GOVERNMENT OF TAMIL NADU

STANDARD TEN

SOCIAL SCIENCE

Vol- I

Department of School Education

Untouchability is Inhuman and a Crime

Content Creation

Printing & Publishing

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Learning Objectives

The scope of the lesson is presented

Introduction

The subject to be discussed in the lesson is Introduced

QR Code

Leads the students to animated audio,
video aids for getting experiential learning

Do You Know?

Provides additional information related to the
subject in boxes to stir up the curiosity of students

Infographs

Visual representations intended to make the complex simple and
make the students grasp difficult concepts easily

Fun with History

Activities for 'learning by doing' individually or in groups

Summary

Describes the main points briefly in bullets for recapitulation

Exercise

For self-study and self evaluation

Glossary

Key words and technical terms
explained at the end of the lesson for clarity

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List of books and net sources for further reading

ICT Corner
Using technology for learning activites, which enables
the students to access degital sources relevant to their lessons.

Let's use the QR code in the text books!

- Download DIKSHA app from the Google Play Store.
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IV

Unit - 1

Outbreak of World War I and Its Aftermath

🎯 Learning Objectives

To acquaint ourselves with

- The race for colonies leading to rivalry and clashes among the great powers of Europe
- Emergence of Japan as the strongest and most aggressive power in East Asia
- Colonialism's impact on Africa
- Causes, course and results of the First World War
- Treaty of Versailles and its provisions
- Causes, course and outcome of the Russian Revolution
- Foundation, functioning and failure of the League of Nations

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Introduction

1914 is a turning point in world history. The political and social processes that began in 1789 culminated in the First World War that broke out in that year and decisively shaped the course of the twentieth century. Historians therefore call this as 'the long nineteenth century'. This was the first industrial war that drew on the economic resources of the entire world, and also affected large sections of the civilian population. The political map of the world was redrawn. Three major empires lay shattered by the end of the War: Germany, Austria–Hungary, and the Ottomans. The biggest outcome of the War was the Russian Revolution. It was a unique event as well as the first revolution of its kind in world history. For the first time, countries tried to bring about world peace through the League of Nations. In this lesson, we discuss the circumstances leading to the outbreak of the First World War and its repercussions, including the Russian Revolution and the formation of an international peace organisation, namely the League of Nations.

1.1 Scramble for Colonies

Capitalist Countries' Race for Markets

The aim of capitalistic industry was to produce more and more. The surplus wealth thus produced was used to build more factories, railways, steamships and other such undertakings. Revolution in the means of communication and transportation in the latter half of the nineteenth century facilitated the process of European expansion in Africa and other places.

Capitalism produced huge contrasts. The contrasts were: extreme poverty and extreme wealth, slum and skyscraper, empire-state and dependent exploited colony. A striking feature of nineteenth century was that Europe emerged as the dominant power while Asia and Africa were colonized and exploited. Within Europe, England held a pre-eminent position as the world leader of capitalism. An ever-growing demand for markets and raw materials made

the capitalist powers race around the world for expanding their empire for exploitation.

Rise of Monopoly Capitalism

After 1870, the alliance of industry and finance seeking profits in markets for goods and capital, which was an essential characteristic of imperialism, became evident in the latter half of the nineteenth century. The old ideas of free trade collapsed. There were trusts in the USA and cartels in Germany. These powerful combines and corporations dominated governments.

> A trust is an industrial organisation engaged in the production or distribution of any commodity. The trust would possess adequate control over the supply and price of that commodity to its own advantage.
>
> The term cartel refers to an association based upon a contractual agreement between enterprisers in the same field of business. The objective was to exercise a monopolistic influence on the market.

Imperialism and its Essential Characteristics

Capitalism inevitably led to imperialism. According to Lenin, imperialism is the highest stage of capitalism. Besides being a market for surplus goods, colonies served another purpose. Large-scale mass production needed vast supplies of raw materials. Rubber, oil, nitrates, sugar, cotton, tropical foodstuffs, mineral, etc., were raw materials which were necessary to monopoly capitalists everywhere. The need to control the sources of raw materials inevitably led to imperialism. Imperialism was not just about colonies. It became a total system, the logic of which was total militarisation and total war.

1.2 Rivalry of Great Powers

Europe

In the nineteenth century, European powers had colonised many other countries. By1880, most of the Asian countries had been colonised. Only Africa was left. The occupation, division and colonisation of Africa took place from 1881 to 1914. The industrial achievements of Germany in the latter half of the nineteenth century gave her a dominating position in Europe. But when Germany came on the scene the avenues of exploitation were limited, as the world was largely occupied by the other imperialist powers. As there was nowhere else to expand, the imperialist powers tried to grab other's possession. After 1870, England, France, Belgium, Italy and Germany joined in the scramble for colonies.

Clashes amongst Great Powers

Despite the lead in industrial growth and the control of a vast empire England was not satisfied. England was in competition with Germany and the United States, which were producing cheaper manufactured goods and thus capturing England's markets. National rivalry led to frequent clashes between these great powers in Asia and Africa and Europe.

> The imperialist urge of the period is best illustrated by the following statement of Cecil Rhodes, Imperialist Prime Minister of South Africa, 'The world is nearly all parcelled out, and what there is left of it is being divided up, conquered, and colonised. To think of these stars that you see overhead at night, these vast worlds which we can never reach. I would annexe the planets if I could; I often think of that. It makes me sad to see them so clear and yet so far.'

Asia: The Rise of Japan

In Asia, Japan during this period (Meiji era from 1867 to 1912), imitating Western nations had become their equal in many respects. Though the outlook of the rulers still remained feudal, Japan took to Western education and machinery. With a modern army and navy, Japan had emerged as an advanced industrialised power. In imperialistic aggressions also Japan followed the Europe. In 1894 she forced a war on

China. The crushing defeat of China by little Japan in the Sino-Japanese War (1894-95) surprised the world. Despite the warning of the three great powers Russia, Germany and France – Japan annexed the Liaotung peninsula with Port Arthur. By this action Japan proved that it was the strongest nation of the East Asia.
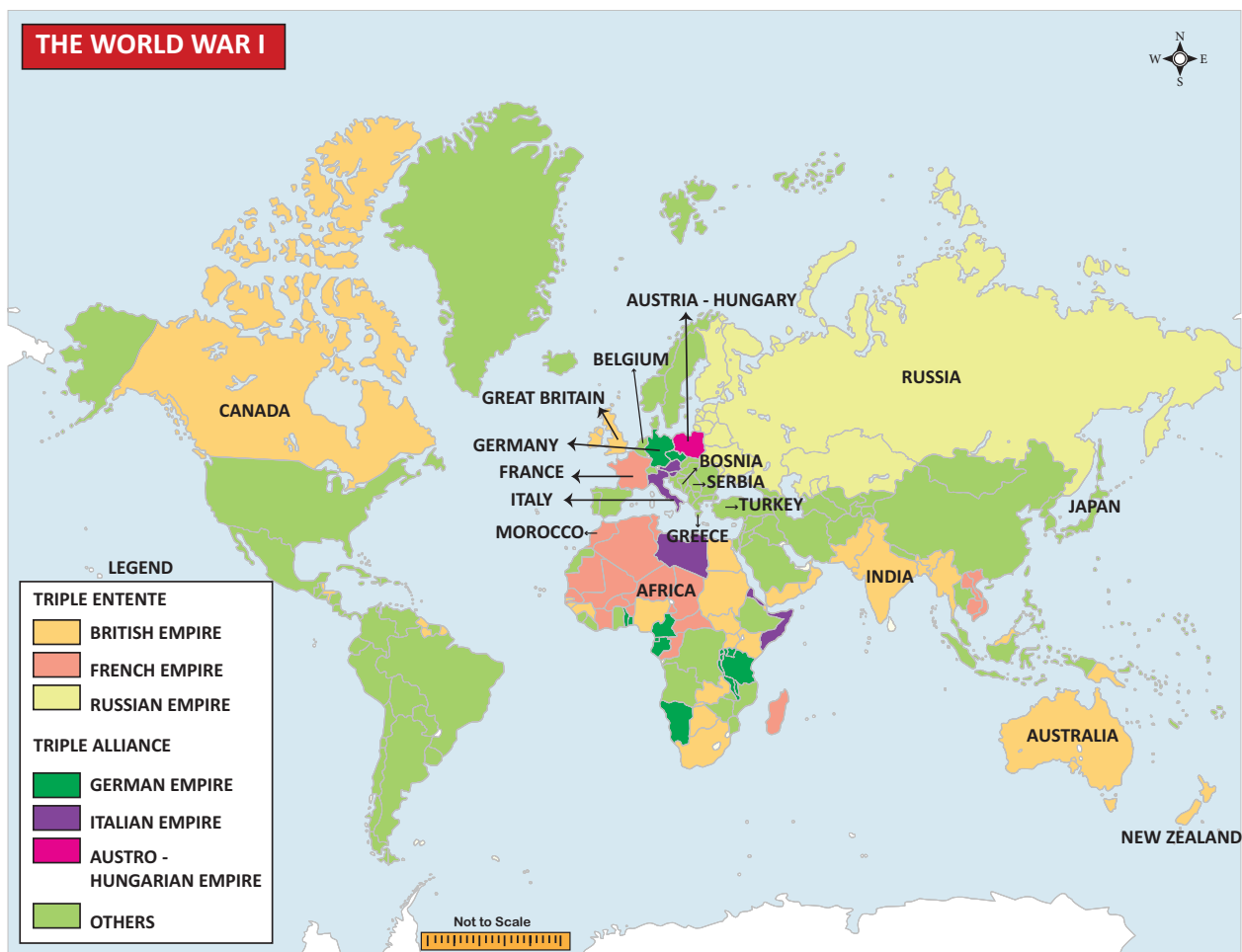
Japan, however, in view of the pressure mounted by European Powers, soon gave up its claim over Port Arthur. Russia took advantage of this and sent a large army to Manchuria. Japan entered into an alliance with England in 1902 and demanded that Russia withdraw troops from Manchuria. Russia underestimated Japan. In 1904 the war began between the two countries. In this Russo-Japanese War, Japan defeated Russia and got back Port Arthur. After this War Japan entered the "charmed circle of the great Powers".

Strong-arm Diplomacy of Japan

After 1905 Japan took control of Korean domestic and foreign policy. The assassination of a prominent Japanese diplomat provided the excuse in 1910 for Japan's annexation of Korea. The confusion in China following the downfall of the Manchu dynasty in 1912 provided Japan an opportunity for further expansion. Japan now demanded not only the transfer of German rights in Shantung to Japan and the recognition of Japanese hold over Manchuria, but the appointment of Japanese advisers to the Chinese government. This strong-arm diplomacy aroused the hostility of both China and the European Powers.

Colonisation and its Fallout

In 1876 barely 10 percent of Africa was under European rule. By 1900 practically the whole of Africa was colonised. Britain, France and Belgium had divided the

THE WORLD WAR I

AUSTRIA - HUNGARY
BELGIUM
RUSSIA
GREAT BRITAIN
CANADA
GERMANY
FRANCE
ITALY
BOSNIA
SERBIA
TURKEY
MOROCCO
GREECE
JAPAN
INDIA
AFRICA
AUSTRALIA
NEW ZEALAND

LEGEND

TRIPLE ENTENTE
- BRITISH EMPIRE
- FRENCH EMPIRE
- RUSSIAN EMPIRE

TRIPLE ALLIANCE
- GERMAN EMPIRE
- ITALIAN EMPIRE
- AUSTRO - HUNGARIAN EMPIRE
- OTHERS

Not to Scale

Outbreak of World War I and Its Aftermath

continent between them, leaving a few areas for Germany and Italy. Britain, France, Russia and Germany also established "spheres of influence" in China. Japan took over Korea and Taiwan. France conquered Indo-China. The US took the Philippines from Spain, and Britain and Russia agreed to partition Iran.

The first European attempts to carve out colonies in Africa resulted in bloody battles. The French had to fight a long and bitter war to conquer Algeria and Senegal. The British lost to the Zulus (1879) and to the Sudanese Army (1884). The Italian army suffered a devastating defeat at the hands of an Ethiopian army at Adowa (1896).

1.3 Causes, Course and Results of World War I

(a) Causes

European Alliances and Counter-Alliances

In 1900 five of the European Great Powers were divided into two armed camps. One camp consisted of the Central Powers-Germany, Austria-Hungary and Italy. Under the guidance of Bismarck, they had formed the Triple Alliance in 1882. The understanding was that Germany and Austria would help each other. The other camp consisted of France and Russia. Their alliance was formed in 1894 with the promise of mutual help if Germany attacked either of them. An isolated Britain wanted to break her isolation and approached Germany twice but in vain. As Japan was increasingly hostile towards Russia, as France was the ally of Russia, it preferred to ally with Britain (1902). The Anglo-Japanese Alliance prompted France to seek an alliance with Britain to resolve colonial disputes over Morocco and Egypt. This resulted in the Entente Cordiale (1904). In return for letting the French have a free hand in Morocco, France agreed to recognize the British occupation of Egypt. Britain subsequently reached an agreement with Russia over Persia,

Afghanistan and Tibet. Thus was formed the Triple Entente of Britain, France and Russia.

Violent Forms of Nationalism

With the growth of nationalism, the attitude of "my country right or wrong I support it" developed. The love for one country demanded hatred for another country. England's jingoism, France's chauvinism and Germany's Kultur were militant forms of nationalism, contributing decisively to the outbreak of War.

Aggressive Attitude of German Emperor

Emperor Kaiser Wilhelm II of Germany was ruthlessly assertive and aggressive. The Kaiser proclaimed that Germany would be the leader of the world. The German navy was expanded. The sea being

Kaiser Wilhelm II

considered a preserve of England ever since Napoleon's defeat at Trafalgar (1805), Germany's aggressive diplomacy and rapid building of naval bases convinced Britain that a German navy could be directed only against her. Therefore, Britain embarked on a naval race, which heightened the tension between the two powers.

Hostility of France towards Germany

France and Germany were old rivals. Bitter memories of the defeat of 1871 and loss of Alsace and Lorraine to Germany rankled in the minds of the French. German interference in Morocco added to the bitterness. The British agreement with France over Morocco was not consented by Germany. So Kaiser Wilhelm II intentionally recognised the independence of the Sultan and demanded an international conference to decide on the future of Morocco.

Imperial Power Politics in the Balkans

The Young Turk Revolution of 1908, an attempt at creating a strong and modern government in Turkey, provided both Austria and Russia with the opportunity to resume their activities in the Balkans. Austria and Russia met and agreed that Austria should annexe Bosnia and Herzegovina, while Russia should have freedom to move her warships, through the Dardanelles and the Bosporus, to the Mediterranean. Soon after this, Austria announced the annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina. Austria's action aroused intense opposition from Serbia. Germany gave Austria firm support. Germany went to the extent of promising that if Austria invaded Serbia and in consequence Russia helped Serbia, Germany would come to Austria's assistance. The enmity between Austria and Serbia led to the outbreak of war in 1914.

The Balkan Wars

Turkey was a powerful country in the south west of Europe in the first half of eighteenth century. The Ottoman empire extended over the Balkans and across Hungary to Poland. The Empire contained many non-Turkish people in the Balkans. Both the Turks and their subjects of different nationalities in the Balkans indulged in the most frightful massacres and atrocities. The Armenian genocide is a frightful example.

Taking advantage of the political and economic instability of the Turkish Empire from the second half of the eighteenth century, Greeks followed by others began to secede, one after another, from Turkish control. Macedonia had a mixed population. There were rivalries among Greece, Serbia, Bulgaria and later Montenegro for the control of it. In March 1912 they formed the Balkan League. The League attacked and defeated Turkish forces in the first Balkan War (1912–13). According to the Treaty of London signed in May 1913 the new state of Albania was created and the other Balkan states divided up Macedonia between them. Turkey was reduced to the area around Constantinople.

Treaty of Bucharest

The division of Macedonia, however, did not satisfy Bulgaria. Bulgaria attacked Serbia and Greece. But Bulgaria was easily defeated. The Second Balkan War ended with the signing of the Treaty of Bucharest in August 1913.

Immediate Cause

Franz Ferdinand

The climax to these events in the Balkans occurred in Sarajevo in Bosnia. On 28 June 1914 the Archduke Franz Ferdinand, nephew and heir to Franz Joseph, Emperor of Austria-Hungary, was assassinated by Princip, a Bosnian Serb. Austria saw in this an opportunity to eliminate Serbia as an independent state. Germany thought that it should strike first. It declared

war on Russia on 1 August. Germany had no quarrel with France, but because of the Franco-Russian Alliance, the German army which was planning a war against both France and Russia wanted to use the occasion to its advantage. The German violation of Belgian neutrality forced Britain to enter War.

(b) Course of the War
Two Warring Camps
Central Powers

The warring nations were divided into two. The Central powers consisted of Germany, Austria–Hungary, Turkey and Bulgaria. Italy which was earlier with Germany and Austria had left, as her attempt to recover Trentino in north east Italy, where Italians lived in majority but remained as part and parcel of Austria-Hungary, was not supported by Germany. Italy remained a neutral country when the War broke out. But it decided to enter the War hoping to gain the territory in the north - east. Britain, France and Italy signed the secret Treaty of London in April 1915, by which Italy agreed to enter the War against the Central Powers in return for this territory after the War.

Allies

Nine states that opposed the Central powers were: Russia, France, Britain, Italy, the United States, Belgium, Serbia, Romania and Greece. Romania and Greece declared war on the Central Powers in 1916 and 1917 respectively but played little part in the war. Most Americans wanted their country to remain neutral and so in the first three years the United States gave only moral support and valuable material aid to Britain and France.

### Tsar's Abortive Attempts for Peace

Tsar Nicholas II of Russia suggested to the Powers that they meet together to bring about an era of universal peace. In response, two Peace Conferences were held at The Hague in Holland in 1899 and 1907 but in vain. Russia fought on the side of the Allies.

War in Western or French Front

Germany steamrolled and smashed the resistance of the people of Belgium. On the side of the Allies, the burden of the fighting fell on the French army. Within a month Paris seemed almost doomed.

Battles of Tannenberg and Marne

Meanwhile Russian forces invaded East Prussia. Germany defeated them decisively. In
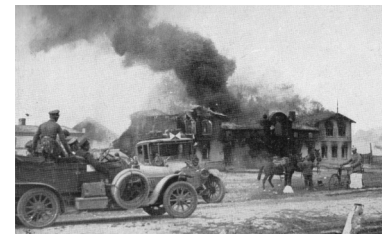
Battle of Tannenberg

the battle of Tannenberg Russia suffered heavy losses. Yet this caused distraction and helped to relieve the pressure on the western front The French army made all out efforts to drive away the invading Germans. At the Battle of the Marne (early September 1914), the French succeeded in pushing back the Germans. Paris was thus saved. The battle of Marne is a memorable for **trench warfare.**

Trench Warfare: Trenches or ditches dug by troops enabled soldiers to safely stand and

protect themselves from enemy fire. The typical trench system in World War consisted of two to four trench lines running parallel to each other. Each trench was dug in a type of zigzag so that no enemy, standing at one end, could fire for more than a few yards down its length. The main lines of trenches were connected to each other and to the rear by a series of linking trenches through which food, ammunition, fresh troops, mail, and orders were delivered. The sheer quantity of bullets and shells flying through the air in the battle conditions of First World War compelled soldiers to burrow into the soil to obtain shelter and survive.

Battle of Verdun

Between February and July 1916, the Germans attacked Verdun, the famous fortress in the French line. In the five-month Battle of Verdun two million men took part and half of them were killed. The British offensive against Germans occurred near the River Somme. In this four-month Battle of Somme Britain lost 20,000 men on the first day. The battle of Verdun, however, decided the fortunes of the War in favour of the Allies.

War in Eastern or Russian front

In the eastern front, Russian troops repeatedly defeated the Austrians. But the Russians were in turn defeated by the Germans. Russia had the worst trained and equipped army and therefore Russian losses were the greatest. In 1917, the Tsarist regime in Russia was overthrown in a revolution. Russia wanted peace and consequently it signed the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk (3 March 1918) with Germany. After this, the position of Germany became strong. It appeared as if the Allies were going to lose. However, USA came to their rescue and played the final decisive role in crushing Germany.

Minor Theatres of War
In the Middle East

Turkey also fought on the side of the central powers. Though Turkey met with initial success and the Allies suffered reverses, particularly in Mesopotamia and Gallipoli, ultimately Turkey was defeated. The Turks tried to attack Suez Canal, but were repulsed. Britain attacked Turkey in Iraq, and later in Palestine and Syria. In Arabia, taking advantage of the growing Arab nationalism a revolt was engineered by a British Agent. Britain attacked Turkey directly and tried to capture Constantinople. But the Turks put up a brave fight.

In the Far East

China also joined the allies. Japan was able to capture the province of Kiauchau given by the Germans to China in the province of Shantung. There was no war in the Far East. Japan made use of the occasion to threaten China into ceding valuable concessions and privileges.

In the Balkans

The Austro-German army in coordination with Bulgaria crushed Serbia. Serbia came under German rule. Rumania watched the course of the War and in August 1916 joined the Allies. Rumania also passed under Austro-German occupation.

Fate of Colonies of Germany in Africa

The German colonies in western and eastern Africa were also attacked by the Allies. As these colonies were quite far from Germany they could not receive any immediate help, and therefore surrendered to the Allies.

Italy falls to Austrian onslaught

Italy formally joined the Allies in the war in May 1916. Italians were fighting with the Austrians and continued to sustain their resistance. But when the Germans came to Austria's help, the Italians collapsed.

Central Powers' Victories

The Central Powers successfully occupied Belgium and a part of France in the north-east, Poland, Serbia and Romania.

The epicentre of the struggle was the western front and the seas. As the Allies controlled the sea-routes, they cut off the supply of food and other material reaching the Central Powers. In Germany and Austria women and children suffered from hunger and privation. Germany attacked England by air. Bombs were thrown on London and places where there were major factories. Later aeroplanes were used for targeting civilian population. The Germans introduced poison gas and soon both sides resorted to its use.

Naval Battles and America's Entry into the War

In 1916 a naval battle **(Battle of Jutland)** had taken place in the North Sea. The British

won the battle. Thereafter Germany started their submarine warfare and their cruisers went roaming about, interfering with the shipping of the Allies. One of these was the famous Emden, which bombarded Madras. As a counter measure to the blockade the Germans proclaimed in January 1917 that they would sink even neutral ships in certain waters. This meant that all ships in British waters, whether owned by countries involved in the War or not, would be targets for German submarines. *Lusitania*, an American ship, was torpedoed by a German submarine. There was a lot of resentment in the USA and President Wilson declared war against Germany in April 1917. America's entry with its enormous resources made Allied victory a foregone conclusion.
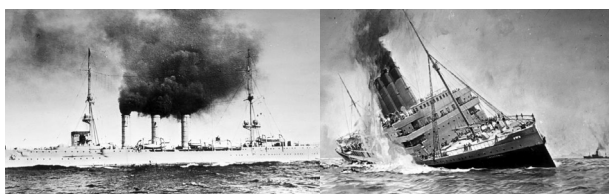
Emden   Sinking of Lusitania

German submarines were extremely effective. During March and April 1917 about six

German Submarine

hundred merchant ships were sunk.

(c) The Armistice and Treaty of Versailles

Germany ultimately surrendered in November 1918. The armistice took effect from 11 November 1918. Germany was forced to accept harsh terms by the political situation at home with the abdication of the Kaiser.

Peace Conference in Paris

Paris Peace Conference

The Peace Conference opened in Paris in January 1919, two months after the signing of the armistice. Woodrow Wilson (USA), Lloyd George (Prime Minister of England) and Clemenceau (Prime Minister of France) played a very important part in the deliberations.

A News paper Report

Faced with a threat of a renewed war, the German government was forced to agree to the terms. On 28 June, 1919 the peace treaty was signed in the Hall of Mirrors at Versailles.

Provisions of the Treaty

1. Germany was found guilty of starting the War and therefore was to pay reparations for the losses suffered. The Reparation Commission set up for deciding the compensation decided on 6,600 million pounds to be paid in instalments. All Central Powers were directed to pay war indemnity.

2. The German army was to be limited to 100,000 men. A small navy was allowed, but there were to be no submarines and no air force.

3. The union of Austria and Germany was forbidden and Germany was to acknowledge and respect the Independence of Austria.

4. Germany was forced to give up all the rights and titles over her overseas possessions to the allies. All German colonies became mandated territories under the League of Nations.

5. Germany was forced to revoke the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk (with Russia) and Bucharest (Bulgaria).

6. Alsace–Lorraine was returned to France.

7. The former Russian territories of Finland, Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania were to be independent

8. Northern Schleswig was given to Denmark and some small districts to Belgium.

9. Poland was recreated with a corridor to the Baltic containing the German port of Danzig which was to be a free city under the auspices of League of Nations.

10. The Rhineland was to be occupied by the Allies. The area on the east bank of the Rhine was to be demilitarized.

> President Wilson laid down his Fourteen Points, which were to be followed by the Allies. The most important one he highlighted was the need for 'a general association of nations for the purpose of affording mutual guarantees of political independence and territorial integrity to great and small states like'. One of his interesting points was an opportunity to Russia 'for the independent determination of her own political development and national policy, and assistance also of every kind that she may need or desire.'

Criticism of the Peace Settlement

1. The defeated powers were absent from negotiations. The peace settlement, a dictated one, was based on the principle, 'to the victor belongs the spoils and the allies are the victors'.

2. Self-determination was the principle, which was one of the fourteen points of Woodrow Wilson for restoring peace, applied to all the peoples except the German.

3. The reparation of 6,600 million pounds was beyond Germany's capacity to pay.

4. Germany was weakened, politically and economically. But instead of having the large Russian and Austro–Hungarian empires on her eastern frontier, she was now bordered by small weak and new states.

5. Wilson betrayed the Germans and Austrians to whom he had made promises. In 1920 the United States took to a policy of isolation, when the Senate refused to ratify the Treaty of Versailles. Only a greatly weakened France, with the qualified support of Britain, was left to face Germany's potential strength.

6. Italy was much disappointed at the peace settlement. Despite suffering heavily she was given merely small places such as Trieste, Istria and the south Tyrol.

7. The population of Europe was so mixed that it was impossible to draw up clear national frontiers with ethnic homogeneity. Finally, the settlement created many national minorities within states. Countries gave promises to respect the rights of minorities. But often relations turned bitter.

Separate treaties were drawn up and signed by the Allies with Austria, Hungary, Bulgaria and Turkey. The Treaty with Turkey (Treaty of Sevres), though accepted by the Sultan, failed because of the resistance of Mustafa Kemal Pasha and his followers.

Fallout of the First World War

The First World War left a deep impact on European society and polity. Through conscription, and through air raids, the War had involved and affected far more of the population than in the past. In the whole of the previous century, from the Napoleonic Wars to the Balkan Wars of 1912–1913, Europe had lost fewer than 4.5 million men. Now, at least 8 million had died in four years, while more than twice as many were wounded, and many crippled for life. Millions more had succumbed to the worldwide influenza of 1918. The outcome, in all countries, was imbalance between the sexes—a shortage of men. Soldiers came to be placed above civilians. Aggressive war propaganda and national honour occupied centre stage in the public sphere. Popular support grew in favour of dictatorship in state governance.

The War and its aftermath turned out to be a stirring period of history. The most striking of all was the rise and consolidation of the Soviet Union, the U.S.S.R or the Union of Socialist and Soviet Republics, as it was called. The United States of America escaping all the troubles the Western Europe had to suffer prospered exceedingly in the post-War years. America

entered the War as a debtor country but it emerged as the money-lender to the world in the aftermath of the War.

Another outstanding event of this period was the awakening of the colonies and their inspired attempts to gain freedom. In Asia and Africa powerful movements and in some places even rebellions against Western imperialism became order of the day.

Turkey's rebirth as a nation thanks to the role played by Mustafa Kemal Pasha was remarkable. Kemal Pasha modernised Turkey and changed it out of all recognition. He put an end to the Sultanate and the Caliphate. The support of the Soviet Union was of great help to him.

All the struggles for freedom in Asia and Africa illustrated how the new spirit abroad was affecting the minds of men and women in distant countries of the East simultaneously. The War gave a great fillip to the women's movement in the West and the East.

Impact on India

The First World War had a significant impact on India. Even though Europe was the main theatre of the War, fighting took place in others parts of the world as well. The British recruited a vast contingent of Indians to serve in Europe, Africa and West Asia. After the War, the soldiers came back with new ideas which had an impact on the Indian society. India contributed £ 230 million in cash and over £ 125 million in loans towards war expenses. India also sent war materials to the value £ 250 million. This caused enormous economic distress. There were grain riots as poor people looted shops. Towards the end of the War India too suffered under the world-wide epidemic of influenza. (£ - symbol of Pound sterling)

The War conditions led to the rise of Home Rule Movement in India. The Congress was reunited during the war. Western revolutionary ideas influenced the radical nationalists and so the British tried to suppress the national movement by passing repressive acts. International events too had their impact on India, such as the revolution in Russia. The defeat of Turkey in World War I and the severe terms of the Treaty of Sevres signed thereafter undermined the position of Sultan of Turkey as Khalifa. Out of the resentment was born the Khilafat Movement.

India and Indians had taken an active part in the War believing that Britain would reward India's loyalty. But only disappointment was in store. Thus the War had multiple effects on Indian society, economy and polity.

| 1.4 | Russian Revolution and its Impact |

Introduction

The biggest outcome of the War, the Russian revolution, was unique in world history. The socio-political and economic conditions prevailing in Russia were brought to a head by the vast losses and sufferings caused by the War. There were really two revolutions in the year 1917, one in March and the other in November. On the abdication of the Tsar the bourgeois government which followed, wanted to continue the war. But the people were against it. So there was a second great uprising under the guidance their leader Lenin, who seized power and established a communist government in Russia.

Causes of the Revolution

Social Causes

In Russia Peter the Great and Catherine II attempted westernisation without changing the social conditions. The Russian peasants were serfs tied to lands owned by wealthy Russians. After Russia's defeat in the Crimean War, some reforms were introduced. In 1861 Tsar Alexander II abolished serfdom and emancipated the serfs. But they were not given enough land to subsist. These peasants became the powder keg for the revolution.

The labourers and workers whose number had increased on account of industrialisation were aggrieved as they got very low wages.

Role of Revolutionaries

The spread of revolutionary ideas among the intelligentsia and their repression by the Tsar's government made the socialistically inclined students to carry their propaganda to the peasantry. In course of time these students disillusioned with the outcome of their work with the peasants, took to "terrorism". Yet the revolutionary forces swelled, with the joining of the many minority groups like Jews and Poles. Soon, based on the Marxist philosophy, new ideas began to take shape and a Social and Democratic Labour Party was formed. The Marxists declared themselves against acts of terrorism. They believed that the working class had to be roused to action, and only by such mass action could they achieve their goal.

Autocracy of the Tsar

Tsar Nicholas II of Romanov dynasty had little experience of government. His wife Tsarina Alexandra was a dominant personality and Nicholas was under her strong influence. Nicholas mistrusted most of his ministers

Tsar Nicholas II

and he was surrounded by flatterers. Determined that Russia should not be left out in the scramble for colonial possessions, Nicholas encouraged Russian expansion in Manchuria. This provoked a war with Japan in 1904. The resulting Russian defeat led to strikes and riots. On 22 January 1905 Father Gapon, a priest, organised a march of men, women and children on the Tsar's Winter Palace in St. Petersburg demanding a representative national assembly and agrarian and industrial reforms. But police and soldiers fired on the procession. Hundreds were killed and many thousands wounded. The events of this day (known as Bloody Sunday) led to riots, strikes

and violence in which the governor-general of Moscow, an uncle of the Tsar, was killed by a bomb. Nicholas was forced to grant a constitution and establish a parliament, the Duma. This was no longer satisfactory to the left-wing parties that formed a Soviet (council) of worker's delegates in St Petersburg, led by Trotsky. Similar Soviets were set up in other cities. The Duma gave the middle classes, a voice in government. So the moderates were supportive of the government's policy, while the left wing continued their opposition.

Opposition to Tsar and Dissolution of Duma

The outbreak of the First World War had temporarily strengthened the monarchy, as Russia allied to France and Britain. As there was rumour of a palace revolution. Nicholas made himself the Commander-in-Chief of the army. At the end of 1916, Rasputin, who had a domineering influence over the Tsar and the Tsarina, was murdered by a member of the Tsar's family. The members of the St. Petersburg Soviet were arrested. Whenever the Duma opposed the Tsar's move, it was dissolved and fresh elections held. Without change of government policy, the fourth Duma ended with the revolution of 1917.

Popular Uprisings

Revolution of 1917

Even on 23 February 1917, when the socialists celebrated International Working Women's Day on that day, the Tsar seemed unchallengeable. But he had to abdicate on the morning of 2 March. Though none called for strikes fearing that the time was not

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ripe for militant action, the bread shortages among women textile workers, many with husbands in the army, forced them to go on strike anyway and march through the factory areas of Petrograd, the capital of the Russian Empire. Masses of women workers demanding "Bread for workers" waved their arms towards factory workers and shouted "Come out!" "Stop work!" The city's 400,000 workers joined the movement the next day (24 February).

Abdication of Tsar

The government used the troops to break the strike. But soon mutinies broke out in the barracks. The Tsar ordered a declaration of martial law. But his order was not broadcast in the city, as there was no one to do this job. The Tsar then tried to return to Petrograd. The railway workers stopped his train. The generals at the front and some leaders in Petrograd, frightened by these developments pleaded with the Tsar to abdicate. On 15 March, Nicholas II abdicated.

The revolutionary Tamil poet Bharathiyar cheerfully welcomed the revolution in Russia by penning these poetic lines…..

The Mother Great, the Power supreme,
Turned her glance benign towards Russia,
The Revolution of the Age,
Behold the wonder, rises high
The tyrant howling falls down limp,
The shoulders of the heavenly gods,
Are swelling now with joy and pride,
Eyes hot with unshed tears, the demons,
Perish. O people of the world,
Behold this mighty change!

Provisional Government

There were two parallel bodies to take on government functions. One was of the bourgeois politicians of the old state Duma, comprising propertied classes. On the other there were workers' delegates drawn together in a workers' council, or Soviet. The workers' delegates in the Soviet were influenced by the underground left-wingers. Those in the Duma were able to form a provincial government with the consent of the Soviets. The Soviet was dominated by Mensheviks and the minority Bolsheviks were timid and undecided. The situation changed with the arrival of Lenin.

Lenin was born in 1870 near the Middle Volga to educated parents. Influenced by the ideas of Karl Marx, Lenin believed that the way for freedom was through mass action. Lenin

He spent his time taking classes for study groups of factory workers in St Petersburg on Marxism. He was arrested in 1895 and kept in Siberia. The Social Democratic Party, split on the issue of organisation and strategy. Lenin gained the support of a small majority (bolshinstvo), known as Bolsheviks, which became the Bolshevik Party. His opponents, in minority (menshinstvo), were called Mensheviks.

Failure of Provisional Government

Lenin was in Switzerland when the revolution broke out. Lenin wanted continued revolution. His slogan of 'All power to the Soviets' soon won over the workers' leaders. Devastated by war time shortages, the people were attracted by the slogan of 'Bread, Peace and Land.' But the Provisional government made two grave mistakes. First, it postponed a decision on the demand for the redistribution of land and the other was government decided to continue with the war. Frustrated peasant soldiers deserted their posts and joined those who had resorted to land grabbing. This intensified the rising in Petrograd led by Bolsheviks. The government banned *Pravda* and arrested all Bolsheviks. Trotsky was also arrested. Kerensky became Prime Minister leading a new coalition of liberals and moderate Socialists. Faced with an

attempted coup Kerensky tried in September to dismiss both the government and the Soviet.

Takeover by the Bolshevik Party under Lenin's leadership

In October Lenin persuaded the Bolshevik Central Committee to decide on immediate revolution. Trotsky prepared a detailed plan. On 7 November the key government buildings, including the Winter Palace, the Prime Minister's headquarters, were seized by armed factory workers and revolutionary troops. On 8 November 1917 a new Communist government was in office in Russia. Its head this time was Lenin. The Bolshevik Party was renamed the Russian Communist Party.

Outcome of the Revolution

The Russian Communist Party eliminated illiteracy and poverty in Russia within a record time. Russian industry and agriculture developed remarkably. Women were given equal rights, including rights to vote. Industries and banks were nationalised. Land was announced as social property. Land was distributed to poor peasants. Lenin thought the most important factor for the fall of Provisional government was its failure to withdraw from World War. So Lenin immediately appealed for peace. Unmindful of the harsh terms dictated by the Central Powers, Lenin opted for withdrawing from the War to concentrate on the formation of new government. In March 1918 the Treaty of Brest– Litovsk was signed.

Global Influence of the Russian Revolution

The revolution fired people's imagination across the world. In many countries, communist parties were formed. The Russian communist government encouraged the colonies to fight for their freedom. Debates over key issues, land reforms, social welfare, workers' rights, and gender equality started taking place in a global context.

Pravda is a Russian word meaning "Truth". It was the official newspaper of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union from 1918 to 1991.

1.5 League of Nations

Structure and Composition

The Covenant of the League was worked out at the Paris Peace Conference and included in each of the treaties that were signed after the First World War. It was largely due to the pressure from President Wilson that this task was accomplished. In drawing up the constitution of this organization, the ideas of Britain and America prevailed.

The League consisted of five bodies: the Assembly, the Council, the Secretariat, the Permanent Court of Justice, and the International Labour Organisation. Each member-country was represented in the Assembly. It discussed general policy and any decision taken in the Assembly had to be unanimous. The Council was the executive of the League. Britain, France, Italy, Japan and the United States were originally declared permanent members of the Council. Each member had one vote and since all decisions had to be unanimous, even the small nations possessed the right of veto.

The secretariat of the League of Nations was located at Geneva. Its first Secretary General was Sir Eric Drummond from Britain. The staff of the secretariat was appointed by the Secretary General in consultation with the Council. The International Court of Justice was set up in The Hague. The court was made of fifteen judges. The International Labour Organisation comprised a secretariat and general conference which included four representatives from each country.

Objectives of the League

The two-fold objective of the League of Nations was to avoid war and maintain peace in the world and to promote international cooperation in economic and social affairs. The League intended to act as conciliator and arbitrator and thereby resolve a dispute in its early stages. If wars should break out despite arbitration, the members should apply sanctions to the aggressor first economic and then military.

The difficulty in achieving the objectives was increased from the beginning by the absence of three Great Powers namely USA (did not become a member), Germany (a defeated nation) and Russia. The latter two joined in 1926 and 1934. While Germany resigned in 1933, Russia was expelled in 1939.

Activities of the League

The League was called in to settle a number of disputes between 1920 and 1925. The League was successful in three issues. In 1920 a dispute arose between Sweden and Finland over the sovereignty of the Aaland Islands. The League ruled that the islands should go to Finland. In the following year the League was asked to settle the frontier between Poland and Germany in Upper Silesia, which was successfully resolved by the League. The third dispute was between Greece and Bulgaria in 1925. Greece invaded Bulgaria, and the League ordered a ceasefire. After investigation it blamed Greece and decided that Greece was to pay reparations. Thus the League had been successful until signing of the Locarno Treaty in 1925. By this treaty, Germany, France, Belgium, Great Britain, and Italy mutually guaranteed peace in Western Europe. Thereafter Germany joined the League and was given a permanent seat on the Council. After two years the US and Russia began to participate in the non-political activities of the League.

Violations

One of the major problems confronting the European powers was how to achieve disarmament. In 1925 the Council of the League set up a commission to hold a Disarmament Conference to sort out the problem. But the proposed conference materialised only in February 1932. In this Conference, Germany's demand of equality of arms with France was rejected. In October Hitler withdrew Germany from the Conference and the League.

Japan attacked Manchuria in September 1931 and the League condemned Japan. So Japan also followed the example of Germany and resigned from the League. In the context of Italy's attack on Ethiopia, the League applied sanctions. As the sanctions came into effect, Italy resigned from the League in 1937. Thereafter the League was a passive witness to events, taking no part in the crises over the Rhineland, Austria, Czechoslovakia and Poland. The last decisive action it took was in December 1939 when Russia was expelled for her attack on Finland. The Assembly did not meet again and the League of Nations was finally dissolved in 1946.

Causes of Failure

The League appeared to be an organisation of those who were victorious in the First World War. Though it had a world-wide membership, it became very much the centre of European diplomacy.

The unanimity of members was required for all its decisions on political issues. Since it lacked the military power of its own, it could not enforce its decisions.

The founders of this peace organisation underestimated the power of nationalism. The principle of "collective security' could not be applied in actual practice.

When Italy, Japan and Germany, headed by dictators, refused to be bound by the orders of the League, Britain and France were the only major powers to act decisively. But they were not enthusiastic supporters of the League, as it was the brainchild of Wilson who could not even convince his country to join the League.

SUMMARY

- Capitalistic countries' ever growing demand for markets and raw materials leading to scramble for colonies and the resultant clashes amongst great powers in Europe are discussed.
- Rise of Japan as an Imperial Power in Asia is highlighted
- Division of Europe into two warring camps and the resultant alliances and counter-alliances are detailed.
- Important factors responsible for the outbreak of World War I such as growth of violent forms of Nationalism, aggressive attitude of Germany, France's hostility towards Germany for the loss of its territories, Alsace and Lorrain, power politics in Balkans are explained.
- Conduct of War in Western, Eastern Fronts and in minor theatres of War is described.
- America's entry into the War in the context of launch of submarine battles by Germany and the decisive victory won by the Allies are outlined.
- Paris Peace Conference and the provisions of Versailles Treaty are analysed.
- Fallout of the First World War, with focus on Russian Revolution causes, course and impact are elaborated.
- First world peace organisation the League of Nations and its role in preventing wars and promoting peace are critically examined.

GLOSSARY

skyscraper	tall building of many stories	பலமாடிகள் கொண்ட உயரமான கட்டிடம்
monopoly	exclusive possession or control	முற்றுரிமை
devastating	highly destructive or damage	பேரழிவு
jingoism	blind patriotism, especially in the pursuit of aggressive foreign policy	கண்மூடித்தனமான நாட்டுப்பற்று
chauvinism	extreme patriotism	அதிதீவிரப்பற்று
kultur	thinking highly of German civilization and culture	ஜெர்மானியக் கலாச்சாரத்தை மிக உயர்வாக நினைப்பது
trench	a long narrow ditch	பதுங்குக் குழி
repulse	drive back	எதிரியை விரட்டியடித்தல்
torpedo	attack or sink (a ship) with a torpedo	மூழ்கடி
reparation	compensation	இழப்பீடு
homogeneity	the quality or state of being homogenous	ஓரினத்தன்மை
bourgeois	characteristic of the middle class, typically with reference to its perceived materialistic values or conventional attitudes	முதலாளித்துவ
intelligentsia	intellectuals or highly educated people as a group, especially when regarded as possessing culture and political influence	அறிவுஜீவிகள், நுண்ணறிவாளர்கள்
persuade	cause (someone) to do s omething through reasoning or argument	வற்புறுத்து

I. Choose the correct answer

1. What were the three major empires shattered by the end of First World War?
   a) Germany, Austria Hungary, and the Ottomans
   b) Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Russia
   c) Spain, Portugal and Italy
   d) Germany, Austria-Hungary, Italy

2. Where did the Ethiopian army defeat the Italian army?
   a) Delville   b) Orange State
   c) Adowa   d) Algiers

3. Which country emerged as the strongest in East Asia towards the close of nineteenth century?
   a) China   b) Japan
   c) Korea   d) Mongolia

4. Who said "imperialism is the highest stage of capitalism"?
   a) Lenin   b) Marx
   c) Sun Yat-sen   d) Mao Tsetung

5. What is the Battle of Marne remembered for?
   a) air warfare   b) trench warfare
   c) submarine warfare d) ship warfare

6. Which country after the World War I took to a policy of isolation?
   a) Britain   b) France
   c) Germany   d) USA

7. To which country did the first Secretary General of League of Nations belongs?
   a) Britain   b) France
   c) Dutch   d) USA

8. Which country was expelled from the League of Nations for attacking Finland?
   a) Germany   b) Russia
   c) Italy   d) France

II. Fill in the blanks

1. Japan forced a war on China in the year _____.

2. The new state of Albania was created according to the Treaty of _____ signed in May 1913.

3. Japan entered into an alliance with England in the year _____.

4. In the Balkans _____ had mixed population.

5. In the battle of Tannenberg_____ suffered heavy losses.

6. _____ as Prime Minister represented France in Paris Peace Conference.

7. _____ became Prime Minister leading a new coalition of liberals and moderate Socialists before Lenin established the Bolshevik government.

8. Locarno Treaty was signed in the year _____.

III. Choose the correct statement

1. i) Italy remained a neutral country when the World War broke out.
   ii) Italy was much disappointed over the peace settlement at Versailles.
   iii) The Treaty of Sevres was signed with Italy.
   iv) Italy was denied even small places such as Trieste, Istria and the south Tyrol.
   a) i) and ii) are correct
   b) iii) is correct
   c) iv) is correct
   d) i), iii) and iv) are correct

2. i) The Turkish Empire contained many non-Turkish people in the Balkans.
   ii) Turkey fought on the side of the central powers
   iii) Britain attacked Turkey and captured Constantinople
   iv) Turkey's attempt to attack Suez Canal but were repulsed.
   a) i) and ii) are correct
   b) i) and iii) are correct
   c) iv) is correct
   d) i), ii) and iv) are correct

3. **Assertion**: Germany and the United States were producing cheaper manufactured goods and capturing England's markets.

Reason: Both the countries produced required raw material for their industries.
a) Both A and R are correct
b) A is right but R is not the correct reason
c) Both A and R are wrong
d) R is right but it has no relevance to A.

4. **Assertion**: The first European attempts to carve out colonies in Africa resulted in bloody battles.
Reason: There was stiff resistance from the native population.
a) Both A and R are correct
b) A is right but R is not the correct reason
c) Both A and R are wrong
d) R is right but it has no relevance to A.

IV. Match the following

1	Treaty of Brest- Litovsk	-	Versailles
2	Jingoism	-	Turkey
3	Kemal Pasha	-	Russia with Germany
4	Emden	-	England
5	Hall of Mirrors	-	Madras

V. Answer briefly

1. How do you assess the importance of Sino-Japanese War?
2. Name the countries in the Triple Entente.
3. What were the three militant forms of nationalism in Europe?
4. What do you know of trench warfare?
5. What was the role of Mustafa Kemal Pasha?
6. Highlight the global influence of Russian Revolution?
7. List out any two causes for the failure of the League of Nations.

VI. Answer all the questions given under each caption

1. Imperialism
   a) What do you know of monopoly capitalism?
   b) How did Japan emerge as an imperial power?
   c) Why did the industrial countries need colonies in the nineteenth century?
   d) What were the contrasts capitalism produced?

2. German Emperor
   a) What was the nature of Emperor Kaiser Wilhelm II of Germany?
   b) What was the violent form of Germany called?
   c) Why did Kaiser Wilhelm intervene in the Morocco affair?
   d) What happened to Germany's colonies in Africa?

3. Balkan Wars
   a) Why was Balkan League formed?
   b) What was the outcome of the first Balkan War?
   c) Who were defeated in this war?
   d) What was the name of the Treaty signed at the end of this second Balkan War?

VII. Answer the following in detail

1. Discuss the main causes of the First World War.
2. Highlight the provisions of the Treaty of Versailles relating to Germany.
3. Explain the course of the Russian Revolution under the leadership of Lenin.
4. Estimate the work done by the League of Nations, pointing out the reasons for its failure?

VIII. Activity

1. Students can be taught to mark the places of battles and the capital cities of the countries that were engaged in the War.
2. An assignment or a project work on the role of Indian soldiers in different battle fields across the globe and the casualties they suffered during the War be attempted by the students.

IX. Map Work

Mark the following countries on the world map.

1. Great Britain	2. Germany
3. France	4. Italy
5. Morocco	6. Turkey
7. Serbia	8. Bosnia
9. Greece	10. Austria-Hungary
11. Bulgaria	12. Rumania

Outbreak of World War I and Its Aftermath

📚 REFERENCE BOOKS

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Timeline

- 1914   - Outbreak of World War I
- 1917   - Russian Revolution
- 1918   - End of the World War I
- 1919   - Treaty of Versailles
- 1920   - Establishment of League of Nation

ICT CORNER

Through this activity you will learn about Time Line Events of World War -I

EXPLORE OUR COLLECTION

Steps

- Open the Browser and type the URL given below (or) Scan the QR Code.
- Click on 'Learn' in menu and Select 'Interactive Timeline'
- Drag the Time line bar and click to see the events

B376_10_SOCIAL_EM

Website URL:
https://www.theworldwar.org/

The World between Two World Wars

Learning Objectives

To acquaint ourselves with

- The post-World War I developments leading to the Great Depression, and its impact on politics across the world.
- The unjust provisions of Treaty of Versailles and the rise of fascist governments led by Mussolini in Italy and Hitler in Germany.
- Anti-colonial struggles and the decolonisation process in the colonized world: Case Studies of Indo-French in South-East Asia and India in South Asia.
- European Colonisation in Africa – The case of Britain in South Africa.
- Independence struggles and political developments in South America

S8KCHE

Introduction

The First World War shattered the global capitalist system based on European imperialism. The European powers were gravely weakened by the War, financially and politically. The trade and financial imbalances left by the war and the harsh peace that followed created instabilities throughout the 1920s. The conflict between the workers and the ruling classes that controlled the government became intense. As a result of this Fascism emerged in Italy and Germany. Anti-colonial struggles got intensified as the colonial powers were weakened by the War. The Soviet Union's role in extending solidarity to the struggling nationalist movements also went a long way in accelerating the process of decolonisation in Asia. It was the high noon of imperialism in Africa during the inter-war period. In contrast, the independence to the Latin American countries had occurred even before the first half of nineteenth century.

But they had to soon confront their protector turned exploiter, the USA.

As we saw in the last chapter, the crisis in the Western world had led to the outbreak of World War I. We now turn to the social and political developments in the world after the end of the War.

2 The Great Depression

2.1 Developments in the post-World War I

The First World War led to the expansion of certain industries in the hope that the war-time boom would continue. However, when the War came to an end, the industries that grew to meet war-time requirements had to be abandoned or modified. Huge stocks had to be disposed off and large numbers of workers had to be sacked. This bred dissatisfaction among the working classes. The situation was made worse by the political complications caused

by the Treaty of Versailles. A new wave of economic nationalism which expressed itself in protectionism or in tariff barriers affected world trade. The war also placed a heavy burden of debt on every European country.

Withdrawal of American Capital

At the end of the World War I, America was financially in a sound position. As the moneylender to the world America encouraged the flow of capital into Europe, which helped the European debtor countries. The capital outflow also found outlet in new investments. But these investments yielded profits only after a period. In the meantime, a slump in the U.S. economy forced the government to impose restrictions on the export of capital. This resulted in a steep decline in the volume and value of exports all over the world.

Stock Market Crash in the US

The withdrawal of American capital was aggravated by the US market crash in 1929. The first huge crash occurred on 24 October 1929. This discouraged investors and consumers to such an extent that more and more people began to sell their shares and dispose of their stocks. But there were no buyers. This was followed by the failure of American banks. The American financiers were forced to recall their own funds invested abroad. The stoppage of loans to Germany by America led to the failure of two large German banks. The Bank of England also found itself in bankruptcy.

New York Stock Market Crash, 1929-30

Breakdown of the International System of Exchange

Despite emergency measures such as cutbacks in expenditure and increased taxation, the situation did not improve in England. So England decided to leave the Gold Standard. Immediately a great number of countries left the gold standard. Each nation adopted a policy of protectionism and devaluation of currency. Devaluation forced creditors to stop lending. This led to a world-wide credit contraction. Thus the defensive measures adopted by various nations to safeguard their economic interests led to an unprecedented decline in world economic activity. As its effect was deep and prolonged economists and historians call it the Great Depression.

Repercussion in Politics

The Depression changed the political conditions in several countries. In England, the Labour Party was defeated in the general elections of 1931. In the USA, the Republican Party was rejected by the people in successive elections for about twenty years after the Depression.

> Gold Standard is a monetary system where a country's currency or paper money carried a value directly linked to gold. Countries in the Gold Standard agreed to convert paper money into a fixed amount of gold.

2.2 Rise of Fascism and Nazism

(a) The Impact of War in Italy

The first of the nations of Western Europe to turn against the old ruling regime was Italy. During World War I the primary task of Italy was to keep the Austrians occupied on the Southern Front, while the British, French and Americans cornered Germany into submission along the battle lines in Flanders. The financial cost of the participation in the War was huge. Moreover, after the War, in the sharing of the spoils, Italy

got less than she expected. The country suffered heavy losses in a war that was unpopular with both socialists and pro-Austrian Catholics. The nationalists were equally unhappy with the marginal gain in territory from the Treaty of Versailles. The War resulted in inflation. There were frequent protests and strikes. People held the rulers responsible for the humiliation at Versailles.

Emergence of Mussolini

In the elections held November 1919 in the aftermath of the Treaty of Versailles, Italian socialists, proclaiming that they were following Bolshevism (Communism in Soviet Russia), won about a third of the seats. Mussolini, son of a blacksmith and qualified as an elementary school master, in the end became a journalist with socialist views. A forceful speaker, Mussolini began to support the use of violence and broke with the socialists when they opposed Italy's entry into the War. When the Fascist Party was founded in 1919 Mussolini immediately joined it. As Fascists stood for authority, strength and discipline, support came from industrialists, nationalists, ex-soldiers, the middle classes and discontented youth. The Fascists resorted to violence freely. In October 1922, in the context of a long ministerial crisis, Mussolini organised the Fascist March on Rome. Impressed by the show of force, the King invited Mussolini to form a government. The inability of the Democratic Party leaders to combine and act with resolution facilitated Mussolini's triumph.

> **Fascism** is a form of radical authoritarian ultra-nationalism, characterised by dictatorial power, forcible suppression of opposition and strong regimentation of society and of the economy, which came to prominence in early 20th-century Europe. –Wikipedia.

Fascists under Mussolini

In the 1924 elections, after intimidation of the electors, 65 per cent of the votes were cast for the Fascists. Matteotti, a socialist leader, who questioned the fairness of the elections was murdered. The opposition parties boycotted the Parliament in protest. Mussolini reacted by banning opposition parties and censoring the press. Opposition leaders were killed or imprisoned.

Mussolini

Assuming the title of Il Duce (the leader), in 1926 he became a dictator with power to legislate. He passed a law forbidding strikes and lockouts. Unions and employers were organized into corporations which would settle wages and working conditions. In 1938 Parliament was abolished and was replaced by a body representing the Fascist Party and the corporations. This new arrangement bolstered Mussolini's dictatorial control of the economy, as well as enabling him to wield enormous power as head of the administration and the armed forces.

Mussolini's Pact with Pope

In order to give respectability to the Fascist Party, Mussolini won over the Roman Catholic Church by recognising the Vatican City as an independent state. In return the Church recognised the Kingdom of Italy. The Roman Catholic faith was made the religion of Italy and compulsory religious teaching in school was ordered. The Lateran Treaty incorporating the said provisions was signed in 1929.

Italy during the Great Depression

During the years of the Great Depression the much publicised public works of building new bridges, roads and canals, hospitals and schools did not provide solution to the unemployment problem. In 1935, Mussolini invaded Ethiopia. This was useful to divert attention of the people away from the economic troubles. Mussolini drew admiration from ruling classes elsewhere in Europe. Among them was a rising figure among nationalist, anti-Semitic circles in Munich was Adolf Hitler.

(b) Germany in the post-War

From 1918 to 1993 Germany was a republic. The factors which led to the eventual triumph of Fascism in Germany were many. Between 1871 and 1914 Germany had risen to dizzy heights of economic, political and cultural accomplishments. Germany's universities, its science, philosophy and music were known all over the world. Germany had surpassed even Britain and the US in several fields of industrial production. As we saw in the earlier chapter this was at the root of the outbreak of the First World War. Then came the crushing defeat in the First World War. The German people were demoralized. The reparations and other clauses in the Treaty of Versailles caused acute discontent and hardship. This was utilized by reactionary forces to spread the idea that Socialists and Jews had let down the nation, and had even caused the Germany's defeat.

Germany's defeat and humiliation at the end of World War I caused a deep shock to the of German people. The Great Depression further deepened their frustration and prompted them to turn against the Republican government.

Evolution of German Fascism

The origin of German fascism goes back to 1919 when a group of seven men met in Munich and founded the National Socialist German Workers' Party (abbreviated as Nazi Party). One of them was Adolf Hitler. Hitler had developed violent political biases against Jews. He associated Judaism with Marxism. During World War I, he served in the Bavarian army. A gifted speaker, he could whip up the passion of the audience. In 1923 Hitler attempted to capture power in Bavaria. His premature launch of the National Revolution on the outskirts of Munich landed him in prison. During his time in prison wrote *Mein Kampf* (My Struggle), an autobiographical book containing his political ideas. In the Presidential election of 1932, the Communist Party polled about 6,000,000 votes. Alarmed capitalists and property owners tilted towards supporting fascism Hitler exploited this opportunity to usurp powers.

Hitler

The Nazi State of Hitler

Republican government fell, as the Communists refused to collaborate with the Social Democrats. Thereupon industrialists, bankers and Junkers prevailed upon President Von Hindenburg to designate Hitler as Chancellor in 1933. The Nazi state of Hitler, known as Third Reich, brought an end to the parliamentary democracy.

Hitler replaced the flag of the Weimar republic by the swastika banners of National Socialism. Germany was converted into a highly centralised state. All political parties except the Nazi party were declared illegal. The army of brown-shirted and jack-booted storm-troopers was expanded. The Hitler Youth was created, and the Labour Front set up. Trade unions were abolished, their leaders arrested. Strikes were made illegal, wages were fixed by the government, and the Labour Front was used by the Nazis to control industry. Total state control was extended over the press, the theatre, the cinema, radio and over education.

The Nazi Party's propaganda was led by Josef Goebbels, who manipulated public opinion through planned propaganda. He once said, 'any lie frequently repeated will ultimately gain belief.' The Gestapo or Secret State Police was formed and run by Himmler.

Nazi Policy towards Jews

Along with the repressive measures, Hitler's government followed a policy of repressing Jewish people. The Jews were removed from government positions, excluded from the universities and deprived of citizenship.

Jewish businesses were closed down, and their establishments were attacked. After the outbreak of World War II concentration camps, barracks surrounded by electrified fences and watch towers, were built where Jews were interred and used as forced labour. Later they were turned into extermination camps where industrial means of murder such as gas chambers were used to kill them. It is estimated that about 6 million Jews in Europe were killed in what the Nazis termed 'The Final Solution'. The Nazi state also exterminated gypsies, and other itinerant communities, and the mentally challenged.

Himmler's second in command was Heydrich, who was responsible for the concentration camps.

Defiance of the Treaty of Versailles

In August 1934 Hindenburg died and Hitler, apart from being Chancellor, became both President and Commander–in-Chief of the armed forces. Hitler's foreign policy aimed at restoring the armed strength of Germany and annulling provisions of Versailles Treaty. His deliberate attempts to breach the Treaty of Versailles (discussed in the next lesson) led to the outbreak of Second World War.

2.3 Anti-Colonial Movements and Decolonisation Processes in Asia

Decolonisation is a process through which colonial powers transferred institutional and legal control over their colonies to the indigenous nationalist governments.

(a) French Indo-China
Rise of Anti-Colonialism

Indo-China (today's Cambodia, Laos and Vietnam) had shown its discontent right from the beginning of the French occupation (1887). While the Indo-Chinese resisted the imposition of French language and culture, they learned from them the ideas of revolution. During the First World War about 100,000 Indo-Chinese fought in France and returned with first-hand knowledge of how the French had fought and suffered during the War. Communist ideas from mainland China were also a major influence. Many became convinced that the considerable wealth of Indo-China was benefiting only

Social Democratic Party was founded as the General German Workers Association on 23 May 1863 in Leipzig. Founder was Ferdinand Lassalle. German elites of the late 19th century considered the very existence of a socialist party a threat to the security and stability of the newly unified Reich, and so Bismark outlawed this party from 1878 to 1890.
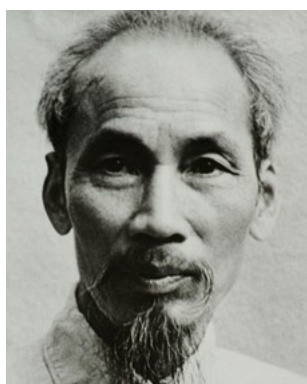
Despite laws prohibiting the party from holding meetings and distributing literature, the Social Democratic Party attracted growing support. Following World War I, the Social Democratic Party played a central role in the formation of the Weimar Republic. But the failure to win favourable terms from the Allies and the country's severe economic problems led to a drop in people's support.

Although its core support among blue-collar workers remained intact, it lost support among white-collar workers and small businessmen, many of whom switched their loyalty to the conservatives and later to the Nazi Party. The Social Democratic Party was outlawed soon after the Nazis came to power. The leading Social Democrats were arrested and sent to concentration camps. However, in 1945, with the fall of Hitler, the Social Democratic Party was revived. It was the only surviving party from the Weimar period with a record of opposition to Hitler.

the colonial power. At the turn of the twentieth century growing nationalism led to sporadic violent outbursts. In 1916 there was a major anti-colonial revolt which was crushed brutally. There were also guerrilla activities in Tongking, the place from where Ho Chi Minh was to arrive.

The Emergence of Viet Minh

The mainstream political party in Indo-China was the Vietnam Nationalist Party. Formed in 1927, it was composed of the wealthy and middle class sections of the population. In 1929 the Vietnamese soldiers mutinied, and there was a failed attempt to assassinate the French Governor-General. This was followed by a large scale peasant revolt led by the Communists. The revolt was crushed followed by what is called "White Terror." Thousands of rebels were killed.

Ho Chi Minh

After the White Terror, Ho Chi Minh left for Moscow and spent the 1930s in Moscow and China. When France was defeated by Germany in 1940, Ho Chi Minh and his lieutenants used this turn of events to advance the Vietnamese cause. Crossing over the border into Vietnam in January 1941, they organized the League for the Independence of Vietnam, or Viet Minh. This gave renewed emphasis to a distinct Vietnamese nationalism.

(b) Decolonisation in India

Dyarchy in Provinces

The decolonization process started in India from the beginning of the twentieth century with the launch of the Swadeshi Movement in 1905. The outbreak of the First World War brought about rapid political as well as economic changes. In 1919, the Government of India Act introduced Dyarchy that provided for elected provincial assemblies as well as for Indian ministers to hold certain portfolios under Transferred Subjects. The Montague declaration read: 'Increasing association of Indians in every branch of the administration and the gradual development of self-government in India as an integral part of the British Empire. This measure of the British government was "to buy the political peace needed to expand the tax base." The Indian National Congress rejected Dyarchy and decided to boycott the legislature.

Lack of Measures to Industrialise India

Despite the discriminating protection given to certain select industries such as sugar, cement, and chemicals, there was no change in the colonial economic policy. Incentives were provided for the British iron and steel industry by guaranteeing purchasing contracts. But in the case of indigenous

Ho Chi Minh (1890-1969) was born in Tongking. When Ho Chi Minh was twenty one, he went to Europe. After working as a cook in a London hotel, he went to Paris. In the Paris peace conference, he lobbied for the independence for Vietnam. His articles in newspapers and especially the pamphlet, *French Colonialism on Trial*, made him well known as a Vietnam nationalist. In 1921 he became a founder-member of the French Communist party. Two years later he went to Moscow and learnt revolutionary techniques then. In 1925, he founded the Revolutionary Youth Movement. After the peasant revolt he led was crushed in 1930, he went to Moscow again. Inspired by Mao Tse Tung, he returned to Indo-China after the Japanese invaded it organized the communists and carried on his anti-colonial struggle. He also played an inspirational role leading the war against the USA.

industries, support was only in the form of providing "technical advice and education, and the establishment of pioneer factories in new industries". However, even this policy was soon abandoned as many British enterprises were opposed to this .

India in the days of Great Depression

The 'Great Depression' of 1929 had a disastrous impact on British trade and business. Foreign investment declined, particularly in the heavy industry sector like railway building. For the colonial government the expansion of trade was the only ideal mode of economy, as it guaranteed easy access to indirect tax revenue (for example: custom duties) and foreign currency. Britain transmitted the effects of Depression to its colonies. Bilateral trade treaties between Britain and the member states of the British Empire were signed at an economic summit in Ottawa in 1932, in which the participants (including India) agreed to give preference to imperial (British) over non-imperial goods.

Delegates in Ottawa Conference 1932

India was forced to adhere to the policy of balancing the budget. The government of British India also raised revenue tariffs mainly to gain foreign currency. Britain's need for gold in the crisis years was met from the export of gold from India. By overvaluing Indian currency, the British made imports cheaper. The currency exchange policy fuelled tensions between the colonial government and its subjects, and intensified the political agitation against British rule.

Impact of Depression on Indian Agriculture

The 'Great Depression' also dealt a death blow to Indian agriculture and the indigenous manufacturing sector. The value of farm produce, declined by half while the land rent to be paid by the peasant remained unchanged. In terms of prices of agricultural commodities, the obligation of the farmers to the state doubled. Farmers and Indian manufacturers therefore had to sell their gold and silver reserves to subsist. The great fall in prices prompted Indian nationalists to demand protection for the internal economy. The 1930s saw the emergence of the Indian National Congress as a militant mass movement. The call given by the Congress for a Civil Disobedience Movement, evoked tremendous response in rural India. Left radicalism was also very much in evidence.

Gandhi's Dandi Yatra

Government of India Act, 1935

The British had to appease the Indian nationalists and the outcome was the passage of the Government of India Act, 1935. This provided for greater power to the local governments and the introduction of direct elections. In the 1937 elections the Congress won a resounding victory in most of the provinces. However the decision of Britain to involve India in the Second World War, without consulting the popular Congress ministries, forced the latter to resign from office.

The World between Two World Wars

2.4 Anti-Colonial Movements in Africa

Colonisation of Africa

The African coastline had been explored in the sixteenth century and a few European settlements had come about. But the interior of Africa was unknown to the outside world until the last quarter of nineteenth century. European colonisation began after about 1875. The Berlin Colonial Conference of 1884–85 resolved that Africa should be divided into spheres of influence of various colonial powers. The war between the British and Boers in South Africa, however, was in defiance of this resolution.

Boer Wars

Boer War

The relations between the two British colonies of Natal and Cape Colony and the two independent Boer states of the Transvaal and the Orange Free State had long been unfriendly. The discovery of gold in Transvaal, in 1886, led to large numbers of British miners settling in and around Johannesburg. The Boers hated these people whom they referred to as Uitlanders (foreigners). The Boers taxed them heavily apart from denying political rights. So the question was whether the British or the Boers were to be supreme in South Africa. Fearing attacks from the British, the Boers armed themselves and decided to attack.

The Boer War lasted for three years, 1899-1902. Initially, the Boers were successful. But by the first half of 1900, the Boer army was defeated. Pretoria was occupied. The Boers took to guerrilla fighting. This continued for about two years. In retaliation the British destroyed farms and crops. They set up internment camps for Boer women and children. Shortage of food, medical and sanitary facilities caused the death of 26,000 people. The British annexed the two Boer states. Boers were however promised self-government in due course. In 1907 full responsible government was given to the Transvaal and the Orange Free State. The four states formed into a union and the South Africa Act passed by the British parliament in 1909 provided for a Union Parliament at Cape Town. The Union of South Africa came into being in May 1910.
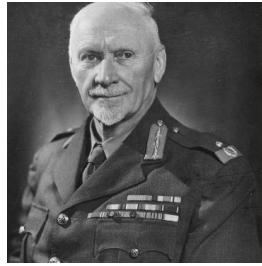
The descendents of original Dutch settlers of South Africa, also known as Afrikaners, were called Boers. Their language is Afrikaans.

Nationalist Politics in South Africa

There were two main political parties: the Unionist Party which was mainly British, and the South Africa Party which had largely Afrikaners (Boers). The first Prime Minister, Botha belonged to the South Africa Party ruled in cooperation with the British. But a militant section of the South Africa Party formed the National Party under Herzog. Herzog wanted a twin policy of supremacy of Whites over Blacks and Afrikaners over British. In the 1920 elections the National Party gained forty-four seats. The South Africa Party, now led by Smuts, secured forty-one seats. At this juncture the British-dominated Unionist Party merged with the South Africa Party. This gave Smuts a majority over the militant Afrikaner-controlled National Party.

Racist Policy against the Blacks

The Afrikaners pursued a harsher, racist policy towards the blacks and the minority Indians. In 1923 an Act was passed to confine the native residents to certain

Smuts

parts of towns. Already an Act of 1913 had segregated black and white farmers, which made it impossible for the blacks to acquire land in most parts of the country. The 1924 elections were won by the National Party with the support of the Labour movement, composed mainly of white miners. The Act passed in 1924 prevented blacks from striking work and from joining trade unions. In the Cape Province the voting right to blacks was abolished. Native Blacks suffered in all spheres: social, economic and politics.

Dominion Status for South Africa

South Africa had gained Dominion Status, and thus had full control over foreign policy. The world economic depression brought unemployment and bankruptcy. Labour withdrew its support given to the National Party. Smuts believed that a coalition government was required to solve the country's economic problems. Therefore the South Africa Party and the National

Dominion Status: Prior to 1939, each of the later day British Commonwealth countries such as Canada, New Zealand, the Union of South Africa, Ireland (Eire), were accorded dominion status. The Imperial Conference of 1926 described Great Britain and the dominions as 'autonomous communities within the British Empire, equal in status, in no way subordinate one to another in any aspect of their domestic or external affairs, though united by a common allegiance to the Crown'.

Apartheid in South Africa

Apartheid, which means separateness, became the racial policy of the Nationalist Party in 1947. From 1950 onwards a series of laws came to be enforced. The whole country was divided into separate areas for the different races. Marriage between white and non-white was forbidden. Nearly all schools were brought under government control so that education different from that of the Whites could be implemented for Africans. University education was also segregated. Apartheid is based on the belief that the political equality of White and Black in South Africa would mean Black rule. Since this would imperil the European interests, it was decided to keep the Africans in permanent subjection through force. Verwoerd, who was prime minister of South Africa from 1958 to 1966 was the brain behind the apartheid policy. The African National Congress (ANC) founded in 1912 fought the practice of racism. Repression was let loose against the leaders of the Congress. The ANC was banned and its leader Nelson Mandela was put behind bars. Mounting pressure at the global level helped to end the racist regime in South Africa. In 1990 the ban on ANC was lifted and Mandela freed after 27 years. In the elections held subsequently the Africans were allowed to vote and ANC won the election and Mandela became the first black president of South Africa. Even though apartheid was dismantled the Whites completely dominate the economic sphere.

Practice of Apartheid

Nelson Mandela

Party united in 1934 to form the United South Africa National Party or United Party for short. In spite of misunderstandings and disagreements, the Smuts–Herzog alliance lasted until 1939.

South Africa during World War and in its Aftermath

When the World War II broke out, the United Party split on the issue of South African support for Britain in the war against Germany. Smuts opposed Nazism and wanted South Africa to help Britain. Herzog was sympathetic towards Hitler, and favoured a policy of neutrality. The Parliament, however, decided in favour of war, and Herzog resigned. Smuts continued to function as the Prime Minister until 1948, With the passing away of Herzog, many in the Party led by him joined the Nationalists. The 1948 election gave the Reunified National Party a majority over the truncated United Party.

2.5 Political Developments in South America

Mayas and Aztecs

Before the European discovery of America three centres of civilisations existed there in Mexico in Central America and in Peru in South America. The Maya, the Inca and the Aztec Civilizations were highly advanced. There were several states in each of these areas of civilisation. Well organised and strong governments existed. Around the eleventh century, large cities formed into a league of Mayapan (centre of Maya civilisation of Native Americans American Indians). For over hundred years the League of Mayapan lasted. Though Mayapan was destroyed towards the close of twelth century, other cities continued. Aztecs from Mexico conquered the Maya country in the fourteenth century and founded their capital city of Tenochtitlan. For nearly two hundred years the Aztecs ruled their empire.

European Colonisation and its Impact

Latin America

In the sixteenth century (around 1519) when the Aztecs were at the height of their power, the whole empire collapsed before a handful of adventurers led by a Spaniard named Hernan Cortes. Mexican civilisation collapsed. With it the great city of Tenochtitlan also perished. This is one of the world's worst genocides. The other famous Conquistador (conqueror) was also a Spaniard by name Francisco Pizarro. who led the conquest of the Incan Empire. Later the Spaniards made Peru a part of their dominions.

The Aztecs were a military nation. They had military colonies and garrisons, and a network of military roads. There was outward security and peace in the empire, but people were ruthlessly oppressed and exploited.

By the late 18th century, demand for political freedom, administrative autonomy and economic self-determination was articulated throughout Latin America. There were bloody conflicts between Haitian slaves, colonists, the armies of the British and the French colonizers. These struggles led by Toussaint L'Ouverture during 1791-1804 ended in the Haitian people's independence from the colonial control of France. Haiti thus became the first Caribbean country to throw off slavery and French colonial control.

Hernan Cortes conquering Mexico

Pizarro

Impact of Napoleonic Invasion of Spain and Portugal

Simon Bolivar-
El Liberator

Pedro I

The American and French Revolutions provided inspiration to the Latin Americans. The Napoleonic invasion of Spain and Portugal in 1808 quickened the process of liberation Struggle in South America. Already the spirit of independence was growing under the leadership of Simon Bolivar, called El Liberator, the liberator. In the case of Brazil, the Portuguese royal family in the context of conquest of Portugal by Napoleon fled from Lisbon and thereby assisted the transition of Brazil from colony to independent nation. Pedro I renouncing the claim to the Portuguese throne declared independence of Brazil.
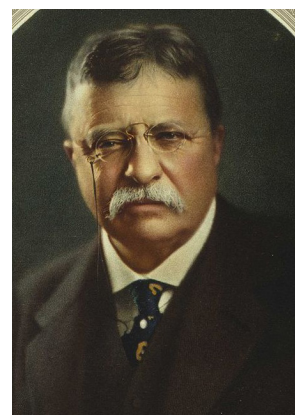
The Monroe Doctrine

The fight for independence intensified when Napoleon fell in 1815. Some of the European kings wanted to help the king of Spain to crush the revolutionaries in the South American colonies. But Monroe, the President of the USA, came up with his famous Monroe doctrine, which declared that if Europeans interfered anywhere in America, north or south, it would amount to waging a war against the United States. This threat frightened the European powers. By 1830 the whole of South America was free from European domination. Thus the U.S. protected the South American republics from Europe; but there was no one to protect them from the Protector, the United States.

Disunity among Latin American Nationalists

Latin American nationalists fought not only Spain and Portugal but also each other. In 1821 Central America seceded from Mexico. Later (1839) Central America itself split into five republics (Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, and Nicaragua). Uruguay split from Brazil in 1828. In 1830 Venezuela and Ecuador seceded from Gran Columbia, the republic created by Bolivar.

US Imperial Interests

At the dawn of the twentieth century the United States had occupied Cuba and Puerto Rico, after defeating the Spanish in 1898. From 1898 to 1902 Cuba was under US military rule. When the Americans finally left they retained a naval station in

Theodore Roosevelt

Cuba. The US also retained its right to intervene in Cuban internal affairs. President Theodore Roosevelt's attitude to Latin American countries was summed up in the words: 'Speak softly and carry a big stick.' The Monroe Doctrine had barred European interference in the affairs of the American continent. Roosevelt made an important amendment to the doctrine in 1904. It authorised US intervention in Latin America 'in order to maintain order.' After effecting this amendment, the US became the dominant influence not only politically but also in economics.

Emergence of Middle Class and Working Class

The independence movement facilitated transfer of political authority. But it engendered no social or economic change. With the masses excluded from the decision-making process, politics became the preserve of oligarchic families and military cliques. From the middle of the nineteenth century, oligarchic republics based on alliances of regional elites began to operate. Brazil remained an exception, until the monarch fell in 1889. With political stability and economic opportunity the country received large numbers of migrants from southern Europe. Economic growth, urbanization and industrial growth in countries like Argentina, Chile, Brazil and Mexico helped consolidate the hold of the middle class and the emergence of militant working class organisations. At the same time American power and wealth came to dominate Central and South America.

Great Depression in South America

The situation created by the Great Depression made it impossible for oligarchic regimes to accommodate the rising expectations of several assertive groups. In Mexico, there was violent social protest involving dissatisfied segments of the oligarchy, middle-class intellectuals, and peasant communities. Elsewhere electoral reform enabled newer social groups to obtain political power through the ballot box.

Latin America protested American intervention and disliked their "dollar imperialism". The opposition to political intervention produced a change in US policy after 1933. Franklin Roosevelt in his "Good Neighbour" policy agreed that the US would not intervene in the internal affairs of any state, and would give economic and technical assistance to Latin America.

Dollar Imperialism, the term used to describe the policy of the USA in maintaining and dominating over distant lands through economic aid.

SUMMARY

- Intensification of anti-colonial struggles commenced from the end of the First World War
- The harsh decisions in the Paris Peace Conference against the defeated countries destabilised the ruling regimes and created a climate for the rise of fascism especially in Italy and Germany.
- The economic slump originating in the US in 1929 and subsequently affecting all capitalist countries in the world resulted in changes in polity and society.
- Anti-colonial struggles gained strength despite repressive measures in French Indo-China.
- Decolonisation process was quickened during the inter-war period in India.
- Foundation and consolidation of European rule in Africa after the Berlin Colonial Conference of 1884-85.
- British subdued Afrikaners and set up a union of South Africa, which was racist in nature.
- The Munroe Doctrine prevented colonisation of Latin American countries by European powers and thereby ensured early sovereign status to them. Later this was regarded by Latin Americans as a cover for American intervention and exploitation of the resources of their countries.

A-Z GLOSSARY

solidarity	a bond of unity, support for a common cause	ஒற்றுமை உணர்வு, பொதுக்காரியத்திற்கான ஆதரவு
slump	a sudden severe or prolonged fall in the price	விலைவீழ்ச்சி, சரிவு
bankruptcy	insolvency, financial ruin	திவால், கடன் தீர்க்க முடியா நிலை
devaluation	a decrease in the value of a country's currency	பணமதிப்புக் குறைதல்
inflation	a general increase in prices and fall in the purchasing power of money	பணவீக்கம்
intimidation	threat, the act of making fearful	மிரட்டல், அச்சுறுத்தல்
bolstered	strengthened	வலுப்படுத்தினர்
demoralized	having lost confidence or hope, disheartened	மனத்தளர்ச்சி அடைதல், நம்பிக்கை இழத்தல்
manipulate	control or influence a person or situation cleverly, unfairly to achieve a specific purpose	கெட்டிக்காரத்தனமாய் அல்லது சூழ்ச்சியாய் கையாளு
annulling	declaring invalid or null and void	செல்லாதாக்கல், ரத்துசெய்தல்
tremendous	huge, extremely large	பிரம்மாண்டமான
articulate	expressing an idea or feeling clearly	தெளிவாகப் பேசுதல்
oligarchy	a small group of people having control of a country	குழு ஆட்சி

EXERCISE

KF882T

I. Choose the correct answer

1. With whom of the following was the Lateran Treaty signed by Italy?
   a) Germany   b) Russia
   c) Pope   d) Spain

2. With whose conquest did the Mexican civilization collapse?
   a) Hernan Cortes   b) Francisco Pizarro
   c) Toussaint Louverture   d) Pedro I

3. Who made Peru as part of their dominions?
   a) English   b) Spaniards
   c) Russians   d) French

4. Which President of the USA pursued "Good Neighbour" policy towards Latin America
   a) Roosevelt   b) Truman
   c) Woodrow Wilson   d) Eisenhower

5. Which part of the world disliked dollar imperialism?
   a) Europe   b) Latin America
   c) India   d) China

6. Who was the brain behind the apartheid policy in South Africa?
   a) Verwoerd   b) Smut
   c) Herzog   d) Botha

7. Which quickened the process of liberation in South America?
   a) Support of US
   b) Napoleonic Invasion
   c) Simon Bolivar's involvement
   d) French Revolution

8. Name the President who made amendment to Munro doctrine to justify American intervention in the affairs of Latin America
   a) Theodore Roosevelt   b) Truman
   c) Eisenhower   d) Woodrow Wilson

II. Fill in the blanks

1. The founder of the Social Democratic Party was _____.

2. The Nazi Party's propaganda was led by _____.

3. The Vietnam Nationalist Party was formed in _____.

4. The Secret State Police in Nazi Germany was known as _____.

5. The Union of South Africa came into being in May _____.

6. The ANC leader Nelson Mandela was put behind the bars for _____ years

7. _____ were a military nation.
8. Boers were also known as _____.

III. Choose the correct statement

1. i) During World War I the primary task of Italy was to keep the Austrians occupied on the Southern Front
   ii) Germany took to Fascism much later than Italy.
   iii) The first huge market crash in the US occurred on 24 October 1929.
   iv) The ban on African National Congress was lifted in 1966.
   a) i) and ii) are correct
   b) iii) is correct
   c) iii) and iv) are correct
   d) i), ii) and iii) are correct

2. **Assertion**: A new wave of economic nationalism which expressed itself in protectionism affected the world trade.
   Reason: This was because the USA was not willing to provide economic aid to the debtor countries.
   a) Both A and R are correct
   b) A is right but R is not the correct explanation
   c) Both A and R are wrong
   d) R is right but it has no relevance to A

3. **Assertion**: The Berlin Colonial Conference of 1884–85 had resolved that Africa should be divided into spheres of influence of various colonial powers.
   Reason: The war between the British and Boers in South Africa, however, was in defiance of this resolution.
   a) Both A and R are right
   b) A is right but R is not the right reason
   c) Both A and R are wrong
   d) A is wrong and R has no relevance to A

IV. Match the Following

1. Transvaal   -   Germany
2. Tongking   -   Hitler
3. Hindenburg   -   Italy
4. Third Reich -   gold
5. Matteotti   -   guerilla activities

V Answer briefly

1. What do you know of the White Terror in Indo-China?
2. Discuss the importance of Ottawa Economic Summit.
3. Explain the Monroe Doctrine.
4. What was the result of Mussolini's march on Rome?
5. Point out the essence of the Berlin Colonial Conference, 1884-85.
6. How did Great Depression impact on the Indian agriculture?
7. Explain the reason for the Smuts–Herzog alliance
8. Define "Dollar Imperialism."

VI. Answer the questions given under each caption

1. Anti-Colonial Struggle in Indo-China
   a) Define the concept of decolonisation
   b) What were the three States that formed Indo-China
   c) How did Communist ideas help in developing the spirit of anti-colonialism.
   d) Which was the mainstream political party in Indo-China?

2. Ho Chi Minh
   a) Where was Ho Chi Minh born?
   b) How did Ho Chi Minh become a popular Vietnam Nationalist?
   c) What do you know of Ho Chi Minh's Revolutionary Youth Movement?
   d) How was the League for Independence called in Indo-China?

3. Political developments in South America?
   a) By which year did the whole of South America become free from European domination?
   b) How many republics came into being from the Central America?
   c) In which year was Cuba occupied by the USA?
   d) What made oligarchic regimes unpopular in South America

VII. Answer in detail

1. Trace the circumstances that led to the rise of Hitler in Germany.

2. Attempt a narrative account of how the process of decolonization happened in India during the inter-war period (1919-39).

3. Describe the rise and growth of nationalist politics in South Africa.

VIII. Activity

1. Each student may be asked to write an assignment on how each sector and each section of population in the USA came to be affected by the Stock Market Crash in 1929.

2. A group project work on Vietnam War is desirable. An album or pictures, portraying the air attacks of the US on Vietnam and the brave resistance put up by the Vietnamese may be prepared.

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Timeline

- 1922   - Mussolini's March on Rome
- 1927   - Formation of Vietnam Nationalist Party
- 1929   - The Great Depression
- 1933   - Hitler became the Chancellor of Germany
- 1935   - Mussolini invaded Ethiopia

The World between Two World Wars

Unit - 3

World War II

Learning Objectives

- To acquaint ourselves about the political and economic developments after World War I which ultimately led to World War II
- To understand the course of the War, in general; in particular, to learn the main events which were turning points in the War
- To know the effects of World War II
    - Rise of the United States and the USSR as the two superpowers
    - Beginning of the age of nuclear weapons and high defence spending
    - Establishment of international agencies to promote peace and development in all countries
- To understand the "holocaust", and the mass killing of Jews in Nazi Germany leading to the creation of the state of Israel as the homeland of Jews
- To acquire knowledge about the international organisations established after the War   to create a new international order:
    - United Nations and the associated international organisations.
    - World Bank and its agencies.
    - International Monetary Fund and its objectives.
- To understand the "welfare state"; welfare states of Western Europe after World War II.

Introduction

The first half of the twentieth century witnessed two wars which devastated the world. World War I was fought from 1914 to 1918 and World War II began in 1939 and ended in 1945. While the world at large had experienced many wars, these two wars are referred to as "World" wars because of the extended areas of the conflict and the very high death toll of civilians as well as armed combatants. Both wars were fought on several fronts across Europe, Asia and Africa.

The total number of deaths in World War I is estimated to be 20 million (of whom 9.7 million were soldiers), and 21 million wounded. In World War II, the total death toll was 24 million military personnel and nearly 50 million civilians. In both wars, the combined forces of Great Britain, France, Russia and the United States fought against a war alliance led by Germany. Germany's allies were Italy and Japan in World War II.

In addition to the terrible human cost, the financial cost of the War II was

also huge. It was five times higher than the figure for World War I. World War II also witnessed unprecedented levels of brutality against non-combatant civilian populations, gross violation of international protocols on the treatment of prisoners of war, many of whom were tortured and killed. Innumerable atrocities were committed against the people living in conquered regions.

The end of World War II signalled a change in the world order and political configurations among the major powers. In addition, an era of large-scale social and economic change across the world was ushered in.

3.1	Causes, Course and Effects of World War II

(a) Causes

The devastation caused by World War I was of such magnitude that it was referred to as The Great War, or The War to End All Wars. The belligerent nations, especially the Allies, had no desire for a second prolonged conflict, and this was the main driving force behind their actions after the end of World War I. The immediate and primary cause of World War II was the aggressive military offensive undertaken by a resurgent Germany and a fast developing Japan. However, the root causes of the War are more complex. Let us try to understand them in detail.

Germany and Treaty of Versailles, 1919

The Treaty of Versailles ending World War I was signed in June 1919. Among the many clauses of the Treaty, three in particular caused great resentment among the Germans. (i) Germany was forced to give up territories to the west, north and east of the German border; (ii) Germany had to disarm and was allowed to retain only a very restricted armed force (army, navy and air force); (iii) as reparations for the War, Germany was expected to pay for the military and civilian cost of the War to the Allied nations. War reparations were calculated at $10 billion dollars by Britain, and $15 billion dollars by the United States. However, France and Belgium were able to insist on war reparations of $33 billion dollars, which Germany protested saying it was beyond its capacity to pay. The Germans offered to pay 100 billion gold marks (approximately $ 25 billion).

Failure of League of Nations

The Treaty also set up the League of Nations, as we have seen in Lesson 1, on the initiative of President Woodrow Wilson of the United States. The League was expected to mediate between countries and take action against countries which indulged in military aggression. However, the United States was not interested in playing a global role or any role in European politics. The popular mood favoured the traditional isolationist approach, and therefore the United States did not become a member of the League. The other Allied nations were also determined to maintain a non-interventionist attitude and, in consequence, the League remained an ineffectual international body.

Post-War Crisis and Germany

As mentioned above the three main clauses of the Treaty of Versailles, especially the imposition of penal reparations caused great discontent in Germany. The interwar period was a time of severe economic downturn in Western Europe as well as the United States. Britain was facing massive unemployment and its economy was nearly crippled by the General Strike of 1926. The United States was faced with the Great Depression after 1929. The problems which many countries faced in the post-World War I decades led to the rise of extreme right wing dictatorships in Italy (Mussolini), Germany (Hitler) and Spain (Franco).

Germany experienced both high unemployment and severe inflation after the War, and its currency became practically worthless. There are several pictures of the 1920s when ordinary people had to carry

money in wheelbarrows to buy bread. This was blamed on the war reparations which Germany was forced to pay, though in the final analysis, the demands for war reparations were moderated over several rounds of negotiations.

Huge worthless money for bread

The Rise of Adolf Hitler

Adolf Hitler was able to exploit the general discontent among the Germans. Gifted with great oratorical skills, he was able to sway the people by his impassioned speeches, promising a return to the glorious military past of Germany. He founded the National Socialist party, generally known as "the Nazis". The fundamental platform on which Hitler built his support was the notion of the racial superiority of the Germans as a pure, 'Aryan' race and a deep-seated hatred of the Jews. Hitler came to power in 1933 and ruled Germany till 1945.

In direct contravention of the clauses of the Treaty of Versailles, Hitler began to re-arm Germany. The recruitment for the armed forces and the manufacture of armaments and machinery for the army, navy and air force with large amounts of government spending resulted in an economic revival and solved the problem of unemployment in Germany.

Italy's break with Britain and France in the wake of Mussolini's invasion of Ethiopia resulted in better relationship between Italy and Germany. In 1936, before Germany invaded the Rhineland, which was supposed to be a demilitarised zone, Rome - Berlin Axis had come into being. Later, with Japan joining this alliance, it became Rome-Berlin-Tokyo Axis. In 1938, Hitler invaded Austria and Czechoslovakia. Sudetenland in Czechoslovakia was German speaking, and

Hitler's claim was that the German speaking people should be united in to one nation.

Allies and Non-Intervention

There were also acts of aggression by Italy and Japan. Italy invaded Ethiopia in 1935 and Albania in 1939. Emperor Haile Selassie of Ethiopia appealed to the League of Nations, but got no help. In the East, Japan was pursuing its policy of military expansion. In 1931, Japan invaded Manchuria, and in 1937 it invaded China and seized Beijing. All these were ignored by the Allies and the League of Nations was unable to take any action.

In spite of all these manifestations of military activity by Germany, Italy and Japan, Britain and France continued to be non-interventionist. The mood in Britain was not in favour of starting another war. Prime Ministers Baldwin and Chamberlain did not feel justified in intervening in a region which was not officially in their sphere of interest. The United States was totally indifferent to the outside world, and was concerned with the revival of the economy after the Great Depression.

Munich Pact

A further factor was that the western powers and the Soviet Union distrusted each other. In 1938, Prime Minister Chamberlain concluded the Munich Pact with Germany, which was a shameful acceptance of Germany's invasion of Czechoslovakia to annex German-speaking Sudetenland. In 1939 the Soviet Union independently concluded a non-aggression pact with Germany. The continued passivity of the Allies and the reluctance to start building up their armies were also contributory causes of the extended scale of World War II.

Though Hitler gave an assurance in the Munich Pact that Germany would not attack any other country, this was broken immediately. In 1939 he invaded Czechoslovakia. Poland was attacked next, and this was the final act which resulted in

the declaration of war by Britain and France against Germany. In Britain, Prime Minister Chamberlain resigned in 1940 and Winston Churchill, who had always warned about Hitler and his military ambitions, became Prime Minister.
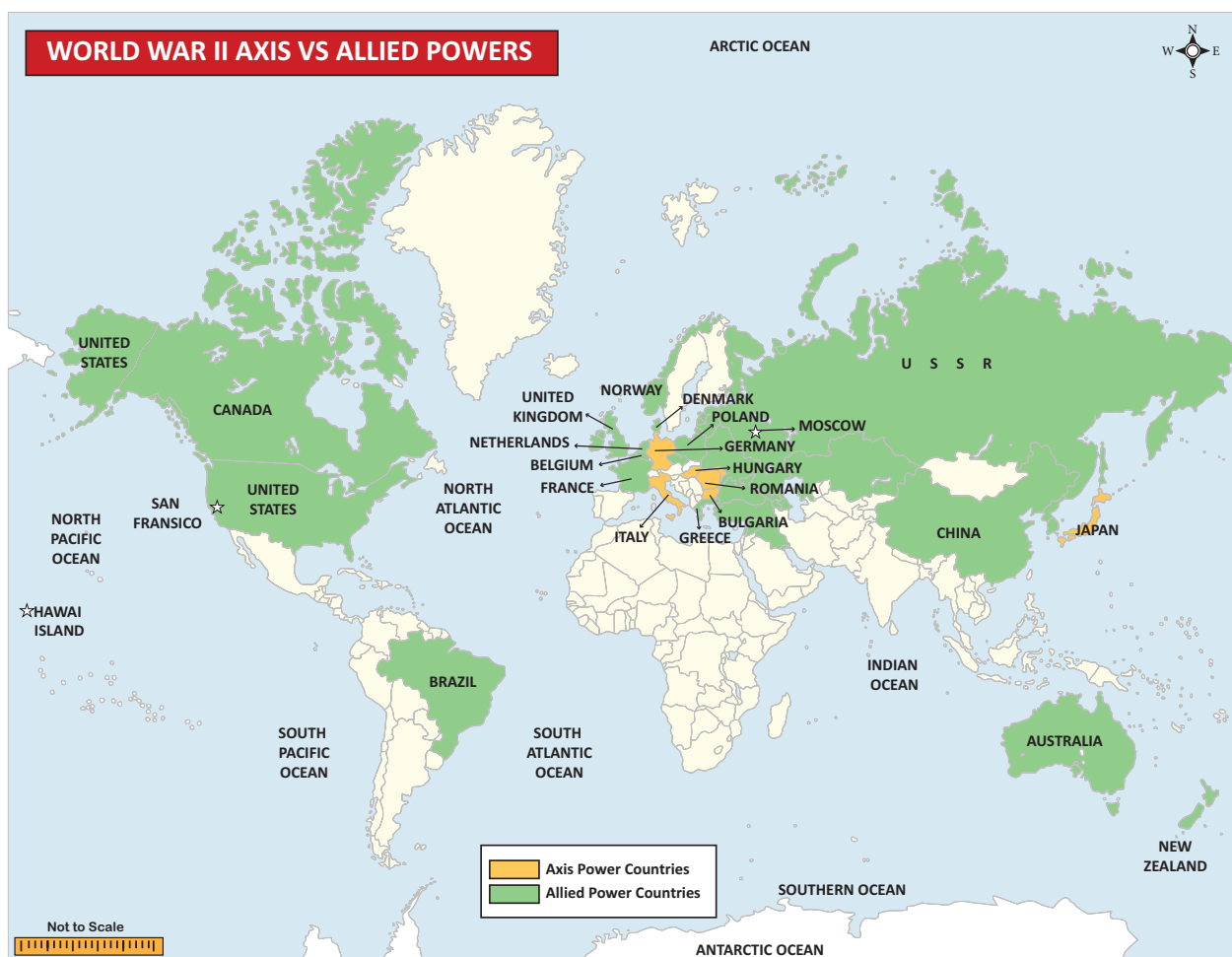

Munich Pact

(b) Course of World War II
Nature of the War

World War II was fought on two distinct fronts - Europe and the Asia Pacific. In Europe, the war was fought by the Allies against Germany and Italy. In the Asia Pacific, the Allies fought Japan. The two theatres of war will be discussed separately. The war in Europe also extended to North Africa which had been occupied by Germany.

World War II was a modern war fought with heavy military equipment such as tanks, submarines, battleships, aircraft carriers, fighter planes and bomber planes. This involved a very large resource base, since all this equipment needed to be manufactured. There had to be raw materials, manufacturing capacity and technical inputs to improve the military hardware. This was an expensive and prolonged war of attrition. Almost every foot of territory was fought for step by step, so that the final capitulation of the Axis powers came more than a year after the Allies invaded mainland Europe in June 1944.

WORLD WAR II AXIS VS ALLIED POWERS

Axis Power Countries
Allied Power Countries

Not to Scale

World War II

Outbreak of War

Britain and France declared war on Germany in September 1939. In June 1940, Italy joined Germany, and in September 1940, Japan also joined the Axis powers.

There was little action immediately after the declaration of war. Britain had already begun to build up its military capabilities, and all young men were conscripted for military duty. The first years of the War were a time of spectacular successes of the Germany army which occupied Denmark and Norway and later France. By 1941, all of mainland Europe till the Russian frontier was under the Axis powers. The German army followed a tactic of 'lightning strike' (Blitzkrieg) to storm into various countries and overrun them.

Blitzkrieg

The British Royal Navy continued to be the most powerful among the European naval forces and ensured that a sea-borne invasion of Britain was not possible.

British Royal Navy

However, Britain depended on large scale imports of food, raw materials and industrial goods by sea from its Empire and the US. To attack this, Germany developed a fleet of submarines which caused havoc, especially in the Atlantic Ocean area, by sinking a large number of civilian ships carrying supplies to Britain.

Important Events

Dunkirk – In May 1940 more than **300,000** British and French soldiers were forced back to the beaches in Dunkirk. Though they were under heavy fire, there was no all-out attack by the Germans and **338,000** men were rescued by the British by calling on all men who had boats or small ships which could be put to use. The French soldiers formed the nucleus of the Free French army under General de Gaulle. Britain would have found it difficult to regroup if so many of her soldiers had been lost at Dunkirk.

Battle of Britain– By July 1940, it was feared that the Germans were planning to invade Britain. Hitler wanted to force Britain to accept his proposals for peace by a prolonged air-borne bombing campaign. The German air force began to attack specific targets, especially the ports, airfields and industrial installations. In September 1940, London was bombed mercilessly, an action known as The Blitz. By October 1940, night bombing raids on London and other industrial cities began.

This campaign failed because with the aid of a newly developed and top secret device 'radar' for detecting aircraft while still at a distance, the fighter planes of the Royal Air Force (Spitfires and Hurricanes) were able to inflict severe losses on the German bombers. The raids stopped after October 1940. Saluting the bravery of the Royal Air Force Churchill said in a speech, that "Never was so much owed by so many to so few". The Germans dropped their plans to invade Britain because of the failure of the air battle.

Hurricanes - Royal Air Force

Spitfires - Royal Air Force

"We shall defend our island, whatever the cost may be. We shall fight on the beaches. We shall fight in the fields and in the streets. … We shall never surrender." This inspirational speech by Winston Churchill in June 1940 boosted the morale of the British people when there were real fears of an invasion by Germany.

Lend Lease 1941–1945

President Roosevelt realized that the United States had to change its policy of isolation, but could not intervene directly in the War in Europe, because it was not politically feasible. So he started a programme of "Lend Lease" in March 1941. Arms, food, military equipment and other supplies were sent to Britain, disguised as a "loan", which would be returned after use. This augmented the resources of Britain to a great extent. Between 1941 and 1945, the total aid under Lend Lease amounted to $46.5 billion.

Invasion of Russia 1941-1942

In June 1941 the German army invaded Russia. The long-term objectives of this move were to seize prime land for settling Germans, to destroy the communist regime, and also exploit Russia's natural resources, especially oil. The German strategy of lightning strikes was initially successful and the army penetrated 1000 miles into Russian territory very soon. The German army then marched on Moscow. But ultimately, the resistance by the Soviet army, and the fierce Russian winter defeated the German army.

Battle of Stalingrad (17 July 1942 to 2 February 1943)

In August 1942, the Germans attacked Stalingrad. Stretching about 30 miles (50 km) along the banks of the Volga

Battle of Stalingrad

River, Stalingrad was a large industrial city producing armaments and tractors. Capturing the city would cut Soviet transport links with southern Russia, and Stalingrad would then enable the invading Germans to have access to the oil fields of the Caucasus. In addition, seizing the city that bore the name of Soviet leader Stalin would serve as a great personal and propaganda victory for Hitler. German

war planners hoped to achieve that end with *Fall Blau* ("Operation Blue"). On June 28, 1942, operations began with significant German victories.

Russian people suffered not only from bad working and living conditions, but also from ill-treatment at German hands in the occupied areas. There were about 15 million civilian deaths during the war, and about 10 million members of the armed forces were killed. All together over one-tenth of Russia's population died. Yet the people remained loyal to the government, despite Hitler's hopes of an anti-Stalin revolution. They successfully defended the city of Stalingrad. It stopped the German advance into the Soviet Union and marked the turning of the tide of war in favour of the Allies. Russians consider it to be one of the greatest battles of their Great Patriotic War.

Battle of El Alamein 1942

In the early years of the War, German forces under General Rommel were remarkably successful in

Battle of El Alamein

occupying North Africa rapidly, leaving the British with only Egypt. The Allied forces under General Montgomery counter-attacked and defeated the German and Italian forces at El Alamein in North Africa. The German army was chased across the desert, out of North Africa. This provided the base for the Allied forces to invade Italy.

Surrender of Italy 1943

Mussolini had been thrown out and the new government of Italy surrendered to the Allies in 1943.

Surrender of Italy

However, the Germans set Mussolini up in a puppet regime in the north. Mussolini was killed in April 1945, by Italian partisans.

End of Hitler

The Allied forces under the command of General Eisenhower invaded Normandy in France. Slowly, the German army was forced back. But the Germans fought back and the War continued for nearly another year, and finally ended in May 1945. Hitler committed suicide in April 1945.

From 1944, the Russian army began to attack Germany from the East and captured much of Eastern Europe and Poland. In 1945,

Surrender of German Forces

they occupied parts of Berlin, so that Germany was divided into two sections after the War.

War in the Asia-Pacific Region

Japan had entertained visions of a glorious empire, very much on the same lines as Hitler. The Japanese army invaded Manchuria in 1931.Though China appealed to the League of Nations, this act of aggression did not attract the attention of the United States or Britain. In 1937, Japan invaded China, and seized Beijing (Peking, as it was then known) which had traditionally been the capital of China. The region around Shanghai was also captured, and Nanjing (Nanking), the capital was captured at the end of the year. The Japanese army indulged in the biggest slaughter ever known in history in Nanjing. Civilians were killed en masse for sport, and all females – from children to old women – were raped, and many were tortured and killed after being raped. Guangzhou (Canton) and many other parts of China were overrun. The Chinese army, under Chiang Kai-shek retreated to the west to the hilly country from where they continued to fight the Japanese.

China appealed to the League of Nations, but this was in vain since the western powers were not interested in being involved in a region so far from their sphere of interest. The western nations, particularly Britain, also had an in-built bias, in that China was viewed as a morally decadent, worn-out, feudal society

while Japan was a modern nation with moral values similar to western ideas.

Pearl Harbour attack

Pearl Harbour 1941

On December 1941, Japan attacked American naval installations in Pearl Harbour, Hawaii, without warning. The idea was to cripple America's Pacific fleet so that Japan would not face any opposition in its offensive against South-east Asian countries. Many battleships and numerous fighter planes were destroyed. The United States declared war on Japan, with Britain and China also joining in. This brought together both the Asia Pacific and the European war into one common cause. Most importantly, it brought the United States with its enormous resources into the war as a part of the Allies.

Japanese Aggression in South-east Asia

The Japanese had spectacular success in their plan to extend their empire throughout South-east Asia. Guam, the Philippines, Hong Kong, Singapore, Malaya, the Dutch East Indies (Indonesia) and Burma, all fell to the Japanese. The Allies faced many reverses in the Pacific region because of their inadequate preparation. The colonial rulers, especially the British, withdrew from their territories, leaving the local people to face the atrocities of the Japanese. Burma, Malaya, Singapore and the Dutch East Indies also had a considerable population of Indians and Chinese. Many Indians walked all the way from Burma to the Indian border, facing many hardships. Many died of disease and exhaustion. Those who remained suffered under the Japanese.

Battle of Midway and Battle of Guadalcanal 1942

The US navy defeated the Japanese navy in the Battle of Midway, which turned the tide

in favour of the Allies. The Battle of Guadalcanal in the Solomon Islands was a combined offensive involving the army and the navy, and lasted for several months. Both were crushing defeats for the Japanese.


Battle of Guadalcanal

After this, the American forces were able to re-take the Philippines. Gradually the Japanese were thrown out of most of their conquered territories. In 1944, the combined British and Indian armies were able to push back the Japanese who attempted to invade the north-east of India. Then, along with the Chinese, they pushed the Japanese out of Burma, and liberated Malaya and Singapore.

Hiroshima and Nagasaki, August 1945

As a top secret project, using the latest scientific advances, the US developed an atomic bomb immensely more powerful than conventional explosives. The Japanese generals refused to surrender and finally the US dropped an atomic bomb on Hiroshima. As the Japanese still refused to surrender, another atom bomb was dropped on Nagasaki. Japan ultimately announced surrender on

ATOM BOMB BLAST AT JAPAN 1945
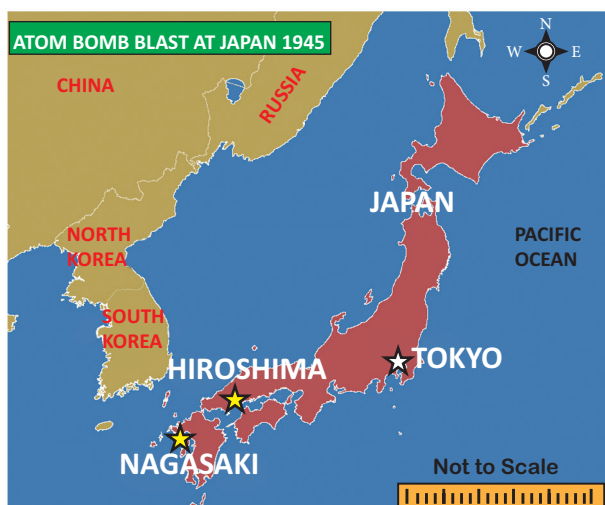
15 August 1945 and formally signed 2 September 1945 bringing an end to World War II.

The horrendous long-term effects on the local population of the radiation from the atomic bombs were not clearly understood at the time.

(c) Effects of the War

New geo-political power alignment: World War II changed the world in fundamental ways. The world was polarized into two main blocs led by superpowers, one led by the United States with a pronounced anti-Communist ideology, and the other by Soviet Russia. Europe was divided into two: Communist and non-Communist.

Nuclear proliferation: The United States and the Soviet Union entered into a race to have more nuclear powered weapons. They built a large stockpile of such weapons. Britain and France also developed their own nuclear weapons. Countries began to devote large amount of resources in developing more and more powerful weapons of great destructive power, and defence spending sky-rocketed in many countries.

International agencies: The mistakes of a weak and ineffectual League of Nations were not repeated. Many international agencies, in particular the United Nations, the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund came into existence providing a forum for countries large and small.

In addition to these major changes, other important social and economic changes also took place in the post-War world. Colonial powers were forced to give independence to former colonies in a process of decolonization. India was the first to achieve independence. In subsequent years, these newly independent nations began to make their voices heard in the international arena. Women started entering the labour force in greater numbers. Societal notions of stable social relations (marriage,

family) changed as more and more women became economically independent.

3.2 Holocaust and Its Fallout

After Hitler came to power, the Jews were persecuted in many ways. They were deprived of their civil rights, their properties were confiscated and many were confined to ghettos. Eventually, the Nazis came up with the notion of the Final Solution, which was to exterminate the Jews completely. Jews in Germany and in all the countries overrun by the Nazis were rounded up and transported in cattle cars to concentration camps. Here they were subjected to inhuman living conditions, torture, horrible medical experiments supposedly in the name of science. Finally they were killed in gas chambers. Nearly six million European Jews were killed in these extermination camps. The killing continued till the end of the war, when the surviving inmates of different concentration camps were rescued by the invading Allied armies. Other ethnic groups, especially the Romani gypsies were also killed in the concentration camps.

Universal Declaration of Human Rights

In the aftermath of the Holocaust the UNO in its Charter, pledged to promote universal respect for and observance of human rights and fundamental freedoms for all without distinction to race, sex, language and religion. The UN efforts to protect human rights on a global basis resulted in the constitution of UN Commission on Human Rights. A committee constituted under its auspices was chaired by the widow of President Franklin Roosevelt. The members of the Commission included Charles Malik of Lebanon, P.C. Chang of Nationalist China, John Humphrey of Canada, and Rene Cassin of France. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights was its important contribution. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights set forth fundamental human

The word 'holocaust' is used to describe the genocide of nearly six million Jews by the Germans during World War II. Annihilating the Jews was one of the main items on the political agenda of Hitler and the Nazis. Hitler was able to play on the anti-Jewish feelings (anti-Semitism) which were common in Germany and, in fact, throughout Europe. Jews were scattered all across Europe and many had become prominent in business, in performing arts and professional fields. Money-lending was a major business activity among Jews and this strengthened the prejudice against them. Shakespeare's play, *The Merchant of Venice* clearly depicts the dislike and distrust of Jews among the people. The character of Shylock is a stereotype. The movie, *Fiddler on the Roof*, is about the anti-Jewish pogrom in nineteenth century Russia when an entire village of Jews is forced to move out by an order of the Tsar.

rights in 30 articles. The UN adopted this historic Charter on 10 December 1948. This day (10 December) is observed globally as Human Rights Day. Provisions of some ninety national constitutions since 1948, according to the Franklin and Eleanor Roosevelt Institute in New York, can be traced to this Declaration.

Birth of Israel

A major outcome of the Holocaust was the creation of the state of Israel as a homeland for the Jews. While this was historically the original home of the Jews during Roman times, the Jews had dispersed across Europe, and the region was predominantly populated by Muslims by the twentieth century. Carving out a Jewish state in this region has created continuous tensions in west Asia. There is a continuous state of hostility between the Arab states and Israel. Israel has occupied large parts of Palestinian homelands. Israel derives vast support from the United States.

3.3 New International Order

By 1941 the United States and Britain began to give serious consideration to the need for international cooperation for achieving lasting peace among all nations. International economic and financial stability were also important objectives. All these would need international organizations with members of the various nations across the world working together for these common objectives. This ultimately resulted in the establishment of the United Nations, the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund, with many associated organizations which deal with basic issues of importance for all societies and countries.

International agencies had been established after World War I. But the League of Nations unfortunately proved to be ineffectual. The International Labour Office (ILO) located in Geneva in Switzerland, however, is still active and continues to work on issues relating to labour and employment.

United Nations

The first initiative for the United Nations came from the United States and Britain in 1941 when they issued a joint declaration known as the Atlantic Charter. This stated that after the destruction of Nazi tyranny, there would be peace for all countries so that all people could live their lives in freedom from fear and want. This Declaration of the United Nations was accepted by all the 26 countries

Symbol of UN

which were fighting against the Axis powers (Germany, Italy and Japan) on New Year's Day, 1942.The Charter of the United Nations was signed on June 26, 1945 by 51 nations. India which was not an independent country then also was a signatory to the Charter. Now the United Nations has 193 member states and each one - big or small - has an equal vote in the United Nations.

General Assembly and Security Council

UN Headquarters, New York

The United Nations functions almost like any government, through its principal organs which are similar to the legislative, executive and judicial wings of a state. In the General Assembly is the body in which each member state is represented. It meets once a year and issues of interest and points of conflict are discussed in the Assembly. The Security Council has fifteen members. Five countries - the United States, Britain, France, Russia and China - are permanent members, and there are ten temporary members who are elected in rotation. These two bodies function like a legislature. Each of the permanent members has the right to veto any decision by the other members of the Security Council. This right has often been used to block major decisions, especially by the superpowers, the US and Russia. Major issues and conflicts are discussed in the Security Council.

Administrative Structure

The executive wing of the United Nations is the UN Secretariat. It is headed by the Secretary General, who is elected by the General Assembly on the recommendation of the Security Council. The Secretary General, along with his cabinet and other officials, runs the United Nations. The International Court of Justice, headquartered at The Hague in Holland, is the judicial wing of the United Nations. The Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC), the fifth organ of the United Nations, is responsible for coordinating all the economic and social work of the United Nations. The regional Economic Commissions functioning for regional development across the various regions of the world (Asia Pacific, West Asia, Europe, Africa and Latin America) are organs of ECOSOC. They have been very

successful, and have been headed by eminent economists like Gunnar Myrdal.

Other Important Organs of the UN

Associated organizations deal with areas of critical interest to the world at large like food, health and education, and culture. These are: Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO), World Health Organisation (WHO), UNESCO (UN Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation). There are also special organizations funded voluntarily by member countries. The two best known among them are UNICEF (United Nations Children's Fund) which promotes child health and welfare across the world, and the UNDP (United Nations Development Programme), which focuses on development.

Activities of the UN

Over the decades, the United Nations has expanded its activities in response to the changing problems facing the world. Thus, in the 1960s, decolonization was an important issue. Human rights, the problems of refugees, climate change, gender equality are all now within the ambit of the activities of the United Nations. A special mention must be made of the UN Peacekeeping force, which has acted in many areas of conflict all over the world. The Indian army has been an important part of the peacekeeping force and has been deployed in many parts of the world.

"We, the peoples of the United Nations, determined to save succeeding generations from scourge of war, which twice in our lifetime has brought untold sorrow to mankind, and to reaffirm faith in fundamental human rights, in the dignity and worth of the human person, in the equal rights of men and women, and of nations large and small …". - from The Preamble to the United Nations

World Bank

The World Bank and the International Monetary Fund, referred to as the "Bretton Woods Twins", were both established in 1945 after the Bretton Woods Conference in 1944. Located in Washington D.C. in the United States, they have the same membership, since a country cannot be a member of the Bank without being a member of the Fund.

Bretton Woods Conference

The two main organs of the World Bank are the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD) and the International Development Agency (IDA), Together they are often referred to as the World Bank. The main responsibility of the IBRD in the initial years was to fund the reconstruction activities under the Marshall Plan in the European countries devastated by the war. The agenda later expanded to promote economic development in poorer countries and the Bank lends money to various countries for developmental projects. A further area of interest is poverty alleviation, especially in the rural areas of developing countries. The International Development Agency (IDA) also lends money to governments for developmental activities. These loans are "soft" loans, and are given at very low rates of interest for a period of 50 years. The International Finance Corporation (IFC) mainly functions with private enterprises in developing countries.

In recent years the Bank is actively promoting the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals which aim at improving living standards, removing illiteracy, empowering women and improving maternal and child health, improving the environment and eradicating AIDS.

International Monetary Fund (IMF)

The International Monetary Fund was primarily the brainchild of Harry Dexter White and John Maynard Keynes, the famous economist. It was formally organized in 1945 with 29 member countries. It now has a membership of 189 countries. Its primary objective is to ensure financial stability and development across the world. The main agenda is to promote international monetary cooperation, expansion of international trade and exchange stability. The Fund lends money from its resources to countries facing balance of payments problems (because they are unable to pay for their imports). It however imposes stringent conditions on the borrowing nations to tighten their budgets, practice fiscal prudence and reduce their expenditure. This is often unpopular, especially among the developing countries which may have to cut down on various programmes which provide subsidies to the people.

> The objectives of the IMF are: "to foster global monetary cooperation, secure financial stability, facilitate international trade, promote high employment and sustainable economic growth and reduce poverty around the world."

3.4 | Post-War Welfare States in Europe

The term Welfare State refers to the concept that the government is responsible for the social and economic welfare of the people, thus expanding the role of the state beyond providing defence and maintaining law and order. The state now intervenes in many ways to protect the welfare of the people, for instance, through laws which protect workers in the workplace by prescribing the number of working hours, minimum wages and safe working conditions and so on. Throughout Europe, after the War, governments and the people did not want to return to the economic hardships and unemployment which were experienced after World War I. A comprehensive programme of social welfare schemes in addition to ensuring that the people enjoyed civil and political rights were therefore adopted. While non-democratic governments (for example, Nazi Germany or communist states), also provide comprehensive welfare services, the term welfare state is used only for states where the people also enjoy civil and political liberties. All the countries in Western Europe are now welfare states, where the citizens are provided free health and social services. However presently welfare states are experiencing great stress due to aging populations immigration, etc.

In 1942, the Report commonly known as the Beveridge Report was published in the United Kingdom which proposed a series of measures which the government should adopt to provide citizens with adequate income, health care, education, housing and employment to overcome poverty and disease which were the major impediments to general welfare.

After the War, the Labour party was voted into power in Britain. It promised to undertake steps to look after the people "from the cradle to the grave". Legislation was enacted to provide comprehensive free health coverage to the citizens through the National Health Service and monetary benefits like old page pensions and unemployment benefits, childcare services and family welfare services. These are in addition to universal, free school education to all children.

The benefits can either be achieved through cash transfers, like old age pensions and unemployment compensation, or through free services. In addition, these countries also try to minimize economic disparities through progressive taxation by taxing the higher income groups at relatively high rates.

SUMMARY

- The War lasted from 1939 till 1945 and was fought in almost every part of the world, in Europe, Africa and the Asia Pacific. The Allies, initially Britain and France, and subsequently the USSR (Russia) and the United States, fought against the Axis powers - Germany, Italy and Japan.

- Initially both the German army in Europe and Japan in the East were very successful. However, after the United States with its enormous resources also joined the Allies, both Germany and Japan were defeated after many prolonged fighting. The War ended in Europe in May 1945, but it ended in Asia only in August 1945, after the Americans dropped atom bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki.

- The post-War world saw the rise of two superpowers, namely the United States and the USSR. Both countries were in an arms race, especially to build their nuclear weapons.

- During the War, the Nazis resorted to killing the Jews in concentration camps. Nearly six million Jews were transported to these camps, tortured and killed.

🔤 GLOSSARY

devastation/ havoc	total destruction	பேரழிவு
belligerent	one eager to fight / aggressive	போர் நாட்டம்
resurgent	rising again	மீண்டெழுகிற
resentment	a feeling of deep and bitter anger	கடுங்கோபம்
reparations	compensation exacted from a defeated nation by the victors	இழப்பீடுகள்
armaments	weapons	போர்த்தளவாடங்கள்
reluctance	unwillingness	தயக்கம்
conscripted	compulsory military service	கட்டாய இராணுவ சேவைக்கு அழைக்கப்பட்ட
morale	sense of confidenc	மனத்திண்மை
slaughter	kill a large number of people indiscriminately	வதைத்துக் கொல்லுதல்
proliferation	a rapid increase	பல்கிப் பெருகுதல்
confiscated	seized / took away	பறிமுதல் செய்யப்பட்ட
ghettos	slums	குடிசைத்தொகுதி
veto	a vote that blocks a decision / negative vote	மறுப்பாணை / எதிர்வாக்கு
ambit	range	வரம்பு / எல்லை
scourge	eternal suffering	மீளாத்துயரம்
stringent	tough	கடுமையான

EXERCISE

I. Choose the correct answer

1. When did the Japanese formally sign of their surrender?
   a) 2 September, 1945   b) 2 October, 1945
   c) 15 August, 1945   d) 12 October, 1945

2. Who initiated the formation of League of Nations?
   a) Roosevelt   b) Chamberlain
   c) Woodrow Wilson   d) Baldwin

3. Where was the Japanese Navy defeated by the US Navy?
   a) Battle of Guadalcanal
   b) Battle of Midway
   c) Battle of Leningrad
   d) Battle of El Alamein

4. Where did the US drop its first atomic bomb?
   a) Kavashaki   b) Innoshima
   c) Hiroshima   d) Nagasaki

5. Who were mainly persecuted by Hitler?
   a) Russians   b) Arabs
   c) Turks   d) Jews

6. Which Prime Minister of England who signed the Munich Pact with Germany ?
   a) Chamberlain   b) Winston Churchill
   c) Lloyd George d) Stanley Baldwin

7. When was the Charter of the UN signed?
   a) June 26, 1942   b) June 26, 1945
   c) January 1, 1942   d) January 1, 1945

8. Where is the headquarters of the International Court of Justice located?
   a) New York   b) Chicago
   c) London   d) The Hague

II Fill in the blanks

1. Hitler attacked---------------- which was a demilitarised zone.
2. The alliance between Italy, Germany and Japan is known as -----------.
3. --------- started the Lend Lease programme.
4. Britain Prime Minister --------------- resigned in 1940.
5. Saluting the bravery of the ------------------- Churchill said that "Never was so much owed by so many to so few".
6. ------------- is a device used to find out the enemy aircraft from a distance.
7. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights set forth fundamental human rights in --------------articles.
8. After the World War II ---------------- was voted into power in Great Britain.

III. Choose the correct statement

1. i) Banking was a major business activity among Jews.
   ii) Hitler persecuted the Jews.
   iii) In the concentration camps Jews were killed.
   iv) The United Nations has currently 129 member countries in it.
   a) i) and ii) are correct
   b) i) and iii) are correct

c) iii) and iv) are correct
d) (i) is correct and ii), iii) and iv) are wrong

2. **Assertion:** President Roosevelt realised that the United States had to change its policy of isolation.
   Reason: He started a programme of Lend Lease in 1941.
   a) Both A and R are correct
   b) A is right but R is not the correct reason
   c) Both A and R are wrong
   d) R is right but it has no relevance to A

IV. Match the Following

1. Blitzkrieg   -   Roosevelt
2. Royal Navy   -   Stalingrad
3. Lend Lease   -   Solomon Island
4. Volga   -   Britain
5. Guadalcanal   -   lightning strike

V Answer the questions briefly

1. Mention the important clauses of the Treaty of Versailles relating to Germany.
2. Who were the three prominent dictators of the post World War I ?
3. How did Hitler get the support from the people of Germany?
4. Describe the Pearl Harbour incident.
5. What do you know of Beveridge Report?.
6. Name the Bretton Woods Twins.
7. What are the objectives of IMF?

VI. Answer the questions given under each caption

1. Battle of Stalingrad
   a) When did Germany attack Stalingrad?
   b) What were the main manufactures of Stalingrad?
   c) What was the name of the plan formulated by Hitler to attack Stalingrad?
   d) What is the significance of the Battle of Stalingrad?

2. Japanese Aggression in South-east Asia
   a) Name the South-east Asian countries which fell to the Japanese.
   b) Account for the setback of Allies in the Pacific region?
   c) What is the significance of Battle of Midway?
   d) What happened to the Indians living in Burma?

3. General Assembly and Security Council
   a) List the permanent member countries of the Security Council.
   b) What is the Holocaust?
   c) Who was the Chairperson of the UN Commission on Human Rights?
   d) What is meant by veto?

VII. Answer in detail

1. Attempt an essay on the rise and fall of Adolf Hitler.
2. Analyse the effects of the World War II.
3. Assess the structure and the activities of the UN.

VIII. Students Activity

1. Group project involving students to prepare an album with pictures on different phases of the World War II.

2. A debate in the class on the success or failure of the UN in preserving World Peace.
3. Marking the Allies and Axis countries, as well as important battlefields of World War II in a world map.

IX. Map Work

Mark the following on the world map.

1. Axis Power Countries
2. Allied Power Countries
3. Hiroshima, Nagasaki, Hawai Island, Moscow, San Fransico

REFERENCE BOOKS

1. R.D. Cornwell, *World History in the Twentieth Century,* London: Longman, 1972.
2. C.V. Narasimhan, *The United Nations - An Inside View*, New Delhi: Vikas, 1988.
3. *Encyclopaedia Britannica*, vol. 23 (1962 edition).

Timeline

- 1939   - Outbreak of World War II
- 1940   - Battle of Britain
- 1941   - Pearl Harbour incident
- 1942   - Battle of Stalingrad
- 1945   - End of World War II
- 1945   - Formation of UNO

ICT CORNER

Steps

- Open the Browser and type the URL given below (or) Scan the QR Code.
- Click on '**map**' to see the events happened in the location
- Select any year from the bottom time line **(Ex.1939)** and select the '**box**' to learn more about the World War II events.

Website URL:

https://www.abmc.gov/sites/default/files/interactive/interactive_files/WW2/index.html

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Unit - 4

The World After World War II

Learning Objectives

To acquaint ourselves with

- Communist Revolution in China
- Cold War and the Non-Aligned Movement
- Korean War and the Cuban Missile Crisis
- Arab–Israeli Wars and Vietnam War
- European Economic Community and European Union
- Fall of Berlin Wall and the End of Cold War Era

Introduction

In the aftermath of Second World War a new era began. It was the beginning of the decline of European colonial empires and the independence of colonies in Asia and Africa. If the effects of World War I led to the communist revolution of Russia, the Second World War played a big part in the communist revolution in China. The emergence of the US and the USSR as super powers resulted in the division the world into two antagonistic blocs. A cold war (see the box item) situation triggered deadly conflicts in Korea, Cuba, Vietnam and West Asia.

Under the Marshall Plan for reconstruction of the war-ravaged Europe, the US won the trust of the great powers in Europe. Soviet Russia, by demonstrating solidarity with the liberation struggles of countries in Asia and Africa, earned the goodwill of the latter.

The Non-Aligned Movement played a limited role in containing the conflict between the two power blocs. In a bid to wriggle out of US control, European countries started the European movement in the form of Council of Europe. This developed into the European Common Market and finally into what is today the European Union. The Cold War period ended with the fall of Berlin Wall.

4.1 Chinese Revolution

(a) China in the Pre-War Period

In its long history, Chinese civilization was more advanced than that of Europe. But by the end of the nineteenth century, its progress had halted. The Manchus, the ruling dynasty, had governed China since about 1650. The entire administration system was in the hands of a bureaucracy of scholar-officials called mandarins who came from the landed gentry. The mass of peasant population was poverty-stricken, and suffered from high rents, high taxes, and shortage of land. There was very little industry, though some railways and engineering works had been built.

Taiping Rebellion

Discontent with the political and economic system resulted in a number of peasant uprisings. The Taiping Rebellion (1850–64) was a major rebellion. The death toll was 20 million. At a time when the government was becoming unpopular and weak, European pressure on China to open its doors to foreign trade was also increasing. In the two opium wars of 1832 and 1848, China was defeated and was compelled to open its ports to western powers. The opening of China to western imperialism led to economic exploitation and the impoverishment of the Chinese people.

The European presence produced a profound hatred of foreigners. This combined with military defeat, led to more pressing demands for reforms from the Western-educated intellectuals. In 1898, the young Emperor, initiated a series of reforms known as the Hundred Days of Reform. But these reforms aroused tremendous opposition from the powerful conservatives and the Dowager-Empress Tzú Hsi. She imprisoned the Emperor and reversed the reforms.

Despite its incompetence and weakness, the Manchu government lasted until two years before the First World War.

(b) The Chinese Revolution 1911

The disintegration of the Manchu dynasty began with the death of the Dowager-Empress in 1908. The new emperor was two-years old and the provincial governors began to assert their independence. In October 1911 the local army mutinied and the revolt spread. Provincial governors removed the Manchu garrisons and proclaimed their independence. Already there were a few middle-class leaders. Dr. Sun Yat-sen was one among them. On hearing the news of the rising in a newspaper in the United States Sun Yat-sen arrived in Shanghai and was immediately elected provisional president of the new Chinese Republic. But Yuan Shih-kai, who had earlier served as a minister in the Manchu administration, had full control of the modern army in the north. He succeeded in persuading those responsible for the ascension of the young Emperor to prevail on him to abdicate. A republic was also set up.
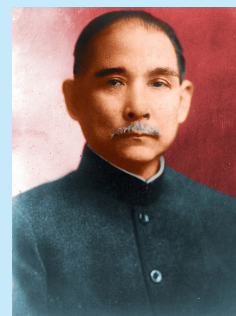
Dr. Sun Yat-sen (1866–1925)
Born in a poor family near Canton, Dr. Sun Yat-sen, the father of modern china was educated in a mission school and became a Christian. He was then trained as a doctor of medicine in Hong Kong. Evincing interest in politics he took part in a rising against the Manchus in 1895. As the rising failed, Sun Yat-sen spent the next sixteen years in exile. He used this time to spread his nationalist ideas amongst Chinese students and others living overseas. In 1905 he founded in Tokyo the political party which in 1912 became the Kuomintang or the National People's Party. Dr. Sun Yat-sen's three principles were Nationalism, Democracy, and People's livelihood with Socialism as the ultimate object.

(c) Yuan Shih-kai and After

The unity of China under Yuan Shih-kai lasted for four years. During this time it was clear that Yuan was opposed to both democracy and republicanism. The Kuomintang Party was crushed. Yuan lost prestige in the eyes of nationalism, when he agreed to the demand of Japan to have economic control of Manchuria and Shantung. On his death in 1916 a new President was appointed for the

next twelve years but the government was central only in name. During this period of anarchy in China, Marxist ideas were developing in the north of China, parallel to Sun-Yat-sen's activities in the coastal cities between Shanghai and Canton.

Yuan Shih-kai

Mao Tse-tung (1893–1976)

Mao was born in Hunan in south-east China. His father was a wealthy peasant, and a firm supporter of the Manchus. Mao, who was very fond of reading, soon showed his ability and entered the Junior College at Changsha. This was the year (1911) when the Revolution had broken out in China. Mao joined the revolutionary army but soon left and enrolled in the Teachers' Training College in Changsha. He then moved to Peking and served as an assistant librarian in Peking University. In the following year Mao began his full-fledged political activities of Hunan and emerged as a staunch Communist.

(d) Communist Party of China

With the Revolution and the breakup of the old society, Confucian thought was generally side-lined and after the Russian Revolution of 1917, the ideas of Marx and Lenin became popular among intellectuals. In 1918 a Society for the Study of Marxism was formed in Peking University. Among the students who attended was **Mao Tse-tung.**

In the meantime, Sun Yat-sen, sent Chiang Kai-shek to Moscow to seek Russian support. The Russians in turn sent Michael Borodin to China, who reorganised the Kuomintang

as a centralised mass party and helped to build up a revolutionary army. The Whampoa Military Academy was founded near Canton, with the assistance of Russian officers. Its first director was Chiang Kai-shek. On the staff in charge of political activities was Chou En Lai, as an alliance had been formed between the Chinese Communist Party and the Kuomintang.

Chou En Lai

Kuomintang and Chiang Kai Shek

After the death of Sun Yat Sen the Kuomintang was organised on communist lines, but it did not adopt communist policies. The leader of the Kuomintang was Chiang Kai-shek. While the Communist Party was under Mao Tse Tung and Chou En Lai. As an avowed critic of Communists, Chiang removed all of them from important positions in the party. The communists increased their influence among the workers and peasants and obtained recruits for their army. The Kuomintang represented the interests of the landlords and capitalists.

Chiang Kai-shek

Chiang Kai-shek started conquering China. Starting from Canton, by the end of 1925, he had captured Hanko. In early 1927 he successfully laid siege on Shanghai and Nanking. He removed all communists in the Kuomintang Party. In 1928 he was successful in capturing Peking. Once again there was a central government in China.

Mao as Organizer of Peasants

Mao had understood that the Kuomintang grip on the towns was very strong. So he concentrated his energies on organizing the peasantry. When the relationship between

The World After World War II

Kuomintang and Communist Party broke a few hundred Communists led by Mao retreated into the wild mountains. Here they stayed for the next seven years. As the army of Mao was gradually growing, the Kuomintang was unable to penetrate the mountains. The campaign against the communists was distracted as Chiang Kai-shek had to deal with the constant threat from Japan and also the attacks from war lords.

The Long March 1934

As Chiang Kai-shek had built a circle of fortified posts around the communist positions, Mao wanted to move out of Hunan for safer territory. By 1933 Mao had gained full control of the Chinese Communist party. In 1934, the Communist army of about 100,000 set out on the Long March. This march has become legendary. The marchers were continually harassed by Kuomintang forces, by local war lords and by unfriendly tribesmen. Of the 100000 who set out, only 20,000 finally reached northern Sheni late in 1935, after crossing nearly 6000 miles. They were soon joined by other communist armies. By 1937 Mao had become the leader of over 10 million people. Mao organised workers and peasants' councils in villages of Shensi and Kansu and established the base for the eventual Communist takeover of China.

Mao's Long March

Japanese Aggression

Japanese interest in taking control over Korea led to aggression against China which was weak and backward. Japan continued to occupy north Chinese provinces while developing Manchuria as a military base. Mao believed that Chiang Kai-shek was necessary for some time to hold together Kuomintang to fight the Japanese. As a consequence of this pragmatic policy, the attacks on the communists gradually stopped. At the same time a stronger line was adopted towards Japanese expansion. But the Japanese occupied the whole of the eastern half of China, as the Kuomintang armies were not strong enough.

Communist Victory

With the surrender of the Japanese (1945), both the Kuomintang and the communists sought to occupy the Japanese areas. In this race the Kuomintang was successful. The cities and railways soon fell into their hands. Even the area around Peking was soon controlled by Chiang Kai-shek's forces, largely because of the military aid given by the USA.

With the massive support provided by the USA Kuomintang government controlled the administration, ports and communication system. But the soldiers, mainly drawn from the peasants, were disillusioned and discontented. Mao was keen on obtaining the support of the middle class. So he declared that what the communists wanted was the rule of the people, not the dictatorship of the proletariat; the end of exploitation, not absolute equality.

Mao continued the use of guerrilla tactics, but also ordered large-scale military movements. Cities fell one by one and Chiang Kai-shek's army began to disintegrate quickly. In the summer of 1948, Communist control had been established over most parts of China.

National People's Congress

In September 1949, before fighting had ended in the south of China, the people's Political Consultative Conference met in Peking. Consisting of over 650 delegates from the Communist Party and other left-wing organizations, the conference elected the Central Governing Council with Mao as its Chairman.

The establishment of the People's Republic of China under the leadership of Mao Tse Tung was a world-shaking event. There were now two mighty Communist powers in the world —the Soviet Union and People's Republic of China.

Denial of UNO Membership

The United-States refused to recognize the People's Republic of China for more than two decades. Instead, the government of Chiang Kai-shek in Taiwan (Formosa) was given recognition due to the pressure of the US.

4.2 Cold War: Rivalry between the US and the Soviet Union

Cold War

The rivalry that developed after World War II between the US and the USSR and their respective allies created tension which is referred to as Cold War. The two super powers were organised after the War into rival military alliances. They did not take recourse to weapons. Instead they waged war on political, economic and ideological fronts. The term 'Cold War' was first coined by the English writer George Orwell (1945).

### 1. Truman's Policy of Containment of Communism

In 1948 the Soviets had established socialist governments in the countries of eastern Europe that had been liberated from the Nazis by the Soviet Army. The Americans and the British feared the permanent Soviet domination

Truman

of eastern Europe. Truman, the president of USA, pursued a policy of containment of communism. The Soviets were however determined not only to maintain control of eastern Europe, but also keen on spreading Communism world-wide.

2. Marshall Plan

The US conceived the Marshall Plan to bring the countries in western Europe under its influence. The plan sought to help the countries of Europe with American dollars to facilitate their early recovery from the destruction caused by the Second World War.
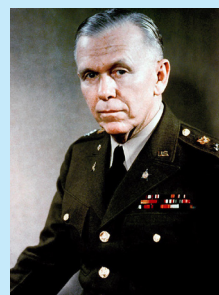
Marshall

The United States was much concerned that poverty, unemployment, and dislocation caused by the post-World War II period were increasing the appeal of communist parties in western Europe. The Secretary of State, George C. Marshall, advanced the idea of a European self-help programme to be financed by the United States. Sixteen nations, became part of this programme. Administrative and technical assistance was offered through the Economic Cooperation Administration (ECA) of the United States. European nations received nearly $13 billion in aid with shipments of food, staples, fuel and machinery and later in investment in industrial capacity in Europe. Marshall Plan funding ended in 1951.

4.3 Formation of Military Alliances

(a) NATO

The United States and its European allies formed the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) to resist Soviet aggression in Europe (1949). It was an inter-state military alliance between the countries of North America and Europe. The

major member countries included Canada, Belgium, Denmark, France, Iceland, Italy, Luxemburg, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal and the United Kingdom. Later Greece and Turkey joined the organization (1952). Germany joined the NATO in 1955. The chief objective of NATO was the peace and security in the North Atlantic region. The members agreed that an armed attack against any one of them would be considered as an aggression against all the members of NATO. However even after the fall of the Soviet Union NATO has continued to expand. It had 29 members in 2017, including all seven non-Soviet former Warsaw Pact nations.

(b) SEATO or Manila Pact (1954)

The Southeast Asia Treaty Organization (SEATO) was organized for the collective security of countries in Southeast Asia. Following the signing of the Manila Pact (1954) by the US, France, England, New Zealand, Australia, the Philippines, Thailand and Pakistan. Member countries of SEATO were committed to prevent communism from gaining ground in the region. Unlike the NATO alliance, SEATO had no joint commands with standing forces.

(c) Warsaw Pact

As a counter to the NATO, Soviet Union organized the Soviet-bloc countries for a united military action, under the Warsaw Pact. In December 1954, a conference of eight European nations namely, Albania, Bulgaria, Hungary, Czechoslovakia, East Germany, Poland, Romania and Russia took place in Moscow. They concluded the treaty on May 14, 1955. This is known as the Warsaw pact. A joint command of armed forces of the member countries with its headquarters in Moscow was setup. The Warsaw Pact was dissolved in 1991 following the break-up of USSR.

(d) CENTO or the Baghdad Pact

In 1955 Turkey, Iraq, Great Britain, Pakistan and Iran signed a pact known as Baghdad Pact. In 1958 the United States joined the organisation and thereafter it came to be known as the Central Treaty Organization. This treaty was open to any Arab nation desiring peace and security in the region. CENTO was dissolved in 1979.

(e) High Military Expenditure on both sides

As a result of the military alliances, military expenditure on both sides kept increasing even in peace time. America had used the nuclear bomb against Japan to convey its destructive capability to the Soviet Union. In response the Soviet Union tested the nuclear bomb in 1949. There was intense competition to develop more and more destructive nuclear weapons.

The conflict between the two sides led to many international crises after the end of World War II. The danger of the use of nuclear weapons that could destroy the entire humankind was palpable. While both sides encouraged intellectuals to propagate their views, intellectuals like Bertrand Russell called for nuclear disarmament. Peace movements and popular organizations such as Campaign for Nuclear Disarmament came into existence in Europe to warn the world of the dangers of a nuclear war.

4.4 Korean War

The Korean War made the Cold War really hot. Since Korea was partitioned as North and South (1945), each side sought to win legitimacy by unifying the country. The President of North Korea Kim II

(People's Republic of Korea) decided to act before his southern rival, Syngman Rhee (the Republic of Korea), got the chance. He launched an attack in June 1950, with the tacit support of Stalin. Both Kim and Stalin did not expect the US to intervene. The war

Korean War

lasted for three years. The human cost was enormous. But the Korean people gained nothing. The final demarcation line was the same as at the beginning. This futile Korean War sums up the Cold War.

Third World Countries

The capitalist countries led by the U.S. were politically designated as the First World, while the communist states led by the Soviet Union came to be known as the Second world. States outside these two were called Third World. When the term was originally introduced, the Third World principally consisted of the developing world, the former colonies of Africa, Asia, and Latin America. With the break-up of the Soviet Union in 1991, and the process of globalisation and economic competitiveness, the term has lost its relevance.

4.5 Non-Aligned Movement

The Non-Alignment Movement (NAM) emerged in the wake of decolonization that followed World War II. At the Bandung (a city in Indonesia) conference (1955), the newly independent countries of Asia and Africa gave a call for abstaining from allying with any of the two Super Powers. It also pledged to fight all forms of colonialism and imperialism.

The NAM held its first conference at Belgrade in 1961 under the leadership of Tito (Yugoslavia), Nasser (Egypt), Nehru (India), Nkrumah (Ghana) and Sukarno (Indonesia). The basic principles of non-alignment, as listed in the statement issued at the Belgrade (a Serbian city, then part of Yugoslavia) Conference, were: peaceful co-existence, commitment to peace and security, no military alliance with any super power, no permission for any super power to build its military base in its territories. With the collapse of Soviet Union, the idea of non-alignment lost relevance.

4.6 The Cuban Revolution

The United States had its satellite states in Central America (Honduras, El Salvador, Nicaragua, Panama and Guatemala), the Caribbean (Cuba, the Dominion Republic and Haiti) and east Asia (the Philippines, South Korea, South Vietnam and Thailand). These states were governed by ruling groups made up of military personnel, landed gentry and occasionally of local capitalists. This made them dependent on US aid. At times the US intervened for a change of government to suit its economic and strategic interests. Its Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) was used for this purpose. For example, in 1954, the CIA organized the overthrow of a reformist government in Guatemala. Five years later the US tried to prop up the corrupt and dictatorial Cuban regime of Batista against the seizure of government by Fidel Castro and his colleague Che Guevara.

After Castro took power, the US-owned oil refineries on the island refused to process Russian oil. Castro nationalized them. The US retaliated by ending the arrangement by which it bought the bulk of Cuba's sugar. Castro nationalized the US-owned sugar companies. and ended the US monopolies in electricity and telephones. All these gravely threatened American economic interests.

Fidel Castro and Che Guevara

Cuban Missile Crisis

In April 1961, while landing an army of Cuban exiles on the island of Bay of Pigs, the US bombed Cuban airfields with the objective of overthrowing Castro's regime. US warships surrounded Cuba. The Kennedy government had received intelligence that the USSR was secretly installing nuclear missiles in Cuba. Finally, the Soviet President Khrushchev agreed to withdraw the missiles and thus the Missile Crisis was defused.

Cuban Missile Crisis

Eventually the two sides reached an agreement. The Soviet Union removed the missiles from Cuba on an understanding that the US would never invade Cuba again. In secret the US also had to agree to remove their nuclear missiles from Turkey and Italy.

4.7 Arab-Israeli War

The Treaty of Versailles (1919) had provided for mandates in Turkish Arab Empire. France was given the mandate for Syria and Lebanon, and Britain for Iraq, Palestine and Jordan. This arrangement upset the Arabs since they had expected independence at the end of World War I. Britain's promise to Zionist leaders that it would allocate one of the Arab lands, Palestine, to Jewish settlers from Europe further embittered the Arabs. There was growing Arab antagonism towards Zionist settlers, as they bought land from rich Arabs and evicted the local peasant families who had been cultivating it for centuries.

At the end of October 1945, the Jewish underground organizations like Irgun Zvai Leumi (Zionist Para-military Organization) and the Stern Gang (Zionist Terrorist Organization)

Zionist Movement

In Palestine, the ancient home of Jews, only a few thousand Jews were living in 1900. Some 15 million were scattered around Europe and North America. (This is referred to as the Diaspora.) These Jews had been subjected to systematic persecution for centuries. But in the late nineteenth century the persecution in Russia (where two-thirds of the world's Jews lived), France and Germany was intense. Some Jews emigrated to Palestine, while many more went to the United States and Britain. In 1896 Thodore Herzel, a Viennese journalist, published a pamphlet called *The Jewish State* in which he called for the creation of a Jewish national home. Next year (1897) the World Zionist Organisation was founded.

Arab Nationalism Since the dawn of the twentieth century Arab nationalism was growing in Syria

Arab League Summit

and Iraq. Subsequently nationalism became intense in Egypt. In March 1945 The Arab League was formed in Cairo. Its founder members were Egypt, Iraq, Syria, Lebanon, Saudi Arabia, Jordan and Yemen.

began to launch terror attacks on a large scale. Railways, bridges, airfields and government offices were blown up. The British government, presented the dispute to the UN for a decision.

Succumbing to the pressure of great powers, the UN resolved to partition the British mandate of Palestine into a Jewish state and an Arab state (29 November 1947). Clashes broke out almost immediately between Jews and Arabs in Palestine.

The Israelis, won control of the main road to Jerusalem and successfully repulsed repeated Arab attacks. By early 1949 the Israelis managed to occupy all of the Negev (a desert and semi-desert region of southern Israel) up to the former Egypt-Palestine frontier, except for the Gaza Strip (a self-governing Palestinian territory). As a result of separate armistice agreements between Israel and each of the Arab states, a temporary frontier was fixed between Israel and its neighbours. In Israel, the war is remembered as its War of Independence. In the Arab world, it is treated as the Nakbah ("Catastrophe") as a large number of Arabs became refugees. Israel was admitted into the UN immediately much against the wishes of Arabs. Israel was established as a powerful state to assist Western interests – particularly the US – in return for arms and financial aid.

Declaration of the State of Israel

Suez Canal Crisis (1956)

In Egypt, in a coup in 1952, Colonel Nasser became its President. In 1956 he nationalized the Suez Canal, which undermined British interests. With the failure of diplomacy, Britain and France decided to use force. Israel saw this as an opportunity to open the Gulf of Aqaba to Israeli shipping and put a stop to Egyptian border raids. On 29 October Israeli forces invaded Egypt. Britain used this opportunity to demand that its troops be allowed to occupy the canal zone to protect the canal. Egypt refused and on 31 October Britain and France bombed Egyptian airfields and other installations as well as the Suez Canal area. However, under pressure of world opinion, Britain and France ended hostilities on 6 November. India represented by Nehru played a crucial role in resolving the crisis.

Suez Canal crisis

Arab–Israeli War 1967

Ever since the formation of the Palestinian Liberation Organization (PLO), Israel came to be attacked frequently by Palestinian guerrilla groups based in Syria, Lebanon and Jordan. Israeli resorted to violent reprisals. In November 1966 an Israeli strike on the village of Al-Samū in the Jordanian West Bank, left 18 dead and 54 wounded. Israel's air battle with Syria in April 1967 ended in the shooting down six Syrian MiG fighter jets.

Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO)- It is an umbrella political organization representing the world's Palestinians – all Arabs and their descendants who lived in mandated Palestine before the creation of the State of Israel in 1948. It was formed in 1964 to federate various Palestinian groups that previously had operated as clandestine resistance movements. It came into prominence after the Arab-Israeli War of June 1967. The PLO was engaged in a protracted guerrilla war against Israel during the 1960s, '70s, and '80s before entering into peace negotiations in the 1990s. Yasser Arafat was its most prominent leader.

In his bid to demonstrate Egypt's support for Syria Nasser mobilized Egyptian forces in the Sinai, seeking the removal of UN emergency forces stationed there on May 18. On May 22 he closed the Gulf of Aqaba to Israeli shipping. King Hussein of Jordan signed a mutual defence pact with Egypt. Accordingly, it was decided to place Jordanian forces under Egyptian command. Soon, Iraq too joined the alliance.

Israel's Offensive

Following the mobilization of Arab states by Nasser, on June 5, Israel staged a sudden pre-emptive air strike that destroyed more than 90 percent of Egypt's air force on the tarmac. A similar air assault incapacitated the Syrian air force. Within three days the Israelis had achieved an overwhelming victory on the ground, capturing the Gaza Strip and all of the Sinai Peninsula up to the east bank of the Suez Canal. An eastern front was also opened on June 5 when Jordanian forces began shelling West Jerusalem. On June 7 Israeli forces drove Jordanian forces out of East Jerusalem and most of the West Bank.

King Hussein of Jordan and Egypt's Nasser

UN Intervention

The UN Security Council called for a ceasefire. While Egypt, Jordon and Israel responded to the call favourably Syria continued to shell villages in northern Israel. On June 9 Israel launched an assault on the fortified Golan Heights and capturing it. Syria accepted the ceasefire on June 10.
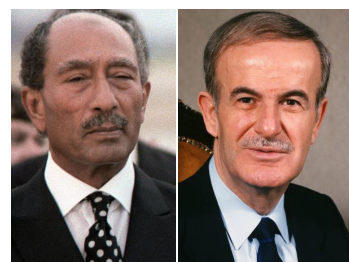
Yasser Arafat (1924–2004)

In 1969, Yasser Arafat became chairman of the PLO's executive committee a position he held until his death in 2004. Yasser Arafat was appointed commander-in-chief of the all Palestinian Arab guerila forces in September 1970. At this time the PLO was driven out of Jordan after Palestine factions attempted to overthrow the government of King Hussein. Arafat and the PLO eventually found their way to Beirut which remained the center of PLO operations against Israel until 1982. Wearing a Harley disguised pistol and carrying an olive branch and dressed in a military uniform, his appearance raised world awareness of the Palestinian cause. Arafat was elected by the central council of the PLO as the first president of the state of Palestine on April 2, 1989.

The Arab losses in the war were heavy. The defeat demoralized both the Arab public and the political elite. The Six-Day War also marked the start of a new phase in the conflict between Israel and the Palestinians. The conflict created hundreds of thousands of refugees and brought more than one million Palestinians in the occupied territories under Israeli rule.

Arab–Israeli War 1973

Egypt and Syria under Presidents Anwar Sadat and Hafez al-Assad respectively concluded a secret agreement in January 1973 to bring their armies under one command. Assad was keen on retrieving Golan Heights. Aware that his country's weapons were outdated,

Anwar Sadat and Hafez al-Assad

Sadat offered the Israelis a peace deal, if they withdrew from Sinai. Israel rejected the offer. Egypt and Syria launched a sudden and surprise attack on the Yom Kippur religious holiday (6 October 1973). Though Israel suffered heavy casualties it finally pushed back the Arab forces. But this time, due to UN intervention, Israel was forced to return to its 1967 position. Arabs gained nothing out of this war too. By way of mediation the USsucceeded in asserting its hegemony over the region and its oil. Its strategy of encouraging hostility between states and peoples resulted in a succession of wars – civil war in Lebanon, and the war between Iraq and Iran in the 1980s, Israel's invasion of Lebanon in 1982 and the US-led war against Iraq in 1991.

4.8 Vietnam War

By the end of Second World War Viet Minh controlled the northern half of Vietnam. Viet Minh formed a government led by Ho Chi Minh in Hanoi. This Viet Minh government quickly occupied the southern half of Vietnam. However, the Allied Powers decided at Potsdam that the British in the south and the Chinese in the north should defend Indo-China from the Japanese. But Ho Chi Minh had established his control very firmly and so, early in 1946, the British and Chinese troops had to withdraw, leaving the French and Viet Minh to confront each other. In March the two governments (French and Viet Minh) reached an agreement by which North Vietnam was to be a free state, within an Indo-Chinese Federation. But the new French constitution included all overseas colonies in a French Union.

In 1949 the French attempted to secure the support of the population by declaring Vietnam, Laos and Cambodia independent within the French Union, retaining only foreign affairs and defence under French control. However, the problem of Indo-China soon became involved in the Cold War. China, Russia and the East European countries recognized the Viet Minh government, while the Western powers recognized the new Vietnam government of Bao Dai.

While the French were receiving considerable financial aid from America, the Viet Minh were helped by the new Chinese communist government. The French troops were eventually defeated. The Geneva Conference (1954) that met on Korea and Indo China decided that Vietnam was to be an independent state but temporarily divided; the Viet Minh to control the north and Bao Dai to head the government the south. Cambodia and Laos were to be independent.

With a population of 16 million North Vietnam became a Communist state with Ho Chi Minh as President. South Vietnam, approximately of the same size and population, was ruled by Ngo Dinh Diem. Diem refused to hold the elections to decide on a united Vietnam. The US initially supported the Diem regime as it hoped of establishing a strong non-communist government in South Vietnam as a bulwark against the spread of communism in Asia. However, by 1962, it was clear that Diem was incapable of controlling the situation. This led to the posting of more US armed forces in the area.

The government's survival in South Vietnam depended on increasing amounts of US support. In 1965 marines landed at Danang naval base, and there were 33,500 US troops in the country within a month. The number increased and there were 210,000 by the end of year. The US bombed both North and South in the hope that it could force the liberation forces to abandon the struggle. The fighters of North Vietnam, trained in guerilla warfare, had grown out of spontaneous struggles against a repressive regime. They sustained their resistance without bowing to the US. The American troops also used bacteriological weapons.

Incendiary bombs such as napalm and Agent Orange (to defoliate the forest cover) were used. Vast areas of Vietnam were devastated and hundreds of thousands of people killed. The American forces too suffered heavy casualties.

American Bombing of North Vietnam

Escalation of the total military outlay caused the US big business to protest. The youths rebelled against the conscription and the horrors of war. Thousands of Americans refused to be drafted in the US army and many American soldiers deserted. Anti-Vietnam War protests rocked universities and colleges across the US and in Europe, and became part of the 1960s counterculture. No other single issue united millions of people all over the world as the war of Vietnam. However, the US government continued the war even though it was clear that it could not be won.

Anti-Vietnam War Demonstations

Early in 1975, the war took a decisive turn. The armies of North Vietnam and of the National Liberation Front of South Vietnam swept across the country routing the American supported troops of South Vietnam. By 30 April 1975, all the American troops had withdrawn and the capital of South Vietnam, Saigon, was liberated. North and South Vietnam were formally united as one country in 1976. The city of Saigon was renamed as Ho Chi-Minh City after the great leader of the Vietnamese people.

The emergence of Vietnam as a united and independent nation was an historic event. A small country had succeeded in winning independence and unification in the face of the armed opposition of the greatest power in the world. The help given to Vietnam by the socialist countries, the political support extended by a large number of Asian and African countries, and the solidarity expressed by the peoples in all parts of the world, helped in achieving this.

4.9 Towards European Union

(a) Council of Europe

One of the momentous decisions taken in the post-War II era was to integrate the states of Western Europe. In doing so the Europeans wanted (1) to prevent further European wars by ending the rivalry between France and Germany. (2) to create a united Europe to resist any threat from Soviet Russia. (3) to form a third force in the world to counter-balance the strength of the US and USSR. (4) to make full use of the economic and military resources of Europe by organizing them on a continental scale. In May 1949 ten countries met in London and signed to form a Council of Europe. The Council of Europe with headquarters at Strasbourg was established with a committee of foreign ministers of member countries and a Consultative Assembly, drawn from the parliaments of foreign countries.

(b) European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC)

Since the Council of Europe had no real power, a proposal to set up two European organizations was made. Accordingly, the European Defence Community (EDC) and the European Coal and Steel Community

(ECSC) were established. Six countries (France, West Germany, Italy, Belgium, Holland and Luxemburg belonging to ECSC signed the treaty of Rome which established the European Economic Community (EEC) or the European Common Market, with headquarters at Brussels. Britain did not join the EEC. Instead it floated a European Free Trade Association with Portugal, Denmark, Austria, Norway, Sweden and Switzerland as member states.

Ho Chin Minh City (Saigon)

(c) European Economic Community (EEC)

The EEC eliminated barriers to the movement of goods, services, capital, and labour. It also prohibited public policies or private agreements that restricted market competition. A common agricultural policy (CAP) and a common external trade policy were evolved. European Common market was a remarkable success. Throughout the 1970s and '80s the EEC kept expanding. In 1973 the United Kingdom, Denmark, and Ireland were admitted, followed by Greece in 1981 and Portugal and Spain in 1986.

(d) Single European Act (SEA)

The Single European Act came into force on July 1, 1987. It significantly expanded the EEC's scope giving the meetings of the EPC a legal basis. It also called for more intensive coordination of foreign policy among member countries. According to the SEA, each member was given multiple votes, depending on the country's population. Approval of legislation required roughly two-thirds of the votes of all members. The new procedure also increased the role of the European Parliament.

(e) European Union (EU)

The Maastricht (Netherlands) Treaty signed on February 7, 1992, created the European Union. The monetary policy and a common currency (euro) to replace national currencies managed by common monetary institutions were subsequently planned and implemented. Today the European Union has 28 member states, and functions from its headquarters at Brussels, Belgium. In 2017, Britain voted to exit the EU.

4.10 Fall of Berlin Wall and End of Cold War Era

The division of Germany into West (Federal Republic of Germany) and East (German Democratic Republic) led to glaring differences in living standards. West Berlin's economy became prosperous thanks to the support received from the West under the Marshall Plan. In contrast the USSR had little interest in developing the economy of East Berlin. Further, people in East Berlin suffered from lack of democracy and freedom. Therefore, people of East Berlin tried to move to West Berlin. In West Berlin, on the other hand, there was a fear that the Soviets could use military force to take West Berlin. In this context, East German began to construct a wall in 1961 which virtually cut off West Berlin from East Berlin and the surrounding East German areas. It was heavily guarded with watch towers and other lethal impediments to stop people from the East. In the late 1980s, as USSR's hold over Eastern European countries was weakening, a mass of people assembled on 9 November 1989 on both sides of the wall and began to demolish it. Germany was officially reunited on 3 October 1990. The Berlin Wall was more than just a physical barrier. It was a symbolic boundary between communism and capitalism. With the fall of the Berlin Wall, followed by the collapse of the Soviet Union, the Cold War era came to an end.

Helmut Kohl, Chancellor of West Germany from 1982 to 1990, and played a crucial role in integrating East Germany into West Germany in 1990. He thus became the first chancellor of a unified Germany after forty five years of division. He was Chairman of Christian Democratic union from 1973 to 1998. He was committed to the economic integration of Europe and to French-German cooperation. With French president Mitterand, Kohl was the architect of the Maastricht Treaty, which established the European Union (EU) and the euro currency.

Demolition of Berlin wall

Disintegration of the Soviet Union

In the 1970s and early 1980s the Soviet Union continued to retain a strong and dominant position in international politics. However, its economy was suffering, and was unable to match the productive capacity of the first world. In 1985, Mikhail Gorbachev took over as head of the USSR. After Brezhnev's long tenure as General Secretary of the Communist Party and his death in 1982, his successors had died in quick succession. After 'the thaw' during Nikita Khrushchev's reign, under Brezhnev's rule Soviet Union had relapsed into a closed society with little freedom. In this context, Gorbachev spoke about the need for openness (Glasnost) and reform (perestroika). But his commitment to reform, apart from opposition within the ruling communist party, did not match the resources available to USSR. In the middle of the 1980s about one third of the total GDP was going to the military. In order to maintain a parity with the US, in the context of President Reagan's Star Wars programme, it became necessary for the Soviet Union to allocate more funds to the military. The increase in military budget further strained the Soviet economy.

By the end of the decade the economic stagnation the Soviet Union suffered aggravated ethnic tension and promoted regionalism and nationalism. The year 1988 saw the first mass protests –first in Armenia, and then in the Baltic States. Earlier Soviet regimes had used severe repression to quell such uprisings. But, in the context of perestroika and a weakened economy, Gorbachev could not take recourse to such brutal measures. The Chernobyl Disaster, a major accident in a nuclear plant in Ukraine, in 1986, was another blow. Gorbachev made moves to stabilise his position by reliance on conservative forces in 1989 and 1991. But on each occasion he was interrupted by massive miners' strike which came close to cripple the country's energy supplies.

Perestroika ('restructuring') refers to the programme introduced by Mikhail Gorbachev in the late 1980s to restructure Soviet economic and political system. Along with the policy of 'Glasnost' ('openness), Perestroika was intended to energize Soviet economy which was lagging behind the developed countries of the capitalist world. Even though the economy continued to be monitored centrally elementary reforms oriented towards the market were introduced. However, it failed and the contradictions in the economy got more intense. As such it failed to arrest the downward slide of the Soviet economy.

Glasnost ('openness') was a policy of ideologically openness introduced by Mikhail Gorbachev along with Perestroika in the 1980s. After 'the thaw' under Nikita Khrushchev, from the 1960s under Leonid Brezhnev, the ideological and cultural climate was stifling with dissent being crushed ruthlessly. Under Glasnost there was more openness, writers who had been censored earlier were rehabilitated, and there was space for criticism of politics and government.

The East European communist states, under the Soviet umbrella, were also in a deep economic and social crisis. Gorbachev's decision to loosen the Soviet control on the countries of Eastern Europe created an independent, democratic momentum. A series of workers' strikes undermined the communist regimes first in Poland and then in Hungary. A wave of demonstrations that swept East Germany led to demolition of the Berlin Wall in 1989. Subsequent to it, regimes in Czechoslovakia, followed by Bulgaria, fell. An attempt by Romania's Nicolae Ceauşescu to resist the wave of change by shooting down demonstrators ended in his execution by a firing squad (December 1989) under the command of his own generals. The televised images of the shooting and the fall of the Berlin Wall galvanized the process of the breaking up of the communist world. In six months the political map of half of Europe had been redrawn.

In this context, the various nationalities inside the various soviet republics of USSR became increasingly assertive. The division within the ruling group was growing ever wider and its control over society becoming more difficult. Gorbachev made a last attempt to take a hard line against the disruptionist only to be challenged by a second great miners' strike in 1991 and huge demonstrations in Moscow. In response, conservative forces in his government attempted to take a hard line without Gorbachev. They used troops in Moscow to stage a coup, and held Gorbachev under house arrest. But other military units refused to back them and as a result power fell into the hands of Boris Yeltsin, a reformer backed by the West.

In the meantime, three Baltic States had formally left the Soviet Union. They were admitted to the U.N. as independent countries: Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania. In November 1991 eleven republics (Ukraine, Georgia, Belarus, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Moldova, Turkmenistan, Tajikistan and Uzbekistan) announced secession from the Soviet Union. Instead, they declared they would establish a Commonwealth of Independent States. On 25 December Gorbachev announced his resignation. For six days the Soviet Union continued to exist only in name and at midnight on 31 December 1991, it was formally dissolved. The USSR was no more.

Yeltsin was first an ally of Gorbachev. However, as Mayor of Moscow, Yeltsin won great popularity as a champion of political and economic freedom. With Gorbachev's introduction of democratic elections for the Soviet parliament, Yeltsin was returned to power with overwhelming support of a Moscow constituency in 1989. The following year he was elected President of Russia over Gorbachev's objections. President Yeltsin advocated greater autonomy of the Russian Republic, with executive presidential system that would allow him to govern independently of parliament.

Yeltsin   Gorbachev

SUMMARY

- The history of China becoming a Communist country in the aftermath of Second War is narrated with the portrayal of developments there after the revolution of 1911.

- Rivalry between the US and the USSR, leading to the division of world into two military blocs and the significance of NATO and Warsaw Pact, are highlighted.

- Cold War developments are illustrated with cases of Korean War, Cuban Missile Crisis, Arab-Israeli Wars and Vietnam War.
- Launch of Non-Alignment Movement, representing the view-points of Third World countries, is described.
- Establishment of Council of Europe to act independently of the influence of USA that later developed into European Common Market and into European Union today is explained.

A-Z GLOSSARY

antagonistic	acting against or indicating	பகையுணர்வு கொண்ட
wriggle out	to avoid doing something	நழுவுதல்
ascension	the act of rising to an important position or a higher level, a movement upward	வளர்ச்சி, உயர்வு
legendary	celebrated	பெருமை வாய்ந்த, புகழ்பெற்ற
disillusioned	disappointed on finding out something is not as good as hoped	அதிருப்தி
abstaining	restrain oneself from doing something	விலகியிருத்தல், ஒதுங்கியிருத்தல்
embitter	cause to feel bitter – to make hateful	வெறுப்புணர்ச்சி, கசப்புணர்வு
incapacitated	lacking in or deprived of strength or power	திறனற்றதாக்குதல், முடமாக்குதல்
bacteriological weapons	the use of harmful bacteria as a weapon	நுண்ணுயிரியல் ஆயுதங்கள்

EXERCISE

I. Choose the correct answer

1. Who was the first director of Whampoa Military Academy?
   a) Sun Yat-Sen   b) Chiang Kai-Shek
   c) Michael Borodin d) Chou En Lai

2. Which American President followed the policy of containment of Communism?.
   a) Woodrow Wilson
   b) Truman
   c) Theodore Roosevelt
   d) Franklin Roosevelt

3. When was People's Political Consultative Conference held in China?
   a) September 1959
   b) September 1948
   c) September 1954
   d) September 1949

4. The United States and European allies formed _____ to resist any Soviet aggression in Europe.
   a) SEATO   b) NATO
   c) SENTO   d) Warsaw Pact

5. Who became the Chairman of the PLO's Executive Committee in 1969?
   a) Hafez al-Assad
   b) Yasser Arafat
   c) Nasser
   d) Saddam Hussein

6. When was North and South Vietnam united?
   a) 1975   b) 1976
   c) 1973   d) 1974

7. Where was Arab League formed?
   a) Cairo   b) Jordan
   c) Lebanon   d) Syria

8. When was the Warsaw Pact dissolved?
　　a) 1979　　　　　　　b) 1989
　　c) 1990　　　　　　　d) 1991

II. Fill in the blanks

1. _____ was known as the "Father of modern China".

2. In 1918, the society for the study of Marxism was formed in _____ University.

3. After the death of Dr. Sun Yat Sen, the leader of the Kuomintang party was _____.

4. _____ treaty is open to any Arab nation desiring peace and security in the region.

5. The treaty of _____ provided for mandates in Turkish -Arab Empire.

6. Germany joined the NATO in _____.

7. _____ was the Headquarters of the Council of Europe.

8. _____ treaty signed on February 7, 1992 created the European Union.

III. Choose the correct statement/statements

1. i) In China (1898) the young emperor, under the influence of the educated minority, initiated a series of reforms known as the 100 days of reforms.
ii) The Kuomintang Party represented the interests of the workers and peasants.
iii) Yuan Shih-Kai had lost prestige in the eyes of Nationalists, when he agreed to the demand of Japan to have economic control of Manchuria and Shantung.
iv) Soviet Union refused to recognize the People's Republic of China for more than two decades.
　a) (i) and (ii) are correct
　b) (ii) and (iii) are correct
　c) (i) and (iii) are correct
　d) (i) and (iv) are correct

2. i) In 1948, the Soviets had established left wing government in the countries of Eastern Europe that had been liberated by the Soviet Army.
ii) The chief objective of NATO was to preserve peace and security in the North Atlantic region.
iii) The member countries of SEATO were committed to prevent democracy from gaining ground in the region.
iv) Britain used the atomic bomb against Japan to convey its destructive capability to the USSR.
　a) (ii), (iii) and (iv) are correct
　b) (i) and (ii) are correct
　c) (iii) and (iv) are correct
　d) (i), (ii) and (iii) are correct

3. **Assertion (A)**: America's Marshall Plan was for reconstruction of the war-ravaged Europe.
Reason (R): The US conceived the Marshal Plan to bring the countries in the Western Europe under its influence.
　a) Both (A) and (R) are correct, but R is not the correct explanation of A
　b) Both (A) and (R) are wrong
　c) Both (A) and (R) are correct and R is the correct explanation of A
　d) (A) is wrong and (R) is correct

IV. Match the following

1. Dr. Sun Yat-Sen　-　South Vietnam
2. Syngman Rhee　-　Kuomintung
3. Anwar Sadat　　-　South Korea
4. Ho-Chi Minh　　-　Egypt
5. Ngo Dinh Diem　-　North Vietnam

V. Answer briefly

1. Write any three causes for the Chinese Revolution of 1911.

2. Explain how in 1928 Kuomintung and Chiang-Kai Shek established Central Government in China.

3. Write a note on Mao's Long March.

4. What do you know of Baghdad Pact?

5. What was Marshall Plan?

6. The Suez Canal crisis confirmed that Israel had been created to serve the cause of western interests –Elaborate.

7. Write a note on Third World Countries.

8. How was the Cuban missile crisis defused?

VI. Answer all the questions under each caption

1. Cold War
   a) Name the two military blocs that emerged in the Post-World War II.
   b) Who coined the term "Cold War" and who used it first?
   c) What was the response of Soviet Russia to the formation of NATO?
   d) What was the context in which Warsaw Pact was dissolved?

2. Korean War
   a) Who was the President of North Korea during the Korean War?
   b) Name the southern rival to the President of North Korea.
   c) How long did the Korean War last?
   d) What was the human cost of the War?

3. Non-Aligned Movement (NAM)
   a) When and where was the first conference on Non-Aligned Movement held?
   b) Who were the prominent personalities present in the first conference?
   c) What were the objectives of NAM?
   d) List out any two basic principles of Non-Alignment Movement enunciated in the Belgrade Conference.

VII. Answer in detail

1. Estimate the role of Mao Tse tung in making China a communist country.

2. Attempt an essay on the Arab-Israeli wars of 1967 and 1973.

3. Narrate the history of transformation of Council of Europe into an European Union.

VIII. Activity

1. Divide the class into two groups. Let one group act as supporters of USA and the other group act as supporters of Soviet Union, Organise a debate.

2. Involving the entire class, an album may be prepared with pictures relating to Korean, Arab-Israeli and Vietnam Wars to highlight the human sufferings in terms of death and devastation.

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INTERNET RESOURCES

https://www.brittanica.com

Timeline

- 1934   - Long March
- 1949   - NATO
- 1954   - SEATO
- 1955   - Warsaw Pact
- 1956   - Suez Canal Crisis
- 1961   - Belgrade Conference

Social and Religious Reform Movements in the 19th Century

🎯 Learning Objectives

To acquaint ourselves with

- The influence of Western ideas and Christianity in creating a new awakening in 19th century British India
- Contestation in the social and religious sphere – opposition to practices like sati, slavery, untouchability, and child marriage
- Opposition to idolatry, rituals and superstitious beliefs
- Contribution of Brahmo Samaj, Arya Samaj, Ramakrishna Mission, Theosophical Society and Aligarh Movement to the regeneration of India
- Role played by prominent personalities in bringing about this awakening amongst Parsees and Sikhs
- Social movement of Jyotiba Phule and reform movements in Kerala and Tamilnadu

Introduction

English education, introduced with the object of producing clerks, also produced a new English-educated middle class. This class came under the influence of western ideas and thoughts. Christianity also had its effect on the newly emerging middle class. Though small in number, the educated middle class began to take a lead in political as well as in reform movements. The Indian reformers were, however, quite hesitant to subject their old notions and habits to critical scrutiny. Instead they attempted to harmonize both Indian and Western cultures. Their ideas and their actions helped to mitigate social evils such as sati, female infanticide, and child marriage and various superstitious beliefs.

The reform movements of nineteenth century in the realm of religion fall under two broad categories: reformist movements like the Brahmo Samaj, the Prarthana Samaj and the Aligarh Movement; and the revivalist movements such as the Arya Samaj, the Ramakrishna Mission and the Deoband Movement. There were also attempts to challenge the oppressive social structure by Jyotiba Phule in Pune, Narayana Guru and Ayyankali in Kerala and Ramalinga Adigal, Vaikunda Swamigal and Iyothee Thassar of Tamil Nadu.

5.1 Early Reform Movements in Bengal

(a) Raja Rammohan Roy and Brahmo Samaj

Rammohan Roy (1772–1833) was one of the earlier reformers influenced by the

Western ideas to initiate reforms. He was a great scholar, well-versed in Sanskrit, Arabic, Persian, and English apart from his knowledge in his mother tongue, Bengali. Rammohan Roy was opposed to meaningless religious

Raja Rammohan Roy

ceremonies and all forms of pernicious social customs. Yet he wanted to preserve continuity with the past. In his religio–philosophical social outlook, he was deeply influenced by monotheism and anti-idolatry. Based on his interpretation of the Upanishads, he argued that all the ancient texts of the Hindus preached monotheism or worship of one God.

Deeply concerned with the prevailing customs of sati, child marriage, and polygamy he published tracts against them and petitioned the government to legislate against them. He advocated the rights of widows to remarry. He wanted polygamy to end. His opinions were resisted fiercely by orthodox Hindus. He appealed to reason and humanity and compassion of the people. He visited the crematorium of Calcutta to try and persuade the relatives of widows to give up their plan of self-immolation. His campaign played a key role in forcing the Governor-General William Bentinck's legislation abolishing sati in 1829.
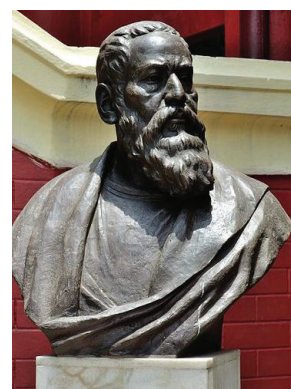
Rammohan Roy condemned the subjugation of women and opposed the prevailing ideas that women were inferior to men. He strongly advocated education for women. He gave his full support for the introduction of English language and western sciences in schools and colleges. Rammohan found in the Upanishads a new revelation of one infinite, divine Being, the eternal Brahman, while Hinduism as he saw in the daily life around him was a perversion of their teaching.

Rammohan Roy founded the Brahmo Samaj in 1828. On 20 August 1828 he opened a temple in Calcutta, where there was no image. There he laid down that 'no religion should be reviled or slightly or contemptuously spoken off or alluded to.' The Samaj forbade idol-worship and condemned meaningless religious rites and ceremonies. However, from the beginning, the appeal of the Brahmo Samaj remained limited to the intellectuals and enlightened Bengalis. Though the Samaj failed to attract the people from the lower sections of society, its impact on the culture of modern Bengal and its middle class was quite significant.

(b) Maharishi Debendranath Tagore

After the death of Rammohan Roy (1833), Maharishi Debendranath Tagore (1817–1905), the poet Rabindranath Tagore's father, carried on the work. He laid down four articles of faith: 1. In the beginning there was nothing.

Debendranath Tagore

The one Supreme Being alone existed who created the Universe. 2. He alone is the God of Truth, Infinite Wisdom, Goodness, and Power, eternal, omnipresent, the One without second. 3. Our salvation depends on belief in Him and in His worship in this world and the next. 4. Belief consists in loving Him and doing His will.

(c) Keshab Chandra Sen & Brahmo Samaj of India

Debendranath was a moderate reformer. But his younger colleagues in the Sabha were for rapid changes. The greatest of these, Keshab Chandra Sen, (1838–84) joined the movement in 1857. He was greatly influenced by Christianity,


Keshab Chandra Sen

believing in its spirit but not in the person of its founder. But in 1866 a split occurred in the ranks of Brahmo Samaj. Keshab left the Samaj and founded a new organization. Debendranath's organization, thereafter, came to be known as Adi Brahmo Samaj. After Keshab had his fourteen-year-old daughter married to an Indian prince, in contravention of the Samaj's condemnation of child marriages, the opponents of child marriage left the Brahmo Samaj of India and started the Sadharan Samaj, which developed anti-Christian tendencies.

(d) Ishwar Chandra Vidyasagar

Another outstanding reformer in Bengal was Ishwar Chandra Vidyasagar (1820–1891). While Ram Mohan Roy and others looked to western rationalist ideas to reform society,
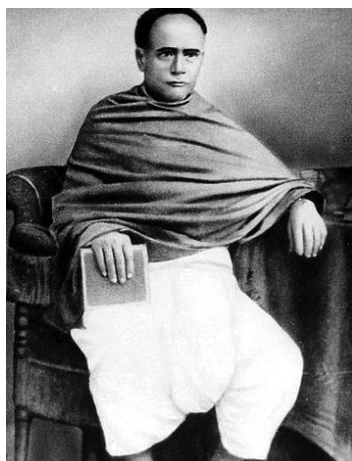
Iswar Chandra Vidyasagar

Vidyasagar argued that the Hindu scriptures were progressive. He provided evidence from scriptures that there was no sanction for burning of widows or for the prohibition on the remarriage of widows. He wrote a number of polemical tracts, and was the pioneer of modern Bengali prose. He played a leading role in promoting education of girls and helped them in setting up a number of schools. He dedicated his whole life for the betterment of the child widows of the Hindu society. The movement led by Vidyasagar, resulted in the Widows' Remarriage Reform Act of 1856. This Act was intended to improve the lot of child widows and save them from perpetual widowhood.

(e) Prarthana Samaj

The Maharashtra region was another region where reform activities gained

It was also to the credit of Vidyasagar that the first age of consent Act was enacted in 1860. The age for marriage was fixed as ten years. It was raised to twelve and thirteen years in 1891 and 1925 respectively. Sadly, as reported in the Age of Consent Committee (1929), the law remained on paper and the knowledge of it was confined to judges, lawyers and a few educated men.

steam. A movement similar to the Brahmo Samaj, but founded in Bombay in 1867, was Prarthana Samaj. Its founder was Dr. Atma Ram Pandurang (1825–1898). The two distinguished members of this Samaj were R.C. Bhandarkar and Justice Mahadev Govind Ranade. They devoted themselves to activities such as inter-caste dining, inter-caste marriage, widow remarriage and improvement of women and depressed classes. Ranade (1842–1901) was the founder of the Widow Marriage Association (1861), the Poona Sarvajanik Sabha (1870) and the Deccan Education Society (1884).

While the above reformers worked among the upper castes, during the same time Jyotiba Phule worked for the uplift of depressed castes and the cause of women. His book Gulamgiri ('Slavery') is an important work that condemned the inequities of caste.

Dr. Atma Ram Pandurang

M.G. Ranade

Social and Religious Reform Movements in the 19th Century

5.2 Hindu Revivalism

(a) Swami Dayanand Saraswati and Arya Samaj, 1875

In the Punjab, the reform movement was spearheaded by the Arya Samaj. It was founded (1875) by a wandering ascetic in the western Gangetic plain, Swami Dayanand Saraswati (1824–83). Swami Dayanand later settled in the Punjab to preach his ideas. His book, *Satyarthaprakash*, enjoyed wide circulation. He declared the practices such as child marriage, the prohibition of widow remarriage, and the alleged polluting effects of foreign travel had no scriptural sanction. The positive principles enunciated by Dayanand were: strict monotheism, condemnation of idolatry, and rejection of Brahman domination of ritual and social practices. He also rejected superstitious beliefs in Hinduism, especially Puranic literature and his cry was "go back to Vedas."

Arya Samaj attempted to check the incidence of religious conversion in British India. One of its main objectives was counter-conversion, prescribing a purificatory ceremony called suddhi, directed at Hindus who had converted to Islam and Christianity.

The late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries were a period of great turmoil in undivided Punjab with intense debates between Hinduism, Islam and Christianity.

The primary achievements of the Arya Samaj were in the field of social reform and spread of education. The Samaj started a number of Dayananda Anglo–Vedic schools and colleges.

Swami Dayanand Saraswati

In 1893 Arya Samaj split over the question of doctrinal purity. Swami Shraddhananda (1857–1926), a charismatic figure after Dayananda, accused the group running the DAV School of being too Westernized and thereby ignoring the founder's ideology. From 1900 onward, he established his own network of schools, the Gurukulas, which were outwardly modelled after ancient Hindu seats of learning, emphasising the study of the Vedas.

(b) Ramakrishna

As we saw earlier, the Brahmo Samaj, as a response to Christian and rationalist criticism had criticised idolatry and other orthodox Hindu practices. The popularity that Ramakrishna (l836–86), a simple priest of Dakshineswar near Kolkata, gained in the latter half of the nineteenth century was a response to this. He emphasised the spiritual union with god through ecstatic practices such as singing bhajans. An ardent worshipper of goddess Kali, the sacred mother, he declared that the manifestations of the divine mother were infinite. In his view, all religions contain the universal elements which, if practised, would lead to salvation. He said, "Jiva is Siva" (all living beings are God). Why then talk of showing mercy to them? Not mercy, but service, service for man, must be regarded as God.'

Ramakrishna

Ramakrishna Mission, Belur Math

Ramakrishna Mission

Ramakrishna's primary achievement was his ability to attract educated youth

who were dissatisfied with the rational orientation of religious reform organizations such as the Brahmo Samaj. After his death in 1886, his disciples organised themselves as a religious community and undertook the task of making his life and teaching known in India and abroad. The chief spirit behind this task was Vivekananda. Following the organizational structure of Christian missionaries, Vivekananda established the Ramakrishna Mission which did not restrict itself to religious activities but was actively involved in social causes such as education, health care and relief in times of calamities.

(c) Swami Vivekananda

Narendra Nath Datta (l863–1902), later known as Swami Vivekananda, was the prime follower of Ramakrishna Paramahansa. An educated youth, he was drawn to Ramakrishna's message. Dissatisfied with conventional philosophical positions and practices, he advocated the practical Vedanta of service to humanity and attacked the tendency to defend every institution simply because it was connected with religion. He emphasized a cultural nationalism and made a call to Indian youth to regenerate Hindu society. His ideas bred a sense of self-confidence among Indians who felt inferior in relation to the materialist achievements of the West. He became famous for his addresses on Hinduism at the 1893 World Congress of Religions in Chicago. Despite his fame, he was condemned by orthodox Hindus for suggesting that the lower castes should be allowed to engage in the Hindu rituals from which they were traditionally excluded. Vivekananda's activist ideology rekindled the desire for political change among many western-education young Bengalis. Many of the youths who were

Swami Vivekananada

involved in the militant nationalist struggle during the Swadeshi movement following the Partition of Bengal were inspired by Vivekananda.

(d) Theosophical Movement

During the nineteenth century, Hindu religion and culture were being discredited in the West, especially due to missionary propaganda. However, some Western intellectuals looked to the East for spiritual salvation as a remedy to the materialistic orientation of the West. The Theosophical Society, founded by Madame H.P. Blavatsky (1831–1891) and Colonel H.S Olcott (1832–1907) played a key role in this. Founded in the USA in 1875, it later shifted to India at Adyar, Chennai in 1886.

Madame Blavatsky   Colonel H.S Olcott

Theosophical Society stimulated a study of the Hindu classics, especially the Upanishads and the Bhagavad Gita. The Theosophical Society also played an important role in the revival of Buddhism in India. Western interest in Hindu scriptures gave educated Hindus great pride in their tradition and culture.

Contribution of Annie Besant

In India the movement became further popular with the election of Annie Besant (1847–1933) as its president after the death of Olcott. She played a role in Indian nationalist politics, and formed the Home Rule League demanding home rule to India on the lines

Social and Religious Reform Movements in the 19th Century

of Ireland. Annie Besant spread Theosophical ideas through her newspapers called *New India* and *Commonweal*.

Annie Besant

5.3 Anti-Caste

(a) Jyotiba Phule

Jyotiba Govindrao Phule was born in 1827 in Maharashtra. Phule is chiefly known

Jyotiba Phule and Savitribai Phule

as the earliest leader of the non-Brahman movement. He opened the first school for "untouchables" in 1852 in Poona. He launched the Satyashodak Samaj (Truth-Seekers Society) in 1870 to stir the non-Brahman masses to self-respect and ambition. Phule opposed child marriage and supported widow remarriage, which was prohibited particularly among high-caste Hindus. Jyotiba and his wife Savitribai Phule devoted their lives for the uplift of the depressed classes and women. Jotiba opened orphanages and homes for widows. Unlike many contemporary nationalists he welcomed British rule and missionary activities on the ground that British rule enabled lower castes to challenge the supremacy of Brahmins. His work, *Gulamgiri* (Slavery) is an important text that summarized many of his radical ideas.

(b) Narayana Guru

Born to poor parents in Kerala, Narayana Guru (1854–1928) evolved into a poet and scholar in Malayalam, Tamil and Sanskrit. In his days the people of depressed classes had no access

Narayana Guru

to temples, streets, public tanks and wells and educational institutions. Men and women belonging to lower castes were not allowed to wear the upper garments. Disturbed by the terrible caste tyranny, that the lower caste people suffered, he dedicated his whole life for the betterment of the oppressed. He set up the Sri Narayana Dharma Paripalana Yogam, an organization to work for the uplift of the "depressed classes". He established a grand temple at Aruvipuram and dedicated it to all. His movement inspired a radical transformation of Kerala society, especially among the Ezhavas. Thinkers and writers such as Kumaran Asan and Dr Palpu were influenced by his ideas and carried forward the movement.

(c) Ayyankali

Nineteenth-century Kerala region was plagued by caste discriminations of worst kind. Certain social groups were not only considered untouchable but also un-seeable. However, the strident campaigns by thinkers such as

Ayyankali

Narayana Guru and Ayyankali (1863–1941) in the context of larger political and economic changes ushered in tremendous social changes, especially in the caste structure.

Ayyankali was born in 1863 at Venganoor in Thiruvananthapuram then in the princely state of Travancore. The discrimination he

faced as a child turned him into a leader of an anti-caste movement and who later fought for basic rights including access to public spaces and entry to schools. Ayyankali challenged many caste conventions such as clothing style; he wore clothes associated with upper castes that were prohibited for lower castes. He rode on an ox-cart challenging the 'ban' on untouchables from accessing public roads used by caste Hindus.

Inspired by Sree Narayana Guru, Ayyankali founded the Sadhu Jana Paripalana Sangam (Association for the Protection of the Poor) in 1907 which campaigned and raised funds to educate the lower caste Pulaya people.

5.4 Islamic Reforms

After the suppression of great revolt of 1857 Indian Muslims looked to Western culture with suspicion. The community feared that Western education, Western culture and Western ideas would endanger their religion. Therefore only a small section of Muslims accepted the new avenues for modern education. Consequently, Indian Muslims as a community lagged behind in comparison to the Hindu elite of various parts of India.

Sir Sayyid Ahmed Khan

As Indian Muslims steadily lost ground in education, in the public services and in general leadership in India, there was a realization that there was no alternative but to accept modern education if the community was to go on the path of progress. The man who gave life and soul to it was Sir Sayyid Ahmed Khan (1817–1898). Born in Delhi into a noble Muslim family, Sayyid Ahmed Khan thought that lack of education, especially modern education, had harmed the Muslims greatly and kept them backward. He exhorted the Muslims to accept Western science and take up government services. He
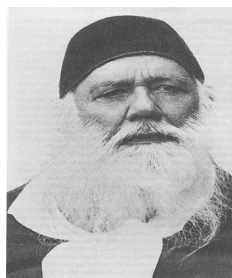
Sayyid Ahmed Khan

founded a scientific society and translated many English books, especially science books into Urdu. He believed that the interest of the Muslims would be best served if they bonded with the British Government rather than pitch in with the rising nationalist movement. So he advised the Muslims to take to English education and to concentrate on it.

Aligarh Movement

Sayyid Ahmed Khan's movement, the "Aligarh movement," is so called because it was centred around the Aligarh Mohammedan Anglo-Oriental college founded by him in 1875, which is

Aligarh Muslim University

a landmark in the history of Indian Muslim education. The college was raised to the status of a university in 1920. Aligarh produced a huge body of intelligentsia over successive generations who played a key role in public life.

Deoband Movement

Deoband was a revivalist movement organized by the orthodox Muslim Ulema with the twin objectives of propagating the pure teachings of the Quran and the Hadith as well as encouraging the spirit of Jihad against the foreign and un-Islamic elements. The Ulema under the leadership of Muhammad QasimWanotavi (1832-80) and Rashid Ahmad Gangotri (1828-1905) founded the school at Deoband in the Saharanpur district of the U.P in 1866. The school curricula shut out English education and western culture. The instruction imparted was in original Islamic religion and the aim was moral and religious regeneration of the Muslim community. The

Deoband School did not prepare its students for government jobs but for the preaching of Islamic faith.

In politics, the Deoband School welcomed the formation of the Indian National Congress in 1885. In 1888 the Deoband Ulema issued a religious decree (fatwa) against Syed Ahmed Khan's Organisation called "The United Patriotic Association" and "The Muhammaden Anglo – Oriental Association." It is said the Deoband Ulema were mainly influenced by their determination to oppose Sir Syed Ahmed's activities.

Maulana Mahmud-ul-Hassan became the new Deoband leader. The Jamait-Ul-Ulema (council of theologians) led by him gave a concrete shape to Hassan's ideas of protection of the religious and political rights of the Muslims in the overall context of Indian unity.

5.5 Parsi Reform Movement

In the middle of the nineteenth century the reform activities of the educated Parsis (the Zoroastrians who had fled from Iran in the tenth century in the face of religious persecution) began in Mumbai. Furdunji Naoroji founded the Rahnumai Mazdayasnan Sabha (Parsis' Reform Society) in 1851. *Rast Goftar* (The Truth Teller) was the main voice of the movement. The leaders of the Sabha criticized elaborate ceremonies at betrothals, marriages and funerals. They opposed both infant marriage and the use of astrology. Behrramji Malabari organized a campaign for legislation against the practice of child marriage. The community produced many leaders such as Pherozeshah Mehta and Dinshaw Wacha who played a big role in the early Congress.

5.6 Sikh Reform Movement (Nirankaris and Namdharis)

The wave of reform movements did not leave any community untouched. Among the Sikhs of Punjab too there were attempts to reform. Baba Dayal Das, founder of the Nirankari Movement, stressed the worship of god as Nirankar (formless). Rejection of idols, rejection of rituals associated with idolatry, reverence for the authority of Guru Nanak and of the Adi Granth formed the essence of his teachings. He reiterated the prohibition on meat-eating, and liquor consumption.

The Namdhari Movement, founded by Baba Ram Singh, was another socio-religious movement among the Sikhs. The Namdharis insisted on wearing the symbols of Sikhism except the kirpan (sword). Instead Baba Ram Singh wanted his followers to carry a lathi. It considered both men and women equal and accepted widow remarriage. It prohibited the dowry system and child marriage.

In the wake of the gathering influence of Arya Samaj and the Christian missionaries, the Singh Sabha of Amritsar was established. Its main objective was to restore the purity of Sikhism. With the support of British, it established Khalsa College for the Sikhs in Amritsar. Singh Sabha was a forerunner of Akali Movement.

5.7 Social Reformers of Tamilnadu

(a) Ramalinga Swamigal

Popularly known as Vallalar, Ramalinga Swamigal or Ramalinga Adigal (1823–1874), was born in Marudhur, a village near Chidambaram. After his father's death, his family moved to his brother's house at Chennai. Despite having no formal education he gained immense scholarship. Ramalinga emphasised the bonds of responsibility and compassion between living beings. He expressed the view that 'those who lack compassion for suffering beings are hard-hearted, their wisdom clouded'. He showed his compassion and mercy on all living beings including plants. This he called jeevakarunya.

He established the Samarasa Vedha Sanmarga Sangam in 1865 and it was renamed "Samarasa Suddha Sanmarga Satya Sanga" which means "Society for Pure Truth in Universal self-hood". Ramalinga also established a free feeding house for everyone irrespective of caste at Vadalur (1867), in the wake of a terrible famine in south India in 1866. His voluminous songs were compiled and published under the title Thiruvarutpa (Songs of Grace). His radical views deeply disturbed Saiva orthodoxy, who condemned his writings as Marutpa (songs of ignorance).
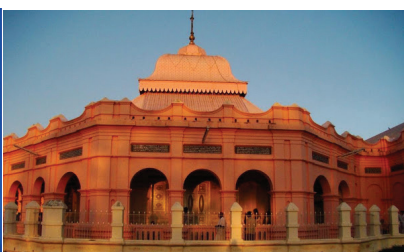
Ramalinga Adigal   Vadalur Satya Gnana Sabha

Ramalinga bore witness to hunger and poverty in the country: "I saw poor people, emaciated with hunger and terribly weary, going to every house, yet their hunger was not removed, and my heart suffered intensely. Those who suffer with relentless disease, I saw them in front of me and my heart trembled. I saw those people, poor and of unmatched honor, their hearts weary, and I grew weak."

(b) Vaikunda Swamikal

Vaikunda Swami (1809–1851), one of the earliest crusaders for social justice in south India was born at Sasthan Koil Vilai, the present Samithoppu, a village near Kanyakumari. His original name Mudichudum Perumal was changed to Muthukutty by his parents due to objection raised by the upper caste Hindus. Muthukutti

Vaikunda Swamigal

had no opportunity to have any systematic school education but acquired knowledge of various religious texts. He preached the ideas of equality and advocated the rights of depressed class people in the face of stiff opposition from upper castes as well as the princely state of Travancore.

Vaikunda Swamikal criticised the rule of the British and the rule of Rajah of Travancore as the rule of White devils and Black devils respectively.

He visited Tiruchendur temple and experienced a new vision. Calling himself Vaikundar, he requested the people to give up all the irrelevant rites and rituals in their worship. His preaching's against the prevailing religious order brought about a considerable change in the attitude of the lower caste people. In 1833, Vaikundar commenced his meditation at Samithoppu for the abolition of caste differences and social integration of the society. During this period, he led a life of a hermit.

In south Travancore, there were many restrictions on lower caste people such as what they could wear and not wear. At a time when there was prohibition on certain sections on wearing headgear he advocated the wearing of a turban in protest. It gave a sense of honour to the oppressed people and offered a spirit of self-respect. A new confidence was installed in the minds of his followers.

Like the other contemporary reform movements of India in the 19th century, Vaikunda Swamigal condemned the worship of idols. The low caste people had no temples for their gods, they erected small pyramids of mud or bricks in their honor, plastered and white-washed. He considered this kind of worship as an uncivilized custom. The people sacrificed goats, cocks and hens. He condemned these religious customs and campaigned against animal sacrifice.

Vaikunda Swamigal founded Samathuva Samajam to unite all the people of various castes. He organized inter-dining to accomplish it. Even though he was imprisoned by the Maharajah of Travancore, he never gave up his

principles. His followers called him respectfully as Ayya (father). His cult was also known as Ayya Vazhi (The Path of Ayya). His message emancipated the people from the unjust social customs and superstitious beliefs. His ideas are collected into a text called *Akila Thirattu*.

C. Iyothee Thassar

Pandithar Iyothee Thassar (1845–1914) was a radical Tamil scholar, writer, *siddha* medicine practitioner, journalist and socio-political activist. Born in Chennai, he was

Iyothithassar

fluent in Tamil, English, Sanskrit and Pali languages. He initiated a new knowledge practice by using journalism as a tool to make inroads into the print public sphere, which, was hitherto an upper caste domain. He campaigned for social justice and worked for the emancipation of the "untouchables" from the caste clutches. He worked for the construction of a casteless identity and castigated caste hegemony and untouchability. He considered education as an important tool for empowerment and became the driving force behind the establishment of several schools for the "untouchables" in Tamil Nadu.

Pandithar Iyothee Thassar founded the *Advaidananda Sabha* to raise the voice for the temple entry of the "untouchables". In 1882, John Rathinam and Iyothee Thassar established a movement called, *Dravida Kazhagam* and launched a magazine called *Dravida Pandian* in 1885. He founded the *Dravida Mahajana Sabha* in 1891and organised the First Conference of the association at Nilgiris. He started a weekly journal, *Oru Paisa Tami*lan, in 1907 and published it until his demise in 1914.

Pandithar Iyothee Thassar was disappointed with the Hindu dharma, which served as the basis for propagating and validating caste in Hindu society. Influenced by the Theosophist organizer, Colonel H.S. Olcott, he went to Sri Lanka in 1898 and converted to Buddhism. In the same year, he founded the Sakya Buddhist Society at Madras to construct the rational religious philosophy through Buddhist religion. He argued that the so-called untouchables were originally Buddhists who were stigmatized by Brahminism. He further constructed an alternative history through the interpretation of Tamil literature and folk traditions of Tamil from a Buddhist standpoint. In addition, he stated that the revival of Buddhism could liberate the people from the evil of caste that afflicted the Hindu society. He called the "untouchables" *Sathi Petham Atra Dravidar* (Casteless Dravidians) and urged them to register as casteless Dravidians in the Census.

SUMMARY

- A brief account of Raja Rammohan Roy's initiatives for social and cultural reforms has been provided.
- The foundation of Brahmo Samaj by Ram mohan Roy and the role played by Maharishi Debendranath Tagore and Keshab Chandra Sen in carrying forward the Brahmo Samaj activities after Roy's death are discussed.
- The contribution of M.G. Ranade and Prarthana Samaj with which he was associated are examined.
- The attempts made by Arya Samaj under the aegis of Swami Dayanad Saraswati to reform Hinduism as well as to win converts to the Hindu fold are highlighted.
- The radical reformer Iswar Chandra Vidyasagar and his strivings for women's cause are described.

- The role of Ramakrishna Paramahamsa and his disciple Swami Vivekananda in the transformation of Hinduism is explained.
- The work of Theosophical Society with Annie Besant as its president is explored along with Aligarh Movement spearheaded by Sayyid Ahmad Khan.
- Reform movements among Parsis and Sikhs are outlined.
- The work done by Jyotiba Phule in Maharashtra and IyotheeThassar in Tamilnadu to obtain social justice for the marginalized and the deprived sections of the population is reviewed.
- The social protest movements in Kerala led by Narayana Guru and Ayyankali, and the reform movements in Tamil Nadu involving Ramalinga Adigal and Ayya Vaikundar are sketched out.

A-Z GLOSSARY

Alleged	stated but not proved	சொல்லப்படும்
Ecstatic	in a state of extreme happiness	பரவசமான
Voluminous	bulky	அதிகப் பரிமாணமுள்ள
Reiterated	repeat a statement for emphasis	வலியுறுத்துதல்
Idolatry	the practice of worshipping idols	உருவ வழிபாடு
Tract	a small booklet	சிறு நூல்
Revelation	disclosure	திருவெளிப்பாடு
Crematorium	a place where a dead person's body is burnt	இடுகாடு
Subjugation	the act of bringing something under control	அடிமைப்படுத்துதல்
Scriptures	the sacred writings	திருமறை நூல்கள்

EXERCISE

I. Choose the correct answer

1. In which year was Sati abolished?
   a) 1827 b) 1829
   c) 1826 d) 1927

2. What was the name of the Samaj founded by Dayanand Saraswati?
   a) Arya Samaj
   b) Brahmo Samaj
   c) Prarthana Samaj
   d) Adi Brahmo Samaj

3. Whose campaign and work led to the enactment of Widow Remarriage Reform Act of 1856?
   a) Iswarchandra Vidyasagar
   b) Raja Rammohan Roy
   c) Annie Besant
   d) Jyotiba Phule

4. Whose voice was *Rast Goftar*?
   a) Parsi Movement
   b) Aligarh Movement
   c) Ramakrishna Mission
   d) Dravida Mahajana Sabha

5. Who was the founder of Namdhari Movement?
   a) Baba Dayal Das   b) Baba Ramsingh
   c) Gurunanak   d) Jyotiba Phule

6. Who was Swami Shradhananda?
   a) a disciple of Swami Vivekananda
   b) one who caused a split in the Brahmo Samaj of India
   c) one who caused a split in the Arya Samaj
   d) founder of Samathuva Samajam.

7. Who was the founder of Widow Remarriage Association?
   a) M.G. Ranade
   b) Devendranath Tagore
   c) Jyotiba Phule
   d) Ayyankali

8. Who was the author of the book *Satyarthaprakash* ?
   a) Dayananda Saraswathi
   b) Vaikunda Swamy
   c) Annie Besant
   d) Swami Shradanatha

II. Fill in the blanks

1. _____ founded the Samarasa Vedha Sanmarga Sangam.

2. The founder of Poona Sarvajanik Sabha was _____.

3. Satyashodak Samaj was launched by _____ .

4. Gulumgir was written by _____.

5. *Satyarthaprakash* enumerates the positive principles of _____

6. Ramakrishna Mission was established by _____.

7. _____ was the forerunner of Akali Movement.

8. _____ brought tremendous changes in the caste structure in Kerala.

9. *Oru paisa Tamilan* was started by _____.

III. Choose the correct statement

1. i) Raja Rammohan Roy preached monotheism
   ii) He encouraged idolatry
   iii) He published tracts condemning social evils

   iv) Raja Rammohan Roy was supported by Governor General William Bentinck
   a) i) is correct
   b) i) and ii) are correct
   c) i), ii) and iii) are correct
   d) i), iii) and iv) are correct

2. i) Prarthana Samaj was founded by Dr. Atma Ram Pandurang
   ii) Prarthana Samaj encouraged inter-dining and inter-caste marriage
   iii) Jyotiba Phule worked for the upliftment of men.
   iv) Prarthana Samaj had it's origin in the Punjab.
   a) i) is correct
   b) ii) is correct
   c) i) and ii) are correct
   d) iii) and iv) are correct

3. i) Ramakrishna Mission was actively involved in social causes such as education, health care, relief in time of calamities.
   ii) Ramakrishna emphasised the spiritual union with god through ecstatic practices.
   iii) Ramakrishna established the Ramakrishna Mission
   iv) Ramakrishna opposed the Partition of Bengal
   a) i) is correct   b) i) and ii) are correct
   c) iii) is correct d) iv) alone correct

4. **Assertion:** Jyotiba Phule opened orphanages and homes for widows
   Reason: Jyotiba Phule opposed child marriage and supported widow remarriage
   a)Assertion is correct but reason is not apt to the assertion
   b) Assertion is correct and the reason is apt to the assertion
   c) Both are wrong
   d) Reason is correct but assertion is irrelevant

IV. Match the following

1	Ayyavazhi	-	Widows Remarriage Reform Act
2	Thiruvarutpa	-	Nirankari
3	Baba Dayal Das	-	Adi Bramo Samaj
4	Iswarchandra Vidyasagar	-	Vaikunda Swamigal
5	Debendranath	-	Songs of Grace

V) Answer briefly

1. Mention the four articles of faith laid down by Maharishi Debendranath Tagore?
2. Discuss Mahadev Govind Ranade's contribution to social reforms.
3. Assess the role of Ayyankali in fighting for the cause of "untouchables."
4. Write a note on reforms of Ramalinga Adigal.
5. What was the impact of Swami Vivekananda's activist ideology?
6. What are the differences between Reformist Movements and Revival Movements?
7. List the social evils eradicated by Brahmo Samaj.
8. Highlight the work done by Jyotiba Phule for the welfare of the poor and the marginalized.
9. What was the impact of IyotheeThassar's visit to SriLanka.

VI) Answer all the questions given under each caption

1. Aligarh Movement.
   i) What is the main aim of this Movement?
   ii) Who is considered the soul of this Movement?
   iii) Why were English books translated into Urudu?
   iv) Name the college which was later raised to the status of a University?
2. Ramalinga Adigal.
   i) What is Jeevakarunya?
   ii) What are the Songs of Grace?

iii) Point out the major contribution of Samarasa Vedha Sanmarga Sathya Sangam?
iv) Where did he establish his free feeding house?

3. Deoband Movement.
   i) Who were the organizers of this Movement?
   ii) What were the two main objectives of the Movement?
   iii) Who founded the school at Deoband?.
   iv) Against whom the fatwa was issued by Deoband Ulema?

VII) Answer in detail

1. Compare and contrast the contributions of Revivalist Movements with that of Reform Movements.
2. Discuss the circumstances that led to the Reform movements of 19th century.
3. Evaluate the contributions of Ramakrishna Paramahamsa and Swami Vivekananda to regenerate Indian society.
4. Write an essay on the role played by the 19th century reformers towards the cause of Women.

VIII) Activity

1. Role-play by students on Reformers and their Reforms of the 19th century India.
2. Debate Social evils of 19th century with those of present day.
3. Students can write an assignment on the present state of the reform organizations discussed in the lesson.

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INTERNET RESOURCES

ICT CORNER
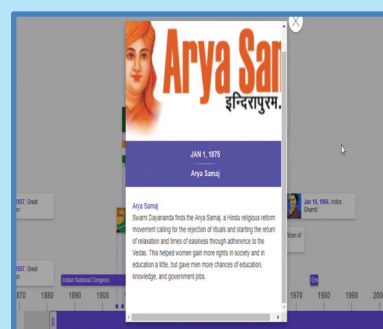
Through this activity you will know about world historic events through Interactive timeline.

Steps

- Open the Browser and type the URL given below (or) Scan the QR Code.
- Type '**History of modern India**' in the search box
- Explore the Timeline Events with Pictorial Descriptions.

Website URL:

https://www.timetoast.com/categories

B376_10_SOCIAL_EM

STANDARD TEN

GEOGRAPHY

India – Location, Relief and Drainage

Learning Objectives

- To understand the strategic importance of India's absolute and relative location in the world
- To know the distinct characteristics of major physiographic divisions of India
- To compare the regions of Great Indian plains
- To understand the drainage system of India
- To differentiate the Himalayan and peninsular rivers

Introduction

India is the seventh largest country in the world and second largest country in Asia. It forms a part of south Asia and is separated by the Himalayas from the rest of the continent. India accounts for about 2.4 % of the total area of the world with an area of 32,87,263 sq.km. many of the India states are larger than several countries of the world.

India's Land and Water Frontiers

India shares its 15,200 km long land frontier with Pakistan in the west, Afghanistan in the north-west, China, Nepal and Bhutan in the north and Bangladesh and Myanmar in the east. India's longest border is with Bangladesh (4156 km)while the shortest border is with Afghanistan.(106 km)

About 6,100 km long coastline of India is washed on three sides of the country by the Indian Ocean and its two arms namely the Arabian sea in the west and the Bay of Bengal in the east. The total length of the coast line of India including the islands is 7,516.6 km. India

and Sri Lanka are separated by a narrow and shallow sea called Palk Strait.

India and the World

The Indian land mass has a central location between, the East and the West Asia. India and the southward extension of the Asian continent. The trans Indian ocean routes which connect the countries of Europe in the west and the countries of East Asia provide a strategic central location to India. Thus it helping India to establish close contact with West Asia, Africa and Europe from the western coast and with South East, east Asia from the eastern coast.

India: A Subcontinent

India along with the countries of Myanmar, Bangladesh, Pakistan, Nepal, Bhutan and Sri Lanka is called a subcontinent. This region is separated from the rest of Asia by a chain of mountains in the northwest, north and northeast and by seas in the south. This region also possesses a distinct continental characteristics in physiography, climate, natural vegetation, minerals, human resources etc. Hence India is known as '**subcontinent**'.

ARCTIC OCEAN

GREENLAND

A S I A

NORTH
AMERICA

EUROPE

PACIFIC
OCEAN

ATLANTIC
OCEAN

PACIFIC
OCEAN

INDIA

AFRICA

SOUTH
AMERICA

INDIAN OCEAN

AUSTRALIA

SOUTHERN OCEAN

Not to Scale

ANTARCTICA

1.1 Location and Extent

India extends from **8°4'N** to **37°6'N** latitudes and **68°7'E** to **97°25'E** longitudes. Hence India is located of the north Eastern hemisphere

The southernmost point of the country is Pygmalion Point or Indira Point (6°45'N latitude) located in the Andaman and Nicobar Islands. The southernmost point of main land of India is **Cape Comorin** (Kanyakumari). The north-south extent of India is **3,214** km and it extends from **Indira Col** in Jammu and Kashmir in the north to Kanyakumari in the south. The east-west extension is **2933** km and it stretches from Rann of Kutch (Gujarat) in the west to Arunachal Pradesh in the east. The Tropic of Cancer (23°30' N) passes through the middle of the country dividing it into two halves as northern temperate and southern tropical lands. India has been politically divided into 29 states and 7 union territories for administrative convenience.

FIND OUT

- The number of Union Territories along western coast and eastern coast

- Area wise which is the smallest and largest state?

- The states which do not have an international border or lie on the largest state

- Classify into four groups each having common frontiers with i) Pakistan ii) China iii) Myanmar and iv) Bangladesh

DO YOU KNOW?

Amaravati is the new capital of Andhra Pradesh But according to Andhra Pradesh Reorganization Act, Hyderabad will be the capital for both the states of Andhra Pradesh and Telungana till 2024 (For 10 years from the act passed).
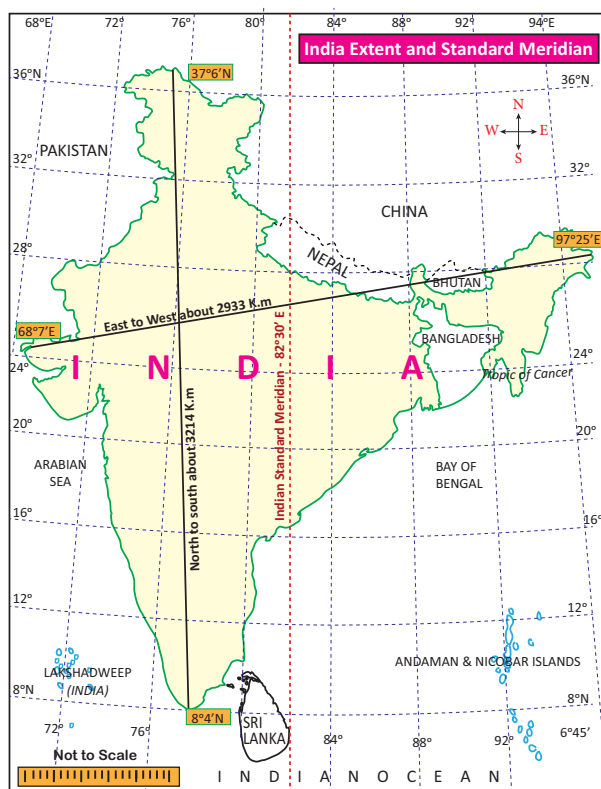
1.1.1 Indian Standard Time (IST)

The longitudinal difference between Gujarat in the west and Arunachal Pradesh in the east

India – Location, Relief and Drainage

India - States and Union Territories

is about 30°. The Earth rotates through its axis around 360° in 24 hours. Thus, a difference of 1° longitude will make a difference of 4 minutes in time. The difference in longitude between Gujarat (68°7'E) and Arunachal Pradesh (97°25' E) is 29°18'. Hence the difference in local time between these two places is 29°18' X 4' (minutes) = 1 hour 57 minutes 12 seconds (approximately 2 hours). Since Arunachal Pradesh is towards east, it will have sunrise about two hours earlier than the sunrise at Gujarat which is in the west.

India Extent and Standard Meridian

In order to avoid these differences, Indian standard time is calculated. The local time of the central meridian of India is the standard time of India. **India's central meridian is 82°30' E longitude.** It passes through Mirzapur and roughly bisects the country in terms of longitude. The IST is 5.30 hrs ahead of Greenwich Mean Time (GMT).

1.2 Major Physiographic Divisions of India

The majestic Himalayan peaks in the north, the beautiful beaches in the south, the great Indian desert in the west and the breathtaking natural heritage in the east make India a geographically vibrant, colourful and truly incredible country.

There is a varied nature of physiographic divisions in India. Though the country has many landforms based on the major differences, it is divided into the following five physiographic divisions:

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

1.2.1 Himalayan Mountains

The Himalayan Mountains (Northern Mountains) consist of the youngest and the loftiest mountain chains in the world because they have been formed only few millions years ago and also they were formed because of the folding of the earth crust due to tectonic activity. It stretches for a distance of 2,500 km from the Indus gorge in the west to Brahmaputra gorge in the east. The width of the Northern Mountains varies from 500 km in Kashmir to 200 km in Arunachal Pradesh. The Pamir Knot, popularly known as the **"Roof of the World"** is the connecting link between the Himalayas and the high ranges of Central Asia. From the Pamir, Himalayas extend eastward in the form of an arc shape. The term "Himalaya" is derived from Sanskrit. It means **"The Abode of Snow"**. The Northern Mountains that function as a great wall is grouped into three divisions. **1) The Trans-Himalayas, 2) Himalayas, 3) Eastern or Purvanchal hills**.

DO YOU KNOW? Aravalli range is the oldest fold mountain range in India.

FIND OUT Find the Hill stations which are located in Himalayan Mountains.

India – Location, Relief and Drainage

INDIA - PHYSICAL DIVISIONS

1. The Trans-Himalayas

It is also known as western Himalaya's. It lies to the north of the great Himalayan range. It lies in Jammu and Kashmir and Tibetian plateau. As its areal extent is more in Tibet, it is also known as Tibetean Himalayas. The Trans-Himalayas are about 40 km wide in its eastern and western extremities and about 225 km wide in its central part. They contain the Tethys sediments. The rocks of this region contain fossils bearing marine sediments which are underlain by 'Tertiary granite'. It has partly metamorphosed sediments and constitutes the core of the Himalayan axis. The prominent ranges of Trans Himalayas are Zaskar, Ladakh, Kailash, and Karakoram.

2. The Himalayas

It constitutes the core part of northern mountains. It is an young fold mountain. It was formed by the movement of Angara land mass in the north and Gondwana land mass in the south. The Tethys sea found between these two land masses was uplifted by the compression and the resultant landform was the Himalayas. It consists of many ranges. The main divisions of the Himalayas are the *(i) Greater Himalayas, (ii) the Lesser Himalayas and (iii)the Siwaliks*

Peak	Country	Height in metres
Mt. Everest	Nepal	8848
Mt.K2 or Godwin Austen	India	8611
Kanchenjunga	India	8598
Makalu	Nepal	8481
Dhaulagiri	Nepal	8172
Nanga Parbat	India	8126
Annapurna	Nepal	8078
Nanda Devi	India	7817
Kamet	India	7756
Namcha Barwa	India	7756
Gurla Mandhata	Nepal	7728

DO YOU KNOW? Himalaya is the home of several high peaks. However, it holds the record of having the maximum number of highest peaks among any mountain range in world. Out of 14 heights peaks in this world, Himalayas holds 9.

(i) The Greater Himalayas or the Himadri

The Greater Himalayas rise abruptly like a wall north of the Lesser Himalayas. The Greater Himalayas are about 25 km wide. Its average height is about 6,000 m. The Greater Himalayas receive lesser rainfall as compared to the Lesser Himalayas and the Siwaliks. Physical weathering is less effective over the Greater Himalayas as compared to the other ranges. Almost all the lofty peaks of Himalayas are located in this range. The notable ones are Mt. Everest (8,848 m) and Kanchenjunga (8,586 m). Mt.Everest is located in Nepal and Kanchenjunga is located between Nepal and Sikkim. This range is the most continuous of all ranges. It is region of permanent snow cover. So, it has many glaciers. **Gangothri, Yamunothri and Siachen** are some of them.

(ii) The Lesser Himalayas or The Himachal

It is the middle range of Himalayas. Height of this range varies from 3, 700 to 4,500 m. Its width varies upto 80 km. The major rocks of this range are slate, limestone and quartzite. This region is subjected to extensive erosion due to heavy rainfall, deforestation and urbanization. Pir Panjal, Dhauladhar and Mahabharat are the mountain ranges found in this part. Major hill stations of the Himalayas are located in this range. **Shimla, Mussourie, Nainital, Almora, Ranikhet and Darjeeling** are the familiar ones.

DO YOU KNOW? The major passes in the Himalayan are Karakoram pass (Jammu and Kashmir), Zojila pass, Shipkila pass (Himachal Pradesh), Bomdila pass (Arunachal Pradesh), Nathala pass (Sikkim) and Jhelepla pass (Sikkim). The Khyber pass which connects Pakistan and Afanisthan, and Bolan pass in Pakistan are important passes of the Indian subcontinent

(iii) The Siwaliks or Outer Himalayas

The Siwaliks extend from Jammu and Kashmir to Assam. It is partly made by the debris brought by the Himalayan rivers. The altitude varying between 900-1100 metres elevation of this range is 1300 m. The width of Siwaliks vary from 10 km in the east to 50 km in the west. It is the most discontinuous range.

India – Location, Relief and Drainage

The longitudinal valleys found between the Siwaliks and the Lesser Himalayas are called Duns in the west and Duars in the east. These are the ideal sites for the development of settlements in this region.

3. Purvanchal Hills

These are the eastern off-shoot of Himalayas. It extended in the north-eastern states of India. Most of these hills are located along the border of India and Myanmar while others are inside India. Dafla Hills, Abor Hills, Mishmi Hills, Patkai Bum Hills, Naga Hills, Manipur Hills, Mizo Hills, Tripura Hills, Mikir Hills, Garo Hills, Khasi Hills and Jaintia Hills are the hills which are collectively known as **purvanchal Hills**.

Importance of Himalayas

- Himalayas blocks southwest monsoon winds and causes heavy rainfall to north India.
- It forms a natural barrier to the sub-continent.
- It is the source for many perennial rivers like Indus, Ganges, Brahmaputra etc.
- The Northern Mountains are described as the paradise of tourists due to its natural beauty.
- Many hill stations and pilgrim centres like Amarnath, Kedarnath, Badrinath and Vaishnavidevi temples are situated here.
- It provides raw material for many forest based industries.
- It prevents the cold winds blowing from the central Asia and protects India from severe cold.
- Himalayas are renowned for the rich biodiversity.

Longitudinal Divisions of Himalayas

1. The Kashmir Punjab Himachal Himalayas- Located between the rivers of Indus and Sutlej.
2. The Kumaun Himalayas- Located between the rivers of Sutlej and Kali.
3. The Central-Nepal Himalayas- Located between the rivers of Kali and Tista.
4. The Assam Eastern Himalayas- Located between rivers of Tista and Dihang.

1.2.2 The Great Northern Plains

The fertile land extending across seven north Indian states forms the Great Northern Plains. This extensive plain lies to the south of the northern mountains. This plain is one of the most extensive stretches of the alluvium in the world and is deposited by the rivers Indus, Ganga, Brahmaputra and their tributaries. The length of the plain is about 2,400 km and the width varies from 240 to 320 km. Its width increases from east to west. It covers an area of over 7 lakh sq.km.

The Great Plains of India is remarkably a homogeneous surface with an imperceptible slope. They are formed mostly by the depositional process of the Himalayan and Vindhyan rivers. These rivers deposit enormous quantity of sediments deposited along the foothills and flood plains. The important characteristics featuress of sediment deposition in the plains areas as follows.

a) The Bhabar Plain

This plain is made up of gravels and unassorted sediments deposited by the Himalayan rivers. The porosity of this plain is so high that most of the small streams flow over this region disappear. It lies to the south of the Siwalik from west to east (Jammu Division to Assam). Its width varies from 8 to 15 km. It is wider in the western plains (Jammu Division) than in the east (Assam). This plain is not suitable for cultivation, only big trees with large roots thrive in this region.

b) The Tarai Tract

It is a zone of excessive dampness, thick forests and rich wild life. This tract lies to the south of Bhabar plains. The width of this belt is 15-30 km. The Tarai is wider in the eastern parts of the Great Plains, especially in Brahmaputra

Valley due to heavy rainfall. In many states, the Tarai forests have been cleared for cultivation.

c) The Bhangar Plains

The Bhangar represent the upland alluvial tracts of the Great Plains of India, formed by the older alluviums. The Bhangar land lies above the flood limits of the rivers. This soil is dark in colour, rich in humus content, well drained and useful for agriculture.

d) The Khadar Plains

The new alluvium tracts along the courses of the rivers are known as the 'Khadar' or 'Bet' lands. The Khadar tracts are enriched by fresh deposits of silt every year during rainy seasons. The Khadar land consists of sand, silt, clay and mud. It is highly fertile soil.

e) Delta Plains

The deltaic plain is an extension of the Khadar land. It covers about 1.9 lakh sq.km in the lower reaches of the Ganga River. It is an area of deposition as the river flows in this tract sluggishly. The deltaic plain consists mainly of old mud, new mud and marsh. In the delta region, the uplands are called '**Chars**' while the marshy areas are called '**Bils**'.

1.2.3 The Peninsular Plateaus

The plateau region lies to the south of the Great Northern Plains. This is the largest physiographic division of our country. It covers an area of about 16 lakh sq.km (about half of the total area of the country). It is an old rocky plateau region. The topography consists of a series of plateaus and hill ranges interspersed with river valleys.

Aravalli hills mark the north-western boundary of the plateau region. Its northern and north-eastern boundaries are marked by the Bundelkhand upland, Kaimur and Rajmahal hills. The Western Ghats and the Eastern Ghats mark the western and eastern boundaries respectively. The altitude of a large portion of the plateau is more than 600 m from mean sea level. **The peak of Anaimudi is the highest point in the plateau**. Its height is 2,695 m and is located in Anaimalai. The general slope of this plateau is towards east. The Great Plateau

On the basis of deposition of sediments by various rivers and topographical characteristics, the Northern Plains of India is divided into the following four major regions:

a) **Rajasthan Plains:** It is located to the west of Aravalli range. It covers an area of about 1,75,000 sq.km. Rajasthan plain is formed by the deposition of the river Luni and the long vanished river Saraswathi. There are several salt lakes in Rajasthan. The Sambhar salt lake (Pushkar Lake) near Jaipur is the prominent one.

b) **Punjab - Haryana Plains:** It lies to the north-east of the Great Indian Desert. This plain is found over an area of about 1.75 lakh sq.km. The Punjab - Haryana plains are formed by the deposition of the rivers Sutlej, Beas and Ravi. This plain acts as water - divide (doab). The two major watershed it divides are Yamuna – Sutlej and Ganga – Yamuna.

c) **Ganga Plains:** It extends from the Yamuna River in the west to Bangladesh in the east. The total area covered by this plain is about 3.75 sq.km. River Ganga and its tributaries such as Ghaghra, Gandak, Kosi, Yamuna, Chambal, Betwa etc. constitute this plain by their sediments and make a great plain in India. It is the largest plain of India. The general slope of the entire plain (upper, middle and lower Ganga plains) is towards east and south-east.

d) **Brahmaputra Plains:** It is located mainly in the state of Assam. It is a low - level plain located in the eastern part of the Great Plains of India and is formed by the deposits of river Brahmaputra. It covers an area of about 56,275 sq.km. These plains create alluvial fans and marshy tracts.

India – Location, Relief and Drainage

is a part of the Gondwana (very ancient one) land mass. Due to the old age, the rivers in this region attained their base level and developed broad and shallow valleys.

The river Narmada divides the plateau region of India broadly into two parts. The region lying to the north of the Narmada is called the Central Highlands and the region lying to the south of Narmada is called the Deccan Plateau. All the major rivers (Mahanadi, Godavari, Krishna, Kaveri etc.) lying to the south of the Vindhyas flow eastwards and fall into the Bay of Bengal. Narmada and Tapti are the two rivers situated to the south of the Vindhyas flow westward. Their movement towards west is due to the presence of a rift valley in the region.

a) Central Highlands

The Central Highlands extend between the river Narmada and the Northern Great Plains. The Aravallis form the west and northwestern edge of the Central Highlands. These hills extend from Gujarat, through Rajasthan to Delhi in the northwesterly direction for a distance of about 700 km. The height of these hills is about 1,500 m in southwest while near Delhi the height is hardly 400 m. **Gurushikhar with 1,722 m is the highest peak of this range**.

The Western part of the Central Highland is known as the Malwa Plateau. It lies to the southeast of Aravallis and to the north of Vindhyachal Range. The rivers Chambal, Betwa and Ken drain the Malwa Plateau before they join the river Yamuna. The part of the Central Highlands which extends to the east of Malwa Plateau is known as Bundelkhand and its further extension is known as Bagelkhand. The eastern part of the Central High lands which lies in the north-eastern part of the Indian Plateau is known as Chhota-Nagpur Plateau. It covers much of Jharkhand, adjacent parts of Odisha, West Bengal, Bihar and Chhattisgarh. This region is very rich in mineral resources particularly iron ore and coal.

b) Deccan Plateau

This physiographic division is the largest part of the plateau region of India. The shape of this plateau is roughly triangular. One of the sides of this triangle is marked by the line joining Kanyakumari with Rajmahal Hills and this line passes through the Eastern Ghats. The second arm is marked by the Satpura Range, Mahadeo Hills, Maikal Range and the Rajmahal Hills. The third arm is marked by the Western Ghats. The area of this Plateau is about 7 lakh square km and the height ranges from 500 to 1000 m above sea level.

The Western Ghats forms the western edge of the Peninsular Plateau. It runs parallel to the Arabian Sea coast. The northern part of this range is called as Sahyadris. The height of the Sahyadris increases from north to south. Anaimudi is a sort of tri-junction of the Anaimalai Range, the Cardamom Hills and the Palani Hills. Kodaikanal is a beautiful hill resort situated on the Palani Hills. Eastern Ghats run from southwest to northeast form the eastern edge of this Plateau. This range is also called as Poorvadri. The Eastern Ghats join the Western Ghats at the Nilgiri hills, bordering Karnataka and Tamil Nadu. The Eastern Ghats are not continuous like the Western Ghats. The rivers of Mahanadi, Godavari, Krishna, Pennar and Kaveri have dissected this range at many places.

1.2.4 The Indian Desert

The Thar desert, also known as the Great Indian desert is a large arid region in the north western part of the Indian subcontinent that covers an area of 2,00,000 km² and forms a natural boundary between India and Pakistan. It is the world 7th largest desert, and world 9th largest sub tropical desert located in Western part of the India.

The desert lies in the western part of the aravalli range and covers 2/3 of Rajastan state. There are two major divisions in the Thar desert. They are known as the Actual desert

region (Marusthali) and the semi desert region (Bhangar). Many different types of sand dunes and salt lakes (Dhands) are seen here.

Thar Desert

1.2.5 The Coastal Plains

The Peninsula Plateau of India is flanked by narrow coastal plains of varied width from north to south, known as the Western Coastal Plains and the Eastern Coastal Plains. They were formed by the depositional action of the rivers and the erosional and depositional actions of the sea-waves. The Indian coastal plains are divided into the following two divisions: 1) The Western Coastal Plains and 2) The Eastern Coastal Plains.

1. The Western Coastal Plain

It lies between the Western Ghats and the Arabian Sea. It extends from Rann of kutch in the north to Kanyakumari in the south and its width varies from 10 to 80 km. It is mainly characterised by sandy beaches, coastal sand dunes, mud flats, lagoons, estuary, laterite platforms and residual hills. The northern part of the West Coastal Plain is known as Konkan Plain. The middle part of this plain is known as Kanara. The southern part of the plain is known as Malabar coast which is about 550 km long and 20-100 km wide. This part of the coast is characterized by sand dunes. Along the coast, there are numerous shallow lagoons and backwaters called **Kayals** and **Teris**. **Vembanad** is a famous back water lake found in this region.

2. The Eastern Coastal Plain

It lies between the Eastern Ghats and the Bay of Bengal and, stretches along the states of West Bengal, Odisha, Andhra Pradesh and Tamil Nadu. These plains are formed by the alluvial fillings of the littoral zone by the east flowing rivers of India. The coastal plain consists mainly of the recent alluvial deposits. This coastal plain has a regular shoreline with well-defined beaches. The coastal plain between Mahanadi and Krishna river is known as the Northern Circars and the southern part lies between Krishna and Kaveri rivers is called Coromandal coast. The **Marina beach** on this coast in Chennai and it is the second longest beach in the world. Among the back water lakes of this coast, lake **Chilka** (Odisha) is the largest lake in India located to the southwest of the Mahanadi delta, the **Kolleru Lake** which lies between the deltas of Godavari and Krishna and the **Pulicat Lake** lies in the border of Andhra Pradesh and Tamil Nadu are the well known lakes in the east coastal plain.

1.2.6 The Islands

India has two major island groups namely Andaman and Nicobar and Lakshadweep. The former group consists of 572 islands and are located in Bay of Bengal, and the later one has 27 islands and are located in Arabian Sea. The islands of Andaman and Nicobar are largely tectonic and volcanic origin. India's only active volcano is found on Barren Island in Andaman and Nicobar group of Islands, while the islands of the Arabian Sea are mainly coral origin.

a) Andaman and Nicobar Islands

Andaman Islands

These islands are located in an elevated portion of the submarine mountains. Since these islands lie close to the equator, the climate remains hot and wet throughout the year and has dense forests. The area of the island group is about 8,249 sq.km. The entire group of islands

is divided into two. They are Andaman in the north and the Nicobar in the south. These island groups are of great strategic importance for the country. Port Blair is the administrative capital of the Andaman and Nicobar islands. The **Ten Degree Channel** separates Andaman from Nicobar group. The southernmost tip, the **Indira Point** is a part of Nicobar Island.

b) Lakshadweep Islands

This is a small group of coral islands located off the west coast of India. It covers an area of 32 sq. km. Kavaratti is its administrative capital. Lakshadweep islands are separated from the Maldive Islands by the Eight Degree Channel. The uninhabited "**Pitt Island**" of this group has a bird sanctuary. Earlier, it had three divisions namely Laccadive, Minicoy and Amindivi. It was named as Lakshadweep in 1973.
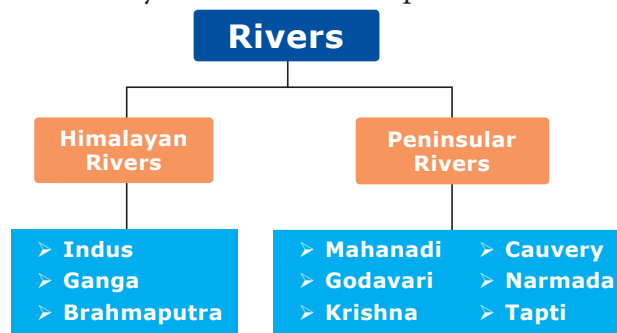
c) Offshore Islands

Besides the two group of islands, India has a number of islands along the Western Coast, Eastern Coast, in the delta region of Ganga and in the Gulf of Mannar. Many of these islands are uninhabited and are administered by the adjacent states.

1.3 Drainage System of India

A drainage system is an integrated system of tributaries and a trunk stream which collects and drains surface water into the sea, lake or some other body of water. The total area drained by a river and its tributaries is known as a drainage basin. The drainage pattern of an area is the result of the geological structure of the respective areas. The river system provides irrigation, drinking water, navigation, power as well as grant livelihoods for a large number of population. The drainage system of India is broadly divided into two major groups on the basis of their location. They are Himalayan rivers and the Peninsular rivers.

1.3.1 Himalayan Rivers

These rivers are found in north India and originate from Himalayas. So, they are also called as Himalayan rivers. These are perennial rivers.

```
                    Rivers
            ┌──────────┴──────────┐
      Himalayan              Peninsular
       Rivers                  Rivers
   ┌─────────────┐       ┌──────────────────────┐
   │ ➤ Indus     │       │ ➤ Mahanadi  ➤ Cauvery│
   │ ➤ Ganga     │       │ ➤ Godavari  ➤ Narmada│
   │ ➤ Brahmaputra│      │ ➤ Krishna   ➤ Tapti  │
   └─────────────┘       └──────────────────────┘
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a) The Indus River System

The Indus River is one of the largest rivers of the world. It originates from the northern slope of the Kailash range in Tibet near Manasarovar Lake at an elevation of about 5,150 m. Its length is about 2,880 km (Only 709 km is in India). The river has a total drainage area extending 11,65,500 sq km in which 321,289 sq km areas are drained in India. The river flows through the Ladakh and Zaskar ranges and creates deep gorges. The river runs through Jammu and Kashmir, turns south near Chillar and enters Pakistan. Its major tributaries are Jhelum, Chenab (Largest tributary of Indus), Ravi, Beas and Sutlej. It enters into with the Arabian Sea.

b) The Ganga River System
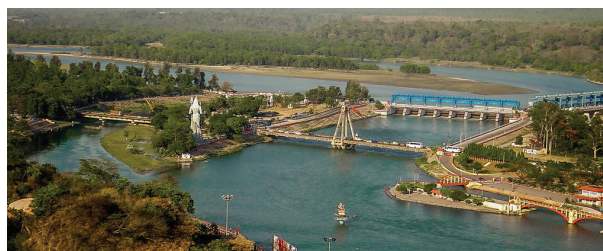
Ganga River - Haridwar

The Ganga River system is the largest drainage system of India it extend over and area of 8,61,404 sq km in India. The Ganga plain is the most densely populated place in India and many towns are developed on the banks of this river. The river Ganga originates as Bhagirathi from the Gangotri Glacier in Uttar Khasi District of Uttarkhand state, at an elevation of

7,010 m. The length of the river Ganga is about 2,525 km. Its major tributaries from the north are Gomti, Gandak, Kosi and Ghaghra and from south, Yamuna (largest tributary of Ganga), Son, Chambal etc. The river Ganga is known as the River Padma in Bangladesh. The combined river of Ganga and Brahmaputra creates the World's largest delta known as Sundarbans in Bangladesh before joining the Bay of Bengal.

c) The Brahmaputra River System

The river Brahmaputra originates from the Chemayungdung Glacier of the Kailash range to the east of Lake Manasarovar in Tibet at an elevation of about 5,150 m. The total area is about 5,80,000 sq km but the drainage area lying in India is 1,94,413 sq km This river is known as Tsangpo (Purifier) in Tibet. The length of this river is about 2,900 km (900 km in India). It enters into India through a gorge in Arunachal Pradesh namely Dihang. It has many tributaries. Tista, Manas, Barak, Subansiri are some of them. This river is called as Jamuna in Bangladesh. After it joins with the river Ganga in Bangladesh, the river is called as Meghna.

Characteristics of Himalayan Rivers

- Originate from Himalayas
- Long and wide
- Perennial in nature
- Unsuitable for hydro power generation
- Middle and lower courses are navigable

1.3.2 Peninsular Rivers

The rivers in south India are called the Peninsular rivers. Most of these rivers originate from the Western Ghats. These are seasonal rivers (non–perennial). They have a large seasonal fluctuation in volume of water as they are solely fed by rain. These rivers flow in valleys with steep gradients. Based on the direction of flow, the peninsular rivers are divided into the West flowing and East flowing rivers.

1.3.3 East Flowing Rivers

a) Mahanadi

The river Mahanadi originates near Sihawa in Raipur district of Chattisgarh and flows through Odisha. Its length is 851 km. Seonath, Telen, Sandur and Ib are its major tributaries. The main stream of Mahanadi gets divided into several distributaries such as Paika, Birupa, Chitartala, Genguti and Nun. All these distributaries form the Delta of Mahanadi which is one of the largest deltas in India. The Mahanadi empties its water in Bay of Bengal.
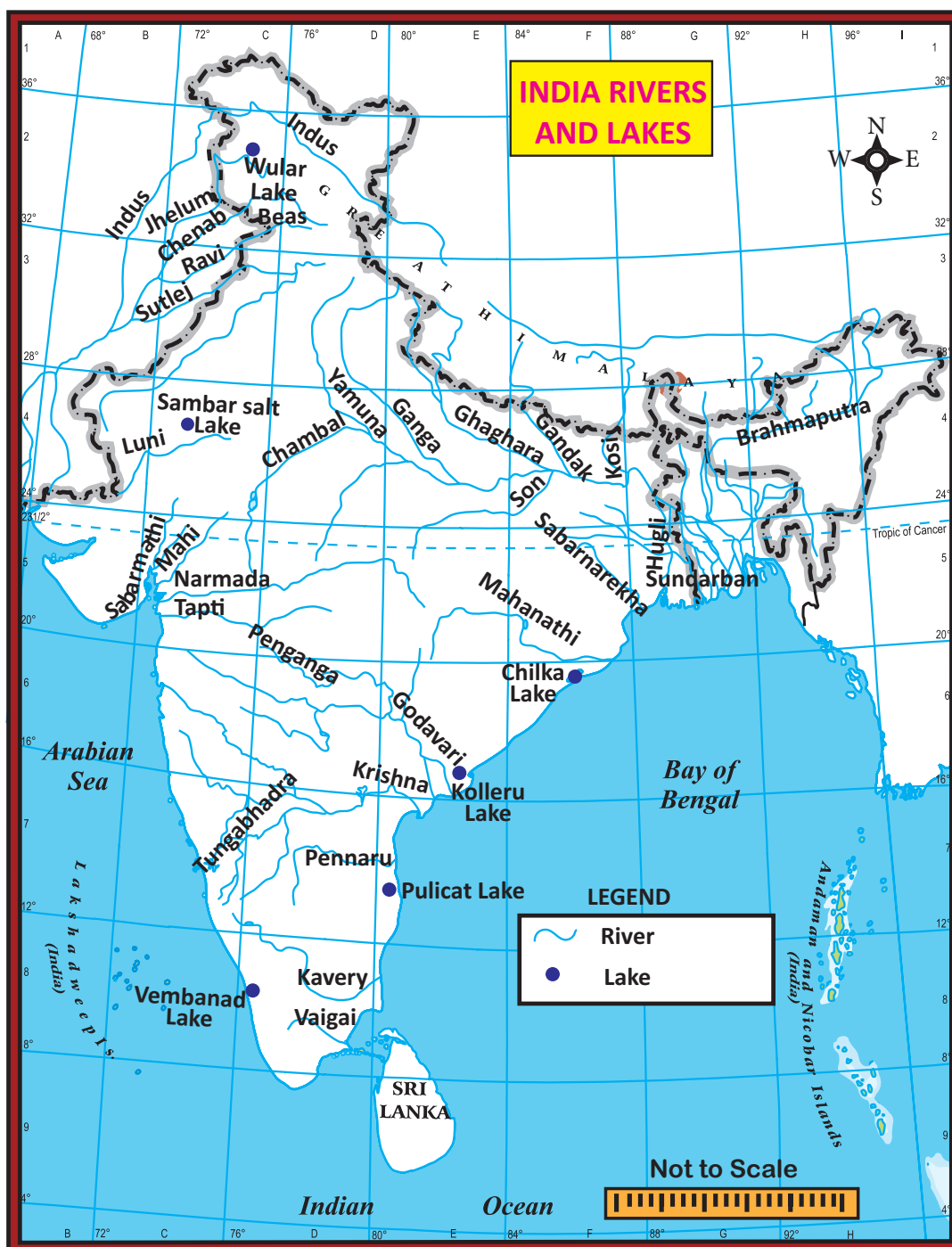
b) Godavari

Godavari is the longest river (1,465 km) with an area of 3.13 lakh km^2 among the Peninsular rivers. It is also called Vridha Ganga. It originates in Nasik district of Maharashtra, a portion of Western Ghats. It flows through the states of Telangana and Andhra Pradesh before joining Bay of Bengal. Purna, Penganga, Pranitha, Indravati, Tal and Salami are its major tributaries. The river near Rajahmundry gets divided into two Channels called Vasistha and Gautami and forms one of the largest deltas in India. Kolleru, a fresh water lake is located in the deltaic region of the Godavari.

c) Krishna

The river Krishna originates from a spring at a place called Mahabaleshwar in the Western Ghats of Maharashtra. Its length is 1,400 km and an area of 2.58 lakh sq km. It is the second longest Peninsular river Bhima, Peddavagu, Musi, Koyna and Thungabhadra are the major tributaries of this river. It also flows through Andhra Pradesh and joins in Bay of Bengal, at Hamasaladeevi.

d) Kaveri

The river Kaveri originates at Talakaveri, Kudagu hills of Karnataka. Its length is 800 km. The river kaveri is called Dhakshin Ganga or Ganga of south Harangi, Hemavati, Kabini, Bhavani, Arkavathy, Noyyal, Amaravathi etc are the main tributaries of the river Kaveri. In Karnataka the river bifurcates twice, forming

India – Location, Relief and Drainage

INDIA RIVERS AND LAKES

Indus
Wular Lake
Jhelum
Chenab
Beas
Ravi
Sutlej
GREAT HIMALAYA
Sambar salt Lake
Luni
Vamuna
Chambal
Ganga
Ghaghara
Gandak
Son
Kosi
Brahmaputra
Sabarmathi
Mahi
Narmada
Tapti
Sabarnarekha
Mahanathi
Hughli
Sundarban
Tropic of Cancer
Penganga
Chilka Lake
Godavari
Arabian Sea
Krishna
Kolleru Lake
Bay of Bengal
Tungabhadra
Pennaru
Pulicat Lake
Lakshadweep Is. (India)
Kavery
Vembanad Lake
Vaigai
Andaman and Nicobar Islands (India)
SRI LANKA
Indian   Ocean

LEGEND

∿	River
●	Lake

Not to Scale

the sacred islands of Srirangapatnam and Sivasamudram. While entering Tamil Nadu, the Kaveri continues through a series of twisted wild gorges until it reaches Hogenakkal Falls and flows through a straight, narrow gorge near Salem. The Kaveri breaks at Srirangam Island with two channels, river Coleroon and Kaveri. At last, it empties into the Bay of Bengal at Poompuhar.

1.3.4 West Flowing Rivers

a) Narmada

This river rises in Amarkantak Plateau in Madhya Pradesh at an elevation of about 1057 m and flows for a distance of about 1,312 km it covers and area of 98,796 sq km and forms 27 km long estuary before outfalling into the Arabian Sea through the Gulf of Cambay. It is the largest among the west flowing rivers of Peninsular India. Its principal tributaries are

Burhner, Halon, Heran, Banjar, Dudhi, Shakkar, Tawa, Barna and Kolar.

b) Tapti

The Tapti is one of the major rivers of Peninsular India with the length of about 724 km. It covers an area of 65,145 sq km. Tapti river rises near Multai in the Betul district of Madhya Pradesh at an elevation of about 752 m. It is one of only the three rivers in Peninsular India that run from east to west - the others being the Narmada and the Mahi. The major tributaries are Vaki, Gomai, Arunavati, Aner, Nesu, Buray, Panjhra and Bori. It outfalls into the Arabian Sea through the Gulf of Cambay.

Characteristics of South Indian Rivers

- Originate from Western Ghats
- Short and narrow
- Non perennial in nature
- Suitable for hydro power generation
- Not useful for navigation

FiNDiOUT In which river the Gerosappa (jog) fall is found?

Recap

- India has been physiographically divided into five divisions. They are **Northern Mountains, Northern Great Plains, The Plateau region, Coastal Plains and Islands**.

- Northern Mountains are classified into three divisions as Trans-Himalayas, Himalayas and Eastern Himalayas.

- Northern Great Plains are divided into four as Rajasthan Plains, Punjab-Haryana Plains, Gangetic Plains and Brahmaputra Plains.

- The Plateau region of India has two divisions namely the Central Highlands and the Deccan Plateau.

- Andaman and Nicobar Islands and Lakshadweep are the two major island groups of India.

- The Drainage System of India is classified into the north Indian (Himalayan) and Peninsular rivers.

- Narmada, Tapti, Mahi and Sabarmathi rivers confluence with the Arabian Sea.

- Mahanadi, Godavari, Krishna and Cauvery are the major east flowing rivers and drain into Bay of Bengal.

A-Z GLOSSARY

Back waters: The part of a river which are stagnant and do not reach the sea as they are pushed by the current.

Distributary: A branch or outlet which leaves a main river and does not rejoin it, carrying its water to the sea or a lake.

Doab: A land between the two converging rivers.

Estuary: Mouth of a river where it enters the sea through a single channel with a hollow.

Perennial Rivers: The rivers which flow throughout the year and have permanent source of water.

Pass: A narrow gap through the mountains providing a route or passage way.

Peninsula: The land area covered with ocean on three sides. **Subcontinent:** A large area of a continent that stands distinct from the rest of the continent and possesses almost all the characteristics of a continent.

Standard Time: The local time of central meridian of ones country.

Tributary: A river or stream which contributes its water to main river.

India – Location, Relief and Drainage

EXERCISE

I. Choose the correct answer

1. The north-south extent of India is
   a. 2,500 km
   b. 2,933 km
   c. 3,214 km
   d. 2,814 km

2. The Southern most point of India is
   a. Andaman   b. Kanyakumari
   c. Indira Point   d. Kavaratti

3. The extent of Himalayas in the east-west is about
   a. 2,500 km   b. 2,400 km
   c. 800 km   d. 2,200 km

4. _____ River is known as 'Sorrow of Bihar'.
   a. Narmada   b. Godavari
   c. Kosi   d. Damodar

5. Deccan Plateau covers an area of about _____ sq.km.
   a. 8 lakh   b. 6 lakh
   c. 5 lakh   d. 7 lakh

6. A landmass bounded by sea on three sides is referred to as _____.
   a. Coast   b. Island
   c. Peninsula   d. Strait

7. The Palk Strait and Gulf of Mannar separates India from _____
   a. Goa   b. West Bengal
   c. Sri Lanka   d. Maldives

8. The highest peak in South India is
   a. Ooty   b. Kodaikanal
   c. Anaimudi   d. Jindhagada

9. _____ Plains are formed by the older alluviums.
   a. Bhabar   b. Tarai
   c. Bhangar   d. Khadar

10. Pulicat Lake is located between the states of
    a. West Bengal and Odisha
    b. Karnataka and Kerala
    c. Odisha and Andhra Pradesh
    d. Tamil Nadu and Andhra Pradesh

II. Match the following

1. Tsangpo   — Tributary of River Ganga
2. Yamuna   — Highest peak in India
3. New alluvium —   River Brahmaputra in Tibet
4. Mt. Godwin   Southern part of East
   Austen (K2)   — Coastal Plain
5. Coromandel
   Coast   — Khadhar

III. Give Reasons

1. Himalayas are called young fold moutains
2. North Indian Rivers are perennial
3. Chottanagpur Plateau is rich in mineral resources
4. The great Indian desert is called Marusthali
5. The Eastern states are called seven sisters
6. The river Gothavari is often referred as Vridha Ganga.

IV. Distinguish between the following

1. Himalayan rivers and Peninsular rivers.
2. Western Ghats and Eastern Ghats.
3. Himadri and Himachal.
4. Western Coastal Plains and Eastern Coastal Plains.

V. Answer in brief

1. Name the neighbouring countries of India.
2. Give the importance of IST.
3. Write a short note on Deccan Plateau.
4. State the west following rivers of India.
5. Write a brief note on the island group of Lakshadweep

VI. Answer in a paragraph

1. Explain the divisions of Northern Mountains and its importance to India.
2. Give an account on the major peninsular rivers of India.
3. Give a detailed account on the basin of the Ganga.

VII. Map exercises

Mark the following in the outline map of India

1. Major mountain ranges – Karakoram, Ladakh, Zaskar, Aravalli, Western Ghats, Eastern Ghats.
2. Major rivers – Indus, Ganga, Brahmaputra, Narmada, Tapti, Mahanadi, Godavari, Krishna & Kaveri.
3. Major plateaus – Malwa, Chotanagpur, Deccan.

VIII. Activities

1. Observe the Peninsular Plateau map of India and mark the major plateau divisions of India
2. Prepare a table showing the major West flowing and East flowing rivers of peninsular India.
3. Assume that you are travelling from West Bengal to Gujarat along the beautiful coasts of India. Find out the states which you would pass through?

4. Find out the states through which the river Ganga flows.
5. Prepare a table showing the major rivers in India and findout it's tributaries, origin, length and area.

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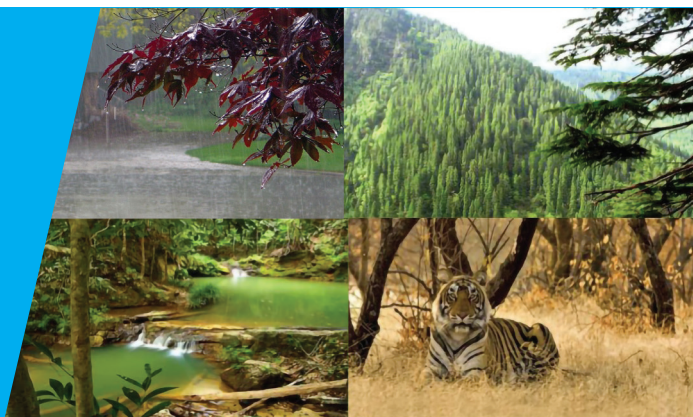
INTERNET RESOURCES

1. http://www.nplindia.in/
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India – Location, Relief and Drainage

Unit - 2

Climate and Natural Vegetation of India

🎯 Learning Objectives

- To describe the factors controlling the climate of India.
- To understand the characteristics of different seasons in India.
- To know about the rainfall distribution.
- To study the different types of natural vegetation and wild life in India.

Introduction

We drink more water during summer and do not drink the same amount of water during winter. Why do we wear cotton or lighter clothes during summer season and heavy woollen clothes during cold weather season in north India? Why do not we wear woollen clothes in south India? This is because of the prevalence of varying weather conditions between north and south India. In the previous chapter, you have learnt about the landforms and drainage of our country, which dealt with the natural environment. In this chapter, you will learn about the climate, rainfall distribution, natural vegetation and wildlife of our country.

> **DO YOU KNOW?**
> Equable climate is also called as the British climate, Which is neither too hot nor too cold.

2.1 The factors affecting the climate

Climate of India is affected by the factors of latitude, distance from the seas, monsoon wind, relief features and jet stream.

2.1.1 Latitude

Latitudinally, India lies between 8°4'N and 37°6'N latitudes. The Tropic of cancer divides the country into two equal halves. The area located to the south of Tropic of cancer experiences high temperature and no severe cold season throughout the year whereas, the areas to the north of this parallel enjoys sub-tropical climate. Here, summer temperature may rise above 40°C and it is close to freezing point during winter.

2.1.2 Altitude

When the altitude increases, The temperatures decreases. Temperature decreases at the rate of 6.5ºC for every 1000 metres of ascent. It is called **normal lapse rate.**

Hence, places in the mountains are cooler than the places on the plains. That is why the places located at higher altitudes even in south India have cool climate. Ooty and several other hill stations of south India and of the Himalayan ranges like Mussourie, Shimla etc., are much cooler than the places located on the Great Plains.

FIND IOUT Find out the temperature of Ooty (2240m) if it is 35⁰C in Chennai (6.7m)

2.1.3 Distance from the Sea

Distance from the sea does not cause only temperature and pressure variations but also affects the amount of rainfall. A large area of India, especially the peninsular region, is not very far from the sea and this entire area has a clear maritime influence on climate. This part of the country does not have a very clearly marked winter and the temperature is equable almost throughout the year. Areas of central and north India experience much seasonal variation in temperature due to the absence of influence of seas. Here, summers are hot and winters are cold. The annual temperature at Kochi does not exceed 30°C as its location is on the coast while it is as high as 40°C at Delhi, since it is located in the interior part. Air near the coast has more moisture and greater potential to produce precipitation. Due to this fact, the amount of rainfall at Kolkata located near the coast is 119 cm and it decreases to just 24 cm at Bikaner which is located in the interior part.

2.1.4 Monsoon Wind

The most dominant factor which affects the climate of India is the monsoon winds. These are seasonal reversal winds and India remains in the influence of these winds for a considerable part of a year. Though, the sun's rays are vertical over the central part of India during the mid-June, the summer season ends in India by the end of May. It is because the

onset of southwest monsoon brings down the temperature of the entire India and causes moderate to heavy rainfall in many parts of the country. Similarly, the climate of southeast India is also influenced by northeast monsoon.

2.1.5 Relief

Relief of India has a great bearing on major elements of climate such as temperature, atmospheric pressure, direction of winds and the amount of rainfall. The Himalayas acts as a barrier to the freezing cold wind blows from central Asia and keep the Indian subcontinent warm. As such the north India experiences tropical climate even during winter. During southwest monsoon, areas on the western slope of the Western Ghats receive heavy rainfall. On the contrary, vast areas of Maharashtra, Karnataka, Telangana, Andhra Pradesh and Tamil nadu lie in rain shadow or leeward side of the Western Ghats receive very little rainfall. During this season, Mangalore, located on the coast gets the rainfall of about 280 cm whereas the Bengaluru located on the leeward side receives only about 50 cm rainfall.

2.1.6. Jet Streams

Jet streams are the fast moving winds blowing in a narrow zone in the upper atmosphere. According to the Jet stream theory, the onset of southwest monsoon is driven by the shift of the sub tropical westerly jet from the plains of India towards the Tibetan plateau. The easterly jet streams cause tropical depressions both during southwest monsoon and retreating monsoon.
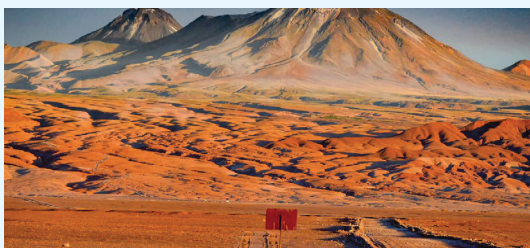
2.2 Monsoon

The word 'monsoon' has been derived from the Arabic word 'Mausim' which means 'season'. Originally, the word 'monsoon' was used by Arab navigators several centuries ago, to describe a system of seasonal reversal of winds along the shores of the Indian Ocean, especially over the Arabian Sea. It blows from the south-west to north-east during summer and from the north-east to south-west during winter.

Monsoons are a complex meteorological phenomenon. Meteorologists have developed a number of concepts about the origin of monsoons. According to the Dynamic concept, Monsoon wind originates due to the seasonal migration of planetary winds and pressure belts following the position of the sun. During summer solstice, the sun's rays fall vertically over the Tropic of cancer. Therefore, all the pressure and wind belts of the globe shift northwards. At this time, **Inter -Tropical Convergence Zone** (ITCZ) also moves northward, and a major part of Indian landmass comes under the influence of southeast trade winds. While crossing equator this wind gets deflected and takes the direction of southwest and becomes south-west monsoon. During the winter season, the pressure and wind belts shift southward, thereby establishing the north-east monsoon (trade winds) over this region. Such systematic change in the direction of planetary winds is known as monsoon.

DO YOU KNOW?
Atacama desert is the driest place on the earth.

2.2.1 Seasons

The meteorologists recognize the four distinct seasons in India. They are;

1. **Winter or cold weather season (January - February).**

2. **Pre Monsoon or summer or hot weather season (March - May).**

3. **Southwest monsoon or rainy season (June - September).**

4. **Northeast monsoon season (October - December).**

1. Winter or cold weather season

During this period, the vertical rays of the sun falls over tropic of capricorn which is far away from India. Hence, India receives the slanting sun's rays which results in low temperature. The cold weather season is characterized by clear skies, fine weather, light northerly winds, low humidity and large day time variations of temperature. During this season a high pressure develops over north India and a north-westerly wind blows down the Indus and Ganges valleys. In south India, the general direction of wind is from east to west. The mean temperature increases from north to south, the decrease being sharp as one moves northwards in the north-western part of the country. The mean daily minimum temperatures range from 22°C in the extreme south, to 10°C in the northern plains and 6°C in Punjab. The rain during this season generally occurs over the Western Himalayas, Tamil nadu and Kerala. Western disturbances and associated trough in westerlies are main rain bearing system in northern part of the country. The jet stream plays a dominant role in bringing these disturbances to India. These disturbances cause rainfall in Punjab, Haryana and Himachal Pradesh, and snowfall in the hills of Jammu and Kashmir. This rainfall is very useful for the cultivation of winter wheat.

2. Pre Monsoon or summer or hot weather season

During this season, the vertical rays of the sun falls over the peninsular India. Hence, there is a steady increase in temperature from south to north. It is practically hot and dry in the entire country in the initial part of this season. Weather over the land areas of the country is influenced by thunderstorms associated with rain and sometimes with hail mostly in the middle and later part. During this season, temperature starts increasing all over the country and by April, the interior parts of south India record mean daily temperatures of 30°C–35°C. Central Indian land mass becomes hot with day-time maximum temperature reaching about 40°C at many locations. Many stations in Gujarat, North Maharashtra, Rajasthan and North Madhya Pradesh exhibit high day-time and low night-time temperatures during this season.

Because of the atmospheric pressure conditions, the winds blow from southwest to northeast direction in Arabian Sea and Bay of Bengal. They bring pre monsoon showers to the west coast during the month of May. There are few thunder showers called "**Mango Showers**" which helps in quick ripening of mangoes along the coast of Kerala and Karnataka. "**Norwesters**" or "**Kalbaisakhis**" are the local severe storms or violent thunderstorms associated with strong winds and rain lasting for short durations. It occurs over the eastern and north eastern parts over Bihar, West Bengal and Assam during April and May. They approach the stations from the northwesterly direction.
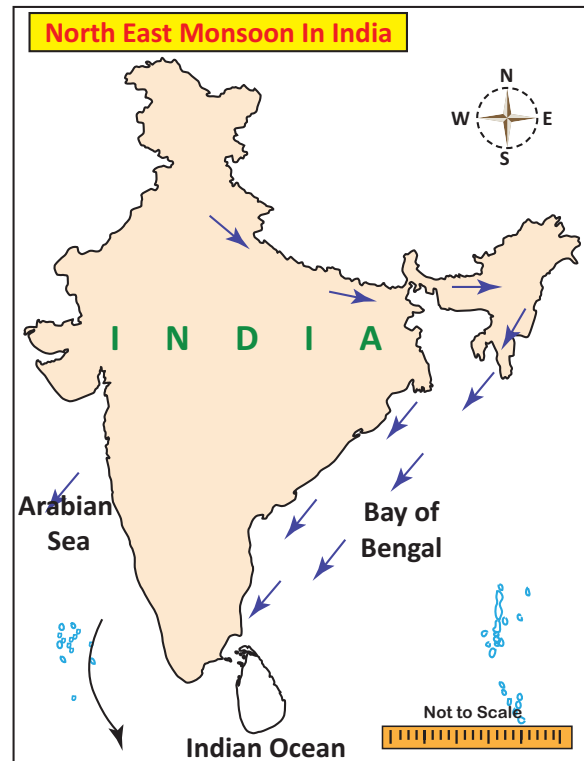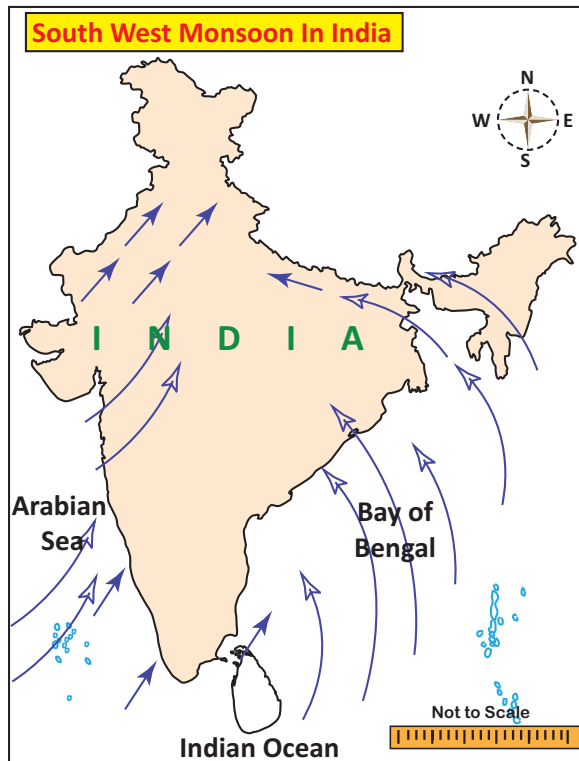
3. Southwest monsoon or Rainy Season

The southwest monsoon is the most significant feature of the Indian climate. The onset of the southwest monsoon takes place normally over the southern tip of the country by the first week of June, advances along the Konkan coast in early June and covers the whole country by 15th July. The monsoon is influenced by global phenomenon like **ElNino**.

Prior to the onset of the southwest monsoon, the temperature in north India reaches upto 46°C. The sudden approach of monsoon wind over south India with lightning and thunder is termed as the '**break**' or '**burst of monsoon**'. It lowers the temperature of India to a large extent. The monsoon wind strikes against the southern tip of Indian land mass and gets divided into two branches. One branch starts from Arabian sea and the other from Bay of Bengal. The Arabian sea branch of southwest monsoon gives heavy rainfall to the west coast of India as it is located in the windward side of the Western Ghats. The other part which advances towards north is obstructed by Himalayan Mountains and results in heavy rainfall in north. As Aravalli Mountain is located parallel to the wind direction, Rajasthan and western part do not get much rainfall from this branch. The wind from Bay of Bengal branch moves towards northeast India and Myanmar. This wind is trapped by a chain of mountains namely Garo, Khasi and Jaintia are mainly responsible for the heaviest rainfall caused at **Mawsynram** located in Meghalaya. Later on, this wind travel towards west which results in decrease in rainfall from east to west. Over all about **75% of Indian rainfall is received from this monsoon**. Tamil nadu which is located in the leeward side receives only a meagre rainfall.

4. Post monsoon or Retreating or Northeast monsoon season

The southwest monsoon begins to retreat from north India by the end of September due to the southward shifting pressure belts. The southwest monsoon wind returns from Indian landmass and blows towards Bay of Bengal. The coriolis force deflects this wind and makes it

South West Monsoon In India

INDIA

Arabian Sea

Bay of Bengal

Not to Scale

Indian Ocean

North East Monsoon In India

INDIA

Arabian Sea

Bay of Bengal

Not to Scale

Indian Ocean

India Monsoons

to blow from northeast. Hence, it is known as Northeast monsoon or Post-monsoon season. The season is associated with the establishment of the north-easterly wind system over the Indian subcontinent. Andhra Pradesh, Tamil nadu, Kerala and south interior Karnataka receive good amount of rainfall accounted for 35% of their annual total. Many parts of Tamil nadu and some parts of Andhra Pradesh and Karnataka receive rainfall during this season due to the storms forming in the Bay of Bengal. Large scale losses to life and property occur due to heavy rainfall, strong winds and storm surge in the coastal regions. The day time temperatures start falling sharply all over the country. The mean temperature over north-western parts of the country shows a decline from about 38°C in October to 28°C in November.

DO YOU KNOW? Mawsynram, the place which receives highest rainfall (1141 cm) in the world. It is located in Meghalaya.
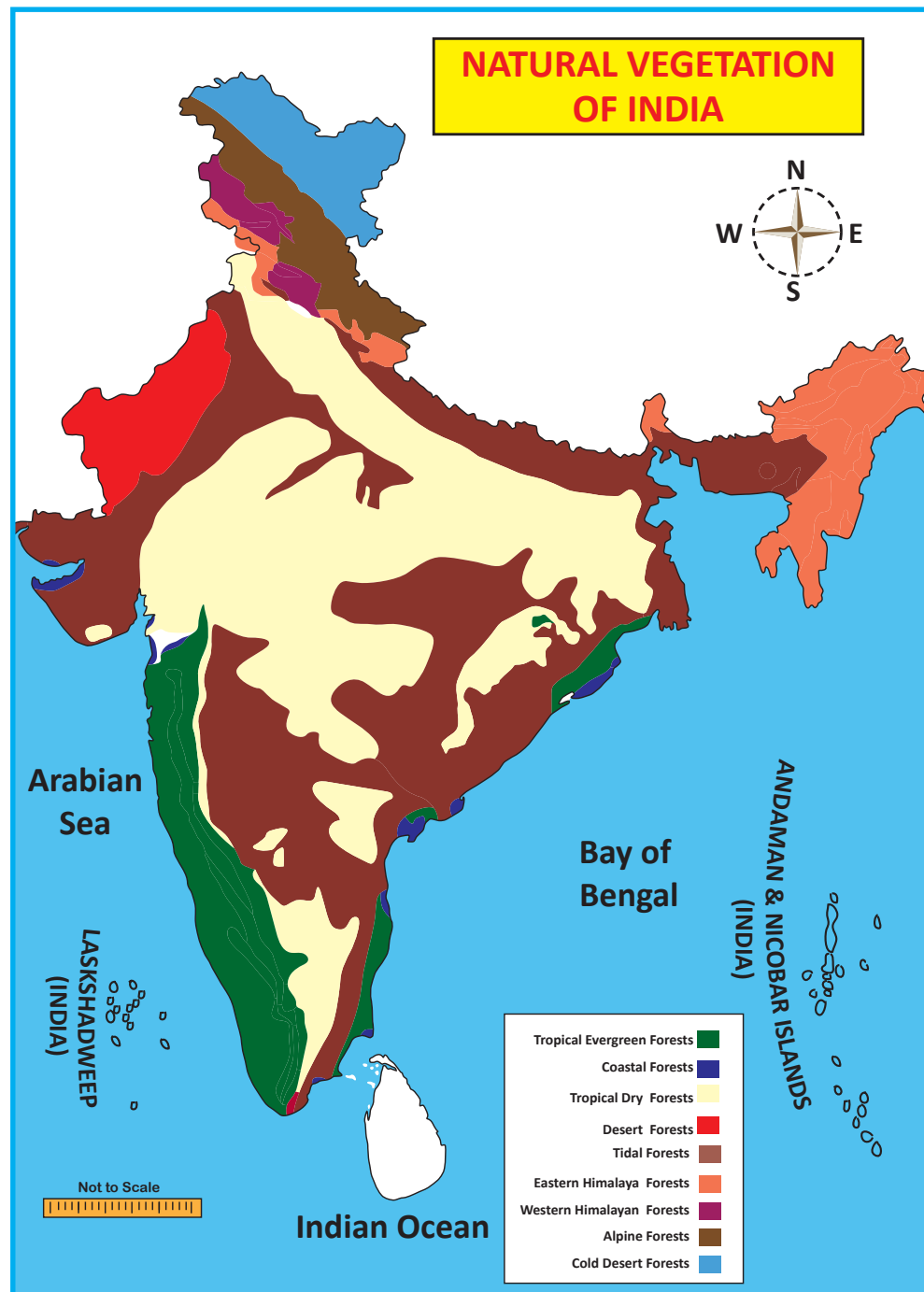

Hots

Why is Mawsynram, the wettest place in the world.

2.3 Distribution of rainfall

The average annual rainfall of India is 118 cm. However, spatial distribution of rainfall in the country is highly uneven. About 11% area receives over 200 cm of annual rainfall, 21% area receives 125 to 200 cm, 37% area receives 75 to 125 cm, 24% area gets 35 to 75 cm and 7% area gets less than 35 cm. The Western coast, Assam, South Meghalaya, Tripura, Nagaland and Arunachal Pradesh are the heavy rainfall areas which get more than 200 cm rainfall. The whole of Rajasthan, Punjab, Haryana, Western and Southwestern parts of Uttar Pradesh, Western Madhya Pradesh, the entire Deccan Trap or Plateau region east of Western Ghats except for a narrow strip along Tamil nadu coast receive a low rainfall of less than 100 cm. The rest of the areas receive a rainfall ranging between 100 and 200 cm.

NATURAL VEGETATION OF INDIA

Legend:
- Tropical Evergreen Forests
- Coastal Forests
- Tropical Dry Forests
- Desert Forests
- Tidal Forests
- Eastern Himalaya Forests
- Western Himalayan Forests
- Alpine Forests
- Cold Desert Forests

Arabian Sea

Bay of Bengal

ANDAMAN & NICOBAR ISLANDS (INDIA)

LASKSHADWEEP (INDIA)

Indian Ocean

Not to Scale

2.4 Natural Vegetation

Natural vegetation refers to a plant community unaffected by man either directly or indirectly. It has its existence in certain natural environment. Natural vegetation includes all plant life forms such as trees,

bushes, herbs and forbs etc, that grow naturally in an area and have been left undisturbed by humans for a long time. Climate, soil and landform characteristics are the important environmental controls of natural vegetation.

On the basis of the above factors the natural vegetation of India can be divided into the following types.

2.4.1 Tropical Evergreen Forest

These forests are found in areas with 200 cm or more annual rainfall. The annual temperature is about more than 22°C and the average annual humidity exceeds 70 percent in this region. Western Ghats in Maharashtra, Karnataka,

Climate and Natural Vegetation of India

Kerala, Andaman-Nicobar Islands, Assam, West Bengal, Nagaland, Tripura, Mizoram, Manipur and Meghalaya states have this type of forests. The most important trees are rubber, mahogany, ebony, rosewood, coconut, bamboo, cinchona, candes, palm, iron wood and cedar. These have not been fully exploited due to lack of transport facilities.

2.4.2 Tropical Deciduous Forest

These are found in the areas with 100 to 200cm. annual rainfall. These are called 'Monsoon Forests'. The mean annual temperature of this region is about 27°C and the average annual relative humidity is 60 to 70 percent. The trees of these forests drop their leaves during the spring and early summer. (Sub Himalayan - Region from Punjab to Assam, Great Plains- Punjab, Haryana, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, West Bengal, Central India - Jharkhand, Madhya Pradesh, Chattisgarh, South India - Maharashtra, Karnataka, Telangana, Andhra Pradesh, Tamilnadu and Kerala states are notable for this type of natural vegetation.) Teak and sal are the most important trees. Sandalwood, rosewood, kusum, mahua, palas, haldu, amla, padauk, bamboo and tendu are the other trees of economic importance. These forests also provide fragrant oil, varnish, sandal oil and perfumes.

2.4.3 Tropical Dry Forest

These are found in the areas with 50 to 100 cm. annual rainfall. They represent a transitional type of forests. These are found in east Rajasthan, Haryana, Punjab, Western Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Eastern Maharashtra, Telangana, West Karnataka and East Tamilnadu. The important species are mahua, banyan, amaltas, palas, haldu, kikar, bamboo, babool, khair etc.,

Desert and Semi-desert Vegetation: These are also called as 'Tropical thorn forests'. These are found in the areas having annual rainfall of less than 50 cm. They have low humidity and high temperature. These forests are found in north-west India which includes west Rajasthan, south-west Haryana,
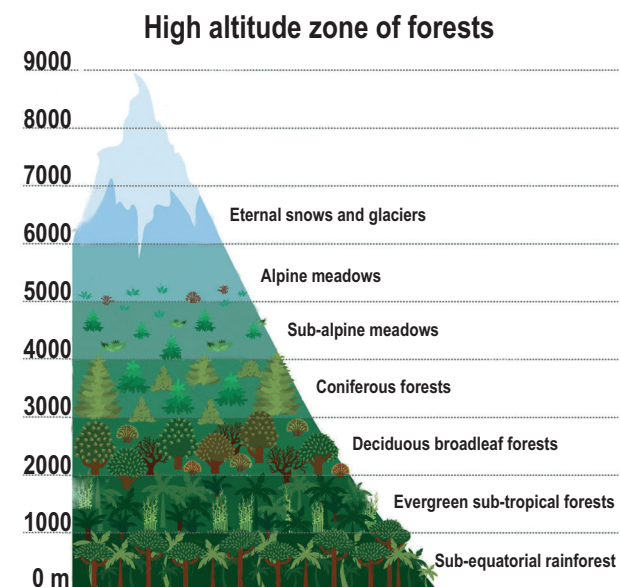
north Gujarat and south-west Punjab. They are also found in the very dry parts of the Deccan plateau in Karnataka, Maharashtra and Andhra Pradesh. Babul, kikar and wild palms are common trees found here.

2.4.4 Mountain or Montane Forest

These forests are classified on the basis of altitude and amount of rainfall. Accordingly two different types of forests namely Eastern Himalayas Forests and Western Himalayas Forests.

i. **Eastern Himalayan Forest:** These are found on the slopes of the mountains in north-east states. These forests receive rainfall of more than 200 cm. The vegetation is of evergreen type. The Altitude between 1200-2400 m found in this type of forest sal, oak, laurel, amura, chestnut, cinnamon are the main trees from 1200 to 2400 m altitude oak, birch, silver, fir, fine, spruce and juniper are the major trees from 2400 to 3600 m height.

(ii) **Western Himalayan Forest:** The rainfall of this region is moderate. These forests are found in the states of Jammu and Kashmir, Himachal Pradesh and Uttarakhand. Upto 900 m altitude semi desert vegetation is found and it is known for bushes and small trees. In altitude from 900 to 1800 m, chir tree is the most common tree. The other important trees of this region are sal, semal, dhak, jamun and jujube. (height

High altitude zone of forests

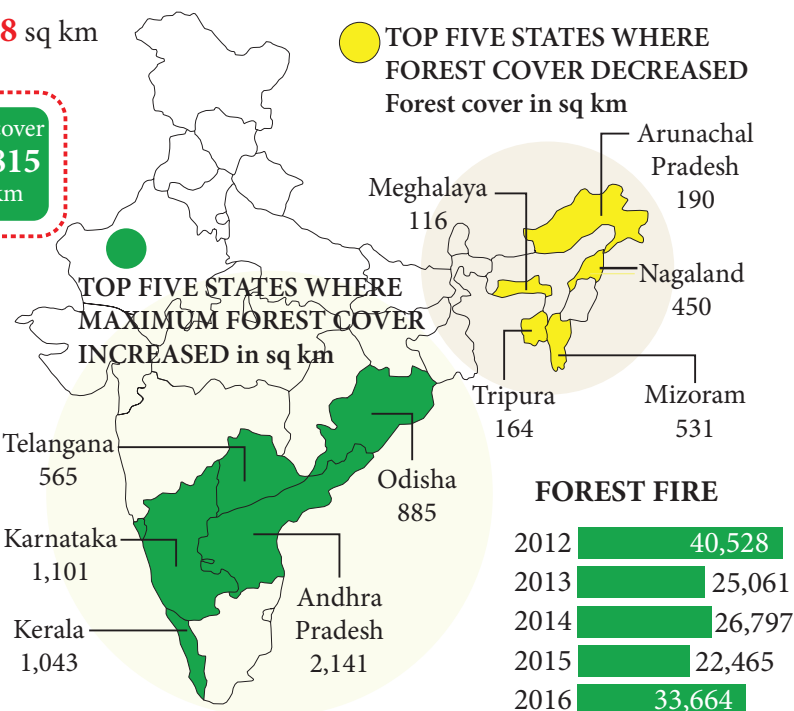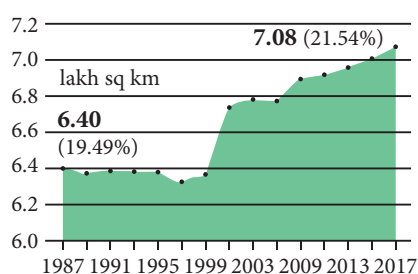|	
9000	
8000	
7000	
6000	Eternal snows and glaciers
5000	Alpine meadows
4000	Sub-alpine meadows
3000	Coniferous forests
2000	Deciduous broadleaf forests
1000	Evergreen sub-tropical forests
0 m	Sub-equatorial rainforest

GREEN COVER IN INDIA

Total forest and tree cover **8,02,088** sq km
(% of geographical area: 24.39%)

Year 2017
Total forest cover
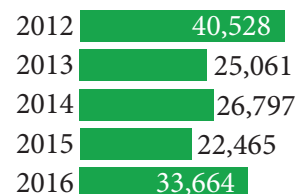**7,08,273**
sq km (% of geographical area - 21.54%)

Tree cover
93,815
sq km

COMPARATIVE FIGURES
Total forest cover (& of total geographical area)

7.08 (21.54%)
lakh sq km
6.40 (19.49%)

1987 1991 1995 1999 2003 2009 2013 2017

TOP FIVE STATES WHERE FOREST COVER DECREASED
Forest cover in sq km

Arunachal Pradesh 190
Meghalaya 116
Nagaland 450
Tripura 164
Mizoram 531

TOP FIVE STATES WHERE MAXIMUM FOREST COVER INCREASED in sq km

Telangana 565
Odisha 885
Karnataka 1,101
Andhra Pradesh 2,141
Kerala 1,043

FOREST FIRE

Year	
2012	40,528
2013	25,061
2014	26,797
2015	22,465
2016	33,664

from 1800 to 3000 m is covered with semi temperate coniferous forests.) Chir, deodar, blue pine, poplar, birch and elder are the main trees of this region.

2.4.5 Alpine Forest

It occurs all along the Himalayas with above 2400 m altitude. These are purely having coniferous trees. Oak, silver fir, pine and juniper are the main trees of these forests. The eastern parts of Himalayas has large extent of these forests.

2.4.6 Tidal Forest

These forests occur in and around the deltas, estuaries and creeks prone to tidal influences and as such are also known as delta or swamp forests. The delta of the Ganga-Brahmaputra has the largest tidal forest. The deltas of Mahanadi, Godavari and Krishna rivers are also known for **tidal forests**. These are also known as **mangrove forest**.

2.4.7 Coastal Forest

These are littoral forests. Generally, coastal areas have these types of forests. Casurina, palm and coconut are the dominant
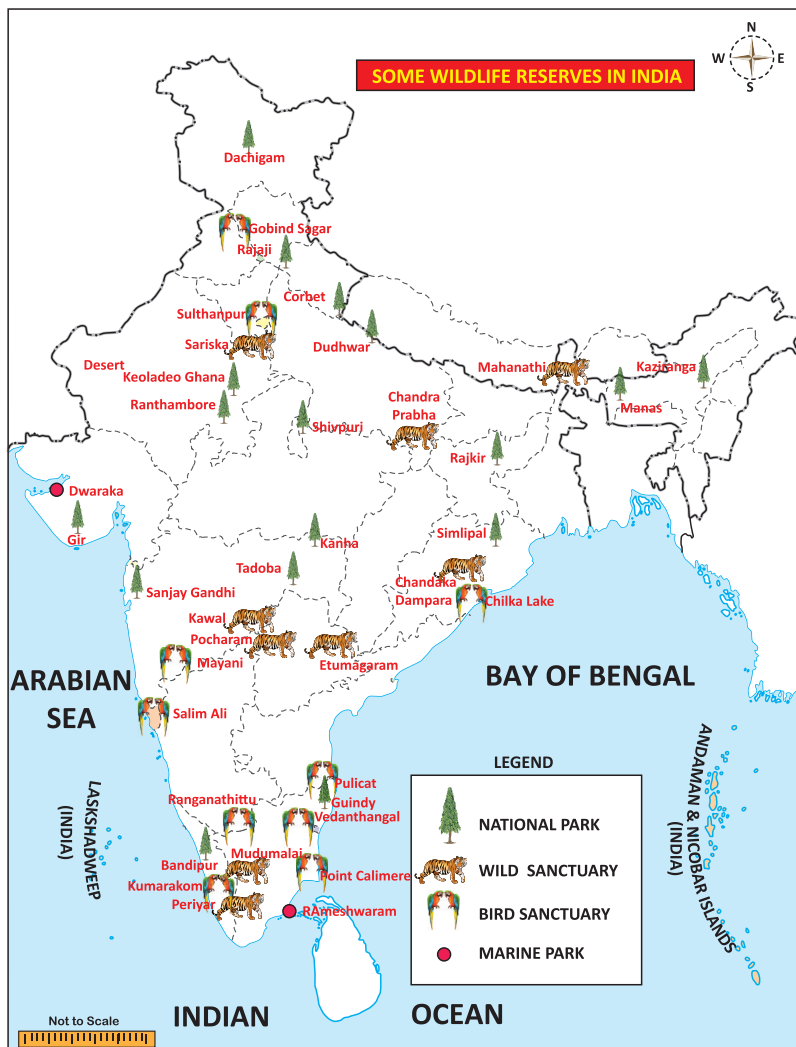
trees. Both the eastern and western coasts have this type of forests. The coasts of Kerala and Goa are known for this type.

2.4.8 Riverine Forest

These forests are found along the rivers on Khadar areas. These are known for tamarisk and tamarind trees. The rivers of Great Plains are more prominent for this type of natural vegetation.

2.5 Wildlife

The term '**Wildlife**' includes animals of any habitat in nature. Wild animals are non-domesticated animals and include both vertebrates (fish, amphibians, reptiles, birds and mammals) and invertebrates (bees, butterflies, moths etc.). India has a rich and diversified wildlife. The Indian fauna consists of about 81,251 species of animals out of the world's total of about 1.5 million species. The faunal diversity of the country consists of about 6500 invertebrates, 5000 molluscs, 2546 fishes, 1228 birds, 458 mammals, 446 reptiles, 204 amphibians, 4 panthers and about 60,000 species of insects.

SOME WILDLIFE RESERVES IN INDIA

LEGEND

🌲 NATIONAL PARK

🐅 WILD SANCTUARY

🦌 BIRD SANCTUARY

⬤ MARINE PARK

Not to Scale

ARABIAN SEA

BAY OF BENGAL

INDIAN OCEAN

LASKSHADWEEP (INDIA)

ANDAMAN & NICOBAR ISLANDS (INDIA)

DO YOU KNOW?
The Nilgiri Tahr is facing a major threat in the Western Ghats. Continuous poaching activities and Eucalyptus cultivation hampering its habitat, the Nilgiri Tahr population is continuously decreasing.

DO YOU KNOW?
The Black Buck is the state animal of Andhra Pradesh, Haryana and Punjab.

Our country is home to tigers, lions, leopards, snow leopards, pythons, wolves, foxes, bears, crocodiles, rhinoceroses, camels, wild dogs, monkeys, snakes, antelope species, deer species, varieties of bison and the mighty Asian elephant. Hunting, poaching, deforestation and other anthropogenic interferences in the natural habitats have caused extinction of some species and many are facing the danger of extinction. In view of this and the role of wild life in maintaining ecological balance, conservation and management of biodiversity of India is necessary at present situation.

The **Indian Board for Wildlife** (IBWL) was constituted in 1952 to suggest means of protection, conservation and management of wildlife to the government. The Government of India enacted Wildlife (Protection) Act in 1972 with the objective of effectively protecting the wild life of the country and to control poaching, smuggling and illegal trade in wildlife and its diversities. United Nations **Convention on Biological Diversity** (CBD) in 1992 recognizes the sovereign rights of states to use their own Biological Resources.

To preserve the country's rich and diverse wildlife a network of **102 National Parks** and about **515 Wildlife Sanctuaries** across the country have been created.

2.5 Biosphere Reserves

Biosphere reserves are protected areas of land coastal environments wherein people are an integral component of the system.

BIOSPHERE RESERVES IN INDIA

Jammu and Kashmir

Himachal Pradesh — **Cold desert**

Nanda Devi

Punjab
Chandigarh
Haryana
Uttarakhand
Delhi

Dihand-Dibang

Arunachal Pradesh

kanjanjunga

Sikkim

Dibru-Saikhowa

Rajasthan

Uttar Pradesh

Bihar

Manas

Assam

Nagaland

Meghalaya

Nokrek

Manipur

Rann of Kutch

Panna

Jharkhand

Tripura

Mizoram

West Bengal

Sunderban

Gujarat

Madhya Pradesh

Pachmarhi

Achanakmar-Amarkantak

Diu
Daman

Dadra and Nagar Haveli

Chhattisgarh

Odisha

Simlipal

Maharashtra

Telangana

Goa

Bay of Bengal

Andra Pradesh

Arabian Sea

Seshachalam

Karnataka

LEGEND

- World Network of Biosphere Reserves (UNESCO)
- Biosphere Reserves

Puducherry

Andaman and Nicobar Islands (India)

Nilgiri

Tamil Nadu

Lakshadweep (India)

Agasthyamalai

Gulf of Mannar

Great Nicobar

Not to Scale

Indian   **Ocean**

The Indian government has established **18 Biosphere Reserves** in India which protect larger areas of natural habitat and often include one or more National Parks preserves along with buffer zones that are open to some economic uses.

Eleven of the eighteen biosphere reserves (Gulf of Mannar, Nandadevi, the Nilgiris, Nokrek, Pachmarhi, Simlipal, Sundarbans Agasthiyamalai, Great Nicobar, Kanjanjunga and Amarkantak) of India fall under the list of Man and Biosphere programme of UNESCO.

S. No.	Biosphere Reserves	State
1	Achanakmar-Amarkantak	Madhya Pradesh, Chattisgarh
2	Agasthyamalai	Kerala
3	Dibru Saikhowa	Assam
4	Dihang Dibang	Arunachal Pradesh
5	Great Nicobar	Andaman and Nicobar Islands
6	Gulf of Mannar	Tamil nadu
7	Kachch	Gujarat
8	Kanchenjunga	Sikkim
9	Manas	Assam
10	Nanda Devi	Uttarakhand
11	The Nilgiris	Tamil nadu
12	Nokrek	Meghalaya
13	Pachmarhi	Madhya Pradesh
14	Simlipal	Odisha
15	Sundarbans	West Bengal
16	Cold desert	Himachal Pradesh
17	Sesahachalam hills	Andhra Pradesh
18	Panna	Madhya Pradesh

DO YOU KNOW?

Project Tiger was launched in April 1973 with the aim to conserve tiger population in specifically constituted "Tiger Reserves" in India.

This project is benefited tremendously, with an increase of over 60% - the 1979 consensus put the population at 3,015 - while other equally disturbed species like the barasingha (swamp deer), rhino and elephants also fought back from the brink of oblivion.

Recap

- Climate of India is labelled as "Tropical Monsoon Type".
- There are four seasons in India. They are winter season, hot weather, southwest monsoon, and northeast monsoon.
- Prior to the onset of the southwest monsoon, the temperature in north India reaches upto 46°C. The sudden approach of monsoon wind over south India with lightning and thunder is termed as – 'the break' or 'burst of monsoon'.
- Natural vegetation refers to a plant community unaffected by man either directly or indirectly.
- Natural vegetation can be classified as tropical evergreen forests, tropical deciduous forests, tropical dry forests, desert and semi desert vegetation, mountain forests, Alpine forests, Tidal forests, etc.,
- Biosphere reserves are protected areas of land coastal environment whereby people are an integral component of a system.

A-Z GLOSSARY

Climate: The weather conditions prevailing in an area in general or over a long period.

Meteorology: The branch of science concerned with the processes and phenomena of the atmosphere, especially as a means of forecasting the weather.

Season: Each of the four divisions of the year (spring, summer, autumn, and winter) marked by particular weather patterns and daylight hou.

Weather: The state of the atmosphere at a particular place and time as regards heat, cloudiness, dryness, sunshine, wind, rain, etc.

Wildlife: Wild animals collectively; the native fauna (and sometimes flora) of a region.

EXERCISE

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. Meteorology is the science of _____.
   a) Weather
   b) Social
   c) Political
   d) Human

2. We wear cotton during _____.
   a) Summer   b) Winter
   c) Rainy   d) Northeast monsoon

3. Western disturbances cause rainfall in _____.
   a) Tamilnadu   b) Kerala
   c) Punjab   d) Madhya Pradesh

4. _____ helps in quick ripening of mangoes along the coast of Kerala and Karnataka.
   a) Loo   b) Norwester
   c) Mango showers   d) Jet stream

5. _____ is a line joining the places of equal rainfall.
   a) Isohyets   b) Isobar
   c) Isotherm   d) Latitudes

6. Climate of India is labelled as _____.
   a) Tropical humid
   b) Equatorial Climate
   c) Tropical Monsoon Climate
   d) Temperate Climate

7. The monsoon forests are otherwise called as _____.
   a) Tropical evergreen forest
   b) Deciduous forest
   c) Mangrove forest
   d) Mountain forest

8. _____ forests are found above 2400m Himalayas.
   a) Deciduous forests
   b) Alpine forests
   c) Mangrove forests
   d) Tidal forests

9. Sesahachalam hills, a Biosphere reserve is situated in _____.
   a) Tamil Nadu   b) Andhra Pradesh
   c) Madhya Pradesh   d) Karnataka

10. _____ is a part of the world network biosphere reserves of UNESCO
    A) Nilgiri   b) Agasthiyamalai
    c) Great Nicobar   d) Kachch

II. Match the following.

1. Project Elephant   —   Desert and semi desert vegetation
2. Biodiversity hotspot   —   October-December
3. North east monsoon   —   Littoral forest
4. Tropical thorn forests   —   Protect the elephants
5. Coastal forests   —   The Himalayas

III. Consider the given statements and choose the correct option from the given below ones.

1. **Assertion(A):** Monsoons are a complex meteorological phenomenon

   Reason(R): Meteorologists have developed a number of concepts about the origin of monsoons.
   a) Both (A) and (B) are true: R explains A
   b) Both (A) and (B) are true: R does not explain A
   c) (A) is correct (R) is false
   d) (A) is false (R) is true

2. Assertion(A): The Himalayas acts as a climatic barrier.

Reason(R): The Himalayas prevents cold winds from central Asia and keep the Indian Sub-continent warm.(Give option for this questions)

a) Both (A) and (B) are true: R explains A

b) Both (A) and (B) are true: R does not explain A

c) (A) is correct (R) is false

d) (A) is false (R) is true

IV. Choose the inappropriate answer.

1. Tidal forests are found in and around_____.
   (a) Desert
   (b) The deltas of Ganga and Brahmaputra
   (c) The delta of Godavari
   (d) The delta of Mahanadhi

2. Climate of India is affected by_____.
   (a) Latitudinal extent
   (b) Altitude
   (c) Distance from the sea
   (d) Soil

V. Answer briefly.

1. Define 'Meteorology'.
2. What is meant by 'normal lapse rate'?
3. What are 'jet streams'?
4. Write a short note on 'Monsoon wind'.
5. Name the four distinct seasons of India.
6. What is 'burst of monsoon'?
7. Name the areas which receive heavy rainfall.
8. State places of mangrove forest in India.
9. Name the trees of tropical evergreen forest.
10. Write any five biosphere reserves in India.
11. What is 'Project Tiger'?

VI. Distinguish between.

1. Weather and Climate
2. Tropical Evergreen Forest and Deciduous Forest.
3. North East Monsoon and South West Monsoon.

VII. Give reasons for the following topics.

1. Western Coastal plain is narrow.
2. India has a tropical monsoon climate.
3. Mountains are cooler than the plains.

VIII. Write in detail.

1. Write about South West Monsoon.
2. Describe the forests of India.
3. Write the names of biosphere reserves and their location in India.

IX. Map.

Mark the following on the outline map of India.

1. Direction of South West Monsoon wind.
2. Direction of North East Monsoon wind.
3. Areas of heavy rainfall.
4. Mountain forests.
5. Panna biosphere reserve
6. Agasthiyamalai biosphere reserve

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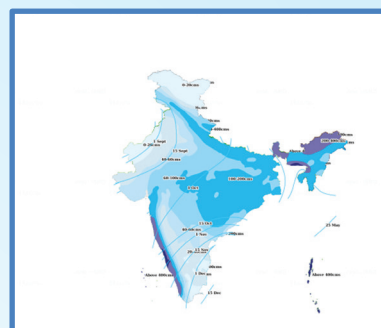
ICT CORNER

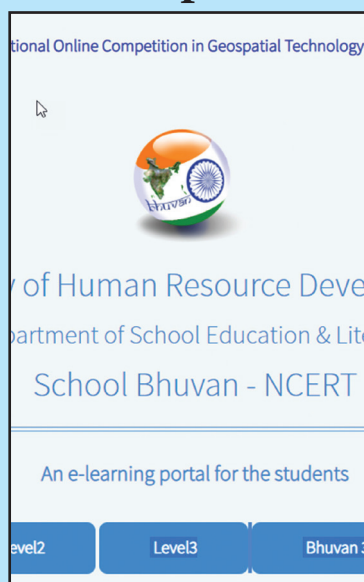## Unit-2 CLIMATE AND NATURAL VEGETATION OF INDIA

Visit **school Bhuvan?**

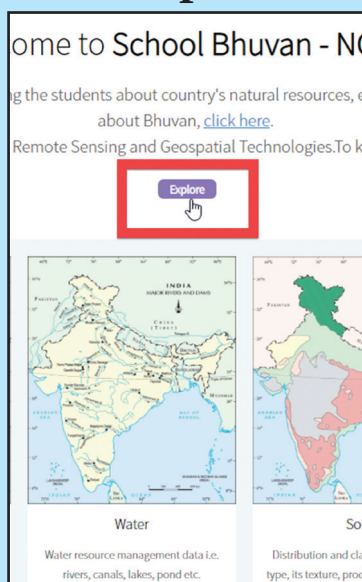School Bhuvan visualizes natural resources, environment and their sustainable development in India.

Steps

- Open the Browser and type the URL given below (or) Scan the QR Code.
- Scroll Down and click on 'Explore'
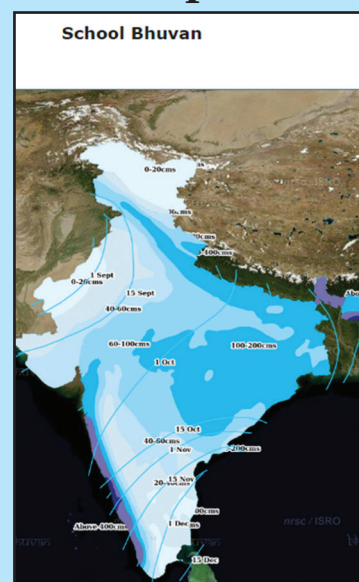- Click on 'Climate' in left side menuandSelect 'Annual Rainfall'

Step - 1

Step - 2

Step - 3

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B376_10_SOCIAL_EM

Components of Agriculture

Learning Objectives

- To understand the nature of India's soil types and their distribution.
- To know about the importance of irrigation and multi-purpose projects in India.
- To study about the agriculture, its types and importance.
- To understand the livestock and fishing resources of India
- To comprehend the problems of farming in India.
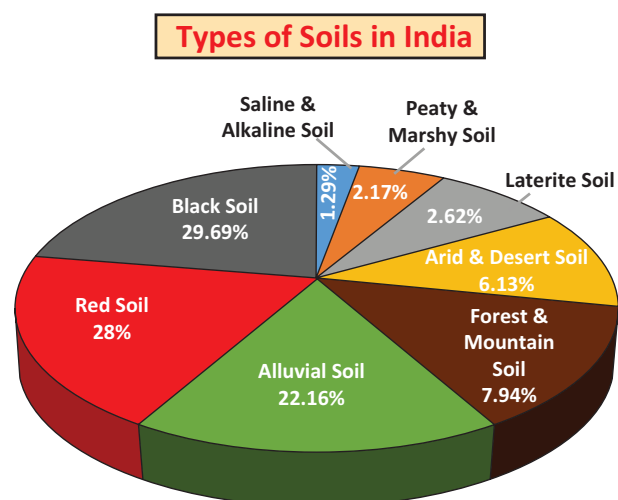
Introduction

Soil is one of the most important natural resources. India's varied natural environments resulted in a great variety of soils compared to any other country of similar size in the world. The rich, deep and fertile soils support high density of population through agricultural prosperity.

3.1 Soils

Soil is the uppermost layer of the land surface, usually composed of minerals, organic matter, living organisms, air and water. Grains in the soil are of three categories namely, clay, silt, and sand. Soils are generally formed by the weathering of rocks under different conditions. Some soils are formed by the deposition of agents of denudation. Soils can vary greatly from one region to the other.

3.1.1 Types of Soils

The Indian Council of Agriculture Research (ICAR) set up in 1953 divides the soils of India into the following eight major groups.

Types of Soils in India

- Saline & Alkaline Soil — 1.29%
- Peaty & Marshy Soil — 2.17%
- Laterite Soil — 2.62%
- Arid & Desert Soil — 6.13%
- Forest & Mountain Soil — 7.94%
- Alluvial Soil — 22.16%
- Red Soil — 28%
- Black Soil — 29.69%

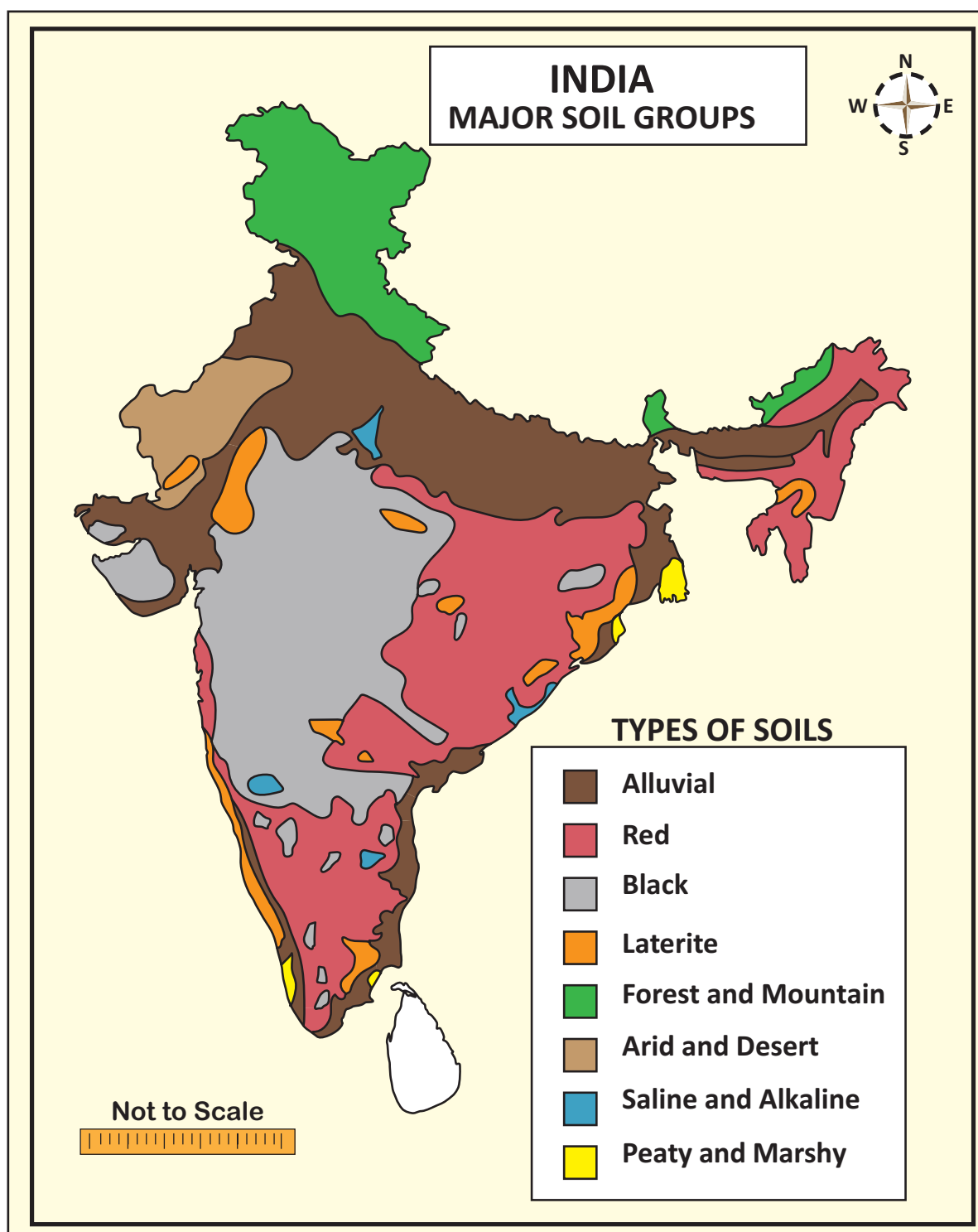| Soil Type	Characteristics	Distribution	Crops growing
Alluvial soil	**Khadar** – light coloured, more siliceous. **Bhangar** – the older alluvium composed of lime nodules and has clayey composition. It is dark in colour. **Formation** - sediments deposited by streams and rivers when they slowly loose **Chemical properties** - rich in potash, phosphoric acid, lime and carbon compounds but poor in nitrogen **Nature** –Sandy-loam-silt-clay profile shows no marked differentiation	Ganga and Brahmaputra river valleys; Plains of Uttar Pradesh, Uttaranchal, Punjab, Haryana, West Bengal and Bihar	Rice, Wheat, Sugarcane and Oilseeds
Black soils	**Formation** - Derived from basalts of Deccan trap. **Colour** - black colour, due to presence of titanium, iron. **Chemical properties** - Consist of calcium and magnesium arbonates, high quantities of iron, aluminium, lime and magnesia. Rich in potash lime, Aluminium calcium and magnesium poor in Nitrogen Phosphoric acid and humus **Nature** - Sticky when wet High degree of moisture retentivity	Maharashtra and Malwa plateaus, Kathiawar peninsula, Telangana and Rayalaseema region of Andhra Pradesh and northern part of Karnataka	Cotton, Millets, Tobacco and Sugarcane
Red soils	**Formation** - decomposition of ancient crystalline rocks like granites and gneisses and from rock type **Chemical properties** - rich in minerals such as iron and magnesium. Deficient in nitrogen, humus, phosphoric acid and lime. **Nature** - Light texture, porous friable presence of limited soluble salts Clay fraction of the red soils generally consists of Kaolinitic minerals.	Eastern parts of Deccan plateau, southern states of Kerala, Tamil Nadu, Karnataka and Chota Nagpur plateau (Jharkhand)	Wheat, Rice, Cotton, Sugarcane and Pulses
Laterite soils	**Formation** - formed in the regions where alternate wet and hot dry conditions prevail. It is formed by the process of leaching **Chemical properties** - Composed mainly of hydrated oxides of iron and aluminium, **Nature** - More acidic on higher areas poor in high level, cannot retain moisture while plains they consist of heavy loam and clay and easily retain moisture	Assam hills, hill summits of Kerala and Karnataka and eastern Ghats and region of Odisha	Coffee, Rubber, Cashew nut and Tapioca

Components of Agriculture

Soil Type	Characteristics	Distribution	Crops growing
Forest and mountain soils	Differ from region to region depending on climate. **Formation** - due to mechanical weathering caused by snow, rain, temperature variation **Chemical properties** - are deficient in potash, Phosphorus and lime. **Nature** - light, sandy, thin and found with the pieces of rock. Their character changes with the parent rocks. Very rich in humus. slow decomposition makes it acidic	Coniferous forest belts of Jammu and Kashmir, Himachal Pradesh, Uttarakhand and Sikkim. Eastern and Western Ghats	Coffee, tea, rice, maize, potato, barley, tropical fruits and various types of spices
Arid and desert soils	**Formation** - Due to prevalence of the dry climate, hightemperature and accelerated evaporation, the soil is dry, it also lacks humus content due to the absence of vegetative cover **Chemical properties** - Contain high percentages of soluble salts, alkaline with varying degree of calcium carbonate and are poor in organic matter; rich enough in phosphate though poor in nitrogen **Nature** - light in colour, low humus,friable structure, low in moisture	Rajasthan, Northern Gujarat and southern Punjab	millets, barley, cotton, maize and pulses (with irrigation)
Saline and alkaline soils	**Formation** - formed due to ill drainage which causes water logging, injurious salts are transferred from subsurface to the top soil by the capillary action, it causes the salinisation of soils **Chemical properties** - liberate sodium, magnesium and calcium salts and sulphurous acid **Nature** - Consists of un decomposed rock and mineral fragments which on weathering	Andhra Pradesh and Karnataka. In the drier parts of Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Haryana, Punjab, Rajasthan and Maharashtra	
Peaty and marshy soils	**Formation** - formed in humid regions from the organic matter. It is found in the areas of heavy rainfall and high humidity Peaty soils are black, heavyand highly acidic. **Chemical properties** - deficient in potash and phosphate. Contain considerable amount of soluble salts and 10-40 per cent of organic matter; and high proportion of vegetable matter. **Nature** - Contain considerable amount of Soluble salts and 10-40 per cent of organic matter; and high proportion of vegetable matter.	Kottayam and Alappuzha districts of Kerala; and coastal areas of Odisha and Tamil Nadu, Sundarbans of West Bengal, in Bihar and Almora district of Uttarakhand	Paddy, jute

Activity

Soil Texture (sand, silt, clay) influence on some properties of soils including water holding capacity. Find out water holding capacity of soils which given above based on following table.

Property/behaviour	sand	silt	clay
Water holding capacity	low	Medium to high	high

INDIA
MAJOR SOIL GROUPS

TYPES OF SOILS

- Alluvial
- Red
- Black
- Laterite
- Forest and Mountain
- Arid and Desert
- Saline and Alkaline
- Peaty and Marshy

Not to Scale

Components of Agriculture

Soil degradation

Soil degradation is an acute problem in India. According to a 2015 report of the Indian institute of remote sensing (IIRS). The estimated the amount of soil .erosion that occurred in India was 147 million hectares.

The main problems of the Indian soils are i) soil erosion (sheet erosion, Rill erosion, Gully erosion, Ravine and Badland) ii) Degradation of Soil, iii) Water-logging, iv) Saline and Alkaline, and v) Salt Flats, types of soils are different erotion.

Methods of Conservation and Management of Soil

1. **Afforestation**
2. **Constructing Dams and Barrages**
3. **Prevention of Overgrazing**
4. **Improved methods of Agricultural practices**
   - **Contour method**
   - **Rotation of crops**
   - **Contour bunding**
   - **Strip cropping**
   - **Planting of shelter belts**
   - **Adopting the techniques of sustainable agriculture are different conservation methods for better soil management.**

3.2 Irrigation

Watering of agricultural plants through artificial means is called irrigation. Being a hot country with seasonal and irregular rainfall, it always needs irrigation to carry out agricultural activities during dry period. Beside erratic rainfall, prevalence of high temperature, cultivation of annual crops and hydrophytes, commercial farming and porous soil make irrigation an essential one for the agriculture of our country.
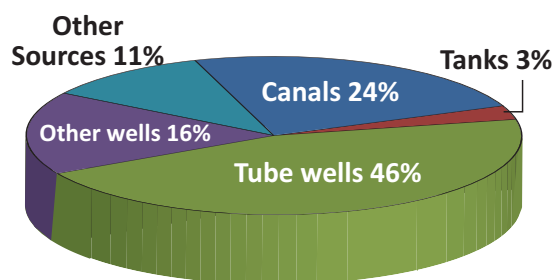
3.2.1 Sources of Irrigation

In India, different sources of irrigation are used depending upon the topography, soils, rainfall, availability of surface or groundwater, nature of river (whether perennial or non-perennial), requirements of crops etc. The main sources of irrigation used in different parts of the country are

- Canal irrigation
- Well irrigation and
- Tank irrigation

a) Canal Irrigation

It is the second most important source of irrigation in our country. Percentage of area under canal irrigation in our country is 24% (source:Statistical year book 2017 during 2013-2014)

Other Sources 11% **Tanks 3%** **Canals 24%** **Other wells 16%** **Tube wells 46%**

Area under Irrigation

Canals are the effective source of irrigation in areas of low level relief, deep, fertile soils, perennial source of water and extensive command area. The canals are of two types:

1. **Inundation Canals:** In this, water is taken out directly from the rivers without making any kind of barrage or dam. Such canals are useful for the diversion of flood water from the rivers and remain operational during rainy season.
2. **Perennial Canals:** These are developed from perennial rivers by constructing barrage to regulate the flow of water. In our country, most of the canals fall under this category. These canals are useful for irrigation.

In India the total area under canal irrigation is about 15.8 million hectares in 2014. About 60 percent of the canal irrigated area falls in the northern plains of India, particularly in Uttar Pradesh, Punjab, Haryana, Rajasthan, and Bihar. In south and central India, Andhra Pradesh, Maharashtra, Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh, Chattisgarh, Odisha, and Tamil Nadu are the important states where canal irrigation is found.

b) Well Irrigation

A well is a hole or trough, usually vertical, excavated in the earth for bringing groundwater to the surface. Well irrigation is the most important source of irrigation as it contributes about 62 percent of net irrigated area in India. It is a cheap, dependable, and popular source of irrigation in the country. Well irrigation is unavoidable in the region of low rainfall and becomes an essential one where the canals and tank irrigation are not available. Wells are of two types: i) Open wells and ii) Tube wells

DO YOU KNOW? As per the Irrigation – Statistical Year Book India – 2017, the following states are the top five with respect to the percentage of areas under well irrigation during 2013-14.

Sl. No.	Name of the State	Area in %
1.	Uttar Pradesh	26.6
2.	Madhya Pradesh	14.6
3.	Rajasthan	13.1
4.	Gujarat	7.8
5.	Punjab	7.1

Source: Irrigation-Statistical Year Book of India – 2017

1. **Open Wells:** This type of irrigation is widely practiced in the areas where groundwater is sufficiently available. The areas are in Ganga Plains, the deltaic region of Mahanadi, Godavari, Krishna, Cauvery and parts of Narmada and Tapti valleys.

2. **Tube Wells:** Tube wells are developed in the areas of low water table, sufficient power supply and soft subsurface geological units. Tube wells are predominant in the states of Gujarat, Maharashtra, Punjab, Madhya Pradesh and Tamil Nadu.

c) Tank Irrigation

A tank is a natural or man-made hollow on the surface developed by constructing a small bund around it across a stream. It is used to collect and store water for irrigation and other purposes. Irrigation by tanks is a very old system in India. It also includes irrigation from lakes and ponds.

The tank irrigation is popular in the peninsular India due to the following reasons:

- The undulating relief and hard rocks make difficult to dig canals and wells.
- Natural depressions serve as reservoirs.
- Absence of perennial rivers.
- Impermeable rock structure which do not permit percolation.
- The scattered nature of population and agricultural fields

The following table shows the **five leading states in tank irrigation**:

Sl. No.	Name of the State	Area in Lakh Hectares (2013-14)
1.	Tamil Nadu	3.78
2.	Andhra Pradesh	3.40
3.	Madhya Pradesh	2.64
4.	Telangana	2.30
5.	Karnataka	1.54

Source: Irrigation – Statistical Year Book India – 2017

Modern irrigation methods

There are many ways in Modern Irrigation among them mostly practiced and following in India are using drips, sprinklers and poly houses central pivot irrigation

Drip System is used to watering like drops at near the roots of plant. It will cover a tiny area at plant, but suitable for big trees and horticulture plants too which used to grow bigger

Rain Gun: Rain gun used to spread water like rain as in name and used to serve for crops which used to grow upto 4 feets or high also but we have to adjust sprinklers height as per crop size. typical usage of Rain guns are in sugarcane, maize crops.

Pivot irrigation

Center-pivot irrigation (sometimes called **central pivot irrigation**), also called **water-wheel** and **circle irrigation**, is a method of crop irrigation in which equipment rotates around a pivot and crops are watered with sprinklers

3.2.2 Multipurpose River Valley Projects

It is a scientific management of water resources in our country. Construction of dam across rivers is aimed at many purposes. Hence,

Name of projects	River	Benefit States	Irrigation (sq km)	Hydropower (Megawatts)
Damodar Valley project	Damodar	Jharkhand, West Bengal	5,150	.260
Bhakra-Nangal Project (highest gravity dam in the world)	Sutlej	Punjab, Haryana and Rajasthan	52,609	1,500
Hirakud Project (longest dam in the world)	Mahanadi	Orissa	1,41,600	347.5
Kosi Project	Kosi '(Sorrow of Bihar'.)	Bihar & Nepal	8,750	19.2
Tungabhadra Project	Tungabhadra	Andhra Pradesh and Karnataka	1,968	35.
Tehri Dam:	Bhagirathi	Uttarakhand	6000	1,000 MW
Chambal Valley Project	Chambal	Rajasthan and Madhya Pradesh	-	-
Nagarjuna Sagar Project	Krishna	Andhra Pradesh		
Sardar Sarover Project	Narmada	Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Rajasthan	18,450	250
Indira Gandhi Canal Project	Satlaj	Rajasthan, Punjab and Haryana	-	-
Mettur Dam	Kaveri	Tamil Nadu	-	40

INDIA
MULTIPURPOSE RIVER VALLEY PROJECTS

MALAKAND PROJECT

BHAKRA NANGAL

TEHRI

CHAMBAL

RANA PRATAP SINGH

NARMADA

INDIRA SAGAR DAM

SARDAR SAROVAR DAM

PRAVARA

KOSI

KONAR

DAMODAR

KARNAPULI RESERVOIR

HIRAKUD DAM

Arabian Sea

KOYNA

NAGARJUNA SAGAR DAM

TUNGABADRA

SRISAILAM DAM

GHATAPRABHA

METTUR

IDUKKI (PERIYAR) DAM

SRI LANKA

Bay of Bengal

Indian Ocean

Andaman and Nicobar Islands (India)

Lakshadweep Is. (India)

Tropic of Cancer

Mouths of the Ganga

Chilika Lake

LEGEND

RIVER VALLEY PROJECT
INTERNATIONAL BORDER LINE
RIVER

Not to Scale

Components of Agriculture

it is termed as multi-purpose river valley projects. The various purposes of a dam serves are irrigation, hydro power generation, water supply for drinking and industrial purpose, controlling floods, development of fisheries, navigation etc. Generally, majority of multipurpose projects are combination of irrigation and hydro-power which are the major aims of the projects.

3.3 Agriculture

Agriculture is the process of producing food for people, fodder for cattle, fiber and many other desired products by the cultivation of certain plants and the raising of domesticated animals (livestock). Though India is industrially a fast developing nation, still the agriculture in India employs more than 50 percent of the population of the country and accounts for about 25 percent of the national income.

3.3.1 Determinants of Agriculture

Agriculture in India is determined by a set of factors. Some of the important factors:

1. Physical factors: relief, climate and soil.
2. Institutional factors: Size of farm holdings, land tenure, and land reforms.
3. Infrastructural factors: Irrigation, power, transport, credit, market, insurance and storage facilities.
4. Technological factors: High yielding varieties of seeds, chemical fertilisers, insecticides and machinery.

3.3.2 Types of Farming

Owing to variations in the physical environment and culture, a variety of farming practices and cultivation systems have evolved in different parts of India.

a) Subsistence Farming

A considerable proportion of farmers in the country practice subsistence farming. In this, agricultural land holding is small. As the farmers are poor, they can't apply the modern inputs which cost more. They grow crops with the help of family members and consumes almost the entire farm produce with little surplus to sell in the market. Preference is given to food crops. In addition to the food crops, sugarcane, oilseeds, cotton, jute and tobacco are also cultivated. Traditional farming method results in low productivity. In Punjab, some parts of Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh and Madhya Pradesh subsistence farming is practiced.

b) Shifting Agriculture

This type of agriculture is performed by tribal people in a piece of forest land after clearing the trees through felling and burning the trunks and branches. Once the land is cleared, crops are grown for two to three years and the land will get abandoned as the fertility of the soil decreases. The farmers then move to new areas and the process will be repeated. They cultivate some grains and vegetable crops using the manual labour. It is also called as "Slash and burn" cultivation.

| Different names of shifting agriculture in different regions in India	
Name	**Place**
Jhum	Assam
Poonam	Kerela
Podu	Andhra Pradesh, Odisha
Beewar, Mashan, Penda, Beera	Various Parts of Madhya Pradesh

c) Intensive Farming

Intensive farming is an agricultural intensification and mechanization system that aims to maximize yields from available land through various means, such as heavy use of pesticides and chemical fertilizers. This intensification and mechanization has also been applied to the raising of livestock with billions of animals, such as cows, pigs and chickens, being held indoors. They have become known as factory farms. Intensive farming is practiced in Punjab, parts of Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh, and Madhya Pradesh in India.

d) Dry Farming

This type of farming is practiced in arid areas where irrigation facilities are lacking. Crops cultivated in these areas can withstand dry conditions. The crops grown generally with the help of irrigation are also grown under dry farming. In such circumstances, the yields are generally low. Most of the areas under dry cultivation entertain only one crop per year. This is practiced in drier parts of Rajasthan, Gujarat, Madhya Pradesh etc.

e) Mixed Farming Agriculture

Mixed farming is defined as a system of farm which includes crop production, raising livestock, poultry, fisheries, bee keeping etc. to sustain and satisfy as many needs of the farmer as possible.
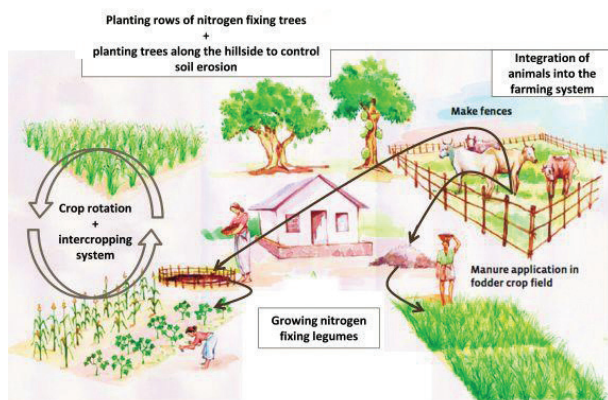
Mixed Farming Agriculture

PER DROP MORE CROP: (Improving water use efficiency) - Pradhan Mantri Krishi Sinchayee Yojana (PMKSY)

The Government of India has been implementing Centrally Sponsored Scheme on Micro Irrigation with the objective to enhance water use efficiency in the agriculture sector by promoting appropriate technological interventions like drip & sprinkler irrigation technologies and encourage the farmers to use water saving and conservation technologies.

The following are the five leading states which account for 78% of the total progress under Micro Irrigation scheme: 1. Andhra Pradesh, 2. Karnataka, 3. Gujarat, 4. Maharashtra, and 5. Tamil Nadu.

f) Terrace Cultivation

This type of cultivation is practiced specially in hilly areas, where lands are of sloping nature. The hill and mountain slopes are cut to form terraces and the land is used in the same way as in permanent agriculture. Since the availability of flat land is limited, terraces are made to provide small patches of level land. Soil erosion is also checked

Cropping Seasons in India		
Cropping Seasons	**Major crops cultivated**	
	Northern States	**Southern States**
Kharif Season June–September	Rice, Cotton, Bajra, Maize, Jowar, Tur	Rice, Ragi, Maize, Jowar, Groundnut
Rabi Season October–March	Wheat, Gram, Rapeseeds, Mustard, Barley	Rice, Maize, Ragi, Groundnut, Jowar
Zaid Season April–June	Vegetables, Fruits, Fodder	Rice, Vegetables, Fodder

Components of Agriculture

due to terrace formation on hill slopes. In our country, terrace cultivation takes place in the states of Punjab, Meghalaya, Haryana, Uttar Pradesh, Himachal Pradesh, and Uttrakhand.

Terrace Cultivation

3.4 Major Crops Cultivated in India

The major crops of India are divided into four major categories as follows:

1. Food crops (wheat, maize, rice, millets, pulses etc.).
2. Cash crops (sugarcane, tobacco, cotton, jute, oilseeds etc.).
3. Plantation crops (tea, coffee and rubber).
4. Horticulture crops (fruits, flowers and vegetables).

1. Food Crops

Due to its large population, Indian agriculture is largely dominated by the food crops. Food crops include cereals and pulses, amongst which rice, wheat, jowar, bajra, maize, barley, ragi, gram and tur are important.

Rice: Rice is an indigenous crop. India is the second largest producer of rice in the world after China. It is mainly a tropical crop, growing mainly with mean temperatures of 24°C and annual rainfall of 150 cm. Deep fertile clayey or loamy soils are suited well for rice cultivation. It also needs abundant supply of cheap labour. Rice in India is sown in three ways: i) Broadcasting,

ii) Ploughing or drilling, and iii) Transplanting. Due to increased use of High Yielding Variety (HYV) seeds (CR Dhan 205, AR Dhan 306, CRR 451 etc.), many of the indigenous varieties were disappeared. In 2016, the first 10 leading rice producing states are West Bengal (First in India) Uttar Pradesh, Punjab, Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Chhattisgarh, Odisha, Assam, and Haryana.
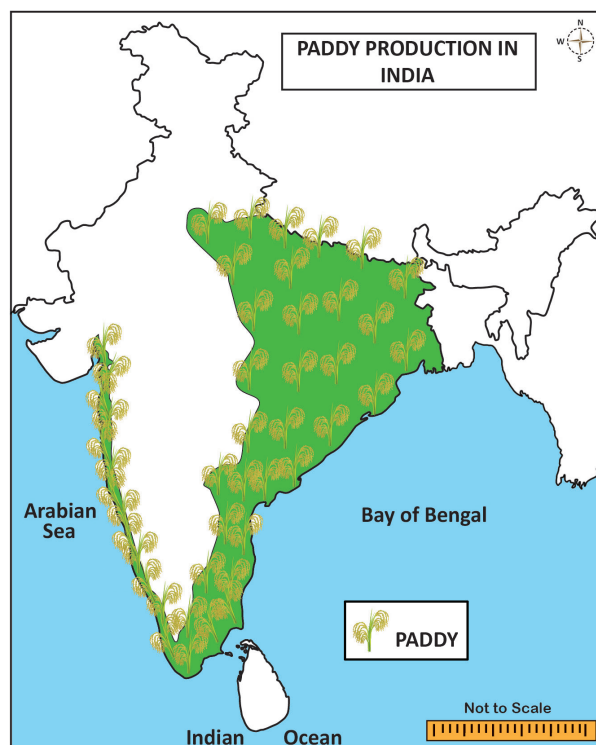
Paddy Cultivation

Wheat: Wheat is the second most important food crop of the country, after rice. It accounts for 22 percent of the total area and 34 percent of the total production of food grains in the country. It requires 10-15°C at the time of sowing and 20-25°C at the time of ripening of grains.

Over 85% of the India's wheat production comes from 5 states namely Uttar Pradesh,

Punjab, Haryana, Rajasthan and Madhya Pradesh. Apart from these regions, the black soil tract of the Deccan covering parts of Maharashtra and Gujarat also contribute a major wheat production.
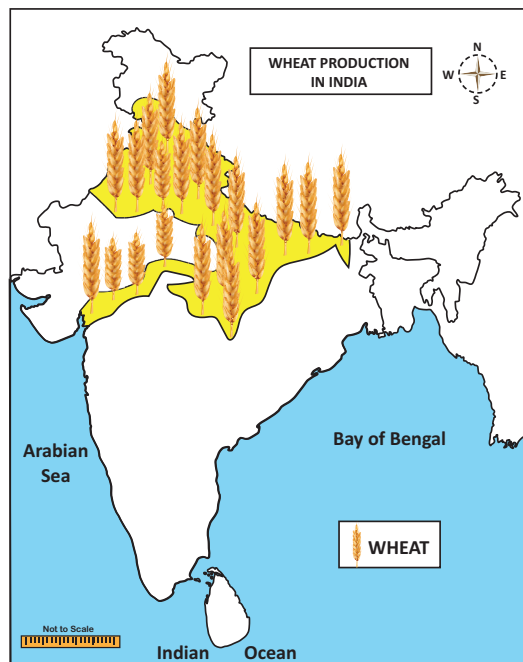
Jowar: Jowar is the third important food crop of our country. It is an indigenous plant of Africa. The plant has a tendency to grow in adverse climatic conditions. Its grains are rich in carbohydrates, protein, minerals, and vitamins. Hence, it provides cheap food to the large section of the poor population. It is also used as fodder in many parts of the country. Jowar is essentially a crop of the Peninsular India. Maharashtra, Karnataka, and Madhya Pradesh are the leading producers of Jowar.

Bajra: Bajra is an indigenous plant of Africa. This forms the staple food for poor people. Its stalks are used as fodder for cattle and for thatching purposes. Bajra is a crop of dry region. Rajasthan is the largest producer of bajra followed by Uttar Pradesh, Haryana, Gujarat and Maharashtra.

Barley: Barley is one of the important cereals of our country. Besides, being poor man's diet, it is used for making barley water, beer and whiskey. Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh are the two leading producers of Barley.

Pulses: Pulses include a large number of crops which are mostly leguminous and rich

in vegetable protein. They are used as human food and feeding cattle. They fix atmospheric nitrogen in the soil and hence are usually rotated with other crops. India is the largest producer of pulses. The major pulse growing areas are Madhya Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh, Rajasthan, Maharashtra and Andhra Pradesh.

2. Cash Crops

The crops which are cultivated for commercial purpose are called cash crops. These crops include sugarcane, tobacco, fibre crops (cotton, jute, and mesta) and oilseeds.

Sugarcane: Sugarcane is the most important cash crop of India and is the second largest producer in the world. This crop provides raw material for the sugar industry which is the second largest industrial category of our country. Besides providing sugar, gur and khandsari, it supplies molasses for alcohol industry and bagasse for paper industry. India is ranked third in sugar production in the world after Cuba and Brazil. At the state level, Uttar Pradesh is the leading producer of sugarcane followed by Maharashtra, Karnataka, Tamil Nadu and Gujarat.
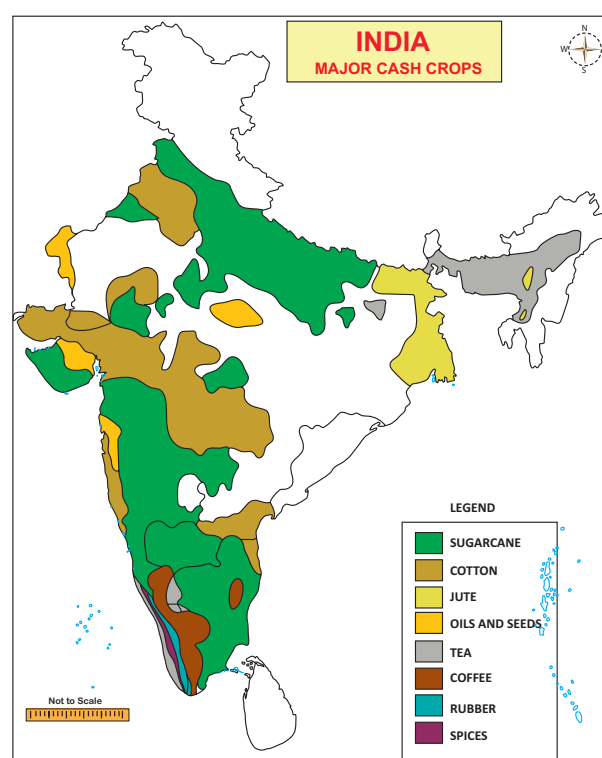
India - Cash crops

Cotton: Cotton is the most important cash crop of India. It provides raw material to the largest industry of India. India ranks second next to China in the production of cotton.

About 79% of the total area and production in the country were contributed by four states viz., Gujarat, Maharashtra, Andhra Pradesh and Punjab.

Jute: It is a tropical fibre crops, grows well in the alluvial soil. It provides raw material for Jute industry. It is used for manufacturing of gunny bags, carpets, hessian, ropes and strings, rugs, clothes, tarpaulins, upholstery etc. West Bengal is the leading state both in cultivation and production of jute. The other cultivators of jute are Bihar, Assam and Meghalaya.

Oil Seeds: Oil seeds, the premier source of fat in the Indian diet are derived from number of crops like groundnut, rapeseed, mustard, sesame, linseed, sunflower, castor seed, cotton seed, niger seed etc. These provide oil and oilcake which are used for making lubricants, varnish, medicine, perfume, candles, soaps, manure and cattle feed. Gujarat is India's largest oilseeds producing state. Other major producer of oilseeds are followed by Rajasthan Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra and Andhra Pradesh. In groundnut production, India is the second largest producer in the world after China.

3. Plantation Crops

Plantation crops are cultivated for the purpose of exports. These are cultivated in large estates on hilly slopes. Cultivation near the coast is preferable as it facilitates exports. Tea, coffee, rubber and spices are the major plantation crops of India.

Tea: Tea is an evergreen plant that mainly grows in tropical and subtropical climates. Tea is a labour intensive and grows faster under light shade. Tea plants require high rainfall but its root cannot tolerate water logging. Two major varieties of tea are cultivated in India. They are i) **Bohea** originated from China and ii) **Assamica** from India. A number of hybrid varieties have been developed by mixing these two. India is the second largest producer of tea after China in the world. Assam is the larger producer of tea in India. Other states are Tamil Nadu, Kerala and West Bengal.

Coffee: Coffee is grown in shade and it grows effectively in the altitudes between 1,000 and 1,500 m above mean sea level. There are two main varieties of coffee. They are i) **Arabica** (High quality-cultivated more in India) and ii) **Robusta** (Inferior quality).

India is the 7th largest producer of coffee globally. Karnataka is the leading producer of coffee in India. It produces 71% in India, and 2.5 % in the world (source; coffee board of India-2018).

Rubber: Rubber plantation were first established in Kerala in 1902. It needs hot and wet climatic conditions (temperature above 20°C and rainfall above 300cm). Most of the land under rubber belongs to small land holders. The major rubber growing areas are Tamil Nadu, Kerala, Karnataka and Andaman and Nicobar Islands.

Spices: India has been world famous for its spices since ancient times. These spices mostly used for flavouring or tampering cooked food and for preparing medicines, dyes etc. Pepper, chillies, turmeric, ginger, cardamom, clove and areca nut are the major spices cultivated in India. Kerala is the leading producer of spices in India.

4. Horticulture Crops

It refers to the cultivation of fruits, flowers and vegetables. Fruits and vegetables are important supplement to the human diet, as they provide essential minerals, vitamins, and fibres required for maintaining health. India is in the second position in the production of fruits and vegetables. Apple is mostly produced in Himachal Pradesh, Jammu and Kashmir and Uttarakhand. Production of banana is concentrated in Tamil Nadu and Maharashtra. Orange is cultivated in Maharashtra, Uttarakhand, Himachal Pradesh, Jammu and

Kashmir, Tamil Nadu and Karnataka. Grape is cultivated mainly in Uttarakhand, Himachal Pradesh, Jammu and Kashmir, Maharashtra, Andhra Pradesh, Tamil Nadu and Karnataka. India contributes about 13% of the world's production of vegetables.

3.5 Livestock

Livestock is an integral component of the farming system in India. The livestock sector is socially and economically very significant due to its multi-functional outputs and contribution to socio-cultural security. It also helps to improve food and nutritional security by providing nutrient-rich food products, generate income and employment and act as a cushion against crop failure, provide draught power and manure inputs to the crop subsector.

Livestock sector contributes approximately 4 percent of national GDP (Gross Domestic Product) and 25.6 percent to agriculture GDP. As per 19th Livestock Census, conducted in 2012 (Government of India, 2014), India's livestock sector is one of the largest in the world with 11.6 percent of world livestock population, which consists of cattle (37.3 percent), goats (26.4 percent), buffaloes (21.2 percent), sheep (12.7 percent) and pigs (2.0 percent) etc.

Distribution of Livestock in India in 2012

Sl. No.	Name of the State	Total No. of Livestock in Lakhs (2012)
1.	Uttar Pradesh	687.2
2.	Rajasthan	577.3
3.	Andhra Pradesh	561.0
4.	Madhya Pradesh	363.3
5.	Bihar	329.4
Source: 19th Livestock Census, Department of Animal Husbandry, Dairying & Fisheries		

3.5.1 Cattle

Cattle constitute 37.3 percent of livestock population in India. India has second largest cattle population after Brazil at World level. Among the states, Madhya Pradesh leads with 10.3 percent followed by Uttar Pradesh (10.2 percent) and West Bengal (8.7 percent). Cattle population in India belongs to different breeds. These include: 1) Milch Breed, 2) Draught breed, and 3) Mixed or General breed.

The following table shows the Livestock population of India in 2012

| Sl. No.	Name of the Livestock	Population in Lakhs (2012)
1.	Cattle	1.91
2.	Goats	1.35
3.	Buffaloes	1.09
4.	Sheep	0.65
5.	Pigs	0.10
Source: 19th Livestock Census, Department of Animal Husbandry, Dairying & Fisheries		

3.5.2 Goats

The goat is the poor man's cow providing milk, meat, skin and hair. It is the main source of meat for the country. While looking at the current status of goat population among Indian states, Rajasthan records first with 16 percent followed by Uttar Pradesh and Bihar.

3.5.3 Buffaloes

Buffaloes are an important source of milk supply for India. Uttar Pradesh has the highest number of buffaloes (28.2%) followed by Rajasthan (9.6%) and Andhra Pradesh (7.9%).
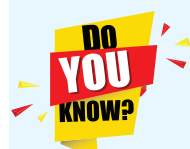
DO YOU KNOW? **Livestock Census:** First Livestock Census in India was conducted with the title of Dairy Cattle Census in 1919. Following this, the 19th Livestock census was conducted in October 2012 and it takes place at every five years.

How is livestock census conducted in Tamil Nadu?

State Government is conducting Livestock Census with the help of Department of Animal Husbandry at state level and Regional Joint Director at Distric level under the guidelines of Government of India Ministry of Agriculture and farmers welfare, Department of Animal Husbandary Dairying and Fisheries.

The Livestock Census in the country started in the year 1919 – 1920. Since then it has been conducted once in every 5 years. So far 19 livestock census has been conducted and the last census was held in the year 2012. The 20 th Live stock Census – 2017 was scheduled to be conducted from 16 th July and will end on 15 th October 2017.

Source: Government of India – Instruction manual 201th Livestock Census.

Livestock

3.5.4 Dairy, Meat and Wool Production

According to State / UT Animal Husbandry Department, during 2016-17, the total production of milk in our nation is 163.7 million tonnes. At this time, the leading producer was Uttar Pradesh with 27.6 million tonnes (16.8 percent) followed by Rajasthan with 19.4 million tonnes (11.8 percent) and Madhya Pradesh with 13.4 million tonnes (8.2 percent) in total milk production.

While looking at the meat, the total production is 7.4 million tonnes. Uttar Pradesh is the leading producer with 1.3 million tonnes (18.2 percent), where Maharashtra and West Bengal are estimated with 0.8 million tonnes (11.4 percent) and 0.7 million tonnes (9.6 percent) respectively in the total country's production.

The total wool production of our nation is 43.5 million kilograms. The leading state in the wool production is Rajasthan with 14.3 million kilograms (32.9 percent) followed by Jammu and Kashmir with 7.3 million kilograms (16.7 percent) and Karnataka with 6.6 million kilograms (15.1 percent) in country's total wool production.

3.6 Fisheries

Fisheries in India are a very important economic activity and a flourishing sector with varied resources and potentials. Fishing in India is a major industry in its coastal states, employing over 14 million people. It produces about 3 percent of World's fish and occupies second place among the fish producing nations of the world after China. It also helps in augmenting food supply, generating employment, raising nutritional level and earning valuable foreign exchange. The length of Indian coastline is 7,517 km including the coastline of the islands, however the mainland's length is 6,100 km. In India, fishing is categorised into two types: they are

Fisheries

1. **Marine or Sea Fisheries:** It includes coastal, off-shore and deep sea fisheries mainly on the continental shelf upto a depth of 200 m. Among the coastal states, Kerala leads in the marine fish production in India.

2. **Inland or Fresh Water Fisheries:** Rivers, lakes, canals, reservoirs, ponds, tanks etc. are the sources of fresh water and provide fresh water fisheries. About 50 percent of the country's total fish production comes from the inland fisheries and Andhra Pradesh is the leading producer in India.

In India, the important varieties of fishes caught by the fisherman are Cat fish, Herrings, Mackerels, Perches, Eels, Mullets etc. In 2014-15, the total inland or fresh water fish production was 65.77 lakh tonnes and the total marine fish production was 34.91 lakh tonnes. In India, the top five fish producing states are Andhra Pradesh, West Bengal, Gujarat, Kerala, and Tamil Nadu.

3.7 Major issues faced by farmers in india

Indian agriculture and Indian farmers are plagued by several problems; some of them are natural and some others are manmade.

- **Small and fragmented land-holdings:** The problem of small and fragmented holdings is more serious in densely populated and intensively cultivated states in India. About 67 percent of operational land holdings in India are marginal holdings (< 1 hectare).

- **High Costs of Inputs:** Seed is a critical and basic input for attaining higher crop yields and sustained growth in agricultural production. Unfortunately, good quality

Problems faced by the farmers in irrigation: Current Scenario

FUEL

LABOUR

RAIN

DIFFICULT TERRAIN

WILD ANIMAL

SCARCHING HEAT

SHOCK HAZARDS

ELECTRICITY

Major Issues of Farmers

Components of Agriculture
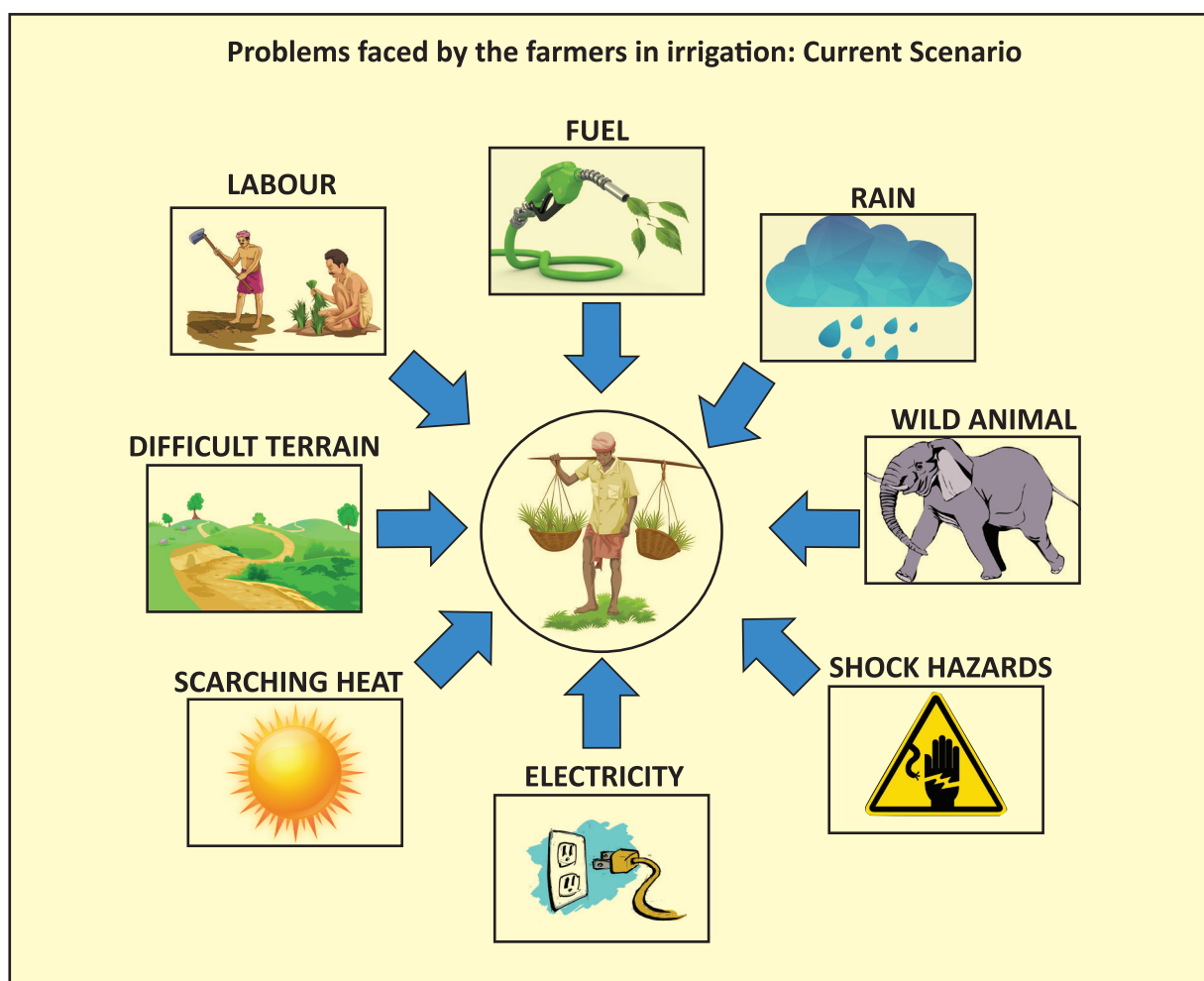
seeds are out of reach for many small and marginal farmers due to their high price.

- **Infertile Soil:** Indian soils have been used for growing crops over thousands of years without caring much for replenishing. This has led to depletion and exhaustion of soils resulting low productivity.

- **Lack of Irrigation:** Only one-third of the cropped area falls under irrigated area. To make agriculture reliable, irrigation facility has to be developed.

- **Lack of mechanization:** In spite of the large scale mechanization of agriculture in some parts of the country, most of the agricultural operations in larger parts are carried on by human hand using simple and conventional tools.

- **Soil erosion:** Large tracts of fertile land suffer from soil erosion by wind and water. Such kind of areas must be properly treated and restored to its original fertility.

- **Agricultural marketing:** In rural India, agricultural marketing continues in a bad shape. Due to the absence of sound marketing facility, the farmers have to depend on local traders and middlemen for the disposal of their farm products which is sold at low price. Besides, there is a fluctuation in the prices of agriculture products.

- **Inadequate storage facilities:** Storage facilities in the rural areas are either totally absent or grossly inadequate. Under such conditions the farmers are compelled to sell their products immediately after the harvest irrespective of the condition of market.

- **Inadequate transport:** One of the main handicaps with Indian agriculture is the lack of cheap and efficient means of transportation. Even at present there are lakhs of villages which are not well connected with main roads or with market centres.

- **Scarcity of capital:** Agriculture is an important industry which requires a huge capital. The role of capital plays a major role in the purchase of advanced farm machineries and equipments.

List of important Agricultural Revolutions in India	
Revolution	**Related Product**
Yellow Revolution	Oil seed Production (Especially Mustard and Sunflower)
Blue Revolution	Fish Production
Brown Revolution	Leather / Cocoa / Non-Conventional Products
Golden Fibre Revolution	Jute Production
Golden Revolution	Fruits / Honey Production / Horticulture Development
Grey Revolution	Fertilizers
Pink Revolution	Onion Production / Pharmaceuticals / Prawn Production
Evergreen Revolution	Overall Production of Agriculture
Silver Revolution	Egg Production / Poultry Production
Silver Fibre Revolution	Cotton
Red Revolution	Meat Production / Tomato Production
Round Revolution	Potato
Green Revolution	Food Grains
White Revolution	Milk Production

Recap

- Soil is the finest particle found on the earth surface.
- Alluvial soil, black soil, red soil and laterite soil are the major types of soil in India.
- The main sources of irrigation found in India are canal irrigation, well irrigation and tank irrigation etc.
- Damodar valley projects, Bhakra-Nangal project and Hirakud project are the important Multipurpose projects of India.
- Kharif, Rabi, and Zaid are the three cropping seasons of India.
- The agricultural crops of India can be divided into food crops, cash crops, plantation crops and horticultural crops.
- Fishing in India is categorized into marine fishing and inland fishing

GLOSSARY

Soil	Soil is the uppermost layer of the land surface composed of minerals, organic matter, living organisms and water
Khadar	Newer alluvium soil found in valley flooded almost every year
Bhangar	Older alluvium soil found in30 mts above flood level
Soil erosion	Removal of top soil
Soil conservation	Prevention of soil from erosion and protecting its fertility.
Irrigation	Watering of plants through artificial means.
Multipurpose projects	Construction of dams across rivers aimed at many purposes
Agriculture	It is the process of producing food, feed, fibre and many other desired products by the cultivation of certain plants and the raising of domesticated plants

EXERCISE

I. Choose the correct answer

1. The soil which is rich in iron oxides is _____.
   a) Alluvial   b) Black
   c) Red   d) Alkaline

2. Which of the following organization has divided the Indian soils into 8 major groups?
   a) Indian Council of Agricultural Research
   b) Indian Meteorological Department
   c) Soil Survey of India
   d) Indian Institute of Soil Science

3. The soils formed by the rivers are:
   a) Red soils   b) Black soils
   c) Desert soils   d) Alluvial soils

4. _____ dam is the highest gravity in India.
   a) Hirakud dam
   b) Bhakra Nangal dam
   c) Mettur dam
   d) Nagarjuna Sagar dam

5. _____ is a cash crop.
   a) Cotton   b) Wheat
   c) Rice   d) Maize

6. Black soils are also called as:
   a) Arid soils   b) Saline soils
   c) Regur soils   d) Mountain soils

7. The longest dam in the world is _____.
   a) Mettur dam   b) Kosi dam
   c) Hirakud dam   d) Bhakra-Nangal dam

8. The leading producer of rice in India is _____.
   a) Punjab   b) Maharashtra
   c) Uttar Pradesh   d) West Bengal

9. Which crop is called as "Golden Fibre" in India?
   a) Cotton   b) Wheat
   c) Jute   d) Tobacco

10. The state which leads in the production of coffee is
    a) West Bengal   b) Karnataka
    c) Odisha   d) Punjab

II. Consider the given statements and choose the right option given below

1. **Assertio**n **(A):** Horticulture involves cultivation of fruits, vegetables, and flowers.
   Reason (R): India ranks first in the world in the production of mango, banana, and citrus fruits.
   (a) Both (A) and (R) are true and (R) explains (A)
   (b) Both (A) and (R)are true: (R) does not explain (A)
   (c) (A) is correct (R) is false
   (d) (A) is false (R) is true

2. **Assertion (A):** Alluvial soil is formed by the deposition of eroded and decayed materials brought by the rivers.
   Reason (R): Paddy and wheat are grown well in the soil.
   (a) Both (A) and (R) are true and (R) explains (A)

(b) Both (A) and (R)are true and (R) does not explain (A)
(c) (A) is correct (R) is false
(d) (A) is false (R) is true

III. Pick the odd one out

1. a) Wheat   b) Rice
   c) Millets   d) Coffee
2. a) Khadar   b) Bhangar
   c) Alluvial soil d) Black soil
3. a) Inundational canals
   b) Perennial canals
   c) Tanks
   d) Canals

IV. Match the following

1. Sugar bowl of India   a) Mahanadi
2. Coffee   b) Golden revolution
3. Tehri   c) Karnataka
4. Hirakud   d) Uttar Pradesh and Bihar
5. Horticulture   e) Highest dam in the India

V. Answer in brief

1. Define soil.
2. Name the types of soil found in India.
3. State any two characteristics of black cotton soil.
4. What is Multipurpose project?
5. Define Agriculture.
6. State the types of agriculture practices in India?
7. Name the seasons of agriculture in India?
8. Mention the plantation crops of India.
9. What do you mean by livestock?
10. Write a brief note on the categories of fisheries in India?

VI. Give reasons

1. Agriculture is the backbone of India.
2. Rain water harvesting is necessary.
3. Small farms are predominant in India.

VII Distinguish between the following

1. Rabi and Kharif crop seasons.
2. Inundational canal and perennial canal.
3. Marine fishing and Inland fishing.
4. Alluvial soils and Black soils.

VIII. Answer in a paragraph

1. State the types of soil in India and explain the characteristics and distribution of soil.
2. Write about any two Multipurpose projects of India.
3. Bring out the characteristics of Intensive and Plantation farming.
4. Examine the geographical conditions favourable for the cultivation of rice and wheat.

IX. Hot questions

1. Can you imagine a world without agriculture?
2. Can you give solutions for the prevailing water disputes in South India (construction of dams / raising of dams / cleaning of tanks)?

X. Map exercise

1. Demarcate the major tracts of alluvial soils.
2. Delineate the main regions of black soil.
3. Locate the Hirakud dam, Mettur dam and Damodar dam.
4. Shade the regions of jute cultivation..
5. Mark any three tea and coffee growing areas.
6. Demarcate the regions of desert soil.
7. Locate the fishing hubs: Tuticorin, Chennai, Cochin, Mumbai, Machilipatnam
8. Demarcate: Cauvery delta, Godavari delta

ACTIVITY - 2

Complete the following table by your day to day life experience.

Sl. No.	Food	Sources
1.	Main Food	Rice / Wheat / Millets / _____
2.	Milk	Cow / Buffalo / Goat / _____
3.		
4.		
5.		

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Resources and Industries

Learning Objectives

- To learn about the resource and its types.
- To understand the concept of renewable and non- renewable resources.
- To identify the different types and distribution of industries in India.
- To analyse the problems of Indian industries.

IAUTWU

Introduction

Any matter or energy derived from the environment that is used by living things including humans is called a natural resource. Natural resources include air, water, soil, minerals, fossil fuels, plants, wild life etc. Many natural resources are used as raw materials. They play a vital role in the economic development of any region. Natural resources are classified on several basis. Based on continued availability, the resources are categorised into two types. Renewable Resources are those which have natural regeneration after their utilisation.

Solar energy, wind energy, biogas, tidal energy, wave energy etc. are the renewable resources. Non- Renewable resources are the sources that cannot be replaced again after utilisation. Coal, petroleum, natural gas etc. fall under this category.

4.1 Minerals

Mineral is a natural substance of organic or inorganic origin with definite chemical and physical properties. The process of extracting mineral from the earth is known as mining. The mines near the earth crust are known as open pit mines while the deep mines are known as shaft mines.

4.1.1 Types of Minerals

On the basis of chemical and physical properties, minerals are broadly grouped under two categories. They are metallic and non-metallic minerals.

DO YOU KNOW? The organisations associated with minerals in India are the Geological Survey of India (Headquarter is at Kolkata), Indian Bureau of Mines (Headquarter at Nagpur) and Non-Ferrous Material Technology Development Centre (NFTDC), located at Hyderabad. The Ministry of Mines is responsible for the administration of all mines and minerals (Development and Regulation Act, 1957).

a) Metallic Minerals

Metallic minerals are the minerals which contain one or more metallic elements in them.

MINERALS OF INDIA

LEGEND

✳ IRON
★ MANGANESE
■ COPPER
▲ BAUXITE
⬡ LIMESTONE
● GYPSUM
✚ MICA
▲ GOLD

Not to Scale
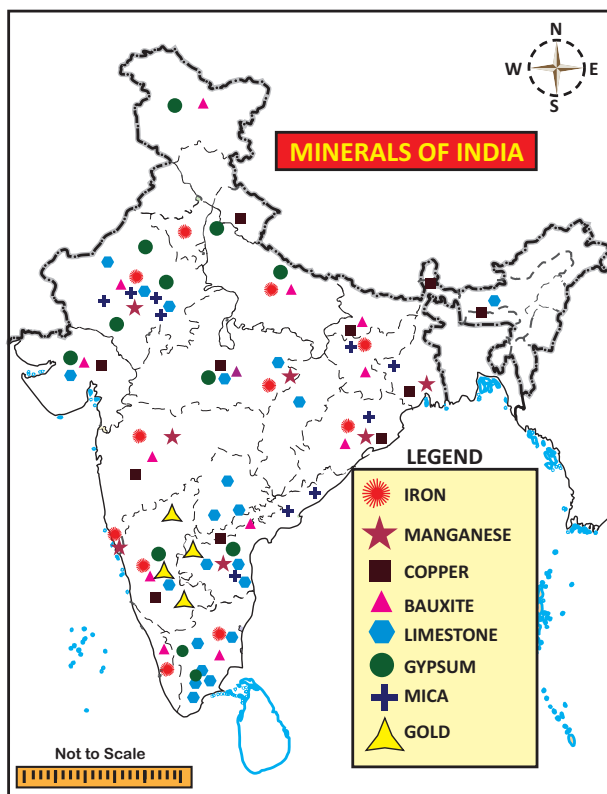
Metallic minerals occur in rare, naturally formed concentrations known as mineral deposits. These deposits consist of a variety of valuable metals such as iron, manganese, copper, bauxite, nickel, zinc, lead, gold etc.

i) Iron ore

Iron ore is the most widely distributed elements of the earth crust, rarely occurs in a free state. It enters into the

DO YOU KNOW?

Iron ores are rocks and minerals from which metallic iron can be economically extracted. The ores are usually rich in iron oxides and vary in colour from dark grey, bright yellow, or deep purple to rusty red. The iron is usually found in following form.

Form of Iron ores	Iron Content (%)
Magnetite	72.4%
Hematite	69.9%
Goethite	62.9%
Limonite	55%
Siderite	48.2%

composition of many rocks and minerals especially from igneous and metamorphic rocks. The total recoverable reserves of iron ore in India are about 9602 million tons of haematite and 3408 million tons of magnetite. About 79% haematite deposits are found in Assam, Bihar, Chhattisgarh, Jharkhand, Odisha and Uttar Pradesh. About 93% magnetite deposits occur in Andhra Pradesh, Goa, Karnataka, Kerala and Tamil Nadu. Karnataka alone contributes about 72% of magnetite deposits of India.

Jharkhand is the leading producer of iron ore with 25% the country's production. Singhbhum, Hazaribagh, Dhanbad and Ranchi districts are its major producers. Odisha with 21% production ranks second. Sundargarh, Mayurbhanj, Sambalpur and Keonjhar districts are its major producers. The magnetite production of Chhattisgarh is 18% (Rajgarh and Bilaspur are its leadings districts) and the Karnataka is 20% (Chikmangalur, Chitradurga, Shimoga and Dharwad districts are its major producers). Andhrapradesh and Karnataka produce about 5% each. Kurnool, Guntur, Cuddapah and Anantapur districts in Andhra Pradesh and Salem, Namakkal, Tiruvannamalai, Tiruchirappalli, Coimbatore, Madurai and Tirunelveli districts in Tamil Nadu are notable for the production of iron ore.

SAIL (Steel Authority of India Limited): The Ministry of Steel is responsible for planning and development of iron and steel industry in India.

ii) Manganese

Manganese is a silvery grey element. It is very hard and brittle in nature. It is always available in combination with iron, laterite and other minerals. It is an important mineral used for making iron and steel and serves as basic raw material for alloying. It is the most important mineral for making iron and steel. Nearly 10 kg manganese is required for

manufacturing one ton of steel. It is also used in the manufacturing of bleaching powder, insecticides, paints and batteries.

MOIL- Manganese Ore India Limited state-owned manganese-ore mining company headquartered in Nagpur. With a market share of 50%, it was the largest producer of manganese ore in India.

Manganese deposits occur mainly as metamorphosed bedded sedimentary deposits. Th e largest deposits of manganese is found in Odisha(44%) followed by Karnataka (22%), Madhya Pradesh (12%), Maharashtra & Goa(7% each), Andhra Pradesh (4%) and Jharkhand (2%). Rajasthan, Gujarat, Telengana and West Bengal together constitute about 2% of the India's manganese resource. Nagpur, Bhandara and Ratnagiri districts in Maharastra and Balaghat and Chhindwara districts in Madhya Pradesh are the leading producers. Odisha is the third largest producer with 24% (Sundargarh,Kalahandi, Koraput and Bolangir districts are the major ones). Other producers are Andhra Pradesh (13%) and Karnataka (6%). Srikakulam, Visakhapatnam, Cuddapah and Guntur districts in Andhra Pradesh and the districts of Shimoga, Bellary, Chitradurga and Tumkur are the important districts of Karnataka. It is the most important mineral for making iron and steel. India is the fift h largest producer of manganese in the world.

iii) Copper

Copper is the first metal that prehistoric man has started using for many purposes. Being flexible, it can be made into utensils of any shape. Brass and Bronze are obtained when the copper alloys with zinc and tin respectively. Copper has been commonly used for making cooking utensils and other objects of common utility. In modern days, it is extensively used in vast variety of electrical machinery, wires and cables

Largest reserves of copper ore is in the state of Rajasthan (53.81%) followed by Jharkhand (19.54%) and Madhya Pradesh (18.75%). Th e states of Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat, Haryana, Karnataka, Maharashtra, Meghalaya, Nagaland, Odisha, Sikkim, Tamil Nadu, Telangana, Uttarakhand and West Bengal account for 7.9% of the total copper reserves of India.

Hindustan Copper Ltd is a Government-owned-corporation in the central public Enterprise under the Ministry of minies, India. HCL is the only vertically integrated copper producer in India engaged in a wide spectrum of activities ranging from Mining, Beneficiation, Smelting, Refining and Continuous Cast Rod manufacturer.

Jharkand is the largest producer of copper with 62% of India's production. Singhbhum and Hazaribagh districts are its leading producers of copper. Odisha is the other major producer with 50.2% production. Rajasthan ranks third with 28% production. Th e districts of Khetri, Alwar and Bhilwara are notables in this state. Th e states of Uttarakhand(Dehradun and Garhwal districts),Andhra Pradesh (Guntur, Kurnool and Nellore districts), Karnataka (Chitradurga and Hassan districts) and Tamil Nadu contributes about 7% of production each.

iv) Bauxite

Bauxite is an important ore from which aluminium is extracted. It is found in the rock consisting mainly of hydrated aluminium oxides. Bauxite is widely distributed as surface deposits in the areas of laterite soil.

DO YOU KNOW? Bauxite is an oxide of aluminium; the name has been derived after the French word Le Baux.

Being light in weight and tough, aluminium is used in the manufacture of aircraft s and automobile engines. Bauxite is also used in the manufacture of cement and chemicals.

The main bauxite deposits occur in Odisha – 50.2%, Gujarat – 15.8% (Junagadh, Amreli and Bhavnagar districts), Jharkhand – 11.9% (Ranchi and Gumila districts), Maharashtra – 9.9% (Sindhu durg and Ratnagiri), Chhattisgarh – 6.2% (Ballarpur and Durg districts), and Tamil nadu – 2.7%. Being light in weight and tough, aluminium is used in the manufacture of aircraft s and automobile engines. Bauxite is also used in the manufacture of cement and chemicals. Orissa is the largest producer of bauxite in India with approx. 1,370.5 million tonnes. India's State and Central Government is very supportive in production of Bauxite and other Industrial Minerals in Orissa, Jharkand, Tamil Nadu.

National Aluminium Company Limited, abbreviated as NALCO, (incorporated 1981) has units in Odisha at places like Angul and Damanjodi. It was incorporated as a public sector enterprise of the Ministry of Mines, Government of India in 1981.

नालको 🅰 NALCO

b) Non-Metallic Minerals

These minerals do not contain metal in them. Mica, limestone, gypsum, nitrate, potash, dolomite, coal, petroleum etc are the non- metallic minerals.

i) Mica

In ancient time, Mica was used in ayurvedic medicine. Mica became very popular with the development of electrical industry. Abhrak is a good quality mica. It is translucent, easily splitable into thin sheets, flat, colourless, elastic and incompressible. Mica is used in making of insulating properties, as it withstands high voltage and

has low power loss factor. Since it is a non conductor of electricity, it is exclusively used in electrical goods. It is also used in making of lubricants, medicines, paints and varnishes.

The major deposits of mica are found in Andhra Pradesh(41%) with Nellore, Visakhapatnam, West Godavari and Krishna are its major districts. Other important states in mica deposits are Rajasthan(21%) and Odisha(20%). Bhilwara, Jaipur and Ajmer are the notable districts in Rajasthan and, Rayagada, Bolangir and Sundargarh districts are the major producers in Odisha. Dhanbad, Palamu, Ranchi and Singhbum districts are the major mica mines in Jharkhand state.

ii) Lime Stone

Limestone is associated with rocks composed of either calcium carbonate or the double carbonate of calcium and magnesium or mixture of both. Limestone also contains small quantities of silica, alumina, iron oxides, phosphorous and sulphur. Limestone is used in the industries of chemicals for soda ash, caustic soda, bleaching powder, paper, cement, iron and steel, glass and fertilizers. The major producing areas: Andhra Pradesh produces about 20% with major concentration in Cuddapah, Kurnool and Guntur districts. Telengana also accounts for about 20% of the country's production with the districts of Nalgonda, Adilabad, Warangal and Karimnagar as major producers. Rajasthan produces about 18% (Jodhpur, Ajmer, Bikhaner and Kota districts), Madhya Pradesh about 12% (Jabalpur and Satna districts) and Tamilnadu about 8.4% (Salem, Kancheepuram, Tiruchirappalli, Thoothukkudi, Tirunelveli and Virudhunagar districts) of limestone production of India. In terms of the reserves of limestone, the state of Karnataka leads with 27%, followed by Andhra Pradesh and Rajasthan (12% each), Gujarat (10%), Meghalaya (9%), Telangana (8%), Chhattisgarh and Madhya Pradesh (5% each) and the remaining by other states.

iii) Gypsum

Gypsum is a hydrated sulphate of calcium which occurs as white, opaque or transparent minerals in beds of sedimentary rocks such as limestone, sandstone and shale. Gypsum is used in the manufacture of cement, fertilizers, wall board, plaster of paris and in soil conditioning. The state of Rajasthan alone accounts for 81% of its reserves. 14% of its reserves is found in Jammu and Kashmir and 2% in Tamil nadu. The remaining 3% resources are found in the states of Gujarat, Himachal Pradesh, Karnataka, Uttarakhand, Andhra Pradesh and Madhya Pradesh.

Rajasthan produces 82% of the country's production. Jodhpur, Bikaner and Jaisalmer are notable districts. Jammu and Kashmir produces 14% of country's gypsum. Baramula, Doda and Uri districts are its major producers. The states of Gujarat (Bhavnagar and Jamnagar districts), Uttarkhand (Dehradun and Mussourrie districts), Andra pradesh (Nellore, Guntur and Prakasam districts) and Tamil nadu are the other producers with about 4% each.

4.2 Energy Resources

The resources from which the electricity generated are called energy resources. Electricity is an important component of our life. No day to day activity takes without the use of this energy. It is also the key factor for all economic activities and industrial development. Energy resources can be classified into renewable and non-renewable. Coal, petroleum, natural gas and nuclear minerals are the sources of non renewable energy. Water, sun light, wind, bio gas, tides etc., are the sources of renewable energy.

4.2.1 Non-Renewable Energy

a) Coal

Coal is an inflammable organic substance composed mainly of hydrocarbons.

Coal is available in the form of sedimentary rocks. It is used in the generation of thermal power. It has close association with the industrial development of any country. Since it is a valuable one, it is called as "**Black Gold**". Based on carbon content, it is classified in to the following types.

Anthracite: contains 80 to 90% carbon

Bituminous: contains 60 to 80% carbon

Lignite: contains 40 to 60% carbon

Peat: contains less than 40% carbon

Coal is an important source of energy in India with its varied and innumerable uses. It can be converted into gas, oil, electricity and thermal power. Besides, it forms a basic raw material for the production of chemicals, dyes, fertilizers, paints, synthetic and explosives.

Indian coal is mostly associated with Gondwana series of rocks and is primarily found in Peninsular India. The states of Jharkhand, odisha, West Bengal and Madhya Pradesh alone account for nearly 90% of coal reserves of the country. About 2% of India's coal is of tertiary type and is found mostly in Assam and Jammu & Kashmir.

Jharkhand is the largest coal producing state in the country followed by odisha, Chhattisgarh, West Bengal, Madhya Pradesh, Andhra Pradesh and Maharashtra. The major coal fields of Jharkhand are Bokaro, North Karanpura, South Karanpura, Giridih, Ramgarh, Daltongunj and Rajmahal. Talcher and Ranapur in Odisha, Korba and Chirmiri in Chhattisgarh, Umaria and Singrauli in Madhya pradesh, Tandur, Singareni, Kothagudem and Ramagundam in

Coal India Limited (CIL) is an Indian state-controlled coal mining company headquartered in Kolkata, West Bengal, its field offices are located at Dhanbad, Ranchi, Bilaspur, Nagpur, Sambalpur, Kothagudam and Asansol. It is the largest coal-producing company in the world.

Andhra Pradesh, Wardha, Ballarpur, Chanda and Kampati in Maharastra and, Raniganj, Asansol and Mejia in West Bengal are the other major coal fields of India.

Indian lignite (brown coal) deposits occur in the southern and western parts of Peninsular India particularly in Tamil nadu, Pudhucherry and Kerala.

The Ministry of coal has over all responsibility of determining policies and strategies in respect of exploration and development of coal resource in India. Coal India Limited (CIL), NLC India Limited (NLCIL) and Singareni Collieries Company limited (SCCL) are its public sector under takings.

b) Petroleum (or) Crude oil

The word petroleum has been derived from two Latin words petro (meaning – Rock) and oleum (meaning oil). Thus petroleum is oil obtained from rocks of the earth. Therefore, it is also called mineral oil. Petroleum is an inflammable liquid that is composed of hydrocarbons which constitute 90-95% of petroleum and the remaining is chiefly organic compounds containing oxygen, nitrogen, sulphur and traces of organ metallic compounds.

Petroleum is used as a source of power and fuel for automobiles, aeroplanes, ships and locomotives. Lubricants, kerosene, vaseline, tar, soap, terylene and wax are its by products. Oil in India is obtained from both from on-shore and off-shore areas.

The Ministry of Petroleum and Natural Gas (MOP&NG) is a ministry of the Government of India. It is responsible for the exploration, production, refining, distribution, marketing, import, export, and conservation of petroleum, natural gas, petroleum products, and liquefied natural gas in India.

Crude oil and Natural Gas Production in percentage
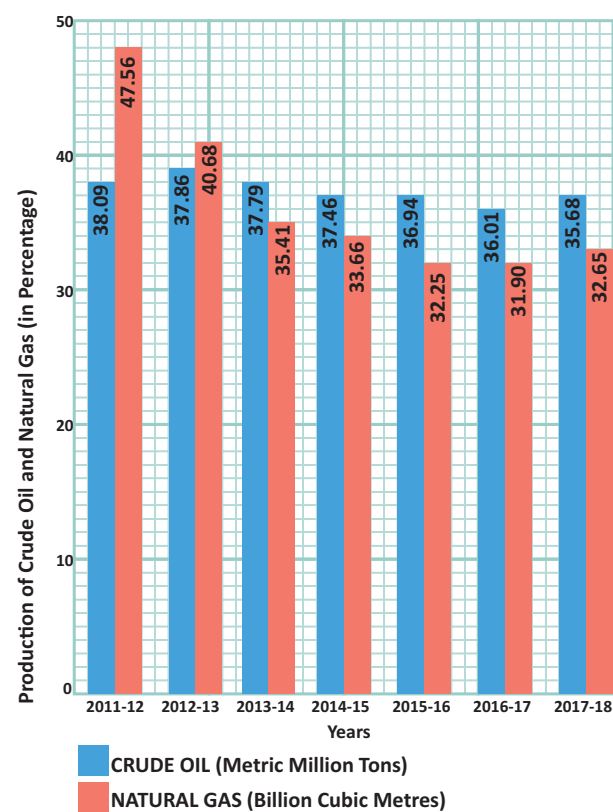
As of 2017, the total estimated crude oil reserves of the country is 604.10 million tons. From this, 324.24 million tons (54%) are found in onshore and 279.86 million tonnes (46%) are in offshore areas.

The production of crude oil fluctuates from year to year from 2011-12 to 2017-18 but only with marginal variations. The change is invariably in negative. In natural gas production also the trend is negative except the last year. The change is high in the first three years and it is low to moderate in the remaining years.

India - Oil refinery

Western coast offshore oil fields	Eastern coast offshore Fields
1. Mumbai high oil fields (largest 65%)	Bharmaputra valley (Dibrugarh and Sibsagar districts of upper Assam.)
2. Gujarat coast (2nd largest)	Digboi oil feilds (oldest fields in country)
3. Basseim oil feild, south of Mumbai high	Nahoratiya oil fields (south west of digboi)
4. Aliabet oil feild, south of Bhavanagar	Moran-Hugrijan oil field (Southwest of Nahoratiya)
5. Ankleshwar	Rudrasagar-Lawa oil feilds (sibsagar districs of assam)
6. Cambay-Luni Region	Surrma valley (Badarpur, Masimpur, Patharia)
7. Ahemedabad-Kalol Region	offshore of Andaman and Nicobar, Gulf of mannar, Baleshwar coast, Punjab, Haryana and Uttar Pradesh.

c) Natural Gas

Natural gas usually accompanies the petroleum accumulations. It is naturally occurring hydro carbon gas mixture consisting primarily of methane, but commonly includes varying amounts of other higher alkanes and sometimes a small percentage of carbon dioxide, nitrogen and hydrogen sulphides. It is formed when layers of decomposed plants and animals are exposed to intense heat and pressure over thousands of years. It is used as a source of energy for heating, cooking and electricity generation. It is also used as fuel for vehicles and as a chemical feedstock in the manufacture of plastics and other commercially important organic chemicals.

India has a very large proportion of tertiary rock and alluvial deposits

Gail (India) Limited (GAIL) (formerly known as Gas Authority of India Limited) is the largest state-owned natural gas processing and distribution company in India. It is headquartered in New Delhi. It has the following business segments: natural gas, liquid hydrocarbon, liquefied petroleum gas transmission, petrochemical, city gas distribution, exploration and production, GAILTEL and electricity generation.

NON-RENEWABLE RESOURCES OF INDIA

Not to Scale

NUCLEAR   PETROLEUM

GAS   COAL

particularly in the extra peninsular India. These sedimentary rocks, which were once under the shallow seas, hold the possibility of harbouring oil and gas deposits. The highest concentration of natural gas is found in the Bombay high and basseim oil fields. Jagatia and Gogha in Gujarat, Nahorkatiya and Moran in Assam, Neypaltur, Mangmadam in Thanjavur district in Tamil nadu, Baranura and Atharnure ranges in Tripura, Barmer and Charaswala in Rajasthan, Miao Pung and Laptang areas in Arunachal Pradesh, Firozpur district in Punjab, Mausar and Maradpur areas in Jammu and Kashmir and Medinipur in West Bengal are the other areas where natural gas reserves have been discovered.

The Gas Authority of India Ltd [GAIL] is doing pioneer work in the field of natural gas exploration. Discovery of gas made rapid strides in the 1985. Oil strikes at Cauvery offshore, at Nanda in Cambay basin and Tarot in Jaisalmer basin in Rajasthan were major discoveries during 1988-89. Recently, it has been found that Krishna- Godavari delta has reserves of Natural gas.

Compressed natural gas (CNG) (methane stored at high pressure) is a fuel which can be used in place of gasoline, diesel fuel and propane/LPG. In comparison to other fuels, natural gas poses less of a threat in the event of a spill, because it is lighter than air and disperses quickly when released. Biomethane – cleaned-up biogas from anaerobic digestion or landfills – can be used. Natural gas vehicles are increasingly used in Delhi, Ahmedabad, Mumbai, Pune, Kolkata Lucknow, Kanpur, Varanasi, etc.

4.2.2 Conventional Energy Sources

a) Thermal power

Thermal power is generated using fossil fuels like coal, diesel, petroleum and Natural gas. National Thermal Power Corporation [NTPC] was established in 1975. At present NTPC has 13 coal based super thermal power projects and 7 gas / liquid fuel based combined cycle projects in the states of Assam, Bihar, Jharkhand, Chhattisgarh, Mizoram and West Bengal. It accounts for over 90% of the installed capacity. Tamil nadu produces about 5% of the total thermal electricity produced in India. Neyveli, Mettur, Thoothukudi and Ennore (Chennai) are the important thermal power stations in Tamil nadu.

b) Nuclear power

The energy released during nuclear fission or fusion is used to generate electricity.

Nuclear energy is generated mainly from the minerals of Uranium and Thorium. Nuclear power programme in India was initiated in 1940's when 'Tata Atomic research commission was incorporated in August 1948. The first nuclear power station was setup at Tarapur near Mumbai in 1969 with the capacity of 320 mw. Later atomic reactors were installed at Rawatbhata (335 MW), near Kota in Rajasthan (100 MW), Kalpakkam (440 MW) and Kudankulam (2,000 MW) in Tamil nadu and Narora (235 MW) in Uttar Pradesh, Kaiga in (235 MW) in Karnataka and Kakarapara (235 MW) in Gujarat.

The Nuclear Power Corporation of India Limited (NPCIL) is an Indian public sector undertaking based in Mumbai, Maharashtra. It is wholly owned by the Government of India and is responsible for the generation of nuclear power for electricity. NPCIL is administered by the Department of Atomic Energy (DAE) is responsible for designing, constructing and operating the nuclear power stations in India.

4.2.3 Renewable or Non-Conventional Energy Resources

a) Hydro power

Power generated from water is termed as hydroelectricity. Hydro power is the energy harnessed from running water. Hydro power is considered as one of the most economic and non-polluting sources of energy. It contributes nearly 7% of global electricity production. The cost of production of hydroelectricity is relatively low, making it a competitive source of renewable energy. It is also a flexible mode of power generation as the quantity of production can either be increased or decreased very quickly adapting to changing demands.

> NHPC Limited (National Hydroelectric Power Corporation) is located in Faridabad, India

India is fortunate to have a large potential of hydro- power potential. It is quite unevenly distributed in India. Of the total hydro-electric potential of the country, rivers of Assam, Arunachal Pradesh, Manipur, Nagaland and Tripura account for 30.4%, eastward flowing rivers of the peninsular India 20.9%, westward flowing rivers of the western Ghats (South of the Tapti) 10.5%, the Ganga Basin (excluding the potential of Nepal) 11.7%, the Indus Basin 16.0% and the rivers of central India 10.5%.

> **DO YOU KNOW?** The first hydro-electric power station in India was established at "Darjeeling" in 1897.

b) Solar Energy

Solar Power is the conversion of sunlight into electricity, either directly using photovoltaics (PV) or indirectly using concentrated solar power (CSP). Concentrated

RENEWABLE RESOURCES OF INDIA

Not to Scale

WIND THERMAL
SOLAR TIDAL & WAVE
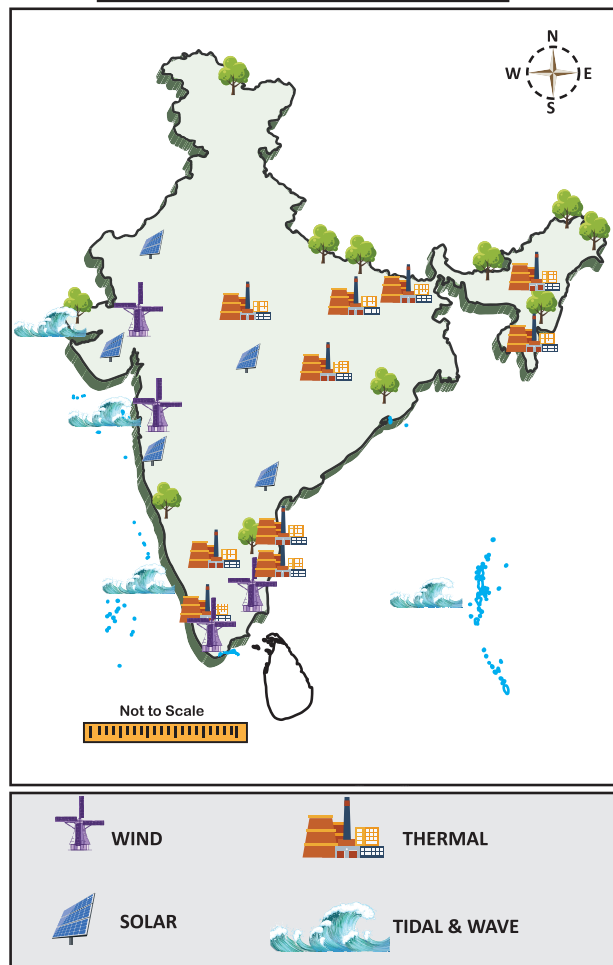
solar power systems use lenses or mirrors and tracking system to focus a large area of sunlight into a small beam. Photovoltaics convert light into an electric current using the photovoltaic effect.

> **Solar Energy Corporation of India Limited**
>
> (A Government of India Enterprise) head quarter is located at New Delhi.
>
> सेकी SECI
> सूर्य सदैव SUN FOR EVER

The mass objectives of the solar thermal energy programme, being implemented by the Ministry of Non-Conventional Energy Source (MNES) are market development,

commercialisation and utilisation of heat energy requirement of different applications in domestic, institutional and industrial sectors. Solar power is used in water heaters, refrigerators, drying, street lighting, cooking, pumping, power generator, photovoltaic cells, salon parts etc. Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat, Rajasthan, Maharashtra and Madhya Pradesh are the major solar power producers.

c) Wind Energy

Wind energy is extracted from air flow using wind turbines. It is a cheap and pollution free source of energy. Power from wind mills are used for pumping water and to sail propel ships. Wind power is plentiful, renewable, widely distributed, clean and produces no greenhouse gas emissions during operation. These plants occupy only a less space.

> **DO YOU KNOW?** Tamil nadu has the largest installation of wind turbines in the country in the Muppandal-Perungudi area near Kanniyakumari is the largest concentrations of wind farm capacity at a single location in the world.

The development of wind power in India began in 1986 with first wind farms were set up in coastal areas of Gujarat (Okha), Maharashtra (Ratnagiri) and Tamil nadu (Thoothukudi) with 55 KW Vestas wind turbines. The capacity has significantly increased in the last few years. India has the fourth largest installed wind power capacity in the world.

> The National Institute of Wind Energy (NIWE), Chennai was established in Tamil Nadu in 1998 as an autonomous institution under the administrative control of the Ministry of New and Renewable
>
> **NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF WIND ENERGY**
>
> **नीवे NIWE**
> (ISO 9001:2008)
>
> Energy. CIWE main activities include resource assessment and testing & certification.

d) Biomass Energy

Bio energy may be obtained through bio-degradable materials like animal dung, kitchen wastes, water hyacinth, agricultural residues and city wastes etc. It is clean and cheap source of energy. India has a potential of about 18 GW of energy from Biomass. Currently, about 32% of total primary energy used in India is derived from Biomass. Energy derived from biomass is mostly used for domestic purposes.

e) Tidal and wave Energy

There are two main sources of ocean energy. They are Ocean tides and Ocean waves. It is estimated that India possesses 8,000-9,000 MW of tidal energy potential. The Gulf of Cambay is the best suited area with about 7,000 mw potential of tidal energy. This is followed by Gulf of Kachch (1,000MW) and sunderbans (100MW). At present a 900mw tidal power plant is proposed to be set up in the Gulf of Kachch region.

Wave energy potential in India is estimated to be 40,000 MW. An wave energy power plant of 150 KW(maximum) has been installed at vizhinjam near Thiruvananthapuram. An another plant of this kind has been set up near Andaman& Nicobar Islands.

4.3 Industries

It refers to the activities which converts the raw materials into finished products. This sector is called as the value addition sector. On the basis of the source of raw materials, Industries are classified into the Agro based industries, Forest based industries and Mineral based industries.

4.3.1 Agro based industries

These industries draw their raw materials from agricultural sector. The following part discusses the agro based industries in India.

a) Cotton Textile Industry

Textile is a broad term which includes cotton, jute, wool, silk and synthetic fibre textiles. This sector in India with 3400 textiles

mills with installed capacity of more than 50 million spindles and 842000 rotors is the second largest in the world.
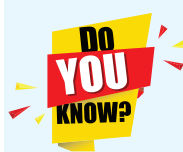
Traditional sectors like hand loom, handicrafts and small power-loom units are the biggest source of employment for millions of people in rural and semi urban areas. The cotton textile industries contribute about 7% of industrial output, 2% of India's GDP and 15% of the country's export earnings. It is one of the largest sources of employment generation in the country. With over 45 million employees, the total employment in this industry is well over 25million worker. At present there are 1,719 textiles mills in the country. Out of which 188 mills are in public sector, 147 in cooperative sector and 1,284 in private sector.

Currently, India is the third largest producer of cotton and has the largest loom arc and ring spindles in the world. At present, cotton textile industry is the largest organized modern industry of India. About 16% of the industrial capital, 14% of industrial production and over 20% of the industrial labour of the country are engaged in this industry.

Ginning is the process of cotton fiber is separated from the cotton seed.

The higher concentration of textile mills in and around Mumbai, makes it as "**Manchester of India**". Presence of black cotton soil in Maharastra, humid climate, presence of Mumbai port, availability of hydro power, good market and well developed transport facility favour the cotton textile industries in Mumbai.

The major cotton textile industries are concentrated in the states of Maharashtra, Gujarat, West Bengal, Uttar Pradesh and Tamil nadu. Coimbatore is the most important centre in Tamil nadu with 200 mills out of its 435 and called as "**Manchester of South India**". Erode, Tirupur, Karur, Chennai, Thirunelveli, Madurai, Thoothukudi, Salem and Virudhunagar are the other major cotton textiles centres in the state.
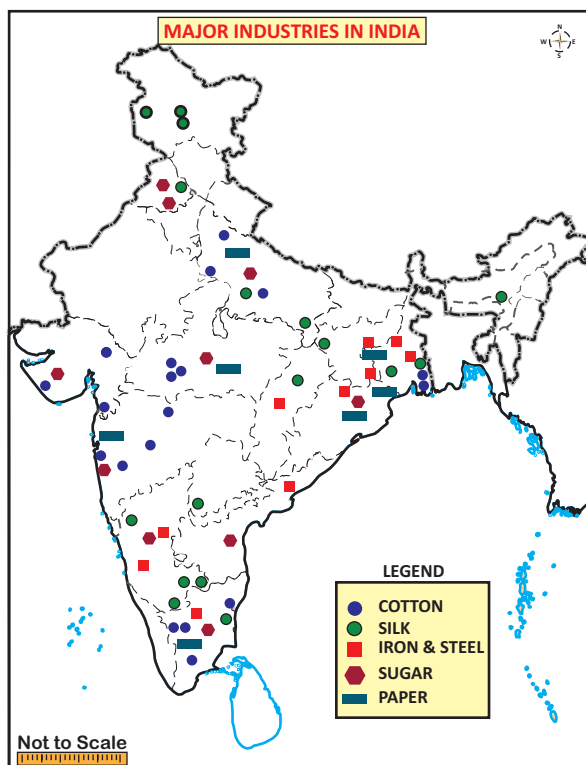
b) Jute Textiles

Jute is a low priced fibre used mainly for making package materials like gunny bags. Today jute is blended with cotton and wool to produce textiles. India is the largest producer of jute goods contributing 35% of the world's total output. This is the second important textile industry in India after cotton textiles. Jute is the golden fibre which meets all the standards of goods packing with its natural, renewable, bio degradable and eco-friendly products.
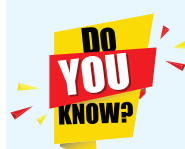
National jute board is headquarter at Kolkata. **NATIONAL JUTE BOARD**

The first jute mill in India was established at Rishra near, Kolkata in 1854 by the English man George Auckland. India tops in the production of raw jute and jute goods and second in the export of jute goods next to Bangladesh. Jute production includes gunny bags, canvas, pack sheets, jute web, carpets, cordage, hessians and twines. Now jute is also being used in plastic furniture and insulation bleached fibres to blend with wool. It is also mixed with cotton to make carpet and blankets. The major jute producing areas are in West Bengal and concentrated along the Hooghly river within the radius of six kilometre of Kolkata. Titagarh, Jagatdat, Budge-

MAJOR INDUSTRIES IN INDIA

LEGEND
- COTTON
- SILK
- IRON & STEEL
- SUGAR
- PAPER

Not to Scale

next only to China. Sericulture is a labour intensive industvry and provides employment to 7.56 million people make to weaker and marginalised sections of society.

SILK MARK

Karnataka is the largest producer of silk with an average of 8200 metric tons every year which is about one third of the total silk production of India. Other major producers of silk are West Bengal, Jammu Kashmir, Bihar, Jharkhand, Chhattisgarh, Uttar Pradesh, Punjab, Assam and Tamil nadu states. India exports exclusively silk fabrics, silk scarves, dress material and sarees. It exports to the principal countries like Europe, U.S.A, U.K, Russia, Saudi Arabia, Kuwait and Singapore.

Budge, Haora and Bhadreshwar are the chief centres of jute industry. Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Assam, Chhattisgarh and Odisha are the other jute goods producing areas.

DO YOU KNOW? The first attempt to produce iron and steel unit was set up at Porto Novo in Tamil nadu in 1830.
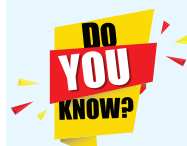
DO YOU KNOW? Development Commissioner for Handlooms was set up as an attached non-participating office on 20th November, 1975 under the Ministry of Commerce. At present it is functioning under the Ministry of Textiles having headquarters at Udyog Bhawan, New Delhi.

INDIA HANDLOOM

c) Silk Industry

CSTRI is the only research institute in the country dedicated to the Research & Developmental activities related to silk technology. CSTRI was established in the year 1983 by the Central Silk Board, Ministry of Textiles, Govt. of India having head quarter at Bangalore

CENTRAL SILK BOARD, INDIA

India has been well known for the production of silk. Since the ancient times, India is the second largest producer of raw silk

d) Sugar Industry

Sugar can be produced from sugar cane, sugar-beets or any other crop which have sugar content. In India, sugar cane is the main source of sugar. At present this is the second largest agro based industry of India after cotton textiles. India is the world's second largest producer of sugar cane after Brazil. This industry provides employment to 2.86 lakh workers. Sugar industry is decentralized and located near the sugarcane growing areas as they are weight loosing and bulky to transport.

Uttar Pradesh is the largest producer of sugar, producing about 50% of the country's

total. Other major producers are Maharashtra, Uttar Pradesh, Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh, Tamil nadu, Bihar, Punjab, Gujarat, Haryana and Madhya Pradesh states. These states account for more than 90% of the sugar mills and sugar production.

4.3.2 Forest based industries

Forest provide us with different types of material which are used as raw material for certain industries like paper, lac, sports goods, plywood etc.

a) Paper industry

Paper Industry has emerged as a diversified and specialized industry in India that produces numerous types of papers that comes in various use such as sheet paper, paper boxes, tissues, paper bags, stationery, envelopes and printed-paper products such as books, periodicals, and newspapers. In India the Soft wood is the principal raw material used for making paper especially newsprint and high class printing papers. Paper is the pre-requisite for education and literacy and its use is an index of advancement in these two fields as well as the overall well being of the society.

Paper Industry in India

DO YOU KNOW? The first paper mill of India was started in 1812 at Serampore in West Bengal.

The first successful effort was made in 1867 with the setting up of the Royal Bengal paper mills at Ballyganj near Kolkata. Subsequent successful efforts were made at Lucknow in 1879, Titagarh in 1882, Pune in 1887, Raniganj in 1892, Kankinra in 1892 and Naihati in 1918. The raw materials for paper industry includes wood pulp, bamboo, salai and sabai grasses, waste paper and bagasse. West Bengal is the largest producer of paper in the country followed by Madhya Pradesh, Odisha and Tamil nadu states.

DO YOU KNOW? National Newsprint and Paper Mills (NEPA) is at Nepanagar in Burhanpur District of Madhya Pradesh.

4.3.3 Mineral based industries

Mineral based industries use both metallic & non metallic minerals as raw materials. The major mineral based industry of country is the iron steel industry

a) Iron and steel industries

Iron and steel industry is called a basic metallurgical industry as its finished product is used as raw material by host of other industries. Several industries like engineering, heavy machines and machine tools, automobile, locomotives and railway equipment industries use iron and steel as their primary raw material. Due to this, the steel producing capacity of a country is generally taken as an indicator of its level of industrial development.

DO YOU KNOW? Chennai is nicknamed as the "Detroit of Asia" due to the presence of major automobile manufacturing units and allied industries around the city.

The modernization of the industry was started in 1907 with the establishment of Tata Iron and Steel Company at Sakchi, now called Jamshedpur. Iron and steel industry of India is mainly concentrated in the states of Jharkhand,

S.No	Name of Industry	Place	Establishment Year	Product
1	Tata Iron and Steel Company(TISCO)	Jamshedpur, Jharkhand	1911	Pig Iron
2	Indian Iron and Steel Company (IISCO)	Burnpur,Hirapur, Kulti, West Bengal	1972	Pig Iron & Crude steel
3	Visweshwaraya Iron Steel Ltd(VISL)	Bhadravati,Karnataka	1923	Alloy and Sponge steel
4	Hisdustan Steel Ltd (HSL) Collaborated with Russia	Bhilai, Chattisgarh	1957	Railway Equipments and Ship Building
5	Hindustan Steel Ltd(HSL) Collaborated with Germany	Rourkela,Odisha	1965	Hot and Cold rolled sheets, Galvanized sheets and electrical plates
6	Hindustal Steel Ltd(HSL) Collaborated with United kingdom	Durgapur,West Bengal	1959	Alloy steel, Construction materials and railway equipments
7	Hisdustan Steel Ltd(HSL) Collaborated with Russia	Bokaro, Jharkhand	1972	Sludge and Slog
8	Salem Steel Ltd	Salem, Tamil Nadu	1982	Stainless Steel
9	Vijayanagar Steel Plant	Tornagal,Karnataka	1994	Flat steel and Long Steel
10	Visakhapatnam Steel Plant(VSP)	Visakhapatnam, Andhra Pradesh	1981	Hot Metal

West Bengal and Odisha. Proximity to the coal fields of Jharia, Raniganj, Bokaro and Karanpura and the iron ore mines of Mayurbhanj, Keonjar and Brona are responsible for this. This area also has sufficient deposits of limestone, dolomite, manganese, silicon and dolomite which are required for the industry.

4.3.4 Automobile Industry

India is set to emerge not only as a large domestic market for automobile manufacturers, but also as a crucial link in the global automotive chain. It is one of the most dynamic industrial groups in India.
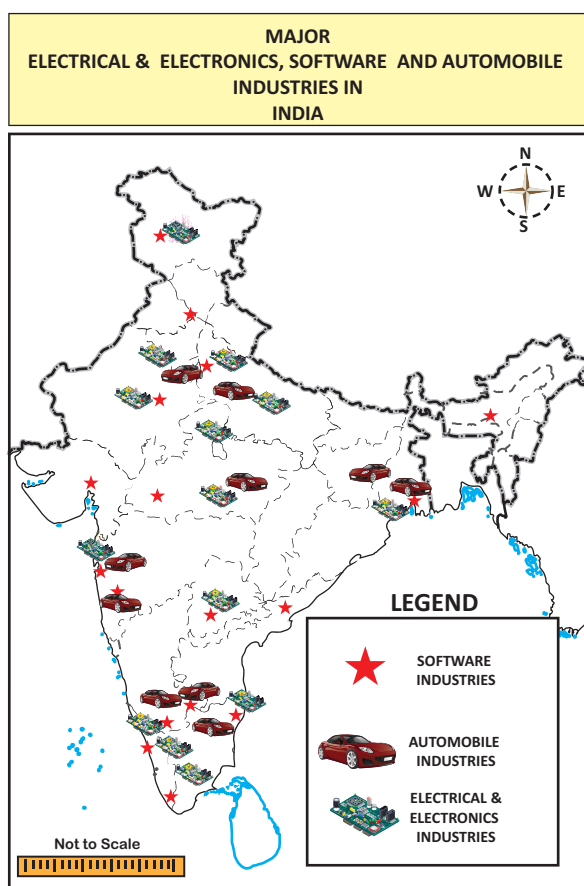
The first automobile industry of India was started in 1947. The industry is the Premier Automobiles Ltd located at Kurla (Mumbai). It was followed by the Hindustan Motors Ltd at Uttarpara (Kolkata) in 1948. At present, India is the 7th largest producer of automobile

manufacturers which include two wheelers, commercial vehicles, passenger car, jeep, scooty, scooters, motor cycles, mopeds and three wheelers. Major centres are at Mumbai, Chennai, Jamshedpur, Jabalpur, Kolkata, Pune, New Delhi, Kanpur, Bengaluru, Sadara, Lucknow and Mysuru.

DO YOU KNOW? Make in India program was launched in 2014 to put India on the world map as a major hub for global design and manufacturing.

Tata Motors, Maruti Suzuki, Mahindra & Mahindra and Hindustan Motors are the largest passenger car manufacturers of Indian companies in the country. Presence of foreign car companies such as Mercedes Benz, Fiat, General Motors, Toyota and the recent entry

Resources and Industries

MAJOR ELECTRICAL & ELECTRONICS, SOFTWARE AND AUTOMOBILE INDUSTRIES IN INDIA

LEGEND

★ SOFTWARE INDUSTRIES

AUTOMOBILE INDUSTRIES

ELECTRICAL & ELECTRONICS INDUSTRIES

Not to Scale

of passenger car manufacturers BMW, Audi, Volkswagen and Volvo makes the Indian automobile sector a special one. Tata Motors, Ashok Leyland, Eicher Motors, Mahindra & Mahindra and Ford Motors are the major Indian companies which manfacture commercial vehicles. MAN, ITEC, Mercedes-Benz, Scania and Hyundai are the foreign companies engage in the manfacture of commercial vehicles. Two-wheeler manufacturing is dominated by Indian companies like Hero, Bajaj Auto and TVS.

The automobile industries are found in four clusters viz; Delhi, Gurgaon and Manesar in North India, Pune, Nasik, Halol and Aurangabad in West India, Chennai, Bengaluru and Hosur in South India and Jamshedpur and Kolkata in East India.

4.3.5 Electrical and Electronic Industries

Heavy electrical industries manufacture equipment used for power generation, transmission and utilization. Turbines for steam and hydro power plants, boilers

for thermal power plants, generators, transformers, switch gears etc. are the chief products of this industry. The most important company in the field of heavy electrical is Bharat Heavy Electricals Ltd (BHEL). It has its plants at Hardwar, Bhopal, Hyderabad, Jammu, Bengaluru, Jhansi and Tiruchirappalli. This Industry covers a wide range of products including television sets, transistor sets, telephone exchanges, cellular telegram, computers and varied equipments for post and railway, defence and meteorological department.

Bengaluru is the largest producer of electronic goods in India, hence it is called as the "Electronic Capital of India". The other major producers of electronic goods centers are Hyderabad, Delhi, Mumbai, Chennai, Kolkata, Kanpur, Pune, Lucknow, Jaipur and Coimbatore.

4.3.6 Software Industry

India is home to some of the finest software companies in the world. The software companies in India are reputed across the globe for their efficient IT and business related solutions. The Indian Software Industry has brought about a tremendous success for the emerging economy.

Tidel Park, Chennai

In India, software industry began in 1970 with the entry of Tata Consultancy

Services (TCS). Along with this, L & T, Infotech, i-Flex, Accenture, Cognizant, GalexE Solutions India Pvt Ltd and ITC Infotech are the major software industries in the country. At present, there are more than 500 software companies all over India. It exports software service to nearly 95 countries in the world.

The main centres of IT parks are located in Chennai, Coimbatore, Thiruvananthapuram, Bengaluru, Mysuru, Hyderabad, Visakhapatnam, Mumbai, Pune, Indore, Gandhi Nagar, Jaipur, Noida, Mohali and Srinagar.

4.3.7 Major challenges of Indian Industries

Industries in India face many problems. Some major problems are listed below.

- Shortage and fluctuation in Power Supply.
- Non- availability of large blocks of land.
- Poor access to credit.
- High rate of interest for borrowed loan.
- Non- availability of cheap labourers.
- Lack of technical and vocational training for employees.
- Inappropriate living conditions nearby industrial estates.

Challenges of Indian Industries

Recap

- Natural resource - raw materials obtained naturally from the earth.
- Renewable resource – the resources that can be replenished.
- Non renewable resource - the energy that cannot be replenished easily.
- Agro based industry – the industries that depend on agriculture for their raw materials.
- Mineral based industries – the industries that use minerals as raw materials.
- Forest based industries – the industries run with the help of forest products.

A-Z GLOSSARY

Biogas: The production of methane and carbon- di- oxide from plants and animal wastes.

Fossil fuel: Any naturally occurring carbon or hydrocarbon coal, oil and natural gas.

Ore: It is a deposit in the earth crust with one or more value minerals

Solar power: Heat radiation from the sun converted into electricity.

Thermal power station: An electricity generating plants which burns coal or oil.

EXERCISE

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. Manganese is used in_____.
   a) Storage batteries
   b) Steel Making
   c) Copper smelting
   d) Petroleum Refining

2. The Anthracite coal has _____.
   a) 80 to 95% Carbon
   b) Above 70% Carbon
   c) 60 to 7% Carbon
   d) Below 50% Carbon

3. The most important constituents of petroleum are hydrogen and
   a) Oxygen   b) Water
   c) Carbon   d) Nitrogen

4. The city which is called as the Manchester of South India is
   a) Chennai   b) Salem
   c) Madurai   d) Coimbatore

5. The first Jute mill of India was established at
   a) Kolkata   b) Mumbai
   c) Ahmedabad   d) Baroda

6. The first Nuclear Power station was commissioned in
   a) Gujarat   b) Rajasthan
   c) Maharashtra   d) Tamil nadu

7. The most abundant source of energy is
   a) Bio mass   b) Sun
   c) Coal   d) Oil

8. The famous Sindri Fertilizer Plant is located in
   a) Jharkhand   b) Bihar
   c) Rajasthan   d) Assam

9. The nucleus for the development of the chotanagpur plateau region is
   a) Transport
   b) Mineral Deposits
   c) Large demand
   d) Power Availability

10. One of the shore based steel plants of India is located at _____.
    a) Kolkata   b) Tuticorin
    c) Goa   d) Visakhapatnam

II. Match the following.

1.
a.	Bauxite	1)	Cement
b.	Gypsum	2)	Aircraft
c.	Black Gold	3)	Electrical goods
d.	Iron ore	4)	Coal
e.	Mica	5)	Magnetite

2.
a.	Detroit of India	1)	Gujarat
b.	Thermal power plant	2)	Thiruvananthapuram
c.	Wind farm	3)	Andhra Pradesh
d.	Tidal energy	4)	1975
e.	Solar power	5)	Chennai

III. Answer the following Questions briefly.

1. Define the resource and state its types.
2. Name the states that lead in the production of Iron ore in India.
3. What are the minerals and its types?
4. State the uses of magnesium.
5. What is natural gas?
6. Name the different types of coal with their carbon content.
7. Mention the major areas of jute production in India.
8. Name the important oil producing regions of India.

IV. Distinguish between.

1. Renewable and non-renewable resources.
2. Metallic and non-metallic minerals.
3. Agro based industry and mineral based industry.
4. Jute industry and sugar industry.
5. Conventional energy and non- conventional energy.

V. Answer the following in a paragraph.

1. Write about the distribution of cotton textile industries in India.
2. Explain the factors responsible for the concentration of jute industries in the hoogly region.
3. Write an account on the major iron and steel industries of India.

VI. On the outline map of India mark the following.

1. Iron ore production centres.
2. Centres of Petroleum and Natural Gas production.
3. Coal mining centres.
4. Areas of cultivation of cotton.
5. Iron and Steel industries.

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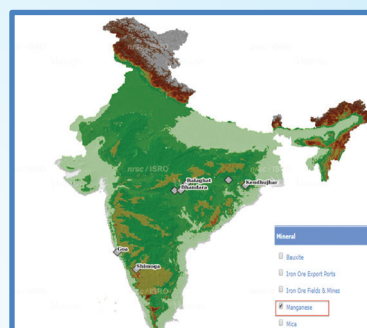
Steps

- Open the Browser and type the URL given below (or) Scan the QR Code.
- Scroll Down and click on 'Explore'
- Click on **'Thematic Serious 2'** in top menuandSelect **'Mineral'**

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B376_10_SOCIAL_EM

Unit - 5

India - Population, Transport, Communication & Trade

Learning Objectives

- To study the levels of urbanization and its impacts in India.
- To know about the Human Development in India.
- To learn the transport systems of India.
- To understand the communication system of India.
- To assess the nature of trade in India.

Introduction

The study on human population is one of the most important aspects in geography of any region. The human population has many components but the most fundamental are its number, composition, distribution and density. Therefore, it is essential to study these components. The study on these aspects also would reveal the workforce of the country.

The population of India as per 2011 census is 1,210.19 million (1,21,01,93,422). It shows an increase of 19.31crores from the population of 2001. Population Census of India provides the detailed information about the demography of India. Along with population, we will study about the transport and communication of India in this chapter.

5.1 Population

The total number of people residing in a country at a specified period of time is called the **'Population'** of that country. India is the second most populous country in the world next only to china. India covers only 2.4 percent of the land area of the world, but is the home of about 17.5 percent of the world's population. It shows that the proportion of population of India is far higher than the proportion of its area. Thus, a little more than one out of every six persons in the world is from India. Our population is almost equal to the combined population of the USA, Indonesia, Brazil, Pakistan, Bangladesh and Japan and total population of these six countries is 1214.3 million.

5.1.1 Census

Population census is the total process of collecting, compiling, analysing or otherwise disseminating demographic, economic and social data pertaining, at a specific time, of all persons in a country or a well-defined part of a country. It happens in an interval of ten years. The data collected through the census are used for administration, planning, policy making as well as management and evaluation of various programmes by the government.

5.1.2 Distribution and Density of Population

The term **'Population Distribution'** refers to the way the people are spaced over the earth's surface. The distribution of population in India is quite uneven because of the vast variation in the availability of resources. Population is mostly concentrated in the regions of industrial centres and the good agricultural lands. On the other hand, the areas such as high mountains, arid lands, thickly forested areas and some remote corners are very thinly populated and some areas are even uninhabited. Terrain, climate, soil, water bodies, mineral resources, industries, transport and urbanization are the major factors which affect the distribution of population in our country.
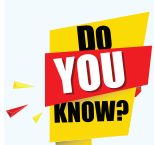
DO YOU KNOW?
In India the first census was carried out in the year 1872. But the first complete and synchronous census was conducted in 1881. And the 2011 census represents the fifteenth census of India.

Uttar Pradesh is the most populous state in the country with a population of 199.5 million followed by Maharashtra (112.3 million), Bihar (103.8 million) West Bengal (91.3 million) and the combined Andhra Pradesh (84.6 million). These five states account for about half of the country's population. More than one fourth of the population live only in the two states of U.P and Maharashtra. Sikkim is the least populous state of India(0.61 million). Delhi with 16.75 million population tops among the Union territories.

The uneven distribution of population in the country is the result of several factors such as physical, socio-economic and historical ones. The physical factors include relief, climate, water, natural vegetation, minerals and energy resources. Socio-economic factors consists of the religion, culture, political issues, economy, human settlements, transport network, industrialization, urbanization, employment opportunity etc.

Hots

What could be the reasons for uneven distribution of population in India?

5.1.3 Density of population

Population density is a better measure of understanding the variation in distribution of population. It is expressed as number of persons per unit area usually per sq km. According to 2011, the average density of population of India is 382 persons per sq.km. India is one of the most thickly populated ten countries of the world. The most densely populated state of India is Bihar and the state with least population density is Arunachal Pradesh. Among the union territories, Delhi is the densely populated one with 11,297 per sq.km, while Andaman and Nicobar Islands have the lowest density of population.

Hots

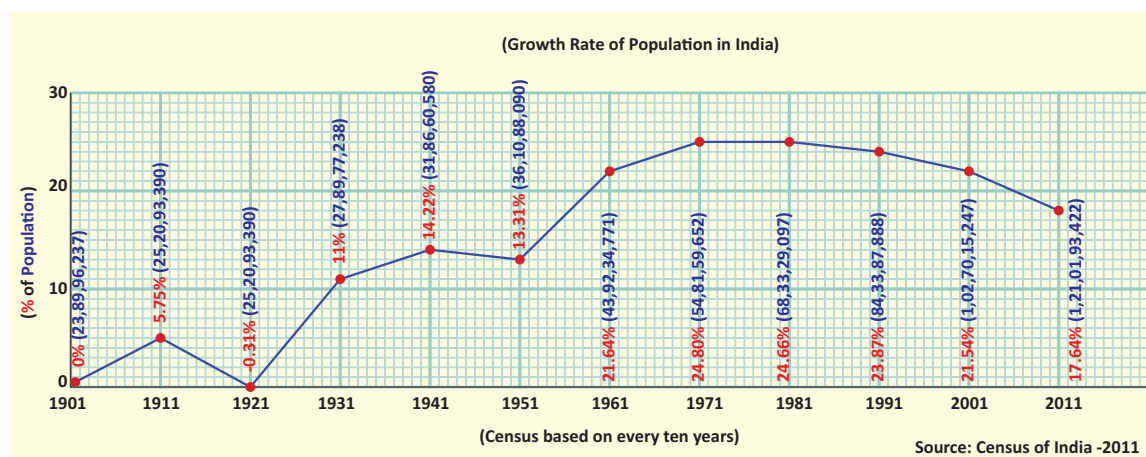What are the reasons for the rapid growth of population in India?

Spatial pattern of population Density	
Density	Places
Very Low Density (less than 150 persons per sq.km)	Arunachal Pradesh (17), Andaman and Nicobar Islands (46), Mizoram (52), Sikkim (86) Nagaland (120), Manipur (122), Himachal Pradesh (123), Jammu and Kashmir (124) and Meghalaya (132)
Low Density (150 to 300 persons per sq.km)	Arunachal Pradesh (17), Andaman and Nicobar Islands (46), Mizoram (52), Sikkim (86) Nagaland (120), Manipur (122), Himachal Pradesh (123), Jammu and Kashmir (124) and Meghalaya (132)
Moderate Density (300 to 500 persons per sq.km.)	Gujarat (308), The combined Andhra Pradesh (308), Karnataka (319), Tripura (350), Maharashtra (365), Goa (394), Assam (397) and Jharkhand (414) are the states with moderate population density. Assam has tea estates, Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka and Jharkhand
High Density (500 to 1000 persons per sq km.)	Punjab (550), Tamil Nadu (555), Haryana (573), Uttar Pradesh (828) and Kerala (859) The union territory of Dadra and Nagar Haveli(698)
Very High Density (greater than 1000 persons per sq km)	West Bengal (1029), Bihar (1102), Lakshadweep (2013), Daman and Diu (2169), Puducherry (2598), Chandigarh (9252) and Delhi (11,297).

5.1.4 Population Growth and Change

The growth rate of population is an important demographic feature. It not only helps in understanding the population change that a society has undergone in the past but also helps in predicting the future demographic characteristics of an area. Population growth refers to the change in the number of inhabitants of a country/territory during a specified period of time. The growth of population is expressed in percentage and is described as the growth rate of population. The following table shows the decadal growth rate of population from 1901 to 2011.

Growth of population in India has gone through the different phases. Population of the country in 1901 was 238 million and it grew to 1,210 million over a period of little more than a century. The following are the different stages of population growth of India.

(Growth Rate of Population in India)

(% of Population)

0% (23,89,96,237)
5.75% (25,20,93,390)
-0.31% (25,20,93,390)
11% (27,89,77,238)
14.22% (31,86,60,580)
13.31% (36,10,88,090)
21.64% (43,92,34,771)
24.80% (54,81,59,652)
24.66% (68,33,29,097)
23.87% (84,33,87,888)
21.54% (1,02,70,15,247)
17.64% (1,21,01,93,422)

1901 1911 1921 1931 1941 1951 1961 1971 1981 1991 2001 2011

(Census based on every ten years)

Source: Census of India -2011

The Period of Stagnant Population (1901-1921): During the first phase of 20 years (1901-1921), the population of India grew by 15 million. The year 1921 registered a negative growth rate of -0.31% which happened only once throughout the demographic history of India and is called the year of Great Demographic Divide.

The Period of Steady Growth (1921-1951): During the second phase of 30 years (1921-1951), the population of India grew by 110 million.

The Period of Steady Growth (1951-1981): During the third phase (1951-1981), the population of India grew from 361 million in 1951 to 683 million in 1981. Growth rate in this period is almost doubled when compared to the previous phase of growth rate. This period is often referred to as the period of population explosion.

The period of High Growth with Definite Signs of Slowing Down (1981-2011): Population of India increased from 685 million to 1210 million during this phase. The growth rate of population decreased from one census to other. This marks the beginning of a new era in the demographic history of India.

Population change refers to an increase or decrease of population of an area from one period to another period. Population growth is influenced by the birth rate, death rate and migration. These three make the changes in population.

Birth rate refers to the number of live births per thousand people in a year and the Death rate refers to the number of deaths per thousand people in a year. The rapid decline in death rate is the major cause of the rapid growth of population in India.

5.2 Migration

It is the movement of people across regions and territories. It can be internal (within a country) or international (between the countries). Internal migration does not change the size of population of a country but it influences the distribution of population in a nation. It plays an important role in changing the composition and distribution of population. In India, the mass migration is from rural to urban. Unemployment and under employment in the rural areas are the push factors and the employment opportunity and higher wages in the urban areas caused by the industrial development are the pull factors of migration in the country. 45 out of 121 crores of people in India are reported to be migrants as per 2011 census. Migrants constitute about 37% of population. Migrants are 48% from female and 52% from male.

Activity

Collect the pictures and make an album of various types of migration.

5.2.1 Population composition

Population composition refers to the characteristics such as age, sex, marital status, caste, religion, language, education, occupation etc. The study of composition of population helps us to understand the social, economic and demographic structure of population.

5.2.2 Age composition

The age composition of population refers to the number of people in different age groups in a country. It is one of the most basic characteristics of a population. It helps us

India - Population, Transport, Communication & Trade

to understand the proportion of population in dependent and independent category. Population of a nation is generally grouped in to three broad categories. In India, the children who has less than 15 years of age constitute 29.5% and the people above 60 years constitute 8.0%. So, the dependent population in India is 37.5%and the independent population (16-59 yrs) is 62.5%. It shows that our country has enormous manpower.

5.2.3 Sex Ratio

Sex ratio is defined as the number of females per 1000 male population. This is an important social indicator to measure the extent of equality between males and females in a society at a given time.

> ### Hots
>
> The sex ratio in our country is always unfavourable to females. Give reasons.

According to 2011 census, the sex ratio of the country is 940 females per 1000 males. This suggests that the size of female population is lower than males. Only in the state of Kerala and the union territory of Puducherry the sex ratio is greater than 1000. It is 1084 in Kerala and 1038 in Puducherry. The lowest sex ratio is recorded in the union territory of Daman and Diu(618).

> **DO YOU KNOW?** The ratio between the economically active and economically inactive of population is termed as Dependency Ratio.

5.2.4 Literacy Rate

The people who are able to read and write are known as **literates**. It is an important indicator of quality of people. The percentage of literate people to the total population is termed as **literacy rate**. There has been a steady improvement in the literacy levels in India. India's literacy rate as per 2011 census

is 74.04%. From this, the literacy rate of male is 82.14% and the female is 65.46%. It shows that still there is a vast gap (16.68%) between the male and female literacy rates. Kerala ranks first in the country with a literacy rate of 93.91% followed by union territory Lakshadweep with 92.28%. The lowest literacy rate is found in Bihar (63.82 %).

5.2.5 Occupational structure

The economically active part of a country's population is enumerated during the census operations and stated as workers. Workers are placed under three fold categories in census record. They are main workers, marginal workers and non-workers. According to the Census of India, all those who had worked for the major part of the preceding year (at least 6 months or 183 days) are recorded as main workers. Those who worked for less than six months are recorded as marginal workers and the people who have not worked at all comes under non workers. Work participation rate denotes the percentage of total workers i.e., total main and marginal workers to the total population in an area. The work participation rate in India is 39.79% in 2011, out of which the work participation rate of male is 53.25% and the female is 25.51%. From the workers, main workers constitute 75.23% and the remaining 24.77% of the people belong to marginal workers.

5.2.6 Population Dynamics

Human population dynamics is a field that tracks factors related to changes in the size of population and its characteristics. Predicting population changes is an important aspect of population studies. The demographic trend affects the economic, social, and environmental systems. An increase in human population can affect the quality of natural resources like biodiversity, air, land, and water. The size of Population and characteristics undergoes changes constantly. These changes are reflected clearly in every other aspect of our country.

5.2.7 Problems of over Population

In India, growing pressure of Population on resource base, created many socio-economic, cultural, political, ecological and environmental problems. The Population problems vary in space and time and differ from region to region. Some of the major issues created by the overpopulation in our country are overcrowding, unemployment and under employment, low standard of living, malnutrition, mismanagement of natural and agricultural resources, unhealthy environment etc.

5.3 Urbanization

The process of society's transformation from rural to urban is known as urbanization. The level of urbanization of a place is assessed based on the size of population of the towns and cities and the proportion of population engaged in non agricultural sectors. These two are closely linked to the process of industrialization and expansion of the secondary and tertiary sectors of economy.

5.3.1 Urbanization in India

The level of urbanization is measured in terms of percentage of urban population. The level of urbanization in the country has increased more than three times from 1901 to 2011. The percentage of urban population of India was 27.82% in 2001 and it rose to 31.16% in 2011 shows an increase of 3 % in a decade.

The level of urbanization varies widely among the states. Goa is the most urbanized state with 62.17% of urban population. Himachal Pradesh is the least urbanized state with 10.04% of urban population. Among the Union territories, Delhi is the most (97.50 %) urbanized region followed by Chandigarh (97.25%). Among the major states, Tamil Nadu continues to be the most urbanized state with 48.4% percent of urban population followed by Kerala (47.7%) and Maharashtra (45.2%).

S. No.	Type of Towns/ UAs/OGs	2001 (in Numbers)	2011 (in Numbers)
1	Statutory towns	3799	4041
2	Census Towns	1362	3894
3	Urban Agglomeration	384	475
4	Out Growths	962	981
Source: Statistical data 2011			

As per 2011 Census, there are 7,935 towns (statutory and census) in the country. The number of towns has increased to 2,774, from 2001 census. In 2011, 475 Urban agglomeration (UAs) with 981 outgrowths (OGs) have been identified as Urban Agglomerations as against 384 UAs with 962 OGs in 2001 Census. Out of 468 UAs belongs to Class I category, 53 UAs have the population of one million and above each and these urban centres are known as **"Million Cities"**. These are the major urban centres in the country. Among the Million Cities, there are three major Urban Agglomerations with more than 10 million population each and are known as "Mega Cities". They are Greater Mumbai UA (18.4 million), Delhi UA (16.3 million) and Kolkata UA (14.1million).

5.3.2 Impact of Urbanization

Urbanization and population concentration go hand – in – hand and are closely related to each other. A rapid rate of urbanization in a society is taken as an indicator of its economic development. Urbanization is increasing rapidly in the developing countries including India. Rural to urban migration leads to population explosion in urban areas. Metropolitan cities like Mumbai, Kolkata and Delhi have more population than that can accommodate.

The urban population of India had already crossed the 377million in 2011, which

is more than the total population of USA. By 2030, more than 50% of India's population is expected to live in urban areas. The following are the **major problems of urbanization** in India.

- It creates urban sprawl.
- It makes overcrowding in urban centres.
- It leads to shortage of houses in urban areas.
- It leads to the formation of slums.
- It increases traffic congestion in cities.
- It creates water scarcity in cities.
- It creates drainage problem.
- It poses the problem of solid waste management.
- It increases the rate of crime.

5.3.3 Human Development

Dr. Mahabub-ul-haq defined as "it is a process of enlarging the range of people's choice, increasing their opportunities for education, health care, income and empowerment. It covers the full range of human choices from a sound physical environment to economic, social and political freedom".

5.3.4 Human   Development Indicators: (as per UNDP)

Population trends, health outcomes, education achievements, national income and composition of resources, work and employment, human security, human and capital mobility, supplementary indicators: perceptions of well-being and status of fundamental rights treaties are the human development indicators.

5.3.5 Measuring of Human Development

Human Development Index (HDI) is a composite index focusing on three basic dimensions of human development: i) Health - Life expectancy at birth ii) Education - Expected years of schooling for school age children and average years of schooling for the adult population. iii) Income - Measured by gross national income and percapita income.

5.3.6 Human Development Classification

HDI classifications are based on HDI fixed cut off points, which are derived from the quartiles of distributions of the component indicators. The HDI of less than 0.550 is used for low human development, 0.550 - 0.699 stands for medium human development, 0.700 - 0.799 for high human development and 0.8 or greater for very high human development.

5.4 Transportation

Transport is a system in which passengers and goods are carried from one place to another. Transport system is considered as the **lifeline of a country**. Earlier man travelled on foot or used animals for transport. With the discovery of wheel, transport was made easier and gradually different means of transport were developed. There are three major means of transport in the world.

Means of Transport

Land	Water	Air
Road ways Railways Pipelines	Inland waterways Ocean routes	Domestic airways International Airways
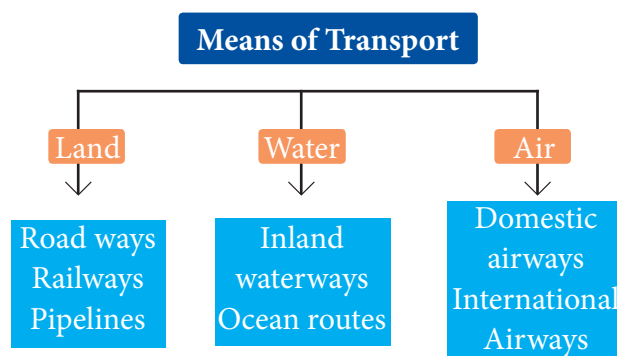
5.4.1 Transport Network in India

Transport is one of the most important components of infrastructure and it is essential for economic development of a country, especially for a large country like India. India has a good transport network of roads, railways, airways and waterways providing necessary connectivity between different parts of the country.

5.4.2 Roadways

Roads play an important role in carrying goods and passengers for short, medium and long distances. It is highly suitable for short distance services. It is comparatively easy and cheap to construct and maintain roads. Road transport system can establish easy contact between farms, fields, factories and markets and can provide door to door transport services. Roads are the most universal mode of transport. Indian roads are cost efficient. It is used by all sections of people in the society. India has the second longest road network in the world with a total length of 56,03,293 km as of 2016. About 85% of passengers and 70 % of freight traffic are carried by roads every year.

DO YOU KNOW? Shershah suri built the shahi (Royal) road to strengthen and consolidate his empire from the Indus valley to the Sonar valley in Bengal. This road from Kolkata to Peshawar was renamed as **Grand Trunk**(GT) road during the British period. At present, it extends from Amristar to Kolkata. It is bifurcated into 2 segments: (a) (NH)-1 from Delhi to Amristar, and (b) NH-2 from Delhi to Kolkata.

For the purpose of construction and maintenance, roads are classified into National Highways (NH), State Highways (SH), District Roads, Rural Roads (Village roads), Border Roads and International Highways.

1. Classification of Roads in India

a) National Highways (NH)

National Highways form the most important system of road transportation in India. These highways are running through length and breadth of the country connecting capitals of states, major Ports, rail junctions, industrial and tourist centres. Ministry of Road Transport and Highways of India,

India - Roads

FIND OUT The important National Highways in India and label it on the outline map of India.

is responsible for the development and maintenance of National Highways in India. The total length of the National Highways (NHs) in India is 1,01,011 km which accounts for 1.8 % of the total road network length in 2016. The longest National highway is NH-7 which runs from Varanasi in Uttar Pradesh to Kanniyakumari in Tamil Nadu covering a distance of 2369 km. The shortest national highway is NH-47A, which runs from Ernakulum to Kochi port (Willington Island) covering a distance of 6 km.

b) State Highways

The state highways are usually roads that link important cities, towns and district headquarters within the state and connect them with national highways or highways of neighbouring states. These roads are administered and financed by state governments. State Highway runs to the length of 1, 76,166 km as of 2016.

c) District Roads

District Roads provide connectivity between the district and taluk headquarters with the state highways and national highways. District Roads are constructed and maintained by the Public Works Department of the states. The total length of the road of this category is 5,61,940 km(16.81%) in 2016.

d) Rural Roads (Village Roads)

Rural roads connectivity is a key component of rural development. These roads are vital for providing links in the rural areas. It links the different villages with their neighbouring towns. They are maintained by Village Panchayats. The total length of rural roads in India is 39,35,337 km as of 2016. Rural roads consist of Panchayat roads, (Zilla Parishad, Panchayat Samiti, Gram Panchayat); roads of the Pradhan Mantri Gram Sadak Yojana (PMGSY) and those constructed by the State PWDs.

Hots

Find out what are the functions of NHAI.

DO YOU KNOW?
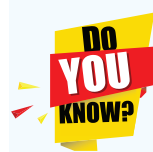
National Highways Authority of India (NHAI) was established in 1995. It is an autonomous body under the Ministry of Surface Transport.

e) Border Roads

These are the roads of strategic importance in border areas. They are constructed and maintained by Border Roads Organization. It was established in 1960 for the development of the roads of strategic importance in the northern and northeastern border areas. Border Roads Organization has constructed world's highest road joining Chandigarh and Leh in Ladakh. This road runs at an average altitude of 4,270 meters.

Golden Quadrilateral: 5,846 km long road of 4/6 lanes connecting, India's four metropolitan cities: Delhi-Kolkata-Chennai-Mumbai-Delhi. This project was launched in 1999.

North–South and East-West Corridors: North-South corridor aims at connecting Srinagar in Jammu and Kashmir with Kaniyakumari in Tamil Nadu (including Kochi-Salem Spur) with 4,076km long road. The East-West corridor has been planned to connect Silchar in Assam with the port town of Porbandar in Gujarat with 3,640km of road length. The two corridors intersect at Jhansi.

Hots

What are the highlights and benefits of the Golden Quadrilateral Highways?

f) Expressways

These are multi-lane good quality highways for high speed traffic. Some of the important expressways are; (i)Mumbai-Pune Road, (ii) Kolkata-Dumdum Airport road (iii) Durgapur-Kolkata road and (iv) Yamuna expressway between Delhi and Agra.

Mumbai-Pune Road

g) International Highways

These are the roads that link India with neighbouring countries for promoting harmonious relationship with them. These highways have been constructed with an aid from world bank under an agreement with the Economic and Social Commission for Asia-Pacific (ESCAP). These roads connect important highways of India with those of the neighbouring countries such as Pakistan, Nepal, Bhutan, Bangladesh and Myanmar. In India the densest road network is found in the northern plains where it is relatively easy to construct roads. In mountainous area, it is quite difficult to construct roads. Road density is the highest in Kerala and lowest in Jammu &Kashmir.

5.4.3 Railways

Indian railway system is the main artery of the country's inland transport. Railways cater to the needs of large scale movement of traffic, both for freight and passenger, thereby contributing to economic growth. Railways are considered as the backbone of the surface transport system of India. It promotes national integration by bringing people together. It also promotes trade, tourism, education etc. Railways help in the commercialization of the agriculture sector by facilitating the quick movement of perishable goods. Its role in transporting raw materials to industries and finished goods to markets is invaluable. Indian railways network is the largest in Asia and second largest in the world. The length of Indian

railways network as of 2017 is 67,368 km with 7,349 railway stations.

> **DO YOU KNOW?** The first train steamed off from Mumbai to Thane in 1853, covering a distance of 34 km. In 1951, the systems were nationalized as one unit "**The Indian Railways**". The headquarter of Indian Railways is **New Delhi.**

For operations and management, the Indian Railways is organized into 16 zones. 1) Northern Railway - Delhi 2) North-Western Railway - Jaipur 3) North-Central Railway- Allahabad 4) North-Eastern Railway - Gorakhpur 5) North-East Frontier Railway - Guwahati 6) Eastern Railway - Kolkata 7) East coast Railway - Bhubaneswar 8) East-Central Railway - Hazipur 9) West-Central Railway - Jabalpur 10) Central Railway - Mumbai (VT) 11) Western Railway - Mumbai (Churchgate) 12) Southern Railway - Chennai 13) South-Central Railway - Secunderabad 14) South Eastern Railway - Kolkata 15) South-Western Railway - Hubball and 16) South East Central Railway - Bilaspur. The Northern Railway accounts for the longest route length, followed by the Western Railway.

Activity

Prepare a seminar topic about "Role of Railways in Indian Economy"

On the basis of width of the track, the Indian railways fall under four categories. Broad gauge with a width of 1.676 meter, Meter gauge with a width of 1 meter and Narrow gauge with a width of 0.762 meter and Light gauge with 0.610 meter.

In recent times, many developments have taken place in the Indian railways. The arrival of Konkan Railway Corporation (KRC), Mass Rapid Transit System (MRTS), Metro and Sub-Urban railways provide easy and efficient means of transport. These are

India - Railways

tunnel nearly 6.44 km long is in this route. The states of Maharashtra, Goa and Karnataka are partners in this undertaking.

The rail link between Banihal in Jammu region and Qazigund in Kashmir valley was opened in 2013. This rail line passes under the Pir Panjal Range through a 11.2 km long tunnel.

b) Metro Railways in India

There are 8 cities with metro rail connectivity in India. They are Kolkata (West Bengal), Chennai (Tamil Nadu), Delhi, Bengaluru (Karnataka), Gurgaon (Haryana), Mumbai (Maharashtra), Jaipur (Rajasthan) and Kochi (Kerala). The metro in Kolkata is the first one in India. It is also called as Mass Rapid Transit System (MRTS). As of September 2018, India has 507 km of operational metro lines and 381 stations.

very helpful in avoiding traffic congestion and over crowding in urban areas.

DO YOU KNOW?

- The first sub-urban railway was started in 1925 in Mumbai.
- Chennai becomes the sixth Indian city with metro railway.
- Gatiman Express is the fastest operational train in India. This train connects New Delhi and Agra and touches 160 km/h. This train takes a travel time of 105minutes to cover 200km journey.

a) Konkan railway

One of the important achievements of Indian Railways has been the construction of Konkan Railway in 1998. It connects Roha in Maharashtra to Mangaluru in Karnataka and the track measures 760 km. It is considered as an **engineering marvel**. On its routes, the railway crosses 146 rivers and streams, nearly 2000 bridges and 73 tunnels. Asia's longest

DO YOU KNOW? The state of Meghalaya has no railway network.

5.4.4 : Pipeline transport:

Pipelines provided a very convenient mode of transport to connect oil and natural gas fields, refineries and to the markets. In the past, these were used to transport water to cities and industries. Now solids can also be transported through a pipeline when converted into slurry. The initial cost of laying pipeline is high but subsequent running cost is minimum. It can be laid through difficult terrain as well as under water. It ensures steady supply of goods and reduces the transshipment losses and delays are the major advantages of pipeline transport. Oil field in upper Assam to Kanpur, from Salaya in Gujarat to Jalandhar in Punjab and gas pipeline from the Hazira in Gujarat ot Jagadispur in Uttar Pradesh are the three important network large network of pipeline in the country.

5.4.5 Waterways

A waterway is an important mode of transport for both passenger and cargo traffic in India. It is the oldest and also the cheapest means of transport and most suitable for carrying heavy and bulky materials from one country to another. It is a fuel-efficient and eco-friendly mode of transport. The water transport is of two types- Inland Waterways and Ocean water ways(sea routes).

a) Inland Waterways

India has an extensive network of inland waterways in the form of rivers, canals, lakes and backwaters. It depends upon the depth and width of the waterways and the continuity of the water flow. The total navigable length of our country is 14,500 km, out of which about 5,200 km length of rivers and 4,000 km length of canals can be used by mechanized crafts. The total cargo carried by inland waterways is just about 0.1% of the total inland traffic of India. For the development, maintenance and regulation of national waterways in the country, the Inland water ways Authority was setup in 1986. The major national waterways are: National Waterway 1: It extends between Haldia and Allahabad, measures 1620 km and includes the stretches of the Ganga-Bhagirathi-Hooghly river system. National Waterway 2: This waterway includes the stretch of the Brahmaputra river between Dhubri and Sadiya a distance of 891 km. National Waterway 3: This waterway extends between Kollam and Kottapuram in the state of Kerala. It is the first national waterway in the country with 24 hour navigation facilities along its entire stretch of 205 km.

b) Oceanic Routes

Oceanic routes play an important role in the transport sector of India's economy. About 95% of India's foreign trade by volume and 70 percent by value moves through ocean routes.

Coastal shipping plays an important role in transport of bulk goods in India. Shipping is not only the most economical mode of transport, it is also an environment friendly mode. The sea and oceanic routes are mainly used for international trade and are connected through ports. There are 13 major and 200 minor or intermediate ports in India. The major ports are administered by the Central Government and minor ports are managed and administered by various state governments. The major ports on the east coast are Kolkata (including Haldia Dock), Paradip, Visakhapatnam, Chennai, Ennore and Tuticorin. The major ports on the west coast are Kandla, Mumbai, Nhava Seva (Jawaharlal Nehru Port), New Mangalore, Marmagao and Kochi.

India has four major shipyards. Hindustan shipyard in Vishakhapatnam, Garden Reach workshop in Kolkata, Mazagaon Dock in Mumbai, Kochi Shipyard in Kochi. India is the second largest ship owning country in Asia and ranks 16th in the World.

5.4.6 Air Transport

Airways are the quickest, costliest, most modern and comfortable means of transport, Air transport facilitates connectivity on a national, regional and international scale. It has made accessibility easier by connecting difficult
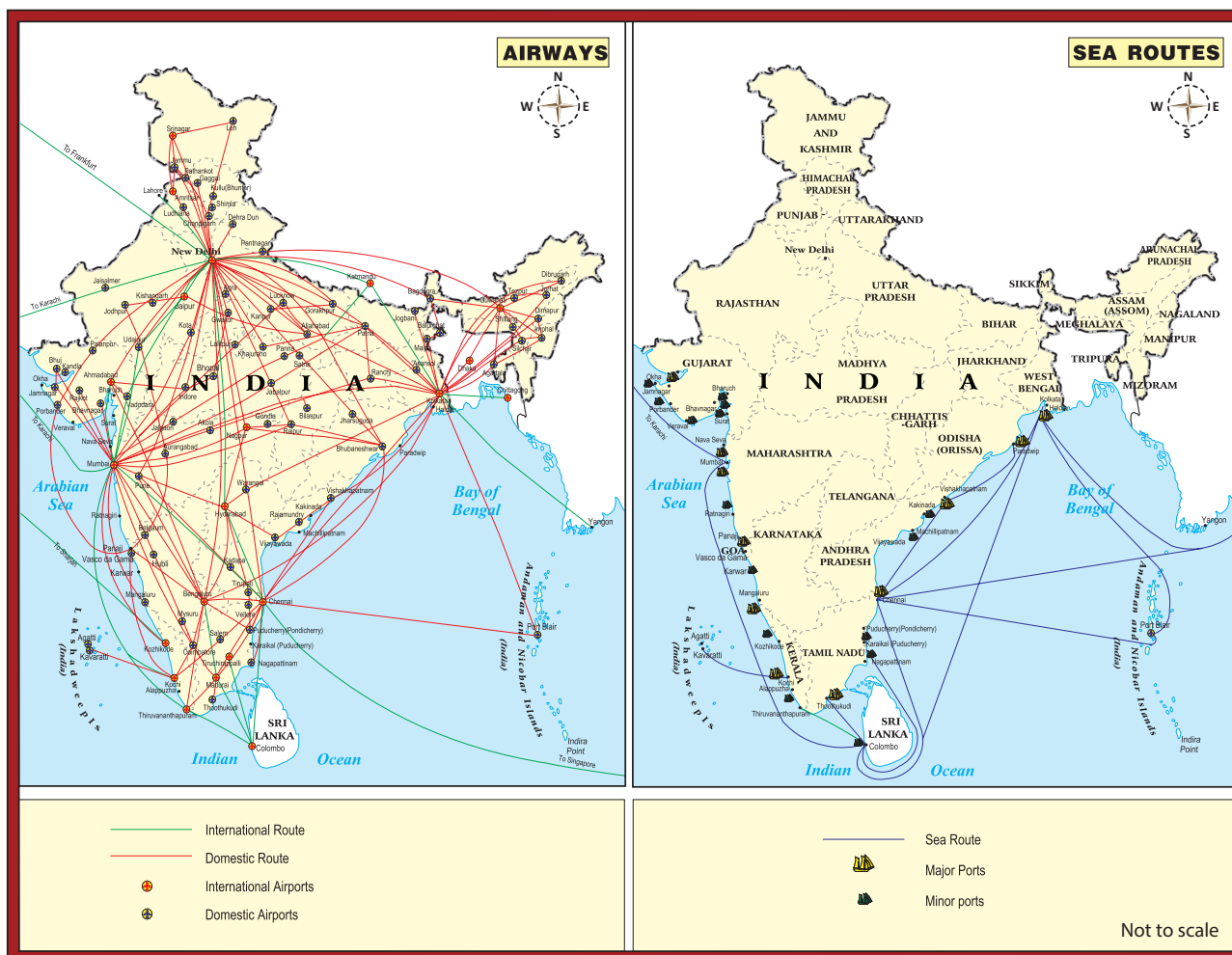
terrains like high mountains and sandy deserts. It carries passengers, freight and mail. Air transport plays a key role in times of emergency as well as in the event of natural and man-made calamities like floods, epidemics and wars.

Air transport in India made a beginning on 18th February, 1918 when Henry Piquet carried a mail from Allahabad to Naini. In 1953, eight different airlines which were in operation in the country were nationalised.

Domestic Airways fly within the boundaries of a country and **International Airways** connect major cities of the world. The Indian Air lines and Air India are the two airline services run by the government of India. **Indian Air lines** provides the domestic air services and **Air India** provides international air services. Presently, there are 19 designated international airports available in the country. These airports are managed by Airports Authority of India. Some of them are Netaji Subhash Chandra Bose International Airport, Kolkata, Chennai International Airport, Chennai, Indira Gandhi International Airport, Delhi, Chhatrapati Shivaji International Airport, Mumbai, Thiruvananthapuram International Airport, Thiruvananthapuram, Sardar Vallabh Bhai Patel International Airport, Ahmedabad, Bangalore International Airport, Bengaluru, Rajiv Gandhi International Airport, Hyderbad etc. Besides this, there are about 80 domestic airports and about 25 civil enclaves at defence air fields.

Hots

Why is air travel preferred in the north eastern states?

a) Pavan-Hans Helicopter Ltd

Pavan-Hans Helicopter Ltd has been providing Helicopter support services to the petroleum sector, including ONGC and oil India Ltd. It is a public sector company based in New Delhi. Its operations are based at the Juhu Aerodrome in Vile Parle (West) Mumbai. Pavan-Hans is a Mini Ratna–I category public sector undertaking. It often provides services to various state governments in India particularly north east India Inter Island, Ferry services in Andaman & Nicobar Islands, services to Lakshadweep Island etc.,

b) Airports Authority of India (AAI)

Airports Authority of India (AAI) was constituted in 1995. It provides security to Indian Airports. AAI under the ministry of Civil Aviation is responsible for creating, upgrading, maintaining and managing civil aviation infrastructure in India.

5.5 Communication

Communication is a process that involves exchange of information, thoughts and ideas. Technology does wonders in communication fields. Communication is categorized in to personal and mass communications.

5.5.1 Personal Communication

The exchange of information between the individuals is called personal communication. It includes post and telegraph services, telephone, mobile phone, short message services, fax, internet, e-mail etc. Personal Communication system enables the user to establish direct contact.

The Indian postal network is the largest in the world with 1,55,000 post offices. Of these more than 1,39,000 post offices are located in rural areas. The postal service was opened to the public in the country in 1837. The first Indian postal stamp was issued in 1852 in Karachi. Collecting and delivering mail is the primary function of the department of posts. It introduced the Quick Mail Service in 1975

and today it covers the entire country. The Quick Mail Service functions on the basis of the system of PIN (Postal Index Number) code which was introduced in 1972. The premium products include the Money order, e-money order, Speed Post, Express Parcel Post, Business Post, Media Post, Satellite Post, Retail Post, Greeting Post, Data Post, Speed Net and Speed Passport Services.
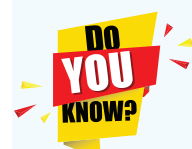
> **DO YOU KNOW?**
>
> In 2007, the Government of India merged the Air India and Indian Airlines under National Aviation Corporation of India Limited **(NACIL).** In which **NACIL (A)** provides international services, **NACIL (I)** provides domestic services and services to neighboring countries in south east Asia and middle East.

Cards and envelopes are considered first-class mail and are airlifted between stations covering both land and air. The second-class mail includes book packets, registered newspapers and periodicals. They are carried by surface mail, covering land and water transport.To facilitate quick delivery of mails in large towns and cities, six mail channels have been introduced recently. They are called Rajdhani Channel, Metro Channel, Green Channel, Business Channel, Bulk Mail Channel and Periodical Channel.

India has one of the largest telecommunication networks in Asia. Apart from the urban areas more than two-thirds of the villages in India have already been covered with **Subscriber Trunk Dialing (STD)** telephone facility, while International communication can be made through **ISD (International Subscriber Dialing).** There is an uniform rate of STD facilities all over India. Telephone is a form of oral communication. It is considered very essential for the growth of commerce. It is the most preferred form as it provides instant communication. Mobile phone, fax and internet are the other personal communication used in the country.

5.5.2 Mass Communication Systems

Mass Communication enables millions of people to get the information at the same time. It is a great way to provide education as well as entertainment. It helps in creating awareness among the people regarding various national policies and programmes. The Mass Communication Systems can provide the information to people in two methods. They are Print Media and Electronic Media.

Electronic Media: Radio broadcasting in India was started in 1923 by the Radio club of Bombay. Since then it gained immense popularity and changed the social and cultural life of people. It was named as All India Radio (AIR) in 1936 and again it was renamed as Akashwani in 1957. It broadcasts a variety of programs related to information, education and entertainment. Special news bulletins are also broadcasted on special occasions like session of parliament and state legislatures.

Television broadcasting has emerged as the most effective audio-visual medium for disseminating information and educating the masses. Television network in India is known as Doordarshan (DD) which started Common National Program (CNP) services and it is extended to the backward and remote rural areas.

Internet (contraction of **interconnected network**) is the global system of interconnected computer networks that use the Internet protocol suite to link devices worldwide. **Social media** are interactive computer-mediated technologies that facilitate the creation and sharing of information, ideas, career interests and other forms of expression via virtual communities and networks. With over 460 million internet users, India is the second largest online market, ranked only behind China. By 2021, there will be about 635.8 million internet users in India. Despite the large base of internet users in India, only 26 percent of the Indian population accessed the internet in 2015. This is a significant increase in comparison to the previous years, considering the internet penetration rate in India stood at about 10 percent in 2011. Furthermore, men dominated internet usage in India with 71 percent to women's 29 percent.

Print Media: Newspapers are the most common but powerful means of communication come under print media. India has many newspapers which carry information on local, national and international events to the people.

5.5.3 Satellite Communication

Satellite Network
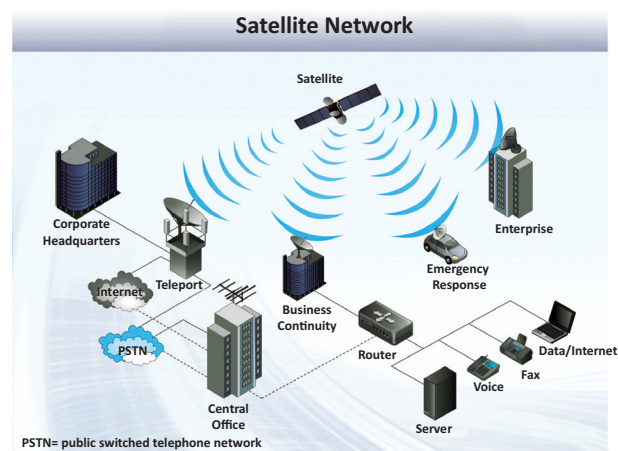
The use of Satellite in getting a continuous and synoptic view of larger area has made this communication system very vital for the country. Satellite images are used for weather forecasting, monitoring of natural calamities, surveillance of border areas etc. The communication through satellites emerged as a new era in communication in our country after the establishment of **Indian Space Research Organization (ISRO)** in 1969.

Satellite system in India can be grouped into two-the Indian National Satellite System (INSAT) and the Indian Remote Sensing Satellite System (IRS).The INSAT, established in 1983, is a multipurpose system for telecommunication, meteorological observation and for various other programs. The INSAT series are used for relaying signals to television, telephone, radio, mobile phone.

It is also useful in weather detection, internet and military applications.

The INSAT series, GSAT series, KALPANA-1, HAMSAT, EDUSAT are the major communication satellite used for communication purpose. GSAT–7A is the recent launch (December 19, 2018) for communication programs. INSAT-1B launched on 30th August 1983 is the first communication satellite in INSAT series.

5.6 Trade

Trade is an important phenomenon that decides the economic growth of a country. Trade is an act (or) process of buying, selling or exchanging of goods and services. The primitive method of trade was known as the Barter system where goods were exchanged for goods. Later on, money was introduced as a medium of exchange in buying and selling of goods. The difference in value between the imports and exports is called balance of trade. The situation in which the value of exports exceeds the value of imports is termed as favourable balance of trade and the reverse position is termed as unfavourable balance of trade.

Activity

Collect the names fo different types of goods and differentiate it and make a table as perishable and non-perishable goods.

5.6.1 Types of Trade

Trade in general, is of two types. They are Internal and International. The trade carried on within the domestic territory of a country is termed as **Internal trade.** It is also called as **Domestic trade** or **Local trade.** Land transport (roadways and railways) plays a major role in this trade. Local currency is used in internal trade. It helps to promote a balanced regional growth in the country i.e, tea from Assam, coffee from Karnataka, Rubber and spices from Kerala, minerals from Jharkhand etc., are supplied to different parts of our country.

Trade carried on between two or more countries is called **International trade.** It is also called as external trade or foreign trade. Export and Import are two components of International trade. Export means goods and services sold for foreign currency. Import means goods and services bought from overseas producers. Waterways and Airways play a vital role in this type of trade. Foreign currency is involved in international trade. The trade between any two countries is called **Bilateral trade.** The trade between more than two countries is called **Mutilateral Trade.**

Hots

Find out the major trade blocs which are useful for multilateral trade.

5.6.2 Exports

The major exports of India are tea, marine products, ores and minerals, leather products, gems and jewels, sports goods, chemicals and related products, plastics and rubber articles, articles of stones, plaster, cement, asbestos, mica, glass ware, paper and related products, base metals, optical, medical and surgical instruments, electronic items, machinery, office equipments, textiles and allied products.

5.6.3 Imports

The major imports are petroleum products, pearls, precious stones and semi-precious stones, gold and telecom instruments.

Activity

Collect the countries names and make it as a table of Bilateral trade and multilateral trade countries.

5.6.4 India's Trade Performance

The volume of India's foreign trade has increased many fold since independence. During 2008 -2009, the volume of trade was 840755 crores and it rose to 1039797 crores in 2016-2017. The import during 2008-2009 was 1374436 crores and was with a deficit of

40679 crores. The import during 2016–2017 rose to 1396352 crores and was with the deficit of 356555 crores. It reveals that not only the balance of trade is unfavourable but also the increase in the level of deficit.

Recap

- The total number of people residing in a country at a specified period of time is called the size of population of that country.
- The growth of population is determined by the birth rate, death rate and migration of people.
- The process of society's transformation from rural to urban is known as urbanization.
- Communication is classified into the personal and mass communications.
- Trade is an exchange of goods and services. Internal and International trades are its types. Import and exports are the components of an International Trade.

A-Z GLOSSARY

Barter: A direct exchange of goods between any two parties.No money is involved in the trade.

Foreign exchange: The mechanism or process by which payments between any two places operating under different national currency systems are effected without passing of actual money or gold, etc.

Harbour: An extensive stretch of deep water near the seashore where vessels can anchor securely. It is used for exports and imports of goods.

Port: The commercial part of a harbour with the facility of loading and unloading of goods and space for the storage of cargo.

EXERCISE

I. Choose the correct answer

1. The scientific study of different aspects of population is called
   a) Photography
   b) Demography
   c) Choreography
   d) Population density.

2. The state with highest literacy rate as per 2011 census is _____.
   a) Tamil nadu   b) Karnataka
   c) Kerala   d) Uttarpradesh.

3. Human Development is measured in terms of _____.
   a) Human Resource Index
   b) Per capita index
   c) Human Development Index
   d) UNDP

4. _____ transport provides door to door services.
   a) Railways   b) Roadways
   c) Airways   d) Waterways.

5. The length of Golden Quadrilateral superhighways in India is
   a) 5846 km   b) 5847 km
   c) 5849 km   d) 5800 km

6. The length of navigable Inland waterways in India is
   a) 17,500 km   b) 5000 km
   c) 14,500 km   d) 1000 km

7. The National Remote sensing Centre(NRSC) is located at _____.
   a) Bengaluru   b) Chennai
   c) Delhi   d) Hyderabad

8. The transport useful in the inaccessible areas is

   a) Roadways   b) Railways

   c) Airways   d) Waterways

9. Which of the following is associated with helicopter service?

   a) Air India   b) Indian Airlines

   c) Vayudoot   d) Pavan Hans

10. The major import item of India is

   a) Cement   b) Jewells

   c) Tea   d) Petroleum

II. Match the following

1	Border Road Organisation	-	Satellite communication
2	INSAT	-	Impact of Urbanization
3	Mazagaon Dock	-	1990
4	Urban sprawl	-	Mumbai
5	Konkan Railways	-	1960
		-	Hyderabad

III. Answer the following Questions briefly

1. What is Human Development?

2. What is migration? State its types.

3. Write any four advantages of railways.

4. Write a note on Pipeline network transport in India

5. State the major Inland waterways of India

6. What is communication? What are its types?

7. Define "International trade".

8. State the merits of Roadways.

IV. Distinguish between

1. Density of population and Growth of population.

2. Personal communication and mass communication.

3. Print Media and Electronic Media.

4. Roadways and Railways.

5. Waterways and Airways.

6. Internal trade and International trade.

V. Answer the following in a paragraph

1. What is urbanization? Explain its impacts.

2. Explain the importances of satellite communication in India.

3. Bring out the distribution and density of population in India.

4. Explain the process of measuring Human Development.

5. Classify and explain the roadways in India.

VI. On the outline map of India mark the following

1. National Highway NH-7

2. Major seaports in India.

3. Major International Airports in India.

4. Densely populated state of India.

5. State of highest literacy in India

6. Railways zones of India.

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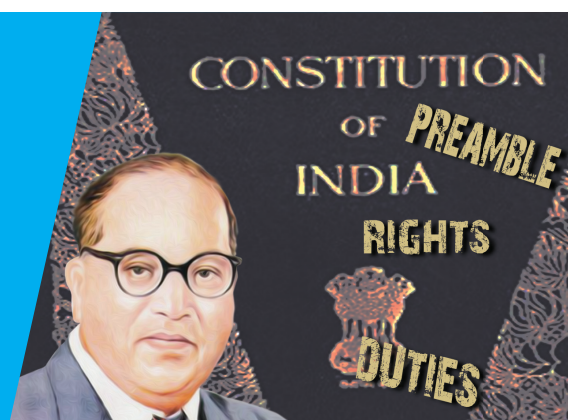
STANDARD TEN

CIVICS

Indian Constitution

Learning Objectives

- To know about the making of Indian Constitution
- To know the Salient features of Indian Constitution
- To understand the Fundamental Rights and Duties
- To know the Directive Principles of State Policy
- To understand the Centre-State relations and the Emergency Provisions

TX5ZJE

Introduction

The Constitution is the fundamental law of a country which reflects the fundamental principles on which the government of that country is based. It is the vehicle of a Nation's progress. More particularly, it is concerned with institutional fabric and the framework of the distribution of powers between the various organs of the government and between the Union and the States. The concept of constitution was first originated in U.S.A.

1.1 The Need for a Constitution

All Democratic countries have a constitution that governs them. A constitution puts down certain principles that form the basis of any kind of a state that we as citizens, desire to live in. A constitution tells us the fundamental nature of our society. A country is usually made up of different communities of people who have different beliefs; it will be helpful in fulfilling the beliefs of different segments of citizens.

1.2 Making of Indian Constitution

The Constitution of India was framed by a Constituent Assembly setup under the Cabinet Mission Plan, 1946. The Assembly consisted of 389 members representing Provinces (292), States (93), the Chief Commissioner's provinces (3) and Baluchistan (1). The Assembly held its first meeting on December 9, 1946. Dr. Sachchidananda Sinha, the oldest member, was elected as the temporary President of the Assembly. While the work was in progress, Dr. Sahchidananda Sinha died. Dr. Rajendra Prasad was elected as the President of the Assembly. Similarly, both H.C. Mukherjee and V.T. Krishnamachari were elected as the Vice-Presidents of the Assembly. The Assembly met for 11 sessions along with 166 days of meetings. During the discussion, 2473 amendments were presented. Some of them were accepted. The Assembly worked through various committees and the draft of the Constitution was prepared by the Drafting Committee under the chairmanship of Dr. B.R. Ambedkar. He is recognised as the 'Father of the Constitution of India'.

Dr. B.R. Ambedkar

After the draft had been discussed by the people, the press, provincial assemblies and others, the Constitution was finally adopted on November 26, 1949, contained a Preamble, 22 parts, 395 Articles and 8 Schedules. The drafted Constitution came into force on 26th January, 1950. This day is known as the Republic Day. It is being observed every year.

DO YOU KNOW? Prem Behari Narain Raizada was the calligrapher of the Indian Constitution. The original constitution was handwritten by him in a flowing italic style.

1.3 Salient features of Indian Constitution

- It is the lengthiest of all the written constitutions of the world.
- It has borrowed most of its provisions from the constitutions of various countries.
- It is partly rigid and partly flexible.
- It establishes a federal system of government.
- It establishes the parliamentary system not only at the Centre but also in the states.
- It makes India as a secular state.
- It provides an independent judiciary.

- It introduces Universal Adult Franchise and accords the right to vote to all citizens above 18 years of age without any discrimination.
- It provides single citizenship.
- It makes special provisions for minorities, Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes, etc.

1.4 Preamble

The term 'preamble' refers to the introduction or preface to the Constitution. It consists of the ideals, objectives and basic principles of the Constitution. It contains the summary or essence of the Constitution. It has great value and has been described as the 'key to the Constitution'. The Preamble to the Indian Constitution is based on the 'Objective Resolution', drafted by Jawaharlal Nehru, which was adopted by the Constituent Assembly on January 22, 1947. It has been amended once by the 42nd Constitutional Amendment Act of 1976, which added three new words - socialist, secular and integrity. The Preamble begins with the phrase 'We, the People of India'. This clearly implies that the Constitution derives its authority from the People of India. Thus, we can say that the people of India are the source of our Constitution. The Preamble of our Constitution states that India is a **Sovereign Socialist Secular Democratic Republic**. Its aim is to secure to all Indian citizens Social, economic and political justice. The Constitution guarantees **Liberty** of thought, expression, belief, faith and worship to all. It gives **Equality** of status and of opportunity to all. It wants to promote **Fraternity** among all Indians.
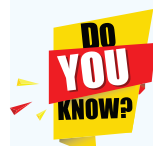
DO YOU KNOW? Liberty, Equality and Fraternity were the important slogans during the French Revolution in 1789. They are given importance in the Preamble of our Constitution.

1.5 Citizenship

The word 'Citizen' is derived from the Latin term 'Civis'. It means resident of a City State. The Constitution of India provides for a single and uniform citizenship for the whole of India. Articles 5 to 11 under part II of the Constitution deals with the citizenship.

1.5.1 Citizenship Act of 1955

The Citizenship Act of 1955 provides for acquisition and loss of citizenship after the commencement of the Constitution. This Act has been amended so far eight times. Originally, the Citizenship Act (1955) also provided for the commonwealth Citizenship. But, this provision was repealed by the Citizenship (Amendment) Act, 2003.

1.5.2 Acquisition of Citizenship

The Citizenship Act of 1955 prescribes five ways of acquiring citizenship, viz, birth, descent, registration, naturalisation and incorporation of territory:

According to the Citizenship Act, 1955, the citizenship could be acquired through any of the following methods.

1. **By Birth**: All persons born in India on or after January 26, 1950 are treated as citizens by birth.
2. **By Descent**: A person born outside India on or after January 26, 1950 shall be a citizen of India by descent, if his father is a citizen of India at the time of his birth.
3. **By Registration**: A person can acquire citizenship of India by registration with appropriate authority.
4. **By Naturalisation**: A foreigners can acquire Indian citizenship, on application for naturalization to the Government of India.
5. **By Incorporation of Territory**: In the event of a certain territory being added to the territory of India, the Government of India shall specify the persons of that territory who shall be citizen of India.

1.5.3 Loss of Citizenship

The Citizenship Act of 1955 prescribes three ways of losing citizenship whether acquired under the Act or prior to it under the Constitution, viz, renunciation, termination and deprivation.

1. It can be voluntarily renounced by a citizen.
2. It can be terminated if a person acquires the citizenship of some other country.
3. The central government can deprive a naturalized citizen, if it satisfied that the citizenship was acquired by fraud, false representation or concealment of material facts or indulges in trade with enemy countries or if the person has been sentenced to imprisonment for a period of 2 years.

1.6 Fundamental Rights

The Fundamental Rights are enshrined in Part III of the Constitution from Articles 12 to 35. In this regard, the framers of the Constitution derived inspiration from the Constitution of USA. Originally, the Constitution provided for seven Fundamental Rights. At present, there are only six Fundamental Rights. Part III of the Constitution is rightly described as the Magna Carta of India. While Fundamental Rights are available to all persons, certain Fundamental Rights are available only to Indian Citizens.

> **DO YOU KNOW?** 'Magna Carta' is the Charter of Rights issued by King John of England in 1215 under pressure from the barons. This is the first written document relating to the Fundamental Rights of citizens.

Right to constitutional remedies (Articles 32)

A writ is an order or command issued by a court in writing under its seal. It is in the nature of a command or prohibition from performing certain acts that are specified in

I. RIGHT TO EQUALITY

Art. 14 - Equality before law.
Art. 15 - Prohibition of discrimination on grounds of religion, race, caste, sex or place of birth.
Art. 16 - Equality of opportunity in matters of public employment.
Art. 17 - Abolition of Untouchability.
Art. 18 - Abolition of titles except military and academic.

II. RIGHT TO FREEDOM

Art. 19 - Freedom of speech and expression, assembly, association, movement, residence and profession.
Art. 20 - Protection in respect of conviction for offences.
Art. 21 - Protection of life and personal liberty.
Art. 21A - Right to elementary education.
Art. 22 - Protection against arrest and detention in certain cases.

III. RIGHT AGAINST EXPLOITATION
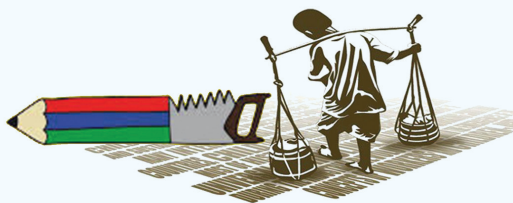
Art. 23 - Prohibition of traffic in human beings and forced labour.
Art. 24 - Prohibition of employment of children in factories, etc.

IV. RIGHT TO RELIGION
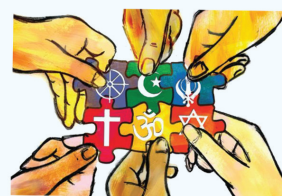
Art. 25 - Freedom of conscience and free profession, practice and propagation of religion.
Art. 26 - Freedom to manage religious affairs.
Art. 27 - Freedom from payment of taxes for promotion of any religion.
Art. 28 - Freedom from attending religious instruction or worship in certain educational institutions.
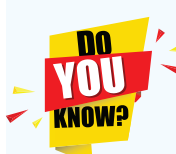
V. CULTURAL & EDUCATIONAL RIGHTS

Art. 29 - Protection of language, script and culture of minorities.
Art. 30 - Right of minorities to establish and administer educational institutions.

VI. RIGHT TO CONSTITUTIONAL REMEDIES

Art. 32 - It allows individuals to seek redressal for the violation of their fundamental rights.

DO YOU KNOW? **Right to Property (Art. 31)** was deleted from the list of Fundamental Rights by the 44th Amendment Act, 1978. It is made a legal right under Article 300-A in Part XII of the Constitution.

Violation of which Fundamental right is associated with the theme depicted in the stamps?

the orders of the court. Both the Supreme Court and the High Courts are empowered to issue five kinds of writs of habeas corpus, mandamus, prohibition, quo warranto and certiorari. That is why the Supreme Court is called the "Guardian of the Constitution". According to Dr. Ambedkar, Article 32 is "the heart and soul of the Constitution".

(a) **Habeas Corpus:** Safeguards people from illegal arrests.

(b) **Mandamus:** It protects the petitioner who requires legal help to get his work done by respective public authorities.

(c) **Prohibition:** It prohibits a subordinate court from acting beyond its jurisdiction.

(d) **Certiorari:** It quashes an order issued by a subordinate court by overstepping its jurisdiction.

(e) **Quo Warranto:** It prevents usurpation of public office through illegal manner.

Suspension of Fundamental Rights

When the President makes a Proclamation of Emergency under Article 352, the freedoms guaranteed under Article 19 are automatically suspended. The President can suspend other fundamental rights through specific orders. These orders must be approved by the Parliament. But he cannot suspend the freedoms given under Arts. 20 and 21 (protection in respect of conviction for offences and protection of life and personal liberty respectively) in any circumstances.

1.7 Directive Principles of State Policy

The Directive Principles of State Policy are enumerated in Part IV of the Constitution from Articles 36 to 51. The Constitution does not contain any classification of Directive Principles. However, on the basis of their content and direction, they can be classified into three broad categories, viz, socialistic, Gandhian and liberal-intellectual. These principles are not enforceable by the courts.

The 86th Amendment Act of 2002 changed the subject-matter of Article 45 and made elementary education a fundamental right under Article 21 A. The amended directive requires the State to provide early childhood care and education for all children until they complete the age of six years.

But they are fundamental for the governance of the country. The Government is duty bound to apply these principles while making laws. They aim at promoting the Social Welfare of the people. Dr. B.R. Ambedkar described these principles as 'novel features' of the Indian Constitution.

Differences between Fundamental Rights and Directive Principles of State Policy

Fundamental Rights	Directive Principles of State Policy
It was derived from the Constitution of the USA.	It was drawn on the model of the Constitution of Ireland.
Even the Government cannot take away or abridge these rights.	These are mere instructions to the Government.
These are enforceable by a court of law.	These are not enforceable in any court.
These have legal sanctions.	These have moral and political sanctions.
These rights strengthen political democracy in the country.	The implementation of these principles ensures social and economic democracy.
These are natural rights.	These lead to protect human rights.

1.8 Fundamental Duties

The Fundamental Duties in the Indian Constitution are inspired by the Constitution of former USSR. In 1976, the Congress party set up the Sardar Swaran Singh Committee to make recommendations on fundamental duties. The 42nd Amendment Act of 1976 added some responsibilities of citizens to our Constitution called the Fundamental Duties. This amendment added a new part, namely, Part IVA to the Constitution. This new part consists of only one Article that is Article 51A which for the first time specified a code of ten fundamental duties of the citizens.

1.8.1 List of Fundamental Duties

Article 51A declares it to be the duty of every citizen of India.

(a) To abide by the constitution and respect its ideals and institutions, the National Flag and the National Anthem.

(b) To cherish and follow the noble ideals which inspired the national struggle for freedom

(c) To uphold and protect the sovereignty, unity and integrity of India

(d) To defend the country and render national service when called upon to do so

(e) To promote harmony and the spirit of common brotherhood among all the people of India transcending religious, linguistic and regional or sectional diversities; to renounce practices derogatory to the dignity of women

(f) To value and preserve the rich heritage of our composite culture

(g) To protect and improve the natural environment including forests, lakes, rivers and wildlife, and to have compassion for living creatures

(h) To develop scientific temper, humanism and the spirit of inquiry and reform

(i) To safeguard public property and to abjure violence

(j) To strive towards excellence in all spheres of individual and collective activity, so that the nation constantly rises to higher levels of endeavour and achievement

(k) To provide opportunities for education to his child or ward between the age of six and fourteen years. (The 86th Constitutional Amendment Act, 2002 has also introduced the 11th Fundamental Duty under 51A(k) under which all citizens of India or parents shall provide opportunities for education to their children between age of 6 and 14 years)
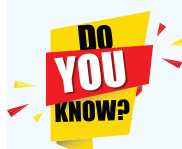
1.9 Centre-State Relations

The Constitution of India, being federal in structure, divides all powers between the Centre and the States. The Centre-state relations can be studied under three heads:

1.9.1 Legislative relations

The Union Parliament has the power to legislate for the whole or any part of the territory of India, which includes not only the States but also the Union Territories or any other area for the time being, included in the territory of India. The Seventh Schedule of the Constitution embodies three lists namely, the Union List, State List and Concurrent List consisting of 97, 66 and 47 items respectively. The Parliament enjoys the exclusive power to legislate on subjects enumerated in the Union List. The State Legislature has exclusive right to

> **DO YOU KNOW?**
> The Union List, State List and Concurrent List consisting at present 100, 61 and 52 items respectively. The 42nd Amendment Act of 1976 transferred five subjects to Concurrent List from State List, that is, education, forests, weights and measures, protection of wild animals and birds, and administration of justice; constitution and organisation of all courts excepts the Supreme Court and the high courts.

legislate on the State List. Both Parliament and State Legislatures have power to legislate on subjects contained in the Concurrent

List. But in case of conflict between the law of the State and the Union on a subject in the Concurrent List, the law of Parliament prevails.

1.9.2 Administrative relations

The Administrative power of a State extends only to its own territory and with respect to which it has legislative competence, whereas the Union has exclusive executive power over: (a) the matters with respect to which Parliament has exclusive power to make laws and (b) the exercise of its powers conferred by any treaty or agreement.

1.9.3 Financial relations

Article 268-293 in Part XII deal with the Financial relations between centre and the states. The Centre and States are empowered by the Constitution to impose various kinds of taxes. And certain taxes are imposed and collected by the centre and divided between centre and states based on the recommendation of the Finance Commission appointed by the President under Article 280 of the Constitution.

Late Prime Minister Indira Gandhi appointed the Sarkaria Commission in 1983 to make an enquiry into the Centre-State relations. The Central government has implemented 180 (out of 247) recommendations of the Commission. The most important is the establishment of the Inter-State Council in 1990.

1.10 Official Language

Part XVII of the Constitution deals with the official language in Articles 343 to 351. Its provisions are divided into four heads namely, Language of the Union, Regional languages,

Language of the judiciary and texts of laws and Special directives.

The First language committee was appointed in 1955. It submitted its report in 1956. As a follow up of the report, parliament enacted the Official Language Act, 1963. The act laid down that even after 15 year, English may continued to be used along with Hindi for all official purposes of the Union and also for transaction of business in parliament. Again through the Official Languages (Amendment) Act, 1967, it was provided that the use of English would continue indefinitely. The Constitution also permitted certain regional languages to be used for intra-state official transactions. Initially, the Constitution recognised 14 regional languages which were included in the Eighth Schedule. At present, 22 languages are recognised.

Activity

List out the recognised languages in the Eighth Schedule of the Constitution?

1.11 Emergency Provisions

The Central Government has been vested with extraordinary powers to deal with conditions of emergency. Three types of emergencies are envisaged in the Constitution:

1.11.1 National Emergency (Article 352)

The President under Article 352 can declare emergency if he is satisfied that India's security is threatened due to war, external aggression or armed rebellion, or if there is an imminent danger

or threat. When a national emergency is declared on the ground of war or external aggression it is known as external emergency. On the other hand, when it is declared on the ground of armed rebellion it is known as internal emergency. This type of emergency has been declared three times so far: in 1962, 1971 and 1975.

1.11.2 State emergency (Article 356)

Under Article 356, the President can declare an emergency in a state if the Governor reports that a situation has arisen under which the government of a State cannot be carried on in accordance with the provisions of the Constitution. The continuance of such an emergency beyond one year is possible only if emergency under Art. 352 are in operation or the Election Commission certifies that there are difficulties in holding Assembly elections. Maximum duration of the emergency can be three years. In this kind of emergency, the States lose much of their autonomy in legislative and executive matters. After such an announcement state legislature is suspended and the State is governed by the Governor on behalf of the President. For the first time, the President's Rule was imposed in Punjab in 1951.

1.11.3 Financial emergency (Article 360)

Article 360 authorises the President to declare financial emergency if he is satisfied that the financial stability or credit of India or of any of its parts is in danger. In this type of emergency, salaries and allowances of any class of persons serving State or Union, including judges of the Supreme Court and High Court can be reduced by an order of the President. This type of emergency has not been declared in India so far.

1.12 Amendment of the Constitution

The term amendment denotes change, improvement and modification. Usually this term is associated with one or more changes made in the Constitution of a country. Article 368 of the Constitution in Part XX, deals with the powers of Parliament to amend the Constitution and its procedure.

1.12.1 Procedure of Amendment

An amendment of this Constitution may be initiated only by the introduction of a Bill for the purpose in either House of Parliament, and when the Bill is passed in each House by a majority of the total membership of that House and by a majority of not less than two-thirds of the members of that House present and voting, it shall be presented to the President who shall give his assent to the Bill and thereupon the Constitution shall stand amended in accordance with the terms of the Bill. The constitution amendment can be brought about only by the Parliament. State legislatures cannot initiate for any amendment to the Constitution.

1.12.2 Types of Amendments

Article 368 provides for three ways of amendments, that is, by a special majority of Parliament and also through the ratification of half of the states by a simple majority. But, some other articles provide for the amendment of certain provisions of the Constitution by a simple majority of Parliament, that is, a majority of the members of each House present and voting (similar to the ordinary legislative process). Notably, these amendments are not deemed to be amendments of the Constitution for the purposes of Article 368. Therefore, the Constitution can be amended in three ways:

1. Amendment by simple majority of the Parliament
2. Amendment by special majority of the Parliament
3. Amendment by special majority of the Parliament and the ratification of half of the state legislatures.

DO YOU KNOW? 42nd amendment of the Constitution is known as the mini Constitution.

1.13 Constitutional Reform Commissions

The National Commission to Review the Working of the Constitution was set up by a resolution of the Government of India in 2000 headed by M.N.Venkatachaliah. In April 2007, a three member commission headed by the former Chief Justice of India M.M.Punchchi was set up by the then Government to take a fresh look at relative roles and responsibilities of various levels of Government and their inter-relations.

Recap

- The Constitution of India was framed by a Constituent Assembly set up under the Cabinet Mission Plan, 1946.
- The Preamble of our Constitution states that India is a **Sovereign Socialist Secular Democratic Republic**.
- The word 'Citizen' is derived from the Latin term 'Civis'. It means resident of a City State.
- According to Dr. Ambedkar, Article 32 is "the heart and soul of the whole Constitution".
- The Fundamental Duties in the Indian Constitution are inspired by the Constitution of former USSR.
- In 2004, the Government of India decided to create new category of languages called as "classical languages".
- Article 368 of the Constitution in Part XX, deals with the powers of Parliament to amend the Constitution and its procedure.

A-Z GLOSSARY

Preamble	the introduction to the constitution of India	முகப்புரை
Secular state	A state which protects all religions equally	சமயச் சார்பற்ற அரசு
Discrimination	unfair treatment of a person or group	பாகுபாடு
Writ	written command of court	நீதிப்பேராணை
Sovereignty	supreme power or authority	இறையாண்மை
Heritage	something handed down from one's ancestors	பாரம்பரியம்
Autonomy	independence in one's thoughts or actions	தன்னாட்சி
Imminent	coming up	உடனடி
Proclamation	an announcement	பிரகடனம்

EVALUATION

I Choose the Correct Answer.

1. Which of the following sequences in right regarding the Preamble?

   (a) Republic, democratic, secular, socialist, sovereign
   (b) Sovereign, socialist, secular, republic, democratic
   (c) Sovereign, republic, secular, socialist, democratic
   (d) Sovereign, socialist, secular, democratic, republic

8ILDCX

2. How many times has the Preamble to the Constitution of India amended?

(a) Once   (b) Twice

(c) Thrice   (d) Never

3. The Indian Constitution gives to its citizens

(a) Double Citizenship

(b) Single Citizenship

(c) Single Citizenship in some States and double in others

(d) None of the above

4. A foreigner can acquire Indian citizenship through

(a) Descent

(b) Registration

(c) Naturalisation

(d) All of the above

5. Find the odd one out.

(a) Right to Equality

(b) Right against Exploitation

(c) Right to Property

(d) Cultural and Educational Rights

6. One of the following is not an instance of an exercise of a fundamental right?

(a) Workers from Karnataka go to Kerala to work on the farms

(b) Christian missions set up a chain of missionary schools

(c) Men and Women government employees got the same salary.

(d) Parents property is inherited by their children

7. If the fundamental rights of Indian citizen are violated, they possess the right to have an access to

(a) The Parliament

(b) The Attorney General

(c) The President of India

(d) The Supreme court of India

8. Which one of the following rights was described by Dr. B.R. Ambedkar as the heart and soul of the Constitution?

(a) Right to freedom of religion

(b) Right to equality

(c) Right to Constitutional remedies

(d) Right to property

9. How can the Fundamental Rights be suspended?

(a) If the Supreme Court so desires

(b) If the Prime Minister orders to this effect

(c) If the President orders it during the national emergency

(d) All of the above

10. We borrowed the Fundamental Duties from the

(a) American Constitution

(b) Canadian Constitution

(c) Russian Constitution

(d) Irish Constitution

11. The Directive Principles can be classified into

(a) Liberal and Communist principles

(b) Socialist and Communist principles

(c) Liberal, Gandhian and Communist principles

(d) Socialist, Gandhian and Liberal principles

12. Under which Article financial emergency can be proclaimed?

(a) Article 352   (b) Article 356

(c) Article 360   (d) Article 368

13. The procedure for the amendment of the Indian Constitution is given in

(a) Article 352   (b) Article 356

(c) Article 360   (d) Article 368

14. Which of the following committees/commissions made recommendations about the Centre-State Relations?

1. Sarkaria Commission
2. Rajamannar Committee
3. M.N.Venkatachaliah Commission

Select the correct answer from the codes given below

(a) 1, 2 & 3   (b) 1 & 2

(c) 1 & 3   (d) 2 & 3

II Fill in the Blanks.

1. The concept of constitution first originated in _____.
2. _____was elected as the temporary President of the Constituent Assembly.
3. The Constitution of India was adopted on_____.
4. _____ writs are mentioned in Article 32.
5. Fundamental duties have been given to the citizen of India under Article_____.

III Match the Following.

1. Citizenship Act - Jawaharlal Nehru
2. The Preamble - 42nd Amendment
3. The mini Constitution - 1955
4. Classical language - 1962
5. National Emergency - Tamil

IV Give short Answers.

1. What is a Constitution?
2. What is meant by citizenship?
3. How many types of fundamental rights are listed by the Indian Constitution? T
4. What is a Writ?

5. What are the classical languages in India?
6. What is national emergency?
7. List out the three heads of the relations between the Centre and the States.

V Answer in Detail.

1. Explain the salient features of the Constitution of India.
2. Point out the Fundamental Rights.
3. Write briefly on the Right to Constitutional Remedies.
4. Mention the differences between Fundamental Rights and Directive Principles of State Policy.

VI Project and activity.

1. Collect information about the various members of the Constituent Assembly and their social background.
2. Collect the pictures of the Members of the Drafting Committee and their social background.

VII Life Skill.

1. Prepare a chart containing the Rights and Duties of citizens and display it in your class room.

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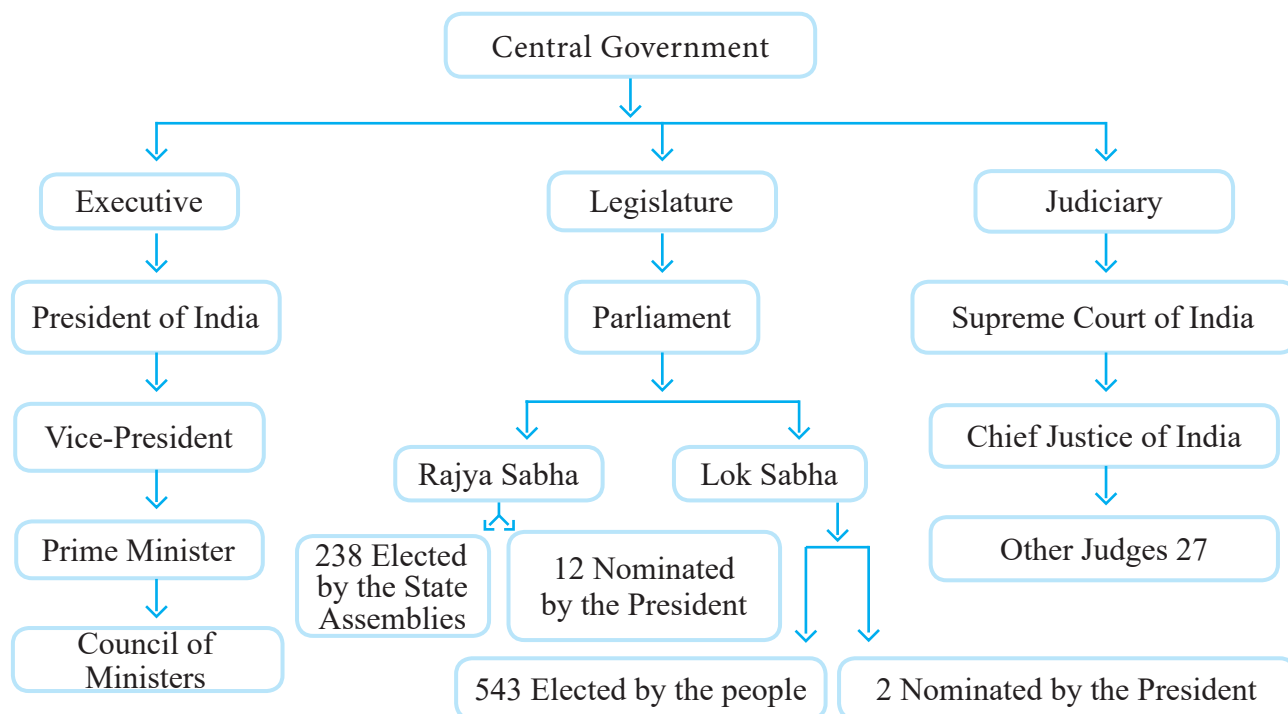
Central Government

🎯 Learning Objectives

- To know the powers of the President and Vice President
- To Know the about the Prime Minister and Council of Ministers
- To understand the Lok Sabha and Rajya Sabha
- To know about Supreme Court

M52R6G

Introduction

The Central Government is the supreme government in our country. The head quarter of the Central Government is at New Delhi. Articles 52 to 78 in part V of Indian Constitution deals with the Union Executive. Our Constitution provides for a democratic form of government. The makers of the Indian constitution, by giving due recognition to the vastness and plural character of our nation, have provided a federal arrangement for her governance. The Central 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, and

```
                    Central Government
                           |
        ┌──────────────────┼──────────────────┐
        ↓                  ↓                  ↓
    Executive          Legislature          Judiciary
        ↓                  ↓                  ↓
President of India      Parliament      Supreme Court of India
        ↓              ┌────┴────┐            ↓
  Vice-President       ↓         ↓      Chief Justice of India
        ↓         Rajya Sabha  Lok Sabha       ↓
  Prime Minister                          Other Judges 27
        ↓         238 Elected   12 Nominated
   Council of     by the State  by the President
   Ministers      Assemblies

         543 Elected by the people   2 Nominated by the President
```

the Attorney General of India. The Legislature is known as the Parliament. It consists of two houses, namely the Rajya Sabha and the Lok Sabha. The Union Judiciary consists of the Supreme Court of India.

2.1 The President of India

In the scheme of parliamentary system of government provided by the constitution, the President is the nominal executive authority. The chief executive of the Indian union
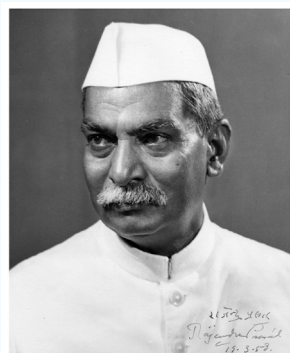
DR. RAJENDRA PRASAD
(First President of India)

is the President. He is designated as the First citizen of India**.** He is the supreme commander of the armed forces. The President is also the Constitutional head of the Union Executive. He is also responsible for constituting the judiciary. According to Article 53 of the constitution, the executive power of the Union shall be vested in the President which shall be exercised by him directly or through officers subordinate to him in accordance with Constitution.

DO YOU KNOW? It is a well known fact that the President of India resides at Rashtrapati Bhavan in New Delhi. The residence and the office of the President are located in the same building. However he has two other office cum residences where he conducts office at least once a year. They are 'The Retreat Building' at Shimla and the 'Rashtrapati Nilayam' at Hyderabad. These locations one in North and other one is South symbolise the unity of the country and unity of the diverse culture of the people.

2.1.1 Qualification for the election as President

The constitution lays down qualifications for a Presidential candidate.

■ He should be a citizen of India.

■ He must have completed the age of thirty-five years.

■ He must not hold any office of profit under the Union, State or local Government.

■ He should have the other qualifications required to become a member of the Lok Sabha.

■ His or 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 cannot be a Member of Parliament or of a State Legislature; if he is a member of any legislature, his seat will be deemed to have been vacated on the date he / she assumes the office of President.

2.1.2 Election of the President

The President is elected by an electoral college in accordance with the system of proportional representation by means of single transferable vote. The Electoral College consists of the elected members of both houses of Parliament and the elected members of the states and elected members of National Capital Territory of Delhi and Puducherry. Once elected as the President has to take an oath of office before the Chief Justice of India. The President is elected for a term of five years and can be re-elected.

2.1.3 Powers of the President

The powers and functions of the President of India can be broadly classified under the following categories.

Executive Powers

The constitution vests in the President of India all the executive powers of the Central Government. Article 77 requires that every

List of Presidents of India

1. Thiru. Rajendra Prasad	1950 to 1962
2. Thiru. Sarvepalli Radhakrishnan	1962 to 1967
3. Thiru. Zakir Hussain	1967 to 1969
4. Thiru. V.V Giri	1969 to 1974
5. Thiru. Fakhruddin Ali Ahmed	1974 to 1977
6. Thiru. Neelam Sanjiva Reddy	1977 to 1982
7. Thiru. Giani Zail Singh	1982 to 1987
8. Thiru. R Venkataraman	1987 to 1992
9. Thiru. Shankar Dayal Sharma	1992 to 1997
10. Thiru. K R Narayanan	1997 to 2002
11. Thiru. APJ Abdul Kalam	2002 to 2007
12. Tmt. Pratibha Patil	2007 to 2012
13. Thiru. Pranab Mukherjee	2012 to 2017
14. Thiru. Ram Nath Kovind	2017 to till now

executive action of the Union shall be taken in the name of the President. So he has to make many appointments to key-offices to run the administration.

He appoints the Prime Minister and the other members of the Council of Ministers, distributing portfolios to them on the advice of the Prime Minister. He is responsible for making a wide variety of appointments. These include the appointment of Governors of States, the Chief Justice and other Judges of the Supreme Court and high Courts, the Attorney General, the Comptroller and Auditor General, the Chief Election Commissioner and other Election Commissioners the Chairman and other Members of the Union Public Service Commission Ambassadors and High Commissioners to other countries.

He appoints a commission to investigate into the conditions of SCs, STs and other backward classes. He is the supreme commander of the defense forces of India, in this capacity the President can appoint Army, Navy, and Air Chiefs.

Legislative Powers

The President is an integral part of the Union Parliament. He inaugurates the session of the Parliament by addressing it after the general election and also at the beginning of the first session each year. This address is essentially identical in nature to a Speech from the Throne.The President summons Parliament at least twice in a year.

He may send messages to either House of the Parliament with respect to a bill pending in the House. All bills passed by the Parliament become "Laws of Acts" only after getting assent of the President. Money bills cannot be introduced in the Parliament without his approval. President terminates the sessions of both or any of the Houses of Parliament. He can even dissolve the Lok Sabha before the expiry of the term of the House.

He nominates 12 persons who are eminent in literature, science, sports, art and social service to the Rajya Sabha. He can also nominate two persons belonging to Anglo-Indian Community to the Lok Sabha, if in his opinion, that community is inadequately represented in the House.

Financial Power

Money bill can be introduced in the Parliament only with his prior recommendation. Annual Budget of the Central Government is presented before the Lok Sabha by the Union Finance Minister only with the permission of the President. He causes to be laid before the Parliament the annual financial statement (the Union Budget). The Constitution of India places the Contingency Fund of India is at the disposal of the President. No demand for a grant can be made except on his recommendation. He can make advances out of the contingency fund of India to meet any unexpected expenditure. He constitutes a finance commission after every five years or on the demand of the states to recommend the distribution of revenues between the Centre and the States.

Judicial Powers

Article 72 confers on the President power to grant pardons, reprieves, respites or

remissions of punishment, or to commute the sentence of any person convicted of an offence. In all cases where the punishment or sentence is by a court martial; in all cases where the punishment or sentence is for and offence against a Union law; and in all cases where the sentence is a sentence of death. The President is not answerable to any court of law for exercise of his/she power (however He can be subjected to impeachment by the Parliament).

Military Powers

Article 53(2) lays down that "the supreme command of the Defence Force of the Union shall be vested in the President and the exercise thereof shall be regulated by law". The President is thus declared to be the Supreme Commander of the defence Force of the country. In the exercise of this power, it is the President, who can declare war against a country and make peace.

Diplomatic Powers

The President appoints Indian diplomats to other countries and receives foreign diplomats posted to India. The ambassador designate becomes ambassador after calling on the President and presenting his credentials. All treaties and agreements with foreign States are entered into, in the name of the President.

Emergency Powers

■ The President has been empowered by the Constitution to proclaim Emergency. They are follows: Article 352 confers power on the President to make a proclamation of Emergency on the grounds of war, external aggression, or armed rebellion. This is known as National Emergency.

■ Article 356 confers power on the President to make a proclamation of State Emergency by declaring that the Government in a State cannot be run on in accordance of the provisions of the Constitution.

■ Under Article 360, the President is vested with the power to proclaim Financial Emergency, if he is satisfied that the financial stability or, the credit of India or any part of India is threatened, by any reason.
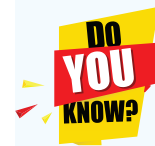
Kerala and Punjab are the States where the President's Rule was imposed for maximum number of times i.e., nine times in both States.

2.1.4 Removal of the President

The President shall hold office for a term of five years from the date on which He enters the office. The President may by writing under his hand addressed to the Vice-President, resign his office. The President may, for violation of the Constitution, be removed from office by impeachment in the manner provided in Article 61; The Impeachment action can be brought about in the form of resolution in either house of the Parliament. It must be supported by not less than One-Fourth of the total strength of the House for its introduction. The President shall, in spite of the conclusion of his term, continue to hold office until his successor enters upon his office.

2.1.5 Privileges of the President

According to Article 361(1) the President, or the Governor of a state, shall not be answerable to any court for the exercise and performance of the powers and duties of his office or for any act done or purporting to be done by him in the exercise and performance of those powers and duties.

2.2 Vice-President

The vice-President occupies the second highest office in the country. He is accorded a rank next to the President in the official warrant of precedence. This office is

modeled on the lines of the American Vice-President. Article 63 of the constitution provides for a Vice President of India. This office has been created to maintain the political continuity of the state.

DR. RADHA KRISHNAN
(First Vice President of India)

2.2.1 Qualification for the election as Vice President

The constitution lays down qualifications for a Vice Presidential candidate.

- He should be a citizen of India.
- He must have completed the age of thirty-five years.
- He must not hold any office of profit under the Union, State or local Government.
- He should have the other qualifications required to become a member of the Rajya Sabha.

2.2.2 Election and term of the Vice-President

Article 66(1) the Vice-President, like the president, is elected not directly by the people but the method of indirect election. He is elected by the members of an electoral college consisting of the member of both Houses of Parliament. The term of office of the Vice President is five years. His office may terminate earlier than the fixed term either by resignation, death or by removal. He is eligible for re-election. The Constitution does not provide a mechanism of succession to the office of the Vice – President. Under such circumstances, election to the Vice President shall be held early as possible. Till then deputy chairman of the Rajya sabha can perform the duties of the chairman of the Rajya sabha.

2.2.3 Removal of the Vice President

The Vice President may be removed from his office by a resolution of the Council of States passed by a majority of all the then members of the council and agreed to by the House of the People. A resolution for this purpose may be moved only after a notice of at least a minimum of 14 days has been given of such an intention.

2.2.4 Functions of the Vice President

The Vice-President is Ex-Officio Chairman of the Rajya Sabha. As the Chairman of the House, he carries out several functions.

- He regulates the proceeding of the House.
- He decides the order of the House.
- He decides the admissibility of a resolution or questions.
- He suspends or adjourns the House in case of a grave disorder.
- He issues directions to various committees on matters relating to their functions.

DO YOU KNOW?

Casting Vote

According to Article (100) of the Constitution, the vice-president can\only cast his vote when there is a tie over the Bill in the Rajya Sabha. It means that there is need for one vote only to pass the Bill. So vice-president using his discretion power cast his vote in favor or against the Bill. No members have any right to oppose his decision.

- When the President is unable to discharge his duties due to illness or absence from the country, he attends to the functions of the President. When the President is unable to do so due to sickness or when the post of President becomes vacant due to resignation, death, or removal by impeachment etc. the Vice-President can act as the President for a maximum period of six months.
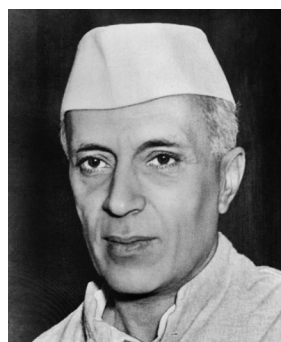
2.3 Prime Minister

Article 74 (1) says: There shall be a council of ministers with the Prime Minster as the head to aid and advice the President. He may direct the council to reconsider their advice, but is bound by the advice given after reconsideration.

JAWAHARLAL NEHRU
(First Prime Minister of India)

The post of Prime Minister of India has adopted the Westminster (England) model of constitutional democracy.

The leader of the majority party in Lok Sabha is appointed by the President as the Prime Minister. The other ministers are appointed

List of Prime Ministers of India

1. Thiru. Jawaharlal Nehru — 1947–64
2. Thiru. Lal Bahadur Shastri — 1964–66
3. Tmt. Indira Gandhi — 1966–77
4. Thiru. Morarji Desai — 1977–79
5. Thiru. Charan Singh — 1979–80
6. Tmt. Indira Gandhi — 1980–84
7. Thiru. Rajiv Gandhi — 1984–89
8. Thiru. V.P. Singh — 1989–90
9. Thiru. Chandra Shekhar — 1990–91
10. Thiru. P.V. Narasimha Rao — 1991–96
11. Thiru. Atal Bihari Vajpayee — May 1996
12. Thiru. D. Deve Gowda — 1996–97
13. Thiru. I.K. Gujral — 1997–98
14. Thiru. Atal Bihari Vajpayee — 1998–2004
15. Thiru. Manmohan Singh — 2004–14
16. Thiru. Narendra Modi — 2014–till now

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 elected to the Parliament within six months. Ministers are individually as well as collectively responsible to the Lok Sabha.

2.3.1 Duties and functions of Prime Minister

Article 78 mentioned the duties of the Prime Minister:

- The Prime Minister decides the rank of his ministers and distributes various departments.
- The Prime Minister decides the dates and the agenda of the meeting of the Cabinet which he presides.
- The Prime Minister is the Head of the Cabinet and the other ministers are his colleagues.
- The Prime Minister informally consults two or three of his senior colleagues when he does not convene a Cabinet meeting.
- The Prime Minister supervises the work of various ministers.
- To converse to the President all decisions of the Council of Ministers connecting to the government of the affairs of the Union and proposals for legislation.
- The Prime Minister act as the link between the President and the Council of Ministers.
- The Prime Minister is the leader of the nation and chief spokesperson of the country.
- As the leader of the nation, the Prime Minister represents our nation at all

international conferences like the commonwealth, summit of the non aligned nations and SAARC nations.

2.3.2 Council of Ministers

After the elections, the President of India, on the advice of the Prime Minister, appoints the council of ministers. Sometimes a non – member of the Parliament too may be appointed. However, he must get elected to either of the Houses of the Parliament within a period of six months. The Constitution of India restricts the number of the Council of Ministers including the Prime Minister to fifteen per cent of the total members of the Lok Sabha.

Categories of the Ministers

The ministers are classified under three ranks

(i) Cabinet Ministers

(ii) Ministers of State

(iii) Deputy Ministers.

Cabinet Ministers

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, such as defense, finance, external affairs and home. The Cabinet recommends to the President to promulgate an ordinance. It is instrumental in moving Amendments to the Constitution. 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.

Ministers of State

These ministers belong to the second category of ministers in the council. They are also in charge of ministries or departments but they do not participate in the meetings of the cabinet unless invited to do so.

Deputy Ministers

They are the lowest ranked ministers in the cabinet. They assist either the Ministers of Cabinet or State in the performance of the duties entrusted to them.

2.4 Parliament of India

The parliament is the legislative organ of the Union government. Article 79 to 122 in part V of the constitution deal with the organization, composition, duration, officers, procedures, privileges, powers and so on of the Parliament. The Parliament of India consists of three parts they are the President, Rajya Sabha (the council of States) and Lok Sabha (the House of the People). The Rajya Sabha is the Upper House and the Lok Sabha is the Lower House it is termed as bicameral legislature.

Parliament

2.4.1 Rajya Sabha

The council of State or Rajya Sabha consists of 250 members out of whom 238 represent the states and the Union Territories, elected by the method of indirect election.

The 12nominated members shall be chosen by the President from amongst persons having 'special knowledge or practical experience in the field of literature, science, sports, art and social service.

Qualification of the Members

A person seeking membership of Rajya Sabha must possess the following qualifications.

- He should be a citizen of India.
- He should not be less than 30 years of age.
- He should not hold any office of profit under any Government.
- He should be a person with sound mind and monetarily solvent.
- He should have such other qualification as may be approved by the Parliament for that reason from time to time.
- He should not be the member of Lok Sabha or any other legislature.

Term of House

The Rajya Sabha is a permanent house and it cannot be dissolved. The members of the Rajya Sabha are elected for a term of six years. One third of the members of Rajya Sabha retire every two years, and new members are elected to fill the seats thus vacated. The Vice President of India is the Ex-officio Chairperson of the Rajya Sabha. The Deputy Chairperson of the Rajya Sabha is elected by the members of the Rajya Sabha.

Election

Members of Rajya Sabha are elected by the elected members of the 'State Legislative Assemblies' in accordance with the system of proportional representation by means of the single transferable vote. This process of election is called "indirect election" as they are not elected by the people directly.

Functions of the Rajya Sabha

- Any bill (except the money bills) needs to be approved by Rajya Sabha to get passed. If the bill gets stuck for more than six months then President calls for a joint session of both the houses to resolve the deadlock.
- It has the same power as Lok Sabha, for passing any bill for constitutional amendment.
- The members of Rajya Sabha have the electoral power for selection of President, Vice President. Together with the members of Lok Sabha and all the State Legislative Assemblies they elect the President and Vice President.
- It has power in the impeachment procedure of president and judges of supreme court and high court.
- Rajya Sabha has the power to make a state list subject into National Importance. If two third majority of the members of Rajya Sabha passes a resolution to support it. Rajya Sabha can also create or abolish an All India Service. If majority of members (2/3 of Total Members) supports it.

4.4.2 Lok Sabha

The Lok Sabha is the popular house of the Indian Parliament and contains elected representatives of the people. Maximum number of members can be elected for Lok Sabha is 552. The Lok Sabha as of today has 543 elected members. Out of these, 530 members are elected from different states and 13 members from the Union Territories. The President generally nominates two members belonging to the Anglo-Indian community. At present, the Lok Sabha consists of 545 members.

Qualification of the Members

- He should be a citizen of India.
- He should not be less than 25 years of age.
- He should have his name in electoral rolls in some part of the country.

DO YOU KNOW?

Money Bill
Rajya Sabha does not have any power to amend or reject the Money bill. Lok Sabha can only introduce Money bill and once it is approved by the Lok Sabha, it is passed to Rajya Sabha for its approval. If Rajya Sabha fails to pass it within 14 days then the bill gets passed without the approval of Rajya Sabha. Also, Lok Sabha does not need to consider the amendments proposed by the Rajya Sabha. Lok Sabha can reject all the proposals and pass it.

- He should not hold any office of profit under the Union or State Government.
- He should be mentally sound and economically solvent.

The term of the House

Generally the Lok Sabha enjoys a term of five years from the date of its first session. It can be dissolved by the President before the expiry of its term on the advice of the Prime Minister. The emergency provisions of the Constitution enable the President to prorogue or dissolve the Lok Sabha either on the advice of the Prime Minister or on being convinced that no party or no alliance of parties enjoys necessary majority support in the House.

Election

The members of the Lok Sabha are directly elected by the people of the constituencies created on the basis of population. The Election Commission of India arranges, supervises and conducts elections to the Lok Sabha. For sake of elections to Lok Sabha the entire nation is divided into number of constituencies which are formed more or less on the basis of the population.

"Universal Adult Franchise" is followed while electing the members of the Lok Sabha. All Indian Citizens above 18 years of age who are registered as voters will vote for their representatives.

Universal Adult Franchise

Functions of the Lok Sabha

- Any bill can be introduced and passed in the Lok sabha (Including Money Bill).

- It has the same power as Rajya Sabha to participate in case of impeachment of president and the judges of Supreme Court.
- It has equal power as Rajya Sabha in passing any bill for constitutional amendment.
- Lok Sabha members have the power to elect the president, vice president.
- Motion of no confidence can only be introduced in Lok Sabha. If it is passed then the prime minister and other council of ministers need to resign from their post.

DO YOU KNOW? Elected members of the Parliament from Tamil Nadu.
- Rajya Sabha – 18 members
- Lok Sabha   – 39 members

2.4.3 The Speaker

The Lok Sabha is presided over by the 'speaker' who is elected by its members. The office of the Speaker occupies an essential position in our Parliamentary democracy. The Speaker continues to be in the office even in the houses dissolved, till a new Speaker is elected by the new Lok Sabha. The Speaker presides over a joint sitting of the two Houses of Parliament. He has the power to decide whether a Bill is Money Bill or an ordinary one. The decision of the Speaker on whether a Bill is Money Bill is final. Under the anti defection of 1985, the speaker is empowered to decide whether a member of the Lok Sabha is disqualified or not on the basis of the 10th schedule of the constitution. While the office of speaker is vacant or the speaker is absent from the sitting of the house, the deputy speaker presides, except when a resolution for his own removal is under consideration.

DO YOU KNOW? **Parliament Session**
Budget Session from February to May
Monsoon Session from July to September
Winter Session from November to December

2.4.4 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.

2.5 Attorney General of India

The Constitution (Article 76) has provided for office of the Attorney General for India. He is the highest law officer in the country. He is appointed by the President. He must be a person who is qualified to be appointed the Judge of the Supreme Court. In other words, he must be a citizen of India and he must have been a judge of some High Court for five years or an advocate of some High Court for 10 years or eminent jurist, in the opinion of the President. He holds office during the pleasure of the President. This means that he may be removed by the President at any time. He may also quit his office by submitting his resignation to the President.

5.1 Duties and Functions of Attorney General of India

To give advice to the Government of India upon such legal matters which are referred to him by the President. To perform such other duties of a legal character that are assigned to him by the President and discharge the functions conferred on him by the constitution are any other law. In the performance of his official duties, Attorney General of India has the right of audience in all courts in the territory of India. Further he has the right to speak and to take part in the proceedings of both Houses of the Parliament or their joint sitting and any committee of the Parliament of which he may be named a member, but without a right to vote. He enjoys all the privileges and immunities that are available to a member of Parliament.

2.6 Judiciary

Judiciary is the third organ of the government. It plays a vital role in protecting the rights and freedom of the citizens. It also plays an important role in analyzing and interpreting the provisions of laws and the Constitution.

Supreme Court

The "Supreme Court is the Guardian of the Constitution". Our constitution provides for the establishment of an independent and integrated judiciary with 'supreme court' as the uppermost court in the country. Our judiciary is autonomous of the Legislative and Executive wing of the Union and State Government. An integrated judiciary means a single judicial hierarchy for the whole country. The judiciary plays an important role in defensive the rights and freedom of the citizens. It plays an important role in analyzing and interpreting the necessities of laws and the constitution.

DO YOU KNOW? The Supreme Court of India, New Delhi was inaugurated on January 28, 1950. It succeeded the Federal Court of India, established under the Government of India Act of 1935.

Central Government

Supreme Court

2.6.1 Composition of the Supreme Court

At the commencement of the constitution in 1950 our supreme court consisted of 8 judges including the chief justice. At present, the Supreme Court consists of 28 judges including the chief justice.

2.6.2 Appointment of Judges

The Chief Justice of Supreme Court in India is appointed by the President of India. The other judges are appointed by the President in consultation with the collegiums with Chief Justice Head.

2.6.3 Qualification of Supreme Court Judges

- He must be a citizen of India.
- He should have worked as a Judge of a High Court for at least 5 years.
- He should have worked as an advocate of High Court for at least 10 years.
- He is in the opinion of the President, a distinguished Jurist.

The constitution also provides for the appointment of judges to the Supreme Court on an ad-hoc (temporary) basis. The Chief Justice and other judges of the Supreme Court hold the office up to the age of 65 years. The judges of the Supreme Court can resign before their term by giving their resignation in writing to the President. The Parliament also has power to remove the Judges by invoking impeachment provisions. The Supreme Court has its permanent seat in "New Delhi". It may also sit any other place in India which may be decided by the Chief Justice of India with the approval of the President of India.

2.6.4 Powers and Functions of the Supreme Court

(a) Judicial Functions

The "Supreme Court is the Guardian of the Constitution". The followings are the functions of the Supreme Court.

(b) Original Jurisdiction

The cases which are brought directly in the first instance to the Supreme Court come under original jurisdiction. These may be (i) dispute between the Government of India and one or more States of (ii) Dispute between two or more states (iii) the cases involving fundamental rights (dispute over the enforcement) come under the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court. The writs issued by the Supreme Court for the enforcement of the fundamental rights are, (a) Habeas Corpus (b) Mandamus (c) Prohibition (d) Certiorari (e)Quo Warranto.

(c) Appellate Jurisdiction

The Supreme Court is the final appellate court in the country. As regard the Appellate jurisdiction, the Supreme Court hears appeals against the decisions of High Court in "civil, criminal and Constitutional" cases with a certificate from the High Court that it is fit to appeal in the Supreme Court. Such a case can be brought before the Supreme Court only if the High Court certifies that the case invites a substantial of law as to the interpretation of the Constitution.

(d) 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 opinion is of public importance.

(e) Miscellaneous Jurisdiction

The Supreme Court is

- The law declared by Supreme Court is binding on all courts within the territory of India.
- The Supreme Court is authorized to make rules for regulating, generally the practice and procedure of the court with the approval of the President.
- The Supreme Court has complete control over its own establishment.

(f) Judicial Review

The power of the judiciary to declare a law as unconstitutional is known as "Judicial Review". The Supreme Court enjoys this power. The Supreme Court of India has Individual Review Power with regard to

1) Dispute between the Centre and the States
2) To interpret and clarify a provision of the constitution about which there are some doubts and differences of opinion.
3) Protecting the fundamental rights,
4) Those laws passed by the legislatures which are not in accordance with the Constitution.

Recap

- The Central Government consists of three organs, namely, Union Executive, Legislature and Judiciary.
- President appoints the Prime Minister and the other members of the Council of Ministers.
- The Parliament of India consists of three parts they are the President, Rajya Sabha and Lok Sabha.
- The Attorney General for the India is the highest law officer in the country. He is appointed by the President of India.
- The "Supreme Court is the Guardian of the Constitution".
- The Chief Justice of Supreme Court in India is appointed by the President of India.`

A-Z GLOSSARY

Terminate	bring to an untimely end.	முடிவுக்கு கொண்டு வருதல்
Contingency fund	an amount of money that can be used to pay for problems that might happen.	எதிர்பாரா செலவு நிதி
Pardon	Absolving the convict of all guilt and punishment.	பொதுமன்னிப்பு
Remission	Quantitative reduction of punishment without affecting Nature of punishment.	தண்டனை குறைப்பு
Precedence	priority of importance.	முன்னுரிமை
Ex-officio	because of an office.	பதவியின் நிமித்தமாக

EVALUATION

I. Choose the correct answer

1. The Constitutional Head of the Union is
   a) The President
   b) The Chief Justice
   c) The Prime Minister
   d) Council of Ministers

TXEVL2

Central Government

2. Who is the real executive in a parliamentary type of government?

   a) Army

   b) The Prime Minister

   c) The President

   d) Judiciary

3. Who among the following decides whether a Bill is a Money Bill or not?

   a) The President

   b) Attorney General

   c) Parliamentary Affairs Minister

   d) Speaker of Lok Sabha

4. The Council of Ministers is collectively responsible to the:

   a) The President

   b) Lok Sabha

   c) The Prime Minister

   d) Rajya Sabha

5. The Joint sittings of Indian Parliament for transacting legislative business are presided over by?

   a) Senior most member of Parliament

   b) Speaker of the Lok Sabha

   c) The President of India

   d) The Chairman of the Rajya Sabha

6. What is minimum age laid down for a candidate to seek election to the Lok Sabha?

   a) 18 years   b) 21 years

   c) 25 years   d) 30 years

7. The authority to alter the boundaries of state in India rest with?

   a) The President

   b) The Prime Minister

   c) State Government

   d) Parliament

8. Under which Article the President is vested with the power to proclaim Financial Emergency

   a) Article 352   b) Article 360

   c) Article 356   d) Article 365

9. The Chief Justice and other Judges of the Supreme court are appointed by:

   a) The President

   b) TheAttorney General

   c) The Governor

   d) The Prime Minister

10. Dispute between States of India comes to the Supreme Court under:

   a) Appellate Jurisdiction

   b) Original Jurisdiction

   c) Advisory Jurisdiction

   d) None of these

11. If you are elected as the President of India, which of the following decision can you take on your own?

   a) Nominate the leaders of your choice to the council of minister

   b) Ask for reconsideration of a bill passed by both the Houses

   c) Select the person you like as Prime Minister

   d) Dismiss a Prime Minister who has a majority in the Lok Sabha

II. Fill in the blanks

1. _____ Bill cannot be introduced in the Parliament without President's approval.

2. _____ is the leader of the nation and chief spokesperson of the country.

3. _____ is the Ex-officio Chairperson of the Rajya Sabha.

4. The President generally nominates two members belonging to the _____ community to the Lok Sabha.

5. _____ has the right to speak and to take part in the proceedings of both Houses of the Parliament.

6. The Chief Justice and other judges of the Supreme Court hold the office up to the age of _____years.

7. _____ is the Guardian of the Constitution.

8. At present, the Supreme Court consists of _____ judges including the Chief Justice.

III. Choose the correct statement

1. i) Total members of the Rajya Sabha is 250.

   ii) The 12 nominated members shall be chosen by the President from amongst persons experience in the field of literature, science, art, or social service

   iii) The Members of the Rajya Sabha should not be less than 30 years of age.

   iv) The members of the Rajya Sabha are directly elected by the peoples.

   a) ii & iv are correct

   b) iii & iv are correct

   c) i & iv are correct

   d) i, ii & iii are correct

2. i) The Chief Justice and other judges of the Supreme Court hold the office up to the age of 62 years.

   ii) Judiciary is the third organ of the government.

   iii) The cases involving fundamental rights come under the Appellate jurisdiction of the Supreme Court.

   iv) The law declared by Supreme Court is binding on all courts within the territory of India.

   a) ii & iv are correct

   b) iii & iv are correct

   c) i & iv are correct

   d) i & ii are correct

3. Assertion (A): The Rajya Sabha is a permanent house and it cannot be dissolved

   Reason (R): One third of the members of Rajya Sabha retire every two years, and new members are elected to fill the seats thus vacated.

   a) (A) is false but R is true

b) (A) is false but (R) is true

c) Both (A) and (R) are true and (R) is the correct reason for(A)

d) Both (A) and (R) are true and (R) is not the correct reason for(A)

IV. Match the following

1. Article 53   - State Emergency
2. Article 63   - Internal Emergency
3. Article 356   - Executive power of President
4. Article 76   - Office of the Vice President
5. Article 352   - Office of the Attorney General

V. Answer the brief questions

1. How is President of India elected?
2. What are the different categories of Ministers at the Union level?
3. What is the qualification of Judges of the Supreme Court?
4. Write a short note on Speaker of the Lok Sabha?
5. What is Money Bill?
6. List out any two special powers of the Attorney General of India?

VI. Answer in detail

1. Describe the powers and functions of the President of India.
2. Explain the Jurisdiction and powers of the Supreme Court of India?
3. What are the Duties and functions of Prime Minister of India?
4. Critically examine the Powers and Functions of the Parliament.
5. List out the functions of the Lok Sabha and the Rajya Sabha.

VII. Project and activity

1. Organise a mock parliament in your class. Discuss the role of President, Prime Minister and Ministers.

2. Bring out the differences and similarities between the US and Indian President's

3 Subhash Kashyap - Our Constitution, National Book Trust, India, 2011.

REFERENCE BOOKS

1. D.D. Basu - Introduction of the Constitution of India, S.C. Sarkar & Sons (Private) Ltd, 1982.
2. PM Bakshi - The Constitution of India, Universal Law Publishing - an imprint of LexisNexis, 2018.

INTERNET RESOURCES

1. https://www.india.org/
2. https://presidentofindia.nic.in/
3. http://vicepresidentofindia.nic.in/
4. http://www.pmindia.gov.in/en/
5. https://www.sci.gov.in/

ICT CORNER

Through this activity you will know about the current Governing bodies and also about the Lok Sabha & the Rajya Sabha.

Steps

- Open the Browser and type the URL given below.
- Click on the items under the who's who menu to view the current Governing bodies and also know about the Lok Sabha & the Rajya Sabha.
- For example, click on the president from the leftside menu to view the details of the President.
- Likewise you can view all the details of the current Governing bodies.

Website URL:

https://www.india.gov.in/my-government/whos-who

B376_10_SOCIAL_EM

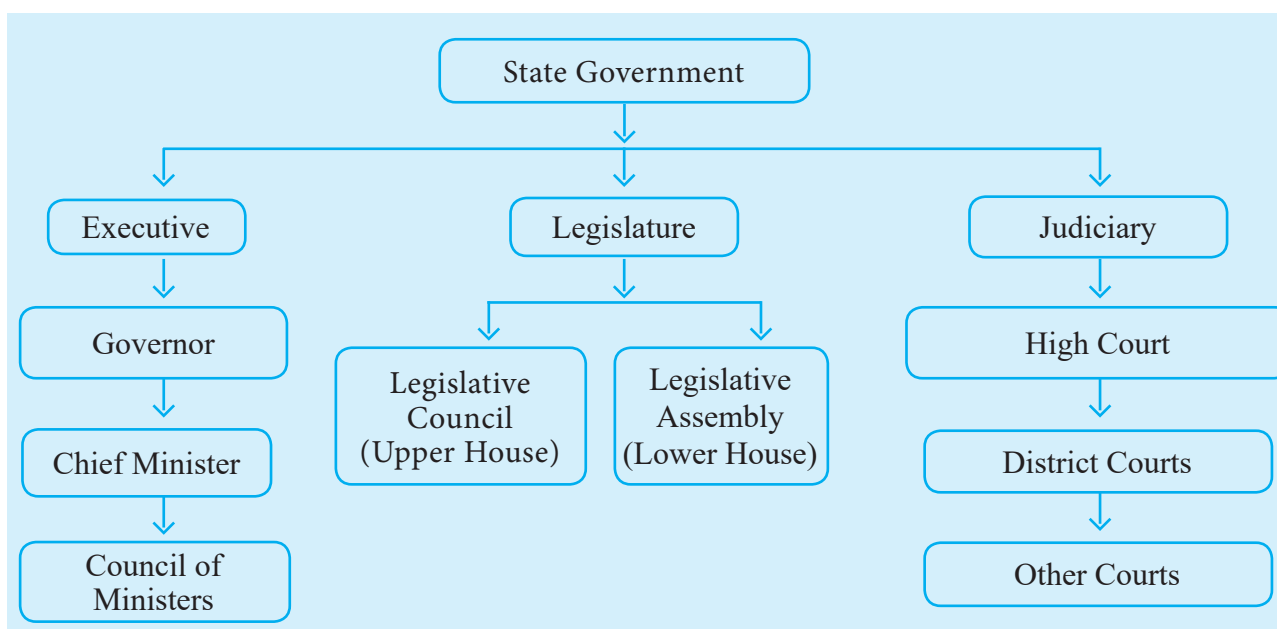# State Government

Learning Objectives

- Students acquire knowledge about the structure of the State Government
- To understand the powers and functions of the Governor, Chief Minister, Ministers and Speaker
- To know about the State Legislature
- Student understand the functioning of the judicial system in the State

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Introduction

The Constitution of India envisages for a federal government, having separate systems of administration for the union and the states. There are 29 states, 6 union territories and one national capital territory known as Delhi in India. The constitution contains provisions for the governance of both the union and the states. It lays down a uniform structure for the State Government, in part VI of the constitution from Article 152 to 237, which is applicable to all the states, save only the state of Jammu and Kashmir which has a separate constitution for its government under Article 370. The structure of the State Government, as formed in the Centre, consists of three branches. These are the Executive, the Legislature and the Judiciary.

3.1 The Executive

3.1.1 The Governor

The Governor is the constitutional head of the state executive. The administration of a State is carried on in the name of the Governor. Generally, there is a separate Governor in each State but if the situation warrants so, the same person may be appointed as the Governor of two or more States.

Article 154 vests the executive power of the State in the Governor. Article 154(1) holds that the executive power of the State shall be vested in the Governor and shall be exercised by him either directly or through officers subordinates to him in accordance with this Constitution.

3.1.2 Appointment

The Governor of a State shall be appointed by the President. His usual term of office is five years but he holds office during the pleasure of the President. Generally, the Governor does not belong to the State where he is appointed. He can also be transferred from one state to another by the President. He can also resign any time by addressing his resignation to the President.

The Legislature of a State or a High Court has no role in the removal of a Governor. A person may be appointed as a Governor for any number of terms. Two conventions have been set up in the matter of appointing a person as Governor of a State. He should not be a resident of the State concerned and, the State Government concerned is consulted and its views are sought regarding the proposed choice.

According to Article 158 (3A), where the same person is appointed as Governor of two or more States, the emoluments and allowances payable to the Governor shall be allocated among the States in such proportion as the President may by order determine.

3.1.3 Qualification

Article 157 and Article 158 of the Constitution of India specify eligibility requirements for the post of governor. They are as follows:

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- He should be a citizen of India.
- He must have completed 35 years of age.
- He should not be a member of Parliament or of any State Legislature. If he is a member of any of Legislature, he automatically vacates his seat on assuming the office.
- He should not hold any other profitable occupation.

3.1.4 Powers and Functions of the Governor

The Governor is the head of the state executive and he has enormous powers. In the exercise of functions and powers, the Governor, except

in certain cases, is to be guided by the aid and advice of the Council of Ministers headed by the Chief Minister (under Article 163). As the executive head in the state level, the Governor has following functions and powers.

Executive Powers

- The Constitution vests all executive powers of the State Government in the Governor. He may exercise this power either directly or through officers subordinate to him. He is the constitutional head of the State. All the administration is carried on in his name.

- The executive powers and functions of the Governor are:

- He appoints the leader of the majority party in the State Legislative Assembly as the Chief Minister of the State.

- He appoints other members of the Council of Ministers on the recommendation of the Chief Minister.

- He appoints the Advocate - General of the state and determines his remuneration. The Advocate General holds office during the pleasure of the Governor.

- He appoints the Chairman and Members of the State Public Service Commission. However, they can be removed only by the president and not by a governor.

- He appoints the state election commissioner and determines his conditions of service and tenure of office. However, the state election commissioner can be removed only in like manner and on the like grounds as a judge of a high court.

- He acts as the chancellor of universities in the state. He also appoints the Vice Chancellors of universities in the state.

- He directly rules a State when there is the imposition of the President's rule in the State.

Legislative Powers

The Governor is an integral part of the state legislature. But, he is not a member in the either house of the legislature. In this capacity, he enjoys the following legislative powers and functions:

- He has the right to summon, prorogue the state legislature and dissolve the State Legislative Assembly.

- He can address the state legislature at the commencement of the first session after each general election and the first session of each year.

- He can send messages to the houses of the state legislature relating to a bill pending in the legislature.

- He can appoint any member of the Legislative Assembly to preside over its proceedings when the offices of both the Speaker and the Deputy Speaker fall vacant.

- He can nominate one member to the state legislature assembly from the Anglo-Indian Community.

- He nominates 1/6 of the members of the State Legislative Council from amongst the persons having special knowledge or practical experience in literature, science, art, cooperative movement and social service.

- He decides on the question of disqualification of members of the state legislature in consultation with the Election Commission.

- Every bill passed by the state legislature will become law only after his signature. But, when a bill is sent to the Governor after it is passed by the legislature, he has the options to give his assent to the bill or withhold his assent to the bill or return the bill for the reconsideration of the legislature.

- He has to reserve any bill passed by the state legislature which endangers the

position of the state High Court, for the consideration of the President.

- He can promulgate ordinances when the state legislature is not in session under Article 213. But, these ordinances must be approved by the legislature within six months. He can also withdraw an ordinance at anytime.

- He has to lay the annual reports of the State Finance Commission, the State Public Service Commission and the Comptroller and Auditor General relating to the accounts of the state, before the state legislature.

Financial Powers

- The Constitution confers on the Governor, the duty to get prepared and introduced to the State Legislature, the annual budget and also the supplementary budgets, if necessary.

- He causes the Annual Financial Statement (Budget) of the State to be presented in the Legislative Assembly.

- He presents through the Minister of Finance of the State the Supplementary Budget of the State to the Legislative Assembly if there be such a need.

- Money Bills can be introduced in the State Legislature only with his the prior recommendation.

- No demand for any grant can be made except on his recommendation.

- He can make advances out of the state Contingency Fund to meet any unforeseen expenditure.

- He constitutes a Finance Commission after every five years to review the financial position of the panchayats and the municipalities.

Judicial Powers

- He appoints the Attorney-General of the State.

- He appoints Judges to the Subordinate Courts in the State.

- He makes appointment, postings and promotions of the District Judges in consultation with the State High Court.

- The Chief Justice of the High Court in the State is appointed by the President in consultation with him.

- He can pardon, commute or reprieve punishment on receipt of appeals for mercy.

Discretionary Powers

- The Governor can reserve a bill for the consideration of the president.

- He recommends for the imposition of the President's rule in the state.

- He seeks information from the Chief Minister relating to the administrative and legislative matters of the state.

- He can call the leader of any party to form ministry in the state when there is no clear-cut majority to any party in the Legislative Assembly after the general elections.

- He can dismiss the Council of Ministers when it is unable to prove the confidence of the Legislative Assembly; and

- He can dissolve the Legislative Assembly if the Council of Ministers has lost its majority.

Emergency Powers

If the Governor is satisfied that the government of the state is not carried on in accordance with the provisions of the Constitution, he may, under Article 356, recommend to the President to impose President Rule in that State. As soon as the President Rule is imposed, the administration of the State is carried on by the Governor as the representative of the President.

3.1.5 Privileges of the Governor

Article 361(1) provides for the following privileges for the Governor;

(a) The Governor of a State, is not be answerable to any court for the exercise and performance of the powers and duties of his office or for any act done or purporting to be done by him in the exercise and performance of those powers and duties.

(b) No criminal proceedings whatsoever shall be instituted or continued against the Governor of a State, in any court during his term of office.

(c) No process for the arrest or imprisonment of the Governor of a State, shall issue from any court during his term of office.

(d) No civil proceedings in which relief is claimed against the Governor of a State.

3.2 Chief Minister

In the scheme of Parliamentary system of government provided by the constitution, the governor is the nominal executive authority and the Chief Minister is the real executive authority. In other words, the governor is the head of the State while the Chief Minister is the head of the government.

3.2.1 The appointment of the Chief Minister

The Chief Minister is appointed by the Governor of the State. The leader of the majority party or majority group in the State Legislative Assembly is appointed as the Chief Minister. In case no party commands absolute majority, in the Legislative Assembly or the majority fails to elect its leader, the Governor can use his power and invite the leader of the other largest party to form the ministry. He has to prove the confidence (majority support) in the Legislative Assembly within the period stipulated by the Governor.

The term of the Chief Minister is not fixed. He may remain as the Chief Minister as long as he enjoys the support of the majority of the members of the Legislative Assembly. He has to resign when he losses confidence of the majority in the assembly. It is 'understood that normally he completes 5 years term like other members in the Legislative Assembly.

Chief Ministers of Tamil Nadu from 1947

Thiru.O. P. Ramaswamy	1947-1949
Thiru.P. S. Kumaraswamy Raja	1949 – 1952
Thiru.C. Rajagopalachari	1952 – 1954
Thiru.K. Kamaraj	1954 - 1963
Thiru.M. Bakthavatsalam	1963 – 1967
Thiru.C. N. Annadurai	1967 – 1969
Thiru.M. Karunanidhi	1969 – 1976
Thiru.M. G. Ramachandran	1977 – 1987
Tmt. JanakiRamachandran	January 1988
Thiru.M. Karunanidhi	1989 – 1991
Selvi.J. Jayalalithaa	1991 – 1996
Thiru.M. Karunanidhi	1996 – 2001
Selvi.J. Jayalalithaa	2001
Thiru.O.Panneerselvam	2001 – 2002
Selvi.J. Jayalalithaa	2002 – 2006
Thiru.M. Karunanidhi	2006 – 2011
Selvi. J. Jayalalithaa	2011 – 2014
Thiru.O.Panneerselvam	2014 – 2015
Selvi.J. Jayalalithaa	2015 – 2016
Thiru.O.Panneerselvam	2016 – 2017
Thiru.Edappadi K. Palaniswami	2017 – till now

3.2.2 Powers and functions of the Chief Minister

The Chief Minister is the real executive head of the State administration. He has the following powers and functions.

- Relating to the council of ministers
- Relating to the Governor
- Relating to the State Legislature
- Other functions and powers.

Relating to the Council of Ministers

As the head of the Council of Ministers, the Chief Minister enjoys the following functions and powers.

- The Chief Minister recommends the persons who can be appointed as ministers by Governor.

State Government

- He allocates the portfolios among the ministers.
- He shuffles and reshuffles his ministry.
- He can ask a minister to resign or to advise the Governor to dismiss him in case of difference of opinion.
- He presides over the meetings of the Council of Ministers and influences its decisions.
- He can bring about the collapse of the council of ministers by resigning from office.
- He guides, directs, controls and coordinates the activities of all the ministers.

Relating to the Governor

The Chief Minister is the principal channel of communication between the Governor and the Council of Ministers, and he advises the Governor in relation to the appointment of the following officials:

- Advocate General of the State.
- State Election Commissioner.
- Chairman and Members of the State Public Service Commission.
- Chairman and Members of the State Planning Commission.
- Chairman and Members of the State Finance Commission.

Relating to State Legislature

- The Chief Minister advises the Governor with regard to the summoning and proroguing the sessions of the state legislature.
- He announces the government policies on the floor of the house.
- He can introduce the bills in the Legislative Assembly.
- He can recommend for the dissolution of the Legislative Assembly to the Governor anytime.

Other function and powers

- As the leader of the ruling party, the Chief Minister has to control the party and develop the disciplines.
- As the leader of the state, he has to keenly consider the demands of the different sections of the people.
- As the political head of the various services, he has to supervise, control and co-ordinate the secretaries of various departments in the state level.
- For smooth functioning of the state and for good centre-state relations, he has to develop a rapport with the union government.

3.2.3 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 Minster. 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.

Article l63 provides for a Council of Ministers to aid and advice the Governor. According to Article 163(1) there shall be a Council of Ministers with the Chief Minister at the head to aid and advice the Governor in the exercise of his functions, except in so far as he is by or under this Constitution required to exercise his functions or any of them in his discretion.

Other Provisions relating to Ministers

Article 164(1) holds that the Chief Minister shall be appointed by the Governor and the other Ministers shall be appointed by the Governor on the advice of the Chief Minister, and the Ministers shall hold office during the pleasure of the Governor:

Article 164(1A) states that the total number of Ministers, including the Chief Minister, in the Council of Ministers in a State shall not exceed fifteen percent of the total number of members of the Legislative Assembly.

The functions and powers of the Council of Ministers

- It formulates and decides the policies of the state and implements them effectively.
- It decides the legislative programmes of the Legislative Assembly and sponsors all important bills.
- It controls the financial policy and decides the tax structure for the public welfare of the state.
- It chalks out programmes and schemes for the socio-economic changes so that the state makes headway in various inter-related fields.
- It makes the important appointments of the Heads of Departments.
- It discusses and takes efforts on the dispute with other states
- It advises the Governor on the appointment of Judges of the subordinate courts.
- It frames the proposal for incurring expenditure out of state reserves.
- It decides all the bills whether ordinary bills or money bills to be introduced in the Legislative Assembly.
- Each minister of the Council of Ministers supervises, controls and coordinates the department concerned.
- Annual Financial Statement called as the Budget is finalised by the Council of Ministers.

3.3 The State Legislature

The Constitution provides a legislature for every state. Most of the States have only unicameral legislature i.e., Legislative assembly. Some State has bicameral legislatures (example Bihar, Karnataka, Maharashtra, Uttar Pradesh, Andhra Pradesh, Telangana and Jammu-Kashmir). The lower house, legislative assembly represents the people of the state the upper house; Legislative Council represents special interests like teachers, graduates and local governments.

Tamil Nadu Legislative Assembly
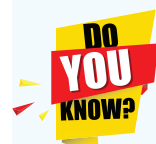
DO YOU KNOW? In Tamil Nadu, according to the strength of Legislative Assembly (234 members), the number of ministers may be up to 36, i.e. 15 percent of 234.

3.3.1 The Legislative Assembly (Lower House)

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 be below 60. The term of office of the legislative assembly is 5 years. It can be dissolved even before the expiry of its term.

The size of the Legislative Council cannot be more than one-third the membership of the Legislative Assembly (lower house) of that state. But its size cannot be less than 40, except in Jammu and Kashmir where there are 36 by an act of Parliament. The members draw the salary and allowances passed by the State legislature from time to time.

Composition

The Legislative Assembly of Tamil Nadu consists of 235 members out of which 234

members are directly elected by the people from the constituencies on the basis of adult franchise and one member is nominated by the Governor from the Anglo-Indian community. However, seats shall be reserved in the house for the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes.

Cabinet and Cabinet Committees

A smaller body called Cabinet is the nucleus of the council of minister. It consists of only the cabinet ministers. It is the real centre of authority in the state government.

The cabinet works through various committees called cabinet committees. They are of two types - standing and ad hoc. The former are of a permanent nature while the latter are of a temporary nature.

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.

3.3.2 The Legislative Council (Upper House)

The legislative Council is the upper House of the State Legislature. It is constituted as a permanent House. Article 171(1) provides that the total number of members in the Legislative Council of a State shall not exceed one-third of the total number of members in the Legislative Assembly of that State, but not less than 40 members in any case.

The Vidhan Parishads (Legislative Council) forms a part of the state legislatures of India. In Seven of India's 29 states (Bihar, Karnataka, Maharashtra, Uttar Pradesh, Andhra Pradesh, Telangana and Jammu - Kashmir) the Legislative Council serves as the indirectly-elected upper house of a bicameral legislature. It is also a permanent house because it cannot be dissolved. Every Member of Legislative Council (MLC) serves for a six-year term, with terms staggered so that the terms of one-third of members expire every two years. MLCs must be citizens of India not under 30 years of age, mentally sound and not bankrupt, and his name should be in the voter's list of the state from which he or she is contesting the election.

> **DO YOU KNOW?** The Tamil Nadu Legislative Council was abolished by Tamil Nadu Legislative Council (Abolition) Bill, 1986. The Act came into force on the 1st November 1986.

Election to Legislative Council

- 1/3 of the members are elected by local bodies.
- 1/12 of the members are elected by Graduates of the universities in the State.
- 1 /12 of the members are elected by Graduate teachers.
- 1/3 of the members are elected by the members of the Legislative Asshmby.
- 1/6 is nominated by the Governor who is eminent in the field of literary excellence, art, social services or Co-operation.

The Chairman

The Chairman (chair person he / she) is the Presiding Officer of the Upper house. The Members elect a Chairman and a deputy chairman from among themselves. In the absence of the chairman, the deputy chairman officiate the functions of the Legislative Council.

Abolition or Creation of Legislative Councils

Article 169 deals with the creation or abolition of Legislative Council in a State. Article 169 holds that if the state Legislative Assembly passes a resolution by a majority of not less than 2/3rd of the members present and voting and by the majority of total strength of the House, requesting the Parliament to create or abolish the state Legislative council then the Parliament may by law provide for the abolition and creation of the Legislative Council.

3.4 Functions of the State Legislature

The powers and functions of the State Legislature are almost the same as that of Parliament.

3.4.1 Legislative powers

The State Legislature can pass laws on all subjects mentioned in the State List as per the constitution. It can also pass laws on concurrent subjects. The State made law in a concurrent subject will become inoperative when the centre also passes a law on the same subject. The passing of Bill into law follows the same procedure, as in the union parliament. Every bill passes through three readings. Then it becomes an Act with the Governor's assent.

3.4.2 Financial Powers

The Legislature controls the finances of the State. The Lower House enjoys greater power than the Upper House in money matters. Money bills can be introduced only in the Lower House or the Assembly. No new tax can be levied without the sanction and permission of the Assembly.

3.4.3 Controls over the Executive

The Legislature controls the Executive. The Council of Ministers is responsible to the Assembly. The Ministers have to answer questions asked by the members of the Legislature. They can be removed from office if the Assembly passes a vote of "no confidence motion" against the Ministry.

3.4.4 Wide powers

In State having two Houses, the Legislative Assembly enjoys more powers than the Legislative Council. The Assembly has complete control over the state finance. The Council cannot vote for grants. The Council of Ministers is responsible only to the Assembly.

3.5 Judiciary of State

3.5.1 High Courts

The institution of high court originated in India in 1862 when the high courts were set up at Calcutta, Bombay and Madras. In the course of time, each province in British India came to have its own high court. After 1950, a high court existing in a province became the high court for the corresponding state. The High Courts are the highest courts at State level, but being part of integrated Indian judiciary they work under the superintendence, direction and control of the Supreme Court.
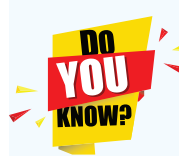

High Court of Madras

The Constitution of India provides for a high court for each state, but the Seventh Amendment Act of 1956 authorised the Parliament to establish a common high court for two or more states or for two or more states and a union territory.

For example, the States of Punjab and Haryana and the Union Territory of Chandigarh have a common High Court situated at Chandigarh.

Similarly, the High Court of Guwahati is common for seven northeastern States of Assam, Nagaland, Manipur, Meghalaya, Mizoram, Tripura and Arunachal Pradesh. Delhi, though not a State, has its own separate High Court. Every High Court has a Chief Justice and a number of judges. The number of judges varies from State to State. The number of judges of each High Court is determined by the President. At present there are 25 High Courts for 29 States (including new Andhra Pradesh High Court established in 1st January 2019 at principal seat in Amravati) and seven Union Territories.

> **DO YOU KNOW?** The High Court of Madras is the one of the three High Courts in India established in the three Presidency Towns of Bombay, Calcutta and Madras by letters patent granted by Queen Victoria, bearing date 26 June 1862. The High Court building is the second largest judicial complex in the world after London.

3.5.2 Appointment of the Judges

Every High Court consists of a Chief Justice and such other Judges as appointed by the President from time to time (Article 216).

3.5.3 Jurisdiction and Powers of High Court

At present, a high court enjoys the following jurisdiction and powers:

Original Jurisdiction

In their judicial capacity, the High Courts of the Presidency towns (Bombay, Calcutta and Madras) have both original and appellate jurisdictions, while other High Courts have mostly appellate jurisdiction.

Only in matters of admiralty, probate, matrimonial and contempt of Court, they have original jurisdiction. The Presidency High Courts have original jurisdiction in which the amount involved is more than `2000 and in

criminal cases which are committed to them by the Presidency Magistrates.

Appellate Jurisdiction

As Courts of appeal, all High Courts entertain appeals in civil and criminal cases from their subordinate Courts as well as on their own.

They have, however, no jurisdiction over tribunals established under the laws relating to the Armed Forces of the Country.

Writ Jurisdiction

Under Article 226 of the constitution, the High Courts are given powers of issuing writs not only for the enforcement of the Fundamental Rights, but also for other purposes. In exercise of this power, a Court may issue the same type of writs, orders or directions which the Supreme Court is empowered to issue under Article 32.

The jurisdiction to issue writs under this Article is larger in the case of High Courts, for which the Supreme Court can issue them only where a Fundamental Right has been infringed, a High Court can issue them not only in such cases, but also where an ordinary legal right has been infringed.

Habeas Corpus The writ of habeas corpus is issued to a detaining authority, ordering the detainer to produce the detained person in the issuing court, along with the cause of his or her detention, if the detention is found to be illegal, the court issues an order to set the person free.

Mandamus The writ of mandamus is issued to a subordinate court, an officer of government, or a corporation or other institution commanding the performance of certain acts or duties.

Prohibition The writ of prohibition is issued by a higher court to a lower court prohibiting it from taking up a case because it falls outside the jurisdiction of the lower court. Thus, the higher court transfers the case to it.

Quo Warranto The writ of quo Warranto is issued against a person who claims or usurps a public office. Through this writ the court inquires 'by what authority' the person supports his or her claim.

Certiorari The writ of certiorari is issued to a lower court directing that the record of a case be sent up for review, together with all supporting files, evidence and documents, usually with the intention of overruling the judgment of the lower court. It is one of the mechanisms by which the fundamental rights of the citizens are upheld.

Supervisory Jurisdiction

High court has the power of superintendence over all courts and tribunals functioning in its territorial jurisdiction (except military courts or tribunals) Thus, it may

(a) Call for returns from them;
(b) Make an issue, general rules and prescribe forms for regulating the practice and proceedings of them.
(c) Prescribe forms in which books, entries and accounts are to be kept by them; and
(d) Settle the fees payable to the sheriff, clerks, officers and legal practitioners of them.

Control over Subordinate Courts

A high court has an administrative control and other powers over them

(a) It is consulted by the governor in the matters of appointment, posting and promotion of district judges and in the appointments of persons to the judicial service of the state (other than district judges).
(b) It deals with the matters of posting, promotion, grant of leave, transfers and discipline of the members of the judicial service of the state (other than district judges).
(c) It can withdraw a case pending in a subordinate court if it involves a substantial question of law that requires the interpretation of the Constitution. It can then either dispose of the case itself or determines the question of law and return the case to the subordinate court with its judgment.
(d) Its law is binding on all subordinate courts functioning within its territorial jurisdiction in the same sense as the law declared by the Supreme Court is binding on all courts in India.

Court of Record

All the decisions and decrees issued by the High Court are printed and are kept as a record for future references by the Court as well as by the lawyers, is such a need arises. Thus, it also acts as a Court of Record.

Power of Judicial Review

Judicial review is the power of a high court to examine the constitutionality of legislative enactments and executive orders of both the Central and state governments. Though the phrase judicial review has no where been used in the Constitution, the provisions of Articles 226 and 227 explicitly confer the power of judicial review on a high court

The 42nd Amendment Act of 1976 curtailed the judicial review power of high court. It debarred the high court's from considering the constitutional validity of any central law. However, the 43rd Amendment Act of 1977 restored the original position.

Statue of Sama Neethi Kanda Cholan at Madras High Court

Recap

- The Governor is the constitutional head of the state executive.
- The Chief Minister is appointed by the Governor of the State.
- The Council of Ministers are collectively responsible to the State Legislature.
- The Legislative Assembly is the real centre of power in the State.
- At present there are 25 High Courts for 29 States and seven Union Territories.
- The 42nd Amendment Act of 1976 curtailed the judicial review power of high court.
- The 43rd Amendment Act of 1977 restored the original position.

A-Z GLOSSARY

Constitution	It has been defined as the fundamental law of a State.	அரசியலமைப்பு
Cabinet	It is an inner body within the Council of Ministers which is responsible for formulating the policy of the Government.	அமைச்சரவை
Legislature	the group of people in a country or part of a country who have the power to make and change laws	சட்டமன்றம்
Tribunal	a special court chosen, especially by the government, to examine particular problem	தீர்ப்பாயம்
Resolution	an official decision that is made after a group or organisation has voted	தீர்மானம்
Remuneration	payment for work or service	ஊதியம்
Interpretation	an explanation or opinion of what something means	விளக்கம்

EVALUATION

I Choose the Correct Answer

1 The Governor of the State is appointed by the
   (a) Prime Minister
   (b) Chief Minister
   (c) President
   (d) Chief Justice

2 The Speaker of a State is a
   (a) Head of State
   (b) Head of government
   (c) President's agent
   (d) None of these

3 Which among the following is not one of the powers of the Governor?
   (a) Legislative   (b) Executive
   (c) Judicial   (d) Diplomatic

4 Who can nominate one representative of the Anglo-Indian Community to the State Legislative Assembly?
   (a) The President
   (b) The Governor
   (c) The Chief Minister
   (d) The Speaker of State legislature

5 The Governor does not appoint
   (a) Chief Minister
   (b) Chairman of the State Public Service Commission
   (c) Advocate General of the State
   (d) Judges of the High Court

6 The Chief Minister of a State is appointed by

(a) The State Legislature

(b) The Governor

(c) The President

(d) The Speaker of State Legislative Assembly

7 The State Council of Ministers is headed by

(a) The Chief Minster

(b) The Governor

(c) The Speaker

(d) The Prime Minister

8 The Legislative Council

(a) Has a term of five years

(b) Has a term of six years

(c) Is a permanent house

(d) Has a term of four years

9 The minimum age for the membership of the Legislative Council is

(a) 25 years   (b) 21 years

(c) 30 years   (d) 35 years

10 The members of Legislative Council are

(a) Elected by the Legislative Assembly

(b) Mostly nominated

(c) Elected by local bodies, graduates, teachers, Legislative Assembly etc.

(d) Directly elected by the people

11 Which one of the following States does not possess a bicameral legislature?

(a) Andhra Pradesh

(b) Telangana

(c) Tamil Nadu

(d) Uttar Pradesh

12 The High Courts in India were first started at

(a) Calcutta, Bombay, Madras

(b) Delhi and Calcutta

(c) Delhi, Calcutta, Madras

(d) Calcutta, Madras, Delhi

13 Which of the following States have a common High Court?

(a) Tamil Nadu and Andhra Pradesh

(b) Kerala and Telangana

(c) Punjab and Haryana

(d) Maharashtra and Gujarat

II. Fill in the blanks

1 Governor of the state government surrenders his resignation to _____.

2 Members of the Legislative assembly (MLAs) elected by the _____.

3 _____ is the first women Governor of Tamil Nadu.

4 _____ acts as the chancellor of universities in the state.

5 The Seventh Amendment Act of _____ authorised the Parliament to establish a common high court for two or more states.

6 The Chairman and Members of the State Public Service Commission can be removed only by the _____.

III. Match the following

1. Governor - Head of the Government

2. Chief Minister - Head of the State

3. Council of Ministers- Tribunals

4. MLC - Responsible for the Assembly

5. Armed forces - cannot vote for grants

IV. Choose the correct statement

1. i) Only some States in India have Legislative Councils.

ii) Some members of Legislative Councils are nominated.

iii) Some members of Legislative Councils are directly elected by the people.

a) ii & iv are correct

b) iii & iv are correct

c) i & iv are correct

d) i, ii & iii are correct

2. Assertion (A): There are limitations on the Legislative authority of the State Legislature.

Reason (R): Certain bills on the State List can be introduced in the State Legislature only with the President's approval.

    a) (A) is false but R is true

    b) (A) is true but (R) is false

    c) Both (A) and (R) are true and (R) is the correct reason for (A)

    d) Both (A) and (R) are true and (R) is not the correct reason for (A)

V. Answer the brief questions

1   How the state of Jammu and Kashmir differ from the other states of India?

2   What is the importance of the Governor of a state?

3   What are the qualifications for the appointment of Governor?

4   What is the original jurisdiction of the High Court?

5   What do you understand by the "Appellate Jurisdiction" of the High Court?

VI. Answer in detail

1   What are the powers and functions of the Chief Minister?

2   Describe the various powers and functions of the Governor.

3   Briefly discuss the Functions of the State Legislature.

4   Critically examine the functions and powers of the Council of Ministers

5   Describe the powers and functions of the High Court.

VII. Project and Activity

1   Prepare a flow chart showing the State Government's Administrative setup.

2   Students to list out the names of the Tamil Nadu Governor, Chief Minister, Ministers and the Governors and Chief Ministers of the neighbouring States.

REFERENCE BOOKS

1.   D.D. Basu - Introduction of the Constitution of India, S.C. Sarkar & Sons (Private) Ltd, 1982.

2   Subhash Kashyap - Our Constitution, National Book Trust, India, 2011.

INTERNET RESOURCES

1   www.tnrajbhavan.gov.in

2   www.tn.gov.in

3   www.hcmadras.tn.nic.in

ICT CORNER

Through this activity you will know about the official details and functions of various states of our country.

Steps

- Open the Browser and type the URL given below.
- Click on any state of the Indian map to view the official website of the state and its function.
- For example, click on the Tamilnadu state. An additional tab will open in the browser where you can see the official website of Tamilnadu.
- Likewise you can view the details of the other states.

Website URL:

https://www.mea.gov.in/india-at-glance.htm

B376_10_SOCIAL_EM

STANDARD TEN

ECONOMICS

Gross Domestic Product and its Growth: an Introduction

Learning Objectives

■ To know about the meaning of Gross Domestic Product

■ To Understand the basic various measures of National Income

■ To understand the composition of GDP

■ To know the contribution of different sectors in GDP

■ To know the economic growth and development and its differences

■ To know about Development path based on GDP And Employment

■ To understand the growth of GDP and Economic Policies

5JG66Y

Introduction

After a long time you got in touch through email with a good friend of yours who lives abroad. When she asks "how are you?" you may answer " my health is in good shape and I am progressing in my studies, so I am doing well, thank you". Or your reply may be " Not very well. You see, I had to receive treatment for some health problems and that adversely affected my performance in my studies".

Your friend than asks you : "how is India doing?" The answer to this query is a bit more challenging because she is asking about the condition of the entire nation ! Fortunately economists have provided different measures of answering your friend's question , the most widely used one being the Gross Domestic Product, or GDP. The GDP then is one way to know if " India is doing well" or " India is not doing as well as we would wish".

DEFINITION OF GDP

To understand how the GDP tells us how India is doing, you should understand what GDP is.

Imagine what happens in a hotel. You place an order for two Idlis and a cup of tea. Someone makes the idlis and tea and someone else serves you.

An economist will say that in the hotel two kinds of items are being produced . Obviously, Idlis and tea are produced . These are tangible, physical things you can touch and feel.
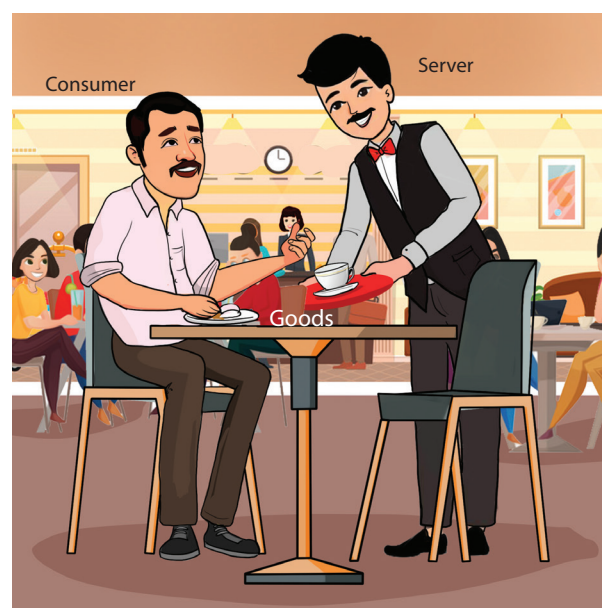
Economists call such tangible items "goods". These goods are not free but have to paid for.

Though you don't realise it in addition to these tangible things called goods, something else is being produced : the work done by the cooks and the people who serve the food. The activity of cooking and serving is not something you can feel and touch. Such activities are not tangible but are nevertheless crucial for you to enjoy the food. Economists call such activity "services". As in the case of goods, these and other services are not free but have to be paid for.

What happens everyday in a hotel happens nation wide: goods and services are produced and paid for and this what the GDP measures. The GDP is defined follows:

The GDP is the market value of all the final goods and services produced in the country during a time period.

Every part of the definition is important.

Goods and services: as you know by now, goods are tangible items while services are activities which are intangible .

Market value: This is the price at which goods and services are sold in the market.

The GDP measures all the goods and services produced in the country. For this, we have to add all the goods and services produced. However a nation produces a wide range of goods like rice, shoes , trains, milk, clocks, books and bicycles. If only the quantities are taken into account, there is no meaningful way to add these up. For example, how do you add 1000 litres of milk with 500 clocks?! Likewise there is no meaningful way to add the quantities of services since a wide range of services are produced , such as the work done by doctors, police, fire brigade, teachers, bus drivers and district collectors.

When we cannot add the quantity of one type of good with another type of good or one type of service with another type of service, certainly there is no sensible way to add the quantities of goods produced with those of services produced ! How would we add the quantity of milk produced in the country with the service produced by teachers?!

The GDP solves this problem by measuring the goods and services in the currency of the country, which is the rupee in the case of India. The rupee values are derived from the prices at which the goods and services are sold in the market. Only those goods and services with a market value are included in the GDP.

This implies that unless a good or service is sold in the market, it is not included in the GDP. For example if you pay ₹ 50 to get a manuscript typed in a computer centre, the service is included in the GDP since it is sold in the market. If you type the manuscript yourself , the service typing a manuscript is not included in the GDP since you did not purchase it for a price in the market.

Final goods and services: Economists Tyler Cowen and Alex Tabarrok say that "final goods and services" are the goods and services which will be used or consumed and will not form a part of other goods and services. The goods and services which will be used for producing other goods and services and will form a part of the goods and services produced are called "intermediate goods".

Only the final goods are included in the GDP. Intermediate goods are not counted in calculating the GDP because their value is included in the final goods. So if the intermediate goods are included in the GDP it will result in what is called "double counting".

For example, a cup of tea bought in a hotel is a final good because it is consumed and does not form a part of producing something else. So the market value of the cup of tea, being a final good, is included in the GDP. Sugar which is mixed in the tea is an intermediate good because it is used in making tea and forms a part of the tea served. Suppose the tea is priced ₹ 10 a cup, of which the value of sugar used is ₹ 2. So the price of the cup of tea includes the ₹ 2 price of the spoon of sugar. If this value of sugar is included in the GDP , it will be counted twice: as a spoon of sugar and again as a part of the cup of tea. This is "double counting" and to avoid it the intermediate goods like sugar are excluded from GDP.

Should the market value of utensils used to brew the tea be included in the GDP? You may argue that since the utensils are bought not as final goods but to produce tea, they are intermediate goods and so they should not be included in the GDP. However the utensils, unlike sugar, do not form a part of the final good , the cup of tea. For this reason they should be included in the GDP.

1.1 National Income

'National Income is a measure of the total value of goods and services produced by an economy over a period of time, normally a year'. Commonly National Income is called as Gross National Product(GNP) or National Dividend.

1.1.1 Various terms associated with measuring of National Income

1. Gross National Product (GNP)

Gross National Product is the total value of (goods and services) produced and income received in a year by domestic residents of a country. It includes profits earned from capital invested abroad.

$$GNP = C + I + G + (X–M) + NFIA)$$

C = Consumption

I = Investment

G = Government Expenditure

X-M = Export – Import

NFIA = Net Factor Income from Abroad)

2. Gross Domestic Product (GDP)

Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is the total value of output of goods and services produced by the factors of production within the geographical boundaries of the country.

3. Net National Product (NNP)

Net National Product(NNP) is arrived by making some adjustment with regard to depreciation that is we arrive the Net National Product (NNP) by deducting the value of depreciation from Gross National Product. (NNP = GNP – Depreciation)

4. Net Domestic Product (NDP)

Net Domestic Product (NDP) is a part of Gross Domestic Product, Net Domestic Product is obtained from the Gross Domestic Product by deducting the Quantum of tear and wear expenses (depreciation)

$$NDP = GDP – Depreciation$$

5. Per Capita Income (PCI)

Per capita Income or output per person is an indicator to show the living standard of people in a country. It is obtained by dividing the National Income by the population of a country.

Per capita Income = National Income / Population
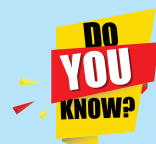
> **DO YOU KNOW?** In 1867-68 for the first time Dadabhai Navroji had ascertained the Per Capital Income in his book "Poverty and Un-British Rule of India".

6. Personal Income (PI)

Personal income is the total money income received by individuals and households of a country from all possible sources before direct taxes, therefore, personal income can be expressed as follows (PI = NI corporate Income Taxes – Undistributed corporate profits – social security contribution + Transfer payment).

7. Disposable Income (DI)

Disposable income means actual income which can be spent on consumption by individuals and families, thus, it can be expressed as DPI = PI – Direct Taxes

(From consumption approach DI = Consumption Expenditures + Savings)

1.2 Gross Domestic Product (GDP)

Produced in the country: GDP of India includes only the market value of goods and services produced in India. For example the market value of apples produced in Kashmir are included in our GDP since Kashmir is in India. The market value of apples produced in California, even if

they are sold in Indian markets, are not included in our GDP because California is in the U.S.

Produced during a time period: The GDP of a country measures the market value of goods and services produced only during the specified time period. The goods and services produced in earlier periods are not included. If an year is the specified time period, the GDP of 2018 will include the market value of goods and services produced only during 2018. So a bicycle produced in 2017 will not be included in the GDP measure for 2018.

In India the GDP is measured both annually and quarterly. The annual GDP is for a financial year which is from April1 of say 2017 to March 31, 2018. This is written as 2017-18. The quarterly GDP estimates are for each of the four quarters into which India's financial year is divided:

First quarter, denoted Q1: April, May and June

Second quarter, or Q2: July, August, September

Third Quarter or Q3: October, November, December

Fourth Quarter, or Q4: January, February, March.

The annual GDP for financial year 2017 - 18 will include only the goods and services produced during this financial year and will exclude the goods and services produced in the previous years. Likewise GDP for Q2 will include only the goods and services produced in Q2 and will not include the goods and services produced in Q1.

Gross Domestic Product (GDP) definition

Gross Domestic Product (GDP) represents the economic health of a country. It represents a sum of a country's production which consists of all purchases of goods and services used by individuals, firms, foreigners and the governing bodies. The monetary value of all the finished goods and services produced within a country's border in a specific time period.

GDP = C + I + G + (X − M)
C = Consumption I = Investment
G = Government Expenditure
(X − M) = X = Exports − M = Imports
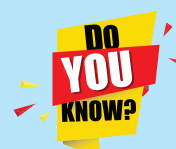
The modern concept of GDP was first developed by Simon Kuznets for a US Congress report in 1934.

1.2.1 Methods of GDP Calculating

1. **Expenditure Approach:** In this method, the GDP is measured by adding the expenditure on all the final goods and services produced in the country during a specified period. The different types of expenditure are shown in this equation: $Y = C + I + G + (X − M)$

2. **The Income Approach:** This method looks at GDP from the perspective of the earnings of the men and women who are involved in producing the goods and services. The income approach to measuring GDP (Y) is $Y = wages + rent + interest + profit$

3. **Value-Added Approach:** A cup of tea served to you in a hotel is a "final good". The goods used to produce it , tea powder, milk, and sugar, are "intermediate goods" since they form a part of the final good, the cup of tea. One way to measure the market value of

Value Added Approach

Tea Powder · Milk · Sugar · Tea

Intermediate Goods = Final Good
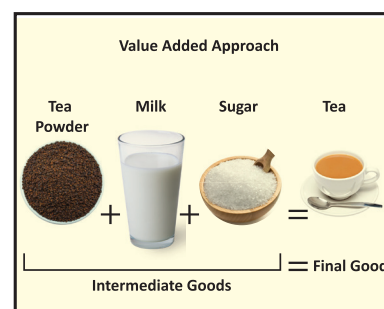
the cup of tea is to add the value produced by each intermediate good used to produce it. Each intermediate good, the tea powder , milk and sugar, adds value to the final output, the cup of tea. In the value-added approach the value added by each intermediate good is summed to estimate the value of the final good. The sum of the value added by all the intermediate goods used in production gives us the total value of the final goods produced in the economy.

1.2.2 Importance of GDP

1. Study of Economic Growth.
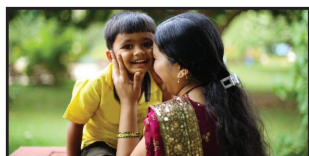2. Unequal distribution of wealth.

3. Problems of inflation and deflation.
4. Comparison with developed countries of the world.
5. Estimate the purchasing power.
6. Public Sector.
7. Guide to economic planning.

1.2.3 Limitations of GDP

The GDP is the most widely used measure of the state of the economy. While appreciating its usefulness, we should be aware of some of its limitations.

1 **Several important goods and services are left out of the GDP:** The GDP includes only the goods and services sold in the market. The services provided by parents to their children is very important but it is not included in the GDP because it is not sold in the market. Likewise clean air, which is vital for a healthy life, has no market value and is left out of the GDP.

2 **GDP measures only quantity but not quality:** In the 1970s schools and banks did not permit the use of ballpoint pens. This is because the ones available in India were of very poor quality. Since then, not only has there been a substantial increase in the quantity of ballpoint pens produced in India but their quality has also improved a lot. The improvement in quality of goods is very important but it is not captured by the GDP.

3 **GDP does not tell us about the way income is distributed in the country:** The GDP of a country may be growing rapidly but income may be distributed so unequally that only a small percentage of people may be benefitting from it.

4 **The GDP does not tell us about the kind of life people are living:** A high level of per capita real GDP can go hand-in-hand with very low health condition of people, an undemocratic political system, high pollution and high suicide rate.

Estimation of GDP

The Central Statistical Organisation (CSO), under the Ministry of Statistical department keeps the records. It's processes involves conducting an annual survey of industries and compilation of various indexes like the Index of Industrial Production (IIP) Consumer Price Index (CPI) etc.

1.3 Composition of Gross Domestic Product (GDP)

Indian economy is broadly divided into three sectors which contribute to the GDP namely Agriculture and allied activity, Industry and Services.

1) Primary Sector: (Agricultural Sector)

Agricultural sector is known as primary sector, in which agricultural operations are undertake. Agriculture based

Forestry

allied activities, production of raw materials such as cattle farm, fishing, mining, forestry, corn, coal etc. are also undertaken.

2) Secondary Sector: (Industrial Sector)

Industrial sector is secondary sectors in which the goods and commodities are produced by transforming the raw materials. Important industries are Iron

Industry

and Steel industry, cotton textile, Jute, Sugar, Cement, Paper, Petrochemical, automobile and other small scale industries.

3) Tertiary: (Service Sector)

Tertiary sector is known as service sector it includes Government, scientific research, transport communication,

Postal and Telegraph

trade, postal and telegraph, Banking, Education, Entertainment, Healthcare and Information Technology etc.. In the 20th century,economists began to suggest that, traditional tertiary services could be further distinguished from "quaternary" and "quinary" service sectors.

Sector-wise contribution in GDP of India

India is 2nd larger producer of agriculture product. India accounts for 7.39 percent of total global agricultural output. In Industrial sector, India world rank is 6 and in Service sector, India world rank is 8. Contribution of Agriculture sector in Indian economy is much higher than world's average (6.4%). Contribution of Industry and Services sector is lower than world's average 30% for Industry sector and 63% for Services sector.

| 1.4 | Contribution of different sectors in GDP of India |

Services sector is the largest sector of India. Gross Value Added (GVA) at current prices for Services sector is estimated at 92.26 lakh crore in 2018-19. Services sector accounts for 54.40% of total India's GVA of 169.61 lakh crore Indian rupees. With GVA of ₹ 50.43 lakh crore, Industry sector contributes 29.73%. While, Agriculture and allied sector shares 15.87%.

Gross value added (GVA) is the measure of the value of goods and services produced in an area, industry or sector of an economy. In national accounts GVA is output minus intermediate consumption; it is a balancing item of the national accounts' production account.

GVA is linked as a measurement to Gross Domestic Product (GDP), as both are measures of output. The relationship is defined as GVA + taxes on products - subsidies on products = GDP

GVA = GDP + subsidies - (direct, sales) taxes.

Sector-wise Contribution in GDP of India

Year	Agriculture(%)	Industry(%)	Service(%)
1950-51	51.81	14.16	33.25
1960-61	42.56	19.30	38.25
1970-71	41.95	20.48	37.22
1980-81	35.39	24.29	39.92
1990-91	29.02	26.49	44.18
2000-01	23.02	26.00	50.98
2010-11	18.21	27.16	54.64
2011-12	17.86	27.22	54.91
2012-13	17.52	26.21	56.27
2013-14	18.20	24.77	57.03
2015-16	17.07	29.08	52.05
2016-17	17.09	29.03	52.08
2017-18	17.01	29.01	53.09

Source: Central Statistics Office

Gross Domestic Product and its Growth: an Introduction

Sector-wise contribution of GDP (2018-19)
Percentage share (%)

- Agriculture Sector
- Agriculture Forestry & Fishing
- Industry sector
- Mining & quarrying
- Manufacturing
- Electricity, gas, water supply& other utility services
- Construction
- Services Sector
- Trade, hotels, transport, communication and services related to broad casting
- Financial, real estate & Prof Services
- Public administrative, defense and other services
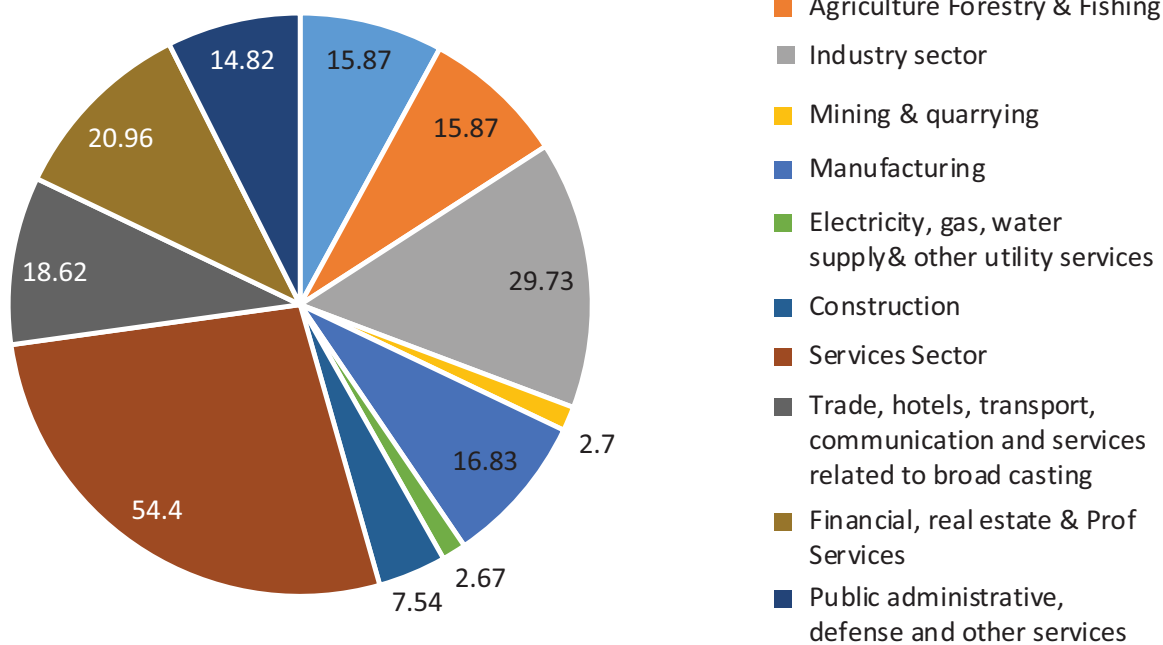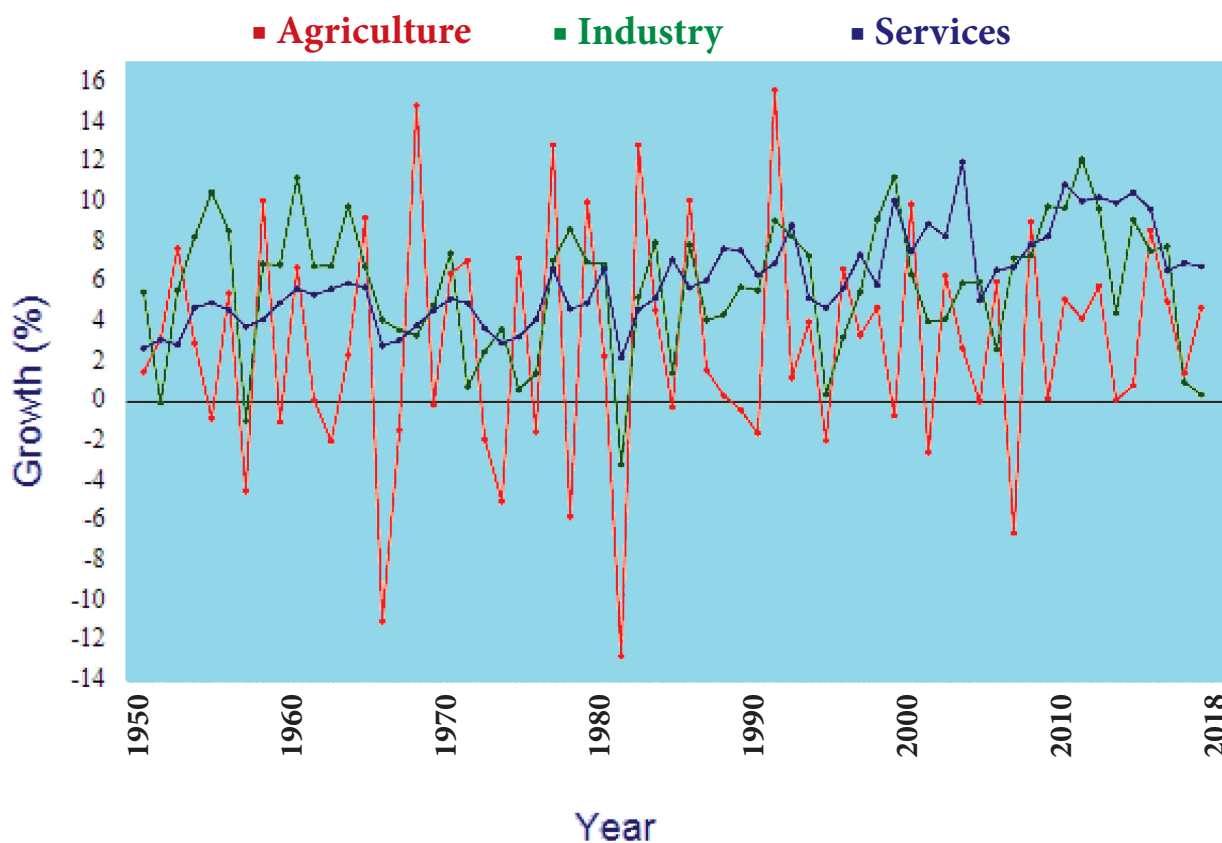
Source: Statistics times.com.

Note: The Table shows that Sector-wise contribution in GDP of India for the year 2018 - 2019.

Sectorwise GDP Growth of India (1950-2018)

■ **Agriculture**   ■ **Industry**   ■ **Services**

Source: Statistics times.com.

Note: The chart shows that Sector-wise contribution in GDP of India for the year 1950-2018

1.5 Economic Growth and Development

As per the economist Amartya Sen, economic growth is one aspect of economic development. Also, united nation see it like this "Economic development focuses not only on man's materialistic need but it focuses on overall development or rise in its living standards.

Economic Growth

It is the quantitative measure which considers the rise in the output produced in an economy or nation in a particular period in its monetary value. The key parameters of economic growth in any economy are its Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and gross national product which helps in measuring the actual size of an economy.

For example, we say GDP of India is 2.8 trillion USD and ranked 6th in globe whereas GDP of the United States of America is 19.3 trillion USD and ranked one. It shows how much the production of goods and services has increased compared from last year in a quantitative manner. It has many parameters to measure and few of them are human Resources. They are Natural Resource, Advancement in technology, Capital formation, Political and social economic factors.

Economic Development

Economic development projects a broader picture of an economy which takes into account an increase in production level or output of an economy along with an improvement in the living standard of its citizens. It focuses more on socioeconomic factors rather than the just quantitative increase in production. Economic development is a qualitative measure which measures improvement in technology, labour reforms, rising living standards, broader institutional changes in an economy.

Human development Index (HDI) is apt tool to measure the real development in an economy.

### Differences between Economic Growth and Economic Development

Comparison between Economic Growth and Economic Development	Economic Growth	Economic Development
Definition / Meaning	It is the positive quantitative change in the output of an economy in a particular time period	It considers the rise in the output in an economy along with the advancement of HDI index which considers a rise in living standards, advancement in technology and overall happiness index of a nation.
Concept	Economic growth is the "Narrower" concept	Economic development is the "Broader" concept
Nature of Approach	Quantitative in nature	Qualitative in nature
Scope	Rise in parameters like GDP, GNP, FDI,FII etc.	Rise in life expectancy rate, infant, improvement in literacy rate, infant mortality rate and poverty rate etc.
Term / Tenure	Short term in nature	Long-term in nature
Applicability	Developed nation	Developing economies

Measurement Techniques	Increase in national income	Increase in real national income i.e. per capita income
Frequency of Occurrence	In a certain period of time	Continuous process
Government Aid	It is an automatic process so may not require government support/aid or intervention	Highly dependent on government intervention as it includes widespread policies changes so without government intervention it is not possible
Wealth Distribution	Economic growth does not emphasize on the fair and equal distribution of wealth/income among all its people.	It focuses on a balanced and equitable distribution of wealth among all individual and tries to uplift the downgrade societies.

Human Development Index

In 1990 Mahbub ul Haq, a Pakistani Economist at the United Nations, introduced the Human Development Index (HDI). The HDI is a composite index of life expectancy at birth, adult literacy rate and standard of living measured as a logarithmic function of GDP, adjusted to purchasing power parity.
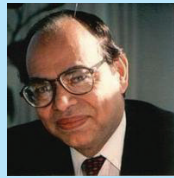
India climbed one spot to 130 out of 189 countries in the latest human development rankings released today by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). India's HDI value for 2017 is 0.640, which put the country in the medium human development category. Between 1990 and 2017, India's HDI value incased from 0.427 to 0.640, an increase of nearly 50 percent – and an indicator of the country's remarkable achievement in lifting millions of people out of poverty.

Between 1990 and 2017, India's life expectancy at birth too increased by nearly 11 years, with even more significant gains in expected years of schooling. Today's Indian school-age children can expect to stay in school for 4.7 years longer than in 1990. Whereas, India's GNI per capita increased by a staggering 266.6 % between 1990 and 2017.

1.6 Developmental Path based on GDP andEmployment

In the development path of India, it first undertook the policy of closed trade. This was to give a thrust to domestic industries and reduce dependence on foreign products and companies.Trade and interaction with the outside world remained limited. This outlook continued till 1991 when India finally decided to open its borders to free trade and liberalized its economy by allowing foreign companies to enter the Indian economy.

A thrust was given to employment generation under the Five Year plans. This was to make up for a rising population and lacking jobs to absorb the increased workforce size. Rural development was also given importance in India, for the important constituent it was of the Indian landscape.

Poverty alleviation came as a corollary of rural development and a part of the development path of India. India inherited a poverty-stricken economy from the British rule, which had destroyed its resource base completely.

The public sector was given significant importance, Private companies and industries were subject to strict regulations and standards. It was believed that the government was the sole

protector of the people and would work towards social welfare.

India has sustained rapid growth of GDP for most of the last two decades leading to rising per capita incomes and a reduction in absolute poverty. Per capita incomes have doubled in 12 years. In Per capita income, placing India just inside the Middle Income Country category.

Life expectancy at birth is 65 years and 44% of children under 5 are malnourished. The literacy rate for the population aged 15 years and above is only 63% compared to a 71% figure for lower middle income countries.

India has followed a different path of development from many other countries. India went more quickly from agriculture to services that tend to be less tightly regulated than heavy industry. There are some emerging manufacturing giants in the Indian economy.

Factors supporting Indian development

A fast-growing population of working age. There are 700 million Indians under the age of 35 and the demographics look good for Indian growth in the next twenty years at least. India is experiencing demographic transition that has increased the share of the working-age population from 58 percent to 64 percent over the last two decades.

India has a strong legal system and many English-language speakers. This has been a key to attracting inward investment from companies such as those specialising in Information Technology.

Wage costs are low in India and India has made strides in recent years in closing some of the productivity gap between her and other countries at later stages of development.

India's economy has successfully developed highly advanced and attractive clusters of

Gross National Happiness (GNH)

Gross National Happiness (GNH) is a philosophy that guides the government of Bhutan. It includes an index which is used to measure the collective happiness and well-being of a population. Gross National Happiness is instituted as the goal of the government of Bhutan in the Constitution of Bhutan, enacted on 18 July 2008.

The term Gross National Happiness was coined in 1972 during an interview by a British journalist for the Financial Times at Bombay airport when the then king of Bhutan, Jigme Singye Wangchuck, said "Gross National Happiness is more important than Gross National Product.

In 2011, The UN General Assembly passed Resolution "Happiness: towards a holistic approach to development" urging member nations to follow the example of Bhutan and measure happiness and well-being and calling happiness a "fundamental human goal."

GNH is distinguishable from Gross Domestic Product by valuing collective happiness as the goal of governance, by emphasizing harmony with nature and traditional values as expressed in the 9 domains of happiness and 4 pillars of GNH. The four pillars of GNH's are 1) sustainable and equitable socio-economic development; 2) environmental conservation; 3) preservation and promotion of culture; and 4) good governance.

The nine domains of GNH are psychological well-being, health, time use, education, cultural diversity and resilience, good governance, community vitality, ecological diversity and resilience, and living standards. Each domain is composed of subjective (survey-based) and objective indicators. The domains weigh equally but the indicators within each domain differ by weight.

businesses in the technology space. For example witness the rapid emergence of Bangalore as a hub for global software businesses. External economies of scale have deepened their competitive advantages in many related industries.

1.7 Growth of GDP and Economic Policies

Many Economic Policies have been framed by the Government of India since independence for increasing rate of economic growth and economic development. The important economic policies are

1. Agriculture policy

Agricultural policy is the set of government decisions and actions relating to domestic agriculture and imports of foreign agricultural products. Governments usually implement agricultural policies with the goal of achieving a specific outcome in the domestic agricultural product markets. Some over arching themes include risk management and adjustment, economic stability , natural resources and environmental sustainability research and development, and market access for domestic commodities.

Some Agricultural policies are Price policy, land reform policy, Green Revolution, Irrigation policy, Food policy, Agricultural Labour Policy and Co-operative policy.

2. Industrial Policy

Industrial development is a very important aspect of any economy. It creates employment, promotes research and development, leads to modernization and ultimately makes the economy self-sufficient. In fact, industrial development even boosts other sectors of the economy like the agricultural sector (new farming technology) and the service sector. It is also closely related to the development of trade.

Several industrial policies since 1948, Industrial policy on large scale industries Eg. Textile Industry policy, Sugar Industry policy, Price policy of industrial growth, Small scale industrial policy and Industrial Labour policy.

3. New Economic Policy

The economy of India had undergone significant policy shifts in the beginning of the 1990s. This new model of economic reforms is commonly known as the LPG or Liberalisation, Privatisation and Globalisation model. The primary objective of this model was to make the economy of India the fastest developing economy in the globe with capabilities that help it match up with the biggest economies of the world. These economic reforms had influenced the overall economic growth of the country in a significant manner.

Some other policies in India

- **Trade Policy**
  Import and Export policy (International Trade Policy), Domestic Trade Policy.

- **Employment policy**

- **Currency and Banking Policy**

- **Fiscal and Monetary Policy**

- **Wage Policy**

- **Population Policy**

1.7.1 GDP Growth of India

India's economic growth story since the 1990s has been steady, stable, diversified, resilent and reflect strong macro economics fundamentals. Despite fluctuations in recent quarters due to disruptions caused by two major structural reforms - demonetisation and the Goods and

Services Tax (GST). The world Bank projected a growth rate of 7.3% in the year 2018-19 and 7.5% 2019-2020. India's average economic growth between 1970 and 1980 has been 4.4% which rise by 1% point to 5.4% between the 1990 and 2000.

According to IMF World Economic Outlook (October-2018), GDP growth rate of India in 2018 is projected at 7.3% and India is 5th fastest growing nation of the world just behind Bangladesh.

RECAP

- GDP is the value of all goods and services produced within an economy in a financial year.
- Indian economy is classified in three sectors Agriculture and allied Industry and Service
- Depreciation: The Monetary value of an asset decreases over time due to use, wear and tear or obsolescence
- Income: The amount of monetary or other returns, either earned or unearned, accruing over a period of time.
- Gross Value Added (GVA): The measure of the value of goods and services produced in an area, industry or sector of an economy.
- GNP Deflator: The change in GNP with the change in price levels.
- Economic indicator - An economic indicator is a statistical data used to determine the health of the economy.

GLOSSARY

Depreciation	The process of lossing value	தேய்மானம்
Intermediate	Being between two other related things	இடைநிலை
Market Price	A price that is likely to be paid for something	சந்தை விலை
Final Goods	A consumer good or final good is any commodity that is produced or consumed by the consumer to satisfy current wants or needs	இறுதி பொருட்கள்
Composition	the nature of something's ingredients or constituents; the way in which a whole or mixture is made up	கலவை
Contribution	a gift or payment to a common fund or collection.	பங்களிப்பு
Socio-Economic	relating to or concerned with the interaction of social and economic factors.	சமூக-பொருளாதார
Self-Esteem	confidence in one's own worth or abilities; self-respect	சுயமரியாதை
Broader	covering a large number and wide scope of subjects	பரந்த
Staggering	continue in existence or operation uncertainly or precariously.	தடுமாற்றத்தினை

EVALUATION

I Choose the correct answer

1. GNP equals
   a) NNP adjusted for inflation
   b) GDP adjusted for inflation
   c) GDP plus net property income from abroad
   d) NNP plus net property income or abroad

2. National Income is a measure of
   a) Total value of money
   b) Total value of producer goods
   c) Total value of consumption goods
   d) Total value of goods and services

3. Primary sector consist of
   a) Agriculture   b) Automobiles
   c) Trade   d) Banking

4. _____ approach is the value added by each intermediate good is summed to estimate the value of the final good.
   a) Expenditure approach
   b) Value added approach
   c) income approach
   d) National Income

5. Which one sector is highest employment in the GDP.
   a) Agricultural sector
   b) Industrial sector
   c) Service sector
   d) None of the above.

6. Gross value added at current prices for services sector is estimated at _____ lakh crore in 2018-19.
   a) 91.06   b) 92.26   c) 80.07   d) 98.29

7. India is _____ larger producer in agricultural product.
   a) 1 st   b) 3 rd   c) 4 th   d) 2nd

8. India's life expectancy at birth is _____ years.
   a) 65   b) 60   c) 70   d) 55

9. Which one is a trade policy?.
   a) irrigation policy
   b) import and export policy
   c) land-reform policy
   d) wage policy

10. Indian economy is
   a) Developing Economy
   b) Emerging Economy
   c) Dual Economy
   d) All the above

II Fill in the blanks

1. _____ sector is largest sector in India.
2. GDP is the indicator of _____ economy.
3. Secondary sector otherwise called as _____.
4. _____ sector is the growth engine of Indian economy.
5. India is _____ largest economy of the world.
6. India is _____ fastest growing nation of the world.
7. _____ policy envisages rapid industrialization with modernization for attaining rapid economic growth of GDP.

III Choose the correct statement

1. The rate of saving is low in India for the following reason
   I. Low per capita income.
   II. Poor performance and less contribution of public sector.
   III. Poor contribution of household sector.
   IV. Savings potential of the rural sector not tapped fully.
      a) I, II, IV are correct
      b) I, II and III are correct
      c) I, II, III and IV are correct
      d) I, III and IV are correct

IV Match the following

1. Electricity/ Gas and Water   – National Income / Population
2. Price policy   – Gross National Product
3. GST   – Industry Sector
4. Per capita income   – Agriculture
5. C + I + G + (X-M)   – Tax on goods and service

V Give short answer

1. Define National income.
2. What is meant by Gross domestic product?
3. Write the importance of Gross domestic product.
4. What is per capita income?.
5. Define the value added approach with example.
6. Name the sectors contribute to the GDP with examples.
7. Write the sectorwise Indian GDP composition in 2017.
8. what are the factors supporting to develop the indian economy
9. Write the name of ecnomic policies in India.
10. Write a short note 1) Gross National Happiness(GNH) 2) Human Development Index(HDI)

VI Write in detail answer

1. Briefly explain various terms associated with measuring of national income.
2. What are the methods of calculating Gross Domestic Product? and explain its.
3. Write about the composition of GDP in India.
4. Write the differences between the growth and development.

5. Explain the Developmental path based on GDP and employment.
6. Explain the following the economic policies
   1.Agricultural Policy
   2.Industrial policy
   3.New ecnomic policy

VII Activity and Project

1. Students are collect the Gross Domestic Product datas of Tamilnadu and compare the other state of Karnataka and Kerala's GDP.
2. Students are collect the details of Employment growth of Tamilnadu.

REFERENCE BOOKS

1. Sankaran Indian Economy(problems, policies,and development).
2. Ramesh singh Indian economy (10th Edition).
3. Ministry of statistics and implementation planning commission. Government of india.

INTERNET RESOURCES

1. http://en.wikipedia.org
2. http://www.statisticstimes.com

ICT CORNER

Steps

- Open the Browser and type the URL given below (or) Scan the QR Code.
- Click on 'Real GDP Growth' and select 'India' in Right side menu
- Drag the timeline button to see the GDP Growth of India

Website URL:
https://www.imf.org/external/datamapper/datasets/WEO/1

B376_10_SOCIAL_EM

Unit - 2

Globalization and Trade

🎯 Learning Objectives

- To know the meaning and history of globalization
- To know the trade and traders in South India historical perspective
- To know the evolution of growth of MNC
- To know the fair trade practices and WTO
- To understand the impact and challenges of globalization

Introduction

Liberalization, Privatization and Globalization (LPG) have become a much talked of subjects among politicians, economists and businessmen in modern days. These three expressions are the supporting pillars of which the edifice of new economic policy of our Government has been erected and implemented since 1991.
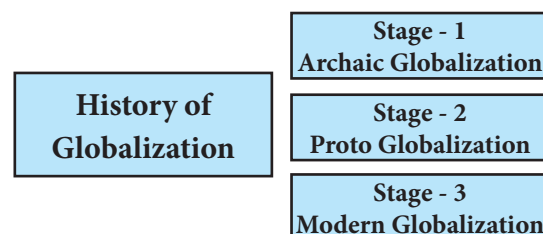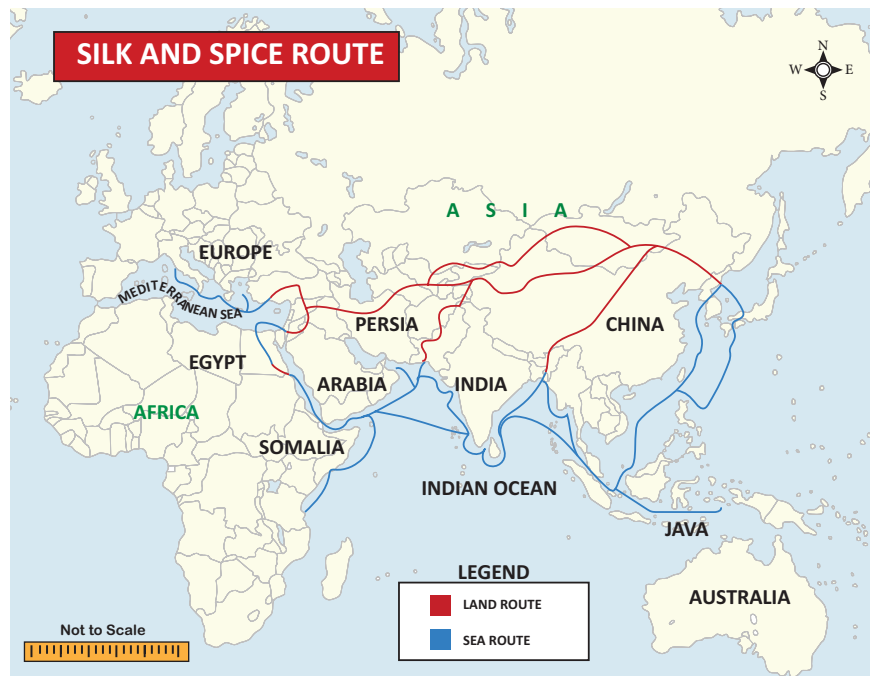

Globalization

2.1 Globalization

Globalization is the process of integrating various economies of the world without creating any barriers in the free flow of goods and services, technology, capital and even labour or human capital. Under globalization, the international markets for goods and services are integrated.

Globalization is the integration of a country with the world economy. Basically, globalization signifies a process of internationalization plus liberalization.

2.2 History of Globalization

The term of 'Globalization' was introduced by Pro. Theodore Levitt. The historical backround of globalization can be discussed on three stages.

History of Globalization	Stage - 1 Archaic Globalization
	Stage - 2 Proto Globalization
	Stage - 3 Modern Globalization

Silk Route and Spice Route

2.2.1. Archaic Globalization

Andre Gunder Frank argued that a form of globalization has been in existence since the rise of trade links between Sumer and Indus valley civilization in the third millennium BC (BCE). An early form of globalized economics and culture, known as Archaic globalization existed during the Hellenistic Age. When commercialized urban centers were focused around the axis of Greek culture over a wide range that stretched from India to Spain with such cities as Alexandria, Athens, and Anthioch, as its center. An early form of globalization in the trade link between the Roman Empire, Parthian Empire and the Han Dynasty made the commercial links between these powers inspired the development of the Silk Road.

The Islamic Golden Age was also an important early stage of globalization. The advent of the Mongol Empire, though destabilizing to the commercial centers of the Middle East and China, greatly facilitated travel along the Silk Road. These Pre-modern phase of global exchange are sometimes known as archaic globalization.

2.2.2. Proto Globalization

The next phase is known as proto - globalization. It was charterized by the rise of maritime European empires, in the 16th and 17th centuries, first the Portugues and Spanish Empires, and Dutch and British empires. In the 17th century, globalization became private business phenomenon like British East India Company[founded in 1600] described as the first multinational company, and the first Dutch East India Company [found in 1602] were established. In 16th century, Portuguese started establishing trading posts [factories] from Africa to Asia and Brazil.

2.2.3. Modern Globalization

The 19th century witnessed the advent of globalization approaching its modern form. Between the globalization in the 19th and in he 20th century there are significant differences. There are two main points one is the global trade in his centuries as well as the capital, investment and the economy and another one is the global trade in the 20th century shows a higher share of trade in merchant production, a growth of the trade in services and the rise of production and trade by multinational firms.

Multinational trade contracts and agreements have been signed, like the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade [GATT] and World Trade Organization [WTO]. From 1890 and up to World War 1 instability trade was a problem, but in the post war period there has mostly been economic expansion which leads to stability. Technological changes have caused lower transporting costs, it take just a few hours to transport goods between continents today.

| 2.3 | Trade and Traders in South India historical perspective |

Southern Indian trade guilds were formed by merchants in order to organize and expand their trading activities. Trade guilds become channels through which Indian culture was exported to other lands. South India trade was dominated by the Cholas, and it replaced the Pallavas.

2.3.1. Early Traders

In the year 1053 AD (CE) the Kalinga traders (Modern Orissa) brought red colored stone decorative objects for trade and also cotton textile to Southeast Asia at an early date. Several trade guilds operated in medieval Southern India such as the Gatrigas, Nakaras, Mummuridandas, Ayyavole -500 Settis, Birudas, Gavaras, etc.. Some trade guilds, such as the Nakaras and Gavares, met only in the temple premises.

2.3.2. European Traders in South India

This was due to the trading activities of the various European companies which came to India during this period. The discovery of a new all-sea route from Europe to India Via cape of Good Hope by Vasco do Gama had for reaching repercussions on the civilized world. India's coastal and maritime trade was monopolized by the Europeans.

KALINGA TRADE ROUTE

China
Kalinga
Burma
Champa
Siam
Kmer
Malaya
Ceylon
Sumatra
Java
Bali

Not to Scale

Kalinga Trade route map

2.3.3. The Portuguese

Vasco Da Gama

The Portuguese under the leadership of Vasco da Gama landed at Calicut on the 17th May, 1498. Profits of goods brought by Vasco do Gama to Portugal were to 60 times cost of the entire expedition to India. The arrival of Pedro Alvarez cabral in India in 1500AD (CE) and the second trip of Vasco da Gama in 1502 led to the establishment of trading station at Calicut Cochin and Cannanore. Cochin was the early capital of the Portuguese in India.

2.3.4. The Dutch in South India
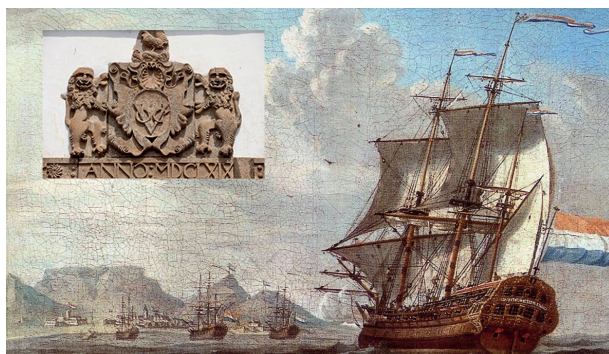
Dutch East India company

Dutch undertook several voyages from 1596 and formed the Dutch East India company (VOC) I 1602. In 1605, Admiral van der Hagen established Dutch Factory at Masulipatnam and Pettapoli (Nizamapatanam), Devanampatinam. In 1610, upon negotiating with the king of Chandragiri, found another facactory at Pulicut. Other commodities exported by the Dutch were indigo, saltpeter and Bengal raw silk. Pulicut was the headquarters of the Dutch in India. Nagapatnam on the Tanjore coast acquired from the Portuguese in 1659.

2.3.5. The British Company (UK)

Queen Elizabeth

On 31st December, 1600, Queen Elizabeth granted charter to The East India Company. On the south-eastern coast, the English established at Masulipatnam in 1611 and near Pulical in 1626. The Sultan of Golconda granted the English the "Golden Fireman" in 1632 by which they were allowed to trade freely in their "Kingdom Ports". In 1639, built a fortified factory in Madras which known as Fort St.George, which soon displaced Masulipatnam as headquarters of the English settlement on the coromandel coast.

2.3.6. The Danes

The Danes formed an East India company and arrive in India in 1616. The Danish settlements were established at Tranguebar (in Tamil nadu) in 1620 which was the headquarters of Danes in India. They failed to strengthen themselves, in India and in 1845 were forced to sell all their India settlements to the British.

2.3.7. The French

The first French factory in India was established in 1668 by obtaining permission from the Sultan of Golconda. In 1693, the Dutch captured Pondicherry but was handed back to the French. In 1701, Pondicherry was the headquarters of the French. Settlements in the East after 1742 Political motives began to overshadow the desire for commercial gain.

Recently, the Government of India has set up Special Economic Zones in Southern States

especially in Tamilnadu, Andhra, Karnataka and Kerala with a view to boost exports Nanguneri Sez, Ennore Sez, Coimbatore Sez are some in Tamilnadu.

2.4 Globalization in India

In India the period after 1980-81 was marked by severe balance of payment difficulties mainly due to hike in oil price and Gulf war in 1990-91 and hostilities in West Asia.

When the new government took over in June 1991. India had unprecedented balance of payment crisis. The finances of the central, and state Government had reached a situation of near bankruptcy.

With the downgrading of India's credit rating by some international agencies, there was heavy flight of capital out of India.

Since India lost its credit worthiness in the international market, the government mortgaged 40 tons of gold to the Bank of England. Under these circumstances, the government for 1991-92 presented its budget in July 1991 with a series of policy changes which underlined globalization, liberalization and privatization. This has come to be called as India's new economic policy. This policies were strengthened when India signed the Dunkel Draft in 1994.

Reforms made to adopt Globalization:-
(New Economic policy in India)

1. Abolition of Industrial licensing, except for a few industries.
2. Reduction in the number of industries reserved for public sector.
3. Fixation of a realistic exchange rate of rupee to exchange exports of Indian goods.
4. Foreign private sector by making rupee convertible on trade, on current account and by reducing import duties.
5. Foreign exchanges regulations were suitably amended
6. The Statutory Liquidity Ratio (SLR) was reduced to increase lending by RBI.

2.5 Multi National Corporation (MNC)

Multi National Corporation is a Corporate organization which owns or controls production of goods or services in at least one country other than its home country. Otherwise called Multinational Corporations (MNCs) or Transnational Corporation (TNC) or Multinational Enterprise (MNE).

2.5.1.Evolution of MNC

Like, the East India Company, which came to India as a trading company and then its net throughout the country to become politically dominant, these multinationals first start their activities in extractive industries or control raw materials in the host countries during 1920s and then slowly entered. The manufacturing and service sectors after 1950s. Most of the MNC's at present belong to the four major exporting countries viz., USA, UK, France, Germany. However, the largest is American.

11 of the 15 largest multinationals are American, In 1971, the American Corporations held 52 percent of the total world stock of foreign direct Investment. Great Britain held 14.5 percent followed by France 5 percent and Federal Republic of Germany 4.4 percent and Japan 2.7 percent. In 1969 the American Multinationals alone produced approximately 140 billion dollars worth of goods.

The American multinationals realize quite substantial returns to the extent of 34 percent in Asiatic countries and 22 percent in African countries. They then acquire enormous powers in hose countries, which smoothens the free flow of fund across international boundaries. They purchase the best brains in these countries and resort to unfair practices. With their huge resources, the MNCs are able to invest in research and development and exploit technological developments to manufacture new products, and discover new process.

2.5.2.Growth of MNCs in India

A common form of MNC Participation in Indian industry is through entering into cooperation with Indian industrialist. Trends of liberalization in the 1980s gave a substantial spurt to foreign collaborations. This would be clear from the fact that of the total 12,760 foreign collaboration agreements in 40 years between 1948-1988. As a result of liberalized foreign investment policy (FIP) announced in July-Aug 1991 there has a further spurt of foreign collaborations and increase flow of foreign direct investment.

MNC Company

2.5.3. Reasons for the growth MNC

1. Expansion of Market territory.

As the operations of large sized firm expand, it seeks more and more extension of its activates beyond the physical boundaries of the country in which it is in corporate.

2. Marketing superiorities:

A multinational firm enjoys a number of marketing superiorities over the national firms. It enjoys market reputation and faces less difficulty in selling its products it adopt more effective advertising and sales promotion techniques.

3. Financial Superiorities

It has financial resources and a h high level of funds utilization. It has easier access of external capital markets. Because of its international reputation it is able to raise more international resources.

4. Technological superiorities:

The main reason why MNCs have been encouraged by the underdeveloped countries to participate in their industrial development is on account of the technological superiorities which these firms posses as compared to national companies.

5. Product innovations:

MNCs have research and development engaged in the task of developing new products and superior designs of existing products.

2.5.4.Advantages of MNC

1. Producing the same quality of goods at lower cost and without transaction cost
2. MNC reduce prices and increase the Purchasing power of consumers world wide
3. A MNCs is able to take advantage of tax variation.
4. Spurring job growth in the local economies

2.5.5. Disadvantages of MNC

1. They are a way for the corporations to develop a monopoly (for certain products)
2. They are also a detrimental effect on the environment.
3. The introduction of MNC in to a host country's economy may also lead to the downfall of smaller, local business.
4. MNC breach ethical standards, accusing them of evading ethical laws and leveraging their business agenda with capital.

DO YOU KNOW?

Top 10 Largest Multinational Companies in India 2018

1. Sony Corporation
2. Hew left Packard (HP)
3. Tata Group
4. Microsoft Corporation
5. IBM
6. Nettle
7. Procter & Gamble
8. City Group
9. Pepsi Company
10. The Coca-Cola Company

Indian Multi National Companies			
Company	Headquarter	Type of Industry	Countries of operating
Hero Motocorp	New Delhi	Automobile	Columbia, Bangladesh, Africa
Bajaj	Pune	Automobile	United Arab Emirates(UAE), Bangladesh
TVS	Chennai	Automobile	Brazil,Chile,Colombia, Mexico,Peru
State Bank of India	Mumbai	Banking	Australia,Bangaladesh, Belgium
Bharti Airtel	New Delhi	Communication	South Asia, Africa
Micromax Informatics	Gurgaon	Electronics	Nepal, Srilanka, Bangladesh
Amul	Anand (Gujarat)	Food product	US, Thailand, Malaysia, Hong Kong, Japan,
ONGC	Delhi	Fuel	Brazil, Colombia, Iran
Dr. Reddy's Laboratories	Hyderabad	Medical Laboratory	Brazil, Mexico, Jamalica
Infosys	Bengaluru	Software	America, Europa, Africa

FERA (Foreign Exchange Regulation Act 1974)
This Act referred directly to the operations of MNCs in India

FEMA (Foreign Exchange Management Act 1999)
Under FEMA the emphasis is on 'Management' rather than 'regulation'

Foreign Contribution (regulation) Act, 2010
FCRA, 2010 has been enacted by the Parliament to consolidate the law to regulate the acceptance and utilization of foreign contribution or foreign hospitality by certain individuals or associations or companies and to prohibit acceptance and utilization of foreign contribution or foreign hospitality for any activities detrimental to national interest and for matters connected therewith or incidental thereto.

The flow of foreign contribution to India is regulated under

- Foreign Contribution (Regulation) Act, 2010
- Foreign Contribution (Regulation) Rules, 2011

2.6 Fair Trade Practices and World Trade Organization

Fair Trade is a way of doing business that ultimately aims to keep small farmers an active part of the world Market place, and aims to empower consumer to make purchases that support their values. Fair Trade is a set of business practices voluntarily adopted by the producers and buyers of agricultural commodities and hand-made crafts that are designed to advance many economic, social and environmental goals, including,

- Raising and stabilizing the incomes of small-Scale farmers, farm workers and artisans.
- More equitably distributing the economic gains, opportunities and risks associated with the production and sale of these goods.
- Increasing the organizational and commercial capacities of producer groups.
- Promoting labor rights and the right workers to organize.
- Promoting safe and sustainable farming Methods and working conditions.

Fair trade is about better prices, decent working conditions and fair terms of trade for farmers and workers. It's about supporting the development of thriving farming and worker communities that have more central over their futures and protecting the environment in which they live and work.

2.6.1 Beneficiaries of Fair trade practices:

1. Consumer:

Consumer support enables Fair Trade Organisation to be advocates and comparing for wider reform of International trading rules. They can choose from an even growing range of great products. By buying Fair trade labeled products consumers support producers who are struggling to improve their lives.

2. Trader/companies:

Since, it launch in 2002 the Fair trade mark has become the most widely, recognized social and development label in the world. Fair trade offers companies a credible way to ensure that their trade has a positive impact.

3. Producers:

Stable prices that cover the costs of sustainable production. Market access that enable buyers to trade with producers who would otherwise be excluded from market. Partnership (Producers are involved in decisions their future). The Empowerment of farmers and workers.

2.6.2 Principles of Fair trade Organization

- Creating Opportunities for Economically Disadvantaged producers.
- Transparency and Accountability .
- Fair Trading Practices and Payment of a Fair Price.
- Ensuring no child Labour and Forced Labour.
- Commitment to Non Discrimination, Gender Equity and freedom of association.
- Providing Capacity Building and Promoting Fair Building.
- Respect for the Environment.

Fair trade food product such as coffee, tea, cocoa, honey and bananas. Non-food commodities include crafts, textile and flowers.

2.6.3. GATT: (General Agreement of Trade and Tariffs)

GATT was signed by 23 countries in 1947. India was one of the founder members of GATT. In the seventh Round 99 countries participated. In the Eighth Round of 1986, (Uruguay Round), 117 countries participated. The Director General of GATT Arthur Dunkel came up with a Drafft Final Act, known as Dunked Draft and on April 15, 1994 the Final Act was ultimately approved and signed. GATT's primary purpose was to increase International Trade by reducing various tariffs, quotas and subsidies while maintaining meaningful regulations.

GATT Uruguay Round

DO YOU KNOW?

Rounds of GATT
- First in Geneva (Switzerland) (1947)
  - Second in Annecy (France) in 1949
- Third in Torquay (UK) in 1950 – 51
- Fourth, fifth, and Sixth in Geneva (Switzerland) in 1956, 1960-61, 1964 -67.
- Seventh in Tokyo (Japan) in 1973 – 79
- Eighth and final round at Punta del Este (Uruguay) in 1986 – 1994, known as 'Uruguay Round'.

2.6.4. World Trade Organization (WTO)

World Trade Organization(WTO)

The signing of the Final Act of the Uruguay Round by member nations of GATT in April 1994 paved the way for setting up of the WTO. An agreement to this effect was signed by 104 members. The WTO Agreement came into force from January 1, 1995 (the present membership of WTO is 164 countries)

World Trade Organization(WTO):

Head Quarter: Geneva, Switzerland

Purpose: Regulation, International trade

Members of WTO: Director General, Four Deputy Director General, and other 600 Official Staff from around 80 member countries.

The WTO mentions five types of subsidies:

- Cash subsidies, such as the grants mentioned above.
- Tax concessions, such as exemptions, credits, or deferrals.
- Assumption of risk, such as loan guarantees.
- Government procurement policies that pay more than the free-market price.
- Stock purchases that keep a company's stock price higher than market levels.

These are all considered subsidies because they reduce the cost of doing business.

G7 Countries: (Group of Seven)

2.6.5. Objectives of W.T.O

- To set and enforce rules for international trade.
- To provide a forum for negotiating and monitoring further trade liberalization.
- To resolve trade disputes.
- Introduction the sustainable development and environment can go together.
- To ensure that developing countries, secure a better share of growth in world Trade.
- To resolve trade disputes.
- To increase the transparency of decision making processes.
- Introduction sustainable development the development and environment can go together.
- To ensure full employment and broad increase in effective demand.

2.6.6. Trade Related aspects of Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPs)

Intellectual Property Right may be defined as "Information with a commercial Value" Under TRIPs Patent shall be available for any invention whether product or process in all fields of industrial technologies. Trips agreement covers seven areas of intellectual's property rights i.e. Copy rights, Trade Market, Trade Secrets, Industrial Design, Geographical appellations Integrated circuits and Patents.

2.6.7. Trade Related Investment Measures (TRIMs)

The Uruguay Round Agreement on TRIMs refers to certain conditions (or) restrictions imposed by a government in respect of foreign investment in the country in order to give adequate provisions for the home industries to develop.

2.7 Impact and Challenges of Globalization

2.7.1. Positive Impact

- A better economy introduces rapid development of the capital market.
- Standard of living has increased.
- Globalization rapidly increase better trade so that more people are employed.
- Introduced new technologies and new scientific research patterns.
- Globalization increasing the GDP of a country.
- It helps to increase in free flow of goods and also to increase Foreign Direct Investment.

2.7.2. Negative Impact

- Too much flow of capital amongst countries, Introduces unfair and immoral distributors of Income.
- Another fear is losing national integrity. Because of too much exchange of trade, independent domestic policies are lost.
- Rapid growth of the economy has required a major infrastructure and resource extraction. This increase negative ecological and Social costs.
- Rapid increases in exploitation of natural resources to earn foreign exchange.
- Environmental standards and regulations have been relaxed.

2.7.3. Challenges of Globalization

- The benefits of globalization extend to all countries that will not happen automatically.
- The fear that globalization leads to instability in the developing world.
- The industrial world that increased global competition will lead in race to the bottom in wages, labour right, and employment practice.
- It leads to global inbalance.
- Globalization has resulted with the embarrassment.
- Globalization has led to an increase in activities such as child labor and slavery.
- People started consuming more junk food. This caused, the degradation of health and spread of diseases.
- Globalization has led to environmental degradation.

RECAP

- Globalization is the integration of country with the world economy.
- The three stages of Globalization : • Archiac Globalization • Proto Globalization • Modern Globalization.
- LPG – Liberalization, Privatization, and Globalization
- Multi National Company is a corporate organization which owns or control production of goods and services in at least one country to other than its home country.
- MNC otherwise called Transnational Company(TNC) and Multinational Enterprises(MNE).
- GATT was signed by 23 countries in 1947. India was one of the founder members of GATT.

GLOSSARY

globalization	the process by which businesses or other organizations develop international influence or start operating on an international scale.	உலகமயமாக்கல்
prospective	expected or expecting to be the specified thing in the future.	வருங்கால
archaic	of an early period of art or culture, especially the 7th–6th centuries BC in Greece.	தொன்மையான
evolution	the gradual development of something	பரிணாம வளர்ச்சி
mortgaged	expose to future risk or constraint for the sake of immediate advantage.	அடமானம் வைக்கப்பட்ட
abolition	the action of abolishing a system, practice, or institution.	ஒழித்தல்
spurt	cause to gush out suddenly.	திடீர்
detrimental	tending to cause harm	சீரழிவான
thriving	prosperous and growing; flourishing.	வெற்றிகரமான
discrimination	recognition and understanding of the difference between one thing and another.	பாகுபாடு

EVALUATION

I. Choose the correct answer

1. Who is the head of the World Trade Organisation (WTO)
   a) Ministerial conference
   b) Director General
   c) Deputy Director General
   d) None of these

2. How many countries were membership in WTO at present?
   a) 159   b) 164   c) 148   d) 128

3. Colonial advent in India
   a) Portuguese, Dutch, English, Danish, French
   b) Dutch, English, Danish, French
   c) Portuguese, Danish, Dutch, French, English
   d) Danish, Portuguese, French, English, Dutch

4. Who first came to India for trading purpose?
   a) Roman Empire   b) Portuguese
   c) Dutch   d) Danish

5. When did Portuguese colonize India?
   a) 1600 BC   b) 1602 BC
   c) 1498 BC   d) 1616 BC

6. GATT's first round held in
   a) Tokyo   b) Uruguay
   c) Torquay   d) Geneva

7. India signed the Dunket proposal in
   a) 1984   b) 1976
   c) 1950   d) 1994

8. who granted the English "golden Fireman" in 1632
   a) Jahangir   b) Sultan of Golconda
   c) Akbar   d) Aurangzeb

9. Foreign Investment policy (FIP) announced in
   a) June 1991   b) July 1991
   c) July-Aug-1991   d) Aug 1991

10. Indian government was introduced _____ in 1991
   a) Globalization
   b) World Trade Organisation
   c) New Economic Policy
   d) none

II. Fill in the Blanks

1. The Dutch captured Pondicherry in _____.
2. A better economy introduce rapid development of the _____.
3. The East India Company built fortified factory in Madras which known as _____.
4. WTO agreement came into force from _____.
5. The term globalization invented by _____.
6. French East India company established second factory at _____.

III. Choose the correct statement

1. I) The East Indian Company specially to participate in the East Indian Spice Trade and later added cotton, silk, Indigo.

   II) Merchants of the Dutch East India Company first established at Calicut

   III) Nanadesis were a guild of traders at the time of Hoysala Empire

   a) I is correct

   b) II and III are correct

   c) I and III are correct

   d) I, II and III are correct

IV. Match the following:-

1.	Multination corporation in India	-	1947
2.	MNC	-	enforce international trade
3.	GATT	-	Minimize cost of production
4.	8th Uruguay Round	-	Infosis
5.	WTO	-	1986

V. Give Short Answers

1. What is globalization?
2. Write the types of globalization.
3. Write short note on Multinational corporation.
4. Short note: The Dutch in South India.
5. What are the reforms made to adopt globalization?
6. What is Fair trade ?
7. Write any five principles of Fair Trade Practices.
8. What is the main objective of WTO?
9. Write short note on TRIPs and TRIMs.
10. Write the positive impact of Globalization.

VI. Brief Answer

1. Write briefly the history of globalization.
2. Briefly explain the evolution of MNC and its advantages and disadvantages.
3. Explain the trade and traders in south india.
4. Write about the World Trade Organisation.
5. Write the challenges of Globalization.

VII. Activity and Projects

1. Teacher and students are discuss about the globalization.
2. Students are collect the images regarded to the globalization and make the album. (south Indian trade and traders images, and silk route map, spice route map, and kalinga trade map, etc)
3. Students are collect the picture of various Multinational corporation companies in india and its products pictures.

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