedom movement. Inspite of it the South African White Government followed the *'Apartheid'* policy against the blacks. India had raised this issue for the first time in the U.N.O. in 1946. It was due to the continuous struggle of **Nelson Mandela** and constant moral support of India that the *'Apartheid'* policy has been dismantled recently.

5. **Panch Sheel :** India and China are neighbours in Asia. There existed historical and traditional relations between these two countries for several centuries. After China became a Communist
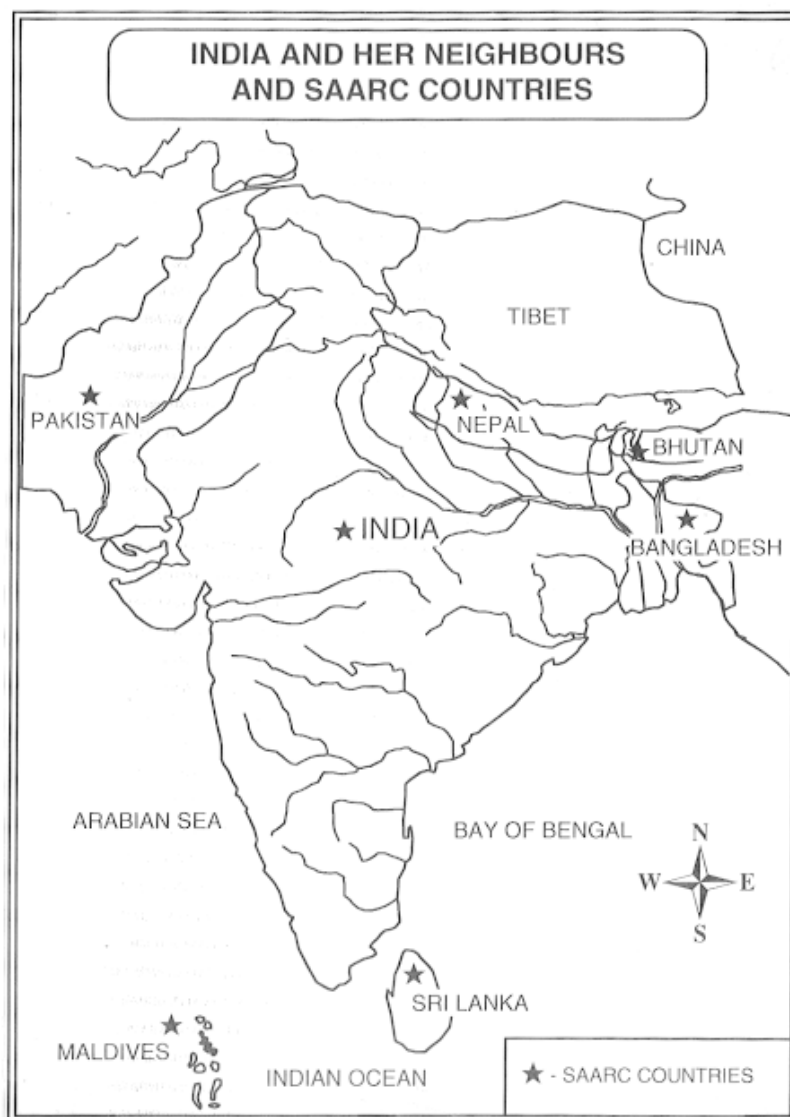
State in 1949, India moved closer with her. There was the visit of Nehru to China and China's Prime Minister **Chou-En-Lai** to India. Both countries had entered into an agreement in 1954 on the basis of **Five Principles,** called the **Panch Sheel.** They were : 1. Mutual respect for each others' territorial integrity and sovereignty, 2. Mutual non-aggression, 3. Mutual non-interference in each others internal matters, 4 Equality and mutual benefits, and 5. Peaceful Co-existence.

Nehru and Chou-En-Lai

These principles were accepted by as many as 29 Afro-Asian countries which took part in the **Bandung Conference** held in Indonesia in 1955. Even now these principles are relevant in good neighbourly relations.

6. **Non-Alignment :** The word **'non-aligned'** was coined by V.K. Krishna Menon. Jawaharlal Nehru made it the basic concept of India's foreign policy. After the Second World War, the United States and the former Soviet Union (Russia) had been engaged in Cold Wars, Arms-race, building of nuclear weapons and forming military blocs. The Capitalist United States backed the **North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO)** and the **South East Asia Treaty Organisation (SEATO).** Communist Russia backed the **Warsaw Pact** countries in the West and Communist China in the East. It created a great threat to world security and peace. India did not want to join in any of the blocs. She did not want to ally with any country. This is known as **non-alignment.** *It does not mean neutrality. It means independent course of action in international issues.* India wanted the newly independent African and Asian countries to follow this policy. There was good support for this policy in the Bandung Conference. Countries which accepted this policy came closer. It became a movement, called the **Non-Alignment Movement (NAM).** India's **Nehru,** Yugoslavia's **Tito,** Indonesia's **Sukarno** and Egypt's **Nasser** became the chief exponents of this policy.

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INDIA AND HER NEIGHBOURS
AND SAARC COUNTRIES

CHINA

TIBET

★
PAKISTAN

★
NEPAL

★ BHUTAN

★ INDIA

★
BANGLADESH

ARABIAN SEA

BAY OF BENGAL

N
W E
S

★
SRI LANKA

★
MALDIVES

INDIAN OCEAN

★ - SAARC COUNTRIES

They conducted the first conference of NAM at **Belgrade** in **Yugoslavia** *in 1961.* The second conference was held at **Cairo** in **Egypt** in 1964. At this conference **Lal Bahadur Shastri** spelt out this policy's positive programme. They are (1) Nuclear Disarmament, (2) Peaceful settlement of border disputes, (3) Freedom from foreign domination, aggression, subversion and racial discrimination, (4) Speeding up of economic development through international co-operation and (5) Full support for the United Nations and its programme for 'peace and development.'

The non-aligned countries acted as a third bloc in the U.N.O. The developing countries of Asia, Africa and Latin America which supported the reasonable arguments of the non-aligned countries came to be known as **Third World Countries.** About 12 summits have been conducted by NAM in the 20th Century. There are more than 112 countries as members of this movement. This movement is still relevant in the multi-polarised world to protect peace and security.

7. **Good Neighbourhood Policy :** India always wanted to have good neighbourly relations with China, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Nepal, Bhutan, Sri Lanka, Myanmar (Burma) and Maldives. India has entered into regional cooperation with these neighbours. I.K. Gujral, former Prime Minister of India, spelt out the Five Principles of India's 'neighbourhood' policy in 1996. They are : (1) Non-Reciprocal treatment, (2) Respect for territorial integrity, (3) Non-interference in the internal affairs, (4) No use of territory by any State against the interests of another, and (5) Direct talks to settle disputes. This is known as the **Gujral Doctrine.**

8. **Regional Co-operation through SAARC :** India believes in regional co-operation. Bangladesh came forward to work with India. The South Asian countries formed an associaltion called, the **South Asian Association for Regional Co-operation (SAARC).** Its first meeting was held at **Dacca** in **Bangladesh** in December 1985. **Kathmandu,** capital of Nepal, became its headquarters from 1986. (1) India, (2) Bangladesh, (3) Pakistan, (4) Nepal, (5) Bhutan, (6) Sri Lanka, and (7) Maldives are the 7 members now. The aim of this Association is to help each other in the social, economic and cultural fields. It has no political agenda. The members have agreed to co-operate in areas such as water,

energy, communication, transport, environment, transit, tourism, trade, investment etc. They signed a trade agreement called the **South Asian Preferential Trade Agreement (SAPTA) in 1993.** So far 12 submit meetings have been held. India is keenly interested in co-operating with her neighbours to maintain peace and stability in the region.

9. **Role in Commonwealth :** The former colonies of England had trade and cultural contacts. They formed the commonwealth. India became a member of it. Commonwealth countries co-operate in the fields of education, science, technology and culture. India did not want to cut off her relations with these countries.

10. **Anti-Terrorism :** Terrorist bodies and terrorism has become a threat to peace now. India is opposed to terrorism. India is always willing to cooperate with neighbours and other world countries in the fight against terrorism at global level.

INDIA'S RELATIONS WITH HER NEIGHBOURS AND OTHER COUNTRIES

Sino-Indian Relations : Sino-Indian relations got strained from 1957. China picked up border quarrel with India in 1959. She sent her troops to suppress a revolt in Tibet in that year. Tibet's **Dalai Lama** fled to India. China prepared for a war. She invaded India in 1962. India suffered reverses in the war. There was no cordial relationship between India and China till 1976. Former Prime Minister and Late Rajiv Gandhi's visit to China in 1988 brought normalcy in the relations. India and China signed three Agreements in that year for **Co-operation in Science and Technology, Air Service** and **Cultural Exchange.** Another Agreement on **Peace** and **Tranquility** was signed in 1993. The former Chinese President **Jiang Zemin** visited India in 1996. China and India signed four Agreements on **Confidence Building Measures** on that occasion. There is steady improvement of Sino-Indian relations.

Relations with Pakistan : The wounds of partition took a long time to heal between India and Pakistan. Kashmir became the hotspot and bone of contention. Its ruler and people joined with India. But the Kashmiri aspirants in Pakistan made futile the peace process. Foreign intriguers add fuel to their fire. There were wars in 1948, 1965, 1971 and the Kargil war in 1999. The **Tashkant Agreement 1966** and the

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Simla Agreement 1972 provide for dialogue and settlement of issues through peaceful negotiation. People of these countries have no illwill except the Governments and the intriguers.

India and Sri Lanka : India and Sri Lanka are good neighbours. Sri Lanka always supported India on just and reasonable grounds. Except the ethnic Tamils problem which led to sending of the *Indian Peace Keeping Force in 1990 (IPKF),* India Sri Lanka relations are smooth.

Relations with other Countries : Indo-U.S. relations was not impressive till 1973. The U.S. Secretary of State *Henry Kissinger* visited India in 1974. Since then co-operation in trade, science and technology exist between these two countries. India maintained good contacts with Russia from 1953. India got help from Russia, France, Germany and England to build her steel plants. There has been increasing co-operation between Japan, South Korea, Malaysia, Singapore and other countries in Asia and India. India has also maintained good contact with African, Middle East, Canada, Australia and Latin American countries.

Learning Outcome

1. Pupil will explain the main features of India's foreign policy.

2. Pupil will be able to describe the Panch Sheel and non-alignment policy.

3. Pupil will be able to discuss Sino-Indian relations.

4. Pupil will define the Gujral Doctrine.

5. Pupil will outline India's relation with other countries.

Self – Evaluation

I. Choose the correct answer

1. India became a member of the U.N.O. in

   a. 1944   b. 1945

   c. 1947   d. 1946

2. Apartheid was practiced in

   a. South Africa   b. Asia

   c. China   d. Africa

3. The first non-aligned conference was held at

   a. Cairo   b. Dacca

   c. Belgrade   d. Jakarta

4. The headquarters of SAARC is

   a. Dacca   b. Kathmandu

   c. Male   d. New Delhi

II. Fill in the blanks

1. The Bandung Conference was held in the year _____
2. Panch Sheel consists of _____ Principles.
3. The expansion for SAARC is _____ _____ _____
4. Sino-Indian war took place in the year _____
5. The Kargil war took place in the year _____

III. Match the following

1. Mrs. Vijayalakshmi Pandit -- 1985
2. SAARC   -- 1996
3. SAPTA   -- Yugoslavia
4. Tito   -- 1996
5. Gujral Doctrine   -- First Women President of the U.N. General Assembly.

IV. Answer briefly

1. What is meant by imperialism?
2. Who were the chief exponents of the non-alignment movement?
3. Name the member countries of the SAARC.
4. Expand SAPTA
5. When did Rajiv Gandhi Visit China?

V. Answer in detail

1. Explain India's foreign policy.
2. Describe the relations of India with neighbours and other countries.

VI. Practical exercise
1. Mark on the outline map India's neighbour countries.
2. Ask pupil to collect pictures of Nehru, Chou-Enllai, Tito, Nasser and other world leaders who visited India.

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CIVICS

UNIT – I

Lesson – 1

FORM OF FEDERAL GOVERNMENT

Learning Objectives

1. Pupil acquires knowledge about the Federal Government.

2. Pupil knows what are the features of the Federal Government.

3. Pupil knows about the nature of Indian Federal Structure.

4. Pupil understands the relationship between Central and State Governments and Union Territories.

The term 'Federation' is derived from the Latin word *'Foedus'.* It means treaty or agreement. A Federal State comes into existence as a result of the Union of States. Therefore in a *Federal State* there exist two government bodies i.e. one at the *Centre* and the other in the *States.* Both have independent powers divided by a written and rigid constitution. Otherwise, there are Central Government and units in a federal state. The examples for federal governments are *U.S.A., Australia, Switzerland, India* and *Canada.* If there exists only one government in a country it is called a *Unitary State.* Countries like *England* and *Sri Lanka* are the examples of Unitary Governments.

Essential features of the Federal Government : A federal government has four essential characteristics. They are as follows : 1. The supremacy of the Constitution, 2. Division of powers between the Centre and the States, 3. The rigidity of the Constitution and 4. The existence of the Independent Judiciary.

1. **The Supremacy of the Constitution :** Every federal government must necessarily have a written Constitution. It must be a rigid one. The powers and functions of the Union Executive, Legislature and the State Executive and Legislature are prescribed by the Constitution.

Neither the Executive nor the Legistature functions against the Constitution.

2. **Division of powers between the Centre and the States :** In a federal constitution there must be the division of powers between the Central Government and the State Governments. Usually, the powers that are of national importance are allocated to the Central Government. Those subjects which are of local importance are given to the State Governments. The unspecified or residuary powers are left either with the Centre or with the States. In the Indian Constitution the powers of the Central Government are mentioned in the **Union List.** There are 97 subjects in this list. The *State list* consists of 66 subjects. There are 47 subjects in the **Common or Concurrent List.** The unspecified or residuary powers rest with the Central Government. Any change in these lists can be made only by an amendment to the Constitution.

3. **Rigidity of the Constitution :** A federal state must have a written Constitution. It cannot be easily amended. Therefore, it is a rigid Constitution. The amendment to such constitutions are effected by difficult processes. In Australia and Switzerland every constitutional amendment requires the approval of the people. In America, the amendments to the constitution can be made with the support of the absolute majority of the Congress together with the support of three fourth of the State Legislatures. In India, the constitutional amendments can be made in three different ways. To amend certain parts of the Indian Constitution, two thirds majority in both the Houses of Parliament is required. To amend certain other parts, such as changing the name of a State, changing the frontiers of the State and creating new States simple majority in the Parliament is enough. To amend some other parts of the Constitution two thirds majority of both the Houses of Parliament and ratification by half of the State Legislatures are essential.

4. **Independent Judiciary and its Judicial Review Power :** A Federal State is characterized by the existence of an Independent Judiciary. The Centre and the States in this system fulfill their constitutional obligations within the framework of the constitution. However, conflicts may arise between them on one pretext or another. In order to settle such conflicts judicial opinion is required. Therefore, an independent judiciary is a must in a federal state to offer such opinion or interpret the constitution. The Centre as well as the States

have to abide by the decision taken by the Supreme Court. This is called as the *Judicial Review* power of the Supreme Court.

Merits of Federal Government : Federation as a form of government is widely accepted and appreciated by several political scientists. The merits of federal government are explained in the following lines:

1. The small states make a stable union and thus they gain in strength, 2. Federation is suitable for the big countries with different races, cultures, languages and religions, 3. The regional and local problems are solved immediately, 4. The federal government enhances the value of the small states, 5. It is also economically advantages for small states to strengthen themselves, 6. In a federal system there is no danger of the rise of authoritarian government, 7. In a federal government local talents are encouraged, 8. There is no overburdening of work and 9. There is no centralization of powers.

Demerits of Federal Government : 1. It is an expensive form of government, 2. Some times there may occur inconsistency in internal and external affairs, 3. Many conflicts may arise between the centre and states over the question of authority and power, 4. The national integrity may be affected due to such conflicts between the Centre and the States, 5. There may be a delay and wastage of energy and 6. Due to the rigidity of the constitution, no immediate legal remedies could be provided to free the socio-economic challenges of the times.

Centre – State Relations : There are 28 States and 6 Union Territories and 1 National Capital Territory (Delhi) in India. As far as India is concerned the federal system, as mentioned in our Constitution, is not similar to any federal system of the world. The relations between the Centre and the States in our country occupy a great significance. Articles 235 to 263 of our Constitution, while distributing powers between the Centre and States provide more powers to the Centre with a view to safeguard and promote national unity, integrity, independence and sovereignty of the country. In India, the federal system works on the principle of neither independence nor dependence but of inter-dependence of both the Centre and the States.

The relations between the Centre and the States may be explained under the following heads : 1. Legislative Relations 2. Administrative Relations and 3. Financial Relations.

1. Legislative Relations : The subjects included in the Union list are of national importance. Defence, Foreign affairs, Railways, Posts and

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Telegraphs, Currency and Coinage etc., are some of the important subjects included in the list. State list consists of those subjects upon which the State Legislatures are empowered to make laws. Law and Order, Police, Jails, Public Health, Local bodies, Agriculture etc., are some of the important subjects included in the State List. Both the Centre and States are allowed to make laws over the subjects included in the Concurrent List. However, the Central law will supercede the State Law in case of contradiction. Marriage, Divorce, Education, Labour Welfare etc., are some of the subjects included in the Concurrent List.

2. Administrative Relations : In normal conditions, the State Governments enjoy absolute powers over the administrative matters within their jurisdiction. However, the Central Government exercises control over the administrative affairs of the States under certain conditions. On the whole, the administrative relations between the Centre and the States may be explained as follows :

1. The administrative powers of the union extends to all matters on which Parliament can make laws (Article 162), 2. The Union Government can issue necessary directions to the State for the purpose of exercising the law (Article 257), 3. The President of India appoints the State Governors. The Governors act as the direct agents of the Central Government in the States. They submit periodical reports to the Centre about the conditions in the State, 4. The Central government administers the Union Territories directly. The Lieutenant Governor or Chief Commissioner of the Union Territories are appointed by the President of India and 5. The Parliament can frame rules regarding the settlement of the disputes between two States with regard to the use of water and boundaries.

3. Financial Relations : The Constitution of India also distributes the financial power between the Centre and the States. Some of the relations may be explained as follows :

1. Taxes like income-tax are levied and collected by the Central Government. But proceeds of these taxes are shared among the Centre and the States, 2. The Central Government may, subject to the law of Parliament, provide loans to the States. It may also guarantee

loans to the States, 3. The President of India appoints the ***Comptroller*** and ***Auditor General*** of India. He entrusts duties and confers him such powers in relation to State accounts and 4. The President of India constitutes a ***Finance Commission*** for every five years to review the allocation of certain tax proceeds and the principles of Grants-in-aid to the States.

Thus our Constitution distributes powers between the Centre and States. Both the Centre and the States have been provided with authority to exercise their respective powers independently. Late Prime Minister Indira Gandhi appointed the **Sarkaria Commission** to make an enquiry into the Centre-State relations. It made certain recommendations to improve the relations between the Centre and the States within the purview of the Constitution.

Learning outcome

1. Pupil will be able to explain what is meant by Federal Government.
2. Pupil will be able to explain the essential features of the Federal Government.
3. Pupil will be able to describe merits and demerits of the Federal Government.

4. Pupil will be able to point out the relations between the Centre and the States.

Self-Evaluation

I. Choose the correct answer

1. 'Foedus' is a
   a. Greek word   b. Latin word
   c. English word   d. None of the above

2. Essential feature of the Federal Government is the existence of
   a. Two states   b. Units only
   c. Two countries   d. Central Government and units

3. The number of subjects in the Union List are
   a. 67   b. 97
   c. 47   d. 57

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II. Fill in the blanks

1. U.S.A. is a _____ Government.

2. In India the residuary powers rest with the _____ Government.

3. State list consists of_____ _____ _____subjects.

4. Federal States have an _____ judiciary.

III. Match the following

1. Concurrent list   --   A Feature of Federation
2. Railways   --   Unitary State
3. Rigidity   --   Education
4. Lieutenant Governor   --   Union List
5. England   --   Union Territories

IV. Answer briefly

1. What is meant by Federation?

2. What are the features of the federal government?

3. Briefly discuss the merits of Federal Government.

4. List out the three heads of the relations between the Centre and the States.

V. Answer in detail

1. Point out the merits and demerits of the Federal Government.

2. Explain the relationship between the Centre and the States in India.

VI. Practical exercises

1. Prepare a chart on Division of powers between the Centre and the States.

2. Pupil to list out the Indian States and Union Territories.

THE UNION GOVERNMENT OF INDIA

Learning Objectives

1. Pupil understands the powers and functions of the Union Executive, Legislature and Judiciary.

2. Pupil knows about the qualifications for election as President, Vice-President and Prime Minister of India.

3. Pupil acquires knowledge about the functioning of the Cabinet system.

4. Pupil knows about the powers and functions of the Indian Parliament.

5. Pupil understands the functioning of the Supreme Court of India.

The Union Government is the highest government in our country. The headquarters of the Union government is at **New Delhi.** The Union Government consists of three organs, namely, *Union Executive, Legislature* and *Judiciary.* The Union Executive consists of the President of India, the Vice-President and the Council of Ministers headed by the Prime Minister. The Legislature is known as the Parliament. It consists of two houses, namely the **Rajya Sabha** and **Lok Sabha.** The Union Judiciary consists of the Supreme Court of India. The structure, powers and functions of these organs can be explained as follows:

The President : The President of India is the first citizen of the country. The President is the Head of the State. He / she occupies the highest office in the country. The entire executive authority in the union is formally vested in the President.

Qualifications for election as President : To contest election to the office of the President of India, a candidate should have the following qualifications. (1) He / she should be a citizen of India,

UNION GOVERNMENT

EXECUTIVE	LEGISLATURE	JUDICIARY
PRESIDENT OF INDIA	PARLIAMENT	SUPREME COURT OF INDIA
VICE-PRESIDENT	LOK SABHA RAJYA SABHA	CHIEF JUSTICE OF INDIA
PRIME MINISTER		OTHER JUDGES 25
COUNCIL OF MINISTERS		

543 ELECTED BY THE PEOPLE	2 NOMINATED BY THE PRESIDENT	238 ELECTED BY THE STATE ASSEMBLIES	12 NOMINATED BY THE PRESIDENT
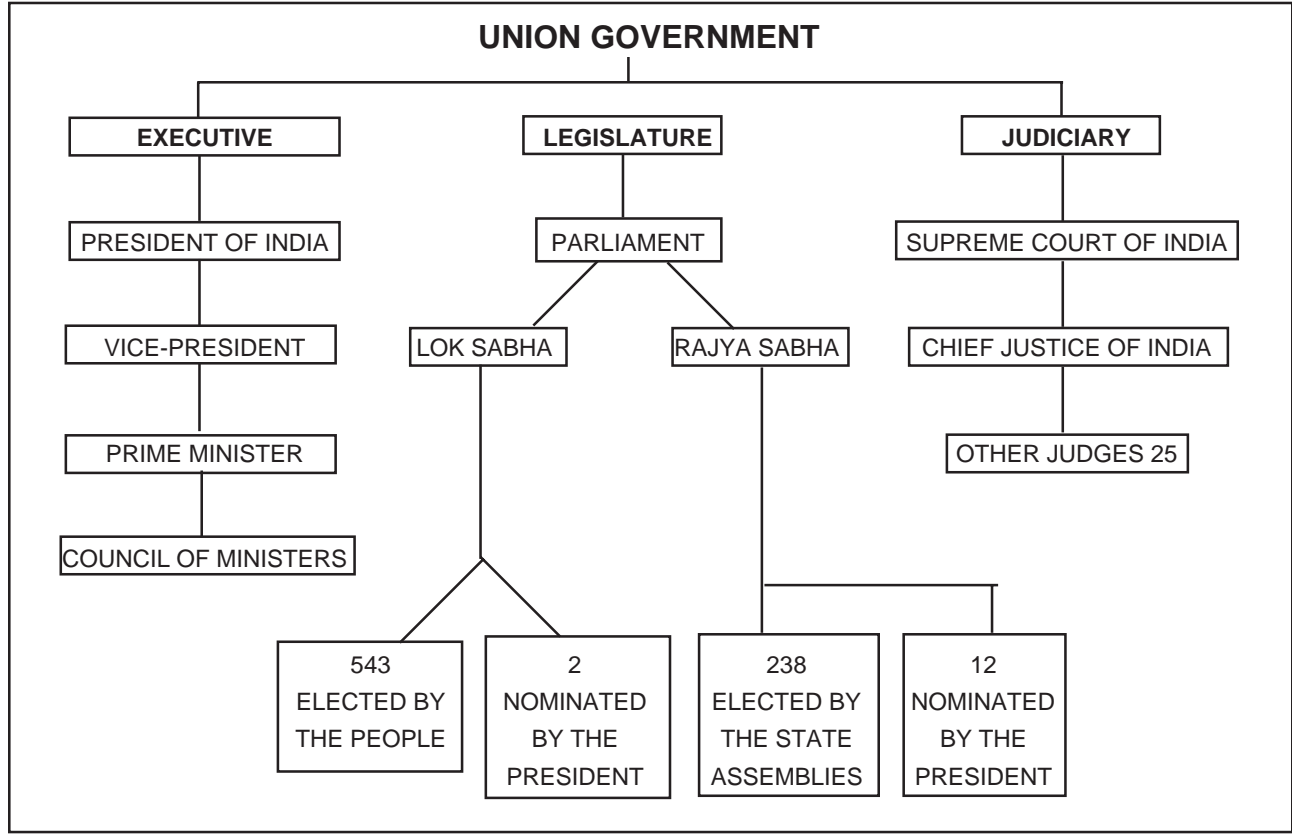
(2) He / she should have completed thirty-five years of age, (3) He / she should not hold an office of profit under the Union Government, State Government or local body, (4) He / she should have the other qualifications required to become a member of the Lok Sabha, (5) His / her name should be proposed by at least ten electors and seconded by another ten electors of the electoral college which elects the President. The President is elected for a period of 5 years. He / she is eligible for re-election.

The President of India is elected by the elected members of the Lok Sabha, Rajya Sabha and the elected members of the State Legislative Assemblies of all the States. Once elected as the President he / she has to take an oath of office before the Chief Justice of India.

Powers and functions of the President : *1. Executive Powers :* The Constitution of India provides that the executive powers of the Union Government shall be vested in the President. They shall be exercised by him / her directly or through officers subordinate to the President. There shall be a Council of Ministers with the Prime Minister as the head to aid and advise the President in the exercise of his functions. All the executive actions of the Government are taken in the name of the President.

The President appoints the Prime Minister, the Council of Ministers, the Governors of the States, the Chief Justice and the other Judges of the Supreme Court and High Court and all other key officers.

2. Legislative Powers : The President of India summons the Parliament atleast twice in a year. President prorogues or terminates the sessions of both or any of the Houses of Parliament. The President is empowered to dissolve the Lok Sabha. The President nominates 12 members to the Rajya Sabha, some among them are to be distinguished persons in the field of art, science, literature and social service. He / she can also nominate not more than two members to the Lok Sabha from among the Anglo-Indian community, if in his / her opinion that community is not adequately represented therein.

President addresses the Parliament. He / she may address the joint sitting of both the Houses or any of its Houses separately. He / she can convene a joint sitting of the Lok Sabha and Rajya Sabha to resolve the dispute if any. No bill passed by the Parliament can become
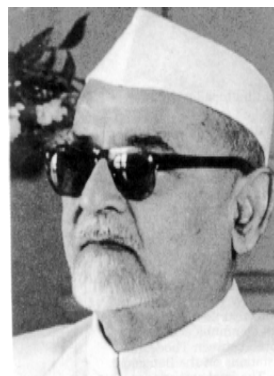
OUR PRESIDENTS SINCE 1950
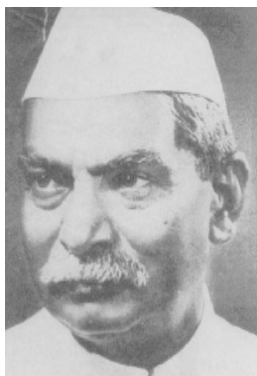
Dr. Rajendra Prasad
1950-1962

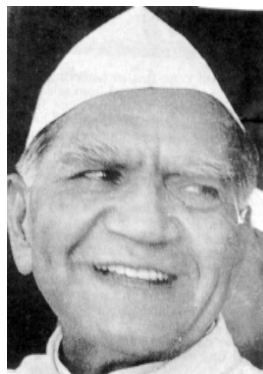Dr. S. Radhakrishnan
1962-1967

Dr. Zakir Hussain
1967-1969

V.V. Giri
1969-1974

Fakhruddin Ali Ahmed
1974-1977

N. Sanjiva Reddy
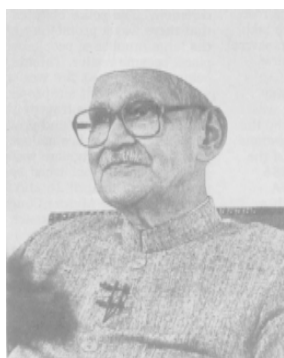1977-1982

Giani Zail Singh
1982-1987

R. Venkataraman
1987-1992

Dr. S.D. Sharma
1992-1997

K.R. Narayanan
1997-2002

Dr. A.P.J. Abdul Kalam
2002-

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a law without the assent or approval of the President. The President is empowered to issue an ordinance when the Parliament is not in session.

3. Financial Powers : No money bill can be introduced in the Parliament without the recommendation of the President. The Constitution of India places the Contingency Fund of India at the disposal of the President. The President is authorized to make advances out of it to meet the unforeseen expenditure pending its final authorization by the Parliament. Every five year, or on the demand of the States, the President appoints a *Finance Commission.*

4. Judicial Powers : The President has the power to grant pardon, reprieve or remission of punishment. The President has the right to seek advice of the Supreme Court on a matter involving Constitutional Law.

5. Emergency Powers : The President of India is vested with emergency powers. They are as follows : **A.** Declare emergency due to war or external aggression or armed rebellion, **B.** Emergency due to failure of constitutional machinery in States and **C.** Financial Emergency.

Vice-President : Our Constitution provides for a Vice-President. He / she is elected by the members of both the Houses of the Parliament. A candidate for this office must be a citizen of India, should have completed 35 years of age and should be qualified to be a member of the Rajya Sabha. The term of office of the Vice-President is five years. The Vice-President is Ex-officio Chairman of the Rajya Sabha. When the President is unable to discharge his duties due to illness or absence from the country, the Vice-President attends to the functions of the President. If the office of the President falls vacant due to his / her resignation, death or impeachment, the Vice-President can act as the President for a maximum period of six months.

Prime Minister and the Council of Ministers : The Constitution provides that there shall be a Council of Ministers with the Prime Minister as the head to aid and advise the President. He / she may direct the Council to re-consider their advice, but is bound by the advice given after reconsideration.

INDIA'S PRIME MINISTERS
SINCE 1947

Sl.No.	Name	Year
1.	Thiru Jawaharlal Nehru	1947-1964
2.	Thiru Lal Bahadur Shastri	1964-1966
3.	Tmt. Indira Gandhi	1966-1977
4.	Thiru Morarji Desai	1977-1979
5.	Thiru Charan Singh	1979-1980
6.	Tmt. Indira Gandhi	1980-1984
7.	Thiru Rajiv Gandhi	1984-1989
8.	Thiru V.P. Singh	1989-1990

INDIA'S PRIME MINISTERS
SINCE 1947

SI.No.	Name	Year
9.	Thiru Chandra Sekhar	1990-1991
10.	Thiru P.V. Narasimha Rao	1991-1996
11.	Thiru A.B. Vajpayee	MAY 1996
12.	Thiru H.D. Deve Gowda	1996-1997
13.	Thiru I.K. Gujral	1997-1998
14.	Thiru A.B. Vajpayee	Apri 1998
15.	Thriu A.B. Vajpayee	1999-2004
16.	Dr. Manmohan Singh	2004 -

Appointment of Prime Minister : The leader of the majority party in the Lok Sabha is appointed by the President as the Prime Minister. The other ministers are appointed by the President on the advice of the Prime Minister. If no party commands absolute majority in the Lok Sabha, the President can summon the leader of any party who, in his opinion, can manage to form a ministry. The President administers to the ministers the oath of office and of secrecy. The salaries and allowances of the Prime Minister and the ministers are determined by the Parliament. A person who is not a member of the Parliament can be appointed as a minister but he has to get himself / herself elected to the Parliament within 6 months. Ministers are individually as well as collectively responsible to the Lok Sabha.

There are three categories of Ministers. Besides the Prime Minister, there are **Cabinet Ministers, Ministers of State** and **Deputy Ministers.** The Cabinet Ministers hold the important portfolios and decide major policies of the Government.

The second and third categories are not the members of the Cabinet. They do not attend to its meetings unless they are specially invited to do so. A Minister of State is higher in status than a Deputy Minister. He/She may or may not be given independent charge. A Deputy Minister assists the Cabinet Minister.

Position and Powers of the Prime Minister : The real executive powers in India rests with the Prime Minister. The Prime Minister distributes the portfolios among the ministers. The Prime Minister can ask for the resignation of any minister.

The Prime Minister decides the dates and the agenda of the meeting of the Cabinet which he/she presides. The Prime Minister is the Head of the Cabinet and the other ministers are his/her colleagues. The Prime Minister informally consults two or three of his /her senior colleagues when he/she does not convene a Cabinet meeting. The Prime Minister supervises the work of various ministries.

Cabinet : The Cabinet is an informal body of senior ministers who form the nucleus of administration. Important decisions of the government are taken by the Cabinet. The decisions are bound to be followed by other ministers.

Important Legislative functions of the Cabinet are, deciding the dates for holding sessions and for proroguing the Parliament. The

cabinet recommends to the President to promulgate an ordinance. It is instrumental in moving Amendments to the Constitution.

Its administrative functions are formulating national policies and co-ordinating the opinions of all the ministers. The Annual Budget is prepared by the Finance Minister as discussed by the Cabinet. The Finance bills have their origin in the Cabinet and then they are introduced in the Lok Sabha with the Presidents recommendations.

The Cabinet decides the foreign policy of the Government, approves international treaties and plays a significant role in the appointment of Ambassadors to various countries.

Parliament of India : The Parliament of India consists of the President of India, the ***Council of States*** (Rajya Sabha) and the ***House of the People*** (Lok Sabha).

Rajya Sabha members Qualifications : In order to become a member of the Rajya Sabha, a candidate must possess the following qualifications :

1) He / she must be an Indian citizen, 2. He / she must be 30 years of age, 3) He / she must possess such other qualifications as may be prescribed by law, 4) He / she should not hold any office of profit under the State or Central government, 5) He / she should not be of unsound of mind or an undischarged insolvent.

The Rajya Sabha is a permanent body. It cannot be dissolved. Members of the Rajya Sabha have a 6 years term. One third of its members retire every two years, and new members are elected to fill the seats thus vacated.

Lok Sabha Members Qualifications : A person must have the following qualifications to become the member of the Lok Sabha.

1) He / she should be a citizen of India, 2) He / she should not be less than 25 years of age, 3) He / she should have his / her name in the electoral rolls in some part of the country and 4) He / she should not hold an office of profit under the Government. The term of the Lok Sabha is for five years. The Lok Sabha can be dissolved by the President before the expiry of its term on the advice of the Prime Minister.

Powers and functions of the Parliament : The Parliament of India has the functions of Legislation, overseeing of administration, passing of Budget, ventilation of public grievances, discussion of various subjects like development plans, international relations and internal

policies. Parliament is also vested with powers to impeach the President and to remove Judges of the Supreme Court and High Courts, Chief Election Commissioner and Comptroller and Auditor-General of India in accordance with the procedure laid down in the Constitution.

The Parliament exercises control over the executive through asking questions and supplementary questions, moving motions of adjournment, discussing and passing resolutions, discussing and pushing censure motion or vote of no-confidence. The Parliament has the power to change the boundaries of the States.

Judiciary : Judiciary is the third organ of the government. It plays an important role in protecting the rights and freedom of the citizens. It also plays a significant role in analysing and interpreting the provisions of laws and the Constitution.

The Supreme Court : The Supreme Court of India consists of the Chief Justice and 25 other Judges. The Chief Justice is appointed by the President and the other Judges of the Supreme Court are appointed by the President in consultation with the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court.

According to the Constitution a person is eligible for appointment as judge of the Supreme Court only if 1) He / she is a citizen of India, 2) He / she has been, for at least five years, a Judge of a High Court or of two or more such courts in succession or 3) He / she has been, for atleast ten years, an advocate of a High Court or of two or more such courts in succession or 4) He / she is in the opinion of the President, a distinguished Jurist.

The Judges of the Supreme Court hold office until they attain the age of 65 years. The Supreme Court has its permanent seat in *New Delhi.* However, it can sit at any other State or places which may be decided by the Chief Justice of India with the approval of the President of India.

Powers and functions of the Supreme Court

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            ┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
            │ Jurisdiction of the Supreme Court   │
            └─────────────────────────────────────┘
    ┌───────────┬───────────┬───────────┬───────────┐
┌─────────┐ ┌─────────┐ ┌─────────┐ ┌──────────────┐
│Original │ │Appellate│ │Advisory │ │Miscellaneous │
│Jurisdic-│ │Jurisdic-│ │Jurisdic-│ │ Jurisdiction │
│  tion   │ │  tion   │ │  tion   │ │              │
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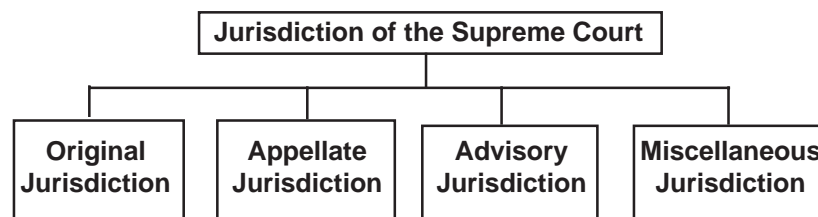
1. Original Jurisdiction : The Constitution of India vests the Supreme Court with original and exclusive Jurisdiction in any dispute : **A)** between the Government of India and one or more States, or **B)** between the Government of India and any State or States on one side and one or more other States on the other or **C)** between two or more States; The cases involving disputes over the enforcement of Fundamental Rights fall within the Original Jurisdiction of the Supreme Court. The Supreme Court is authorised to issue directions, orders or writs for the enforcement of these rights. The writs which can be issued by the Supreme Court for this purpose include : 1) Habeas Corpus, 2) Mandamus, 3) Prohibition, 4) Quo warranto, 5) Certiorari.

2. Appellate Jurisdiction : The Supreme Court is the final appellate court in the country. The Supreme Court hears appeals against the judgements of the High Courts of States in both Civil and Criminal cases. Such a case can be brought before the Supreme Court only if the High Court certifies that the case invites a substantial question of law as to the interpretation of the Constitution.

3. Advisory Jurisdiction : The Constitution confers on the President the power to refer to the Supreme Court any question of law or fact which in his /her opinion is of public importance.

4. Miscellaneous Jurisdiction : The Supreme Court is a court of record and enjoys all the powers of such a court including the power to punish for contempt of itself.

- **A.** The law declared by Supreme Court is binding on all courts within the territory of India.
- **B.** The Supreme Court is authorised to make rules for regulating, generally the practice and procedure of the court with the approval of the President.
- **C.** The Supreme Court has complete control over its own establishment.

Judicial Review : The Supreme Court is the guardian of the Constitution. The power of the Judiciary to declare a law as unconstitutional is called as *Judicial Review.* The Supreme Court enjoys this power. The Supreme Court of India has **Individual Review Power** with regard to A) disputes between the Centre and the States, B) to interpret and clarify a provision of the Constitution about which

there are some doubts and differences of opinion. C) protecting the fundamental rights, D) Those laws passed by the legislatures which are not in accordance with the Constitution.

Learning outcome

1. Pupil will be able to list out the powers and functions of the Union Executive, Legislature and Judiciary.

2. Pupil will be able to describe the qualifications for election as President of India and Vice-President.

3. Pupil will be able to explain about the Parliament structure and Union government.

4. Pupil will be able to point out the powers and functions of the Supreme Court of India.

Self–Evaluation

I. Choose the correct answer

1. The Union Government consist of

   a. Two organs
   b. Three organs
   c. One organ
   d. Four organs

2. The Council of Ministers is headed by

   a. The Prime Minister
   b. The President
   c. The Vice-President
   d. The Deputy Prime Minister

3. The Rajya Sabha consists of

   a. 238 members
   b. 248 members
   c. 250 members
   d. 12 members

4. The Supreme Court's permanent seat is at

   a. Chennai
   b. Mumbai
   c. Kolkata
   d. New Delhi

II. Fill in the blanks

1. The Parliament consists of _____ Houses.

2. The President is the Head of the _____

3. The Prime Minister is the Head of the_____

4. Council of Ministers is collectively responsible to the _____

III. Match the following

1. The President   --   Lower House

2. The Prime Minister   --   Third organ

3. The Vice-President   --   Real Head

4. Judiciary   --   Nominal Head

5. Lok Sabha   --   Ex-officio chairman
                              of the Rajya Sabha.

IV. Answer briefly

1. What are the qualifications required for election as President?

2. How is the Vice-President elected in India?

3. Explain the categories of ministers in the Union Council of Ministers.

4. Write a short note on Judicial Review?

V. Answer in detail

1. Write about the structure of the Union Government.

2. Explain the powers of the Prime Minister.

3. Explain the powers and functions of the Supreme Court.

VI. Teaching and learning activities

1. Prepare a flow chart showing the wings of the Union Government.

2. List out the names of Heads of Union Executive, Legislature and Judiciary.

Lesson – 3

THE STATE GOVERNMENT

Learning Objectives

1. Pupil acquires knowledge about the structure of the State Government.

2. Pupil understands the powers and functions of the Governor, Chief Minister, Ministers and Speaker.

3. Pupil knows about the State Legislature.

4. Pupil knows about the Judicial system in the State.

India is a Union of States. There are 28 States, 6 Union Territories and 1 National Capital Territory (Delhi). The powers and functions of State Government are clearly defined in the Indian Constitution. The Indian Parliament can alter the boundaries of the States and change the names of the States, if required. For example the name of the ***Madras State*** was changed into ***Tamil Nadu*** in 1967. The States are responsible for the administration of the subjects included in the State List of the Constitution. Let us discuss about the ***State Executive, Legislature*** and ***Judiciary.***

The Executive : The structure of the State Government, as formed in the Centre, consists of three branches. These are the **Executive,** the **Legislature** and the **Judiciary.** The Executive in each State consists of a **Governor** and a **Council of Ministers,** headed by a **Chief Minister.** The Governor is the nominal and constitutional head of the State Government. The Council of Ministers is the real executive. It is responsible to the Legislative Assembly. All the Executive powers of the State are vested with the Governor. The executive actions are also carried on in the name of the Governor. Articles 151 to 160 deal with the appointment, qualification, powers and functions of the Governor.

The Governor is appointed by the President of India on the recommendation of the Union Council of Ministers. Normally, the Chief

Minister of the State is consulted before a person is appointed as Governor. The Governor is also an outsider of the State concerned. The President can also appoint the Governor of a State to be the administrator of an adjoining Union Territory. For example, the Governor of Tamil Nadu was also the administrator of the Union Territory of Pondicherry many times.

Qualification, Tenure and Privileges : The Constitution describes the qualification, tenure, privileges and other things of the Governor. Accordingly, 1) He / she should be a citizen of India, 2) He / she must have completed 35 years of age, 3) He / she should not be a member of Parliament or of any State Legislature. If he / she is a member of any of Legislature, he / she automatically vacates his / her seat on assuming the office, 4) He / she should not hold any other profitable occupation.

The tenure of the office of the Governor is normally five years. But he / she can hold office during the pleasure of the President. The President may remove the Governor without mentioning any reason.

Powers and functions of the Governor : The Governor possesses and performs the following powers and functions : 1) Executive powers, 2) Legislative powers and functions, 3) Financial Power, 4) Judicial power and 5) Miscellaneous powers

1. Executive Power : The Constitution vests all executive powers of the State Government in the Governor. He appoints the majority party leader in the State Legislative Assembly as the Chief Minister and other ministers on the advice of the Chief Minister. He appoints the Advocate-General, Chairman and members of State Public Service Commission, Vice-Chancellors of the Universities in the State etc. The Governor has the constitutional duty to send reports to the President regarding the functioning of the State Government. He directly rules a State when there is the imposition of the President's rule in the State.

2. Legislative Powers and functions : The Governor is a part of the State Legislature, which may contain a single house or two houses. He / she nominates 1/6 of the members to the Legislative Council. He / she addresses the Legislative Assembly or both houses of the State Legislature. All bills passed by the State Legislature become laws only with his / her assent.

3. Financial Powers : The permission of the Governor is necessary for introducing money bills in the State Legislature. No demand of grants can be made except on the recommendation of the Governor. The
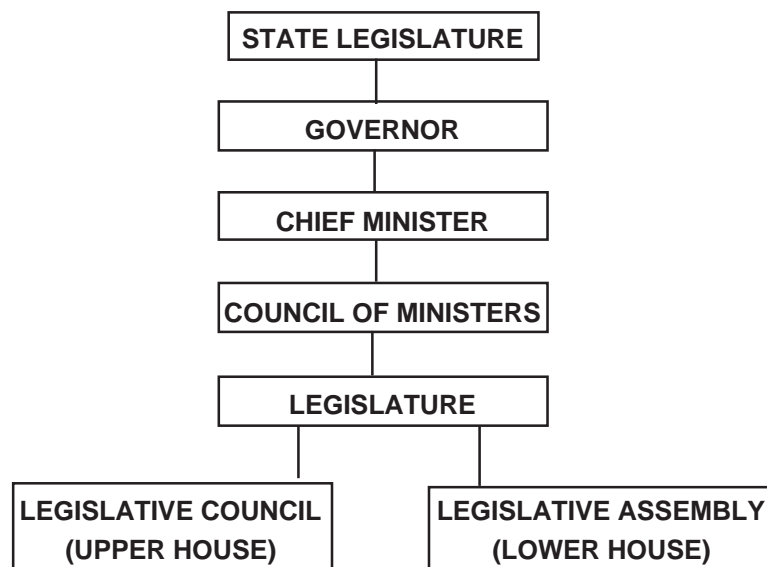
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Governor must ensure that the budget is presented to the Legislature. The Constitution empowers the Governor to spend money from the Contingency Fund of the State to meet unforeseen expenditure.

4. Judicial Powers : The Governor is empowered to pardon, commute or suspend the sentence of any person convicted of any offence in regard to matters under the jurisdiction of the State. However, the Governor has no powers to increase the punishments.

5. Miscellaneous Powers : The Governor receives annual report of the State Public Service Commission. He / she submits the same to the Legislature for the consideration and approval. He / she also receives the report of the Auditor-General regarding the income and expenditure made by the different departments of the State Government.

The Legislature

The Constitution provides for a Legislature for every State. The State Legislature consists of the Governor and one House or Two Houses depending on whether the State Legislature is Unicameral or Bicameral. Bicameral Legislatures are in the States of Bihar, Karnataka and Maharashtra. Tamil Nadu and other States have Unicameral Legislatures i.e. only the Legislative Assembly.

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              STATE LEGISLATURE
                     |
                  GOVERNOR
                     |
              CHIEF MINISTER
                     |
            COUNCIL OF MINISTERS
                     |
                 LEGISLATURE
                 /         \
  LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL    LEGISLATIVE ASSEMBLY
   (UPPER HOUSE)          (LOWER HOUSE)
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The Legislative Assembly : The Legislative Assembly is a popular house. It is the real centre of power in the State. It consists of members directly elected by the people on the basis of adult franchise. The strength of the Assembly varies from State to State depending on the population. However the maximum strength of the Assembly must not exceed 500 or its minimum strength not below 60. Small states are an exception. In Tamil Nadu, there are 234 members in the Legislative Assembly (MLAs).

The Legislative Council : The Legislative Council is the Upper House of the State.The total number of members in the Legislative Council of a State shall not exceed 1/3 of the total number of members of the Legislative Assembly of that State. But, not less than 40. The members of the Council are not directly elected by the people. Most of its members are indirectly elected by a system of proportional representation with a single transferable vote.

The Speaker : The Legislative Assembly elects two of its members as the Speaker and Deputy Speaker. The Speaker vacates his office, if he cannot continue to be a member of the Assembly. He may also resign his office at any time. The speaker may be removed from office by a resolution of the Assembly after giving a 14 days notice. Such a resolution must be passed by a majority of the members present at the time of voting. The speaker does not vacate his office, when the Assembly is dissolved. He continues to be the Speaker until the first sitting of the new Assembly. While the office of the speaker is vacant, the Deputy Speaker performs his functions.

Chief Minister and the Council of Ministers : The real executive powers are exercised by a Council of Ministers, headed by the Chief Minister in the State. The Governor appoints the Chief Minister and all other Ministers on the recommendation of the Chief Minister. Generally the leader of the majority party in the Legislative Assembly is appointed as the Chief Minister. If no single political party enjoys an absolute majority in the House, the Governor has to invite the leader of the single largest party to form the ministry.

But he/she must see that the person appointed proves the majority support in the Legislative Assembly within the period stipulated by him / her.

The tenure of the office of the Chief Minister is not fixed. As long as Chief Minister enjoys the majority support in the Legislative

Assembly he / she will continue in office. His / her own resignation means the resignation of the entire ministry.

Powers and functions of the Chief Minister : Being the real executive head, the Chief Minister is the pilot of the State administration. His / her powers and functions are given below :

1. The Primary function of the Chief Minister is to form his / her ministry.

2. The Chief Minister not only selects his / her ministers, but also allocates the portfolios to his / her colleagues. He / She can also ask a minister to resign. He / she can expand or decrease the size of the ministry.

3. The Chief Minister is the Chairman of the Cabinet. He / she convenes and presides over its meetings.

4. He / she exercises general supervision over all the ministers.

5. The Chief Minister acts as a co-ordinating link between the Governor and his / her Council of Ministers. Every information from the ministry to the Governor should pass only through the Chief Minister.

6. The Chief Minister has to give proper advice to the Governor in the exercise of his / her functions. He / she can advise the Governor to dissolve the Assembly when the Chief Minister does not enjoy the majority in the Assembly.

Council of Ministers : The Council of Ministers are collectively responsible to the State Legislature. All the members of the Council of Ministers must be the members of the State Legislature. Those who are not the members at the time of their appointment, must secure their seats in the Legislature within a period of 6 months. All the ministers work as a team under the Chief Minister. As long as the Chief Minister is in office, the Council of Ministers will also be in power. If a no-confidence motion is passed by the Legislative Assembly, the State Ministry shall resign.

In brief, the State Council of Ministers possess similar powers as the Union Council of Ministers. The Council of Ministers carries out the policies and programmes through the Secretariat.

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CHIEF MINISTERS OF TAMIL NADU SINCE 1952

Sl.No.	Name	Year
1.	Thiru C. Rajagopalachari	1952-1954
2.	Thiru K. Kamaraj	1954-1957
3.	Thiru K. Kamaraj	1957-1963
4.	Thiru M. Baktavatsalam	1963-1967
5.	Thiru C.N. Annadurai	1967-1969
6.	Thiru M. Karunanidhi	1969-1971
7.	Thiru M. Karunanidhi	1971-1976
8.	Thiru M.G. Ramachandran	1977-1980
9.	Thiru M.G. Ramachandran	1980-1984
10.	Thiru M.G. Ramachandran	1985-1987
11.	Tmt. Janaki Ramachandran	January 1988
12.	Thiru M. Karunanidhi	1989-1991
13.	Selvi J. Jayalalithaa	1991-1996
14.	Thiru M. Karunanidhi	1996-2001
15.	Selvi J. Jayalalithaa	2001
16.	Thiru O. Panneerselvam	2001-2002
17.	Selvi J. Jayalalithaa	2002-2006
18.	Thiru M. Karunanidhi	2006-

The Judiciary : The High Court stands at the apex of the State Judiciary. As per the Constitution, there shall be a High Court in each State. But there may be a common High Court for two or more States and Union Territory, if it is provided by a law of the Parliament. For example, the Chennai High Court has its Jurisdiction over the State of Tamil Nadu and the Union Territory of Pondicherry. The State Government has no control over it.

Composition : The State High Court consists of a Chief Justice and such other Judges as the President may from time to time deem it necessary to appoint. The number of Judges in the High Courts is not uniform and fixed. The President appoints the Chief Justice of a High Court in consultation with the Chief Justice of India and the Governor of the State. But in making appointment of the other Judges, the President consults in addition the Chief Justice of the High Court. Normally, a senior – most Judge is appointed as the Chief Justice.

A Judge of the High Court must have the following qualifications :

1. He / she must be a citizen of India,

2. He / she must have atleast 10 years experience as head of the Judicial office in any territory of India,

3. He / she must have at least 10 years experience as an Advocate of one or more High Courts.

The Judges shall continue in office up to the age of retirement, i.e. 62 years. He / she may also resign by writing to the President. The President may remove a High Court Judge, if each house of Parliament passes a resolution charging the Judge with proved misbehaviour or incapacity.

Powers and Functions of the High Court : The High Court is essentially the court of appeals. It performs two types of functions. They are *Judicial* and *Administrative Functions.*

In its Judicial capacity, the High Court, exercises both *original* and *appellate Jurisdiction.* Under the **original jurisdiction** the High Court is empowered to issue writ and orders not only for the enforcement of the fundamental rights but also for any other purpose. The High Court can issue writs in the nature of the Habeas corpus,

Mandamus, Prohibition, Quo warranto, Certiorari. The High Court has also jurisdiction over cases relating to admiralty, will, marriage, divorce, company law and contempt of court.

The High Court possesses **appellate jurisdiction** in both civil and criminal cases. In civil cases, the appeal entertained by the High Court may be either a first appeal or a second appeal from lower courts. In criminal cases, the appellate jurisdiction of the High Court extends to judgements of a session judge or an additional session judge.

Under the ***administrative powers,*** the High Court controls and supervises the working of all courts subordinate to it. It frames rules and regulations for the transactions of their business. The High Court can also inspect the files of the lower court. It can transfer cases from one court to another. The High court may call for returns from the subordinate courts.

For the purpose of Judicial administration, each state is divided into a number of districts, each under the jurisdiction of a district judge. Under him, there is a hierarchy of judicial officers, exercising different types of jurisdiction. The appointment of subordinate Judges are made by the Governor in accordance with the rules made by him after consultation with the High Court and the State Public Service Commission.

In the exercise of the above mentioned powers, the High Court enjoys full powers and freedom to act within its Jurisdiction. The constitutional safeguards have ensured its independent working.

Learning outcome

1. Pupil will be able to list out the powers and functions of the State Executive, Legislature and Judiciary.

2. Pupil will be able to describe the qualifications of the Governor.

3. Pupil will be able to explain the powers and functions of the Chief Minister and the Council of Ministers.

4. Pupil will be able to point out the powers and functions of the State High Court.

Self-Evaluation

I. Choose the correct answer

1. The Governor of the State is appointed by

   a. The President of India   b. The Vice-President

   c. Speaker of Lok Sabha   d. Chief Justice of India

2. The State Council of Ministers is headed by

   a. The Governor   b. The Chief Minister

   c. The Speaker   d. Home Minister

3. The Chief Minister is appointed by

   a. The Prime Minister   b. The Governor

   c. The President   d. Speaker

II. Fill in the blanks

1. There are _____ States and _____ Union Territories in India.

2. The Governor is the _____ and _____ head of the State.

3. The Chief Minister is _____ Head.

4. The tenure of the Governor is normally _____ years.

5. The District Judges are appointed by_____

III. Match the following

1. Governor   --   Legislative Assembly

2. Chief Minister   --   Nominal Head

3. Speaker   --   Upper House of the State Legislature

4. Legislative Council --   Real head

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IV. **Answer briefly**

1. Write a short note on the State Legislative Assembly.

2. The Council of Ministers

3. Briefly discuss the composition of the High Court?

V. **Answer in detail**

1. What are the powers and functions of the Chief Minister?

2. What are the powers and functions of the Governor?

3. What are the powers and functions of the High Court?

VI. **Teaching and learning activities**

1. Prepare a flow chart showing the State Government's Administrative setup.

2. Pupil to list out the names of the Tamil Nadu Governor, Chief Minister, Ministers and the Governors and Chief Ministers of the neighbouring States.

Lesson – 4

THE ELECTION COMMISSION OF INDIA

Learning Objectives

1. Pupil understands that the Election Commission of India is an independent Constitutional body.

2. Pupil knows the composition of the Election Commission.

3. Pupil learns about the powers and functions of the Election Commission of India.

4. Pupil knows about the appointment of the Chief Election Commissioner and other Election Commissioners.

5. Pupil acquires knowledge about the State Election Commission and its role.

The Election Commission of India is an Independent Constitutional body. It is situated at **New Delhi.** It supervises the entire election process in the country. It is also known as *"Nirvachan Sadan".*

Composition : The Election Commission of India is a three member body. It consists of one Chief Election Commissioner and two other Election Commissioners. They are all appointed by the President of India. The Chief Election Commissioner and the Election Commissioners hold office for a term of six years from the date on which they assume office.

The Status of Election Commissioners is equivalent to that of the Supreme Court Judges. They draw their salaries and allowances on a par with those of the judges of the Supreme Court of India. The salaries and allowances are drawn from the Consolidated Fund of India.

Powers and functions : The Commission performs the following main functions :

1. Conduct of Election to Parliament

2. Conduct of Election to State Legislatures (including Union Territories).

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3. Conduct of Election to the office of the President and Vice-President.

   It also does the work connected with the above functions like

   (a) the preparation of electoral rolls

   (b) fixing the dates of election

   (c) supervising the elections

   (d) arranging for the counting of votes and declaring of the results

   (e) advising the President in regard to the disputes like whether a member of Parliament or a State Legislature has become subject to any disqualification or not.

Independence of the Commission : The role of the Election Commission is pivotal. Impartiality of the commission is vitally linked to its independence. The Chief Election Commissioner and the other Election Commissioners conditions of Service Act provides that :

a. The appointment of an election commissioner is not based on pleasure. It is an appointment for a term of 6 years or till the person attains the age of 65 years whichever is earlier.

b. An Election Commissioner may be removed on the same grounds and by the same method as is applicable to a judge of the Supreme Court.

c. The condition of service of a Commissioner shall not be varied to his disadvantage after his appointment.

d. An Election Commissioner shall not be removed from office except on the recommendation of the Chief Election Commissioner.

e. The Union and the State Government are under an obligation to make available to the Commission such staff as may be necessary for the discharge of its functions.

The Chief Electoral Officer : Every state has a *Chief Electoral Officer.* The Election Commission of India nominates or designates an officer of the Government of the State/Union Territory as the Chief Electoral Officer. Such appointment is made in consultation with the State Government / Union Territories Administration.

The Chief Electoral Officer is authorized to supervise the election work in the State. The overall superintendence, direction and control of the State Elections remain under the Chief Electoral Officer in the State.

THE ELECTION COMMISSION OF INDIA

CHIEF ELECTION COMMISSIONER

ELECTION COMMISSIONERS

CHIEF ELECTORAL OFFICER

DISTRICT ELECTION OFFICER

RETURNING OFFICER

ELECTORAL REGISTRATION OFFICER

PRESIDING OFFICER

POLLING OFFICER

The Election Commission of India nominates Officers of Government as observers (General observers and Election Expenditure observers) for Parliament and State Legislative Constituencies. They perform such functions as entrusted to them by the Commission. The appointment of observers is statutory one. They report directly to the Commission.

The State Election Commission : The State Election Commissions have been constituted under the 73rd and 74th Constitutional Amendment Acts. Each State/Union Territory Election Commission is vested with the powers of conducting elections to the local bodies such as Municipal Corporation, Muncipalities, District Panchayats, Panchayat Unions, Village Panchayats and other Local bodies. They function independently of the Election Commission of India. In Tamil Nadu, the State Election Commission is situated at **Chennai.**

Learning Outcome

1. Pupil will be able to describe the composition of the Election Commission of India.

2. Pupil will be able to explain the functions of the Election Commission.

3. Pupil will be able to point out the appointment of the Election Commissioners.

4. Pupil will be able to explain which authority conducts the local bodies election in the States.

Self – Evaluation

I. Choose the correct answer

1. The Election Commission of India is a

   a. Independent body
   b. Statutory body
   c. Private Body
   d. Public Corporation

2. The Election Commission of India is situated at

   a. Mumbai   b. Chennai

   c. New Delhi   d. Kolkata

3. The Election Commissioners are appointed by the

   a. Prime Minister   b. Governor

   c. President of India d. Council of Ministers

4. Which authority conducts the local bodies Elections
   a. State Election Commission   b. Central Election Commission
   c. District Election Board   d. Observers

II. Fill in the blanks

1. The Election Commission of India is also known as _____

2. The Election Commissioners hold office for a term of _____years.

3. The Status of Election Commissioners is equivalent to _____Judges.

4. The State Election Commissions have been constituted under _____ and _____ Constitutional Amentment Acts.

III. Match the following

1. Chief Election Commissioner -- Constitutional body

2. Chief Electoral Officer -- 73rd & 74th Amendment

3. Election Commission of India -- State Election Officer

4. Local bodies Election -- District Level

5. Returning Officer -- Election Commission of India.

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IV. Answer briefly

1. Who appoints the Election Commissioners?

2. What is the term of service of Election Commissioners?

3. Who appoints the Chief Electoral Officer?

4. Which authority conducts the local bodies election?

V. Answer in detail

1. What are powers and functions of the Election Commission of India?

2. Explain the composition and role of State Election Commission.

ELECTIONS

Learning Objectives

1. Pupil acquires knowledge of Elections.

2. Pupil understands the types of Election Method.

3. Pupil understands how the members of Parliament, State Assemblies and Local bodies are elected.

4. Pupil knows about the role of People's representatives.

The process of electing the representatives of the Parliament, State Assemblies and Local bodies by the voters for a specific period is called **elections**. The importance of the voters during election is immense. There cannot be a representative form of government without elections. Normally there are two types of elections. One is **Direct election** and the other is **Indirect election**. In India general elections are held once in *five* years. Elections are held for the *Parliament, State Legislatures* and *Local bodies.*

Direct Elections : In this method the voters directly vote for the candidate of their choice and elect their representatives. In India, the Members of Lok Sabha and State Legislative Assemblies are elected by this method for a period of five years. In this system each and every voter affix a specific mark against the symbol of the candidates they wish and cast their vote. The candidate who gets the highest votes polled is declared elected.

Merits

1. This system is more democratic. It is because the voters get an opportunity to elect their representatives directly.

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2. There will be close contact between the representatives and the voters.

3. It stimulates interest among people to play an active role in politics.

4. Normally in direct election candidates place their policies and programmes before the voters. This makes them to understand the activities of the government.

5. There is chance for electing good representatives.

Demerits

1. Since many voters in India are not educated and enlightened, they are easily attracted by the speeches of the Leaders. It results sometimes in the election of inefficient and selfish persons.

2. This type of election is very expensive and arrangements are to be made at a very large scale.

3. It aggravates the divisions further in a society having various castes, religions and languages.

4. Sensible people may not take part in the election due to fear phychosis.

5. It is not suitable for people having no faith in democracy.

Indirect Election : In this system the people elect an electoral college which inturn elects their representatives. This type of election is called **Indirect election.**

Here the final right of election is not in the hands of the voters. The President of India is elected by an electoral College consisting of members of the Parliament and State Legislative Assemblies. The members of the Rajya Sabha (except those nominated by the President) are elected by the elected members of the State Legislative Assemblies as per the system of proportional representation. These are the simple examples of indirect election.

Merits

1. This system of election eliminates the defects of the adult suffrage.

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2. This system can be practised even in a country having no democratic tradition.

3. It reduces the importance of Political parties.

4. It is more suitable for larger countries.

5. This is less expensive.

Demerits

1. This system is undemocratic.

2. The voters do not take much interest in politics.

3. There is possibility for bribes and corruption.

4. The importance of electorate is very much minimized.

5. There will be no direct contact between the voters and the representatives.

Bye-Election : The process of conducting elections to fill the vacancy in Parliament or State Legislatures arising out of the resignation or death of a candidate during his tenure of office is called bye-election.

Mid-Term Poll : Conducting general election after dissolving the Parliament or State Legislature prematurely is called mid-term poll.

Local Bodies Election : The term Local bodies (or) government means management of Local affairs by the people of a locality. Its basic principle is that the people can look after their local needs and problems better than by the Central and State Governments.

The 73rd and 74th Amendments of the Constitution were enacted in December 1992. These Amendments came into force with effect from 24th April 1993. They have constitutionalised the Panchayats and Municipal bodies.

Local Government : The Local Government is divided as Urban Local Government and Rural Local bodies.

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                    ┌─────────────────────┐
                    │  LOCAL GOVERNMENT   │
                    └──────────┬──────────┘
              ┌────────────────┴────────────────┐
┌──────────────────────────┐      ┌──────────────────────────┐
│ MUNICIPAL CORPORATIONS    │      │   DISTRICT PANCHAYAT      │
└─────────────┬────────────┘      └─────────────┬────────────┘
┌──────────────────────────┐      ┌──────────────────────────┐
│     MUNICIPALITIES        │      │ PANCHAYAT SAMITI (OR)     │
│                           │      │ PANCHAYAT UNION COUNCIL   │
└─────────────┬────────────┘      └─────────────┬────────────┘
┌──────────────────────────┐      ┌──────────────────────────┐
│     TOWN PANCHAYAT        │      │    VILLAGE PANCHAYAT      │
└──────────────────────────┘      └──────────────────────────┘
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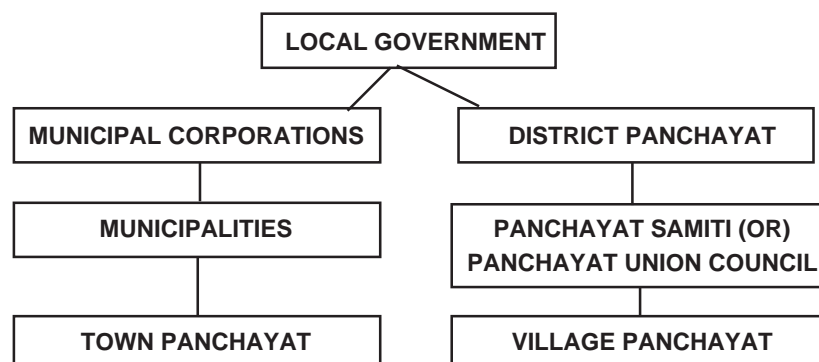
The 73rd Amendment provides a Gram Sabha in each village and the constitution of Panchayats at village, intermediate and district levels. The 74th Amendment also known as the **'Nagarpalika Act',** provides for setting up of three types of municipal bodies. These are Town Panchayats, Municipal Council and Municipal Corporation. A Town Panchayat is constituted for an area in transition from a rural area to an urban area. The Municipalities are set up for smaller urban areas and the Municipal Corporation for larger urban areas.

Rural Local Bodies : The Tamilnadu State Legislature passed the Tamil Nadu Panchayat Act 1994 in conformity with the 73rd Constitutional Amendment. In Tamilnadu there is a three tier system of Rural Local government as follows : (1) Village Panchayat for every village of 500 population or more, (2) The Panchayat Union Council at the block level is constituted for a group of village Panchayats and (3) The District Panchayat is the upper tier at the district level. At present there are 12,584 Village Panchayats, 384 Panchayat Unions and 28 District Panchayats in the State.

The President and ward members of the Village Panchayats are directly elected on non-party basis and the Vice-President is elected from among the ward members. All are elected for five years. About one third of the seats in them are reserved for women.

All the members of the Panchayat Union Councils are elected by the people. The Chairman is the head of the Panchayat Union Council.

The Chairman and Vice-Chairman are elected from among the ward members. The term of the elected Panchayat Union Councils is five years.

The third tier of Panchayat system is the District Panchayats. The Chairman is the Chief of the District Panchayat. He / she is elected by the ward members of the District Panchayat. The people directly elect Ward Members.

All adult citizens above 18 years of age are entitled to vote. Those who have completed 21 years of age can alone be elected as members, Vice-President and President of the Panchayat. If the Panchayat is dissolved earlier, election must be held within 6 months.

Urban Local bodies : The Constitution has recognised the Municipal Corporation, Municipalities and Town Panchayats as urban local bodies. However, there are some other urban local bodies like the Townships, Contonment Boards and Notified Area Committees.

The upper most form of the municipal organization is the *Municipal Corporation.* The *corporations* are established in big cities. Usually, large cities with a population of 10 lakhs and above are constituted as corporations. For example, the Corporation of Chennai, Mumbai, Kolkata, Delhi are the biggest Municipal Corporations in India. There are 6 Municipal Corporations in Tamil Nadu, namely Chennai, Madurai, Coimbatore, Salem, Trichy and Tirunelveli.

The **Mayor** is the political head of the Corporation. He / she is called the first citizen and father of the city. The Mayor and Councillors are directly elected by the people. The Councillors elect a Deputy Mayor. Their term is 5 years. The Mayor and Deputy Mayor can be removed by a resolution of the Corporation passed by a 2/3 majority of the members of the Corporation.

In the Urban Local Governments, Municipalities come next. The term 'Municipality' refers to a self-governing town or city. There are more than 100 Municipalities in Tamil Nadu. Each Municipality has a Chairman, Vice-Chairman and Ward Members. The Chairman and the Ward Members are directly elected by the people. The Vice-Chairman is elected from among the Ward Members. They hold office for 5 years.

A Town Panchayat is established in every Panchayat Town. It consists of the elected members. For this, the Panchayat Town is divided into a number of wards. Each ward elects only one member. The President and Councillors of the Town Panchayats are directly elected by the people. They hold office for 5 years. They enjoy the same position, powers and privileges of a Municipal Chairman and the members.

Role and Responsibilities of People's Representatives : The elected members of Parliament, State Legislature and local bodies are called **People's Representatives.** Their role and responsibilities are very important to the people. The members of Parliament and the State Legislatures are individually responsible to the people. The Members of Parliament discharge their functions through the Parliament. The State Legislature members function at the State level as ministers and people's respresentatives. The Mayor, Chairman and the President are the political executives of the various local bodies. The local bodies' political heads preside over the meeting of the Municipal Corporations, Municipalities and the Panchayats. They maintain the records of the Local Bodies and exercise administrative control over the local bodies' staff. Co-ordination and supervising roles are important for the people's representatives.

Learning outcome

1. Pupil will be able to explain the methods of elections in our country.

2. Pupil will be able to point out the Merits and Demerits of Direct and Indirect elections.

3. Pupil will be able to describe the types of local bodies.

4. Pupil will be able to explain 73rd Constitutional Amendment.

5. Pupil will be able to explain the role and responsibilities of people's representatives.

Self-Evaluation

I. Choose the correct answer

1. Lok Sabha members are elected for a period of

   a. Four years   b. Three years

   c. Five years   d. Two years

2. Tenure of Local bodies' is

   a. Three years   b. Six years

   c. Four years   d. Five years

3. The Mayor is elected by

   a. The people directly   b. The Councillors

   c. The Chief Minister   d. The Governor

II. Fill in the blanks

1. In India the General Elections are held once in _____ years.

2. Normally there are_____ types of elections.

3. The Village President is elected _____ by the people.

4. The Mayor is elected _____ by the people.

III. Match the following

1. 73rd Constitutional Amendment   -- 74th Amendment

2. Nagar Palika   -- Municipal Corporation

3. Mayor   -- Panchayati Raj

4. Chairman   -- Town Panchayat

5. President   -- Municipality

IV. Answer briefly

1. What is meant by election?

2. Explain the types of Election.

3. What is Bye-election?

4. Explain the types of local government.

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V. Answer in detail

1. What are the merits and demerits of direct Election?

2. How are the members of the local bodies elected?

3. What are the role and responsibilities of people's representatives.

VI. Practical exercise

1. Prepare a flow chart containing types of local government.

2. Prepare a chart showing the structure of local self-government and display it in the class.

Lesson – 6

CITIZENSHIP

Learning Objectives

1. Pupil understands about citizenship and voting rights.

2. Pupil acquires knowledge about voter identity card and voting system.

3. Pupil knows about the qualifications for citizenship.

4. Pupil knows about the symbols of Political parties.

5. Pupil understands the Duties of Voters.

The word **'Citizen'** is derived from the Latin term **'Civis'.** It means resident of a City State. After the disappearance of City-State system, it has been used to mean a member of the state. The citizens of a state enjoy full civil and political rights.

Rights of Citizens : Our Constitution provides the following rights for our citizens.

1. Fundamental Rights.

2. Citizens alone are eligible to hold public offices. The **principal** public offices in our country are the offices of the President, Vice-President, Prime Minister, Judges of the Supreme Court, High Courts, Governors and Chief Ministers.

3. Citizens only are eligible to vote for the Lok Sabha and the State Legislatures.

4. Only citizens are eligible to become Members of the Parliament and the State Legislatures.

Duties of Citizens : According to 42 Amendment of our Constitution, enacted in 1976, a set of *Fundamental Duties* are prescribed for all citizens of India. They are (1) to abide the constitution and respect its ideals and institutions, (2) to respect the National Flag and National

Anthem, (3) to realize and follow the essential ideals of Non-violence, Democracy and Secularism etc., and (4) to preserve our rich cultural heritage, sovereignty, unity and integrity. There are many other duties like protection of public property, natural resources and avoiding anti-social activities.

Kinds of Citizenship : There are two kinds of citizens, namely, *Natural* and *Naturalised.* Children born to citizen parents who live permanently in a country (domicile) are natural citizens. For example children born to Indian citizens become naturally and automatically Indian citizens. Acquisition of citizenship in a country by prolonged stay or by marriage to a citizen of that country is called naturalization. Generally an adult can apply for citizenship in any country. But it is left to that State to accept or reject his/her application. Then on the acquisition of new citizenship he/she loses his/her old citizenship and becomes a citizen of the country where he / she lives. For instance quite a few Indians have acquired citizenship in U.S.A. and settled there. However, they are given the status of Non-Resident Indians (NRIs) by the Indian Government.

Nature of Citizenship : Our Indian Constitution provides for **Single Citizenship** only, namely, the Citizen of India. But in some federal states like the U.S.A. and Switzerland there is a dual citizenship, namely, Federal or National citizenship and the State Citizenship.

Voting Rights : Age is the only qualification for the right to vote. People who have attained a particular age are given voting right. This is called as the **Universal Adult Franchise** or Suffrage. In India those who have attained 18 years of age are eligible to vote. Their names are enrolled in the voters list. They are given the Voter Identity Card by the Election Commission.

Voter Identity Card : Voter Identity Card has been introduced by the Election Commission of India. This card contains their name, age, sex, address and the constituency code number and so on. The voters should keep this card while entering the polling booth. If they are not issued with the identity card they must produce any one of the following evidences at the time of exercising their vote such as (1) Family Ration card, (2) Driving License, (3) Passport Certificate. Every voter has to get the voter identity card when it is issued in their areas by the Government officials and co-operate with the Election Commission.

PRESENT MODEL VOTER IDENTITY CARD

| FRONT SIDE | BACK SIDE |

Voting System : The voting system can be classified into two types, namely, Open Ballot and Secret Ballot. In both the voting systems, electronic gadgets are used nowadays to record the vote. It is called as the **Electronic Voting.**

1. **Open Ballot :** If the casting of vote by an elector is open it is called **Open Ballot.** Electing persons by raising hands is the best example for **Open ballot system.** Secrecy is not maintained in this system. It would not be useful in General Elections where the strength of the electorate is large. Due to openness of this system, the voter is denied of freedom of choice.

2. **Secret Ballot :** In this system, the voters exercise their franchise secretly. Neither the contesting candidates nor the fellow voter know the choice of the individual voter. For example, general elections in India are conducted in this method. Here the voters are given printed ballot papers having the names and symbols of the Candidates. The voter has to affix a specified mark against the name of the candidate they wish to vote and put them into the ballot box. Secret ballot system is followed in India, America and England.

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Symbols of Political Parties : Every Political Party has its own symbol. The symbols are allotted by the Election Commission of India for those who contest for the Parliament and the State Legislatures. For the Local bodies elections such as Village Panchayats and Municipal Corporations the symbols are allotted by the State Election Commission.

The voters are given printed ballot papers having the names and symbols of the contesting candidates. The voters have to affix a specified mark against the names of the candidates and symbols that they wish to vote.

Learning outcome

1. Pupil will be able to point out the rights of citizens.

2. Pupil will be able to list out the Fundamental Duties of citizens.

3. Pupil will be able to explain the Voting Rights.

4. Pupil will be able to describe the voter identity card.

5. Pupil will be able to explain the system of voting.

Self-Evaluation

I. Choose the correct answer

1. The word citizen is derived from
   a. Greek   b. Latin
   c. Spanish   d. Urdu

2. The age for voting right in India is
   a. 21 years   b. 25 years
   c. 18 years   d. 20 years

3. Citizenship is generally classified into
   a. Two   b. Four
   c. Five   d. One

4. In U.S.A. there is a
   a. Dual citizenship   b. one citizenship
   c. State citizenship   d. None of the above

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II. Fill in the blanks

1. The citizens enjoy full_____and _____rights.

2. The _____ has introduced the Voter Identity Card in India.

3. Voting system can be classified into two, namely _____ and _____

4. The symbols of political parties are allotted by the _____

5. India has _____ citizenship only.

III. Match the following

1. Age of voting -- Election Commission
2. Dual citizenship -- 18 years
3. Symbols allocation -- Raising hands
4. Open ballot -- 42nd Amendment
5. Fundamental Duties -- U.S.A.

IV. Answer briefly

1. What is meant by citizenship?
2. Explain the term 'Universal Adult Franchise'
3. Who issues the voter Identity Card?

V. Answer in detail

1. Explain the rights and duties of citizens in India.
2. Write in detail about the voting right, voter identity card and the voting system.

VI. Teaching and learning activity

Prepare a chart containing the Rights and Duties of citizens and display it in the class.

GEOGRAPHY

INDIA – AN INTRODUCTION

India is diverse. It is a country of many colours. There is a quality of timelessness in the India of the past and the present. The changes in the modern era are very rapid when compared to those that occurred in an earlier era. India changed slowly and allowed changes to happen in one or two aspects of life. The changes of the recent times have been all encompassing, transforming India in political, economic, social, technological and cultural aspects. The last 55 or so years provide for a framework with which to examine and assess the changes in independent India.

Needless to say that the change overall has been positive. Few disputes, if any, have surfaced and there has generally been a disappointment over the pace of progress in specific areas of development. The most significant of the achievements has been the building of a strong sense of nationhood and national pride in many of us. Democratic participation in the political process, despite some disturbing shortcomings, has guaranteed the continuation of freedom and individual rights. The sense of national pride manifests as a heightened sensitivity in the country's dealings with our neighbours and distant nations.

The record of economic development has been much less satisfactory, even as significant progress has been made in comparison with the earlier years. There are however areas in which the country has consistently been in negative lights. Sports is one area where India has, and continues to, fare dismally. India has been left far behind, even by countries from Asia. In literacy, health and quality of life in general, India has a poor record. Reliance on state intervention and control is excessive and it turns out to be a strategic mistake. In the opinion of the Nobel Laureate Amartya Sen, *the State was not active enough where it was needed most- in the areas of literacy and health.* There is increasing hope that India would emerge a winner of sorts, from the depths of her own self, as she moves ahead from the fringe to occupy some space in the political mainstream, in the changed socio-political circumstances she is in, right now. India would emerge a winner in the international arena, sooner or later, but she will also have better quality of life all around, if only she could move along the paths of non-violence, compassion for fellow humans and truly secular in character.

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Chariman, Standard X
Geography Sub-Committee

Lesson 1

THE INDIAN SUBCONTINENT

> **Learning Objectives**
>
> 1. To learn and appreciate the sub-continental dimensions of India.
>
> 2. To learn and appreciate the diverse nature of India's landscapes, cultures and secularism.

Our India is in Asia. Of the world continents, Asia is the biggest. When compared to the size of Asia, the geographical area of India is small. Yet the diversities that are seen in Asia in terms of landscapes, climate, natural vegetation, soil types and such natural phenomena and the cultural phenomena are all found in India. Hence, we consider India as a subcontinent. India occupies only 2.5 per cent of the world's land area but holds 16 per cent of the world's population. It is a proud fact that one in every six persons of the world is an Indian.

Because of the natural and cultural diversities, India has become significant as a land of subcontinent diversities.

Location : India is in the southern parts of the Asian continent. In the west of India lies the Arabian Peninsula while in the east lies the Indo-China Peninsula. India is located at a vantage point from where many countries of the world can be contacted. As it is at the head of the Indian Ocean, it is easy to communicate with all the countries of the world. Long coastline and port facilities help the sea trade. The sea traffic of the western and the eastern countries are carried on in the Indian Ocean (Figure 1.1).
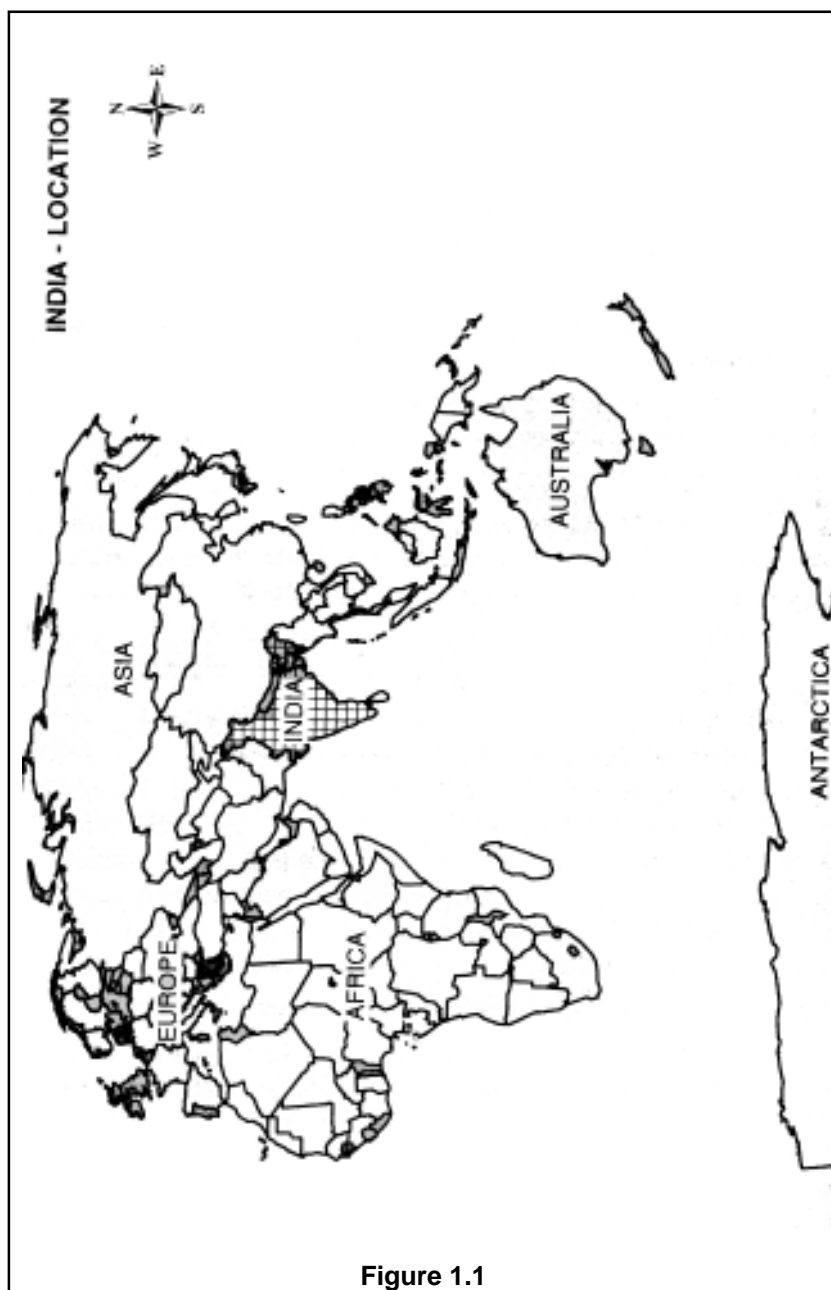
Figure 1.1

Extent

India extends between 8° 4' N and 37° 6' N latitudes and between 68° 7' E and 97° 2' E longitudes. The 23 1/2° N, which is the Tropic of Cancer, runs across the country. In fact, this latitude divides the country into two halves (Figure 1.2).

1. The Indian Peninsula south of the Tropic of Cancer.

2. The Extra-Peninsular region of the country north of the Tropic of Cancer.

India is a vast land area. Its area is about 3.3 million square kilometre. India ranks seventh among the countries of the world, in terms of the geographical extent.

> The Tropic Cancer divides India into Peninsular and Extra-Peninsular India.

Boundaries : The Himalayas in the north of India, the Indian Ocean in the south, the Bay of Bengal in the east and the Arabian Sea in the west form the boundaries of the Indian subcontinent. As India is bordered on three sides by water and on one by land, it is also a peninsula. As for the land border, it shares its common border with Afghanistan and Pakistan in the northwest, Indo-China and Bhutan in the north, and Bangladesh in the east. In the south, Sri Lanka is separated from India by a strait, known as the Palk Strait. Because of the common border, India has affected her neighbouring countries either directly or indirectly. The problems and politics of the neighbouring countries affect us invariably, as well.

Administrative Divisions : Before Independence, there were 562 princely states and 9 protectorates of England. As a result of 150 years of British rule, the country was divided into several administrative divisions. At independence, it was divided into India and Pakistan. This division caused several problems in the country. The problems further became aggravated as a result of the uneven distribution of natural resources and the differences in the economic and industrial progress of the states of the Indian Union. In the meantime the administrative divisions of the country were reorganised in 1956, primarily in response to the problems that arose in the initial years of independence (Figure 1.3)

PENINSULAR AND EXTRA - PENINSULAR INDIA

34° 00' N

EXTRA - PENINSULAR INDIA

Tropic of Cancer   23° 30' N

I N D I A

ARABIAN SEA   PENINSULAR INDIA

BAY OF BENGAL
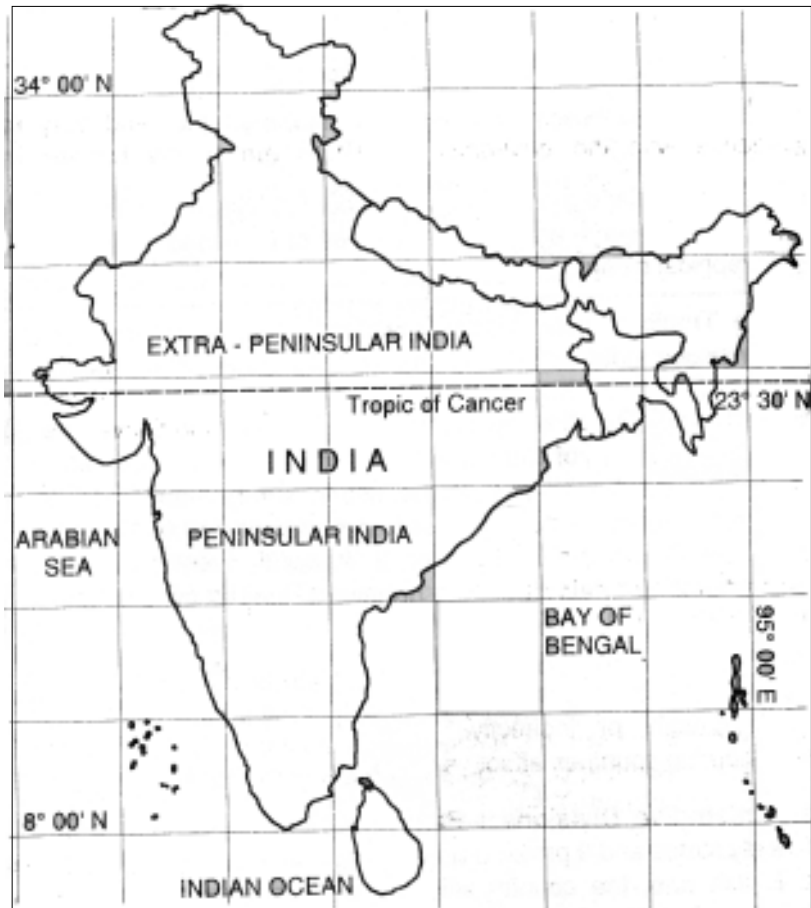
95° 00' E

8° 00' N

INDIAN OCEAN

Figure 1.2

India has now been restructured on the lines of languages. There are now 28 States, and 6 Union Territories and 1 National Capital Territory (Delhi) By carefully looking at the Atlas, learn the names of the states and their capitals.

Unity in Diversity : The Indian landscape is of several types. There are high mountains, plateaus and lowlands. Because of the areal size and the landforms, there exist different climates. There are the Thar desert and the high rainfall areas of the northeast and the western coastal plains. As such, the flora and fauna of the land vary in accordance with the environments. There are thorny bushes in Rajasthan in contrast to the dense forests of Assam. There are large animals such as elephants living in harmony with the small animals such as the rabbits, in the forests.

The Colours of India

India is a land of colours. For more than 1,000 years, India's wise people have taught that the Sun's white light is composed of all the colours. The Sun is personified as the God Surya, the single source of life and ruler of eight other celestial bodies. Each body transmits one pure colour to Earth - affecting the destiny of every living creature. These colours are associated with gemstones: cat's eye, hessonite, coral, sapphire, pearl, emerald, yellow sapphire, diamond, and ruby. The colours have forces that act upon each life form.

Colour is indeed an intricate part of the lifestyle in India. It is part of the religion, the culture, the daily routine and is found everywhere - from the clothing and customs to foods and festivals. Each colour symbolizes a force in life, and thus colour and life are inseparable.

There are also several soil types ranging from the fertile alluvial soils of the Indo-Gangetic Plains to the saline soils of the Rajasthan deserts. Several minerals, from the cheapest of the resources to the expensive gold resources, are mined in the country.

There is diversity not only in the physical landscapes but also in the cultural realms. People professing several religions live in our country. In recent years, however, there have been disturbances in the country primarily due to religious and ethnic groups. Religious riots and

INDIA ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS

1 ANDHRA PRADESH	15 MAHARASHTRA
2 ARUNACHAL PRADESH	16 MANIPUR
3 ASSAM	17 MEGHALAYA
4 BIHAR	18 MIZORAM
5 CHANDIGARH	19 NAGALAND
6 CHATTISGARH	20 ORISSA
7 GUJARAT	21 PUNJAB
8 HARYANA	22 RAJASTHAN
9 HIMACHAL PRADESH	23 SIKKIM
10 JAMMU AND KASHMIR	24 TAMIL NADU
11 JARKHAND	25 TRIPURA
12 KARNATAKA	26 UTTAR PRADESH
13 KERALA	27 UTTARANCHAL
14 MADHYA PRADESH	28 WEST BENGAL

Union Territories

29 ANDAMAN & NICOBAR ISLANDS
30 DADRA & NAGAR HAVELI
31 DAMAN & DIU
32 DELHI
33 GOA
34 LAKSHADWEEP
35 PONDICHERRY

Figure 1.3

communal disturbances have disturbed our peace and ushered disharmony. It would be better therefore to develop a religious tolerance amidst our people towards cultural amity in the future.

The languages we speak in India are numerous. Of these, only 18 are the 'Scheduled Languages' of the Indian Constitution. Language is a means of communication; yet, we should keep in mind the fact that it has now become an instrument of division rather than unity. If we act in the knowledge that all other languages are as good and special as our own, the languages of the country could become the instruments of growth, forerunners of development, and bridges of friendship.

Although there are diversities in natural as well as cultural phenomena in the country, there is as yet a unity in the midst of us. Even if we are all different in religion and language, we are all one in the fact we are Indians. While one part of the country suffers from floods, earthquakes and droughts, the people in the other parts provide much needed help; and we are aware of the fact that the entire country rose in 'one voice' against the British colonisation of India. History tells us that the Mahatma's 'Dandi March' united the people of India from Kashmir to Kanyakumari to fight against oppression by a foreign power (Figure 1.4).

Even if there are pluralities in race, religion, language, life styles, occupations, social controls and in rituals related to marriage, birth and death, there is an unity in our traditional culture which helps us to live in amity with each other. And the administrative structure and the generally applicable legislations or laws throughout the country help us in our political integration.

Secularism in India

India was and is a country of several faiths. For several thousand years, the religions of India coexisted, in good faith and harmony. In the last century, however, there have been incidents that disturbed the quiet and harmony of the country. India is still said to have a secular character. This simply means that there is an inter-religious harmony and tolerance in the country. And that there is need to create or build a secular polity in the nation has never been in doubt. Only the ideal of building a secular democratic nation can stem the tides of communal
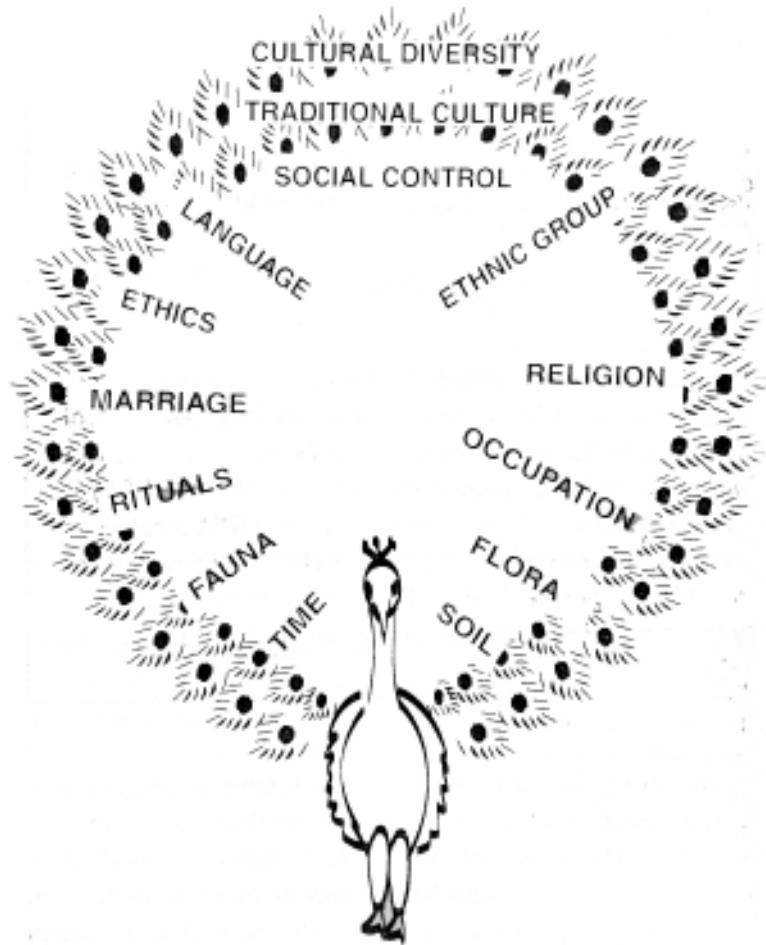
UNITY IN DIVERSITY

CULTURAL DIVERSITY

TRADITIONAL CULTURE

SOCIAL CONTROL

LANGUAGE

ETHNIC GROUP

ETHICS

RELIGION

MARRIAGE

OCCUPATION

RITUALS

FAUNA

FLORA

TIME

SOIL

Figure 1.4

disharmony and intolerance, which have been so visible in the last few decades, especially after independence. Secularism and democracy have to be built from the grassroots level where a set of ideals generating a strong idealism is required to mobilize and prepare the masses for struggle and peaceful existence.

Fascinating Facts on India

Here are some fascinating facts about India. These facts were recently published in a German Magazine which deals with World History.

The Indian Diaspora (Some Very Impressive Facts About Indians In USA).

There are 3.22 million Indians in America. Thirty-eight per cent of doctors in America are Indians. Twelve per cent of scientists in America are Indians. Thirty-six per cent of NASA employees are Indians. Thirty-four per cent of MICROSOFT employees are Indians. Twenty-eight per cent of IBM employees are Indians, Seventeen per cent of INTEL employees are Indians. Thirteen per cent of XEROX employees are Indians. Twenty-three per cent of the Indian Community in America has Green-Card.

Regions

India is a country of vast area. In it, there are several geographical landforms. It is because of the diverse features that we call India a subcontinent. It is difficult to understand the diversities of India all at once. To understand them properly, we are in need to appreciate some fundamental geographical elements. The natural and cultural forms of an area are the geographical features of that area. It is easy to analyse these forms in terms of geographical elements (Figure 1.5). On the basis of geographical characteristics, the land of the country can be divided into several regions. Where there is homogeneity in the geographical characteristics, there exists a region. This region is within certain limits.

The land with homogeneous geographical features is known as a region.

Figure 1.5

INDIA : SUBCONTINENTAL FEATURES

INDIAN SUBCONTINENT	GEOGRAPHICAL ELEMENTS
Natural Features	**Cultural Features**
Natural Regions	**Cultural Regions**
1. Physiography	1. Agriculture
2. Climate	2. Industries
3. Natural Vegetation, Soil	3. Services
	4. Human
	5. Resources

The art of Navigation was born in the river Sindh 6,000 years ago. The very word Navigation is derived from the Sanskrit word NAVGATIH. The word navy is also derived from Sanskrit 'Nou'.

Bhaskaracharya calculated the time taken by the earth to orbit the sun hundreds of years before the astronomer Smart. Time taken by earth to orbit the sun: 365.258756484 days 5th century.

The value of "pi" was first calculated by Budhayana, and he explained the concept of what is known as the Pythagorean Theorem. He discovered this in the 6th century long before the European mathematicians. Algebra, trigonometry and calculus came from India. Quadratic equations were by Sridharacharya in the 11th century. The largest numbers the Greeks and the Romans used were 10^6 whereas Hindus used numbers as big as 10^{53} (10 to the power of 53). with specific names as early as 5,000 BCE during the Vedic period. Even today, the largest number used is Tera 10^{12} (10 to the power of 12).

According to the Gemological Institute of America, up until 1896, India was the only source for diamonds to the world. USA based IEEE has proved what has been a century old suspicion in the world scientific community that the pioneer of wireless communication was Profess Jagdeesh Bose and not Marconi.

The earliest reservoir and dam for irrigation was built in Saurashtra. According to Saka King Rudradaman I of 150 CE a beautiful lake called 'Sudarshana' was constructed on the hills of Raivataka during Chandragupta Maurya's time. Chess (Shataranja or Ashta Pada). was invented in India. Sushruta is the father of surgery, 2600 years ago he and health scientists of his time conducted complicated surgeries like cesareans, cataract, artificial limbs, fractures, urinary stones and even plastic surgery and brain surgery. Usage of anesthesia was well known in ancient India. Over 125 surgical equipments were used. Deep knowledge of anatomy, physiology, etiology, embryology, digestion, metabolism, genetics and immunity is also found in many texts. When many cultures were only nomadic forest dwellers over 5,000 years ago, Indians established Harappan culture in Sindhu Valley (Indus Valley Civilization). The place value system, the decimal system was developed in India in 100 BC.

The land of India may be divided into two large regions, on the basis of the geographical features:

1. Natural Region.

2. Cultural Region.

Natural Regions : Landforms, structure of the rocks, drainage, climate, natural vegetation and soils form the bases for dividing the country into natural regions. It is possible that in such a region there may be homogeneity in terms of particular features. For dividing the country into natural regions, the three following elements have been used here so that the regions so derived are primarily natural.

1. Landforms

2. Climate

3. Natural Vegetation

Further, in later chapters, the regions dealt with for study are cultural.

The physiographic divisions of the country have been delineated using the natural landforms, the climatic regions are based on the climates and the regions of natural vegetation are on the basis of vegetation obtaining in them. In the next three lessons, information is provided on these three types of natural regions.

Cultural Regions : Those regions demarcated using agriculture, industries and human resources are called cultural regions. In a cultural region, the entire landscape may be homogeneous on the basis of a cultural homogeneity. Thus, the Indian landscapes can be divided into cultural regions. These regions have been demarcated on the basis of four elements as follows:

1. Agriculture

2. Industries

3. Services

4. Human Resource

Thus, agricultural regions of the country have been demarcated on the basis of agricultural characteristics, industrial regions on industries, service regions on the basis of services and human resource regions on the human resources. The four lessons that come after those on the natural regions deal with the cultural regions of the country and provide information on them.

Learning Outcome

1. Students will have the ability to conceive India as a land of sub-continental characteristics.

2. Students learn locational characteristics and the notion of states and union territories in the federal set up of India.

3. Students learn about the diversity in culture and beliefs and secular fabric of the society.

Self-Evaluation

I. Choose the correct answer

1. The peninsula east of India:
   a. Arabia
   b. Indo-China
   c. Italy
   d. Iberia

2. The land that consists of homogeneous geographical features:
   a. Region
   b. Country
   c. Continent
   d. World

3. The region that has agriculture, industries and human resources as its basis:
   a. Cultural region,
   b. Industrial region
   c. Social region,
   d. Natural region.

4. The significant latitude that goes across India:
   a. Tropic of Capricorn
   b. Tropic of cancer
   c. Equator
   d. Polar Circle.

II. Fill in the blanks

1. In the west of India lies _____ peninsula.

2. The Tropic of _____ runs across India.

3. India extends between 8° 4' N and _____ N latitudes.

4. The states of the Indian Union have been divided on the basis of _____.

5. The land lying south of the Tropic of Cancer is known as the _____ _____.

III. Match the following

1. North boundary   –   Bay of Bengal
2. South boundary   –   Arabian Sea
3. East boundary   –   Himalayas
4. West boundary   –   Indian Ocean
                        Western Ghats

IV. Answer briefly

1. Write about the locational significance of India.

2. Why is India called a subcontinent?

3. Write briefly about the latitudinal and longitudinal extent of India.

4. What are the administrative divisions of India?

V. Answer in detail

1. Write an essay on India as a land of 'Unity in Diversity'.

VI. Practical exercises

1. Mark on a map of India the states and their capitals by their names.

Lesson 2

2. PHYSIOGRAPHY AND DRAINAGE

Learning Objectives

1. To learn and appreciate the two broad land features of India, known as the Peninsular and the Extra-Peninsular regions.

2. To learn about the three major mountain/hill ranges of the Peninsular region.

3. To learn about the plateaus of the country.

4. To learn about two of the coastal plains.

5. To learn and appreciate the mountains and plains of the Extra-Peninsular region.

6. To learn and appreciate the groups of islands of India.

7. To learn about the rivers and drainage systems of India, in the Peninsular and Extra-Peninsular regions.

In India, there are large landforms such as those of the world's biggest mountains, plateaus and the plains. They are the Himalayas in the north, the Deccan Plateau in the south and in between them the Indo-Gangetic Plains. The land features of India were all formed in different time periods. Therefore, they have different rock structures. The three major rocks known as the igneous, sedimentary and metamorphic rocks are all seen in the country.

Of all the Indian landforms, the Deccan Plateau is the oldest with ancient rocks. The rocks of the Plateau, according to the experts, were formed when the Earth came into being.

The landforms of India may be divided into two large parts, on the basis of their genesis:

1. Peninsular India

2. Extra-Peninsular India.

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1. Peninsular India

The land that lies north of the equator (at 8° N latitude) and south of the Tropic of Cancer is known as the Peninsular India. This area is made up of ancient rocks. These rocks formed while the Earth came into being. In order to understand the history of the Peninsular Plateau, it is better to bring to memory the origin and the history of the Earth. There is a theory that the gaseous mass that separated from the Sun condensed and became the spherical Earth over time. The Earth that formed in this period was in a single, compact land mass. This land mass was called the Pangea. There was also the Panthalaza, which was a water body around the compact landmass of Pangea (Figure 2.1).

The Pangea was divided into two parts by a shallow sea known as the Sea of Tethys. The landmass north of the Tethys was named the 'Ankara land' while that of the south was named the 'Gondwana land'.

The Gondwana was joined with the Australian Continent in the east and the African Continent in the west. Later, there was a process of Drift of the Landmass known as the Continental Drift. As a result of the drift, the Gondwana land was broken and began to drift further. With the occurrence of the earth movements, the Gondwana rocks underwent changes. It was a part of the Gondwana land, which broke up due to earth movements that later became the land area known as the Peninsular India. It is because of this reason that the Peninsular India is a significant part of the India's physiographic regions.

When the Gondwana land was subjected to earth movements, there occurred a number of fissures in the northwestern part of the Peninsular India. It was through these fissures that the molten rock known as the lava flowed out and was deposited on the Peninsular Plateaus. In course of time, the lava condensed to become igneous rocks. The land where such lava formation occurred came to be called the 'Deccan Trap' or the 'Lava Plateau'.

The Lava Plateau has seen several changes, primarily during the geological history. For example, forests got buried in the faults that developed parallel to the valleys of the rivers Damodar, Mahanadi, and Godavari. It is these buried vegetation that later became the coal fields of India. At present, it is from here the coal is being mined in large quantities. It was thus the Peninsular Plateau became subjected to
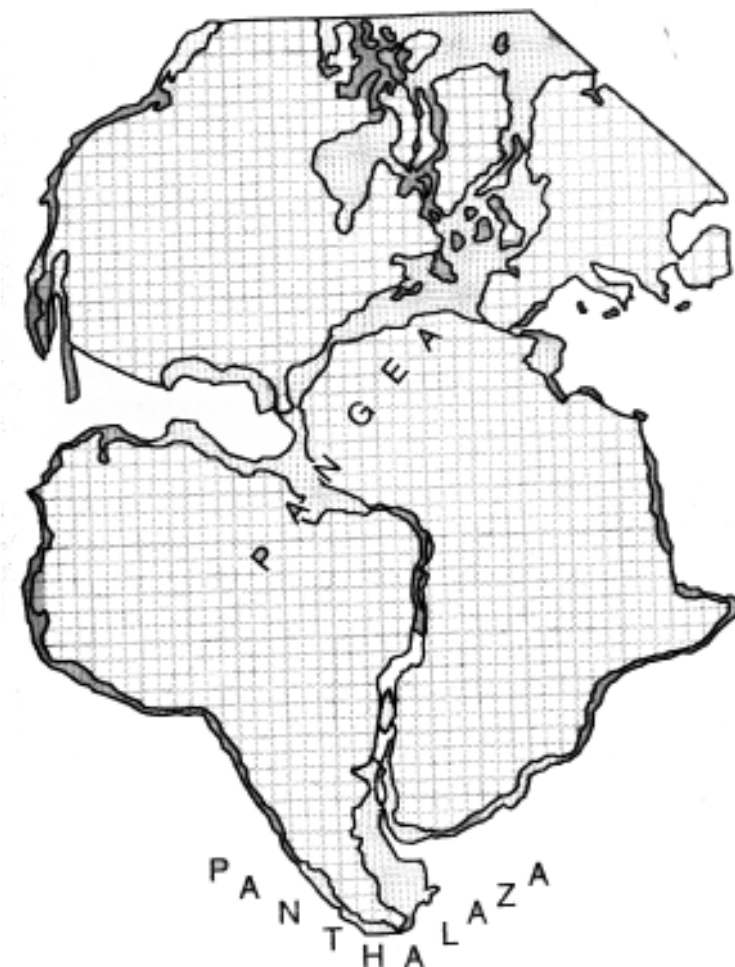
THE PANGEA AND PANTHALAZA

Figure 2.1

PHYSIOGRAPH OF PENINSULAR INDIA

Figure 2.2

faulting, erosion and weathering and that, as a result of this, mountains, plateaus and plains were formed.

The physiography of the Peninsular India can be divided into three divisions (Figure 2.2) :

1. The Mountains

2. The Plateaus

3. The Coastal Plains

1. The Mountains : There are three mountain/hill ranges in Peninsular India:

1. The Vindhya-Satpura mountains

2. The Western Ghats

3. The Eastern Ghats

The Vindhya-Satpura Mountains : The Vindhya-Satpura mountains run west to east, parallel to the Narmada valley. They are in fact not mountains, but the 'walls' of the Narmada valley. They end near Varanasi.

> The Vindhya mountains are the side walls of the Narmada valley.

The Satpura mountains are found between the rivers Narmada and the Tapti. They run parallel to the Vindhya mountains and in the south of them. The rocks of these mountains are essentially those of the Deccan Lava Plateau. This range is a fold mountainous chain formed during the historical times. The term 'Satpura' means 'seven folds'. The Satpura mountains are very ancient fold mountains.

The Western Ghats : The Western Ghats are parallel to the western coastal region. They are a range extending north-south from the mouth of the Tapti to Kanyakumari. There are three gaps along the Western Ghats. Talkad and Porkad are in the north and Palakkad is in the south. The railway lines passing through these gaps connect the many important cities of India.

In the south of the Western Ghats, there are high peaks. Particularly, there are Dodda Betta in the Nilgiris mountains, and Anaimudi in the Anamalai. The Kodaikanal Hills and the Kutralam Hills are indeed parts of the Western Ghats. The important summer resorts such as Udhagamandalam, Coonoor, Kothagiri and Kodaikanal are on these hill ranges.

The Eastern Ghats : The Eastern Ghats are not really a range but are broken hills. They are nearer to the Eastern Coastal Plains. They are discontinuous hills. They are found along the coast from Orissa to Andhra Pradesh. Then, they take a turn towards southwest to join the Nilgiris. Of these hills, the Thirupathi hills, Javadhu hills, Pachamalai and Kollimalai are the most important. Yercaud and Yelagiri are the significant touristic places of these hills.

2. The Plateaus : The Peninsular Plateau has a number of small plateaus within. In the north is the Malwa Plateau, in the south is the Deccan Plateau and the valley faults of the Narmada and the Tapti are in between.

The Malwa Plateau : The Malwa Plateau is in the form a small triangle. In the nothwest of it are the Aravalli hill ranges. At one time, the Aravalli hills were loftier than the Himalayas. But primarily due to erosion, they have now become hills of 500 metres only. The highest peak on the Aravallis is Mount Abu (Kur Shakar).

Do you know?

Mountains and Lakes are shrinking!

The Times comprehensive Atlas the World, a most universally recognized reference atlas, published on October 16, 2003, reports that the leading peaks in three continents have had their heights revised downward from the previous edition four years ago. This is actually through more accurate surveying techniques. Maps published in the Atlas also chart the rapid retreat of water bodies such as the Dead Sea and Lake Chad as a result of climate change and irrigation.

Among the mountains to lose height is Tanzania's Killmanjaro, which is the tallest in Africa. This has lost 3 metres to stand at 5,892 metres. Mount Cook in New Zealand, the highest peak in

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Australasia, was physically reduced by 10 metres to 3,754 metres, following an Acancaque of rock and ice in 1991. This Acancaque removed the entire top of the mountain. Aconcaque in the Andes, the loftiest of the S. American continent was reduced by a metre to 6,959 metres.

The new atlas also illustrates the plight of the Dead Sea, which is now 16 metre shallower than in 1975 edition. The reduction is blamed on the Jordan being diverted for drinking water and agriculture. An entire salt lake-Lop Nur-in China has now vanished. This has also been affected by irrigation and climate change. Lake Chad over the Fourth largest in Africa, has shrunk by 95 per cent over the last 40 years through drought and water diversion.

The Deccan Plateau : It is the large triangular plateau south of the Narmada valley. At the broader part of the triangle are the Vindhya mountains, and at the apex of the plateau is Kanyakumari. The three sides of the plateau are covered with mountains. In the north are the Satpuras, in the west the Western Ghats and in the east the Eastern Ghats. This plateau slopes towards the east. Hence, the important rivers of the Deccan run east and join the Bay of Bengal. In the northeast of the plateau is the Chotta Nagpur Plateau. The Chotta Nagpur Plateau is rich in minerals.

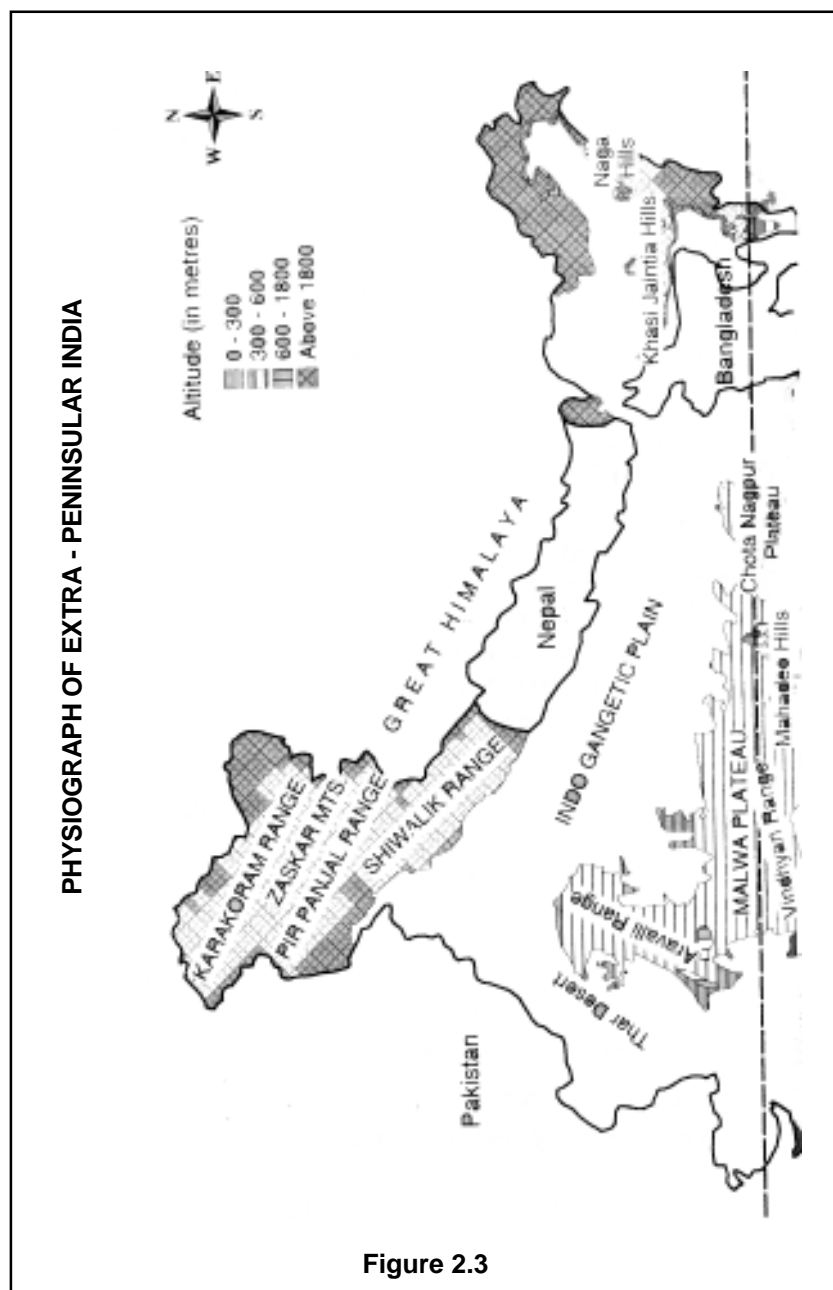The Deccan Plateau is covered on its three sides by the hills and slopes towards the east.

3. The Coastal Plains : The Coastal Plains are found in the western and the eastern parts of the Peninsular India.

1. The Western Coastal Plains

2. The Eastern Coastal Palins

The Western Coastal Plains : The Western Coastal Plains extend from Gujarat state in the north to Kerala state in the south. When the faults developed in Peninsular India, there were also a north-south fault along the Weatern Ghats and to the west of them, causing the land to submerge. It is primarily due to the submergence that the Western Coastal Plains formed. That is also why the western coast is straight and the plains are narrow.

PHYSIOGRAPH OF EXTRA - PENINSULAR INDIA

Altitude (in metres)

0 - 300
300 - 600
600 - 1800
Above 1800

Naga Hills
Khasi Jaintia Hills
Bangladesh
GREAT HIMALAYA
Nepal
INDO GANGETIC PLAIN
Chota Nagpur Plateau
KARAKORAM RANGE
ZASKAR MTS.
PIR PANJAL RANGE
SHIWALIK RANGE
MALWA PLATEAU
Vindhyan Range
Mahadeo Hills
Aravalli Range
Thar Desert
Pakistan

Figure 2.3

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The Eastern Coastal Plains : The Eastern Coastal Plains extend from the Ganges delta to Kanyakumari. It is broader than the Western Coastal Plains. In these plains is the alluvium deposit brought down by the rivers. There are also estuaries along the coastal plains.

II Extra Peninsular India : The land north of the Tropic of Cancer (23 1/2° N latitude) with the Plains and the Himalayas is known as the Extra-Peninsular India. Unlike the Peninsular India, this landmass was formed in the recent times of the geological era. It is made up of sedimentary rocks. The Extra-Peninsular India can be divided into two natural regions (Figure 2.3).

    1. The Himalayas

    2. The Gangetic Plains

1. The Himalayas : The Himalayas are the northern boundaries of India. These extend from Kashmir in the northwest to Assam in the northeast. According to the experts, the Himalayas were formed in terms of the geological era only about 200 million years ago. That is why the Himalayas are also known as the 'Young Fold Mountains'. The Himalayas are made of sedimentary rocks. In particular, there are sea fossils in these rocks.

The Origin of the Himalayas : We have earlier learned that when the Earth was formed, there were Ankara and Gondwana landmasses making up the Pangea with a shallow sea known as the Tethys in between. The rivers from the Ankara and the Gondwana brought down the eroded materials and deposited them in the Tethys. We all know that the rivers are an important agent of erosion. In course of time, the Tethys was filled with the deposits. These deposits were then compacted into the sedimentary rocks.

    With the lateral drift of the Earth's crust, the Gondwana landmass started moving towards the north. The Ankara landmass however drifted much slower than the Gondwana. As a consequence, the sedimentary rocks between the two landmasses were compressed. As these rocks were made up of soft sedimentary rocks, they formed folds and rose from the depths of the sea. It is these folds of the sedimentary rocks that we see today as the Himalayas. Hence, we call these lofty mountains the 'fold mountains'.

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The Himalayas formed by the folding of the sedimentary rocks during lateral drift of the Earth's crust are called as the 'Fold Mountains'.

The Himalayas form a protective landmass for India. On these mighty mountains, there are several high peaks, mountain passes and summer resorts. The world's highest summit known as the Everest is on these mountains. Everest is found at the border of Nepal. On the Himalayas of the Indian borders are the peaks such as those of the Kanjan Janga, Daulagiri, and Nanga Parbat. The passes on the Himalaya mountains such as the Khyber and the Polan are of historical significance. The Kashmir Valley of the Himalayas are the most beautiful. The Dal Lake on these mountains are a tourist place. Darjeeling, Shimla and Mussouri are the Himalayan summer resorts.

Ancestral mountains found in Himalayas

The World's highest and most spectacular mountains, the Himalayas of Nepal, India, and Bhutan, are built on the foundations of a much older mountain system, University of Arizona (UA) geoscientists have discovered. They have dated rocks that show Himalayas is predated by ancestral mountains that existed in the same area between 450 million and 500 million years ago. "We conclude that the modern Himalaya mountains are built on the foundations of an ancient mountain range that may have been of similar dimensions," said UA geosciences Professor George Gehrels.

Professor Gehrels and other researchers from UA have collaborated in field expeditions in rugged areas of Nepal for the past several years. They report on their research in the GSA Today. "Our model is based on observations that, between 450 and 500 million years ago, rocks in the Himalayas were pushed down to great depth and metamorphosed," Gehrels said. The buried rocks became hot under pressure and melted, producing large granite bodies.

These deep-level rocks were brought back to the surface by processes of faulting, uplift, and erosion soon after burial, observations suggest. The uplift and faulting formed mountains, which eroded and produced huge volumes of sediment. The

THE ISLANDS OF INDIA
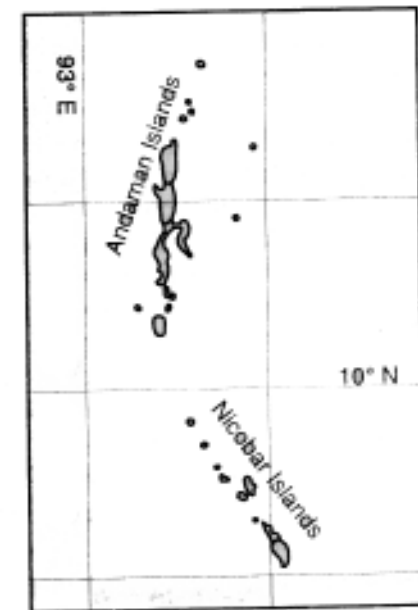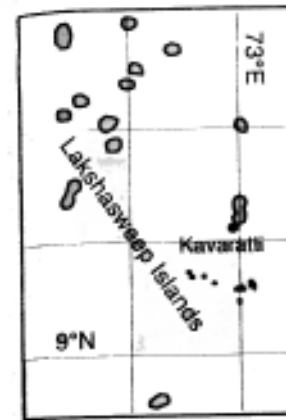
Figure 2.4

scientists studied conglomerates and sandstones found in these 'ancestral Himalaya' sediments. Their main area of research — the Annapurna range of Nepal.

"The birth of the Himalayas is indeed a great story of rocks being shoved down and being brought to the surface, while huge amounts of erosion take place. But we now think that much of the burial, uplift, and erosion happened between 450 million and 500 million years ago," Gehrels said. "The ancestral Himalayas appear to also have formed in a regime of continental collision, with the Indian continent being shoved beneath another landmass." "According to our model, this collisional event began with a small range forming at around 508 million years ago. The faulting, burial of rocks, formation of granite bodies, and uplift then propagated toward India," Gehrels said.

By about 450 million years ago, as the forces of mountain building waned, erosion levelled the topography down to the deep-level metamorphic rocks, generating enormous amounts of sediment. Subsequently, the ancestral Himalayas disappeared and the region subsided below sea level as the landmass was rifted away from India's northern margin, Gehrels said. "The region remained buried below marine sediments until India collided with southern Asia around 55 million years ago and the modern Himalaya mountains began to form," he added. Global climate began to cool then and scientists theorise that this may have been driven by weathering reactions in the Himalayas that remove carbon-dioxide from the atmosphere, decreasing the greenhouse effect and cooling Earth. At the same time, Earth's oceans changed chemically, a possible result of vast quantities of Himalayan sediments carried by great rivers into the sea. "Maybe the Himalayas have played such an important role in shaping modern climate and seawater chemistry because rocks exposed in the mountain belt were buried, metamorphosed, and uplifted during an earlier phase of mountain building," Gehrels said.

2. The Gangetic Plains : To the south of the Himalayas and to the north of the Tropic of Cancer are the Gangetic Plains. These plains were
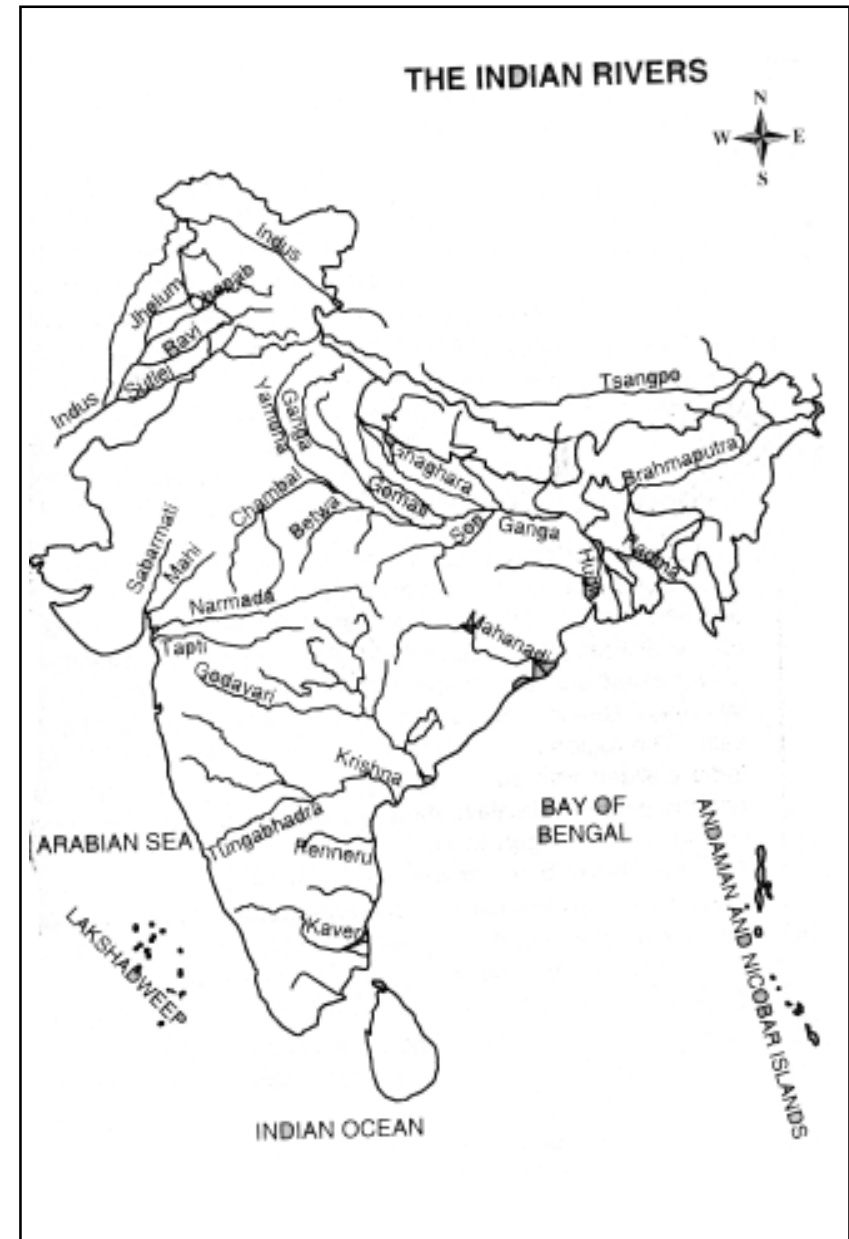

Figure 2.5

formed by the rivers. These plains are a great expanse of land stretching west to east. As the Ganges system, originating on the Himalayas, flows down their slopes, erodes the rocks, carries the debris and finally deposits them at the foot of the mountains as the alluvium. The alluvium deposited thus by the rivers of the Ganges system is very fertile. Hence, the agricultural crops grown here are lush. Owing to intensive agriculture, there is very high density of population. In India, the very highly densely populated areas are the Gangetic Plains.

In the west of the Gangetic Plains are the Sutlej Plains and in the east are the Brahmaputra Plains. The two great plains are at the borders of the Indian subcontinent.

III The Islands : Besides the two large land areas of India, there are also two island groups in India (Figure 2.4).

1. The Andaman and Nicobar Islands

2. The Lakshadweep Islands

The Andaman-Nicobar Islands : These islands are found in the east of Chennai (until 1996 known as Madras, the capital of Tamil Nadu) in the Bay of Bengal with a north-south distribution. In the north of these islands are the Andamans and in the south of these are the Nicobar groups. In the Andaman group of islands, there are 300 islands which are both small and large. Of these, only five islands are inhabited by the humans. In most of the Nicobar islands, there are tribes.

The Lakshadweep, Minicoy and Amindivi Islands

These islands are found close to Kerala in the Arabian Sea. There are lagoons and coral reefs among these islands.

The Indian Rivers : The characteristics of the rivers of India differ with the physiographic characteristics. The rivers of India may be divided into two large divisions on the basis of their drainage characteristics (Figure 2.5).

1. The Peninsular Indian Rivers

2. The Extra-Peninsular Indian Rivers

Rivers of Peninsular India : The rivers of the Peninsular India originate on the Western Ghats. The Western Ghats receive heavy rainfall from the southwest monsoon. Hence, there is flow of water in the rivers only during the season of rainfall. In the dry seasons, the rivers become dry, too. It is because of this, the rivers of the Peninsular India are 'non-perennial rivers'. The rivers that originate among the Western Ghats drain the Peninsular Plateau. The plateau has slopes from west to east. Hence, most rivers of the Peninsular India flow eastwards and join the Bay of Bengal. Of the east flowing rivers, the most important ones are the Mahanadi, Godavari, Krishna and Cauvery.

The Cauvery originates at the Kodagu Hills of Karnataka, traverses the state of Tamil Nadu and then joins the Bay of Bengal. In the districts of Tiruchchirappalli and Thanjavur, the river has created a vast delta. The Godavari and Krishna rivers make Andhra Pradesh rich. Learn about their locations by looking at the Atlas.

Rivers of Extra-Peninsular India : Most of the rivers traversing the Extra-Peninsular India originate on the Himalayas. The Himalayas are lofty mountains. Hence, there are glaciers on the Himalayas. The Extra-Peninsular rivers receive their waters from these glaciers. Also, in the season, there is water from the rainfall for these rivers. It is because of this the Extra-Peninsular Indian rivers have water flows all through the year. As such, these rivers are called the 'perennial rivers'.

Of these Extra-Peninsular rivers, the Ganges are the most significant. The Ganges has created a vast plains at the foot of the Himalayas. Originating on the Himalayas, the Ganges reaches the plains at Haridwar. This holy river has tributaries such as the Yamuna and the Kosi. Before draining into the Bay of Bengal, the Ganges gives rise to a number of distributaries and creates a vast delta. A large part of this delta is in Bangladesh. Only the Hooghly which is one among the distributaries traverses India. It is in the Hooghly that the flow of the inland waterways is the largest. This river connects the Calcutta Port with the sea.

The two rivers, the Indus and the Brahmaputra, that originate on the Himalayas drain only a very small area. A vast area of the Indus is in Pakistan. The Sutlej, which is a tributary of the Indus, runs in the northwest border areas. Bakra-Nangal, which is the largest of the dams in Asia, has been constructed across the Sutlej. The state of Punjab has benefitted greatly from this dam. A major portion of the river

Brahmaputra is in Tibet. This river runs through the Assam Hills and turns into the Indian territories. Further, it reaches into Bangladesh. The Brahmaputra is in a spate, of flows, more often than not. The states of Assam and Bihar are affected very much by such floods.

Learning Outcome

1. Students acquire the ability to divide India into logical divisions based on relief.

2. Students learn to identify and understand the importance of drainage, especially rivers.

3. Students learn and appreciate the islands of India and their importance.

4. Students acquire the ability to differentiate characteristics of relief divisions, especially hills/mountains and plains.

5. Students learn to appreciate the differences among plateaus, plains and islands.

Self-Evaluation

I. Choose the correct answer

1. The highest peak on the Anamalai is
   a. Dodda Bettah
   b. Everest
   c. Anaimudi
   d. Nanga Parbat.

2. The northwest of the Peninsular India is:
   a. Deccan Trap
   b. the Western Ghats
   c. Malwa Plateau
   d. Chotta Nagpur Plateau.

3. The dam constructed across the Sutlej is
   a. Bakra-Nangal
   b. Hirakud
   c. Damodar dam
   d. Stanley reservoir.

4. The hills that has Dodda Bettah is
   a. Anamalai
   b. Nilgiri Hills
   c. Palani Hills
   d. Kutralam Hills.

5. The area which is rich in minerals
   a. Malwa Plateau
   b. Chotta Nagpur
   c. Micol Hills
   d. Ajantha caves.

II. Fill in the blanks

1. The land that lies north of the equator and south of the Tropic of Cancer is known as the _____.

2. There was a water body surrounding the Pangea known as the _____.

3. There are _____ hills which are parallel to the Narmada Valley.

4. In the Bay of Bengal, there are _____ islands in north-south directions.

5. The Narmada and Tapti rivers join the_____ sea.

III. Match the following

1. Deccan Plateau   –   Talakad
2. Sathpura   –   Kollihills
3. The Western Ghats –   Lava Plateau
4. The Eastern Hills –   Hooghly
5. The Ganges   –   Seven Folds
                            Krishna river

IV. Answer briefly

1. What are the two major physiographic divisions of India?

2. Write a note on the Deccan Plateau.

3. Why are the Himalayas called 'the young fold mountains'?

4. What are the islands of India?

5. Which are the rivers that originate in the Himalayas?

V. Answer in detail

1. How do we divide the physiography of India? Write in detail about any one of the landforms.

2. Write are essay on rivers of India

VI. Practical exercises

1. Show the drainage of India on the Indian map.
2. Draw the land features of India on the India map.

Lesson 3

CLIMATE AND RAINWATER HARVESTING

Learning Objectives

1. To learn how climate of India works.

2. To know and understand the elements of Indian climate.

3. To learn about the seasons of rains in India.

4. To learn the monsoon seasons, rainfall patterns and places of rainfall.

5. To understand the need for rainwater harvesting.

There are events in each of our lives that are perceived as problems. Problems become real when the person affected by it considers it as real and perceives it as such in some significant ways. Climate is one such, for farmers of India, for it affects what they do very significantly. It is for this reason that '*agriculture in India is a gamble on monsoon*'. Agriculture is intertwined with the climate of places, elsewhere in the world as well.

And in India, the educational institutions declare summer holidays during the months of April and May of every year. It is because it would be difficult to do work for long hours at high temperatures. The temperature starts to decline, after the summer, during December and January; and in these months, the weather is cold as well.

There occur changes in pressure, wind, cloud cover and precipitation depending upon the atmospheric temperatures in the summer and winter. It is these elements that determine the climate of any place.

The climate of a place depends on the atmospheric temperature, pressure, wind, humidity, cloud cover and precipitation.

The heat released by the Sun reaches the earth in the same quantity during the entire calender year. Yet some regions are hot while others are cold. Also, the temperature of the earth is not the same throughout the year. Temperature varies from place to place and time to time. It is thus the seasons occur. You have learned about the seasons in the seventh standard. Let us now recall a little about it.

We know that the earth rotates on its axis at 23½°. In any given year, there is an apparent movement of the Sun from south to north to the Tropic of Cancer and from north to south to the Tropic of Capricorn. The Sun is directly above the equator in March and September. The Sun's rays are perpendicular over the equator during these months. Likewise, the Sun's rays fall directly over the Tropic of Cancer in June and over the Tropic of Capricorn in December.

From March to September, the Sun's rays are perpendicular over the Northern Hemisphere throughout summer. Slanting rays provide less heat. Hence, there is winter in the Southern Hemisphere between March and September (Figure 3.1). After September, the Sun moves towards the south of the equator. It shines bright over the Tropic of Capricorn in December. The Sun's rays fall perpendicular over the Tropic of Capricorn. Then the Sun moves north to reach the equator in March. Hence, from September to March, it is summer season in the Southern Hemisphere. During these months, the Sun's rays fall at an angle on the Northern Hemisphere. Hence, it is winter in the Northern Hemisphere during these months.

In the Northern Hemisphere, it is summer from March to September and winter from October to February.

As we are aware, India extends between 8° N and 37° N latitudes. The Tropic of Cancer runs across the country. Hence, when it is summer for the Northern Hemisphere, it is summer also for India. Likewise, when it is winter in the Northern Hemisphere, it is winter for India also. During the seasons, the climatic elements such as the pressure, wind, cloud cover and precipitation change according to the atmospheric temperatures. On the basis of climatic elements, the climate of India can be classified into three distinct seasons:

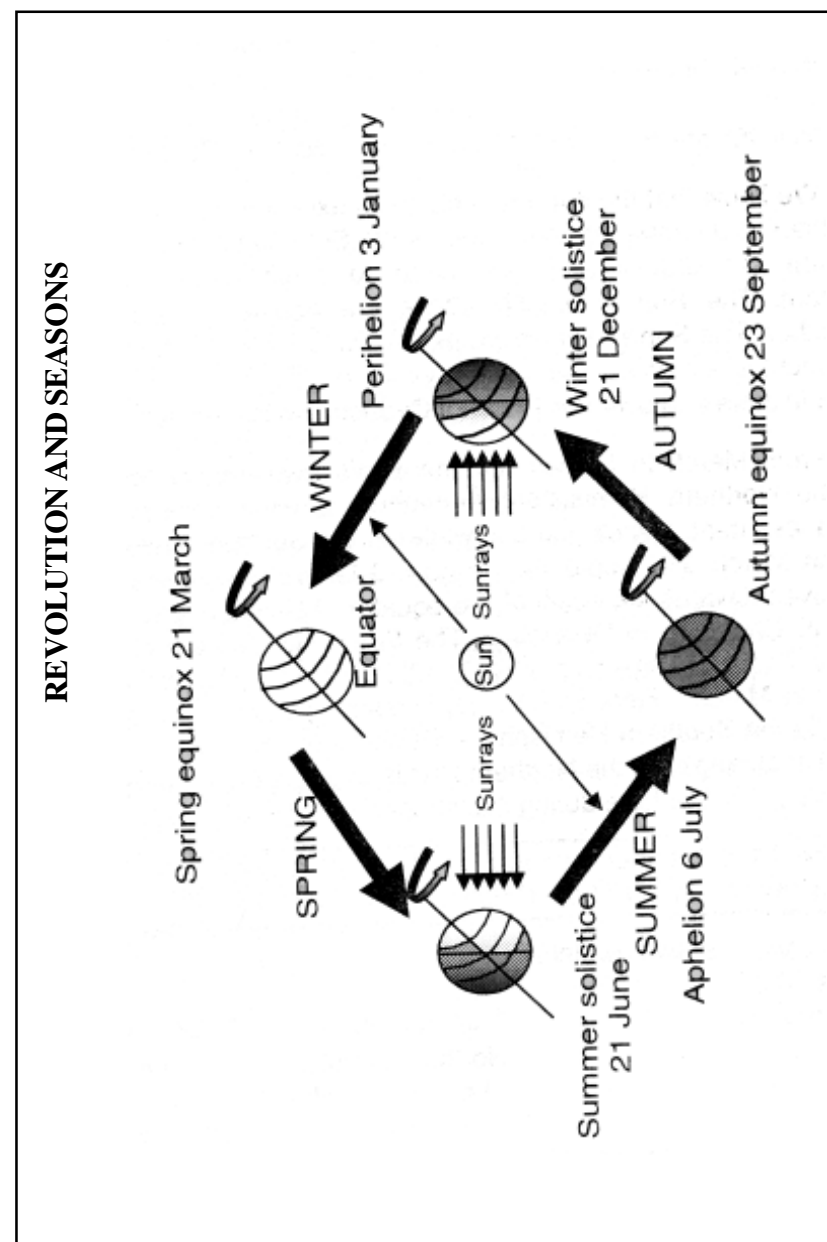1. Summer   2. Winter

3. Rainy Season.

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Figure 3.1

211

Summer : It is summer in India during March to September. The Sun, overhead over the equator in March, reaches the Tropic of Cancer in June. Thus, the Sun's rays are more or less vertical over India during these months (Figure 3.2).

As the Peninsular India south of the Tropic of Cancer is nearer to the equator, the temperature begins to increase from the month of March. As such, there is a peak in temperature in May over Tamil Nadu. The Sun is overhead over the Tropic of Cancer in June. High temperatures are recorded in the Extra-Peninsular India north of the Tropic of Cancer during this time. Thus, the summer temperature increases gradually from March to attain the highest in June.

Summer temperatures persist in India during March to June.

Hence, the temperature increases towards north as we move from the south. With high temperature, there is a fall in the pressure. This fall creates a low pressure area in North India. Although there is high temperatures everywhere during summer, it is often moderate in the littoral and mountainous areas. In the land besides the sea coast, there is sea breeze. The sea breeze lowers the temperature of the land. Its temperature is slightly less than that on the land. You are aware of the fact that the water gets heated slowly.

Hence, the temperatures of the coastal areas are lower than the temperatures of the interior regions. India is bordered on three sides by waters. As such, the temperatures of the coastal areas are relatively lower than those of the interior areas. Temperature in Chennai on the coast is smaller than that recorded in the interior Madurai and Tiruchchirappalli.

Temperature decreases as we go higher and higher from the mean sea level. Thus, the temperature of a place would depend on the altitude at which it is found. At greater heights, the temperature is relatively lower than that in the foothills. It is because of this, the temperatures at greater heights on the Himalayas are very low. Temperatures are low according to the heights even on the Western and Eastern Ghats. This is why Udhagamandalam, Coonoor and Kodaikanal on the Western Ghats and Simla, Darjeeling and Dehra Dun on the Himalayas are the summer resorts of India.
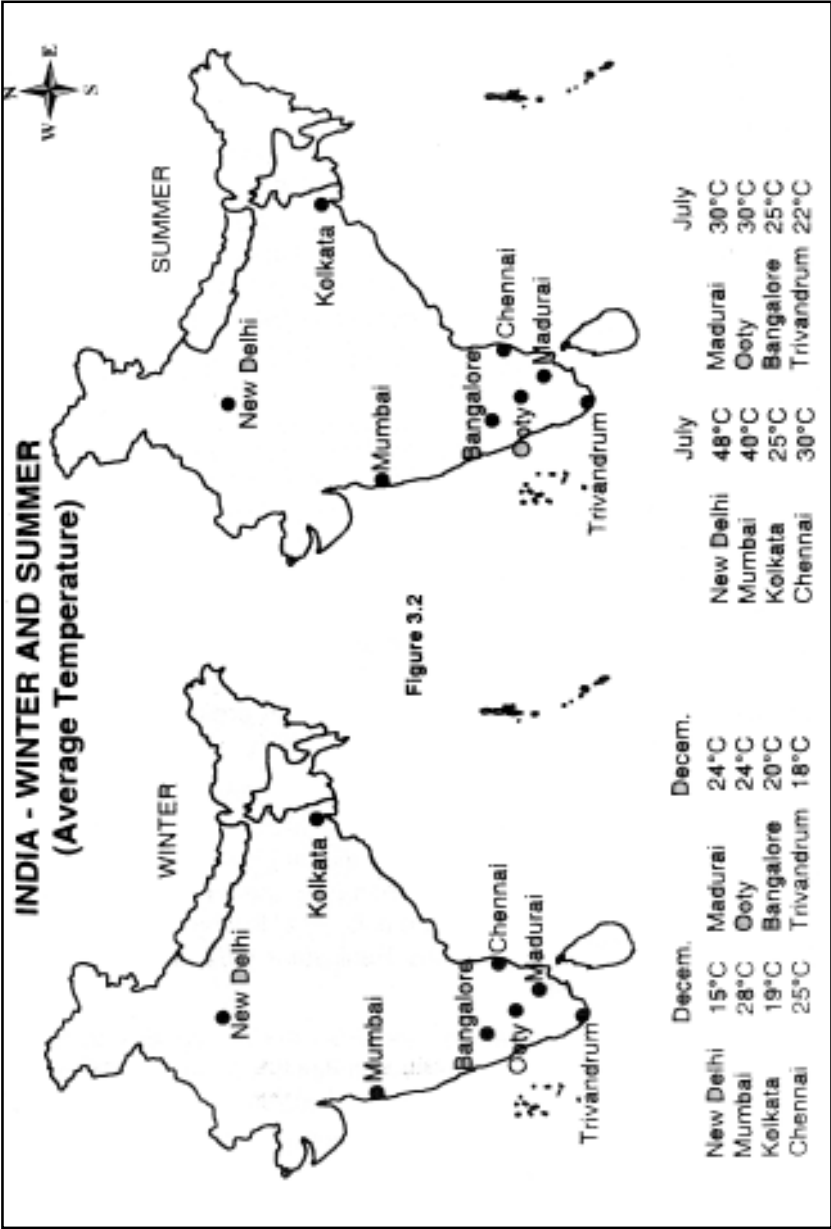
Figure 3.2

Even though there is a wider distribution of high temperatures in summer in the country as such, it is low along the coastal areas and on the hill areas.

Winter : The Sun apparently moves towards the south of the equator after September. It shines overhead at the Tropic of Capricorn during December. Hence, it is therefore summer in the Southern Hemisphere from October to February while it is winter for us in the Northern Hemisphere. Thus, it is winter for India during October-February as it is in the Northern Hemisphere (Figure 3.3).

> The winter temperatures prevail in India during October - February.

It is therefore seen that the temperatures in the Peninsular India south of the Tropic of Cancer are higher than those in the Extra Peninsular India north of the Tropic of Cancer. Also, the Peninsular India is close to the equator. The Sun's rays fall nearly vertically over this area. That is why the winter is not severe but moderate in the Peninsular India. In winter, the temperature in India decreases as we move towards north and in the northwestern India the temperature recorded is therefore low. With decreasing temperature, there is increasing pressure. As such, a centre of high pressure occurs over there.

There is a reversal of temperature distribution in winter. It is low temperature in the whole of India but it is higher than that in the coastal areas. It is because the temperature of the air blowing onto the land is higher than the land temperature. Therefore, the air blowing onto the land heats the land and reduces the cold. That is why the temperature is high in the coastal areas of the Peninsular India than that in the interior, during the winter.

Temperature in winter decreases as we go higher and higher from the foothills and therefore high altitudes are more colder than the low altitudes. For example, the temperature in places such as Udhagamandalam and Kodaikanal are lower than that recorded in Chennai and Madurai in Tamil Nadu.

Rainy Season : It is rainy season in India during the period June to November. The rain is received from the monsoon of this season. Monsoon winds prevail in India depending upon the differences in pressures between summer and winter.
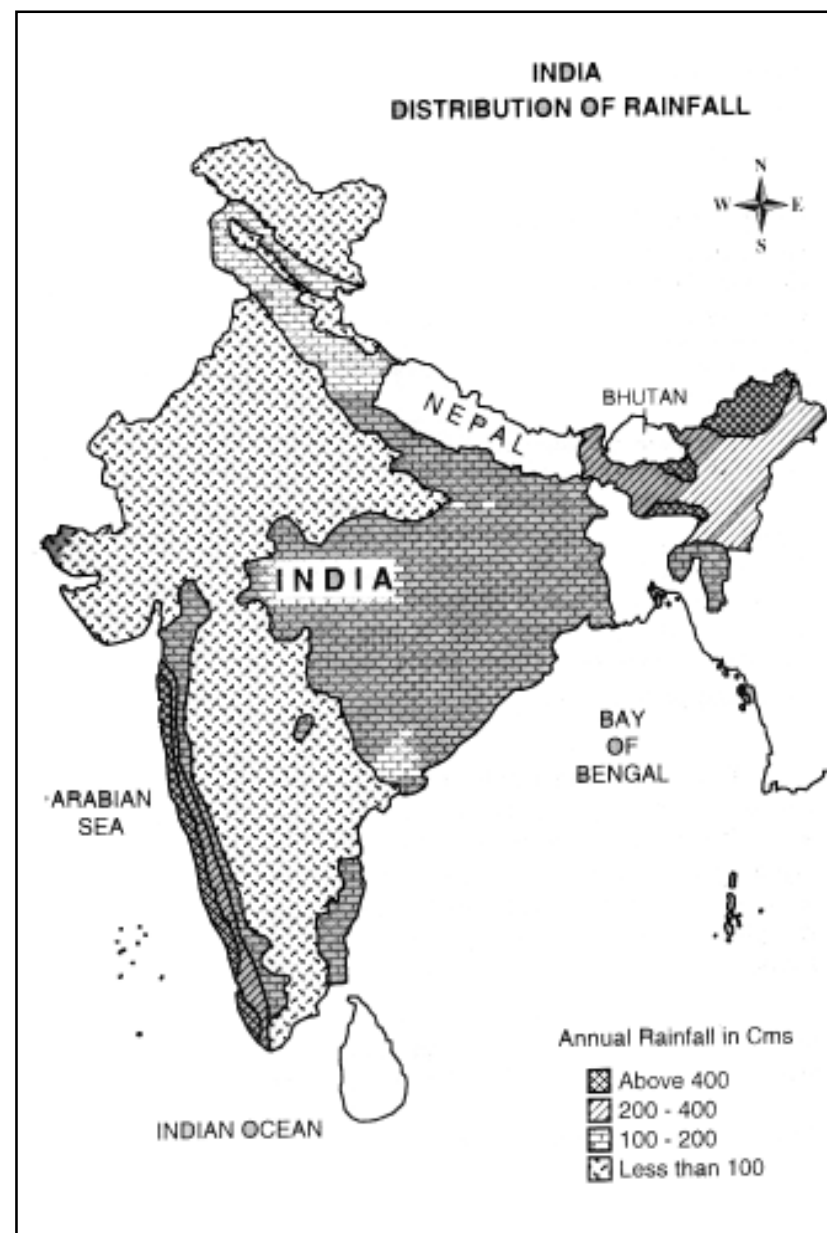

Figure 3.3

India receives rainfall from the monsoon winds during June to November.

Rains received by India may be classified as belonging to two seasons.

1. Summer Rainfall   2. Winter Rainfall

Summer Rainfall : As the sun shines in the Northern Hemisphere during March and September, it is summer in India. In these months, northwest India is very hot. The air gets heated and moves up in altitudes. As a result, a low pressure is formed (Figure 3.4).

It is the tendency of the airmass to blow from the high pressure to the low pressure to stabilise the conditions. Therefore, in order to equalise the pressure differences, the air blows from the high pressure caused by the winter conditions in the Southern Hemisphere towards the north. When this air crosses the equator and enters into the Northern Hemisphere, it is deflected by the rotation of the earth and blows from the southwest. This is why the wind blowing from the Southern Hemisphere is known as the 'Southwest Monsoon'.

Southwest Monsoon : The southwest monsoon begins to blow during the beginning of the month of June. Because of the lay of the Indian landmass, this airmass divides itself into two branches:

1. Arabian Sea Branch   2. Bay of Bengal Branch

The Arabian Sea Branch : One of the branches of the Southwest Monsoon crosses the Arabian Sea and blows towards the west coast of India. Along the coast of South India, the Western Ghats run south to north. The Arabian Sea Branch of the Southwest winds bearing moisture is blocked by the Western Ghats and climbs up the hills. The rising winds condense to give rainfall. As a result, there is heavy rainfall on the windward side of the Western Ghats, more than 250 cm. The air becomes dry after the deposition of rains. This dry air crosses the Western Ghats and climbs down the leeward side of the hills. This air is unable to give rains. This is the reason why that the Deccan Plateau is the 'rainshadow region'.

The Bay of Bengal Branch : Another branch of the Southwest Monsoon takes a turn towards the Bay of Bengal and enters into the
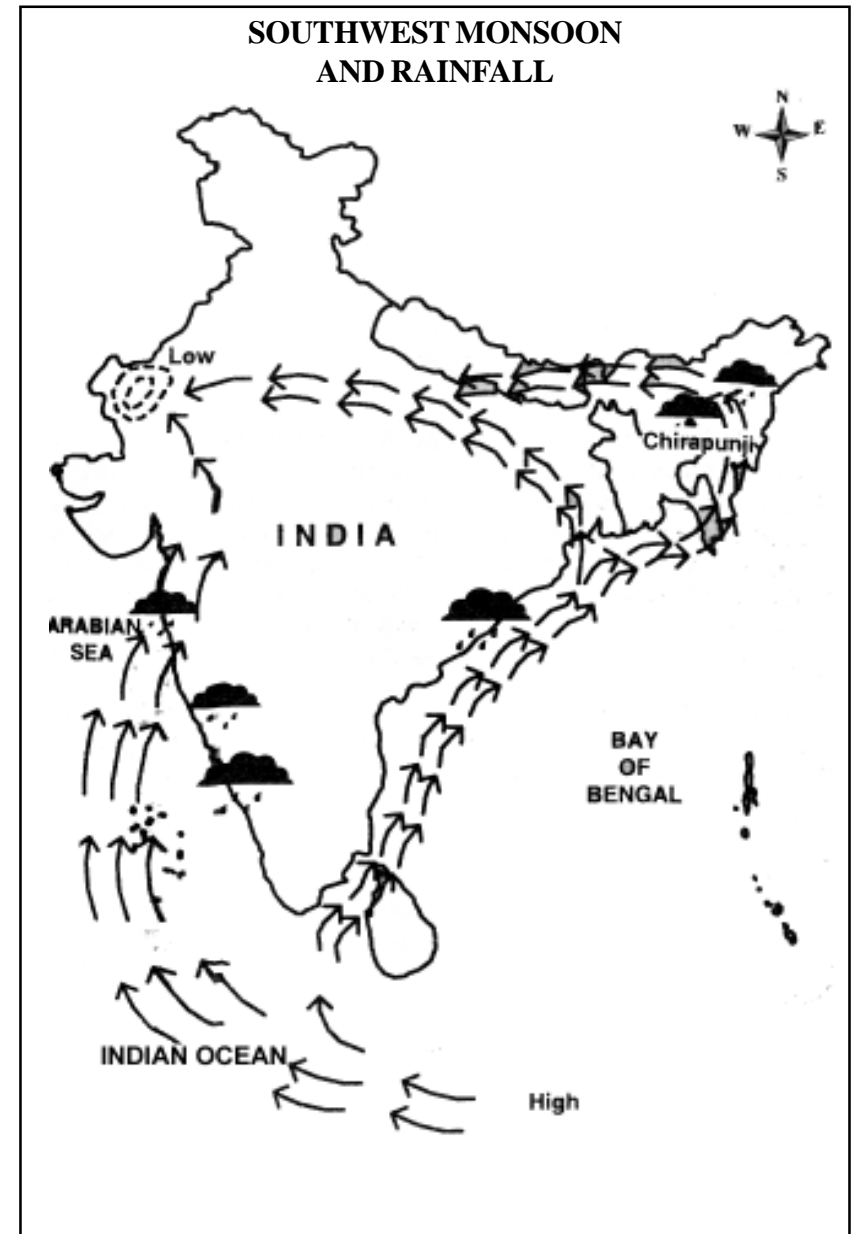
SOUTHWEST MONSOON AND RAINFALL

Figure 3.4

northeastern India. This branch is blocked by the Himalayas and the moisture laden air climbs upwards. The climbing air cools and condenses to give heavy rainfall, more than 300 cm to a year. This air then turns northwest. As it blows over the Gangetic Plains, it gives rains all over the place. But the monsoon winds lose their humidity progressively. Therefore, rainfall also decreases as we go west. When the winds reach the low pressure in northwest India that triggered the monsoon, they become completely dry. As such, there is little or no rain and hence the area is a desert. Of course, you are aware of the Thar desert in these parts.

Winter Rainfall : As the Sun shines over the Southern Hemisphere during October to March, it is summer there. Because of the summer temperatures in the Southern Hemisphere, the pressure decreases. A low pressure is created thus in the Southern Hemisphere (Figure 3.5). At the same time, there is winter in the Northern Hemisphere. In India, the rays of the Sun fall at a greater angle in the Extra-Peninsular India than in the Peninsular India and hence the temperature here is very low. As a consequence, the pressure increases.

A high pressure area develops thus in the northwest of India, where the low pressure has been in the previous season. Again, in order to equalise the pressure differences, the winds begin to blow from the Northern Hemisphere towards the Southern Hemisphere. The winds that blow from the north get deflected and come from the northeast. These winds are known in India as the northeast monsoon or the 'retreating monsoon'.

Because the northeast monsoon winds originate at the high pressure on the land, they are dry. And hence they do not give rainfall to the Extra-Peninsular India. But as the winds recurve and blow over the Bay of Bengal, they are hot enough to absorb moisture. These moisture laden winds then blow over the eastern coast of the Peninsular India. They also get blocked by the Eastern Hills and thus the northeast monsoon winds give rainfall to the coastal areas. These hills are not high like the Himalayas and nor are they continuous. It is because of this, the northeast monsoon does not give rainfall like the southwest monsoon winds.

The northeast monsoon gives rainfall only to the east coastal areas of the Peninsular India in the winter. In the rest of India, there is
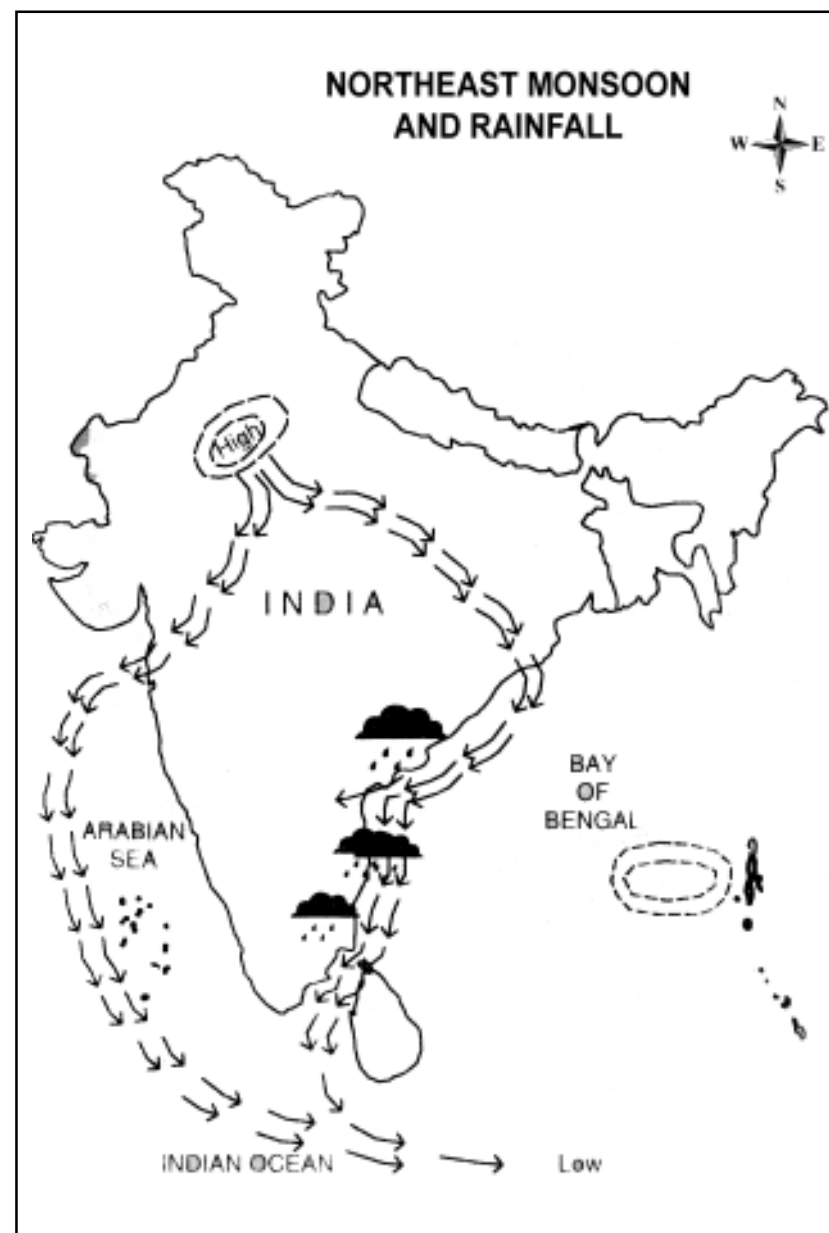
Figure 3.5

no rainfall. The east coast receives rainfall not only from the northeast monsoon but also from the cyclonic storms of the Bay of Bengal. As the cyclones of the Bay of Bengal are continuous, there is rainfall for a few months in the east coast, especially from October to December. In some years, they are very severe that there are floods, and damages to human lives and crops. The efforts towards resolving the problems arising from the damages must provide permanent relief. But, there are no such solutions amongst us.

Rainfall and Water Resources of India

In India the average annual precipitation is nearly 4,000 cubic km (km^3) and the average flow in the river systems is estimated to be 1,869 km^3. Because of concentration of rains only in the 3 monsoon months, the utilizable quantum of water is about 690 km^3. Quantum of groundwater extracted annually is-about 432 km^3. Thus, on an average, 1,122 km^3 water is available for exploitation and is considered adequate to meet all the needs. However, the situation is complicated because this water is not uniformly available either spatially or temporally. Six of the 20 major river basins in India suffer from water scarcity. Water has already become one of the most limiting resources in the country. Solving scarcity of water both in quantity and quality, national programmes (Preventive and Mitigative Action Plans) have been launched to tackle the situation.

Rainwater Harvesting

The Need and the Importance : The process of catching rainwater when and where it falls for use during non-monsoon months is called rainwater harvesting.

Water Crisis – Why? Freshwater sources are being heavily exploited to meet the ever-increasing demand of the urban population. Fast rate of urbanization, coupled with concrete constructions, reduces the availability of open surfaces for natural recharge of rain water. Failure of monsoon makes the situation in rural areas even more worse. Dependence on groundwater increases during low rainfall. Large scale extraction results in depletion of water table and finally the wells become dry.

What is the solution? Rainwater is the ultimate source of freshwater. Potential of rain to meet water demand is tremendous. Rainwater harvesting helps to overcome water scarcity. To conserve ground water, the aquifers must be recharged with rainwater. Rainwater harvesting is therefore the ultimate answer for resolving water crisis.

Why should rainwater be harvested? There are of course several reasons. Some of them are given here. It is necessary to conserve and augment the storage of groundwater. It is also necessary to reduce water table depletion. It is helpful in improving the quality of groundwater and in arresting seawater intrusion in the coastal areas. It will control the formation of cracks on walls.

What is rainwater harvesting? It is an activity of direct collection of rainwater. Rainwater can be stored for direct use or can be recharged into the groundwater aquifer in use.

How rainwater can be harvested? Broadly rainwater can be harvested in two ways:

1. Collected and stored for ready use in containers.

2. Recharged into the ground for withdrawal later.

Methods of Rainwater Harvesting : Rainwater can be harvested from roof tops and also from open spaces. Wherever open wells or borewells are available, rooftop water can be used for direct recharging of these wells. Rainwater available in the open spaces can be recharged into the ground using other recharge structures.

Learning Outcome

1. Students learn about the significance of the climate of India.

2. Students learn to appreciate how agriculture is a gamble on monsoon, in India.

3. Students understand the differences between the monsoons and the rainfall received from them.

4. Students learn about the need and importance of rainfall harvesting.

I. Choose the correct answer

1. The season that prevails between March and September:

   a. Summer
   b. Winter
   c. Rainy
   d. Dry season

2. The month in which the Sun's rays are overhead over the Tropic of Cancer:

   a. January
   b. February
   c. May
   d. June

3. The winter of Peninsular india:

   a. Cold
   b. Very Cold
   c. Moderately Cold
   d. Hot

4. The Indian region where the high pressure due to winter is found:

   a. Southwestern region
   b. Southeastern region
   c. Northeastern region
   d. Northwestern region

5. The region that receives high rainfall from the Arabian Sea Branch of the monsoon:

   a. West coast
   b. East coast
   c. Deccan Plateau
   d. Rajasthan

II. Fill in the blanks

1. In India, the temperature reaches the peak in the month of _____.

2. As we go higher and higher from the mean sea level, the temperature _____.

3. It is in the region of _____ the highest summer temperature is recorded.

4. It is rainy season in India from June to _____.

5. The eastern slopes of the Western Ghats are the _____ region.

III. Match the following

1. Southwest Monsoon   –   December to February
2. Northeast Monsoon   –   Thar Desert
3. Arid Region   –   Deccan Plateau
4. Rainshadow Region   –   Summer Rainfall
5. Winter   –   Winter Rainfall September to November

IV Answer briefly

1. What is meant by weather?
2. What are the climate divisions of India?
3. What are two branches of South-West Monsoon?
4. Mention some of the summer resorts of India.
5. What is the reason behind the fact that the winter is moderately cold in Peninsular India?
6. Define "Rain Water Harvesting"

V. Answer in detail

1. Indian Winter and Summer - Compare.
2. Explain the nature of the Summer Monsoon of India.
3. How does the Northeast Monsoon originate and blow?
4. Discuss the importance of rainwater harvesting for India.

VI. Practical exercises

1. Show on a map of India the directions of southwest and northeast monsoon winds.

2. Show the areas receiving rains during the Southwest and Northeast Monsoons in India.

Lesson 4

NATURAL VEGETATION AND SOILS

Learning Objectives

1. To learn about different types of vegetation.

2. To know and understand the means of protection and conservation of vegetation.

3. To learn and understand the way soils form and develop.

4. To learn about soil erosion control measures.

In our natural environment, there are flora and fauna of different kinds. You may have seen the prolific growth of trees and plants such as peepul, banyan, persian and neem trees and wild plants and creepers. They are not vegetation cultivated by somebody. They grow, on the contrary, naturally. They are indeed the natural vegetation of our villages. In all the lands uncultivated, there are such naturally growing trees and plants. We do not even prune them and protect them. They however grow in abundance and in accordance with the climate, soils, and precipitation.

The flora that grow in the natural environment without the intervention of human beings are known generally as the natural vegetation.

In the growth of natural vegetation, sunshine, rainfall and soils are the most fundamental of the resources. If there is some shortage or lack in any of these, then there is a corresponding effect on the growth of the vegetation or even a lack of it.

Forests grow lush in areas where there are conditions such as high temperatures and heavy rainfall throughout the year and fertile soils. Where there are only high temperatures and fertile soils and no rainfall, the growth of vegetation will be meagre and the entire area would look more like a desert. If, on the other hand, there are high

temperatures throughout the year and low rainfall, there could be only grasses and thorny bushes. Natural flora in India vary with the natural landscapes and the prevailing climatic conditions. On the slopes of the hills receiving heavy rainfall, there are dense forests; on the plateaus receiving low rainfall, there are deciduous forests, grasslands and shrub forests; and where there is little or no rainfall, there is only desert vegetation. The flora of India can be classified as belonging to any of the three major types, based on the natural landscapes and the prevailing climatic conditions (Figure 4.1) :

1. Hill Vegetation

2. Deciduous Vegetation

3. Desert Vegetation

The Hill Vegetation : At the foothills and lower slopes of the hills, there are high temperatures and heavy rainfall. Hence, the natural vegetation grows luxuriously in these areas. Dense forests are thus found on the northeastern parts of the mighty Himalayas and the western slopes of the Western Ghats, from the foothills to as high as 1,000 metres. Trees here are clothed by the creepers. There is short vegetation on the ground. These flora are green throughout the year. Hence, we call them the 'evergreen vegetation'. Ebony, Deodar, Rosewood and Karungali are the evergreen varieties of vegetation.

On the slopes of the hills, especially between 1,000 and 2,500 metres, the rain water does not stagnate due to slope. As the height increases from the foothills, there is gradual decrease in the temperatures as well. Hence, where rainfall and temperature are low, there is a lack of dense vegetative growth. Neither is it green. But since there is some rain, there are scattered trees, bushes and creepers. The areas with such vegetation are generally known as the 'mixed forests'.

At heights greater than 2,500 metres, the temperature is very low. Therefore, there may be snow. Hence, in accordance with the climatic conditions prevalent, the vegetation here is coniferous, with needle-like leaves. At altitudes more than 4,000 metres, there is permanent snow cover and hence it is not conducive for vegetation.
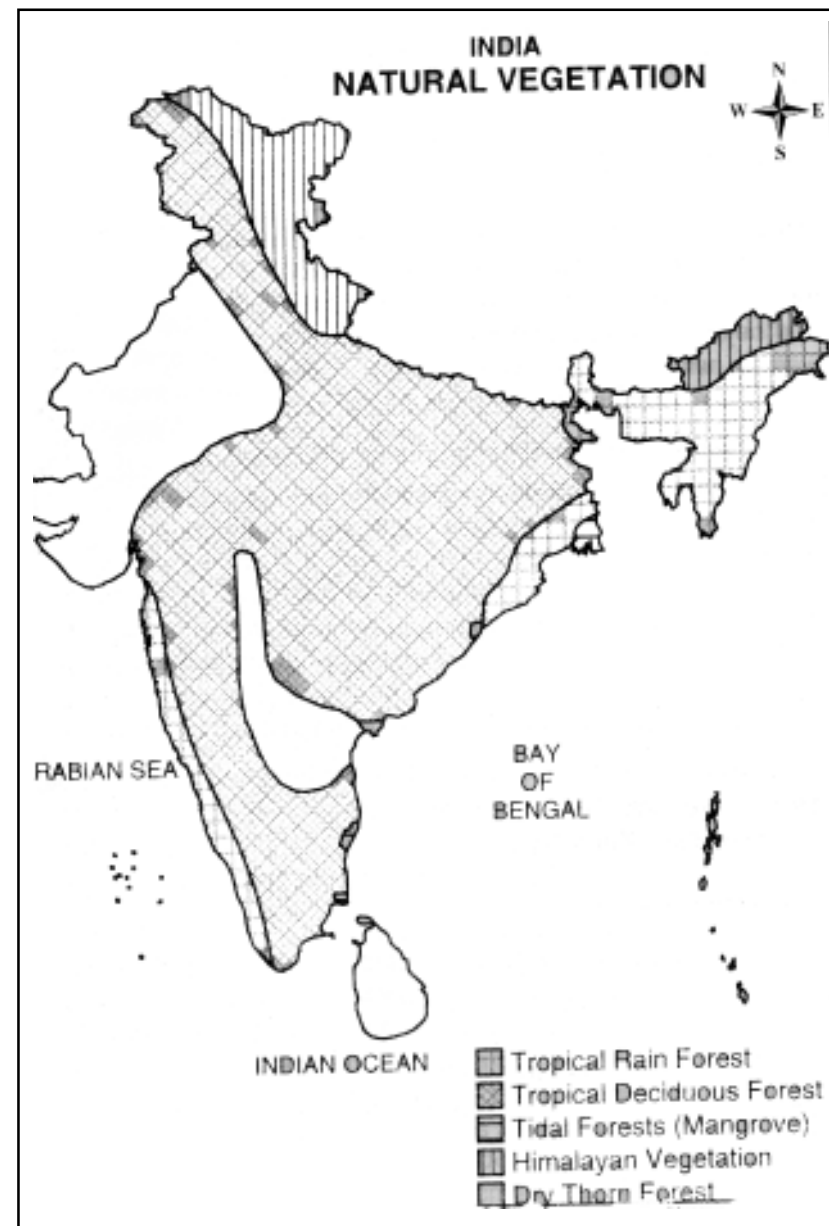
Figure 4.1

The Deciduous Vegetation : Even if there are adequate temperatures and fertile soils, with rainfall during a part of the year, the vegetation sheds the leaves to cope with the drought. In the season when the trees shed their leaves, the vegetation appears to have 'withered'. The forests of such vegetation are generally known as the 'deciduous forests'. In India, such forests also go by the name 'monsoon forests'.In the plateau regions of India, only the deciduous vegetation is mostly found. In particular, the Deccan Plateau receives scanty rainfall from the southwest monsoon. It is because the Deccan Plateau is on and beyond the eastern slopes of the Western Ghats and the south-western winds blow as very dry winds, having shed their moisture completely on the hill top and particularly on the western slopes.

Similarly, the deciduous forests are found along the western foothills of the Himalayas as well. As you are already aware, the southwestern monsoon winds give very copious rainfall in the northeastern parts of India before blowing northwestwards; and we have also learnt that the rainfall declines westwards as the winds blow from the northeast towards the northwest. Even though there is very fertile soil in the northwest, the vegetation here is deciduous primarily due to the low and scanty monsoon rainfall. The important trees of these forests are the teak, sal, red wood, sandal and bamboo.

The central zones of the Peninsular India and the northwestern parts of the Extra Peninsular India receive very very scanty rainfall. Temperature is also quite high here. As such, it is difficult for the trees and plants to grow well. Hence, conversely, only grasses and thorny bushes grow in abundance.

The Desert Vegetation : In areas where year-round high temperatures and intermittent and few rains prevail, only certain plants are found growing. Cacti and other xerophytic plants, without leaves, are the plants that grow well in such environments. We call these flora the 'desert vegetation'. In the Thar desert of the Extra-Peninsular India in the northwest, such plants are quite common.

Besides the three major types of vegetation, there are other varieties in India as well. Of particular significance is the vegetation of the wetlands and marshy lands. Such vegetation is found in the estaurine regions of the east coast zone. The waves and the tides keep smashing the waters on the sediments of the estuarine areas. Hence,

such areas have turned into wet or marshy lands. The vegetation that grow in such lands are thus called marshy vegetation or wetlands vegetation. In the deltas of the Ganges are the 'Sundarbans'. Apart from these, there are wetland vegetation in the estuarine regions of Mahanadi, Godavari, Krishna and in the islands of Andaman and Nicobars. Mangroves here are a special type of vegetation.

Indian Forestry Policy

India is one of the few countries, which have a forest policy since 1894. It was revised in 1952 and again in 1988. The main plank of the Forestry Policy of 1988 is protection, conservation and development of forest. Its aims are:

 (i) maintenance of environmental stability through preservation and restoration of ecological balance;

 (ii) conservation of natural heritage;

 (iii) check soil erosion and denudation in catchments area of rivers, lakes and reservoirs;

 (iv) check extension of sand dunes in desert areas of Rajasthan   and along coastal tracts;

 (v) substantial increase in forest tree cover through afforestation and social forestry programmes;

 (vi) steps to meet requirements of fuel wood, fodder, minor forest produce and soil timber of rural and tribal populations;

 (vii) increase in productivity of forest to meet the national needs;

 (viii) encouragement of efficient utilization of forest produce and optimum substitution of wood; and

 (ix) steps to create massive people's movement with involvement of women to achieve the objectives and minimize pressure on existing forests.

The entire gamut of forest activities are being given a new orientation in the light of the National Forest Policy of 1988.

Conservation of Forests : The forests of yester years have now been converted into cultivated lands and settlements. The destruction of forests while there is an alarming growth of population is like setting up for the destruction of the human race. With increasing population, there has been a declining forest wealth. With the reduction in forest cover, there has been an increase in soil erosion. Floods also occur frequently. The forests of the Gangetic Plains, Gujarat, Punjab, Rajasthan and the South Indian regions have now disappeared completely and without a trace.

The Angel Tree

The grumbling sky
Decided
It was time

    To stop threatening
    And
    Get on with some rains.

    A slow spitting
    Changed quickly

    To a steady rain.

I saw the angel tree
Through the rain.

    You can't take that tree, Mister.
    She belongs with us.

    If you make a bad mistake,
    A terrible mistake,
    And
    Have been bad with greed,
    Let me tell you:

This is not my tree to sell;
It is in the soul of all of us here.

She is our angel.

With the destruction of forests in the country, there is a destruction of 1.5 million hectares every year. They are in fact destroyed by human activities. Other causes account for 1 million hectares of land being destroyed every year. If the trees are felled indiscriminately, the humus and the plant nutrients of the soils will be removed easily by the rains. If there are no forests along the hills or mountain slopes, the flow of waters by gravity will increase; it will cause floods. Sediments will be brought down by the waters, causing damages to crops in the fields by their deposition. In course of time, the cultivated lands will become wastelands, unsuitable for any cultivation.

Realising the importance of the forests, our ancestors had decreed that every human being must in his life time grow some number of trees. But such decrees have become disused in our society.

Today, the governments have realised the importance of the forests and so have enacted a number of legislations. In every state, there is a forest department. In Dehra Dun, there is a Forest Research Organisation, with the express purpose of carrying out researches on forests and forest products in the country. This organisation is also greatly involved in researches relating to vegetation pathologies and increased forest yields. To a certain extent, the indiscriminate felling of forests has been controlled. And those who have obtained the rights or permission to fell forests have now been legally compelled to plant trees as substitutes or alternate arrangements within the stipulated time periods; there is legislation requiring the planting to be inadequate replacements for the felled forests.

Development of Social Forestry has also been encouraged in the country. Since 1950, tree planting ceremonies or 'vana mahotsav' have been celebrated during July-August of every year. People are encouraged to plant and grow trees in the villages and towns of the country. Radio, television advertisements, documentaries and plays are also made use of in the popularisation of the need to grow trees. Forest fires have been brought under control. Grazing of cattle in the forests has also been regulated. By way of rehabilitating the forests where the plant growth is stunted and constrained, a scheme facilitating the production of country varieties of trees has been in operation in most districts of the country under the auspices of the Forest Department. This form of forest cultivation is often referred to as 'Kumari Cultivation'. This is particularly encouraged towards quicker yield and quality improvement of the forests.

It is also the purpose of this programme of the Forest Department to increase the number of economically beneficial trees while at the same time to increase the area for grazing the cattle, without being expensive. Under this programme, the lands of the Forest Department will be leased out to the poor for a few years only. The lessees will be designated as the *'kumaridhars'*. It is expected of these *kumaridhars* to plant rows-upon-rows of plants. They may also cultivate food crops between them. There will be no need for manuring the forest soils. As this practice is in favour of the *kumaridhars,* there is a tendency among them to grow more plants. It also facilitates the understanding of the need to grow forests and to protect and conserve them for their benefits. This scheme also facilitates the growth of cordial relations between the villagers and the personnel of the Forest Department.

Forests and Mountains

The hum of the Forest,
the wind
the dance of the Fire fly,
the stalk of the crane,
the prowl of the tiger
are part of tribal dance
and music.

Every pebble,
river,
mountain is,
instinct for them
with life,
vibration
and purpose.

Soils

Of the natural resources of the earth, the most important is the soil. It is the layer of the earth surface made up of tiny rock debris and it is called 'soil'. In the soil, there are minerals, decomposed vegetation and bacteria. Soil is the base in which the plants take root and grow. The heat, moisture, and mineral salts received from the soils significantly help the vegetation to grow well. The dead animals also add to the

nutrients of the soil which is a result of the weathered rocks. In the forests, leaves fall to the ground and become humus when decomposed and hence the forest soils are very fertile.

Soil Types : You are aware of the fact that the rocks are made up of minerals. When the rocks weather and change into soils, the soil characteristics depend on the nature of the minerals found in them. It is for this reason that there are several soil types on the surface of the earth (Figure 4.2). Now let us look at the distribution of soil types found in India, in detail.

Sand : Much sand is found along the littoral zones of India. It is also found in the river beds and the beds of streams. This is indeed a soil type. As there are pores between the sand particles, rain water cannot be retained in the sand. Hence, the sand has no moisture retention capacity. And sand is not suitable for the growth of the vegetation.

It is because there is little or no decomposed plant materials in the sand. But coconut, casuarina and cashew are some of the crops which grow well in sandy soils. Sand is found also in the arid deserts. In this sand, there are mineral salts and phosphorous and hence is possible to cultivate crops if only there is water for irrigation. You are of course aware of the oasis in the desert where there is a good source of water.

Alluvial Soil : Of the several types, alluvial soils are significant. As alluvial soils are found deposited in the river beds, there is alluvial soil in the floodplains. In India, the Gangetic plains is an expanse of alluvial soils. The Cauvery that traverses the Peninsular India also generates an alluvial plain in the districts of Thanjavur and Nagai Quaid-e-Milleth. Alluvial soils are made up of very fine particles. Hence, there is stagnation of rain waters and floods occur. Alluvial soil is capable of retaining moisture and hence is very good for the growth of vegetation. Crops such as wheat, paddy, sugarcane and banana grow very well in these soils. It is for this reason that the floodplains are useful in the cultivation of food crops. The alluvium of the river estuaries and deltas are mixed with the sea water and hence the soil types in those areas in such situations turn themselves into wetlands. There are sundarbans in the marshy lands.

Red Soil : Red soil is found widely in Peninsular India. There are metamorphic rocks here and the iron oxide in the metamorphic rocks

INDIA
SOILS

N
W E
S

NEPAL

BHUTAN

BANGLADESH

INDIA

ARABIAN
SEA

BAY OF BENGAL

INDIAN OCEAN

☐ Alluvial Soil
☐ Black Soil
☐ Desert Soil
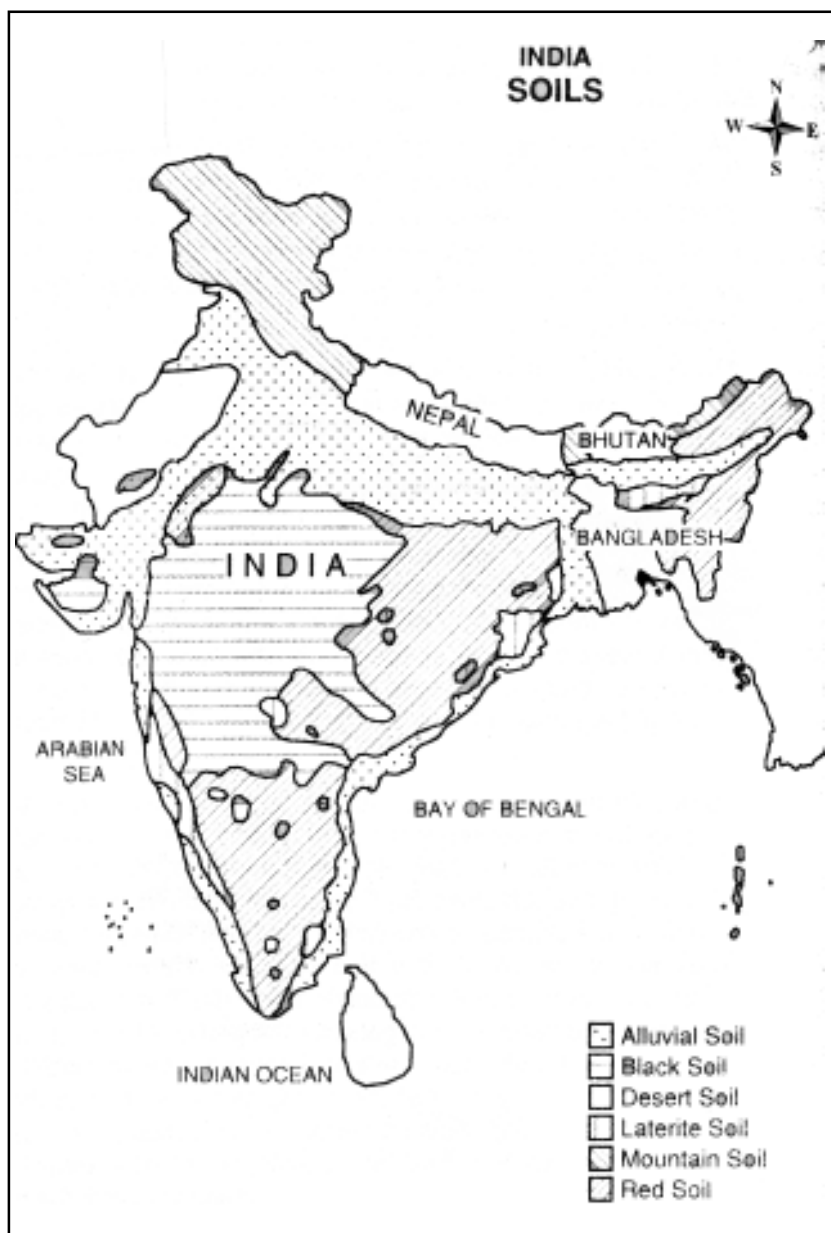☐ Laterite Soil
☐ Mountain Soil
☐ Red Soil

Figure 4.2

give the soil the reddish colour. Red soil is made up of rock particles midway between those of the alluvial soil and sand. It is capable of absorbing water but the capacity to retain moisture is limited. Red soil is moderately fertile. The pulses such as the beans and red grams and the oilseeds such as those of groundnut and castor are the appropriate crops for this soil.

Black Soil : In the northwestern parts of the Deccan Plateau, black soil is found in vast areas. As the cavities between the soil particles are small, it does not quickly absorb the rain water. But it is capable of retaining the moisture for a long time. Hence, even if there is low rainfall, it is appropriate for crop cultivation. Cotton, tobacco, chillies and oilseeds and the millets such as the pearl millets (cumbu or bajra), corn (cholam) and other millets grow very well in these soils.

Hill Soils : At the foothills, where there are dense forests, there is forest soil; this soil has plant nutrients. This soil is found all over India and more especially in the Himalayas, Western Ghats, Eastern Ghats and the highlands of the Peninsular India. The soil is being eroded by the flowing waters along the hill slopes and at the top of the hills. Hence, the soils of the slopes are not very fertile; particularly, the silica in the rocks are removed. This soil is known locally as *'thurukkal'.* This type of soil is good for horticultural crops and is also used in the laying of roads.

Soil Erosion : The carrying away of the top layer of the soil is known generally as the 'soil erosion'. Erosion is largely the work of the natural forces such as the water, winds and human activities. Twenty per cent of the geographical area of India is affected by soil erosion. Soil erosion is rampant in the hill areas and the plateaus. With soil erosion, the fertility of the soil declines. Therefore, there is need for conserving the soil resources.

Conservation of the Soil Resources : Soil resources may be conserved by controlling the soil erosion and by protecting it.

1. Soil Erosion Control : To prevent the soil erosion along the slopes of the hills, it is necessary to build bunds across the slope. These bunds are often called 'contour bunds', as they tend to follow the contours. But to prevent soil erosion of the plains, trees, plants and

creepers must be grown. By preventing the destruction of trees, we may be able to bind the soils by their roots. This prevents the soil being quickly eroded by the flowing water. When growing trees across the direction of the winds, the wind velocity is reduced. Because of this, the soil erosion is prevented. It is why our Government keeps propagating the idea of *'Grow more trees and protect the forests'.*

2. Protection of the Soil Resources : In order to prevent the decline of soil fertility, soils must be tested and crops must be grown in accordance with the results. If we grow a crop in a farm for a long time, without changing it, the fertility of the soil declines. In order to prevent such decline, there is need to grow crops in rotation. In addition, by using certain irrigation practices, by eliminating the inadequacies in the soils and by using proper fertilisers or manures, we could protect the soil from losing its fertility. If soil resources could be enriched, it could lead to crop yields and would pave the way for social and economic development of the country.

Learning Outcome

1. Students acquire the ability to differentiate vegetation types in the country and appreciate the richness or otherwise.

2. Students acquire the ability to differentiate between various soils in terms of conventional types and classification.

3. Students acquire skills and knowledge about degradation of forests and soils and reasons for the same.

4. Students acquire the ability to appreciate the conservation and protection measures in use and needed.

Self-Evaluation

I. Choose the correct answer

1. That which grows in high temperature and low rainfall regions:
    a. Deciduous vegetation
    b. Grasses
    c. Evergreen vegetation
    d. Coniferous forests

2. The forests in the western parts of the foothills of the Himalayas:
    a. Coniferous forests
    b. Deciduous forests
    c. Taiga
    d. Evergreen forests

3. The forests found in the Gangetic delta:
    a. Sundarbans
    b. Terai
    c. Taiga
    d. Coniferous forests

4. The soil found along the Indian littorals:
    a. Alluvial
    b. Red soil
    c. Sand
    d. Black soil

5. The soil that retains the water it has absorbed for a long time:
    a. Black soil
    b. Alluvial
    c. Sand
    d. Red soil

II. Fill in the blanks

1. The _____forests are found at the altitudes of 1,000 to 2,000 metres.

2. The vegetation found in the Indian plateau regions is _____.

3. In the Extra-Peninsular India, the vegetation found is _____.

4. The marshy vegetation of the Gangetic delta is called _____.

5. Forest Research Organisation is established at _____.

6. Because _____ are in low quantities in sand, it is not suitable for vegetation growth.

7. In the northwest of the Deccan Plateau is the _____ soil.

III. Match the following

1. Alluvium   --   Pulses
2. Black soil   --   Teak
3. Red soil   --   Sundarbans
4. Evergreen vegetation   --   Paddy
5. Wetland vegetation   --   Cotton / Cacti

IV. Answer briefly

1. What is meant by natural vegetation?
2. Where are the coniferous forests in India? Why?
3. How do the deltaic areas change into marshy or wetlands?
4. What are the characteristics of the alluvial soils?
5. Why is sand not suitable for vegetative growth?

V. Answer in detail

1. Write an essay on types of soil in India.
2. How could we protect the forests?
3. How should we conserve soil resources?

VI. Practical exercises

1. Mark the regions of important soil types on a map of India.
2. List the natural vegetation of the place you live in.

UNIT V : CROPS AND FOOD

Lesson 5

CROPS AND FOOD SECURITY

Learning Objectives

1. To understand environmental, social and economic conditions for different crops of Indian agriculture.

2. To understand the differences among the crops and to differentiate them.

3. To learn to appreciate the diversity of agriculture.

4. To learn the need for action towards social and food security.

Humans need food to survive. The food we eat are varied. The people of the world do not eat same kind of food everywhere. We get our food either directly or indirectly from the Earth's environment. We produce most of our food, ourselves. Particularly, we grow crops by tilling and cultivating the land. There is need for conducive environments for the growth of food crops. Types of crops differ with differing environments. Food habits of the people everywhere depend on the types of crops grown in their localities.

India is a land of diversity in physical landscape. Hence, there is diversity even in the crops grown here. There are differences in the people's food habits from region to region, in accordance with the plant diversities. In the Peninsular India, rice from paddy forms the staple food while gingelly oil, coconut oil and groundnut oil form the cooking oils.

In the Extra-Peninsular India, wheat is the staple food while mustard oil is used as the cooking medium. Let us now look at the reasons why the crops in our country differ from place to place, in detail.

In India, a variety of crops such as paddy, wheat, millets, pulses, sugarcane, oilseeds, beverages and fibre crops are grown. These crops

are all grown in areas where they have suitable climate. The crops grown in India may also be understood keeping in view the physiographic divisions. The crops grown in the country may be classified as two types of crops:

1. Crops of Peninsular India; and

2. Crops of Extra-Peninsular India.

Crops of Peninsular India : The major agricultural crops of the Peninsula are paddy, sugarcane, millets, pulses, oilseeds, coffee and cotton. For the growth of paddy, there is need for some special environments. Where paddy grows, sugarcane grows there, easily. Millets, pulses and oilseeds however grow even in dry environments. Coffee grows very well on the hill slopes and cotton grows profusely in black soils. As we find the conditions suitable for these crops, these crops are all grown in abundance in the Peninsular India.

1. Paddy : Paddy is a wet crop. Paddy cultivation requires vast area, high temperatures, high rainfall and fertile soils. It is absolutely essential for water to be stagnating while the paddy crop begins to bear fruit. Similarly, until the crop is ripe enough for harvest, there should be moist soil and dry climate.

In the hills, paddy is cultivated depending upon the rains. Kollihills of the Eastern Ghats is a good example of such an area.

The eastern coastal plains are the most suitable area for paddy culitvation in the Peninsular India. The summer temperatures prevalent here during the months of March to September provides for the high temperatures required for paddy growth.

Rainfall is also received when the crop needs rains, from the northeast monsoon winds. Besides, the water required for the cultivation of paddy is received from the reservoirs built across the Peninsular Indian rivers such as the Cauvery, Krishna, Godavari and Mahanadi, and also from the tubewells and the tanks. The eastern coastal plains consists of deltaic areas which have very fertile soils originating from the rivers. Thus, this area possesses soil resources suitable for the cultivation of paddy (Figure 5.1).

The eastern coastal plains are located in the east of the states of Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh and Orissa. Hence, these states are noteworthy in the production of paddy. In the paddy production of the
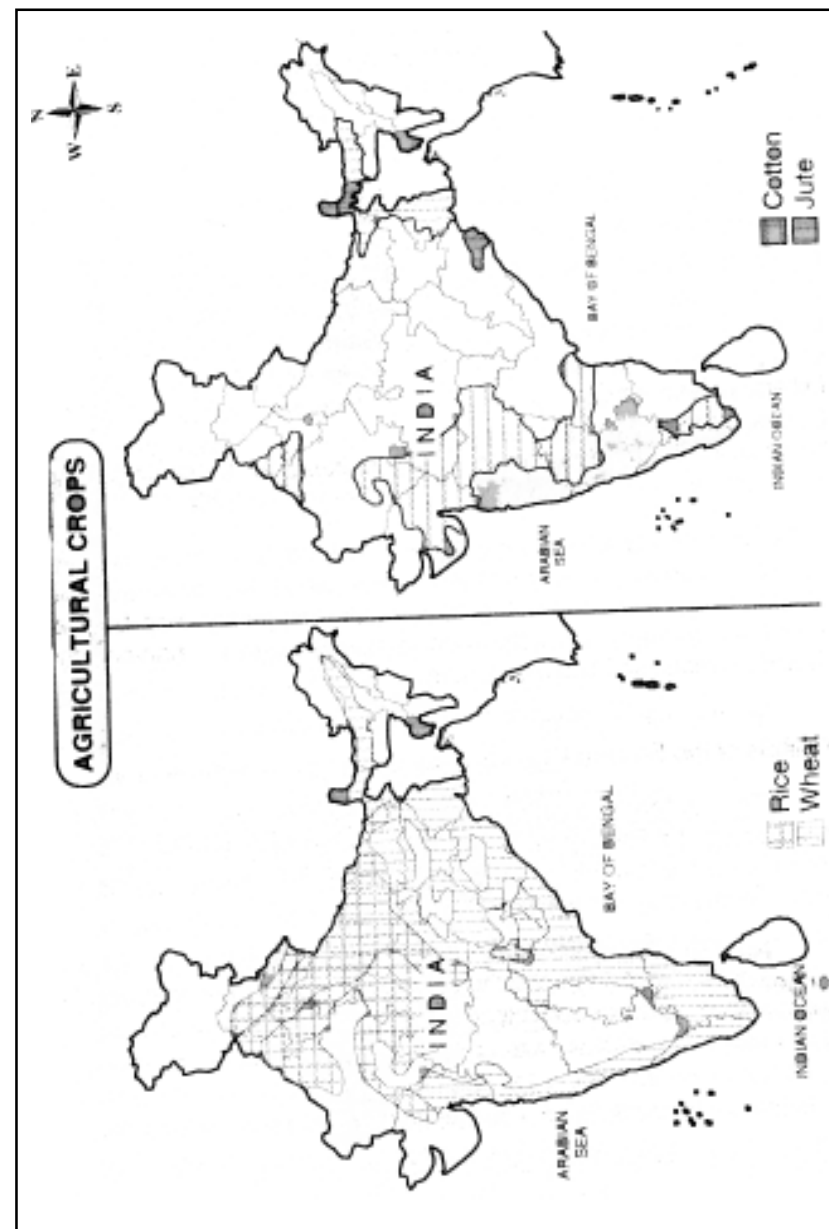
Figure 5.1

Peninsular India, Andhra Pradesh ranks first and Tamil Nadu ranks second.

Paddy is cultivated in the eastern parts of the states of Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh and Orissa in the eastern coastal zone of the Peninsular India.

Do You Know ?

Paddy cultivation in Tamil Nadu : There is something special about paddy cultivation in Thanjavur, the *'rice bowl'* of Tamil Nadu. Here, paddy crops such as *'Samba, Kuruvai* and *Thaladi'* are being grown. *Samba* is a long term crop. It is harvested in about five to six months. *Kuruvai* is a crop harvested within three or four months. The paddy grown in the field ploughed with the stumps of the previous harvest is known colloquially as the *'thaladi'.*

After the harvest of the *Thaladi* and *Samba,* the harvested field is planted with black gram, and red gram. After this, the land is left fallow for one or two months. Immediately after the paddy harvest in January, the harvest festival of 'Pongal' is also celebrated. This festival is celebrated as thanksgiving for the Sun, oxen, and labourers.

Although this way of cultivation of paddy is stil in practice, it has now been changed with the impact of modern cropping. There is however a great change even in harvest seasons.

In Aduthurai of Thanjavur district, a Regional Research Centre for Rice has been established and it is doing yeoman service. Aduthurai 27 (ADT 27, for short) is an innovation of this research station. This variety of paddy plants stand erect even after the crop has matured. Such varieties have attracted the attention of the farmers very much.

2. Sugarcane : Like paddy, sugarcane is also a wet crop. This is an yearly crop; it will be ready for harvest in 10 months. When growing, the sugarcane requires high temperatures. With increasing temperatures, the growth of sugarcane quickens. When the crop is growing, there is need for more water too. Water is required at least for eight long months. Sugarcane grows well in alluvial and black soils.

In the deltaic areas of the eastern coastal plains, paddy cultivation is carred on in vast scales. Next to them, in the western portions of the coastal plains, the conditions conducive for the growth of sugarcane occur. The long summer of the Peninsular India is also favourable to the growth of the sugarcane. In addition, the moderate rainfall and the irrigation practices also improve the quality of cane.

In sugarcane, there is a sweet ingredient known as the 'sucrose'. If there is heavy rainfall after the maturity of the crop, the sucrose becomes diluted. As a result, the quantum of sugar produced from the cane will also become less. If there is just adequate water, there will be high sucrose in the cane. This is the reason why there is high sucrose in the cane grown with moderate rainfall and with the help of irrigation. Even if we grow sugarcane in a smaller area, the production could be enhanced in such areas. Sugarcane is grown largely in south Gujarat, Maharashtra, Karnataka, Tamil Nadu and Andhra Pradesh. In Gujarat, it is grown with irrigation. In the west of the deltaic areas of Tamil Nadu and Andhra Pradesh, sugarcane is being cultivated with the help of irrigation. In Karnataka, cane is grown along the banks of the Cauvery; particularly, very well in Mandya district.

In Peninsular India, sugarcane cultivation is found in the black soil regions of Maharashtra and south Gujarat, the banks of the Cauvery in Karnataka and in the western parts of the coastal plains in Tamil Nadu and Andhra Pradesh.

Do You Know?

Sugarcane Cultivation : When harvesting sugarcane, the farmers do not cut the cane completely but leave the stumps in the field. Sugarcane grows from the stumps leftover in the field. This process is known as the rattooning. In islands such as the Hawaii, the sugarcane is often rattooned for seven to eight times. But rattooning is possible in India only twice or thrice. The rattooning lowers the cost of cultivation. There is also considerable reduction in the season of the crop.

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3. Millets, Pulses and Oilseeds : Millets, pulses and oilseeds are dry crops. Dry crops do not need much water. They are resistant to drought; they grow also in infertile soils. They are suitable for the climate prevalent in the Deccan Plateau. We have earlier learnt that

the Deccan Plateau lies on the eastern slopes of the Western Ghats. As the southwest monsoon blows as the dry winds in the Deccan Plateau region, there is low rainfall. In summer, there is drought here. Besides, there is the infertile red soil. Hence, the drought resistant crops such as ragi, maize, and pearl millet are grown. Groundnut, gingelly, mustard, castor and soapnut are the oilseeds grown, too. Red gram, black gram and green gram are the pulses grown in these parts of the plateau.

A large part of the state of Karnataka, and the edges of the states of Tamil Nadu and Andhra Pradesh are in the plateau. As the Deccan Plateau occupies most of the state of Karnataka, this state is most significant in the cultivation of millets and pulses. In the borders of Andhra Pradesh and Tamil Nadu, oilseeds are cultivated in a large area. Groundnut and gingelly are grown mostly in Tamil Nadu while mustard is grown mostly in Andhra Pradesh. Besides the plateau, in the littoral areas of Kerala, oil crops such as the cashew and coconut are grown in vast areas.

Millets and oilseeds are cultivated in the state of Karnataka occupying most of the Peninsular Plateau, the edges of the states of Tamil Nadu and Karnataka and the coastal areas of Kerala.

4. Cotton : Cotton is the foremost fibre crop of the Peninsular India. Cotton is a tropical crop. High temperatures, large water supply and fertile soils are most conducive for the cultivation of cotton. The northwestern part of the Deccan Plateau in the Peninsular India, known as the 'Deccan Trap' has the fertile black soil. Cotton grows well in this soil. That is primarily why this soil is also called the 'cotton soil'. The high temperatures prevalent in the Plateau is also conducive to the cultivation of cotton. Black soil is found distributed widely in Maharashtra and the southern parts of Gujarat. This is the reason why Maharashtra and Gujarat are most important in the production of cotton. Maharashtra is the state which grows most cotton, too. Apart from these, cotton is grown in some of the western and southern districts of Tamil Nadu.

Cotton cultivation is carried on in the states of Maharashtra, southern part of Gujarat, and the western and southern districts of Tamil Nadu.

5. Coffee and Tea : The most important cash crop of Peninsular India is coffee. Moderate temperature, shadow and moderate rainfall are the requirements of coffee. Rainfall must be even. The falling rain should not stagnate at the roots of the crop. Coffee plants grow very well on the hill slopes. It is because, temperature is moderate because of the altitude. And as the water from the rainfall runs off quickly over the slope, there is no stagnation of water at the roots.

In the Peninsular India, the Western Ghats have conducive climate for the growth of coffee. The parts of Karnataka, Kerala and Tamil Nadu where coffee is grown are in the Western Ghats area of the states.

> Kodagu hills of Karnataka and Palani Hills of Tamil Nadu are the two important areas of coffee cultivation.

Over 80 per cent of the coffee grown in India is from the state of Karnataka.

> **Do You Know?**
>
> **Coffee Cultivation :** Coffee cultivation in India first began in Karnataka. When a Muslim sage by the name Bababudan returned from Mecca after a religious pilgrimage, he brought a coffee plant and transplanted it in a portion of the Kodagu. As the climate of the hills was suitable for coffee, the cultivation of coffee became popular. It is in memory of the sage, that a part of the coffee growing area of the hills is specially named after the Muslim sage and thus known as the 'Bababudan Hills'.

Apart from coffee, tea is also grown in Peninsular India. Tea requires lower temperatures than coffee. That is why, tea is cultivated in the higher altitudes of the hills. Tea grows very well on the Western Ghats in Wynad, Kannan Devan, Nilgiris and Anaimalai.

Wynad and Kannan Devan areas in Kerala, Nilgiris and Anaimalai in Tamil Nadu are the areas where tea is cultivated.

Besides the crops above, there are other crops in the Peninsular India. Of these, tobacco, rubber, and spices are noteworthy. Tobacco is mostly grown in the coastal areas of Andhra Pradesh and Gujarat states. Crops such as rubber and spices such as pepper, cardamom

and cloves are some of the crops grown on the slopes of the Western Ghats, particularly in Kerala.

II Extra-Peninsular Indian Crops : In Extra Peninsular India, wheat, paddy, sugarcane, millets, pulses, oilseeds, tea and jute are the most important crops. The primary crop of wheat requires suitable environment. All other crops are grown wherever there are suitable conditions. In terms of paddy, sugarcane, pulses, and tea, the states of the Extra-Peninsular India are the foremost in the country.

1. Wheat : Wheat is a wet crop. For the cultivation of wheat, the conditions required are vast area, moderate temperature, moderate rainfall and fertile soils. Wheat is crop with a long period of growth. When it grows there should be moderate temperatures but no frost. In the Extra-Peninsular India, wheat cultivation is carried on in the Gangetic plains as well as in the Sutlej plains in the northwest of it. In these plains, there is moderate rains during the southwest monsoon. The silt from the Ganges and the Sutlej is also being deposited here. There is water available for irrigation from the Bakra-Nangal dam.

The states of Punjab and Haryana are In the Sutlej plains while only the western Uttar Pradesh is in the Gangetic plains. In all these states, wheat cultivation is the principal cropping. In India, wheat is produced in very large quantities, first in Punjab and then in Uttar Pradesh. Wheat is also cultivated in the Kashmir valleys of the Himalayas and the state of Himachal Pradesh.

Do You Know?

Wheat Cultivation in Punjab : Punjab is the 'wheat granary' of India. Here, wheat is grown in two seasons: (1) winter wheat and (2) spring wheat. Winter wheat is long term and it is sown in the beginning of winter. But the seeds begin to sprout only after the end of the winter season. Until then, the seeds remain dormant and buried. As it is slowly growing and over long term, it is considered to be quality wheat. It is a six-month crop. Spring wheat is a short term crop. As it matures in a short period, it is harder than the winter wheat. It is a four-month crop. *'Holi'* is the festival celebrated in the north after the wheat harvest in March.

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2. Paddy : Although paddy is a tropical crop, it is grown in temperate areas primarily due to heavy rainfall. In the east of the Gangetic plains and the Hooghly Plains in the Extra Peninsular India are areas where vast areas of land is available for paddy cultivation because of the silt from the rivers. This region also receives very high rainfall during the southwest monsoon.

It is precisely for these reasons that paddy grows well in the eastern Gangetic and the Hooghly plains. It is in West Bengal that paddy is cultivated in very vast areas.. Besides these states, wheat is also grown in Assam also.

4. Millets and Pulses : The millets of the Extra-Peninsular India are more nutritious than the millets of the Peninsular India. Barley and maize are the millets of these regions. They are resistant to winter drought. Millets are grown in the states of Punjab, Haryana, Madhya Pradesh and Rajasthan. Pulses are cultivated in Madhya Pradesh, Bihar and West Bengal. Madhya Pradesh tops the states in the production of pulses in the country.

Millets grow well in the states of Punjab, Haryana, Madhya Pradesh and Rajasthan of the Extra Peninsular India and pulses in the states of Madhya Pradesh and Bihar.

5. Tea : Tea requires less temperatures than coffee. Tea is therfore grown at high altitudes of the mountains. At the high altitudes of the Himalayas, this crop grows very lush. Assam in the northeastern parts of the Himalayas is foremost in the cultivation of tea. Apart from this region, tea is also grown well in Darjeeling of West Bengal. Besides wheat, paddy, sugarcane, millets, pulses and tea, other crops such as jute, cotton, mustard, and fruit crops are cultivated in the Extra Peninsular India. West Bengal ranks first in the production of jute. Similarly, the Kashmir valley is famous for fruits. Likewise, the long fibre cotton grown in Punjab is the most significant crop.

Tea is grown profusely in the state of Assam of northeastern Himalayas and in the Darjeeling areas of West Bengal.

India: Where are we?

India has progressed well in certain aspects of agriculture and has not done well enough in certain others. Although India has achieved

self-sufficiency in food and succeeded in building a stock of foodgrains that is worthy of the efforts that went into agricultural development, there is still a large proportion of population under poverty. The most important need today is the food and nutrition security and let us now turn to this vital aspect for a moment.

Irrigation, Agriculture and Food Production Potential

Agriculture is now reckoned to be the largest consumer of water, accounting for some 80 per cent of total water use. To maximize food supply for humanity, land irrigation has been practiced for centuries. Irrigation plays a large role in increasing arable production and cattle-breeding efficiency, with irrigated farming expected to continue to develop intensively in the future. Thus, irrigation has now become the principal water user. The irrigation potential was 22.6 million ha in 1951 with food production of 50 million tons. The food production has quadrupled now to about 200 million tons due to four-fold increase in irrigation potential at over 100 million ha. As recently reassessed by the Ministry of Water Resources the country's ultimate irrigation potential is tentatively estimated at 139.89 m. hectares, comprising 58.46 m. hectares of major and medium irrigation and 81.43 m. hectares of minor irrigation as against pre-revised ultimate irrigation potential of 113.50 m. ha. The full development of ultimate irrigation potential by construction of major, medium and minor irrigation projects by 2025 would be necessary to meet the food requirement of the projected population.

Food Security in India : India finds itself in the midst of a paradoxical situation: endemic mass-hunger coexisting with the mounting foodgrain stocks. The foodgrain stocks available with the Food Corporation of India (FCI) stand at an all time high of 62 million tonnes against an annual requirement of around 20 million tonnes for ensuring food security. Still, an estimated 200 million people are underfed and 50 million on the brink of starvation, resulting in starvation deaths. The paradox lies in the inherent flaws in the existing policy and implementation bottlenecks.

Challenges ahead. India's food security policy has a laudable objective to ensure availability of foodgrains to the common people at an affordable price and it has enabled the poor to have access to food where none existed. The policy has focused essentially on growth in agriculture production (once India used to import foodgrains) and on support price for procurement and maintenance of rice and wheat stocks. The responsibility for procuring and stocking of foodgrains lies with the FCI and for distribution with the public distribution system (PDS).

Input subsidies : Over the years, to keep foodgrain prices at affordable levels for the poor, the government has been imposing restrictions on free trade in foodgrains. This has suppressed foodgrain prices in the local market, where the farmers sell a part of their produce and as compensation, they are provided subsidies on agriculture inputs such as fertilizers, power and water. These subsidies have now reached unsustainable levels and also led to large scale inefficiencies in the use of these scarce inputs. Overuse of fertilizer and water has led to waterlogging, salinity, depletion of vital micronutrients in the soil, and reduced fertility. The high subsidies have come at the expense of public investments in the critical agriculture infrastructure, thereby reducing agricultural productivity.

Issue price: The people are divided into two categories: below poverty line (BPL) and above poverty line (APL), with the issue price being different for each category. However, this categorisation is imperfect and a number of deserving poor have been excluded from the BPL fold. Moreover, some of the so called APL slip back to BPL, say with failure of even one crop and it is administratively difficult to accommodate such shifts. To reduce the fiscal deficit, the government has sought to curtail the food subsidy bill by raising the issue price of foodgrains and linking it to the economic cost at which the FCI supplies foodgrains to the PDS. The economic cost comprises the cost of procurement, that is, Minimum Support Price (MSP), storage, transportation and administration and is high mainly because of the artificially inflated MSP and also due to the operational inefficiencies of the FCI. This has pushed the issue price to APL category higher than the market rates and to BPL category beyond their purchasing power, resulting in

plummeting of offtake from the PDS. Also, the low quality of PDS grains and the poor service at PDS shops have forced many people to switchover to market, which offers better quality grains, allows purchase on credit and ensures flexibility to purchase in small quantities.

Market Demand: The PDS entitlement meets only around 25 per cent of the total foodgrain requirement of a BPL family and it has to depend more on the market for meeting its needs. Also with the APL families essentially opting for market purchases, the market demand has risen. However, the massive FCI procurement has crowded out the market supplies, resulting in a relative rise in rates. The poor are the most hurt in this bargain.

Food-for-Work Scheme: The government is running food-for-work scheme to give purchasing power to the poor who get paid for their labour in cash and foodgrains. The scheme is, however, not successful, since the Central Government is required to meet only the foodgrain component and the cash strapped States are expected to meet the cash component (almost 50 per cent of the total expenditure). In many States the scheme has even failed to take off.

Suggested recommendations : There is a need to shift from the existing expensive, inefficient and corruption ridden institutional arrangements to those that will ensure cheap delivery of requisite quality grains in a transparent manner and are self-targeting.

Futures Market and Free Trade: The present system marked by input subsidies and high MSP should be phased out. To avoid wide fluctuations in prices and prevent distress selling by small farmers, futures market can be encouraged. Improved communication systems through the use of information technology may help farmers get a better deal for their produce. Crop insurance schemes can be promoted with government meeting a major part of the insurance premium to protect the farmers against natural calamities. To start with, all restrictions on foodgrains regarding inter-State movement, stocking, exports and institutional credit and trade financing should be renounced. Free trade will help make-up the difference between production and consumption needs, reduce supply variability, increase efficiency in resource-use and permit production in regions more suited to it.

Food-for-Education Programme: To achieve cent per cent literacy, the food security need can be productively linked to increased enrolment in schools. With the phasing out of PDS, food coupons may be issued to poor people depending on their entitlement.

The State governments will in turn distribute the grants to the village bodies, which can decide on the list of essential infrastructure work the village needs and allow every needy villager to contribute through his labour and get paid in food coupons and cash.

Enhancing Agricultural Productivity: The government, through investments in vital agricultural infrastructure, credit linkages and encouraging the use of latest techniques, motivate each district/ block to achieve local self-sufficiency in foodgrain production. However, instead of concentrating only on rice or wheat, the food crop with a potential in the area must be encouraged. Creation of necessary infrastructure like irrigation facilities will also simulate private investments in agriculture. The focus on accelerated foodgrains production on a sustainable basis and free trade in grains would help create massive employment and reduce the incidence of poverty in rural areas. This will lead to faster economic growth and give purchasing power to the people. A five-year transitory period may be allowed while implementing these. Thus, India can achieve food security in the real sense and in a realistic timeframe.

Learning Outcome

1. Students acquire the ability to understand the environmental, social and economic conditions for different crops of India.

2. Students learn to differentiate food, non-food, commercial and other crops.

3. Students learn to appreciate the diversity in agriculture.

4. Students learn to understand the need for and actions taken towards social and food security.

Self-Evaluation

I. Choose the correct answers

1. The crop that grows even in drought:

   a. Paddy   c. Sugarcane

   b. Oilseeds   d. Wheat

2. The state which tops in the production of paddy in Peninsular India:

   a. Andhra Pradesh   c. Tamil Nadu

   b. Karnataka   d. Kerala

3. Place where a rice research station is in Thanjavur district:

   a. Kumbakonam   c. Aduthurai

   b. Thanjavur   d. Papanasam

4. The district of Karnataka topping in the cultivation of sugarcane:

   a. Bellary   c. Mysore

   b. Mandya   d. Dharwad

5. The state which tops in the cultivation of spices:

   a. Kerala   c. Rajasthan

   b. Karnataka   d. Punjab

II. Fill in the blanks

1. Paddy is a _____ crop.

2. Sweet ingridient in sugarcane is known as_____

3. Coffee is grown on the _____ hills of Tamil Nadu.

4. Tea is grown in large areas in _____ area of West Bengal.

5. Wheat granary of India is_____

III. Match the following

1. Coffee	–	Uttar Pradesh
2. Sugarcane	–	Karnataka
3. Wheat	–	Madhya Pradesh
4. Apple	–	Punjab
5. Pulses	–	Himachal Pradesh
		Rajasthan

IV. Answers briefly

1. Name the important crops cultivated in Peninsular India.

2. What are the natural conditions required for the cultivation of paddy?

3. Mention the state which cultivate tea.

4. Write a short note on millets.

5. How could sugarcane be cultivated?

V. Answer in detail

1. Describe the methods of paddy cultivation in Tamil Nadu.

2. Describe wheat cultivation of India.

3. Discuss about the usefulness of various crops cultivated in India

VI. Practical exercises

1. Mark the areas of agricultural crops, one by one, on the map of India.

Lesson 6

INDIAN INDUSTRIES

Learning Objectives

1. To understand the role played by the industries in the economic development of the country.

2. To understand the various types of industries in India.

3. To learn about the energy resources of India.

4. To learn about the significance of industries and how industry has promoted transport and trade.

Humans are highly developed social beings. Besides the basic needs for food, clothing and shelter, they need a wide variety of things that make their lives more comfortable, recreative and luxurious. The satisfaction of this need necessitates several activities. Of these, the most important is manufacturing. Manufacturing is an activity, which is concerned with processing of certain basic materials into finished products.

Industrial development is considered today as a pre-requisite for modern economic development. That is the very reason for all the countries of the world, whether big or small, rich or poor, developed or developing are channelising their resources to promote rapid industrialization.

The fundamental support for a region's industrial activity is its natural resources. Industrial distribution depends upon the spatial distribution of the resources. India is a resource rich country. Yet, the industries have not grown well enough. It is because the resources necessary for industrial development are scattered and are uneven. Particularly, the spatial distribution of minerals is concentrated in one region.

Industries : The industrial activities of a country depends much on the basic resources of that country. For its industrial development, the production of such raw materials is important. The industrial activities of the country is patterned on the basis of its natural minerals, forests and agricultural commodities. Hence, the industries may be classified as belonging to three types of industries:

1. Mineral based industries

2. Forest-based industries

3. Agro-based industries.

1. Mineral Based Industries : The minerals of India may be classified into three types. They are :

a) Metallic minerals

b) Non-metallic Minerals

c) Fuel resources.

a) Metallic Minerals : There are several metal resources in India. Of these, iron ore, manganese, gold, copper, silver and aluminium are the most significant of the Indian economy. Iron ore and manganese are the most essential of the resources for industrial development of a country. In India, Bihar, Orissa, and West Bengal are the important states where metallic minerals are found. These states in particular, have large quantities of Iron and Manganese ores. Copper is widespread. Gold is found at Kolar of the state of Karnataka. Bauxite is found in large quantities in Tamil Nadu.

Iron and manganese are found in large quantities in Bihar, Orissa and West Bengal; gold is in Karnataka and aluminium in the state of Tamil Nadu.

b) Non-metallic Minerals : Mica, limestone and gypsum are the non-metallic minerals. Mica and limestones are used in industrial progress. The three non-metallic minerals are mined in Andhra Pradesh, Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu and Madhya Pradesh.

c) Fuel Resources : Coal, petroleum and natural gas are the fuel resources. Fuel resources play a very important role in the economic development of a country. Particularly, the petroleum products have quickened the commercial needs industrial development. Coal is India's
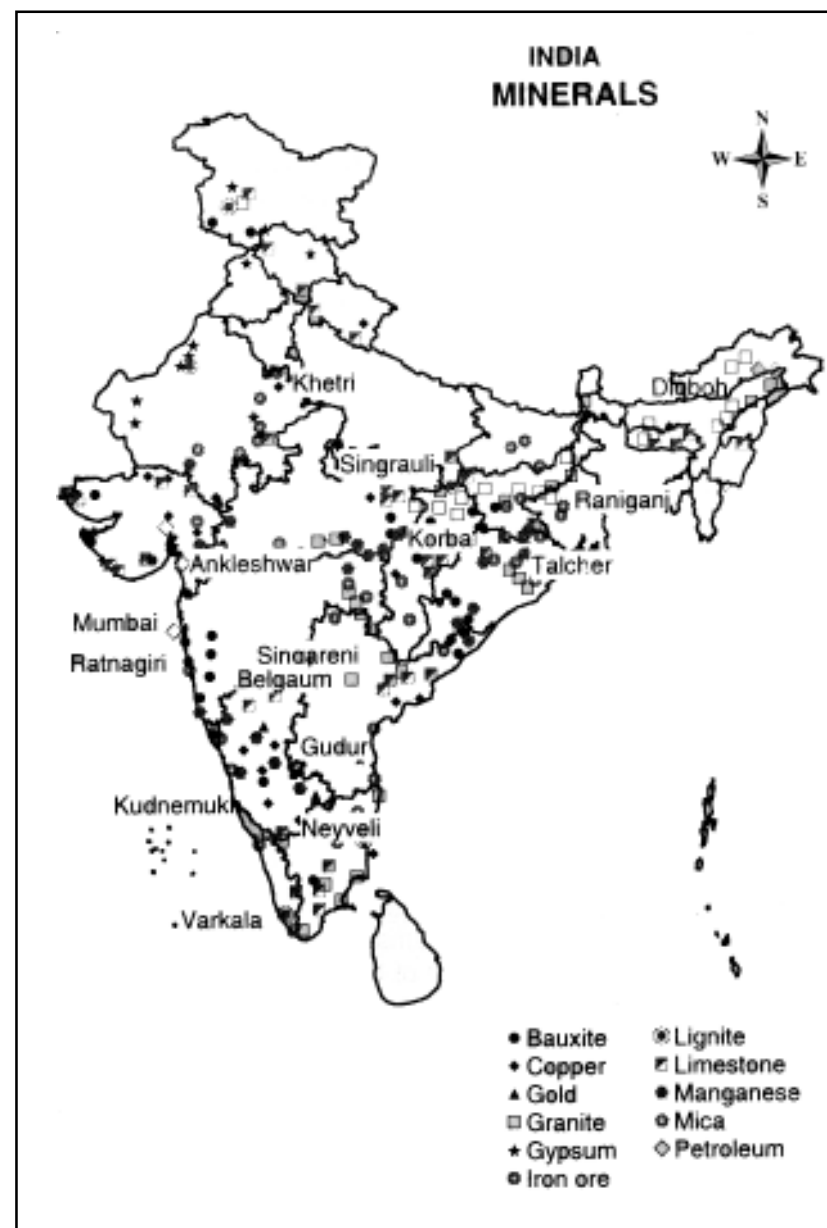
Figure 6.1

main source of energy and caters to the industries to the tune of 67 per cent including the generation of the thermal power. Coal has played a significant role in the industrial development of India. Bihar, Orissa, West Bengal and Andhra Pradesh are the states in the forefront of the coal production. A variety of coal known as *'lignite'* is mined at Neyveli of Tamil Nadu. The resource that is considered the century's foremost fuel, that is, petroleum, is produced in large quantities in Assam and Maharashtra. In recent times, petroleum has been found in the Cauvery delta of Tamil Nadu.

Coal in large quantities is produced in the states of Bihar, Orissa, West Bengal and Andhra Pradesh while petroleum in large quantities from Assam, Maharashtra and Tamil Nadu.

Where metallic minerals and fuel resources are found together, the industrial activities are carried out in excellence. For example, in the resource region covering Bihar, Orissa and West Bengal, there are heavy industries.

Heavy Industries : Iron and steel industry, which is one of the important heavy industries, is vital in the development of industry. Iron and steel industries have been established in the states of Bihar, Orissa and West Bengal. They have been administered by both private and public sectors. In places such as Bokaro, Durgapur, Bhilai, Rourkela, Jamsehdpur, Badravathi, Salem, Vishakapatnam and Hospet, there are iron and steel industries in operation.

Tata Iron and Steel Company (TISCO) : The first ever Iron and Steel Industry in India, and that too in the private sector, was established by Jamshedji N. Tata in 1907, in Jamshedpur in West Bengal. This industry was in fact the forerunner of Iron and Steel Industries in the country (Figure 6.3) . Iron ore and coal are the raw materials for the production of iron and steel. They both are heavy. The cost of transporting them to the industrial site is high. To avoid this expenditure therefore the iron and steel industries are mostly located in places where there are iron ores and coal mines.

Besides iron ore and coal, manganese, limestones and dolomite are also used in the production of iron and steel. The reasons behind the establishment of Tata Iron and Steel Industries in Jamshedpur are:
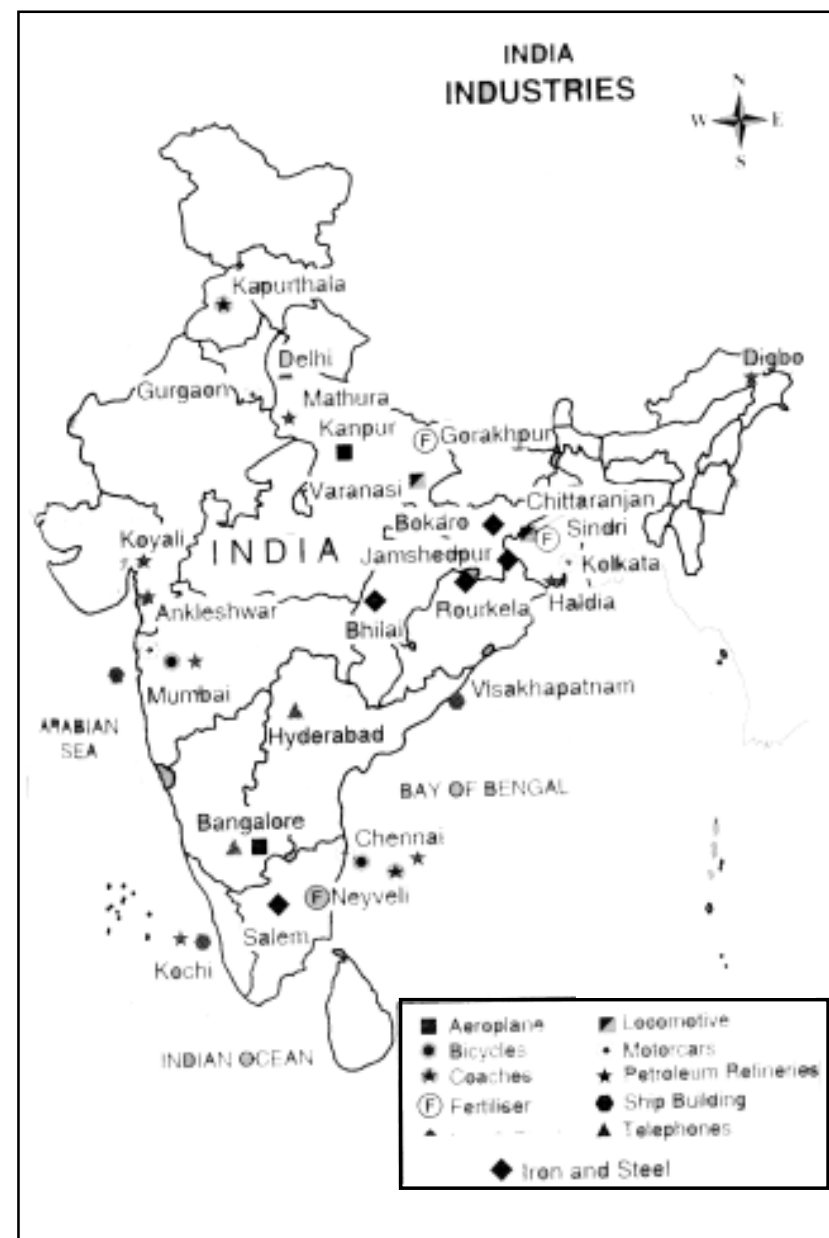
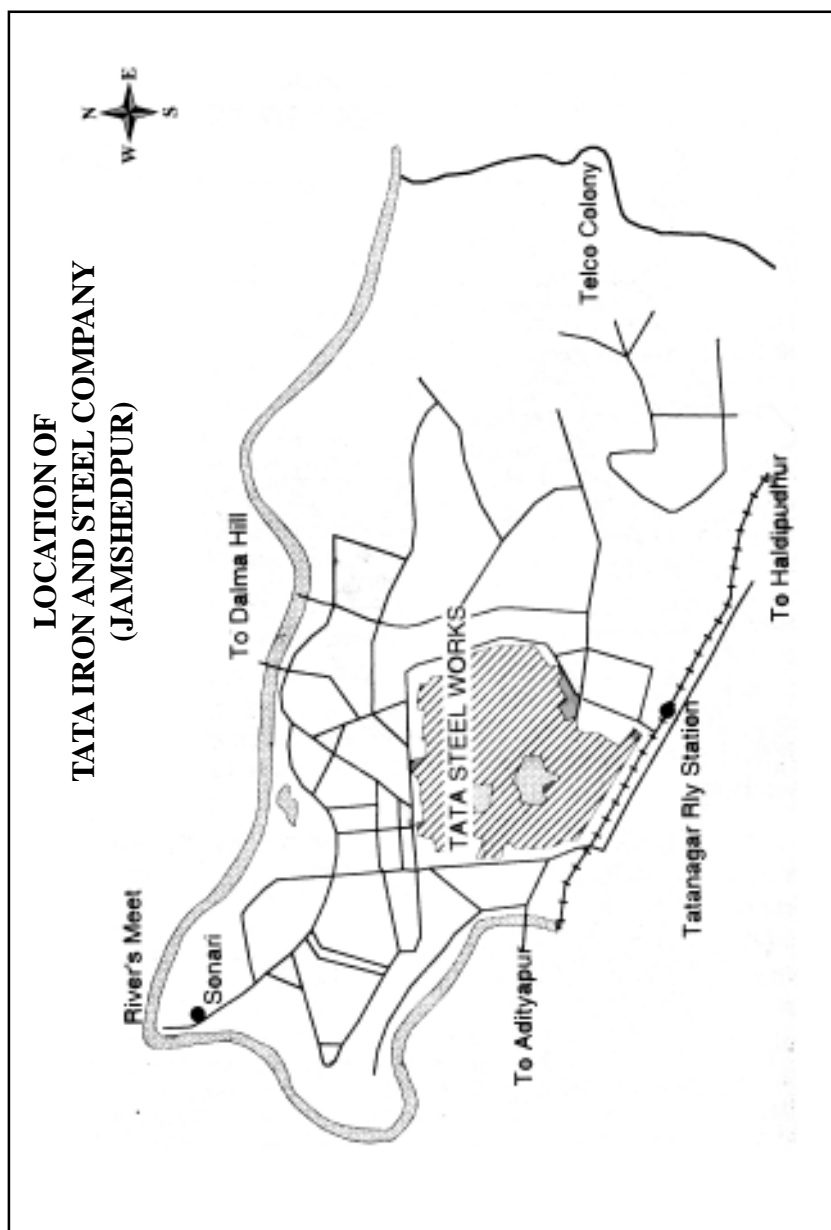1. Iron ore is produced in Bihar and Orissa.

Figure 6.2

LOCATION OF TATA IRON AND STEEL COMPANY (JAMSHEDPUR)

Figure 6.3

2. Coal is produced in the mines of Damodar valley

3. Manganese is produced from Bihar while dolomite is produced in Orissa

4. Jamshedpur is connected to different parts of the country with the railways;

5. There is a pool of inexpensive wage labour in the areas surrounding the industry.

6. There were areas in the plains which facilitated the construction of houses and industries.

7. The water required for the industry is supplied by the river Subarnarekha.

It was primarily because of these reasons that the Iron and Steel Industry was set up at Jamshedpur and the industry grew by leaps and bounds. Similarly, many iron and steel industries have been established and developed where the raw materials of iron ores and coal are found. You may learn about their locations by looking at an Atlas of India.

Machines are made with the iron and steel products. And with the machines, several products are manufactured. Ship building, aircraft industries, vehicles manufacturing and surgical instruments have all shown great progress in India, primarily due to the iron and steel industries.

Railway engines produced in Chittaranjan of West Bengal and railway coaches in Perambur of Tamil Nadu are quite popular throughout the world.

Based on the coal and petroleum industries, oil refineries and petro-chemical industries in the country have shown great progress as well. Petroleum is imported also for refining in the country. Hence, the oil refineries are located close to the ports. The refined oil is being sent by pipelines to the industrial areas, where they are used in the production of various commodities.

2. Forest-Based Industries : There is great diversity in the natural vegetation of India. There are different types of forests, as well. So, the products received from these forests are also several. Let us look at how some of them are important in the growth and development of industries.

1. Timber from the forests are utilised in building activities, industries and in carpentry workshops.

In Andaman islands, Asia's largest saw mill has been in operation.

2. Rubber trees are grown in large numbers on the Western Ghats. As a consequence, there are a large number of industries dependent on rubber, in the Peninsular India.

3. Wood pulp is made from the wood of the forests and paper is manufactured from the pulp. Paper mills are large in number in the states of Tamil Nadu, Maharashtra, West Bengal and Madhya Pradesh. In the city of Nepa Nagar in Madhya Pradesh, there is a newsprint industry.

4. Lac and wax are forest products and they are used in manufacturing paints. Thus, a number of industries makes use of forest products. And for the growth of the cottage industries, the forests have been responsible in many an instance.

3. Agro-Based Industries : Agricultural crops form the raw materials for several industries. Let us look at some of them.

Sugar Mills : Sugarcane is cultivated in vast areas in the states of Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Tamil Nadu and Andhra Pradesh. Sugar mills manufacturing sugar from cane are widely distributed in the country. Yet, they are more numerous in Uttar Pradesh and Tamil Nadu.

Cotton Textiles : Cotton textile industries have sprung up in areas where cotton has been cultivated. Particularly, in Mumbai, there is a dense distribution cotton textile industries.

Cotton Textiles in Mumbai : Cotton textile industries were first set up in Mumbai. The hinterland of Mumbai is well known for cotton cultivation. As the raw materials for cotton textiles were available in the hinterland and other conditions necessary for such development met by the city, it was possible for Mumbai to develop a large number of them in the city. The damp climate of the city of Mumbai facilitated the manufacture of yarns.

Mumbai is called the **'Manchester of India'** because there is a concentration of cotton textile industries.

In Tamil Nadu, Madurai and Coimbatore have many cotton textile units. Coimbatore is also called the **'Manchester of Tamil Nadu'.**

Industries and Pollution in India : Seventeen categories of heavily polluting industries have been identified. They are: cement, thermal power plant, distilleries, sugar, fertilizer, integrated iron and steel, oil refineries, pulp and paper, petrochemicals, pesticides, tanneries, basic drugs and pharmaceuticals, dye and dye intermediates, caustic soda, zinc smelter, copper smelter and aluminum smelter. Out of a total of 1,551 units identified under these 17 categories, 1,266 units have installed adequate facilities for pollution control and 130 units have been closed down.

The Central Pollution Control Board, in consultation with State Pollution Control Boards, has identified critically polluted areas in the country which need special attention for control of pollution. These are: Vapi (Gujarat), Singrauli (Uttar Pradesh), Korba, Ratlam, Nagda (Madhya Pradesh), Digboi (Assam), Talcher (Orissa), Bhadravati (Karnataka), Howrah (West Bengal), Dhanbad (Bihar), Pali and Jodhpur (Rajasthan), Manali and North Arcot (Tamil Nadu), Visakhapatnam and Patancheru, (AndhraPradesh), Chembur (Maharashtra), Najafgarh (Delhi), Govindgarh (Punjab), Udyog Mandal (Kerala) and Parwanoo and Kala Amb (Himachal Pradesh).

Jute and Other Industries : As jute is cultivated in West Bengal to a great extent, there are jute industries on the banks of the Hooghly. Besides these, there are other industries such as those of the woolen, silk and synthetic fibres in areas suitable for such industries. Other industries have also progressed in India. Small and cottage industries have also been developed in course of time.

Uses : There has been economic progress in the country primarily because of the development of heavy industries cotton textile and other industries. The industries provide employment opportunities for several thousands. There are several industrial products manufactured by the industries, which make human life comfortable. Life of the people is made easy, too. Their quality of life has improved. With industrial development, there have been developments in the areas of transport, internal trade, and international trade. The number of towns has increased. The national income has also increased. The industries also help in the even development in various other fields.

Industry - The Slowdown : The significant slowdown of industrial growth witnessed in 2000-01, as measured by the Index of Industrial Production (IIP), continued with greater intensity in 2001-02. There was a distinct deceleration in growth of manufactured exports and slowdown in growth rates of core and infrastructure industries. The overall industrial growth in terms of the IIP during April-December 2001-02 was only 2.3 per cent compared to 5.8 per cent during the corresponding period of the previous year. In fact, the industrial growth during the first nine months of the year is the lowest recorded during the last ten years. The sharp deceleration in overall industrial growth is due to a number of structural and cyclical factors such as normal business and investment cycles and lack of both domestic and external demand. Continued high real interest rates, infrastructure constraints, and lack of reforms in land and labour markets, might have also dampened private investment and industrial production.

Industrial slowdown has been observed across all major sectors. The manufacturing sector grew by only 2.4 per cent during April - December 2001, much lower than the 6.0 per cent growth registered during the same period in 2000. Similarly, electricity generation grew by only 2.7 per cent during April-December 2001 (compared with 4.8 percent in April-December 2000) and mining and quarrying posted a growth of only 1.1 per cent during April-December 2001, compared with 4.4 per cent in April-December 2000.

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Learning Outcome

1. Students learn to appreciate the importance of industries.

2. Students learn to appreciate locational characteristics of industries.

3. Students learn to understand the classification of industries.

4. Students learn to understand the relationships between raw materials and industrial locations.

5. Students learn to appreciate industrial development and how industries in general facilitate other industries.

Self-Evaluation

I. Choose the correct answer

1. The delta area in Tamil Nadu where petroleum is found is:

   a. Tamiravaruni   b. Vaigai

   c. Cauvery   d. Palar

2. The region where coal is found in India:

   a. Damodar Valley   b. Brahmaputra Valley

   c. Narmada Valley   d. Tapti Valley

3. Gold fields in Karnataka:

   a. Mysore   b. Kolar

   c. Bangalore   d. Mandya

4. The state producing bauxite in good quantitites:

   a. Andhra Pradesh   b. Bihar

   c. Punjab,   d. Tamil Nadu

5. The island with the Asia's largest saw mill:

   a. Andamans   b. Nicobar

   c. Lakshadweep   d. Minicoy Islands

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II. Fill in the blanks

1. Lignite producing area in Tamil Nadu is _____.

2. The northern state where petroleum is found is _____.

3. Bihar, Orissa and West Bengal are called the _____ region.

4. In Tamil Nadu, in places such as Madurai and _____, there are several cotton textile industries.

5. _____ is the 'Manchester of India'.

III. Match the following

1. Chittaranjan   --   Cotton textile
2. Perambur   --   Iron and Steel Industry
3. Jamshedpur   --   Rail engine
4. Nepa Nager   --   Rail coaches
5. Mumbai   --   Newsprint

IV. Answer briefly

1. What are the three important types of industries in India?

2. What are the minerals found in India?

3. How do the heavy industries facilitate the development of industries?

4. What are the forest products?

5. Where does cotton textile have dense concentration?

V. Answer in detail

1. Mention the conditions that favoured the location of the Tata Iron and Steel Industry.

2. Write in detail about the forest-based industries.

VI. Practical exercises

1. Mark the industries on a map of India and distinguish them by types.

Lesson 7

SERVICES

Learning Objectives

1. To learn how services help with improving standard of living of a people.

2. To understand how transport is the backbone of development of a country.

3. To learn and appreciate the density variations in rail and road transport network.

4. To learn and appreciate the distribution of sea ports and air ports.

5. To understand how education is the foundation for improving quality of life.

6. To learn about the growth of housing, which is a basic need.

7. To learn about the means leading to health.

If a country has rich natural resources but is nevertheless poor, then it would be difficult for it to develop itself in adversities. The standard of living should improve so that poverty will disappear. To increase the standard of living, there should be improvement in the services. A people's comforts depend on the services being rendered. In the growth and development of a country, the services play a dominant role. Transport services, education, health and housing are the essential services which play a particularly significant role in the country's development.

Services such as transport, education, health and housing will not only help with the increase in standrad of living, but also the development of the country.

Although India is able to compete with the developed world in the field of technology, it does not yet have a high standard of living. Even after 50 years of independence, there is still poverty and hunger in the country. The Indian Government has also been making efforts towards providing for a higher standard of living. It is primarily through such efforts so far that there has been some appreciable development in transport, education, health and housing.

Transport : Transport is the backbone of a country's growth and development. Transport is controlled largely by the country's landforms. In the plains, there is a dense network of transport facilities, whereas in the plateaus and the hills, such facilities are either scarce or limited. The dense network of transport is also the cause for increasing population.

India's transport network has railways, roads, shipping and air routes as its basic dimensions.

India's railways are the densest in Asia. The Indian railways connect big cities with small towns. India is divided into nine regional divisions, and they are all being administered by a general manager (Figure 7.1).

Regional Railway Divisions

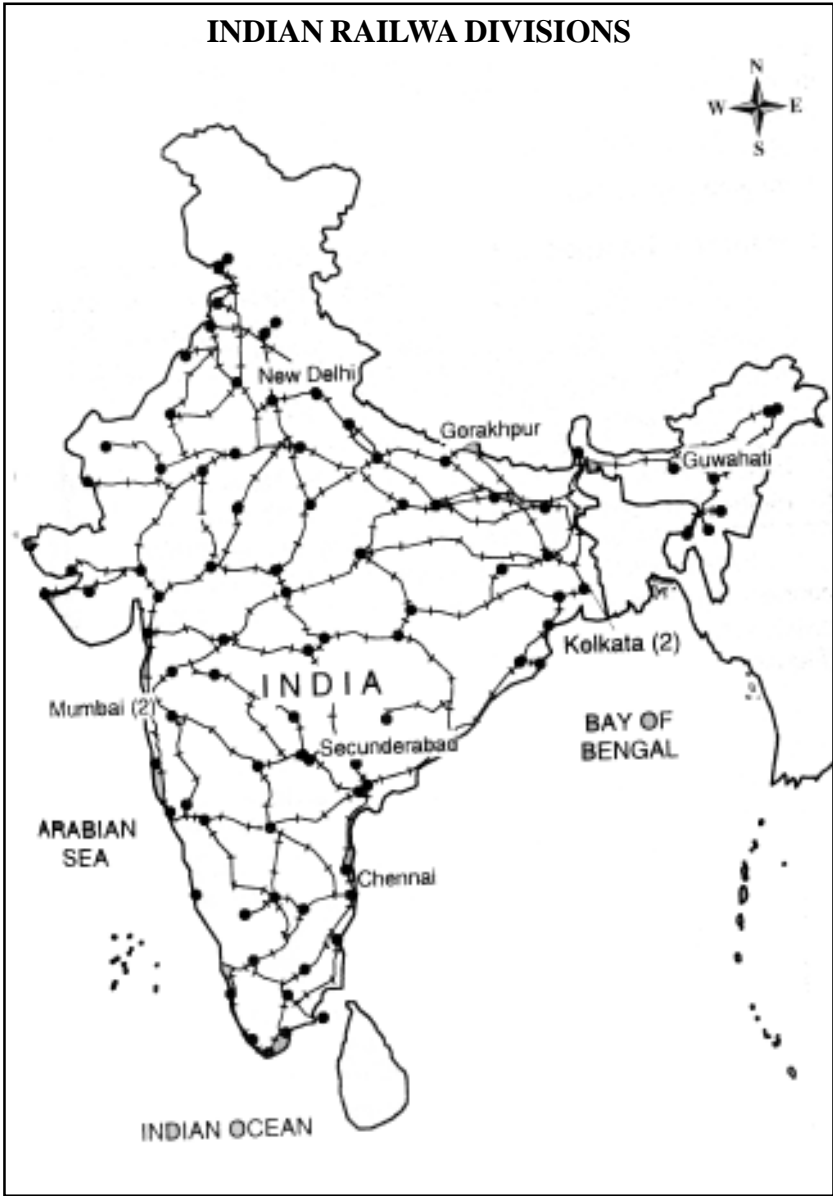| Railways	Headquarters
Central	Mumbai, Victoria
Eastern	Calcutta
Northern	New Delhi
Northeast	Gorakhpur
Northeastern-Border	Malegaon
Southern	Chennai
South Central	Secunderabad
Southeastern	Calcutta
Western	Mumbai-Churchgate

INDIAN RAILWA DIVISIONS

Figure 7.1

Indian Railways was first started in 1833. The first ever train travelled between Mumbai and Thana. The entire distance of that trip was only 34 km. At present, there is a high growth of the Indian railway transport. The railway tracts are of three categories:

1. Broad Gauge

2. Metre Gauge

3. Narrow Gauge.

Both the Metre and the Narrow gauges are being converted into broad gauges rail tracts. It is planned to convert all tracts into broad gauges by the year 2004 A.D. The cities of India have been connected with superfast trains. Superfast trains travel faster than the express trains. In these trains, facilities such as refreshments, food, newspapers and others are provided for. In Tamil Nadu, there are superfast trains between Chennai and Coimbatore, Chennai and Mysore and Chennai and New Delhi. They are generally called the *'Satabdi Superfast Trains'*. The government is actively considering the question of providing telephone facilities in the superfast trains between New Delhi and Mumbai and the Palace Train that plies Rajasthan.

The Indian Railways Act has introduced an insurance scheme for the travellers by the express trains in 1994. Under this, there will be monetary relief to those travellers who have suffered through violence, bomb blast, dacoity, violent attacks and shooting incidents. This insurance not only covers the situations above but also those incidents that occur in the passenger rooms, cloak rooms and reservation counters.

Road Transport : When compared to the railway network, the road network connects all settlements. In India, there are different types of roads depending on the uses. They are variously called as the footpath, cart track, metalled road, black topped (tar road), and broad roads. The major roads in the cities are often broad and as much as **'100 feet'** (the name is stuck and in popular use, all over the country).

To avoid traffic bottlenecks in the cities, flyovers and subways have been built. The district headquaters are connected by 'District Roads', while the capitals of the states are connected by 'State Highways'.
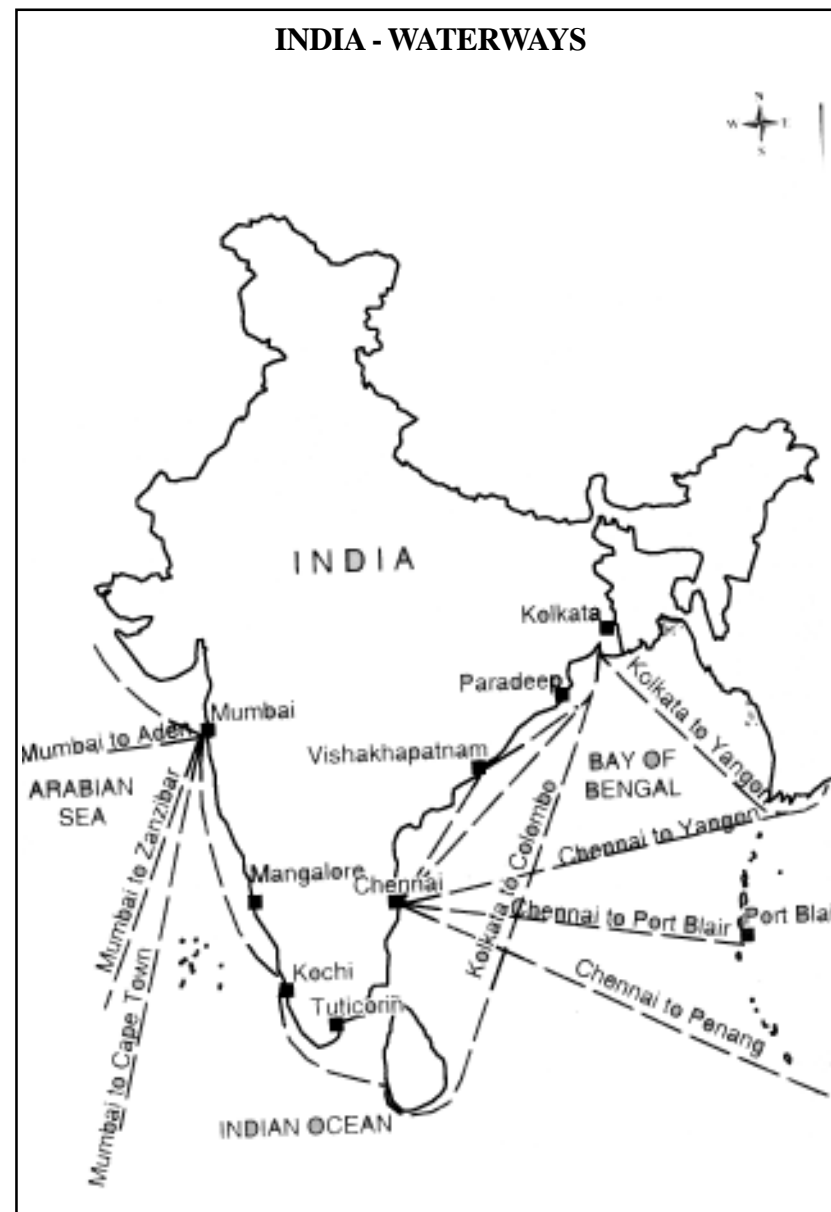
Figure 7.2

National Highways are managed by the Central Government while the State Highways and District Roads are managed by the State Government.

For the passengers to travel on roads, the state government ply the State Transport Corporation buses. These buses connect mostly all the towns and big villages.

Waterways : We are aware of the fact that India had a flourishing sea trade. For the Indian international trade, the waterways are a great support. The international sea transport plays an important role in India's International Trade. India holds the fifteenth position among the shipping tonnage in the world. Ther are 148 small and level large ports. Major ports are directly under the administration of the State Governments (Figure 7.2). Kandla, Mumbai, Marmagoa, New Mangalore and Kochi Ports are on the western coast. Calcutta, Paradeep, Vishakapattinam, Chennai and Tuticorin ports are on the east coast.

Air Transport : Air travels help to cross long distances in short while. The world has greatly shrunk because of air travel. A traveller who eats his/her breakfast in India can have lunch at Dubai and dinner in England. Air transport was introduced in India in the year 1930. Now, 'Air India' and 'Indian Airlines' are the two government-run airlines in the country. While Air India is an international airline, and Indian Airlines is the domestic airline. Indian airlines fly to some neighbouring countries such as Nepal, Sri Lanka and Singapore, as well. Besides the public sector airlines, there are now private sector airlines operating routes within the country.

Their routes are at the moment between the big cities of India. There are some small and large airports in the country. In the international airports, there are facilities for landing and take off for several aircrafts at the same time. There are also large lounges for the passangers (Figure 7.3). Chennai, Mumbai, Calcutta, Delhi, Bangalore, Hyderabad and Thiruvananthapuram are the International Airports in the country.

Education: Next in importance to transport is education. It is because, the countries which are behind in educational attainments, cannot develop even if they have rich resources. Hence, education is the foundation for a country's development and the improvement in their standard of living. Universal education in a country such as India, with a very large population, is a responsibility which is very difficult to accomplish. That is why the Indian Government has been making efforts in several ways to improve the literacy in the country.

Indian educational system confirms to the Indian Constitution. In the years of independence, there has been a steady improvement in education, by one difficult step by another. Towards improving literacy, a National Education Policy was announced in 1968. As a consequence of actions under the policy, educational institutions have increased tremendously. In the villages, facilities for basic education have been provided. Efforts have been made to universalise a 'standard' form of education throughout the country. Yet financial scarcity and increasing population have proved to be hurdles in the way of progress.

The New Educational Policy, announced in 1986, has been a stimulating factor for the development of education. Quality of education, equality of opportunity in education, child-centred education and the like have been emphasised. Employment opportunity and national integration have been stressed as the goals of new education. At present, the Central and State Governments have joined together to give away the educational administration to the people by sharing. Groups of educationists have been formed at the village and district levels and they have been involved in planning for education and implementation.

The Governments have also been carrying out programmes for women's education. Efforts have been afoot for providing opportunity for education to the oppressed castes and the hill people. Non-formal educational institutions have been operating in the villages and the towns and there is more attention to children's education now. Despite all these efforts, the opportunity for educating all the Indians is still limited. However, the Government is currently operating with a view to provide for universal education by the year 2000.

In the efforts to achieving the universal education, plans are being implemented by the Ministry of Human Resources, National Council for Educational Research and Training, State Council for Educational Research and Training, and District Institute of Education and Training. The National Education Policy was revised in 1992. It was decided that by introducing a uniform pattern of education
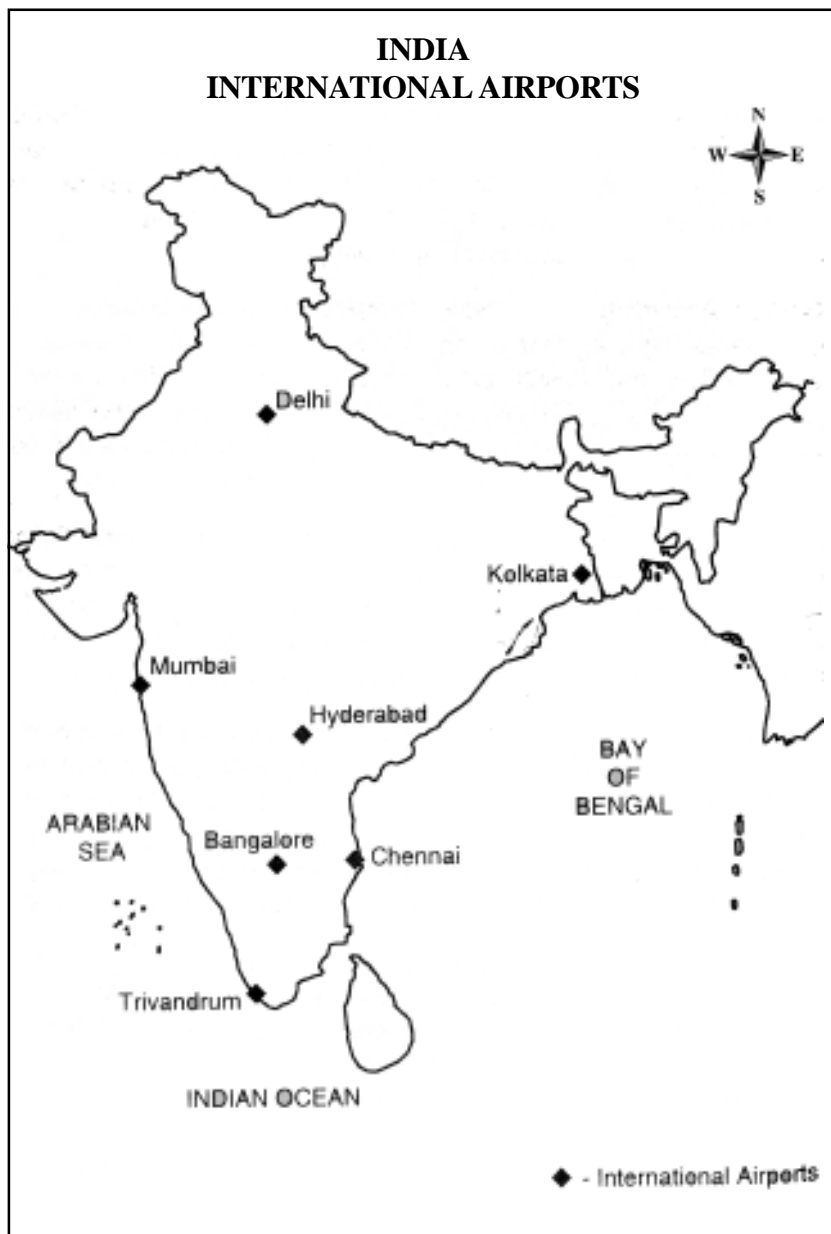
INDIA
INTERNATIONAL AIRPORTS

Figure 7.3

with +2 at the higher secondary schools, a uniform pattern of examinations was decided upon for the country.

At the national level, a Committee set up under the chairmanship of Professor Dave in 1991 introduced a new method of education known as the Minimum Levels of Learning (MLL). The aim of this MLL strategy was to make all the children learn all the necessary competencies, completely. It has been brought also to improve the primary education in the country.

Health : According to the Indian Constitution, health is as much a fundamental right as that of education. Every social organisation should follow the health practices and create healthy citizens. According to the World Health Organisation, *'a good indicator of health'* is not how many beds are in the hospitals but how many people get the supply of potable water in the villages and towns' of the world.

For health, the essentials are that of the individual's cleanliness and the cleanliness of the environment. Otherwise, dirt gathers and the germs cause hazards to the people. In India, the responsibility for health rests with the village panchayats, panchayat unions, municipalities and corporations. There are inadequacies, however.

The Government of India has made several efforts towards health. Hospitals, pharmacies, primary health centres, and subcenters are all functioning well. Hospitals are being established in towns and primary health centres are built in the villages. With every year, the number of health facilities has been increasing. In the last fifty years, India has seen tremendous development in medine and medical care.

Housing : Needs of the people are very high just as there is a very high population in the country. To meet their needs, increased production of food, and consumer goods has been achieved through various plans and schemes. Of the human basic needs, shelter has been adressed by various plans. For example, under the auspices of the Slum Clearence Board, shelterless are being provided with shelter. Further, the Tamil Nadu Housing Board builds houses for the various classes of people, while housing is paid for by the people in instalments. Likewise, the Central Government also builds houses for the people.

Apart from the Government schemes, there are individuals, private developers who build their houses according to their surroundings and with the available local materials. The houses constructed vary with the different environment. In the hills, the houses are built with rocks and the windows are fitted with the glasses. In the plains, on the other hand the houses are built with the bricks and the wooden windows. In the hills, the houses are constructed so, so that there is light and heat inside the house. At present, there are private efforts at building low-cost houses and the government offers assistance and subsidies for such housing. Yet, such housing has not yet reached the people.

As for housing facility, there are millions in the cities who are homeless. They squatter on the pavements and in the Poramboke lands and live in the huts and tenements without basic amenities.**'Housing for All'** as an idea/aim has not taken root amidst us. If housing is satisfied,then there will be urges to satisfy other needs such as education and health. Housing would assist in the efforts of the people towards education and health care. Until then, a hundred percent literacy and hundred percent health will remain a dream.

Learning Outcome

1. Students learn about the recent developments in transport.

2. Students learn about the importance of education.

3. Students learn to appreciate the objectives of the National Educational Policy.

4. Students learn about the plan for the development of housing.

5. Students learn and appreciate the importance of individual and environmental health.

6. Students learn about the social organisations that help in improving public health.

Self-Evaluation

I. Choose the correct answer

1. The regions with the dense tansport facility are:

    a. Plateau   b. Plains

    c. Hills   d. Valley

2. The country with the highest transport network density in Asia:

    a. China   b. Japan

    c. India   d. Malaysia

3. The first ever rail travel in India:

    a. Mumbai-Thana   b. Mumbai-Pune

    c. Mumbai-Chennai   d. Mumbai-Delhi

4. The Government airline that operates and international air travel programme is:

    a. Indian Airlines   b. Air india

    c. Jet Airways   d. Damania Airways

5. The method of new education devised under the chairmanship of Professor Dave is:

    a. Minimum Levels of Learning

    b. New Educational Policy

    c. Primary Education

    d. Higher Education

II. Fill in the blanks

1. For poverty to be eliminated in any country, there has to be an increase in _____ among the people.

2. The services available within the country not only improves the standard of living, but also the standard of _____ of the people.

3. The superfast train known as the Rajathani Express runs in the state of _____.

4. Buses connect all _____ of India.

5. Mangalore Port is on the _____ coast.

III. Match the following

1. Central India   –   Gorakhpur

2. Eastern India   --   Chennai

3. Northeastern   --   Mumbai-Victoria

4. South   –   Calcutta

5. South Central   --   Malegaon / Secunderabad

IV. Answer briefly

1. What are the Government organisations which have responsibility for administering the Indian air travel industry?

2. What are the aims of the New Educational Policy?

3. What are the Government institutions working the for Primary Education for all'?

4. What are the Minimum Levels of Learning?

5. What are the efforts by the Governmental institutions, towards health?

V. Answer in detail

1. Describe any one of the services in India.

2. Describe the efforts made by the Indian Government in regard to housing.

VI. Practical exercises

1. Mark the major transport routes on the map of India.

2. Collect information of the plans for educational development in India.

UNIT VIII: HUMAN RESOURCES

Lesson 8

POPULATION OF INDIA

Learning Objectives

1. To appreciate human resources as the most significant of all resources and to learn how census is made.

2. To learn and appreciate distribution and densities of population.

3. To learn and appreciate regions based on the population densities.

4. To understand the importance of sex composition and occupational structures.

5. To learn about human resources development initiatives in the country.

The earth we live in is rich in resources. Of the earth's resources, the most significant is the human resource. Among the countries of the world today, India occupies the second position in population after China. Although human resources are an asset to a nation, at times however, a large population can be a hurdle in the way of development. The Chinese think of the human resources as an asset indeed. Yet they believed that the more Chinese there are the larger would be its poor. That is why they began seriously to control their population. They also won in the battle of reducing their numbers. The Indian Government has also made several efforts at population control. There has been success to a certain extent as well.

A country's plans are generally formulated for meeting the demands of its population and for achieving a level of health. People's health, needs and demands depend very much on the availability of natural resources. The population genereally has the tendency to grow. On the contrary, other resources do not have such a tendency. If the

needs or demands of a population is greater than the resources of that country, then it would be very difficult to implement its development plans and succeed too. In particular, in countries like India which are growing fast, the population growth is the biggest obstacle for progress. Therefore, in order to estimate the demands of a population and to protect and conserve the country's resources for future needs, there is need for data on population.

India is the second most populous and seventh largest country in the world. The total geographical area of the country is 3.28 million sq. km. Since independence, India has paved the way through democracy for social development. India has been implementing national strategies and plans through various multi-faceted development schemes and programmes. These programmes, backed by large human and financial resources, have been successful in achieving the predetermined goals in the areas of sustained economic growth, education, health, sanitation, housing and employment, as well as other related fields, so that minimum needs are duly taken care of and a decent standard of life attained.

Census : Using a country's population numbers and its growth, we are able to predict the number of population in future. Further, with that knowledge, it would be easy to implement plans. Thus, Census of a country is vital for a country's growth and progress.

> Census is a collection of data on a country's population number and its social and economic statuses.

The Census is taken once in every decade. It is being taken in all the countries of the world. According to the Census of 1991, India's population was 846.3 million. And according to the Census of 2001, our population was 1.027 billion, the second most populous country in the world.

Population Distribution : India may be distinguished, regionally, by the nature of population concentration. There are three regions of concentration, namely (Figure 8.1):

1. High Population Concentration;

2. Moderate Population Concentration; and
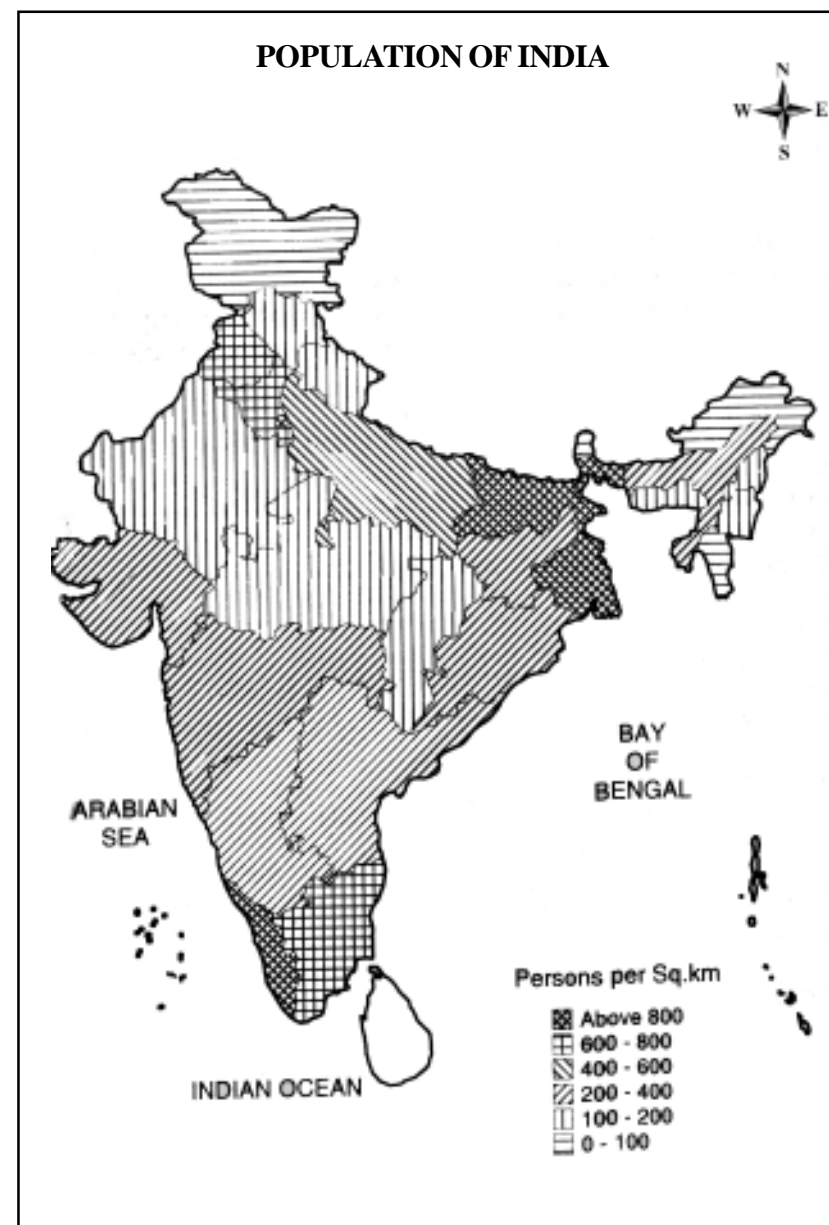
3. Low Population Concentration.

Figure 8.1

High Population Concentration : India has a high concentration of population in the areas of agricultural activities and lands which could support large populations. Such regions are generally the plains such as those of the Gangetic and the coastal plains. The Gangetic plains are rich because of their resources endowments. The rivers that flow here are perennial rivers and give water throughout the year.

Further, rainfall is received from the southwest monsoon. For these two reasons, irrigation is easy to accomplish. Therefore, the fertile lands of this area are most useful for agriculture. As this region is of plains, it is easy also to lay the roads. Hence, transport lines are denser here as well. It is for these reasons that we find a heavy concentration of population here.

Similarly, on the east coast of the Peninsular India are the deltas of the Cauvery, Godavari, Krishna and Mahanadi.

> States such as Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, West Bengal, and the northern Madhya Pradesh with large populations are found in the Gangetic Plains.

The high rainfall and fertile alluvial soils of the area support agriculture of the coastal plains. Therefore, the eastern coastal areas of the Peninsular India is also a region of heavy concentration of population.

Andhra Pradesh with a large population numbers is on the eastern coastal plains.

Moderate Population Concentration : Another feature of the Peninsular India is its highlands. In these parts, dry climate, less fertile soils are a constraint to agricultural activities. Because of the conditions prevailing on the plateau, only millets are usually grown here. The black soil found in the plateau region is suitable for the cultivation of cotton. Spinning and textiles mills are therefore found in abundance, providing for prosperity of the region.

The more densely populated states of the Peninsular India, namely, Maharashtra and Karnataka have black soil areas.

There is a large population in the black soil regions whereas in the rest there is only moderate population. In Tamil Nadu also there is a

moderate population. We have earlier learnt that in some parts of the Plateau there are minerals. Where there are economic activities dependent on the minerals, there is a moderate population, too.

Although Chottanagpur is a plateau region, there are minerals and hence there are mineral-based industries. This area and its proximities have a large population. Thus, people are found distributed in accordance with the natural resources of the plateau. In the other areas, they are found scattered.

Low Population Concentration : The situations found in the hills, which are a vast landform, are not very suitable for human living. As such, only a small number of people live on the hills. In the areas covered by the Western Ghats and the Eastern Ghats of the Peninsular India and the Himalayas of the Extra-Peninsular India, there are only small populations. The climate of the hill areas and natural vegetation are a hurdle for human actions. Particularly, the environments here are not eminently suitable for agriculture. It is difficult to cultivate food crops on the hill slopes. Soil erosion and infertile soils of the hill slopes also hinder agricultural activities.

Therefore, only in the valleys of the hills, a certain concentration of population exists. For example, in the Kashmir valley of the Himalayas, there is a dense population.

The Himalayan state of Jammu and Kashmir has a dense population in the Kashmir valley.

But because of the situation on the hills, some places are touristic while some others are summer resorts. For example, in the Peninsular India, the Nilgiris, of the Western Ghats and Kodaikanal on the Palani hills are summer resorts. On the other hand, Darjeeling, Dehradun and Simla of the Himalayas in the Extra Peninsular India are both summer resorts and touristic spots. Therefore, there is a certain dense concentration of population.

In the northeastern states such as Arunachal Pradesh, Manipur, Assam, Meghalaya, Tripura and Nagaland, there is only a moderate population. Among these states, Assam has a slightly higher level of population because of plantations and petroleum industries.

In the areas besides those mentioned above, there are large, or moderate and low concentrations of population depending upon the

local characteristics. In Kerala which is on the western coastal area of the Peninsular India, the geographical area occupied by the people is small. The rest of the area has dense forests. The western coastal plains is narrow. In the small area, therefore, is a high concentration of population.

In the northwest of India is the Thar desert. Desert environments are not very conducive for human living. Some parts of Rajasthan and Gujarat and similarly some parts of Punjab are part of this desert. A large part of the state of Orissa is also semi-arid. For this reason, the distribution of population here is less dense. In the Union Territories under the direct control of the Central Government, the population is quite small. In the capital city of India, New Delhi, there is a moderate population. The people however live in congestion because of the small geographical area. Thus, the distribution of India's population is based on the local landscapes, climate, soil type, agricultural conditions, industrial development and services.

Sex Ratio : According to the Census of 1991, there were 846.3 million people in India; of those, 439.2 million are males and 407.1 million are females. According to the sex ratio of the year 1901, there were 977 females for every 1000 males and this ratio has declined to 929 females to every 1000 males. In India, only in Kerala the women are larger in number than men. The states with more than 950 females to every 1000 males are Himachal Pradesh, Andhra Pradesh, Goa, Karnataka, Manipur, Orissa and Tamil Nadu. Chandigarh has the lowest ratio. In India, Kerala has the highest sex ratio while Chandigarh has the lowest.

To prevent the declining sex ratios, the Government has taken several steps. Efforts are underway for the provision of education and equal rights to women. Further, the Government has also been emphasising social change and awareness through educational methods focused on them. Through concerted efforts, the Indian Government has been trying harder to achieve the goal of the 'small family'. These include those of increasing age at marriage for women, popularising the methods of family planning and general education. These are being implemented jointly by the State and Central Governments.

Human Resources Development Initiatives

The Conference of Chief Ministers on **Basic Minimum Services** held at New Delhi during 4-5 July, 1996, recommended the adoption of the following objectives with an all out effort for their attainment by the year 2000.

1. Cent per cent coverage of provision of safe drinking water in rural and urban areas.

2. 100 per cent coverage of primary health service facilities in rural and urban areas.

3. Universalisation of Primary Education.

4. Provision of Public Housing Assistance to all shelterless poor families.

5. Extension of Mid-day Meal Programme in primary schools to all rural blocks and urban slums and disadvantaged sections.

6. Provision of connectivity to all unconnected villages and habitations.

7. Streamlining the Public Distribution System targeted to families below the poverty line.

Eradication of poverty and provision of basic minimum services are integral elements of any strategy to improve the quality of life. No developmental process can be sustainable unless it leads to visible and widespread improvement in these areas. India believes that poverty anywhere is a threat to prosperity everywhere and that concerted international action is essential to ensure global prosperity and better standards of life for all. Based on this belief, India has actively played a positive, constructive role, *inter alia*, in the deliberations of the UN, its specialised agencies and various inter-governmental mechanisms.

The Eighth Plan (1992-1997) had identified "human development" as its main focus. During this plan period, the indicators of social development have shown a significant improvement. 1995-96 witnessed a very satisfactory growth rate in GDP of 7.1 per cent. The momentum of growth has been maintained in 1996-1997, thus providing increasing evidence that the growth potential has improved as a result of the processes of deregulation and globalisation initiated by the government.

The Ninth Plan (1997-2002) is being launched in the 50th year of India's Independence. The objectives of the Ninth Plan arising from the Common Minimum Programme of the Government are as follows:

1. Priority to agriculture and rural development with a view to generating adequate productive employment and eradication of poverty;

2. Accelerating the growth rate of the economy with stable prices; ensuring food and nutritional security for all, particularly the vulnerable sections of society;

3. Providing the basic minimum services of safe drinking water, primary health care facilities, universal primary education, shelter, and connectivity to all in a time bound manner:

4. Containing the growth rate of population;

5. Ensuring environmental sustainability of the development process through social mobilisation and participation of people at all levels;

6. Empowerment of women and socially disadvantaged groups such as Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Other Backward Classes and Minorities as agents of socio-economic change and development;

7. Promoting and developing people's participatory institutions like Panchayati Raj institutions, co-operatives and self-help groups;

8. Strengthening efforts to build self-reliance.

Learning Outcome

1. Students learn and appreciate the importance of human resources of a country and how is census made in India.

2. Students learn about the divisions of India on the basis of population density, distribution, growth and other aspects.

3. Students learn about sex composition and occupational structures.

4. Students learn and appreciate the need for family welfare planning and birth control.

Self-Evaluation

I. Choose the correct answer

1. The period in which Census is taken:

   a. A decade
   b. Five years
   c. Twenty years
   d. One year

2. According to the Census of 1991, what was India's population:

   a. 406.3 million
   b. 846.3 million
   c. 1,000 million
   d. 400 million

3. The region where agriculture is carried out easily:

   a. Hill region
   b. Plateau region
   c. The plains
   d. Desert region

4. The deltas of Cauvery, Godavari, Krishna and Mahanadi:

   a. Western coast region
   b. Eastern coast region
   c. the Himalayan ranges
   d. Valley.

5. Population is heavy here because of :

   a. Chottanagpur
   b. Malwa Plateau
   c. Aravallis
   d. Deccan Plateau

II. Fill in the blanks

1. The highest population in India is in _____ state.

2. The conditions existing in the _____ are not conducive for human living.

3. In _____ of the Himalayas, only tribal people live.

4. As a larger part of the state of _____ is of arid nature, only a moderate population is found here.

5. People are living in large number in the state of _____ which is on the western coastal region.

III. Match the following

1. Assam -- Himalayas-Cold-Low Population

2. Kashmir Valley -- Capital-cosmopolitan people

3. Delhi -- Northeastern states - Tribes

4. Plateau region -- East Coast

5. Rajasthan – Highlands
Desert region - Low density

IV. Answer briefly

1. What is Census?

2. What are the states with high populations?

3. Write briefly about sex ratio.

4. Why is the Gangetic plains densely populated?

5. Why is the population in the hills small?

V. Answer in detail

1. Write elaborately about the population distribution of India.

2. Describe the plans designed for the development of India.

VI. Practical exercise

1. Mark the population distribution on map of India in a simple graded pattern.

Lesson 9

EMERGING INDIA

Learning Objectives

1. To learn and appreciate the efforts of India towards socio-economic development through the process of national planning.

2. To understand the successes and failures of the Annual and Five Year Plans of India, in brief.

3. To learn and appreciate the several perspectives on plans and achievements and the developmental consequences.

It is the responsibility of a country to provide for the basic needs of her people, namely, food, clothing and shelter. Besides these needs, to improve the standard of living of the people, she has to fulfill the aspirations of her people by way of providing transport, education, health and housing. Only when all the needs and demands of a people are met, there is chance for improving their quality of life.

Today, India is in the forefront and is growing in relation to the countries of the world. Yet, she is still backward in the provision of basic minimum needs. To improve these basic conditions, India has been trying hard in several ways.

Keeping in view the resources and demands of the population, the Government of India, in 1950, set up a National Planning Commission. Through this Planning Commision, plans were made for every five years. The goals of these plans and the social policy of these plans were worked out on the basis of the demands of the people.

The First Five Year Plan was formulated for the years 1951-56. Until now, there have been nine Five Year Plans made. The Eighth Five Year Plan was formulated for the period 1992-97. The most important goal of this plan was the economic reforms. Particularly,

human development, greater opportunities for private sector, revamping of the structures of public offices and the provision of higher opportunities for free market forces are some of the areas to which the Government of India has paid special attention.

The Indian Government is trying reasonably to bring about a growth in the economy of the country. In fact, through the Five Year Plans, there have been several benefits. Because of the programme of Economic Liberalisation ushered in, in the country, in 1991, there have been some remarkable improvements in the Indian economy and financial situation. Particularly, progress has been made in the industrial development and food production. There have been opportunities to sell our food products abroad, increasing employment opportunities, and progress in commerce. At the level of the Central Government, there have been greater distributive justice and as such it has been possible for moving forward and expansion. Because of the Fiver year Plans, the various departments have shown even progress.

Forty-Fifty years ago, our forefathers had followed the traditional methods of cutlivation. At that time, the modern method was not in use. There was no new protection procedures for the crops as well. For maturing, the plants had taken enormous time. And after so many months of struggle, the yields could be painfully low. There was indeed food scarcity, and even poverty, among the people who tilled the land.

Later in the 1960s, many plans were formulated. They brought in rapid changes in agriculture. Intensive and modern agriculture of the green revolution adopted widely. High yielding varieties, chemical fertilizers, pesticides and weedicides and tractors were employed by the agriculturists and there was all round progress in agricultural production. And now, India has reached 200 million tonnes of foodgrains is a matter of pride.

Of the crops, wheat has yielded more than anticipated. India is the third largest producer of wheat now, after China and the United States of America. According to a prediction of the International Agricultural Research Commission, India in the next five years would exceed the production of wheat in the United States and reach the second position among the world countries.

Plans At a Glance

1. First Five Year Plan (1951-56)

There was progress in sectors such as agriculture, irrigation, and electricity.

2. Second Five Year Plan (1956-61)

Several heavy industries came into being. There were a number of changes in the Industrial Policy. Import increased. Foreign exchange was expended. Foreign Aid was sought.

3. Third Five Year Plan (1961-66)

Self-sufficiency was the important goal. There were problems in the utilisation of the national resources. Most of the economy was dependent on international aid. The plan failed.

4. Annual Plans (1966-69)

The failure of the Third Five Year Plan and the scarcity of financial resources led to the formulation of annual plans. There were three annual plans during 1966-67, 1967-68 and 1968-69.

5. Fourth Five Year Plan (1969-74)

This plan aimed at rapid economic development, with achieving equality and social justice as the primary goal. The basic goal was to raise the standard of living. It placed greater emphasis on weaker sections. The plan also had the objective of growth with stability and self reliance. Inflationary pressure was however the worst, resulting in a number of strikes and social unrest and serious bottlenecks.

6. Fifth Five Year Plan (1974-79)

The goal was poverty alleviation. The time set for this effort was 1974-75 to 1985-86. Later, it was changed into annual plans. Rolling Plan was introduced. It was later discarded, as well.

7. Sixth Five Year Plan (1980-85)

The changes that occurred during the Five Year Plans began to show in this plan. Yet, general development was its goal.

8. Seventh Five Year Plan (1985-90)

The important goals were foodgrains production, employment opportunity and increasing production. The plan did not succeed in the public works sector belying the expectations.

9. Eighth Five Year Plan (1992-97)

It was not possible to plan, especially with the political turmoil. Hence annual plans were formulated during 1990-91 and 1991-92. In 1992, the Five Year Plan was formulated. Economic Reforms was the important goal. Human resources development, privatisation and opportunity for the private sector and restructuring of the public sector agencies were the objectives of the plan. There has been a considerable success in the economic liberalisation.

10. Ninth Five Year Plan (1997-2002)

Reforms continued. The Ninth Plan efforts at human resources development, privatisation and opportunities for the private sector continued. Globalisation has ushered in foreign investments in India with several Corporate Industries making it their new home. Population of India proved to be a good market for their products. India has sprung back a bit after the slump in IT initiatives since September 9/11, 2001.

11. Tenth Five Year Plan (2002-2007)

Further, it is expected that there would be higher production in small grains and pulses, more than before. Production in oilseeds has also improved. Even despite high population growth, there has been a decline in the number of people below poverty line is something to be proud of.

A great deal of progress has been achieved in the industrial sector through the Five Year Plans. Efforts of Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru led to the progress of Indian industries for several years; the Plans led the efforts towards higher production levels in bullock carts, bicycles, buses, trains, express trains and large aircrafts. Public as well as private industries grew fast. Large and small scale industries came into being side by side. Industrial Estates were built.

As a consequence of all these developments, India is in the forefront today in several fields, most importantly nuclear energy, space research, satellite production and space launching, computers and softwares. In respect of technical manpower, India is in the third position among the countries of the world.

In the last three years, the export from India has progressed better than until now. Of the exports, most are now industrial products. Towards facilitating international investment in Indian heavy industries and in several others, the Government has introduced reforms in the public and private investment policies. It is now the goal of the Indian Government for the Indian industrial products to compete in the international markets and earn the much needed foreign exchange. Attention has been paid to production increases in leather goods, clothing, and readymade garments. Employment opportunity and poverty alleviation are still the important goals of Indian planning.

World's leading producers of cars and automobile spare parts have come forward to invest in the Indian industries and also collaborate with the Indian industrial corporates. The models of these car industries are continuously making their appearance on the Indian scene. Great changes are foreseen in the automobile industries in the joint ventures such as the Tata of India and the Benz of Germany.

The country has been reaching great heights in the technological sectors just as it has in the agricultural and industrial sectors. In space research, India is a front runner to many countries of the world today. Indian has grown so much that it now competes with the United States of America in space research. India's recent satellite - IRS 1C - has entirely been fabricated with indigenous resources and technology. This satellite is capable of prospecting for mineral resources besides other areas through its imaging capabilities. Some very sophisticated sensors have been mounted on this satellite to provide for a commercial advantage to India over other countries in the remotely sensed products. With this satellite, it has been possible not only to research into the natural resources of the country but also obtain images of airports, ports, naval bases and other important strategic locations. Thus, India has been making remarkable progress in the field of space as well (Figure 9.1).

India's Space Programme was rooted in the Equatorial Rocket launching Station located at Thumba near Thiruvananthapuram. It was
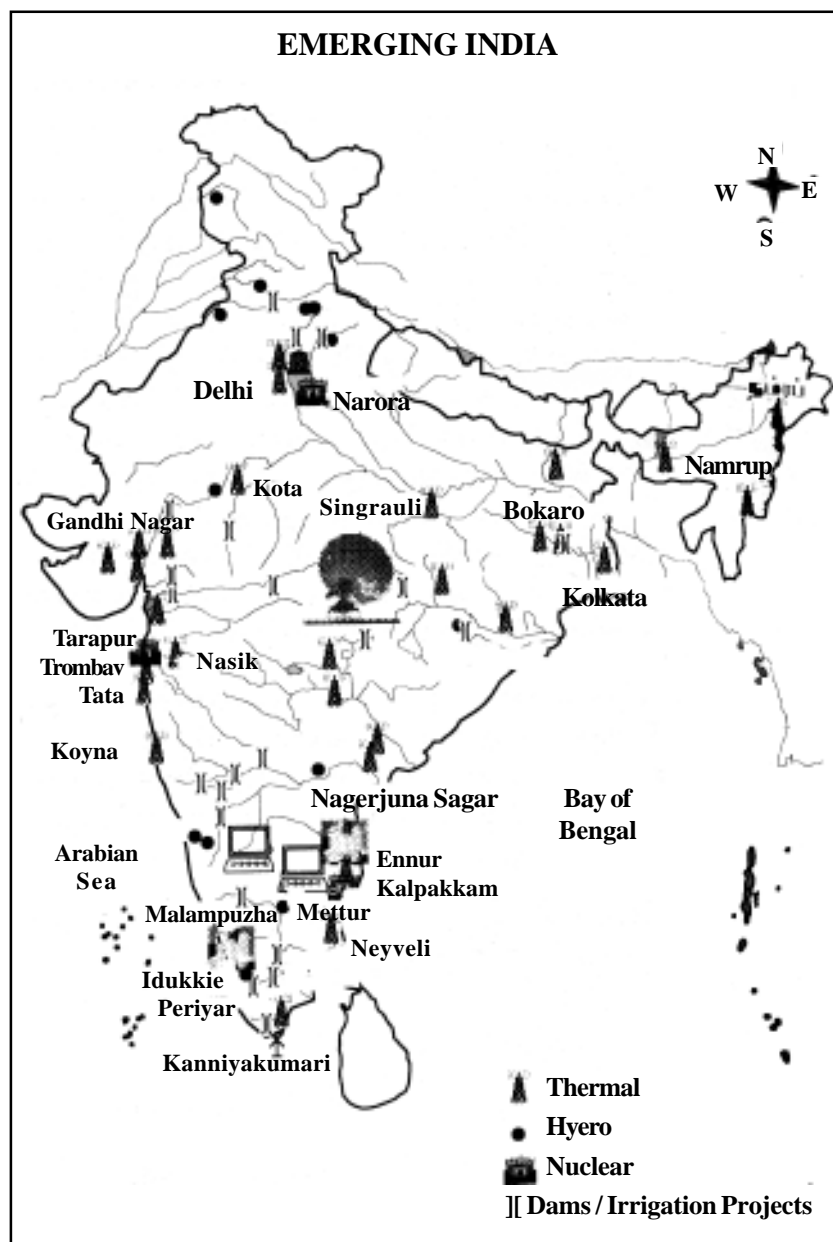
EMERGING INDIA

Figure 9.1

dedicated in 1968 to the United Nations and this has led to the tremendous growth of the Indian Space Research Organisation (ISRO). ISRO is now the nucleus of space research in India. There are several other organisations under it.

Development Impacts : We have now achieved commendable progress in several sectors in India. Among them, the significant are the sectors of health and education. When India became independent in 1947, the life expectancy of an Indian was only 27 years. With developments in medical and health care, it increased to 50 years in the 1970s. At present, the life expectancy of an average Indian has reached 67 years.

Literacy rate that was only 10 per cent at the time of independence has trebled in 1971. It has now crossed the 61 per cent mark. There have been remarkable changes in women's education. Thousands of reservoirs have been built. Progress has been made in health and education. Yet, there is a lot more to achieve in the years to come.

Amidst the satisfactory progress made in the country, there have been worrying social and economic crises. Our democracy has flourished even amidst scarcities and poverty. Indian independence has not only been flourishing but also is intact. Old economic policies have been avoided and progressive economic policies have been ushered in.

Globalisation of India : Globalisation in relation to India has been a two way process. Global forces have had considerable impact on India at all levels of its life. They are penetrating its economy and reshaping its structure and mode of operation. They are forcing India to redefine its place in the world and its relation to its neighbours and the west. India's educational and cultural life, TV and print media, and its perception of itself and the world are also undergoing profound changes. Not surprisingly, India today is quite different from what it was barely ten years ago.

India has not been a passive recipient of global impact. Both directly and through its diaspora, it has increasingly become a significant global presence. India's literature, arts, films, religions, food,

textiles, fashions and music are now an integral part of life in the west. Its doctors, Information Technology specialists, computer scientists, small and large industrialists, managers and engineers are present in the west in large numbers and have made a very considerable impact. Indeed, they are admired for their skills and hard work and are much sought after.

Earn a Living

I looked half my life
for work.
For
the meaning of life is,
first, to earn a living.

If you don't,
you may be digging
your own grave.

But I believe in work;
honest work.
And, alas, I am wasting
my time
looking for it.

I am still in the game.

Learning Outcomes

1. Students acquire the ability to appreciate planning perspectives and the achievements of India.

2. Students learn how the annual and five year plans are made.

3. Students learn about planning goals and objectives and budgeting and other aspects.

4. Students learn about the consequences of planning and not planning.

5. Students learn about the making of State and Central plans.

Self-Evaluation

I. Choose the correct answer

1. The transport, education, health and housing are considered as:

    a. Services   b. Landscapes

    c. Cultures   d. Industries

2. In order to develop models of development, the Government of India set up in 1950:

    a. National Planning
        Commission   b. Five Year Plans

    c. Green Revolution   d. Satellites

3. The agricultural production in which India may outsmart the USA in the near future:

    a. Paddy   b. Wheat

    c. Millets   d. Plantations

4. Most of India's exports are:

    a. Food products   b. Fabrics

    c. Industrial products   d. Beverages

5. The location of an ISRO institution dedicated to the United nations in 1968:

    a. Thumba   b. Chennai

    c. Delhi   d. Mumbai

II. Fill in the blanks

1. In India, there were _____ Five Year Plans until now.

2. In 1991, _____ reforms were introduced in the country.

3. In the Tenth Five Year Plan, India would rank second in the production of _____.

4. The _____ satellite was made with materials from India only.

5. Equatorial Rocket Launching Station is at _____.

III. Answer briefly

1. What are the responsibilities of a nation?

2. How does the standard of living of a people increase?

3. What are the goals of the Tenth Five Year Plan?

4. How did the efforts of Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru lead to industrial development?

5. What are the recent impacts of economic development in India?

IV. Answer in detail

1. Write an essay on the plans that made India an emerging India.

VI. Practical exercise

1. Collect news items, pictures and information that would indicate to the developments making our country and 'Emerging India'.

UNIT 10: MAPS AND DIAGRAMS

Lesson 10

DISTRIBUTION MAPS AND DIAGRAMS

Learning Objectives

1. To observe the significance of statistics

2. To gather knowledge about the various type of data.

3. To know how geographers make use of statistical facts.

4. To learn graphical representation of geographical data

5. To know the various methods of drawing distribution maps.

Maps

In geography, there are several means by which space-time information is diffused. Maps are a means of conveying information on places, areas, landscapes and related matters. Diagrams are another means of communicating information. They are a means that embody human knowledge in terms of **visual-spatial abilities**, education, numerical mathematics and communication skills. This set of means has been typified as 'graphicacy' by geographers. Graphicacy relates to explanation of those that cannot adequately be explained in words or numbers - especially those of the spatial information - in the form of pictures or diagrams. Of the means, the most important may be those of the maps, photographs and artefacts besides graphical representations.

Flow maps, for example, are a special category. These provide us with an understanding of the flows between places in three distinct ways. We could map the traffic of trains between railway stations in Tamil Nadu. Similarly, flow maps can be drawn to show the flow of people between the towns by buses and other means and also show the commodities that flow between them. Thus, the flow maps tell us

how places are spatially associated and how dense are the road or rail networks in terms of the people and materials they move from place to place.

It is important that we realise the fact that the maps can be more useful as tools of understanding than those of the words. Besides, the maps and diagrams help us improve our abilities and technical skills.

Diagrams

Data gathered through research or other means of collection may be better presented in graphs and diagrams than in the form of tables. They help us understand the essence of the data right away. In geography, a number of graphical representations and diagrams are used. They may be either lines graphs or bar diagrams. You may have seen that some of the diagrams used in geography are graphs or circle and sector diagrams. They assist us in the understanding of dissimilarities and similarities in the phenomena being graphically represented.

In the higher secondary classes, we shall learn to draw some of them and to use them in our understanding by interpreting them. It is in fact easy to make them represent non-spatial data. Population growth of an area may be drawn as a bar diagram or a line graph and then the growth characteristics may be understood easily.

Data Collection : When we go outdoors, we see a number of different things. Some of what we see alone are registered in our memory. We learn about some things from the teacher at the school. Radio, television and newspapers tell us about more things. Sometimes, we go to a library to learn about some truths. Often, we may also collect information on something that we want to know, for ourselves. Thus, what we collect through observation, listening and our own efforts are simply called the 'data'. Data should reflect realities. They should also be scientific. Data collection is an important scientific activity in geography. Most of the data collected in the subject are spatial data.

Spatial Data. Spatial data are gathered on the basis of locations. We may collect data either with reference to latitudes and longitudes or to postal code. For example, we have already learnt that India extends between 8° 4' N to 37° 6' N latitudes and 68° 7' E to 97° 2' E longitudes. If data relating to area, landscape, climate, vegetation and soils are collected with reference to these coordinates, then such data may be quite simply called spatial data.

Non-Spatial Data. These data relate to society, humans and their families, occupations and the like. The non-spatial data may be classified as three types:

Social data

Economic data

Cultural data.

Data regarding individuals, family, village and town people belong to this group of data. The fact that the Indian population by Census 2001 is 1027 million and such data are indeed social data. Data in regard to all economic activities by human beings are economic data. Agricultural crop and industrial units data are of economic data. Cultural data include all kinds of other data. Indian cultural structure, its divisions, services in India (transport, health, and education), technology and new innovations and inventions are all examples of cultural data.

Such data are being used in geography. How do we gather them? Special and specific techniques are used in the collection of data. Of these data, the very special are data collected through field work.

Maps and Diagrams : Statistics are regarded as a *"Science of approximation"*. The importance of statistics was emphasized by "Isaiah Bowman". In his explanation he made a statement, *"geographical thought involves measurement",* from which we infer that statistics play a vital role in the study of geography.

Like economists and statisticians, a geographer also makes use of statistical facts. They provide him raw materials for drawing diagrams and diagrammatic maps, graphs and distribution maps. Statistics vary; the methods of their representation will also vary with these. The method of drawing varies with different statistical facts. Even a single fact may also be represented in different ways in accordance with its type, intensity and time factor. In this way, cartographers have evolved different methods and designs for representing given data.

The representation of data can be done in two ways :

i. By means of diagrams where representation is made without a map.

ii. By means of distribution maps. For example, distribution of various commodities is shown on maps.

A diagram may be defined as the representation of statistical data or a geographic element. The diagrams can be grouped as

i. One dimensional such as bar and line diagrams.

ii. Two dimensional such as circular diagrams, rectangular diagrams and square diagrams.

iii. Three dimensional, such as block piles, spherical diagram and cubes. Further, the statistical data can be represented by pictorial diagram and graphs of various types.

Bar Diagram : Representation of quantities by bar is the easiest and simplest type of diagrams. Bars may be shown by a straightline with same uniform width. Their length may vary in proportion to the quantity. They may be vertical or horizontal and simple or compound. Simple bars have no sub-divisions and they represent just one fact, whereas compound bars have subdivisions to represent more than one fact.

Example : Represent the following data by means of bar diagram (Figure 10.1).

Bar Diagram

PRODUCTION OF SOME MINERALS IN INDIA
2000 – 2001 to 2001 – 2002

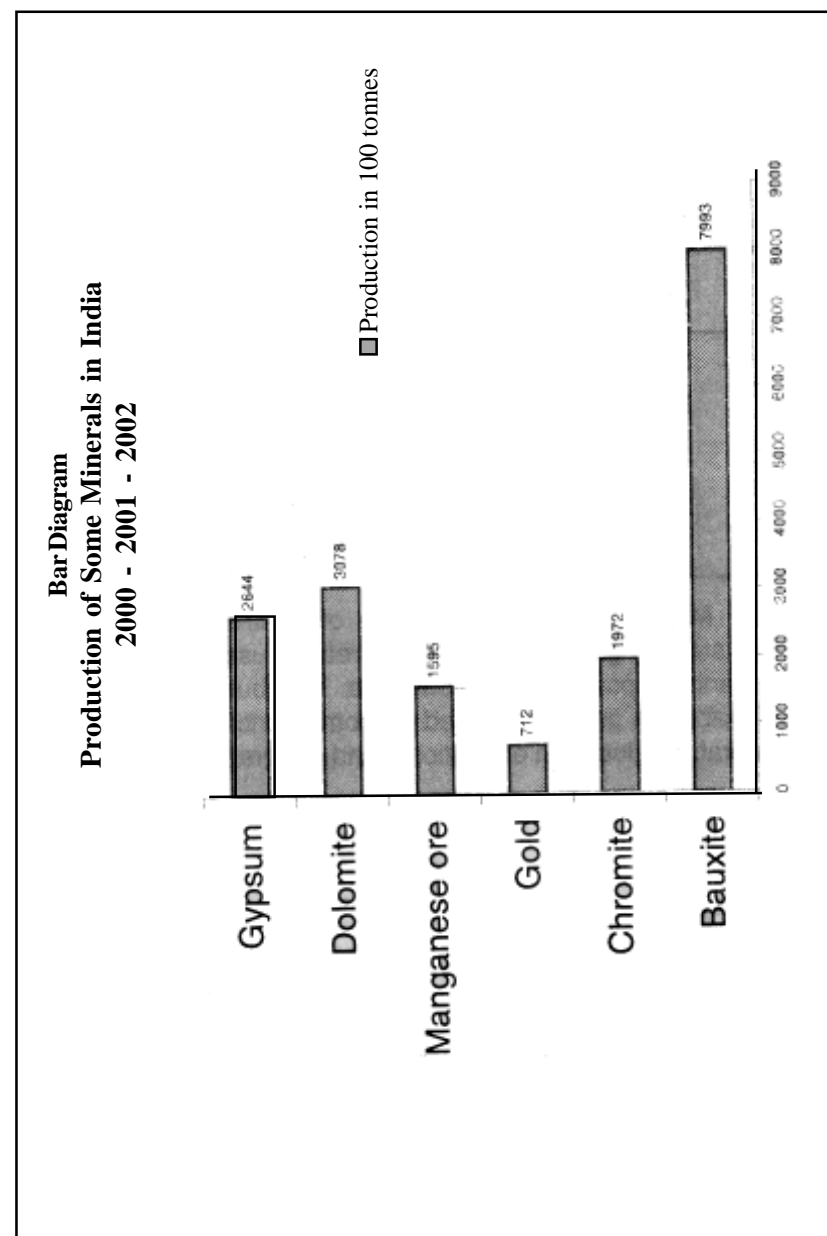| S.No.	Minerals	Productions In 100 tonnes
1	Bauxite	7,993
2	Chromite	1,972
3	Gold	712
4	Manganese ore	1,595
5	Dolomite	3,078
6	Gypsum	2,644

Figure 10.1

Line Graph : Statistical data may also be represented by graphs. Line graph is a graph in which a series of points is plotted by means of co-ordinates and then joined by a line. The graph consist of two scales, vertical scale and horizontal scales. One scale represent series of equal time divisions (independent variable) the other scale represent a series of quantitative or percentage values (dependent).

A simple line graph shows only a single series of values over a time period.

Simple Line Graph

Example : Draw a simple line graph for the following data (Figure 10.2).

INDIA'S EXPORT OF IRON ORE

S.No.	Year	Export (Million Tonnes)
1	1980 – 1981	22.4
2	1990 – 1991	32.5
3	1995 – 1996	31.7
4	1999 – 1998	29.5
5	1999 – 2000	16.1

Distribution Maps : The significance of distribution maps in geography is steadily growing with their increased usage. Some of the most important maps of geography are distribution maps. The distribution maps are generally based on some concreate facts which have considerable value both educational and geographical.

The distribution maps represent the pattern of distribution of any one element based on some definite statistical data. These maps show the distribution of crops, livestock or population in a given area with the aid of certain symbols or shading schemes. There are several devices used to show the distribution of commodities.

i. **Dot Method :** This is the most common method for showing the distribution of population, stocks, crops, mineral products and industrial products. The distribution of population or other object may be shown by putting dots of uniform size, each dot representing certain number or quantity.
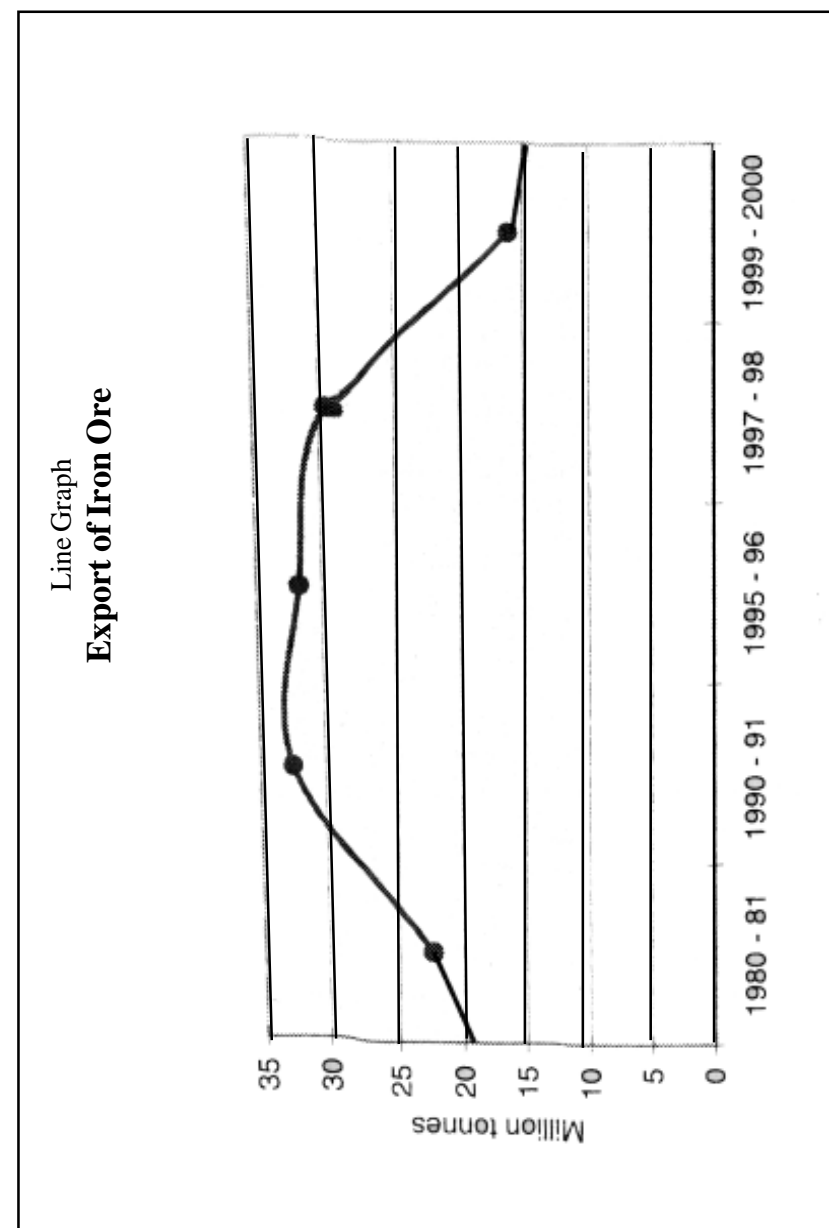
Figure 10.2

ii. **The Shading Method :** According to this method, distribution is shown by different tints of colour layers or by distinctive methods of black and white shading.

iii. **Pie graph :** The circle is divided into segments according to the quantity of each item. These segments are then coloured or shaded.

iv. **Bar Graph :** Bargraph are also used to show the trade statistics. They can be used for simple comparisons of quantities, for example, the growth of population can be shown from year to year or from one census report to another.

Example : Draw a dot map for the population data (Figure 10.3) of Tamil Nadu - 2001

DOT METHOD

POPULATION OF TAMIL NADU 2001 (PROVISIONAL)

S.No.	District	Population
1.	Thiruvallur	2,738,866
2.	Chennai	4,216,268
3.	Kancheepuram	2,869,920
4.	Vellore	3,482,970
5.	Dharmapuri	2,833,252
6.	Tiruvannamalai	2,181,853
7.	Viluppuram	2,943,917
8.	Salem	2,992,754
9.	Namakkal	1,495,661
10.	Erode	2,574,067
11.	The Nilgiris	764,826
12.	Coimbatore	4,224,107
13.	Dindigul	1,918,960
14.	Karur	933,791

DOT METHOD
POPULATIOIN OF TAMILNADU

1 Dot = 25,000 Persons
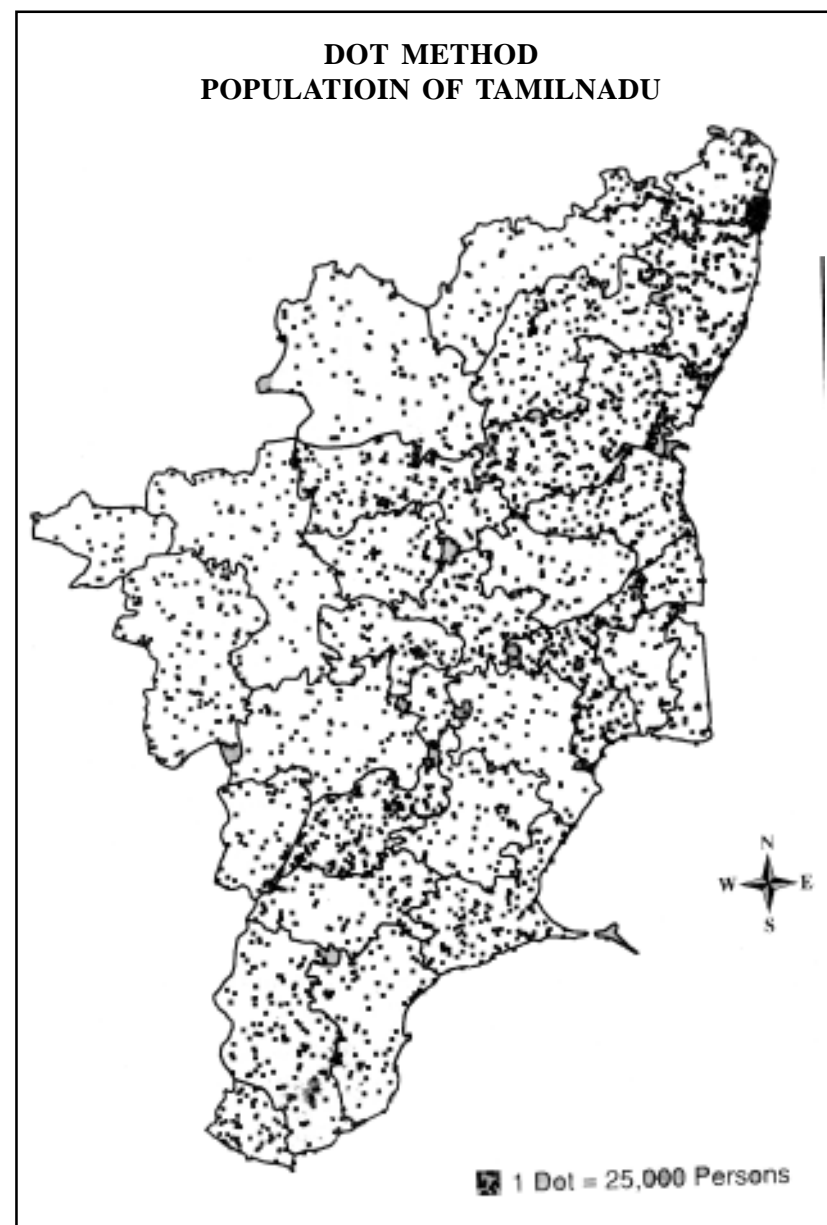
Fig. 10.3

S.No.	District	Population
15.	Tiruchirappalli	2,388,831
16.	Perambalur	486,971
17.	Ariyalur	694,058
18.	Cuddalore	2,280,530
19.	Nagapattinam	1,487,055
20.	Tiruvarur	1,165,213
21.	Thanjavur	2,205,375
22.	Pudukkottai	1,452,269
23.	Sivaganga	1,150,753
24.	Madurai	2,562,279
25.	Theni	1,094,724
26.	Virudhu Nagar	1,751,548
27.	Ramanathapuram	1,183,321
28.	Thoothukkudi	1,565,743
29.	Tirunelveli	2,801,194
30.	Kanniyakumari	1,669,763

Source : Census, 2001

PIE Diagram : Circle diagrams are sometimes drawn as wheel diagrams or pie diagrams. Pie or Circle charts are made to show fractions of a total. These diagrams are represented by Circles, in the Pie, the Circle is divided into sectors by calculating share of each datum to be represented in degrees.

Example : Draw a pie diagram to show the land use in India (Figure 10.4).

To construct the Pie diagram on the basis of the data given, draw a circle to represent the total geographical area. Find out the angles for each sector to represent various land uses.
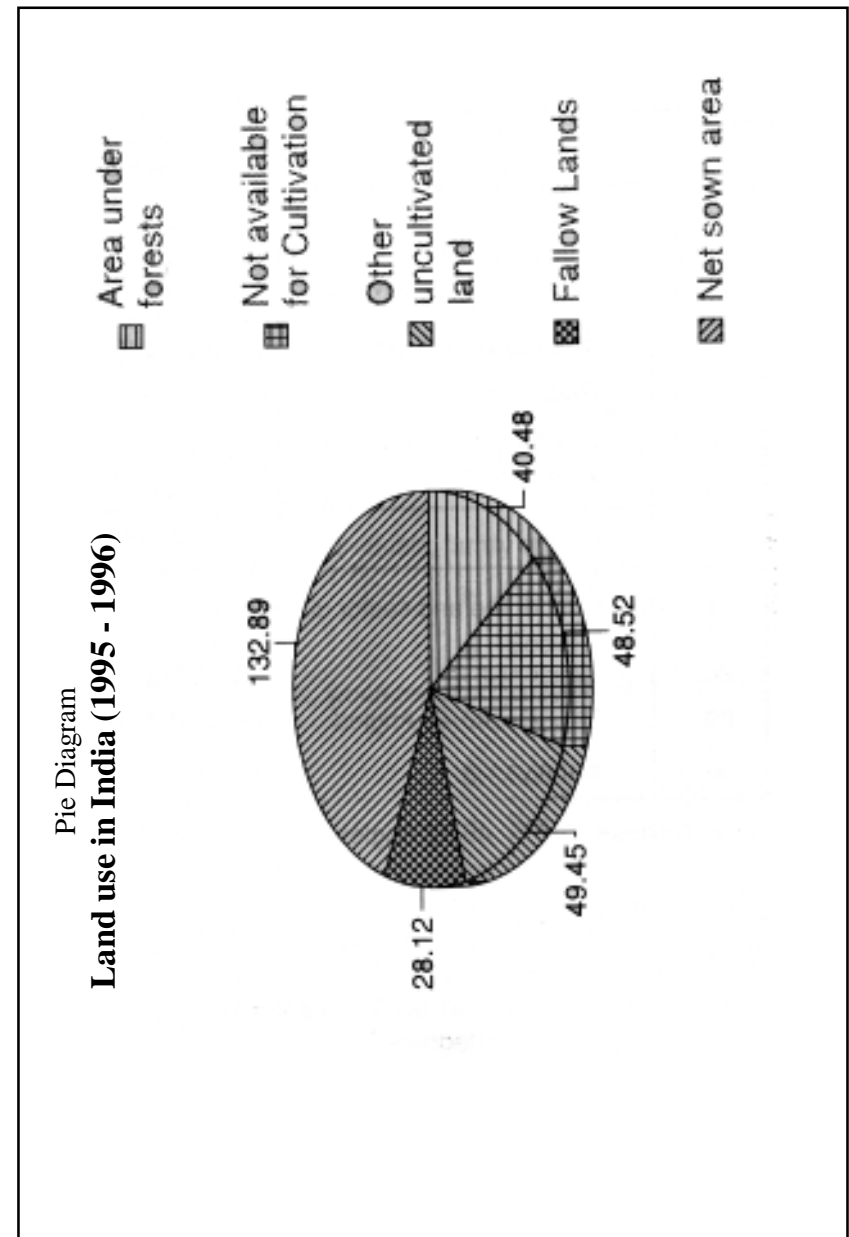
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Pie Diagram
Land use in India (1995 - 1996)

Fig. 10.4

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PIE DIAGRAM

Land Use in India (1995 – 1996)

S.No.	Land Use Categories	Area in `0000 Hectares
1	Area under forests	40.48
2.	Not available for cultivation	48.52
3	Other uncultivated land	49.45
4	Fallow lands	28.12
5	Net sown area	132.89
	Total	**397.46**

The angles computed for the and sector diagram.

Total Area under
forests   = 40.48 Angles   = 40.48 x 360/397.46

Area not available
for cultivation   = 48.52 Angles   = 48.52 x 360/397.46

Other uncultivated
waste   = 49.45 Angles   = 49.45 x 360/397.46

Fallow Land   = 28.12 Angles   = 28.12 x 360/397.46

Net sown area   = 132.89 Angles   = 132.89 x 360/397.46

Thus these can be easily plotted on a circle and different shades or colours can be used to show different category of land uses.

Self-Evaluation

I. Choose the correct answer

1. Data pertaining to individuals, family and village/town:

   a. Spatial data   b. Economic data

   c. Cultural data   d. Social data

2. Geographical data, when required, collected through visits to area of interest

   a. Field work   b. Schedule of questions

   c. Graphs   d. Secondary

3. That which is used in the interview of a person

   a. Proverb   b. Schedule

   c. Pictures   d. Field work

4. Data collected either directly or through interview

   a. Samples   b. Schedule

   c. flow maps   d. primary data

5. The maps that helps us understand the flows between places

   a. Schedule   c. Flow Map

   b. Graph   d. Samples

II. Fill in the blanks

1. Spatial data are collected on the basis of _____.

2. The data drawn from the Census are _____.

3. _____ maps give fairly exact information regarding distribution pattern.

4. A single series of values connected by one line is known as _____

5. In the Pie or wheel diagrams, the circle is divided in to _____

III. Match the following

1. Spatial   --   Flow map

2. Social data   --   Graphical representation

3. Schedule   --   India's physiography

4. Bar diagram   --   Interview

5. Transport of people --   Census / Samples

IV. Answer briefly

1. What are spatial data?

2. Define dot map.

3. What are one dimentional diagrams?

4. Write a short note on line graph.

5. Write a short note on any one of the distribution map.

V. Answer in detail

1. Write elaborately about the collection of data.

2. Write about diagrams that could be drawn using the data collected.

3. Write an account on the collection of various sources of geographical data

4. Describe about the Pie-diagram with suitable example.

VI. Practical exercises

1. Visit a place near your place of living or school and collect data about the people's social status there.

2. Prepare a dot map for the distribution of population India and comment on this.

3. Draw a bar diagram and explain.

4. Represent the population density by means of graph.

UNIT XI: FIELDWORK

Lesson 11

FIELDWORK: CONCEPT AND PRACTICE

Learning Objective

1. To learn about the concepts and practices in fieldwork

2. To learn to prepare interview schedules.

3. To learn how to select samples using sampling procedures.

4. To learn to choose area sampling and to conduct pilot surveys

5. To learn to select key informants for a survey.

For those who are geographers, *'areal differentiation'* is the basic idea of geography. On this basis, there are means to learn both physical and human geography. In this effort, fieldwork would help very much is what we learn in this chapter. Fieldwork is important to geography because it contributes so fundamentally to geographical research and to our basic understanding of the Earth's surface.

To understand geography or do geographic of research, one must consult primary sources. In this respect, geographers certainly make use of some of the same primary sources as researchers in other fields do. Geographers doing research spend much time in the archives looking at original documents like census manuscripts. Geography, however, has another primary source that is quite different from those used in other fields; this, of course, is the natural landscape. The landscape is the primary source of the geographer, whether he or she is a physical, cultural, or economic geographer. It can be rural or urban. It contains all of the essential facts of geography and, many would say, the means of explaining those facts.

Again, doing fieldwork is not complicated, provided you do a few things consistently, and this is regardless of your specific subject:

1. Be curious and observant:

   ➢ you must want to do fieldwork, and you must keep your eyes open.

2. Take clear, organized notes:

   ➢ fieldwork is just sightseeing unless you can use the information later.

3. Pay careful attention to your location, making good use of maps:

   ➢ no matter how detailed your observations are, they are of little value in geography if you cannot link them to a location.

   ➢ this is where maps come in handy in the field.

   ➢ making notes about a site at its location on a good map lends precision to your fieldwork.

   ➢ increasingly, you can note your location accurately by using GPS

   ➢ Global Positioning System (GPS) receivers are lightweight and portable. But this instrument is expensive.

   ➢ they are also becoming quite accurate.

   ➢ better models can even record and store data for sample locations; you can later download that data directly into a Computer or GIS.

4. Be consistent

   ➢ fieldwork is literally data collection, whether it is soil or plant types or religious patterns; so consistency is important for accurate results.

The value of good fieldwork will not usually be seen in the field, but will instead show up later, when you analyze your field observations. Remember, fieldwork is data collection. Your observations are thus raw data. If you have observed things systematically and recorded these observations consistently, your analysis of the data will go smoothly. You

will also be able to do something with your data. Most basic is mapping similar observations and then interpret and explain the pattern. Finally, compare the pattern to other patterns.

Fieldwork in Geography : It is, in general, a collective of methods / techniques adopted by way of gathering primary data. These methods include mapping, sketching, observation, measurements in terms of land uses and urban morphologies and interviewing concerned individuals. But when the conditions arose favourably for using secondary data in geography, the dependence on fieldwork declined. In the midst of some geographers, fieldwork was being treated as a method of teaching only. This is primarily because of the fact that during the 1950s and the 1960s, the secondary statistics began to be used in a large measure. But there are still a number of geographers who carry out field study, believing in the efficacy of the method in research and teaching. Its importance is increasing day by day. It is being used in social surveys, while remaining the most important in the primary surveys. Through this method, the day-to-day life is keenly observed both directly and through participatory observation, and the primary data are thus collected. Field workers are now engaged in data collection for gathering information on the human behaviour and the events and activities as they occur. Their complete understanding is possible through observation, interviewing and statistical evidences. But, mostly, the field work methods / techniques would depend very much on the purpose of the study and the kind of questions the researcher is expected to answer.

In any fieldwork, there are some precautionary steps. They must be taken keeping in view the following:

1. Purpose and nature of conduct of fieldwork.

2. Welfare and health of the participants in the fieldwork.

3. Intimation and Information to parents, school or administrative authorities.

4. Conservation of fieldwork sites.

5. Rapport with the people towards gaining their confidence and co-operation.

Learning from fieldwork may be considered as a *'classroom without walls'.* In the briefing of boys and girls to be involved in field work, how the classrooms without walls can be fun and can create a happy occasion for learning must be elaborated. There are three major activities in fieldwork. They are:

1. Planning the Fieldwork.

2. Conducting the Fieldwork.

3. Documenting what is gathered from Fieldwork.

Fieldwork needs to be conducted step by step. The following six steps may be taken in the completion of fieldwork:

1. Making a list of activities to be carried out, depending on the purpose of the fieldwork.

2. Pre-planning of the fieldwork.

3. Making arrangements for travel and stay at the fieldwork location.

4. Collecting materials and instruments in respect of fieldwork.

5. Choosing correct methods of analysis of data, if primary data are to be collected from the fieldwork.

6. Travel to fieldwork site and conduct of fieldwork.

In some fieldwork exercises, there is no need for analytical methods. It is because such fieldwork may be carried out following mainly the first of the following activities:

1. Observation

2. Interview

3. Participation

4. Data Processing

5. Interpretation

There is no hard rule for the fieldwork to follow the activities above. In fact, all fieldwork relevant to the students in the school may be conducted with any one of the above as the most basic activity, depending on the time available to them.

Fieldwork exercises using interview as the basic method of data collection can help with the interpretation of collected materials. It is possible to collect information through interviews without having to follow participatory methods. The data collected through participatory methods may be textual or verbal data rather than statistical data. As textual or verbal data cannot be subjected to quantitative analysis, they are amenable to direct use in interpretations. There are professionals who take the essence of such materials for anlaysis and interpretation. In all fieldwork, ***interpretation / explanation*** is the final activity. Every one of the students participating in a fieldwork learns some general explanations to the phenomena observed.

TYPES OF SPATIAL SAMPLING

Exploratory sampling is, as the name implies, used in those cases where next to nothing is known of a particular phenomenon or area. In effect, it is a first attempt to learn something. For example, let us say you are employed by a rural development agency to find out how many homes in a remote impoverished area lack indoor plumbing. One way of carrying out an exploratory survey might be to go around and locate those houses with no plumbing. While the fieldworker is at it, she or he might even get creative and gather additional data. Exploratory sampling allows researchers to produce maps of things not previously documented. These maps may be crude, but crude is better than nothing, and it can lead to better things.

Reconnaissance sampling is carried out in areas where some information exists, but more is needed. It is usually more systematic than exploratory sampling, and attempts to cover as much area as possible in a brief period at minimal cost. A classic example of this kind of sampling involved the founder of this department, Donald D. Brand, and his mentor, Carl O. Sauer. In the late 1920s they were looking for archaeological sites in northwestern Mexico. They knew, on the basis of exploratory surveys by earlier archaeologists, that sites existed in the

area, but nothing more. Sauer and Brand wanted to refine knowledge. According to Brand they drove a Model A Ford which broke down frequently. When the car would fail, Sauer would shout "Brand, fix the car!" and then climb the nearest hill. Once he heard the car start, Sauer would descend the hill with a set of notes about the site on the hill. All their sites correlate with breakdowns.

Extensive sampling involves enough existing background data to formulate a comprehensive research design. Extensive sampling provides generalizations about large areas. For example, extensive sampling of vegetation might reveal regional patterns (for example pine forests, grasslands).

Intensive sampling provides more detail about small areas. Using vegetation as an example once again, intensive sampling would reveal individual site variations in numerous locales (for example details about the forest-prarie ecotone).

SAMPLING UNITS

Point sampling involves selecting specific "points" at which to collect specific data. Information about those points can then be used to say something about a phenomena over a broader area. For instance, how might one learn something about soils on a particular plot of land? One way might be to select several points from the plot and collect soil cores at these points. Differences and/or similarites from one point to another can then be discussed.

Area sampling involves collecting data from small areas in order to say something about larger areas. There are two types-**fixed** and **variable**. In **fixed area samples,** the size and the shape of the sample areas remain constant. These are usually circles demarcated by a cord of a specified length (radius), or squares delineated by cords with knots at corner points, or small frames. The sizes of the sample areas changes with the **grain** and the **density** of the phenomenon under investigation. For example, studies of grasslands (fine-grained and dense vegetation) can be conducted using sample areas as small as one meter square. Studies of forests (coarse-grained and sparse) need larger areas as some individual trees may encompass one meter themselves.

One method used for determining sample area size is the *Phenomena-Area Curve.* Using this method, field workers create a graph with area as the x-axis, and the number of phenomena being the y-axis. The number of items found in a 1 m quadrant are plotted on the graph. The number of items in areas measuring 1 x 2 m, 2 x 2 m, 2 x 4 m, and so on are then plotted. The dots are connected and a point just before the curve becomes horizontal is selected. The location of this point on the x-axis is the ideal size of the sample area.

A variation of the fixed plot sample is called *Parcelle Mapping.* This strategy involves covering the entire region with a grid. The individual grids are uniform in size and shape and determined by the method just outlined. Sampling can involve any of a number of selection processes, but essentially, some grids are studied and others are not.

Some area samples use areas of *variable* size and shape. Such samples are not unusual in urban and agricultural studies, for example, where city blocks and individual fields are not of uniform dimensions. Not infrequently, variable sample areas are called "releves" or "ocular plots."

Linear sampling is literally nothing more than establishing a transect across the landscape, not unlike a baseline. This can be done in the office on a map or aerial photograph and then followed in the field. Data of one type (e.g., crops) or several types (for example physical and cultural) are recorded in reference to stations along this line. Some linear samples involve "belts" rather than lines. Others involve areas along the line, not unlike a combination of linear sampling and Parcelle mapping. Yet others involve points on the line. In those cases where areas or points along a line are used, these areas or points are predetermined before going into the field.

Plotless sampling is a fourth type of sampling unit. It is rather complicated and time-consuming, and, to be frank, if not biased, not worth the trouble. Almost every type of geographical phenomena can be accurately evaluated using either point, area, or linear sampling units.

SPATIAL SAMPLING DESIGN

In addition to considering the type of sample to be used, fieldworkers must understand the theoretical basis of sampling design. There are three basic approaches to designing samples.

Hierarchical sampling involves collecting data from several levels—for example, block, subdivision, city, county, state and country. It allows for understanding a phenomenon at several scales.

Random sampling is especially important if statistical analyses will be used once the data are collected. However, it runs the risk of not providing uniform regional coverage. For example, some small but very important information can get overlooked. There are well-accepted strategies for selecting sampling locales randomly. In some cases, however, fieldworkers "arbitrarily" or "intuitively" choose sampling sites.

Systematic sampling involves establishing sample points at regular intervals. For example, a fieldworker may elect to assess some phenomenon on the basis of its occurrence or absence at the intersection of all township and range lines. The greatest problem with this approach is that sample points are uniformly distributed and if the phenomenon under investigation occurs regularly, then all or none of the phenomenon might be included.

Stratified random sampling is the best of all possible approaches. In essence, it combines random and systematic sampling. Typically, the region under study is overlaid with a grid for which coordinates are established. One point, defined by these coordinates, is randomly selected from each grid, thereby resulting in reasonably uniform sample coverage.

One Last Word : There are no hard and fast rules to sampling. The world is simply too complex and varied for any set strategies to work. Field workers have to exercise good judgement. Standard or commonly accepted approaches can be used, but more often than not they will have to be *"adjusted"* for local conditions, circumstances, and situations. Topics discussed above should be considered as *guidelines.*

Designing Schedule of Questions or Questionnaire Designing of a schedule of questions or a questionnaire is a complex activity. There are several steps and considerations that a questionnaire design demands. The following are the major steps and they are simple enough to be followed in designing and developing a questionnaire.

1. Micro Issues - Item Design
   a. General rules
   b. Non-threatening questions
   c. Threatening questions
   d. Knowledge questions

2. General Rules for Question Wording
   a. Keep language simple
   b. Keep questions short
   c. Avoid **"double-barrelled"** questions
   d. Avoid leading questions
   e. Avoid implicit assumptions
   f. Be careful when using ambiguous words/phrases.

3. Threatening vs. Non-threatening Questions
   a. What is a threatening question?
   b. Two types of threat:
      i. socially desirable questions
      ii. socially undesirable questions
   c. The main problem with non-threatening questions is memory

4. Asking Non-Threatening Questions
   a. Use aided recall procedures
   b. Make question as specific as possible
   c. Time period should relate to saliency of topic

5. Asking Threatening Questions
   a. Randomized response methodology
   b. Deliberately load the question
   c. Use a long time frame
   d. Embed the question.

6. Asking Socially Desirable Questions

   a. The casual approach

   b. Reasons why not

   c. Short time frame

   d. Controlling for overstatement with a *"ringer"*

7. Asking Knowledge Questions

   a. Why do marketers ask knowledge questions?

   b. An example - 1977 survey on the metric system

   c. The difficulty hierarchy

      i. Awareness

      ii. Dichotomous or multiple choice

      iii. Detailed questions

      iv. Numerical questions

Data Collection : All methods of data collection used in geography are special. In the collection of geographical data, fieldwork is an important activity. It is a method in which the data required for a specific purpose are collected by directly visiting the area and through careful inquiries. In the collection of data through fieldwork, three simple methods may be followed. They are:

1. Observed data;

2. Interview data; and

3. Schedule or questionnaire based data.

Observed Data : It is not easy to understand the earth features. For there are several features. What of these should we see? Which should be researched? And how do we gather the characteristics of the observed; how do we use them where we want them and in a way useful to the people? The data we collect through observation should be able to answer these questions well. It is common knowledge that the ability one shows by being a person who collects data for the first time and that of another who have great experience in doing it several times is very different. Therefore, the data collected by the students in the

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school will be as good as they have been in such field work: with experience, the data become expertise oriented.

Interview Data : Interview is a method by which data required for a specific purpose may be collected. We should prepare a few questions about the phenomenon we want to learn about. We should ask these questions with reference to a context and such answers may then be treated as collected data. When we interview a person to understand something, there is need to follow some rules. One particular rule is that we should carefully listen to the answer somebody gives to a question we have asked that person. It is nice to be listening and tolerant of one's views. In our country, *'understanding by carefully listening'* was an old practice. Proverbs, ballads, epics (puranas) and stories are vital means of 'information' (processed data). But, in geography, these methods are not commonly used. At present however some geographers have realised the importance of these as methods of data collection and information gathering. They are using them increasingly as well.

Schedule or Questionnaire Data : It is a special practice to prepare a schedule of questions or a questionnaire for interviewing a person. As such, the set of questions prepared are of two types:

1. A set of questions prepared by the interviewer and is asked by the interviewer during an interview is the first kind. It is a set of questions administered by the interviewer in the interview.

2. A set of questions prepared by the interviewer and is given to the person being interviewed and filled in by the interviewee: the person giving interview.

In either case, data can be gathered and then analysed. The two are being used in geography, especially in field work research. There is a third kind as well. Some researchers have prepared such schedules of questions or questionnaires, evaluated them and then standardised them as well.

Samples : Fundamental to the collection of data are the samples. If we have to collect data on the cultural aspects of the society around us, it is impossible to meet all the people and collect the data we

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require. It is however easy to select some of them and then understand the cultural characteristics of the people around us. The select people who provide us the data are indeed the samples. It is important to carefully select our samples, especially when we are in need of data of specific kind. The data we gather may be classified as those belonging two categories. They are:

1. Primary data; and

2. Secondary data.

1. Primary Data : It is a type of data gathered from a select geographical sample. If you need data on the environments you are living in, then you may prepare a schedule of questions, select an adequate number of samples and collect information by asking them to answer the questions. These data may then be analysed and interpreted for understanding the local phenomena.

2. Secondary Data : These data are generally gathered from books, reports and other documentary sources. This type of data includes material on the environment from libraries, office files, reports and other releases from organisations concerned with them. Such data may also be gathered from the Census tracts.

Learning Outcome

1. Students learn the ability to design and conduct fieldwork for a specific purpose.

2. Students learn the art of preparing interview schedules and questionnaires.

3. Students learn the ability to select individuals, households and groups as samples for surveys, using sampling procedures.

4. Students learn to select an area sample for study.

5. Students learn to conduct pilot surveys and final surveys, including interviews with key informants.

Self-Evaluation

I. Choose the correct answer

1. The intent of fieldwork now-a-days is to study this particular human aspect:

   a. Behaviour   b. Mapping

   c. Sketching   d. Story telling.

2. When we are in need of data of specific kind, we collect them from:

   a. Household   b. Individual

   c. Sample   d. Friend.

3. The data we collect through 'it' should be able to answer our questions about area well.

   a. Observation   b. Interview

   c. Schedule   d. Dialogue.

4. The select people who provide us with data are collectively called:

   a. Samples   b. Observers

   c. Spectators   d. Listeners

II. Fill in the blanks

1. A list of questions put on a _____ is used in fieldwork to collect data.

2. In the collection of data, _____ is an important activity.

3. Fieldwork is a _____ of methods for collecting data.

4. _____ is one of the activities carried out in fieldwork.

III. Match the following

1. Interview   – a select number of people chosen from a population
2. Primary data   – a set of questions formulated for a survey
3. Sample   – Processed data
4. Schedule   – Data collected from a geographical sample
5. Information   – Meeting with an individual for collecting information

IV. Answer briefly

1. What are the three important activities in the preparation and conduct of fieldwork?
2. What are the methods followed in fieldwork?
3. Name any three of the precautionary steps in fieldwork.
4. Write a note on any one of the six steps in fieldwork.
5. Data collection - Discuss.

V. Answer in detail

1. Describe the geographical characteristics of fieldwork.
2. What are the preparatory activities for fieldwork?
3. For what purposes and how do we carry out fieldwork?
4. What are the practices followed in fieldwork?
5. What is a sample? How is it chosen?

VI. Practical exercises

1. Prepare a simple schedule of questions, with coverage for personal, household, socio-economic and cultural data and pilot test the schedule in your village / neighbourhood.

Lesson 12

RAPID AND PARTICIPATORY APPRAISALS

Learning Objective

1. To learn and appreciate the battery of methods known collectively as the participatory methodologies.

2. To learn some methods of rapid and participatory appraisals for fields such as natural resources management.

Two closely related families of approaches and methods have emerged with the evolution and practice of participatory approaches to rural development: rapid rural appraisal (RRA), which developed and spread especially in the 1980s; and its further evolution into participatory rural appraisal (PRA), which has developed and spread quickly in the 1990s. In RRA, information is more elicited and extracted by outsiders; in PRA it is more shared and owned by local people.

PRA is a family of approaches and methods to enable rural people to share, enhance, and analyse their knowledge of life and conditions, to plan and to act and to monitor and evaluate. The basis of PRA has been derived from practice and that which had been found to work, rather than from *a priori* principles. PRA has three foundations:

1. the behaviour and attitudes of outsiders, who facilitate, not dominate;

2. the methods, which shift the normal balance from closed to open, from individual to group, from verbal to visual, and from measuring to comparing

3. partnership and sharing of information, experience, food and training, between insiders and outsiders, and between organisations.

Most applications of PRA have one of three purposes:

(a) topic investigations and research (mainly RRA);

(b) training and orientations for outsiders and local people; and

(c) as an empowering process of appraisal, analysis, planning, action, monitoring and evaluation (PRA).

Participatory methods have been practically applied in natural resource management programmes or women and the poor, agriculture, health and food security. Evidence shows high validity and reliability.

This chapter presents materials on rapid and participatory methods from a study made in Sillamarathupatti village of the Kambam Valley in Theni district. The study has been made on Water Supply, Sanitation and Health and hence the examples in the chapter refer to aspects of this study.

Participant Observation : Participant observation is "*a specific form of field research in which the researcher participates as an actor in the events under study.*" Unstructured observations provide qualitative data, and thus are helpful to understand behaviours in their physical and social context and to understand relations between behaviours. Social norms are significant by confounding or interacting with water and sanitation factors, thereby introducing further complexity in observations. Participant observations are used to understand the socio-cultural context within which the people of the village live.

Observation, for example, is not limited to water supply and environmental sanitation, if that is what he / she is interested in. The researcher openly shares in the life and activities of the people for the duration of the study. Experiences and daily reflections are recorded in a journal. The journal helps the researcher to enhance self-awareness and reflect upon issues in the current context and stage of research. According to Robert Chambers, direct observation can be most effective if combined with self-critical awareness of what we tend to see and not see, resulting from our own specialised education and interests and consciously trying to correct for these. Participant observation also helps in developing research questions and clarifying research methods.

Community Mapping : Community mapping is a good place to begin participatory research because the exercise initiates dialogue among

participants and researcher. The maps also serve as a visualization of the conditions in the community. Participatory mapping is crucial to PRA. Both during a mapping exercise and afterwards, discussions can reveal important information about the lives and living conditions of the villagers. Mapping can be used to learn about the community's situation regarding, say, water supply and sanitation facilities (traditional as well as those provided by specific projects) and access to these facilities by the poor, rich, and middle-income households.

Community mapping based on village streets and colonies can be used to obtain information on research objectives. Community mapping provides an opportunity to engage in dialogue with a variety of people, gains an introductory understanding of the local water supply and sanitation situation and encourages discussion among villagers. Between six and thirty people, including men, women and children, may participate in each of the mapping exercises conducted for each of the several streets, SC Colonies and the Backward Caste (BC) Colonies. The participants determine the boundaries and map contents in discussion with the researcher and assistants, including infrastructure (roads, houses, buildings, drainage canals, latrines, waste disposal areas and water sources), health and education facilities and *Kovils* (Temples). The maps are generally drawn freehand with pencils on chart paper. The maps serve as the basis for conducting transects and aids in the direction of informal interviews and the development of questions for the semi-structured questionnaire.

Transect Walks : Transect walks help to learn about selected areas from local people. Transects can help identify aspects of an area that require greater attention and detailed discussion with villagers. Experts suggest that transect walks can be used to determine to what extent a well-sustained water and sanitation service is present in the community and to cross-check some of the information on the community map(s). Additionally, transects can provide information about the differences in the levels of service and sanitation among different areas in the community. It is possible that a large amount of information can be collected if the observers are sensitive, experienced, keenly observant and do not anticipate the answers to questions.

Transects are based on the same streets and colonies as the community mapping exercises. Transects involve systematically walking down streets and through colonies with select community members and engaging in discussion. The walks help to learn more about the features drawn on the maps. They do generate further discussion and determine additional information, including the condition of water supply and sanitation facilities, water collection methods, household waste disposal, childcare, animal care (cows and goats) and the sanitary state of the environment (faecal contamination, solid waste, stagnant drains and water). Transects increase familiarity with the physical and social organisation of the village and the existing water supply and environmental sanitation situation.

Informal Interviews : Informal interviews are, in a sense, conversations that are spontaneous discussions with individuals and groups of people based on the research focus. Qualitative interviewing design is flexible, iterative and continuous. Therefore, questioning is redesigned throughout the research process. Informal conversations are particularly useful in combination with unstructured observations because they allow for immediate discussion, thus increasing the researcher's understanding of the lives of people and their behaviours.

Informal interviews are conducted with men, women and children from different castes and classes throughout the research process; however, not all of the conversations are recorded. Individual (women and men) and group informal interviews (both men and women) can be organised and can be recorded. The interviews are an opportunity to discuss water supply and environmental sanitation activities *(for example:* water collection, household water use, solid and liquid waste disposal). They initiate and enhance communication with women, men and members of different community groups and elicit information related to study objectives. The interviews help to develop and clarify the discussion topics for the other PRA methods and the questions for the semi-structured interviews and questionnaire.

Story With a Gap : Story with a gap uses before and after images of a problem situation to allow all individuals an opportunity to participate in a dialogue. Pictures or drawings are easy tools to encourage expression, to generate discussion, exchange views and experience and to provide interpretations to subjects of interest. Story with a gap is used to learn about women and men's perceptions and understanding about the relationship between health, water supply and environmental sanitation. The method involves two images, one of an unsanitary village environment and another of a sanitary village environment. The story with a gap is conducted with several men and women household heads of various ages, castes and classes in order to get a range of images and views. The original plan is to tell the story prepared for one image and then show another image asking for the participants' opinions of how the village environment has changed over two years. The participants are also asked to describe both image one and image two. Men and women are eager to tell their own story for both the images. Women may be told the prepared story because they may be reluctant to tell their own story for the image one and they may then be encouraged to tell their own story looking at the image two.

Semi-structured Interviews : Semi-structured interviews are interviews guided by a list of questions posed in the exact wording and order as they have been written. Semi-structured interviews are used to ask specific questions about the village water supply and sanitation of a limited number of people. The questions are based on the information obtained from participant observation, informal interviews, community mapping and transects. Semi-structured interviews are conducted with select people such as the former Panchayat president, the current Panchayat president, the electrician of the water pumping station and the electrician of the another water pumping station. The interviews are then used to gather information on the objectives and to clarify some of the conflicting and uncertain information obtained from villagers through other research methods.

RESEARCH APPROACHES AND METHODS

Here is a summary of methods discussed for reference

Participant Observation

- understanding of socio-cultural context; acceptance into the village; sharing in people's lives and activities; basic conversational Tamil; enrich the data collected.

Community Mapping

- initiates communication with a diversity of people; introduces the research; encourages discussion within community

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groups; community interpretation of village water supply and sanitation; foundation for transects; understanding of gender relations.

Transect Walks

- expands on community mapping information; strengthens communication and relations with villagers; introduces the research; helps establish questions for the semi-structured interviews and semi-structured questionnaire.

Informal Interviews

- initiates communication with villagers; encouraged discussion between villagers; development, expansion and clarification of research methods and questions.

Semi-structured Interviews

- expands and confirms the data collected from villagers.

Story with a Gap

- information on women's and men's perceptions on unsanitary vs. sanitary environment and the relationship to health; understanding of gender relations.

Semi-structured Questionnaire

- qualitative and quantitative data complemented and expanded on the data collected from other methods.

Semi-structured Questionnaire : Questionnaires can be used for descriptive, explanatory and exploratory purposes and for measuring attitudes and perceptions in a large population. However, there are a number of limitations when questionnaires are used as the sole instrument for research, specifically in studies relating to socio-cultural factors, whereby qualitative information can improve the effectiveness of questionnaires. Therefore, questions for the semi-structured questionnaire are developed through participant observations, community mapping, transect walks, story with a gap and informal interviews. This helps to reduce the bias in the questions, provide a focus on issues of concern and act to confirm, complement and expand data collected from other methods.

The questionnaire is based on a systematic sample, whereby every k^{th} element *(that is,* household) in the total list *(that is,* total households) is chosen for inclusion in the sample. An approximate sampling interval of every tenth house on any one street of the main village, in one of the SC Colony and in another of the BC Colony can be conducted. The sample may comprise of, for example, 3.5 percent of the households (say 57 out of 1614 households) in the village. The man and woman heads of each household can be interviewed separately.

Household heads are defined as the married family members who are chiefly responsible for the welfare of the household. A systematic sample must be used to ensure that data are collected from diverse people and from different areas in the village. The questionnaire can be used to obtain qualitative and quantitative information on the study objectives. The questionnaire must however be pilot-tested with some individuals and changes must be made to the number and types of questions asked on the final questionnaire.

As you are by now aware the chapter has introduced a battery of methods that could be considered as being rapid and participatory. It is rapid because the data collection is done very quickly. It is not necessary to collect information rapidly, in all contexts. We may therefore adopt a *relaxed* collection of data as well, taking time. It is participatory because, in all the methods discussed here, people's participation and involvement with a commitment is necessary. Unless they participate wholeheartedly, the data collected cannot be worthy of the study for which it is collected. Participation makes the data worthy and reliable. And Participatory Rural Appraisal need not always be construed as rural appraisal, but the 'Rural' in the middle of the phrase can be replaced with 'Rapid' or 'Relaxed' just as easily.

Learning Outcome

1. Students acquire the ability to carry out rapid and participatory appraisal methods for purposes set forth by them for their study.

2. Students learn and appreciate and also conduct various means of rapid and participatory appraisals.

I. Choose the correct answer

1. The design that is flexible, iterative and continuous is:

   a. Quantitative
   b. Qualitative
   c. Rapid
   d. Participatory

2. Who determines the boundaries and map contents:

   a. Researcher
   b. Assistants
   c. Participants
   d. Outsiders

3. The interviews are an opportunity to discuss:

   a. Problems
   b. Priorities
   c. Strategies
   d. All the three

4. Pictures or drawings are easy tools to encourage:

   a. Expression
   b. Communication
   c. Dialogue
   d. Assessment.

5. This method requires that people take a walk along a path while making some assessments:

   a. story with a gap
   b. interview
   c. transect
   d. informal interview.

II. Fill-in the blanks

1. Participant observation also helps in developing _____ questions.

2. Community mapping is a good place to begin _____ research.

3. Story with a gap uses before and after _____ of a problem situation.

4. Informal interviews are in a sense _____ that are spontaneous discussions.

III. Match the following

1. Participant observation -- helps establish questions

2. Community mapping -- initiates communication with villagers

3. Transect walk -- understanding of gender relations

4. Informal interviews -- socio-cultural context

5. Story with a gap -- foundation for transects

IV. Answer briefly

1. What is 'rapid' in rapid appraisal?

2. What is community mapping?

3. What is the purpose of a transect walk?

4. What are the advantages of a semi-structured interview?

5. Why are questionnaires used in a study?

V. Answer in detail

1. What are the means of selecting questions for interviews, in a participatory context?

2. Define head of households for a questionnaire-based survey?

3. Discuss Participatory Rural Appraisal as a collective of methods, giving reasons why.

4. How important is transect walk as a method of data collection, in a participatory mode?

5. Story with a gap - Discuss it as an innovative method of data collection.

VI. Practical exercises

1. Students collectively select two of the methods discussed here and conduct a participatory appraisal of poverty of a nearby community or village.

2. Teachers help students design and develop a simple but semi-structured questionnaire for collecting information on the sanitation of the local area or the village.