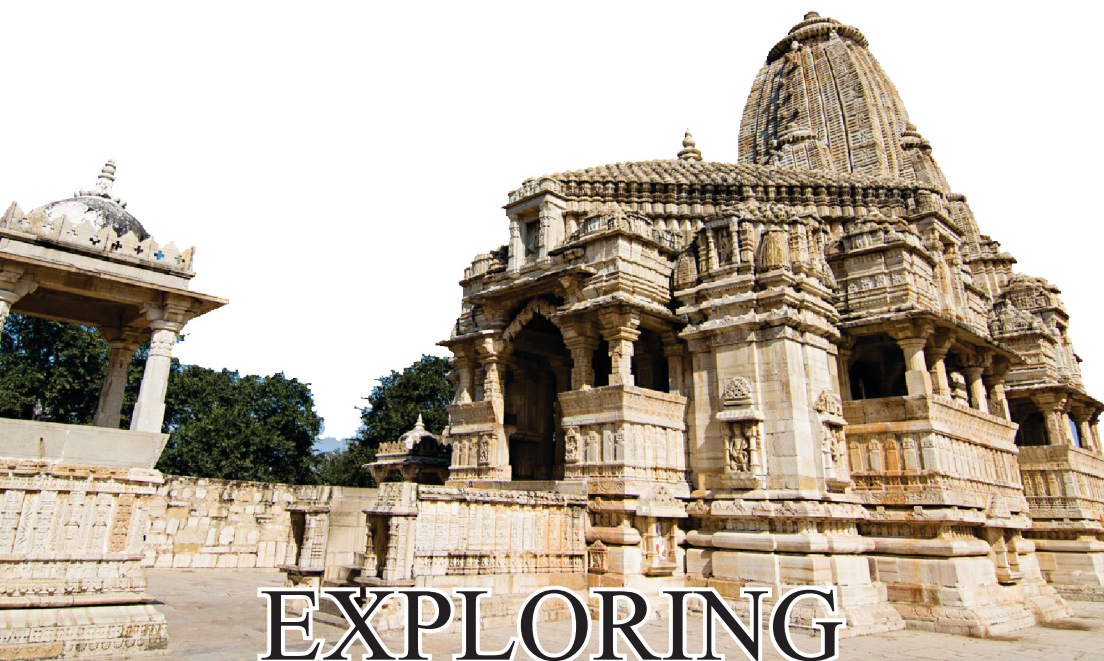




**Teacher's
Manual**



EXPLORING SOCIAL STUDIES

- Arun Sharma
- Apaar Bindal

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History

Introduction : What, Where, How and When?



- A. 1. (b) 2. (a) 3. (a) 4. (c)
- B. 1. archaeological 2. literary 3. archaeological
4. literary 5. literary
- C. 1. Inscriptions 2. Manuscripts
3. Kautilya 4. Archaeologists
- D. 1. (b) 2. (d) 3. (e) 4. (a) 5. (c)
- E. 1. The study of the ancient and recent human past through material remains is called Archaeology.
2. Archaeological sources to study the past are of three kinds—inscriptions, monuments and other objects.
3. Written records engraved on rocks, pillars, cave walls, walls of forts, palaces and temples and on clay and copper tablets are called 'inscriptions'.
4. Literature that is not religious is called secular literature. These include poems, plays, accounts of foreign travellers and works on science and politics.
- F. 1. A historian solves the history of past with the help of historical clues. He begins with some clues such as a piece of writing, a wall painting or even some broken pieces of pottery. From these he slowly puts together the history of past period. These clues are called the sources of history and are the source material for historians. This source material can be divided into two categories, that is, archaeological and literary.

Literary Sources

The written records of the past are called manuscripts. These writings are available on a variety of surfaces such as palm leaves, the bark of the birch tree and later, on paper. The literary source material may be divided into two— religious and secular.

Religious Literature: Writings dealing with religion constitute religious literature. Many books contain religious themes.

Secular Literature: Literature that is not religious is called secular literature. These include poems, plays, accounts of foreign travellers and works on science and politics.

Archaeological Sources

As time passes, some remains of ancient civilisations get buried under the Earth. These remains have to be dug out (excavated) by archaeologists. Archaeological sources are of three kinds—inscriptions, monuments and other objects.

- (a) **Inscriptions:** Written records engraved on rocks, pillars, cave walls, walls of forts, palaces and temples and on clay and copper tablets are called ‘inscriptions’.
- (b) **Monuments:** Old buildings of historical importance are called ‘monuments’. They provide us with clues on the period in which they were built.
- (c) **Other objects:** People in the past made many kind of things—pottery, metalware, coins, textiles, jewellery, etc. These are found through excavations. Coins are an extremely valuable source of information.

- 2. The study of history is very important to us because of the following:
 - (a) History helps us to understand better how people of other times acted and thought. We seek to draw lessons from those actions and thoughts as a guide for decisions and policies.
 - (b) It helps us to know our country’s heritage as a means of developing patriotism.
 - (c) It tells us how our national way of life developed.
 - (d) History tells us the development of various social, religious, economic and political aspects of human society.
 - (e) History enables us to know how different languages developed in different regions.
- 3. The written records of the past are called manuscripts. These writings are available on a variety of surfaces such as palm leaves, the bark of the birch tree and later, on paper. The

literary source material may be divided into two— religious and secular.

Religious Literature: Writings dealing with religion constitute religious literature. Many books contain religious themes. For the ancient period of Indian history, the Vedas, the Ramayana and Mahabharata, the Gita, the Puranas and the Jataka Tales are a rich source of information. They give new historical details and also prove that the information we already have through other sources is correct.

Secular Literature: Literature that is not religious is called secular literature. These include poems, plays, accounts of foreign travellers and works on science and politics. The Arthashastra of Kautilya, the Indika of Megasthenes, the works of Kalidasa and the account of Fa Hien and Hiuen Tsang are some examples of secular literature produced during the ancient period. This type of literature gives us a lot of information about the times when it was written.



2

The Earliest Societies

- A. 1. (d) 2. (a) 3. (b) 4. (b)
- B. 1. (f) 2. (d) 3. (a) 4. (e)
5. (b) 6. (c)
- C. 1. difficult and insecure 2. malwa culture 3. stone
4. Flint 5. fire
- D. 1. The Stone Age man make implements of flint because it was one of the sharpest instruments available and was easily chipped or flaked into sharp tools.
2. Fire was discovered in upper Palaeolithic Period or Old stone age.
- 3 The early man was wanderer because the plant and animal food available in any particular place is limited. Hence, early humans had to move from place to place in search of fruits, roots, honey, nuts, etc.
4. The stones were used by man to scrape off the skin of animals, cut meat and bones. They also used these stones

to cut fruits and roots and were even used for chopping trees to clear forests.

- E. 1. In the Prehistoric Age, life was very insecure and difficult for humans. They had not learnt to grow grains and vegetables. They wandered from place to place due to several reasons. They hunted different animals for food. These animals often moved to distant places, searching for their food and water. Since humans were dependent on these animals, they were compelled to move with them.

Many plants and trees bear fruits only during certain seasons of the year. Hence, during seasons when there were no fruits on the plants and trees they migrated to other places in search of other sources of food.

Humans needed water for drinking and bathing. Hence, they moved towards streams, lakes and rivers. While some of seasonal lakes and rivers went dry during summer. At this point of time, human beings had to move away from these rivers and lakes in search of other sources of water.

2. The ways in which palaeolithic man used fire are as follows :
- It helped man to scary away wild animals, if kept burning outside the caves at night.
 - It helped man to keep warm in winters.
 - It helped in cooking the animals he hunted.
3. One area in which palaeolithic man showed keen interest was cave painting. He painted on the walls of caves using charcoal. These paintings, some of which have survived till today, give us valuable information about his living conditions. The paintings mainly portrayed animal figures. As they didn't know the art of writing, painting was the best way in which they could communicate their feelings and emotions. Thus, 'art' was born in this period. Cave paintings belonging to the Palaeolithic Age have been discovered in the Bhimbetka cave in Madhya Pradesh.
4. In pressure flaking technique, the core stone was placed on a firm surface or ground. The hammer stone was placed on a bone resting on the core stone, to remove flakes from the core stone. These flakes were shaped into tools.



3

The First Farmer and Herder

- A. 1. (b) 2. (a) 3. (c)
- B. 1. caves 2. wheel 3. seeds 4. Growing, food
5. tame
- C. 1. ✗ 2. ✗ 3. ✗ 4. ✓ 5. ✓
- D. 1. (c) 2. (d) 3. (b) 4. (a)
- E. 1. Growing crops assured man of a continuous supply of food. Although man still hunted, the rearing of animals assured him of a continuous supply of meat, milk and hides. He could thus produce more food that he required.
2. Neolithic man worshipped water, fire, rain and thunder as also the Sun, the Earth and the stars. He worshipped the cow in thankfulness for the bounty it provided and the snake in fear.
3. Neolithic man domesticated mild-natured animals. For example, cows, cat, sheep, camel and goats.
4. The discovery of fire and agriculture changed the life of early man. Also, Invention of wheel transformed the life of early man.
- F. 1. **Mesolithic Period** : Domestication began in Mesolithic Period, when men learnt to grow crops and tame animals. Mesolithic man discovered the food value of seeds of certain grasses such as barley and wheat. He began to gather these for food. Seeds that fell at the time of gathering of seeds in discarded vegetable remains might have sprouted and suggested the magic link between seed and plant. Man might then have experiment by dropping seeds into the soil and found plants growing.

Tool : Man's main occupation remained hunting and gathering food, but his tools improved gradually. Apart from chipped stone tools, Mesolithic man made smaller tools called microliths (micro means small). Microliths were usually stone blades ranging from one to five centimeters in length. Some of them were fixed on wood or bone and used as spears, saws, knives and arrows. The new tools and weapons improved the techniques of hunting and gathering as they naturally found food.

The First Houses : Still they lived in rock-shelters and caves. However, some returned at the time of harvest to the places where they sowed seeds and stayed on until they had used up the crop. These people made their own primitive houses. Houses were usually built in river valleys, where there was plenty of water and fertile soil for growing crops.

Neolithic Period : The period following the Mesolithic Period is called the Neolithic Period, or New Stone age.

In the Neolithic Period man changed from a food-gatherer to a food-producer. He learnt to take care of the crops he sowed and also reared animals.

We know about the crops grown by neolithic farmers from plant remains such as pollen and seeds found in soil deposits of that period. The presence of charcoal in the soil at some places suggests clearing of forests by fire.

Over the years, man learnt to select, preserve and sow good-quality seeds. Thus, domesticated plants became different from and better than wild plants of the same type.

Growing crops assured man of a continuous supply of food. Although man still hunted, the rearing of animals assured him of a continuous supply of meat, milk and hides. Man could, thus, produce more food than he required. He was at last free from the continuous search for food and used his time for developing skills. To take care of his crops, man needed to stay at one place for a long time. Hence, permanent human settlements began to be established and community life began to take shape. Neolithic man used harder stones to make tools. He also polished the blades to make them sharper. He designed tools to suit his new needs, especially the need to grow crops on a large scale. Hence, axes (celt) for clearing forests, better tools for digging and sickles for harvesting were made.

2. With the advent of agriculture, man settled down permanently and began to live in village. A neolithic village consisted of a few closely built houses surrounded by a common fence of prickly bush or mud wall.

The concept of families came into being. The families living in a neolithic village were closely related and shared the same customs, beliefs and methods of worship. A group of such families is called a tribe.

The people of a neolithic village carried out activities like farming, herding, hunting, gathering and fishing in groups. The tribe jointly owned natural wealth such as land, forests, water sources., etc. Hence, there were no inequalities within the tribe in terms of wealth.



4

The First Cities

- A.** 1. (b) 2. (b) 3. (c)
- B.** 1. Montgomery 2. 1921-22
3. the mother Goddess and Shiva Pashupati
4. Gujarat
- C.** 1. (b) 2. (c) 3. (d) 4. (a)
- D.** 1. A granary 2. Peepal tree 3. Town hall
- E.** 1. A number of animals such as goats, sheep, pigs, oxen and buffaloes were domesticated by the harappan civilisation.
2. The Indus Valley civilisation also called the Harappan Culture because the first cities that were discovered were found on the banks of the river Indus.
3. Indus valley civilisation covered Sindh, Punjab, Haryana, Gujarat and Rajasthan.
4. The Great Bath was the most impressive building structure found in the citadel of Mohenjodaro. It is rectangular in shape just like a swimming pool.
- F.** 1. The most striking feature of the Harappan cities is their planned layout. The city was generally divided into two sections—upper town called the citadel and the lower town. The citadel was built on a high platform. It had high walls which provided protection during floods. It was on the citadel that most public buildings such as the granaries, town hall and the Great Bath of Mohenjodaro were found.

2. The drainage system of the Harappan cities was the best known to the world in ancient times. The brickwork was tight which prevented the dirty water from leaking. Also, wooden screens stopped the solid wastes from being washed away with the water. Drains were constructed on either side of the roads. They were covered with slabs of stone which could be removed in order to clean them.
3. The men wore two-piece clothing of cotton—something like a dhoti and a shawl for the upper body. Women seemed to have worn skirts and shawls. A beautiful woven material can be seen on a man popularly called the priest. Ornaments were made of gold, silver, copper, bronze, ivory, terracotta and several types of beads and shells. Many semi-precious stones like carnelian were used too.
4. The cause of the end of this civilisation could have been a combination of some of the below factors.
 - Some believe it was destroyed by periodic floods and the people might have shifted to safer areas.
 - Cities like Lothal and Dholavira thrived on extensive trade with others. With the decline of trade, those cities might have suffered.
 - Many others think that a series of invasions by Central Asian tribes caused the end.
 - Epidemics and other natural calamities like earthquakes might have brought about the end. Climatic changes due to deforestation might have made the place almost like a desert, compelling people to move elsewhere.



5

Devotional Lore and Sacred Fires : Vedic Age

- | | | | |
|----|--------------------|-------------------------|--------------------|
| A. | 1. (b) | 2. (d) | 3. (c) |
| B. | 1. 1500, 1000 | 2. Vedic sanskrit hymns | 4. Later vedic |
| | 3. Indo-Aryans | 2. Later Vedic Age | 4. Early Vedic Age |
| C. | 1. Early Vedic Age | | |
| | 3. Later Vedic Age | | |
| | 5. Later Vedic Age | | |

- D. 1. Growing crops such as wheat, barley and rice and rearing cattle were the main occupations of the early Aryans.
2. The usual pastimes of the Aryans were chariot racing, hunting, gambling, music and dancing.
3. Girls received education at home. A boy spent his student life in a gurukul, where the guru (teacher) lived with his family and pupils. The pupils served the guru in return for the knowledge gained.
- E. 1. At first, society was divided on the basis of varna (skin colour). The fair-skinned Aryans considered the dark-skinned Dasas inferior. The Dasas were the original inhabitants of the region where the Aryans settled. Among the Aryans, the four sections of society, from the highest to the lowest, were Brahman, Kshatriya, Vaishya and Shudra. The priests, who looked after religious matters and recited prayers, were Brahmans. The king and the warriors, who protected the tribe from harm, were Kshatriyas. The Vaishyas were mainly farmers and craftsmen. Those who worked for others were Shudras. Dasas and those Aryans who disobeyed social rules were also considered as Shudras. Later, dasa meant slave.
2. **Early Vedic Period** : The tribal chief was called rajan. He led his tribe in war and maintained law and order. He also offered prayers on behalf of the tribe. He received a bali (voluntary donation) for his services. The rajan was assisted by officials such as the commander-in-chief, the chief priest and the village headman. The rajan consulted his subjects on important matters. He did this through the sabha (a small committee of selected village elders) and the samiti (the general assembly). The samiti chose the rajan.
- Later Vedic Period** : The rajan was now a king who had a proper army and a kingdom. His prestige depended on the extent of the area he controlled. He adopted lofty titles like Samrat and Maharajadhiraja. He performed yagnas (sacrifices) like rajasuya to gain more power and ashvamedha to expand his kingdom.



6

Early States in India

- A. 1. (d) 2. (a) 3. (c)
- B. 1. 22 2. malla 3. Magadha
4. Ajatashatru 5. Mahapadma Nanda
- C. 1. ✗ 2. ✗ 3. ✗ 4. ✓ 5. ✗
- D. 1. (b) 2. (d) 3. (a) 4. (c)
- E. 1. The three types of towns were :
(a) Trading towns (b) Religious towns
(c) Administrative towns
2. The craftspeople organized themselves into shrenis or guilds. These were associations to help one another. As they were familiar with one another and generally lived close to one another they came to be known as a jati.
3. This period saw the rise of two new religions— Buddhism and Jainism.
4. The society was divided into groups on the basis of the caste system, religion, rich, poor etc.
5. (a) A type of grey pottery with painted designs, known as Painted Grey Ware (PGW) and Red Pottery. The animal and plant remains show that the people reared mainly cattle and cultivated crops such as barley, wheat, rice, pulses, sugarcane and peas.
(b) One occupation was special and that was making of a special pottery known as Northern Black Polished Ware (NBPW). It was made of fine material, was glossy and very shining. It was hard, wheel-made and probably used by the richer people and was one of the major items of trade.
- F. 1. Farmers produced a large quantity of rice and other grains, sugarcane, fruits and vegetables. One-sixth of what they produced was paid as tax to the king. The royal agent collected it in the form of grains or money.
He used this income for the army, for payment of salaries, for building roads and other welfare activities. He needed to employ a large number of people for various activities.

2. The goods produced by the craftspeople were carried over long distances by the merchants. All the important cities were connected to one another by road. Merchants either travelled by carts or sailed down rivers, as some cities were located on river banks. They carried textiles, pots, iron tools and ivory objects. They used money, i.e., the punch-marked coins in trade.
3. The varna system was becoming more rigid. The people of one varna could not eat with those of another varna nor could they marry into another varna. Separate laws were made for the different varnas.
4. In kingdoms like Magadha, the king was very powerful. He not only protected the people but also used his army to expand his territory. He was advised by the purohita or the priest. The amatyas or ministers and the senapati or the commander of the army assisted him in the administration. Bali became a compulsory payment like tax and was collected by balisadhakas—tax collectors.



7

Emergence of New Ideas and Religions

- A. 1. (c) 2. (b) 3. (d) 4. (c)
- B. 1. (a) 2. (c) 3. (d) 4. (e) 5. (b)
- C. 1. Bodh gaya 2. non-violence
 3. tirthankara 4. Vinaya Pitaka
 5. viharas
- D. 1. The Upanishads are the most important Vedic texts, as far as the later Hindu tradition is concerned. The name Upanishad implies 'sitting at the feet of the teacher'.
2. Monks and nuns did not stay at one place for long. However, during the long monsoon, when travelling was difficult, they took shelter in caves or stayed in temporary homes. In due course, permanent residences called viharas (monasteries) were built for them.
- 3 Buddha recommended an eightfold path (astangika marga) for his followers. The teachings of this eightfold path are :

right observation, right determination, right speech, right action, right livelihood, right exercise, right memory and right meditation.

4. Mahavira believed that a person's position in life depends on karma (actions) of the previous life.
- E. 1. By the sixth century BC, religious worship in India had become extremely ritualistic and society was bound by rigid caste rules. Frequent wars among the mahajanapadas had created an atmosphere of mistrust and political conflict. The people were not satisfied with what they had and were always trying to increase their wealth. Dissatisfied with such conditions, many thinkers gave up worldly life and went to forests to meditate in peace and seek enlightenment. Some of them shared their newfound knowledge, spread new religious and philosophical ideas and won followers. We know about these new ideas from the Upanishads and from the Buddhist and Jain religious texts.
2. According to the Upanishads, God is the ultimate cause of the universe from whom indeed these beings are born, through whom they live and onto whom they return and merge in.

God and soul are fundamentally identical. There is apparent difference but essential unity. There is the identity of Brahman, the highest and Atma which is individual self. The process of meditation, self-control, truthful life, a spirit of renunciation and self-abnegation, etc. are some of the means to attain the highest goal of life. The goal of life is to renounce the world and to know the One Almighty to attain the salvation.

The Upanishads explain the doctrine of the transmigration of souls and the ethical doctrine of Karma.

The spread of the concepts of the reincarnation of souls, of karma and of the attainment of release (moksha) from this cycle by meditation rather than through sacrifice marked the end of the Vedic period and the appearance of Hinduism.

3. In Upanishadic times, the life of an upper-caste man was divided into four stages called ashramas. These were brahmacharya (student life), grahastha (family life), vanaprastha (retirement to the forest to meditate) and sanyasa (giving up everything). Going through these ashramas was thought to be the best way to live one's life. But this was not rigidly followed.
4. Buddha said that people suffer on account of their desire. If they conquer desire, then they can attain nirvana or freedom from the cycle of birth and death. Buddha preached ahimsa (non-violence) and opposed to animal sacrifices.

Mahavira believed that anyone a low-born person—could attain moksha. He preached ahimsa and forbade his followers to cause harm or injury to any living being.



8

The First Empire

-
- A.** 1. (c) 2. (a) 3. (c) 4. (b)
- B.** 1. Chandragupta Maurya 2. writer
3. the buddha's teachings 4. Chandragupta Maurya
5. gupta rulers
- C.** 1. Kautilya is also known as Chanakya. He was a great scholar and intelligent Brahmana.
2. The Nandas were ruling over Magadha when Chandragupta became the king.
3. Megasthenes was an ambassador who was sent to the court of Chandragupta by the greek ruler, Seleucus Nicator.
4. Chandragupta Maurya established the Mauryan Empire.
5. Indika written by Megasthenes and Arthashastra by Kautilya.
- D.** 1. Kalinga was annexed to the Mauryan empire. But the enormous loss of life and bloodshed filled the heart of the king with utmost remorse. The battle of Kalinga was a turning point in the life of Ashoka. He followed the policy of Dharma Vijaya (conquest by Dharma). He is the only king on record who abandoned violence and warfare.

2. Chandragupta laid great emphasis on the construction of roads, wells, canals, rest houses, hospitals, etc., for the welfare of public. Sudarshan Lake built by Chandragupta Maurya is a good example of it. Ashoka planted fruit bearing trees on both sides of the roads for the comfort of travellers. He also setup hospitals and made provisions for irrigation.
3. Agriculture was the main source of revenue. Water for irrigation was regulated by the state. Water tax was also imposed. Besides land revenue, other sources of revenue included customs, sales tax, taxes on crafts and trade, etc. The revenue so collected was used for maintaining the army, implementing welfare measures and for payment of salaries to officials.
4. During the Mauryan period, stone began to be used for sculpture and architecture. The craftsmen of this period gave a fine polish touch to stone. While wooden buildings have perished, stone pillars, stupas and monasteries have survived through the ages. They are considered masterpieces of art. A few of them are being mentioned below :
 - (a) **Monolithic Pillars** : These are about twenty to thirty metres high. These are found at various places in Bihar, e.g. Lauriya Nandangarh and Lauriya Araraj. These bear beautifully carved animal figures at the top, called 'Capitals'. There is a bell-shaped lion capital at Sarnath, near Varanasi.
 - (b) **Statue of Yakshini** : It was found at Deedarganj in Patna. It is a sculpture of rare beauty and grace. It is now on display in the museum at Patna. The Mauryas also started the practice of digging caves. These served as residences for monks. Some of the prominent caves are in Barabar and Nagarjuna hills.
 - (c) **Stupas** : Ashoka built a large number of Stupas. These were hemispherical dome-shaped monuments built on Buddha's relics. These were made of brick and earth. The side railings and the umbrella at the top of the stupa were made of stone.



9

Towns, Villages and Trade

- A. 1. (b) 2. (a) 3. (d) 4. (d)
 5. (c) 6. (a)
- B. 1. Canals, tanks 2. an epic poem
 3. birth place 4. Mahayana sect
 5. silk road 6. Paharpur
 7. Gautamiputra Shri Satakarni 8. Fa-Hien, Hiuen Tsang
- C. 1. ✗ 2. ✗ 3. ✓ 4. ✓
- D. 1. (c) 2. (d) 3. (b) 4. (a)
- E. 1. The most important duties of the king according to the Arthshastra were demanding and the role of wise counsel. A king should take care not to punish the incident while being alert to see that those who have to be punished did not go unpunished.
2. The categories of farmers was :
- (a) Large land owners : Vellalar
 (b) Ordinary ploughmen : Uzhavar
 (c) Landless labourers : Kodasiyar/Adimai
3. “The king would construct new villages on new sites or on old ruins by sending people from densely populated areas. Villages would consist each of not less than a hundred families and of not more than five hundred families of agricultural people. Boundaries shall be denoted by a river, a mountain, forests, bulbous plants, caves, artificial buildings or by trees.
4. People belonging to a particular craft or trade often formed themselves into an association or guild or shreni. These guilds could, in some ways, be compared to the trade unions of modern times. The guilds also helped its members by procuring raw materials such as cotton or ivory for them. The guilds even helped in marketing or selling the goods produced by the craftsmen.
5. Silk Route is the route between China and the Western world through which Chinese silk was traded.
6. The coins minted by the Kushans are beautiful gold, copper coins.
7. One of the famous travellers was Hiuen Tsang. He was not content with reading the translations of Buddhist books in

Chinese, so he came to India and lived here for 14 years. He studied at the great Nalanda University. He was highly honoured by Harshavardhana.

8. When the Mauryas and the Kushanas were ruling in North India, South India was ruled by many royal dynasties such as the Satavahanas, Cheras, Cholas and Pandyas. The Satavahanas mainly ruled over parts of Maharashtra and the Karnataka-Andhra regions. The Cheras, Cholas and Pandyas ruled the region south of Satavahana territory. This region was called Tamilakam because the language spoken here was Tamil.
- F. 1. By the time people began to use iron, they had learnt agriculture. In fact, agriculture was the chief occupation of the people in the villages. Some villages became very prosperous. The farmers grew a variety of crops using new methods of agriculture. One such method was the system of transplantation of seedlings or small plants. In this system, the peasants did not scatter the seeds on the ground for the plants to sprout; instead, small saplings were raised and then carefully transplanted in the bigger fields. Initially, the farmers were entirely dependent on the rains for irrigating the farms. When the rains failed, the crops withered. To prevent this, farmers slowly began to think of other methods of irrigating the fields. Such methods include irrigation through canals, wells, tanks and artificial lakes. Archaeologists have discovered the ruins of such tanks and lakes at various places. Often, the king helped the farmers by building canals and tanks for them. In return, the farmers paid taxes to the king.
2. As you have read earlier, people belonging to a particular craft or trade often formed themselves into an association or guild or shreni. Often, the shrenis served as banks where wealthy men and women invested money. This money was used to provide loans to traders and craftsmen. Some guilds were very rich and they gave lavish donations to temples and monasteries.
 3. The main features of second urbanization were :
 - the use of iron tools and implements,

- the use of Northern Black Polished Ware,
 - use of burnt bricks,
 - use of metal money,
 - discovery of ring wells. Ring wells are rows of pots of ceramic rings placed one on top of the other. These were used as toilets or as drainpipes or garbage bins.
 - expansion of agriculture because of use of better tools and improved methods of irrigation.
4. The trade slowly and steadily declined by the 5th-6th centuries AD. By now, Europe had learnt the art of rearing silkworms on mulberry leaves, as a result which the demand for Indian silks in Europe reduced. In India, this period saw the rapid political decline of several Indian kingdoms such as the—Satavahanas, Pandyas, Cholas and Cheras who supported this trade. Due to lack of royal patronage, many Indian traditional arts and crafts declined. The artisans and merchants fled from their homes in the market-towns. Thus the ruling families, trading-communities and artists' guilds that had initiated and sustained the trade were no longer available. The glorious trade soon became a faint memory till modern-day archaeologists began to unearth various aspects of this trade.
5. Kanishka encouraged art and literature. Ashvaghosha, a famous Sanskrit scholar, lived in the court of Kanishka. Ashvaghosha wrote Buddhacharita (biography of Buddha) and Saundarananda. He attended the Buddhist Council organized by Kanishka. Vasumitra, Charaka and Nagarjuna were other scholars in the court of Kanishka. The Kushanas patronized the Gandhara School of Art. This school of art developed as a result of the intermingling of Indian and foreign ideas. Gandhara art is Buddhist in theme but Graeco-Roman in style. Gradually, the Gandhara style spread to Mathura which was already a great centre of art.
6. The two main sects of buddhism are Mahayana sect and Hinayana sect. Mahayana Buddhism became popular in Central Asia, China, Korea and Japan. Hinayana or Theravada Buddhism spread to Sri Lanka, Burma (Myanmar), Thailand and Indonesia.

The followers of the Mahayana sect started the worship of Buddha and elaborate rituals. The Hinayana sect believed in the old ways of worship and followed a simple style of prayer and worship.



10

New Empires and Kingdoms

- A. 1. (b) 2. (b) 3. (b)
- B. 1. Bhagavatas 2. Ujjain
3. Harshavardhana 4. Aihole
- C. 1. ✗ 2. ✗ 3. ✓ 4. ✓
- D. 1. (b) 2. (d) 3. (e) 4. (a) 5. (c)
- E. 1. Three qualities of Samudragupta were :
- (a) Samudragupta, often regarded as the greatest ruler of the Gupta dynasty.
 - (b) Samudragupta was a warrior, scholar, musician, poet and above all, a good ruler.
 - (c) He was a Hindu but was tolerant towards Buddhists and Jains.
2. Two sources of information about Harsha's reign were :
- (a) Harishcharita written by Banabhatta.
 - (b) Travel account left by Hieun Tsang.
3. The Pallavas want to control the region ruled by Pulakeshin-II because they wanted to assert their supremacy in the region. Capital cities were especially attacked because they were the prosperous towns. Pulakeshin-II was the best known Chalukya ruler. He also checked the advances made by Harshvardhana.
4. Agriculture is the main source of revenue so rulers extended agriculture to wasteland by making grants to these lands.
- F. 1. Gupta period is also regarded as the golden age of art and literature. During this time, a large collection of religious and secular literature was compiled. The Ramayana, the Mahabharata, two major epics, were finally completed in the fourth century. Both epics story lines represent the triumph of good over evil.

2. Under the Pallavas, local administration was controlled by three kinds of assemblies. A sabha was a Brahman assembly found in villages where all the land was owned by Brahmans. A village assembly which included all classes of people who owned land within the village was called Ur. The assembly of an area inhabited mainly by traders was called nagaram. All these assemblies functioned through committees and took care of irrigation, roads, temples, education, etc.
3. The one feature of administration that in the long run caused kingdom to breakup was not being able to find a successful heir to throne who was capable enough to take the kingdom forward.
4. Samanthal was a name given to big landlords or warrior chiefs in different regions of Indian subcontinent. A defeated ruler was sometimes made a samantal, that is, a chief who held land on condition that he would supply soldiers to the king when required. When central rule weakened, samantals often became independent.



11

Culture and Science

-
- A. 1. (c) 2. (b) 3. (d)
- B. 1. Mahabharata 2. Jain
3. Susruta Samhita 4. Chalukyas
- C. 1. Silappadikaram 2. Panchatantra
3. Aryabhata 4. Abhigyan Shakuntalam
5. Ramayana and Mahabharata
- D. 1. (b) 2. (c) 3. (a) 4. (e) 5. (d)
- E. 1. Apart from writing imaginary stories people also wrote on a variety of subjects including dance, drama, grammar, religion and science. A very well-known book, which is the basis of dance and drama in India is the Natya Shastra of Bharata. The book deals with various aspects of drama, including sections on dance and on music (particularly instrumental music), including tunings, scales, types of instrument, performance techniques and accompaniment styles, etc.

2. Charaka Samhita or the 'Handbook of the Physician' provides a detailed anatomy of the human body, with methods of diagnosis and treatment for hundreds of illnesses.
 3. Vaikuntha Perumal temple at Kanchipuram, the shore temple at Mahabalipuram.
- F.**
1. The structural temples were built using blocks of rock instead of a whole block and this became a popular architectural style since in rock cut architecture carving out a whole rock was tedious. Example: shore temple at Mahabalipuram constructed by Rajasimha group of Pallava Art.
 2. The best example of ironwork is the still standing Iron Pillar in Delhi made in 4th century AD. It has still not rusted making even modern technicians wonder.
 3. The paintings of Ajanta had an educational function, presenting to the community the teachings of Buddha and his various reincarnations. These paintings predominantly narrate jataka tales and considered masterpieces of Buddhist religious art that had a great influence in the development of art in India.

Geography



1

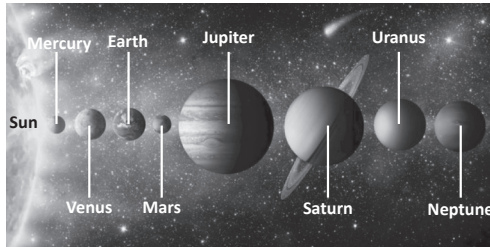
Earth and the Solar System

- A.** 1. (a) 2. (c) 3. (a) 4. (d)
- B.** 1. celestial 2. 300,000 km/per sec.
3. Stars 4. Galaxy
5. Neptune
- C.** 1. ✗ 2. ✓ 3. ✓ 4. ✗ 5. ✓
- D.** 1. Mercury is the closest neighbour to Sun.
2. Jupiter is the largest planet.
3. The Earth is a very special planet. It looks very beautiful from space. It is shaped like an orange, slightly flattened at the two poles. The Earth reflects a mixture of blue and green light, blue because of oceans and green because of vegetation. It is sometimes called the 'blue planet'.
4. Planets are heavenly bodies that do not have their own light. They reflect the light of the Sun. Sometimes they are accompanied by companions called satellites.

- E. 1. Stars are huge celestial bodies made up of hydrogen and helium that can emit their light and energy from nuclear fusion reactions.

Planets are celestial bodies that orbit around the sun. They don't have the ability to emit light and energy from nuclear fusion reactions.

2. The family of eight planets that go around the Sun is called the solar system. Planets are heavenly bodies that do not have their own light. They reflect the light of the Sun. Sometimes they are accompanied by companions called satellites. The Earth is one such planet and its satellite is the Moon. Apart from these, there are some other bodies called asteroids, meteoroids and comets that also go around the Sun.



The solar system

3. Inner Planets

- (a) Inner planets are those which are smaller in size such as Mercury, Venus, Earth and Mars.
 (b) They are closest to the sun.

Outer Planets

- (a) Outer planets are those which are large in size such as Jupiter, Saturn, Uranus and Neptune.
 (b) Outer planets are farthest from the sun.



2

Maps

- | | | | |
|-----------|-------------------|---------------------|--------|
| A. 1. (c) | 2. (b) | 3. (a) | |
| B. 1. map | | 2. upper | |
| | 3. east direction | 4. topographic maps | |
| C. 1. ✓ | 2. ✗ | 3. ✓ | 4. ✗ |
| D. 1. (c) | 2. (d) | 3. (a) | 4. (b) |

- E. 1. A representation of the curved surface of the whole Earth or part of it on a flat sheet of paper according to a chosen scale is called map.
2. If on a map the distance is scaled as 1 cm to 200 km then the ground distance of 1200 km between two places on a map is 6 cm.
- 3 **North Line** : the vertical line with an arrow at the top, marked with the letter 'N' indicating the north direction.
4. To locate a place P with respect to a place Q, we need to know both the directions of P with respect to Q and its distance from Q.
- F. 1. The Earth's surface, either whole or part of it, can be represented on paper. Such a representation is called a map. To make a detailed map, we can use a large sheet of paper. This large map can then be folded or rolled. Also, details of various continents, countries, etc., can be put together to make a book of maps, or an atlas. The maps in an atlas will usually contain more information than a large globe. Thus, maps can have more information and are easier to handle than globes. Since on maps the curved surface of the Earth is represented on a flat surface, a problem arises. A round shape cannot be flattened completely. So, when we try to show parts of the world on a flat surface, the shapes and sizes of the continents and oceans get distorted. The maximum distortion is seen in the regions around the poles.
2. A map shows the locations of various places or features of an area. A detailed map of a part of a town may show schools, parks, roads, etc. But even the most detailed maps cannot show the internal details of buildings. Sometimes we need to know the details of a particular building or of a room in a building. At such times, we refer to detailed drawings known as plans.
A plan is a detailed drawing of a small area drawn on a very large scale. It shows the details of a small area, for example, a room or a house. Before a house is built, a plan showing the rooms, windows, doors, etc., is drawn.
3. Map scale is done by making a small distance on paper that represents a large distance on the ground. It is decided that a

particular length on paper will show a particular distance on the ground. For example, let us consider two places which are 100 km apart. If we say that 1 cm on the map stands for 50 km on the ground, these two places would be 2 cm apart on the map. This relation of 1 cm on the map representing 50 km on the ground is the scale of the map. Different maps use different scales.

- 4. Political maps:** Political maps divide an area into administrative units such as countries, states, districts, villages, cities or towns with the help of lines to show borders or boundaries.

Physical maps: Physical maps show geographical features such as mountain ranges, peaks, plateaus, hills, oceans, seas and rivers. Different colours are used to show different landforms.



3 Globe : Latitudes and Longitudes

- A. 1. (a) 2. (b) 3. (d)
- B. 1. torrid 2. equator 3. 24 4. 82.5°E longitude
- C. 1. Equator 2. Torrid Zone
3. Prime Meridian 4. Equator
- D. 1. (e) 2. (d) 3. (b) 4. (f)
5. (a) 6. (c)
- E. 1. **Axis** : the imaginary line through the centre of the Earth joining the two poles.
2. Torrid zone has high temperatures throughout the year because the rays of the Sun fall vertically on this region, making it an area which is extremely hot. Most of India lies in this zone.
3 The pattern of latitudes and longitudes drawn on the Earth to help us to locate places is called Grid.
4. The latitude and longitude are two lines used for locating places.
- F. 1. There are three main heat zones:
• Torrid Zone • Frigid Zone • Temperate Zone
- Torrid Zone** : 'Torrid' means hot. The Torrid Zone is the zone that lies on either side of the equator between the two

Tropics. This zone has high temperatures throughout the year because the rays of the Sun fall vertically on this region, making it an area which is extremely hot. Most of India lies in this zone.

2. In calculating time, we refer to two separate terms—local time and standard time.

Local Time: The time at the meridian which faces the Sun is always 12 noon. All meridians east of the particular longitude will be ahead of 12 noon, while the places west of the particular meridian will have time before 12 noon. This way all meridians have their own specific time called local time.

Standard Time: If we were to use the local time of each meridian, which would differ by 4 minutes, it would be difficult and confusing. Therefore, every country chooses a central meridian, whose local time is accepted across the entire country. The time of the chosen meridian is called standard time.

3. A Great Circle is a circle that divides the Earth into two equal parts. It is the shortest distance in between two points. Travelling along a Great Circle is called a Great Circle route. Airplane pilots and ship captains often use Great Circle routes to shorten their trips and cut down on fuel consumption.
4. Longitudes have one more function. They also help us to calculate time. Everyone is aware that the Earth is a sphere and rotates on its axis. This movement, called rotation, takes 24 hours to complete one full circle. It means that it takes 4 minutes for each degree to pass in front of the sun. In calculating time, we refer to two separate terms—local time and standard time.

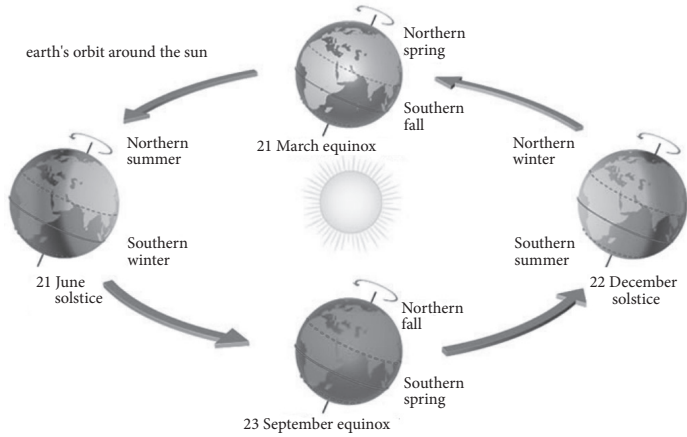
Local Time : The time at the meridian which faces the Sun is always 12 noon. All meridians east of the particular longitude will be ahead of 12 noon, while the places west of the particular meridian will have time before 12 noon. This way all meridians have their own specific time called local time.



4

Motions of the Earth

- A.** 1. (b) 2. (c) 3. (b)
- B.** 1. 66.5° 2. March 21, September 23
3. opposite 4. equinoxes
- C.** 1. (b) 2. (d) 3. (a) 4. (c)
- D.** 1. The Earth too has two kinds of motion— rotation on its axis and revolution in its orbit around the Sun.
2. The Earth rotate and revolve in west to east direction.
3 Every fourth year, February of 29 days instead of 28 days. Such a year with 366 days is called as leap year.
4. In between sunrise and mid-might, we experience different times of the day. Such as Dawn, Sunrise, noon, sunset and Dusk.
5. Revolution of the Earth on its orbit around the Sun causes the changes of season.
- E.** 1. The Sun is the main source of heat and light for the Earth. Due to spherical shape of the Earth, only one half of it gets light from the Sun at a time and the other half remains in darkness. The Circle of Illumination is an imaginary line which separates the lighted part of the Earth from the dark one. Thus, the portion of the Earth that receives sunlight experiences day, while the portion which is in darkness experiences night.
2. The Northern Hemisphere experience winter when it is summer in the Southern Hemisphere because the Sun shines vertically over the Tropic of Capricorn ($23\frac{1}{2}^\circ$ S). The Southern Hemisphere remains tilted towards the Sun and this position is called the winter solstice. It is summer time in the Southern Hemisphere and winter in the Northern Hemisphere.
3. Revolution of the Earth on its orbit around the Sun causes the changes of season.
The adjoining figure shows the Earth in its orbit around the Sun. There are four principal positions of the Earth with respect to the Sun.



4. (a) **Summer Solstice** : On June 21, the Sun shines vertically over the Tropic of Cancer ($23\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ N). Now the Northern Hemisphere is tilted towards the Sun. The Sunlight is available for the maximum hours in this hemisphere. It is called summer solstice. It is summer time in the Northern Hemisphere. The Southern Hemisphere, on the other hand, experiences winter at this time.

Winter Solstice : On December 22, the Sun shines vertically over the Tropic of Capricorn ($23\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ S). The Southern Hemisphere remains tilted towards the Sun and this position is called the winter solstice. It is summer time in the Southern Hemisphere and winter in the Northern Hemisphere.

(b) **Spring Equinox** : On March 21, the Sun shines vertically over the equator. Days and nights are equal in the world. (Equinox literally means equal days and nights). Spring season prevails in the Northern Hemisphere, while the Southern Hemisphere has autumn season.

Autumn Equinox : On September 23 also, the Sun shines vertically over the equator. The autumn season prevails in the Northern Hemisphere and spring in the Southern Hemisphere.

(c) **Rotation**: The axis of the Earth, which is slightly inclined. In fact, the Earth's axis is tilted by an angle of $23\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ from the perpendicular of its orbital plane. In other words, the

Earth makes an angle of $66\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ with its plane. The Earth spins on its axis like a toy top from west to east. It makes one complete rotation on its axis in about 24 hours (23 hours and 56 minutes and 4.09 seconds exactly). This is durational motion of the Earth, causing a day and a night.

Revolution: The Earth has another motion, i.e. revolution which is an annual motion. The Earth simultaneously rotates on its axis and revolves round the Sun (west to east). It completes one revolution in about 365 days and 5 hours, 48 minutes and 56 seconds (i.e. about $365\frac{1}{4}$ days), called a year. A normal calendar year has 365 days. The remaining time is added every fourth year to make a leap year which has 366 days. The extra day is added in the month of February which has 29 days in a leap year.

(d) **Dusk:** Sunset is followed by a short period of diffused light, called the dusk.

Dawn: Before the Sunrise, we find diffused light. It is called the dawn.



5

Major Domains of the Earth

- A. 1. (c) 2. (a) 3. (c)
- B. 1. wind 2. Asia, Australia
3. mountains 4. called
- C. 1. ✓ 2. ✓ 3. ✗ 4. ✗
5. ✓ 6. ✗
- D. 1. The Earth have seven major continents in the world. They are Asia, Africa, Europe, North America, South America, Australia and Antarctica.
2. The crust has two different layers termed as sial and sima. Sial stands for silica and aluminium while sima stands for silica and magnesium.
3. 97 percentage of the total air is found near the surface of the Earth.
4. The gases that form the mixture are nitrogen—78 percent, oxygen—21 percent and 1 percent consists of argon, carbon dioxide, water vapour and other gases.

5. The habitat is mainly formed of non-living elements, i.e., air, land and water. This environment is called the **physical environment**. It is this physical environment that creates the actual realm for living beings.
- E.
1. A plain is a broad area of relatively flat land. Plains occur as lowlands along valleys or at the base of mountains, as coastal plains and as plateaus or uplands. Plains are one of the major landforms on Earth, being present on all continents and covering more than one-third of the world's land area. Plains in many areas are important for agriculture.
 2. The envelope of air is made up of a mixture of various gases. The gases that form the mixture are nitrogen—78 percent, oxygen—21 percent and 1 percent consists of argon, carbon dioxide, water vapour and other gases. Nitrogen is required for maintaining soil fertility and plant and animal growth. Oxygen helps us to breathe and carbon dioxide helps plants to manufacture food. It also keeps the Earth warm. Apart from these gases, there are dust particles and water vapour. The atmosphere also has another gas called ozone, which forms a protective shield against the harmful ultraviolet rays of the Sun.
 3. The difference in pressure makes the air move and when it moves the air is called wind. Wind always moves from high-pressure areas to low-pressure areas in the same way that water moves from a higher level to a lower level. In this way, a balance is always maintained in the atmosphere.
 4. Our greed and lack of concern for the Earth has resulted in the pollution of the environment by reckless cutting of forests, pollution of rivers by industrial waste, speeding up of soil erosion and destruction of marine life. Excessive carbon emissions has led to an alarming rise in the level of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere, resulting in an unnatural rise in global temperatures. This is known as global warming and it is a serious cause for concern. Scientists have drawn the world's attention to unexpected climate changes in different parts of the world. Unless the causes for this are addressed, the very existence of mankind could be in danger.



6

Our Country : India

- A. 1. (a) 2. (b) 3. (d)
- B. 1. Nepal 2. Himalayas 3. Himachal 4. Western Ghats
- C. 1. ✗ 2. ✗ 3. ✗ 4. ✓
- D. 1. The mainland can be divided into four major physical units—the northern mountains, the northern plains, the peninsular plateau and the coastal plains.
2. Peninsula is an area of land that is almost surrounded by water. Indian peninsula is surrounded by Arabian sea on the west, Bay of Bengal on the east and Indian ocean on the south.
3. The Himalayan mountain range is basically the fold mountains. These fold mountains occur near convergent or compressional plate boundaries. From north to south, Himalayas ranges are the Great Himalayas (Himadri), the Lesser Himalayas (Himachal) and the Outer Himalayas (Shivaliks).
4. The distributaries deposit the alluvium brought down by the rivers, creating a triangular area of land. Such a triangular area of land at a river's mouth is called a delta. Ganga and Brahmaputra of India form a huge delta.
5. Barren Island holds a major importance in keeping the continental climate stable and the annual temperature variation.
- E. 1. The northern plains are a large stretch of level and fertile land. These plains have been formed by the alluvial deposits of the Indus, Ganga, Brahmaputra and their tributaries. The northern plains are among the largest plains in the world and are also called the Indo-Gangetic Plains. These plains comprise three distinct parts. From west to east, these are the Punjab-Haryana plain, the Ganga plain and the Brahmaputra plain.
- The Brahmaputra plains:** The Brahmaputra plains has been formed by the Brahmaputra and its tributaries. The Brahmaputra rises in Tibet, where it is called the Tsangpo.
- The Punjab-Haryana plains:** This plains are a part of the Indus basin, most of which lies in Pakistan. In India the plains of Punjab and Haryana are drained mainly by the Satluj, Ravi and Beas, which are tributaries of the river Indus.

The Ganga plains: The most extensive part of the northern plains are formed by the Ganga and its tributaries. The important tributaries of the Ganga include the Yamuna, Ghaghara, Gandak, Kosi and Son (Sane).

2. South of the Vindhya and Satpura ranges lies the Deccan Plateau. The Narmada, running through a narrow valley in between these two ranges and the Tapi (Tapti), running through a valley south of the Satpuras, flow westward through rocky areas before entering the Arabian Sea.

The Deccan Plateau is bounded by hills on the west and east. The western hills are collectively called the Western Ghats or the Sahyadris. The hills which are part of the Western Ghats include the Satmala, Nilgiri, Anaimalai and Cardamom hills. The eastern hills are collectively called the Eastern Ghats.

3. The coastal plains lie to the west and east of the Western and Eastern Ghats. The plains in the west are rather narrow except in Gujarat. In the South of Gujarat, these plains are called the Konkan Coast and further south, it is known as the Malabar Coast.

The eastern coastal plains, with many large, fertile deltas, are much broader than the western coastal plains. The northern part of the plains is often referred to as the Northern Circars, while the southern part is called the Coromandel Coast.

Civics



1

Understanding Diversity

- A. 1. (a) 2. (b) 3. (a)
- B. 1. religion 2. culture
3. Human Rights 4. God
- C. 1. ✓ 2. ✗ 3. ✓ 4. ✓
- D. 1. Cultural diversity is a new universal ethic in the cause of development and peace. The man-made environment also includes culture.
2. Cultural Diversity presupposes respect of fundamental freedoms—freedom of thought, conscience and religion,

freedom of opinion and expression and freedom to participate in the cultural life of one's choice.

3. Five things in which India shows diversity are religions, languages, food, clothes and races.
 4. Cultural Diversity is about diversity of knowledge, wisdom and energy which all contribute to improving and moving the world forward.
- E. 1. Cultural Diversity is our everyday reality. The international migration rate is growing fast every year. According to the 'International Migration Report 2002' of the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs :
- around 175 million persons are residing away from the country of their birth.
 - the number of migrants has doubled since the 1970s.
 - one in every 10 persons in the developed regions is a migrant.
 - more migrants are coming from countries ever farther away.
- While the reasons for migration vary (economic, political, personal choice, etc.), one thing is sure: we live in an increasingly heterogeneous society.
2. Religion in one form or another plays a part in the lives of most of the world's population. At times it dictates what they eat, where they live, what they wear, who they marry and how they think. Inspired by the same religious impulse, believers do different things. Buddhist monks shave their heads, for example, while many Sikhs never cut their hair at all. Some worship with loud music and vibrant dance, while others sit still in complete silence. And, while some religions will hold out the promise of a future life in the hereafter. All religions (whether they believe in one God, many gods, or no god) will encourage a life requiring goodness, kindness and harmony.
 3. Progress in communication and transport technology during the 20th century has enabled us to overcome geographical boundaries and revolutionize our way of living. The world is now linked to such an extent that a local happening cannot take place without leaving an impact on the international community and vice versa.

Globalization is not just about increasing the worldwide circulation of information and ideas. Economically speaking, it increases money flow, transnational investment and international trade. Thereby integrating all countries into a single giant world market.



2

Prejudice and Discrimination

- A. 1. (d) 2. (d) 3. (a)
- B. 1. occupation 2. Nelson Mandela
3. untouchability 4. Secular
- C. 1. ✗ 2. ✓ 3. ✓ 4. ✓ 5. ✓
- D. 1. Prejudice means forming an opinion about a person or thing without knowing the actual facts about them.
2. Apartheid is the former official government (British) policy in South Africa of separating people of different races and making them apart.
3. Poor people often face discrimination wherever they go, sometimes even in schools and hospitals and at the workplace.
4. A set of rules by which a country runs is called laws.
- E. 1. One of the serious problems caused by prejudice is the creation of stereotypes. When we fit all persons of a particular group into one fixed image we create a stereotype. For example, you must have heard people say, “Girls are not good at mathematics” or “Boys are naughty and girls are gentle.” These are stereotypes.
2. Discrimination means to make a distinction between people on the basis of class, race, religion, gender, age, etc., without regard to individual merit. Prejudices, arising out of diversity and inequality, lead to discrimination.

Diversity and Discrimination: Diversity can be a source of discrimination. People who belong to a certain region, speak a certain language or follow a particular religion may be seen as inferior and discriminated against.

Inequality and Discrimination: Economic inequality, too, is a major source of discrimination in many countries including

ours. Many people are so poor that they have no money even to meet their basic needs like food, clothing and shelter.

3. Castes were hierarchical. This means that there were high and low castes. The castes placed higher in the system discriminated against the lower castes. The lowest castes were called 'untouchables'. They were not allowed to draw water from public wells or to enter temples, schools, etc. Thus, the caste system gave rise to social inequalities.
4. The caste system, a traditional and unique feature of Indian society, developed due to discrimination based on the diversity of occupation. Under this system, people doing different kinds of work were placed in different castes. An individual born into a particular caste had to take up the profession of that caste, even if he had the skill and ability to do some other work. He also had to follow the rules and customs of his caste. The members of different castes were not allowed to mix with each other, eat together or marry each other.



3

Our Government

- A. 1. (a) 2. (a) 3. (a)
- B. 1. council of states 2. monarchy
3. Emmeline Pankhurst 4. Democracy
- C. 1. ✓ 2. ✓ 3. ✓ 4. ✓ 5. ✓
- D. 1. (d) 2. (c) 3. (b) 4. (e) 5. (a)
- E. 1. The government plays a very important role in the lives of people. The government takes important decisions.
The government manages the resources. It distributes them in a fair manner among the people so that people do not fight. It also works for the welfare of the people.
2. The three main levels of government are:
(a) Union or central government
(b) State government
(c) Local self-government

3. Legislature is the organ of the government that makes laws.
 4. When all adult people, regardless of their caste, religion and economic condition, are given the right to vote, it is known as universal adult franchise.
- F. 1.** Government in India can be found at three levels:
- The union or central government is located in New Delhi. It is the government at the highest level. It takes decisions for the whole country. It establishes relations with other countries of the world. The next level of government is known as the state government. The state government makes decisions which apply only to the people living in that state.
- People who live in towns, cities and villages have the power to take certain decisions. These decisions relate to matters that concern them. The government that they have is known as local self-government. It is government that takes democracy down to the lowest levels.
2. People do not directly rule in a country with a democratic government. Since the country is large in size, people choose their leaders. Leaders become members of a body known as the legislature. They are the representatives of the people and so, they take decisions on behalf of the people. This pattern of rule is known as representative democracy.
 3. Laws are made to satisfy the general needs of the people. Laws also regulate the behaviour of the people so that they cooperate with each other. This function is performed by the legislature. The legislature is the lawmaking branch of the government. Each law, then has to be enforced. There is no point in having laws only on paper. People who violate or break the laws of the land need to be punished. The second branch of the government, known as the executive, performs this function. There is another branch of the government known as the judiciary. It is independent and separate from the legislature and the executive. This is because its main function is to protect people against unjust rule. It also sees that government runs according to laws.



4

How We Govern Our Communities

- A. 1. (b) 2. (c)
- B. 1. 3 2. Tehsildar
3. Zila Parishad 4. Municipal Commissioner
- C. 1. ✓ 2. ✓ 3. ✓ 4. ✓
- D. 1. The system in which people themselves govern their community through their representatives is called local self-government. Panchayats in the rural areas and municipalities in the urban areas are local self-government bodies.
2. Urban local self-government bodies are called municipalities.
3. Every villager above the age of 18, whose name is on the voters' list, is a member of the Gram Sabha.
4. The Gram Panchayat looks after agriculture, cottage industries, irrigation etc.
- E. 1. The functions that Municipal Corporation perform are:
- The Municipal Corporation may run its own schools and help to maintain public libraries, museums, parks and zoos.
 - The Municipal Corporation looks after public health by running dispensaries and hospitals. It also checks adulteration of food.
 - It arranges for drinking-water supplies and street lighting. It may also make arrangements for firefighting.
 - The Municipal Corporation provides and maintains public utilities such as markets, roads, bridges and public toilets.
2. Advantages of Local Self-Government
- Local self-government reduces the work of the central and state governments by taking care of civic amenities at the local level.
 - Local people and their representatives are in the best position to understand the problems of any village or town. So, problems are not neglected and people help to solve them quickly as it is for their own good.

3. For ease of administration, the states in India are divided into districts. The districts are further divided into blocks, each of which has a number of villages under it. Panchayats exist at all of these three levels. This system of local self-government at three levels is called Panchayati Raj. In this system, a village has Gram Panchayat, a block has Block Samiti (also called Panchayat Samiti) and a district has Zila Parishad.



5

Rural Livelihoods

- A. 1. (c) 2. (a)
- B. 1. Farming 2. sea 3. Dairying 4. basic
- C. 1. ✗ 2. ✓ 3. ✗ 4. ✓
- D. 1. On the basis of the size of holdings (fields), farmers are classified into four types: (a) Small farmers, (b) Big farmers, (c) Medium farmers and (d) Landless farmers.
2. These farmers own land 2-5 hectare in area. They mostly work on their own lands and grow crops for their own use. This type of farming is called subsistence farming.
3. Sometimes small and medium farmers crops are ruined due to failure of monsoon or some pests. They are not able to repay the borrowed money and in such case they have to sell their land. Most of the small and some medium farmers in India remain in debt-trap of money-lenders.
4. In most of the villages we find some crafts (non-farm work) also, e.g. carpentry, weaving, making basket, pottery, brick-making, blacksmithy, etc.
- E. 1. The differences between big farmers and small farmers are:
Small Farmers: These farmers own land less than 2 hectares. These farmers are not able to support themselves. Their produce is too little to fulfill the needs of their family.
Big Farmers: They own big holdings (farms) which are more than 5 hectare in size. Usually, they do not work as cultivators. They give land to other farmers on contract and share the produce with them.
2. Landless farmers do not own any land. They work for big farmers on wages or shared produce. Their plight is miserable.

They are not able to make both ends meet. Therefore, they migrate to cities to work as labourers on daily wages.

3. Small fisherman generally fish in ponds or streams or small rivers, hence their catches are generally smaller in size. Besides they also use smaller equipment like fishing rods, or small nets. The quantity of catches is not very big. So, they depend solely on the day's catch to meet their needs. These people use small boats usually without engines.



6

Urban Livelihoods

- A. 1. (b) 2. (c) 3. (c)
- B. 1. self-employed 2. Delhi, Mumbai 3. NGOs
4. construction sites 5. municipal corporations
- C. 1. X 2. X 3. X 4. X 5. X
- D. 1. Dharavi 2. Migration 3. NGO 4. Slum
- E. 1. Many workers who work in large companies, banks, government, schools, etc., have permanent jobs with a regular salary. Their salary is not deducted if they fall ill or take leave for a long duration, in case they have earned leave. Apart from the salary, they get other perks in terms of monetary benefit or services provided to them.
2. Movement of a large number of people from one place to another is migration. There is a large-scale migration of people from rural to urban areas everyday. Forced by debt or loans, crop failure, floods, etc. people from the villages are forced to migrate to cities in search of work.
3. Slums are a major burden on city resources. They illegally use electricity and drinking water supply meant for city-dwellers. Living conditions are very unhygienic and they are prone to diseases. At times, the slums emerge as centres of crime and criminals.
4. The casual workers employed in small workshops because these workshops get order from abroad or some other dealer when there is more work, they employ more workers. When there is no work they dismiss the casual workers.

Social Studies-7

History

Tracing changes in the Medieval Period



- A. 1. (c) 2. (d) 3. (c) 4. (b)
- B. 1. Arabia 2. ancient, medieval 3. Arab traders
4. later medieval period 5. Alberuni, Ibn Batutah
- C. 1. ✗ 2. ✓ 3. ✗ 4. ✗
- D. 1. The medieval period means the period that comes between modern and ancient period. The medieval period in India, generally, begins from eighth century.
2. The history of the early medieval period is centred on power struggles among regional kingdoms of both North and South India, leading to the frequent rise and fall of kingdoms. The most prominent among these kingdoms were the Rajput kingdoms in the north and the Chola kingdom in the south.
3. Among the medieval scholars who visited India were Alberuni, a famous Central Asian scholar and Ibn Batutah, a scholar from Tangier (North Africa).
4. The legends or writings on the coin generally convey the name or title of the ruler who issued the coin and the date of its issue.
5. Hinduism went through some changes in the medieval period. New duties came to be worshipped. The absorption of some tribal and forest groups into Hindu society brought some tribal ideas of worship into Hinduism.
Building temples to their gods and goddesses became an important activity among Hindu rulers. The duties worshipped in these temples often represented the qualities that an ideal ruler was expected to have.
6. Islam was brought to India by Arab traders. Later, Muslim conquerors established kingdoms in India.

- E. 1. As there was no printing press in medieval India, all Indian papers and documents of the time were manuscripts (handwritten documents). Often, scribes (people who were employed to keep records) made copies of the original documents. While doing this, they sometimes copied wrong. Some scribes also put in their own language or their own thoughts on the subject. All this gradually changed the original text. Historians have to gather information from these changed documents if they cannot find original documents. This was much difficult because the historian has to study all the available versions carefully and cross-check the contents against other dependable evidences.

Another problem is that the languages used in old documents have changed over time. The spellings and meanings of words, the grammar and even the scripts have changed. Historians cannot read some of the documents because they are unable to read the scribe's handwriting or because the script is no longer in use.

2. In the medieval kingdoms in India, there were elaborate systems of administration, large scale trade and many types of crafts and religious and cultural activities. All this required the keeping of records. In the medieval period, paper came into wide use as writing material. The paper documents that have come down to us are at present preserved in archives (an archive is a collection of historical documents and records of a government, family or other organization).

Medieval documents and inscriptions include records of land revenue and land grants, work of religious literature and secular works such as writings on travel, history and science. Most of the historical works are prashastis or eulogies which are writings praising somebody, usually ruler. One exception is Kalhana's Rajatarangini a history of Kashmir in Sanskrit verse written in the twelfth century. As a true historian, Kalhana referred to different original documents, inscriptions and coins to check the facts.

3. The growth of new professions gave rise to a large number of subcastes each called a jati. A jati consisted of people

who were in the same profession. Prominent among the jatis that emerged were the Kayasthas subcaste of scribes. The kayasthas rose to prominence because record keeping had become an important profession.

The jatis had their own rules and regulations, administered by the elders. Besides, all the jatis had to follow the civic rules of the local government bodies of the villages and towns.

4. During the medieval period, many new social groups emerged. Some of these groups also became politically powerful. Among them were the Rajputs, who were warriors of Rajasthan and its surroundings, the Sikhs, who were a religious group of Punjab, the Jats of Haryana, who were farmers, the Ahoms, who conquered and ruled Assam and the Marathas, who were warriors of Maharashtra.

Many new social groups were absorbed into the caste system. For example, the Rajputs, who always wanted to be heroic and noble, got Kshatriya (warrior) caste status. With the expansion of agricultural and trade, wealthy landowners and traders acquired higher social status. With agriculture expansion, forest dwellers, tribal herders and even some outcastes took to cultivation and were absorbed into the Shudra caste. Some people took to new professions besides their traditional ones. For instance, though Brahmans were the highest caste, some Brahmans entered lower-caste professions like agriculture, trade and craft.

5. Islam, the religion of the Muslims, arose in Arabia in the seventh century AD. Islam is centered on the belief in one God, Allah and the teachings of his last prophet, Muhammad. These teachings are contained in the holy book called the Quran.

After Prophet Muhammad's death, a caliph or Khalifa, succeeded him as the religious and political head of the Muslim community. Later, the community split into two major sects—Shia and Sunni. The Shias regard Muhammad's son-in-law Ali as the Prophet's true successor. They believe that a caliph is appointed by divine will. The Sunnis believe

that a caliph should be chosen by the whole community. Apart from the Quran, they follow the Sunnah (customs and laws based on the deeds and words of Muhammad).

Islam was brought to India by Arab traders. Later, Muslim conquerors established kingdoms in India. They ruled according to Islamic law and the ulema (experts in Islamic law) received their patronage. Among the various schools became popular in India. It was made popular by the Turkish rulers.



2

Kings and Kingdoms

- A.** 1. (c) 2. (a) 3. (b) 4. (b) 5. (a)
- B.** 1. ninth 2. Chalukyas 3. Mahmud
4. Vijayala 5. Harshavardhana
- C.** 1. 1191 2. 985-1014 3. 1192 4. 1014-1044
- D.** 1. This was because Kannauj was situated in the heart of the Ganga plain and the plain could be best controlled from there.
2. The Pratiharas declined after they were defeated by Mahmud, the ruler of the Afgan town of Ghazni (Ghazna), in 1018.
3. The king often gave his officials land grants instead of cash salaries. Those who received such lands became the king's feudatories. A feudatory had to pay a part of the revenue collected from his lands to the king and give the king military support during wars.
4. He raised the Chola power to its high-water mark. He occupied the whole of Sri Lanka. The conquest of Bengal was the most important achievement of Rajendra, whereafter he assumed the title of Gangikonda chola.
- E.** 1. The sabha helped the king's government in measuring the land that was under cultivation, in calculating how much tax each person had to pay and then in collecting the land revenue. The tax collected was then sent to the central government. The people could pay in kind (grains) or in cash. The sabha also settled all disputes about land, water and

irrigation. It maintained roads, temples and water tanks. Its judicial committee could impose fines and punish criminals. It also made irrigation canals. If a large dam or anicut had to be made then the central government provided the money and supervised the construction. A great dam across the Kaveri River made Thanjavur, the capital, the granary of the South. The network of irrigation projects made by the Cholas helped in extending cultivation.

2. The Chola administration was highly systematised and well-organised. The vast empire was divided into six provinces or Mandalas, each governed by a viceroy. The provinces were further divided into districts or Nadus. Each Nadu was subdivided into Kottamas or Kurramas consisting of a number of villages. The king was the head of the whole administration. The king had a number of high officials-in-charge of various departments.
3. Copper plates were used for writing about the events, conquests, people and land grants. Here the plates are strung together on a huge ring with a royal seal attached to it.

Apart from these many thousands of inscriptions are found on stone walls in temples and in other places. Some record gifts of small items such as lamps while the records of gifts by kings give many details. We find many inscriptions on the Brihadeshwara Temple walls, which give details of land grants given by the royal women like Rajaraja's mother and sister.

4. **Provincial Administration:** Generally, the king appointed persons belonging to the royal family as governors. They carried out the orders of the king in provinces. They were also responsible for maintaining law and order in their territories. They had high officials to assist them in carrying out their tasks.

Village Administration: The villages enjoyed self-government under the Chola kings. All the powers of administration in the village were given to village assembly, Ur or Sabha. It

carried on its work through various committees. It had the power to collect and spend the revenue of the village. It undertook works of public utility and maintained charitable institutions. Rich peasants of Vellala caste exercised great control over village administration. The landlords were bestowed with many titles such as muvendavelan (a velan or peasant serving three kings), araiyar (chief) etc., by Chola kings and entrusted them with important offices of the state at centre.

Financial Administration: The main source of income of the state was land revenue. It was probably one-sixth of the total produce. The other sources of revenue were the salt tax, custom duties, professional tax, water cess, fines etc. The income of the state was spent on the king and his court, salaries of officials, army, religious institutions and construction works of public utility. The Chola inscriptions used more than 400 terms for describing different kinds of taxes. The most frequently mentioned tax is vetti or forced labour and kadami or land revenue.



3

The Delhi Sultanate

- A. 1. (b) 2. (d) 3. (d) 4. (c)
- B. 1. Rihla 2. Qutub-ud-din-Aibak 3. Slave Dynasty
4. Ghiyasuddin 5. Razia Sultan
- C. 1. (b) 2. (a) 3. (e) 4. (d) 5. (c)
- D. 1. Four dynasties of the Delhi Sultanate are:
(a) Slave Dynasty (b) Khilji Dynasty
(c) Tughlaq Dynasty (d) Lodhi Dynasty
2. Running the Delhi Sultanate was not an easy job and the Sultans faced many problems. Defeated rulers, like many of the Rajput rulers, often revolted against Turkish rule. Nobles conspired to overthrow Sultans. And there were several Mongol invasions from Central Asia.
3. According to legend, he attacked Chittor, the capital of Mewar, in Rajasthan, to capture Padmini, the beautiful queen of Mewar's ruler Ratan Singh.

4. Muhammad-bin-Tughlaq wanted to preserve gold and silver to meet the expenses of his planned campaigns outside his empire. So, within his empire he introduced bronze token coins. He, however, failed to check the large-scale forgery of the bronze coins. The value of the currency fell sharply.
 5. Muhammad-bin-Tughlaq decided to shift his capital to a place safe from Mongol attacks. He chose Devagiri in the Deccan and renamed it Daulatabad.
- E. 1. Balban was known for his strong policies. He undertook the following measures to strengthen the position of the Sultan:
- Defeated many local rulers.
 - Defended his kingdom from Mongol invasions and internal revolts.
 - Derived power by introducing the Divine Right of Kingship—the ruler is the representative of God on Earth.
 - Introduced the rituals of sijdah and paibos to assert his superiority.
 - Established an efficient spy system.
 - Had a stern sense of justice.
 - Restored law and order in the Ganga-Yamuna Doab by adopting a policy of 'blood and iron'. He mercilessly punished robbers and destroyed the zamindars who defied his authority.
2. Iltutmish was the first Delhi Sultan to face the Mongol menace. He saved India from a Mongol invasion by wisely refusing shelter to the ruler of Iran, who had been ousted by the Mongol chief Chenghiz Khan.
 3. In 1451, Bahlul Lodi, an Afghan who was the governor of Punjab, occupied the throne of Delhi. He maintained good relations with the nobles. He suppressed rebellions and established his authority over Sindh and Mewar.
- Sikander Lodi (1489-1517)** : Bahlul was succeeded by his son Sikander Lodi (whose real name was Nizam Khan) in 1489. He is considered the greatest ruler of the Lodi dynasty. He annexed Jaunpur and Bihar and brought the entire region of

gangetic plains under his control. But he was unsuccessful in capturing Gwalior and Malwa.

Ibrahim Lodi (1517-1526) : Sikandar Lodi was succeeded by his son Ibrahim Lodi in 1517. He faced a number of rebellions.

In the First Battle of Panipat fought in 1526, Babur defeated and killed Ibrahim Lodi. This event marked the beginning of the Mughal rule in India.

4. The Rulers of India

Rajput Dynasties	
Tomaras	Early Twelfth Century-1165
Ananga Pala	1130-1145
Chauhans	1165-1192
Prithviraj Chauhan	1175-1192
Early Turkish Rulers	1206-1290
Qutubuddin Aibak	1206-1210
Shamsuddin iltutmish	1210-1236
Raziya Sultan	1236-1240
Ghiyasuddin Balban	1266-1287
Khilji Dynasties	1290-1320
Jalaluddin Khilji	1290-1296
Alauddin Khilji	1296-1316
Tughlaq Dynasties	1320-1414
Ghiyasuddin Tughlaq	1320-1324
Muhammad Tughlaq	1324-1351
Firuz Shah Tughlaq	1351-1388
Sayyid Dynasties	1414-1451
Khizr Khan	1414-1421
Mubarak Shah	1421-1434
Muhammad Shah	1434-1443
Alauddin Alam Shah	1443-1451

Lodi Dynasties	1451-1526
Bahlul Lodi	1451-1489

5. Alauddin built new forts and repaired old ones along the north-western frontiers. He also built a garrisoned town called Siri. His able generals drove back the Mongol raiders, who raided India several times during his reign.

Alauddin fixed the prices of all essential goods so that soldiers and other salaried people could afford to buy these goods. Weights and measures were standardised and cheating was severely punished. These measures benefitted the soldiers as well as the general people.



4

The Mughals

- A. 1. (c) 2. (b) 3. (a) 4. (b)
- B. 1. Shershah 2. Babur 3. Haldighati
4. Aurangzeb 5. Sikandra
- C. 1. ✓ 2. ✗ 3. ✓ 4. ✗
- D. 1. (d) 2. (a) 3. (c) 4. (b) 5. (e)
- E. 1. The word 'Mughal' comes from Mongol. They are believed to have descended from Mongols. Babur claimed descent, on his mother's side, from Genghis Khan and on his father's side from Timur. Timur ruled over Iran, Iraq and modern day Turkey.
2. The Mughal army had infantry, cavalry, war elephants and artillery. Akbar also had a navy, which was, however, rather weak. The emperor maintained a group of trained and well-equipped royal bodyguards and armed palace guards.
3. Aurangzeb ruled from 1658 to 1707. Under him, the Mughal empire reached its largest extent. His harsh policies and religious intolerance led to many revolts. He lost the loyalty of the Rajputs. He angered the Sikhs by having Guru Tegh Bahadur executed. He killed the Maratha leader Shambhaji, but failed to crush the Marathas.

4. The Battle of Samugarh, is termed as the war of succession between Aurangzeb and his brothers and was fought between Dara Shikoh against Aurangzeb and Murad Baksh. Aurangzeb defeated Dara Shikoh, caught him, executed him on a charge of heresy and ascended the throne.
- F. 1. Akbar introduced the mansabdari system. He graded officers on the basis of their mansab (rank) and called them mansabdars. A mansabdar generally entered service in a low rank and rose through promotion on the basis of his loyalty and service.

A mansabdar's rank depended upon his zat and sawar. Zat was the value of his personal salary. This indicated his status. Sawar was the number of horses and horsemen he had to maintain. His salary was fixed on the basis of this. According to Abul Fazal, it ranged from 10 horsemen to 10,000 horsemen. A mansabdar also had to maintain a fixed number of elephants, camels and carts. According to an estimate, Akbar's mansabdars received the highest salaries in the world at that time.

2. Akbar's land-revenue policy was framed by Raja Todar Mal. It was based on Sher Shah's land-revenue system. Each peasant's land was measured and its yield assessed. Todar Mal calculated the state's share of each crop through the zabt system. According to this system, data regarding the area cultivated, actual produce and local prices was collected for each crop for ten years (1570-1580). The average produce and price of each crop over these ten years was calculated. The state's share was then fixed at about one-third of the average produce. Revenue could be paid in cash or kind. Farmers could get loans from the state.
3. To make the powerful Rajput chiefs his allies, Akbar married a number of Rajput princesses such as the princess of Amber. He also gave the Rajputs high posts in his army and government. Raja Todar Mal was made the finance minister. Raja Bhagwan Das of Amber and his son Man Singh were granted high ranks in the army.

Many Rajput rulers willingly became Akbar's allies and helped him expand his kingdom. Only some, like the Rajputs of Mewar, resisted Akbar. Even hostile Rajput rulers who ultimately surrendered to Akbar were usually allowed to keep their territories as watanjagirs.

4. Akbar patronised talented persons from all fields. The nine gems, namely, authors Abul Fazal, Faizi and Abdur Rahim Khan-i-Khanan, the witty Birbal, efficient officials Raja Todar Mal, Raja Bhagwan Das and Raja Man Singh, musician Tansen of Gwalior and artist Daswant, adorned Akbar's court.



5

Tribes, Nomads and Settled Communities

- A. 1. (d) 2. (c) 3. (b) 4. (a) 5. (a)
- B. 1. life style, customs, beliefs 2. castes
3. wealth, caste 4. Gor
5. Khokhars, Ghakkars
- C. 1. ✓ 2. ✗ 3. ✗ 4. ✗
- D. 1. Over 50 million Indians are classified as tribals. They are scattered all over the country. These tribals have, for thousands of years, lived undisturbed or untouched by social and scientific developments, on the hills and densely wooded regions which were regarded unattractive and unsafe by others. The important tribes include the Ahoms, the Gonds, the Todas, Irulas, Kurumbas, Kotas and Paniyars.
2. The Gonds, who lived in the forests of central India and Chhattisgarh, were especially skilled at capturing and training elephants. They set-up their own kingdoms and some members of the Gond ruling families married into Rajput families.
3. The Koli tribes consists of fishermen, boatmen and some weavers who lived in coastal Karnataka, Maharashtra and Gujarat.
4. The Cheros, who were forest tribes of eastern Uttar Pradesh and western Bihar, resisted absorption. The Chero chief built forts in different parts of Bihar and Jharkhand.

- E. 1. Although the Ahoms descended from the Buddhist Shan tribe, they were not Buddhists. They worshipped tribal gods, although some Ahom rulers took Hindu names and adopted Hinduism.

The influence of Brahmans increased during the seventeenth century. But even though the Ahoms built Hindu temples, with Hindu priests, they continued to worship their tribal gods. They also used their tribal language alongwith Assamese and followed their tribal customs such as burial of the dead.

2. The Ahom rulers maintained a workforce which played an important role during both war and peace. Its members, called paiks, served as soldiers and also built dams and roads and brought forests and swampy lands under rice cultivation. People were regularly moved from the settled areas into these newly reclaimed lands.

With the exception of the nobles, nearly all males aged fifteen to sixty had to do compulsory public service as paiks. The paiks were organised into four-member groups each called a gor. Each gor sent one member by rotation for public work. The others took care of his land during his absence. More members were called up at wartime.

3. Gond society is very structured unlike other tribal groups in which egalitarianism (equality) is common. They generally lead simple lives. Their houses are plain and also have cattle sheds. They are traditionally agriculturalists and practice shifting cultivation.

The Gonds have a distinct pantheon of gods and spirits whom they worship, alongwith Hindu gods and goddesses.

4. The Gonds, numbering about 4 million, are the largest ethnic group in Central India. Gondwana or the land of the Gonds is a loosely defined area of south-eastern Madhya Pradesh, eastern Maharashtra and parts of Chhattisgarh orissa and northern Andhra Pradesh. The region was home to several Gond kingdoms from the 15th century to the mid-18th century, when the Marathas expanded into the region from

the west. Ruins of forts of Gond rulers who ruled during the 13th and 14th centuries have been found. They expanded their kingdoms through matrimonial alliances with other rulers. The Gonds are predominantly Hindus and speak a Dravidian language. They are mainly organised into tribes in small villages.



6 Devotional Paths to the Divine

- A.** 1. (c) 2. (c) 3. (c) 4. (d) 5. (a)
- B.** 1. hagiographies 2. Alvar Saints, Nayanar
3. Advaita 4. Silsilahs 5. Nirgun
- C.** 1. ✗ 2. ✓ 3. ✗ 4. ✓ 5. ✗
- D.** 1. (b) 2. (a) 3. (e) 4. (c) 5. (d)
- E.** 1. The Nathpanthi sect practiced nirguna. Most Nathpanthi preaches were low caste professionals such as tanners, washermen, oilpressers, cobblers and fishermen.
2. Ramcharitmanas wrote by Tulsidas and his other work include hanuman chalisa.
3. Usually the khanqah would have a masjid or a madarasa. Often like the langars in the gurudwara, they also fed the poor, needy and the travellers.
4. Kabir's mission was to bridge the gulf between the Hindus and Muslims. He described himself, that "Kabir is the child of Allah and Ram. Hindus and turks were of the same clay".
5. Every member of the Khalsa had to have five distinctive things on his person. These were kesh (uncut hair), Kangha (comb), Kirpan (dagger), Kada (steel bangle) and Kaccha (underpants).
- F.** 1. The Lingayat or Virashaiva Movement began in Karnataka. It gained strength in the twelfth century, with Basava (also called Basavanna) as one of the leaders. This Shaivite movement condemned the caste system and meaningless rituals. People from all sections of the society supported the movement. The Virashaivas did not discriminate against women. Akkamahadevi, the daughter of a prosperous

merchant, was a renowned Virashaiva saint and writer. She led a group of women saints.

2. Guru Nanak was critical of the rituals practiced by the Hindus as well as the Muslims. His teachings are a symbol of harmony between the two religious faiths. Guru Nanak taught that we should not hate any one. His teachings may be summed up as under:

- The objective of life is to merge with God.
- God can be realized by true worship.
- For the realization of God, pilgrimages and idol worship are not needed.
- All men are born equal.
- Caste and clan distinctions must be abolished.
- God's eyes of mercy fall on those who take care of the lowly.
- Everyone is the same in the eyes of God.
- One should be honest, simple and truthful.
- Name of God should be repeated.
- There can be no worship without good action.
- Truth is higher but higher still is truthful living.

3. Nizamuddin Auliya who lived in Delhi during Alauddin Khilji's time was one of the greatest Sufi saints. Amir Khusrau was his great devotee. Nizamuddin talked to his followers in Hindawi or Hindi. Nizamuddin laid stress on universal love. The love of God implied in his view, the love of humanity.

The other great Sufi saint was Khwaja Muin-ud-din Chishti who lived in Ajmer. He was the disciple of Khwaja Usman Harwani of Chishti. The order he established is called the Chishti Silsilah to which Nizamuddin belonged. Every year, even today, many busloads of Muslims, Hindus and Sikhs visit the dargah of his saint during the annual celebration called the Urs. They go there to offer chadar and seek his blessings. His two well-known disciples were, Bhaktiyar Kaki and Baba Farid. Farid's verses were included in the Adi Granth of the Sikhs.

4. The early life of Sant Kabir is shrouded in mystery. All that definitely known is that he was brought up by a Muslim weaver. He was born in Banaras. It is said that when he died, both the Hindus and the Muslims claimed his body. He had no schooling, although his compositions find an important place in almost all the Hindi text books for various classes.

Teachings of Sant Kabir: Kabir was one poet and preacher who had the courage to denounce the meaningless rituals practiced or advocated by Hindu and the Muslim priests. Kabir was himself brought up by a weaver and as such had no respect for caste divisions. In his preachings, he gave a very high place to the Guru or the teacher. Since it was the Guru who led the devotees to the realization of god, the teacher was to be given a very high status.

Kabir's Dohas (couplets): His teachings are very enshrined in his inspiring couplets in Hindi which were later collected in the Bijaka (Seed Book). The simple fine rhythm of these couplets helped their easy grasp rememberence. These have become very popular and quoted in daily lives to provide inspiration and wise thoughts.

5. Adi Sankara was born in the 9th century in a village called Kaladi in Kerala. He was an amazing genius who helped in the revival of Hinduism. He worshipped Shiva and inspired the whole country by his books, commentaries and arguments. He established five centres of learning called mathas. These mathas were at Badrinath, Dwarka, Shringeri, Puri and Kanchipuram. According to his Vedanta philosophy, God and the created beings are one and the same. He emphasized that knowledge was important to reach God. One of his most popular hymns is Bhaja Govindam. Sankara's mathas are located in all the four corners of India. By the age of 32 he had become famous all over India.

One of the most important things Sankara's life brings out is the cultural unity of India. Even though different rulers have different regions, Sankara's choice of four corners of India for his mathas shows how he regarded India as a cultural unit.



7

The Flowering of Regional Cultures

- A. 1. (b) 2. (b) 3. (c) 4. (a) 5. (a)
- B. 1. Miniature 2. Akbar's time
3. Katha 4. Tamil Scripts
- C. 1. ✗ 2. ✗ 3. ✓ 4. ✓
- D. 1. (d) 2. (e) 3. (a) 4. (b) 5. (c)
- E. 1. The Jagannath temple was highly respected by the people of Orissa. So, all who conquered Orissa afterwards, like the Afghan Nawabs of Bengal, the Mughals, the Marathas and the British, protected its interests. They felt that this would make their rule acceptable to the local people.
2. During the Bhakti Movement, Kathak became increasingly based on stories from the life of Lord Krishna.
3. The Rajput's women, preferred death to dishonour. The women of defeated royal households sometimes committed jauhar (mass suicide by jumping into flames).
4. In Rajasthan, for example, different styles emerged at Bundi, Mewar, Kota, Kishangarh, Marwar, Jaipur and Bikaner. The Pahari style of painting developed in the hills extending from Jammu to Garhwal.
- F. 1. The Muslim rulers of medieval India patronised Persian-style miniatures. During the Sultanate period, miniatures were used in book- illumination (decoration of the pages of books).

Akbar established the Tasvir Khana, a painting studio where painters from different regions worked together. These painters blended Indian and Persian techniques. They painted secular themes such as hunting scenes, battle scenes, court scenes and portraits. Bright colours such as peacock blue and red were popular. Basawan and Daswant were two great painters of Akbar's time.

2. During the later medieval period, Kathak gradually shifted from Hindu temples to royal courts. Here, more emphasis was laid on rhythm and movement than on religious stories. The Kathak dance thus, got many of its present features such as delicate gestures and facial expressions and fast footwork.

Under the patronage of rulers like Nawab Wajid Ali Shah of Awadh (in Uttar Pradesh), several regional gharanas or schools of Kathak developed. Among these were the Jaipur gharana of Rajasthan and the Banaras and Lucknow gharanas of Uttar Pradesh.

3. In the medieval period, many rulers and wealthy people promoted the paintings or miniatures (small-size paintings). These paintings were made on various materials such as paper, cloth, wood ivory and leather. The paints used were natural dyes made from vegetables and minerals including gold and silver.

In the early medieval period, miniatures depicted religious themes. The Palas of Bengal patronised the use of miniatures to illustrate Buddhist texts, while in western India miniatures were used to decorate Jain manuscripts.

4. The Rajputs belonged to the Kshatriya caste. They rose to prominence in north-western India in the early medieval period. Rajput dynasties established kingdoms in different parts of northern and central India throughout the medieval period. The Rajputs, however, failed to unite and wasted their energies in continuous warfare among themselves.

The Rajputs preserved stories of their heroism, loyalty, rivalry, friendship and love in popular ballads and songs. Young Rajputs were trained in the art of warfare and were expected to follow the examples set by these stories. They preferred death to fleeing from the battlefield. They also fiercely guarded the honour of their women folk. The women, too, often preferred death to dishonour. The Rajput women of defeated royal households sometimes committed jauhar (mass suicide by jumping into flames).



8

Eighteenth Century : Political Formation

- A. 1. (a) 2. (c) 3. (b) 4. (b)
- B. 1. ✓ 2. ✓ 3. ✗ 4. ✓ 5. ✗
- C. 1. (b) 2. (a) 3. (d) 4. (c)
- D. 1. Saadat Khan introduced “Ijaradars” to promote trade and improve the economic condition of Awadh.
2. Shivaji collected taxes called chauth and sardeshmukhi from the rulers he subjugated.
3. After Guru Gobind Singh’s his death, the Sikhs organised themselves under a capable leader Banda Bahadur.
4. It was only under Raja Ranjit Singh of the Sukerchakia misl that they united as a Sikh kingdom. Finally, the Sikh state was formed and the misls accepted Raja Ranjit Singh as their ruler in 1801.
- E. 1. Under Murshid Quli Khan, Bengal’s revenue administration improved remarkably. He transferred Mughal jagirdars of Bengal to Orissa, converting their jagirs into crown land. This reduced Mughal authority in Bengal. Murshid Quli also got all the cultivable land surveyed and assessed and fixed new rates of revenue. He appointed revenue collectors who were made to sign contracts to make timely payments to the state. These contractors later became zamindars or landlords. Zamindars who could not pay up were severely punished.
2. The expansion of Maratha rule initially harmed some local crafts. For example, many silk weavers of Gujarat fled to Varanasi. However, by the mid-eighteenth century there seems to have been some economic recovery under the Marathas. Trade was encouraged, which helped banking, crafts and agriculture. Among the industries which flourished in the western Deccan were brassworking in Kalyan, the paper industry and mixed silk and cotton brocaded cloth industries of Aurangabad, the textile industries of Chanderi

and Burhanpur and the coarse cotton cloth, basket-making and perfume industries of Pune.

3. Ahmed Shah Abdali, with allies Rohilkhand and Awadh, easily defeated the Marathas at Panipat in 1761. Failure to win the support of local powers, unsuitable military techniques and disunity among the chiefs were the main reasons for the failure of Marathas.

Geography



1

Environment in Its Totality

- A. 1. (b) 2. (b) 3. (a) 4. (c) 5. (d)
- B. 1. Sun 2. living components 3. rocks
4. atmospheric circulation 5. biological
- C. 1. (d) 2. (a) 3. (b) 4. (c)
- D. 1. A great variety of living organisms are found on the Earth. This biological diversity is described as biodiversity.
2. Environments refers to the interaction of humans and all other living forms with the physical aspects of the Earth. The environment may be Natural and Human made.
3. The main functions of the atmosphere are :
- (i) It moderates heat and cold on Earth.
- (ii) Protecting life on Earth from space debris and certain harmful rays (ultraviolet radiation) from the Sun. This includes protection from bombardment by other types of radiation, such as gamma rays.
- (iii) It is responsible for causing precipitation (rainfall, snowfall etc.).
- The movement of air around the earth is called atmospheric circulation. A large percentage of all weather and climatic conditions on Earth can be traced to this.
- It enables us to hear sounds, because air also acts as a medium.
4. The Biosphere is the zone where the atmosphere, lithosphere and hydrosphere interact.
- This zone of interaction, which contains all terrestrial life forms, is known as the biosphere.

Its special feature is that it involves all the components of the environment to function as a balanced system.

5. Our environment needs to be protected of following reasons.

Our environment makes available resources for living such as air, water, nutrients, habitat and the like. There is constant and continuous interaction and interdependence between the above three components of our environment.

The sun is the only source of energy in the Solar System. Energy flow takes place from one form to another. A part of this energy is absorbed by us through the food that we eat, the air we breathe and the water we drink.

E. 1. The ideal conditions that make life possible on the Earth are:

Resources for Living: Our environment makes available resources for living such as air, water, nutrients, habitats and the like.

Interaction and Interdependence: There is constant and continuous interaction and interdependence between the above three components of our environment. This is especially true in the context of the biological environment.

Energy Flow: The sun is the only source of energy in the Solar System. Energy flow takes place from one form to another. A part of this energy is absorbed by us through the food that we eat, the air we breathe and the water we drink.

Processes: If we keenly observe our environment, we would notice many processes taking place around us continuously. Some of these processes are formation of soil and photosynthesis through which plants give our oxygen in the atmosphere in the presence of sunlight—the very oxygen that we breathe, fresh water also comes out of these processes.

Differential heating: While being inclined on its axis and going around the sun various parts of Earth receive different amount of sunshine. This differential heating, together with seasons, contribute to varied climates (this support different plants and animals) and lead to movement of air or winds. All the above conditions favour life on Earth.

2. The totality of our environment, includes all the elements of our natural environment divided into physical and biological components and also the man-made environment which exists in the backdrop of the natural environment.
3. Oceans perform the following useful functions:
 - (a) Much of the water that falls as rain, snow etc. On land comes from the oceans. All water flowing in streams, rivers or that which is stored in lakes or underground is made available by precipitation.
 - (b) Provide a link to landmasses or continents.
 - (c) Oceans provide us food, minerals, mineral oil and gas and are used for navigation.
4. Ecological system or Ecosystem is formed by the interaction of all living organisms, plants, animals and bacteria with each other as well as with the abiotic environment in which they live.

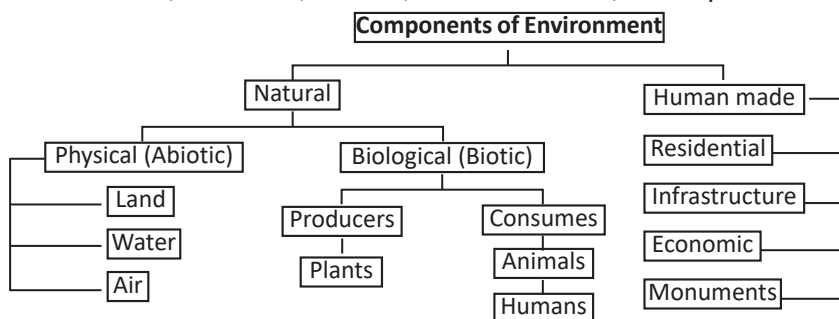
An ecosystem is never self-contained or closed. Ecosystems form wherever solar energy is received. An ecosystem is the home of a living organism. Its size may vary from that of a small pond to a vast rainforest or earth as a whole.

5. Our surroundings can be divided into two main components—natural and human-made. The natural environment is further sub-divided into physical and biological components.

Natural Environment

It consists of all living organisms, including bacteria. All types of plants, animals and man himself form the biological environment, also known as the biotic environment.

It includes abiotic factors such as mountains, plains, soils, climate, sunshine, rainfall, thunderstorms, earthquakes etc.



Components of Physical Environment

Our physical environment is broadly divided into four domains, lithosphere, atmosphere, hydrosphere and biosphere.

Human-made Environment

Humans have learnt to exploit the environment according to their requirement. The man-made environment has three chief characteristics:

- (a) It includes man-made structures like buildings, roads, dams, bridges, gardens, agricultural fields, canals etc.
- (b) It does not have any living components.
- (c) It exists in the backdrop of the physical environment. For example, if one wishes to build a house, one first needs a plot of land. Such activities pose a great threat to the environment.



2

Interior of the Earth

- A. 1. (a) 2. (b) 3. (a) 4. (c)
B. 1. rock 2. crust 3. fossils 4. marble
C. 1. rock 2. seismograph 3. core
4. magma 5. crust
D. 1. Rocks are made up of minerals.

On the basis of their origin, rocks may be classified into three groups:

- Igneous Rocks • Sedimentary Rocks
- Metamorphic Rocks

2. Deep below the Earth's surface, rocks are in a molten state called magma.
Extrusive igneous rocks are formed when magma cools and solidifies on reaching the surface. The magma that reaches the surface is known as lava.
3. The remains of plants and animals trapped within layers of rock are called fossils.
4. Two examples of sedimentary rocks are Shale and Clay.
5. Two examples of igneous rocks are Rhyolite and Granite.
- E. 1. When magma cools and solidifies, it forms a very hard rock known as igneous rock (igneous means 'of fire'). Much of the Earth's crust is made up of igneous rocks. Igneous rocks

are called primary rocks. These rocks are formed either on the surface of the Earth or below it.

2. When the layers are formed under water, the weight of the water also helps in hardening. Rocks formed by the deposition and hardening of layers of sediments are called sedimentary rocks. Such rocks are usually made up of layers of different composition. Sandstone, limestone, shale, gravel, clay and conglomerate are examples of sedimentary rocks.

3. The upper mantle is about 670 km thick, while the lower mantle is nearly 2,200 km thick. The top layer of the upper mantle is solid. Below this layer lies a soft layer.

This layer begins at a depth of about 50 km and extends roughly up to a depth of 300 km.

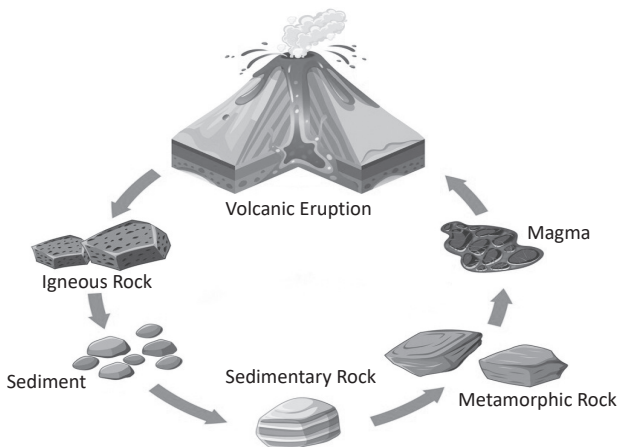
The crust and the hard uppermost part of the mantle, floats on this soft layer. Below this layer, the rocks of the upper mantle become harder with depth.

The lower mantle is a solid region starting at about 700 km. Unlike the upper mantle, it is composed of rocks of uniform hardness.

4. Igneous and sedimentary rocks change their form under very high temperature or pressure. Such changed rocks are known as metamorphic rocks.

Some common examples of such rocks are marble (formed from limestone), slate (formed from shale) and quartzite (formed from sandstone).

5.





3

Air Around Us

- A. 1. (b) 2. (a) 3. (a) 4. (a)
- B. 1. lighter, up 2. Ozone gas
3. atmospheric thermometer 4. direction
- C. 1. ✓ 2. ✗ 3. ✓ 4. ✗
- D. 1. The blanket of air that surrounds the Earth is called the atmosphere.
2. Weather is the state of the atmosphere at a specific time, at any place. It combines temperature, pressure, winds and rainfall conditions of a small area for a short period of time weather can change quickly and is not permanent in nature.
3. Climate is the average weather conditions at a specific place over a much longer period of time. It takes the same elements, namely temperature, pressure, winds, humidity and rainfall. Climate does not change significantly.
4. The weight of the atmosphere pushing down on a unit area on the Earth's surface is called atmospheric pressure. Atmospheric pressure is measured with the help of a Barometer.
5. The content of moisture in the air is a very vital factor for life on the Earth. This moisture is referred to as humidity and it keeps varying from time to time and from place to place depending on the rate of evaporation. When the amount of water vapour in the air exceeds the capacity of the air to retain it, it falls on the Earth as rain.
Humidity depends on temperature. Thus, when temperature is high, humidity is also high and vice versa.
- E. 1. The atmosphere does not get heated directly by the Sun's rays. The atmosphere absorbs very little of the solar radiation which passes through the layers of the air. Solar radiation heats the ground first. From the ground surface, the heat is transferred to the atmosphere.
2. Horizontally moving air is called wind. Some winds blow regularly from high to low pressure areas, whereas some

winds blow in particular zones. Some winds also change their direction on account of presence of high mountains or atmospheric disturbances.

3. Two factors that influence the temperature of place are:

Latitude: The higher the latitude, the lower the temperature. The reason for this statement is that places near the equator receive the vertical rays of the Sun that carry more heat and are concentrated over a smaller area. As we move away from the equator, the rays of the Sun become increasingly slanted. This spreads out the heat over a larger area. For example, Singapore near the equator is much warmer than Moscow, which is far away from the equator.

Altitude: When we visit the mountains, we feel cooler. Shimla and Nainital are much cooler than Delhi. This happens because the air on the mountains is less dense. Therefore, solar radiation cannot be easily trapped. The heat is lost very quickly through thinner air.

4. (a) **Conduction:** This is the transfer of heat through contact. A cooler body comes in touch with a warmer body and gets heated.
- (b) **Convection:** When air gets heated and becomes lighter, it starts to rise. This process of transfer of heat is called convection.
- (c) **Radiation:** Once the ground becomes hot owing to the heat of the Sun, the heated surface starts radiating heat to the atmosphere. This heat from the surface of the Earth is called terrestrial radiation.
5. The falling of condensed water vapour is called precipitation. When water at the surface of the earth gets heated, it rises in the form of water vapour. This water vapour cools in the upper atmosphere and condenses to water drops. When water drops grow in size, they fall in the form of rain.



4

Water

- A. 1. (a) 2. (b) 3. (a) 4. (d)

- B. 1. Ocean 2. evaporates
 3. water cycle 4. 2
- C. 1. ✓ 2. ✗ 3. ✓ 4. ✓
- D. 1. The cycle of evaporation, condensation and precipitation goes on all the time and is known as the water cycle.
 2. Atlantic ocean is the busiest ocean because it provides the maximum trade and transport facilities between the European and the American markets. It joins the Arctic Ocean in the north and the Southern Ocean in the south. The Mid-Atlantic Ridge, which is spread north to south across the ocean, is a unique feature.
 3. A tsunami is a very long wave caused by a submarine or coastal earthquake, landslide or volcanic eruption. As it nears the coast, it builds up in height. When it crashes onto the shore, it causes enormous destruction.
 4. The main current of Pacific Ocean are North Pacific Current, Kuroshio current, California current, etc.
- E. 1. The wind produces waves which are up and down movements. The water moves vertically without any horizontal change of position. The speed and duration of the wind determines the size and force of the waves. While the wind raises the water to an appreciable height, the pull of the gravity pulls it down.
 2. Tide are daily rise and fall of sea level. The cyclical movement is powered by the gravitational pull of the moon and to a lesser extent by that of the sun. The Sun is 26 million times larger than the moon. Its gravitational pull is however much less than that of the moon as it is 190 times farther away from earth.
 The pull of the moon creates a high tide in the area facing it and a low tide from where the waters are pulled.
 3. The rhythmic movement of the water particles produces a pattern, which we see as waves.
 The level of water in a sea or ocean rises and falls alternatively at regular intervals every day. These changes in the level of sea water are called tides.

4. In certain parts of the oceans, the waters move along a definite direction. These masses of ocean water moving in definite directions are called ocean currents.

Ocean currents are caused chiefly by the action of the planetary winds on the surface waters of the oceans. The shapes of the land masses modify the courses of ocean currents. Due to the rotation of the Earth, the currents in the Northern Hemisphere are deflected to the right of their paths, while in the Southern Hemisphere they are deflected to the left. Generally, the currents move clockwise in the Northern Hemisphere and anticlockwise in the Southern Hemisphere.



5

Life in the Deserts

- A. 1. (d) 2. (c) 3. (b) 4. (a)
- B. 1. date palm 2. Sahara 3. Yak 4. Tuaregs
- C. 1. ✗ 2. ✗ 3. ✗ 4. ✓
- D. 1. The three types of deserts found in the world are:
- Hot or Tropical Deserts • Cool or Temperate Deserts
 - Cold Desert or Polar Deserts
2. Sahara is the biggest tropical desert in the world. It is located in the northern half of Africa. It has an area of around 8.54 million sq. km.
3. Due to high altitude, the climate is cold and dry. There is little or no atmospheric moisture. The air is thin and thus, the heat of the Sun is intense. The dry temperature during the summer season is just above 0°C, while the night temperature is about -30°C. Winters are extremely cold and the temperature is about -40°C.
- In winters, dry winds enter through the numerous passes bringing down the temperature. This leads to heavy snowfall. On the whole, the climate of Ladakh is very harsh. Water is mostly supplied by the melting snow as there is not much rainfall. In summer, the area is warm.
4. Nomads move from one place to another in search of water and food for themselves and their animals. They have adapted themselves to the difficult environment.

5. Two important tribes of Sahara Desert are Bedouins and Tuaregs.
- E. 1. Ladakh lies to the north of the Great Himalayas. This part of India is cold and dry. The landscape is mountainous. There are two main mountain ranges. One is the Ladakh Range and the other is the Karakoram Range, which is the higher of the two. K2 or Mt Godwin Austen is the highest peak of the Karakoram and the second highest in the world (8,611 m). The river Indus flows through the centre of this region.
2. On the slopes of the mountains, there are alpine pastures where sheep, goats and some other animals are reared. The yak is an important animal found here. It provides milk and wool and also acts as a beast of burden. Pashmina wool is obtained from a special type of goat. It is an expensive item.
 3. The camel is the most suitable animal and is usually called the ship of the desert, as it can survive without food and water for long durations.
 4. Presently, the climate of the Sahara is very harsh and extreme. In summer, the temperature can shoot up to 55°C, while in the winters temperature goes down to freezing point. Rainfall is almost non-existent, less than 25 cm. The winds are dry and scorching and there is no cloud cover. That is the reason why days are extremely hot and the nights extremely cold. This makes life for the people living there very difficult.
 5. Settled cultivation is practiced in the Nile valley in Egypt and in the oasis, where sufficient water is available. Wheat, barley, maize, millets and beans are the chief food crops. The date palm tree is highly valued. It produces dates which are eaten. Cotton and sugarcane, grown mostly in the Nile valley, are important commercial crops. Egypt is famous for its fine long-staple cotton. Figs, olives and citrus fruits are also grown. The Nile valley is densely populated. Most of the people living here are peasants known as fellahin.



6

Life in Tropical and Subtropical Regions

- A. 1. (d) 2. (d) 3. (b) 4. (c)
- B. 1. Cassava 2. high 3. luxuriant
4. Mines Gerais and Para 5. Digboi
- C. 1. ✓ 2. ✗ 3. ✓ 4. ✓
- D. 1. Tropical region 2. Drainage basin
3. Evergreen trees with broad leaves
- E. 1. (c) 2. (d) 3. (b) 4. (a)
- F. 1. The original forest cover of the Ganga plain been almost completely removed because it is densely populated region of the world.
2. Atlantic ocean in which the Amazon basin is located.
3. The major cities located on the river Ganga are Lucknow, Allahabad, Patna, Kanpur, Kolkata and Varanasi.
4. Agriculture is the chief occupation of the Ganga-Brahmaputra basin. Rice is the chief food crop in the eastern part of the basin, while wheat is the chief food crop in the west. Pulses, vegetables and fruits such as mango, jackfruit, plantain and papaya are also grown. Jute, tea and sugarcane are the important commercial crops. Jute is grown mainly in Bangladesh, West Bengal, Assam and Bihar. Tea grows best on the hills bordering the Brahmaputra plain, especially those of Assam and West Bengal. Sugarcane is grown mainly in the Ganga plain.
5. One-horned rhinoceros are found in Brahmaputra plain. Wild animals are now rare in the Ganga plain. The Brahmaputra plain is home to elephants, leopards, deer, langurs, various types of snakes and the rare one-horned rhinoceros. The Sundarbans are home to the Royal Bengal tiger as well as crocodiles and marsh deer. Among the birds of the Ganga-Brahmaputra basin are barbets, flycatchers, warblers, mynahs, herons and kingfishers. Many varieties of migratory birds from across the Himalayas visit the basin in winter.

G. 1. The subtropical regions of the Ganga-Brahmaputra Basin is a huge depositional basin. These two rivers have jointly brought down millions of tons of fertile silt from the Himalayas over the centuries to create one of the richest plains of the world.

The fertility of the flat plain is renewed annually through the silt brought down by all these rivers.

2. Human activities in the Amazon basin are, however, causing the rainforests to shrink. This could produce several disastrous effects. The forests, as you know, support a huge variety of life. The clearing of the forests could cause the extinction of various types of plants and animals unique to these forests. The forests also absorb a huge amount of carbon dioxide. So, if these forests are destroyed, the level of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere will increase considerably and the greenhouse effect produced as a result could well affect the climate of the whole world. The destruction of the forests will also reduce transpiration from the Amazon basin, resulting in lesser rainfall in the region.
3. The soil of the Amazon basin is not fertile, as the continuous seeping of rainwater through the soil washes down the nutrients to the lower layers. However, the river banks, which are coated with fresh silt every year during floods, have fertile soils.

Manioc or cassava, is the chief food crop. Other food crops include rice, maize, beans and potatoes. Coffee, cocoa, Brazil nuts and black pepper are important commercial crops.

Mining has also become an important economic activity. Agriculture is the chief occupation of the Ganga-Brahmaputra basin. Rice is the chief food crop in the eastern part of the basin, while wheat is the chief food crop in the west. Pulses, vegetables and fruits such as mango, jackfruit, plantain and papaya are also grown. Jute, tea and sugarcane are the important commercial crops. Jute is grown mainly in Bangladesh, West Bengal, Assam and Bihar. Tea grows best on the hills bordering the Brahmaputra plain, especially

those of Assam and West Bengal. Sugarcane is grown mainly in the Ganga plain.

Fishing and fish-breeding are important economic activities.

4. Much of the tropical deciduous forests that once covered the Ganga plain have now been replaced by agricultural land to meet the needs of the growing population. The Brahmaputra plain still has tropical evergreen and mixed evergreen-deciduous forests. The delta region, which is washed by tides, has large areas of tidal forests or mangroves. These forests are called the Sundarbans after the Sundari tree, which grow abundantly in the region.

Civics



1

Equality in a Democracy

-
- A. 1. (a) 2. (b) 3. (c) 4. (c)
- B. 1. ✓ 2. ✓ 3. ✓ 4. ✓
- C. 1. (d) 2. (c) 3. (b) 4. (a)
- D. 1. Social inequalities are not unique to India. We find them in several other democratic countries as well. For example, there is still some discrimination against African-Americans in the USA.
2. Two rights of equality are right to vote, right to equality.
3. It is often said that there is no democracy without equality. Hence, in most democratic countries, all citizens are given equal rights atleast formally. The laws are usually the same for all citizens and the rules of law ensure that nobody, not even the government, is above the law.
- E. 1. The government runs various schemes for this purpose. One of these is the scheme for providing the mid-day meal to students in schools. It was started for the first time in the state of Tamil Nadu. Later on it was adopted by other states. In 2001 the Supreme Court directed all schools to implement this scheme within six months. This has many advantages. Many poor children who do not get enough food are encouraged to attend school in the hope of a free

meal. Students of all castes take the meal together and often Dalit women are employed to cook the meal. All this helps to reduce caste discrimination. Sometimes, however, we hear of students refusing to eat food cooked by Dalits and Dalit students being made to sit apart at meals. Such things will only stop when we change our attitudes.

2. Democracy is the Government of the People, by the People and for the People.

All Indians are equal before the law and there should not be any discrimination on the basis of caste, religion, sex or financial status.

In reality several types of inequalities exist in India, which include, economic inequality, caste and religion based inequality and gender inequality.

Equality is a very important aspect in a democracy and its functioning depends much upon people's participation.

3. India's constitution guarantees the right to equality to all the citizens of the country. From this right it follows that

1. All Indian citizens are socially equal before the state. This means that the state cannot stop any citizen from doing a government job, studying in a government institution, entering a public building, using a public well, tank or road and so on, just because he/she belongs to a certain caste, comes from a certain region, follows a certain religion, is rich or poor or is a man or a woman.

2. All Indian citizens are equal before the law and enjoy equal protection within Indian territory. And every citizen, be it the president or any ordinary person, has to obey the same laws.

3. The state cannot give any citizen any title that would give the recipient any special social privilege.

Untouchability is illegal and punishable.

4. Inequalities in Other Democratic Countries

Social inequalities are not unique to India. We find them in several other democratic countries as well. For example, there is still some discrimination against African-Americans

in the USA. This is true even though a Civil Rights Movement in the 1950s led to the passing of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, which forbade discrimination based on race, colour, religion or national origin. Hence, as in India, struggles for equality are necessary in democratic countries across the world.



2

How Our States are Governed

- A.** 1. (b) 2. (a) 3. (b) 4. (a)
- B.** 1. upper 2. Vidhan Parishad 3. five
4. speaker 5. five
- C.** 1. unicameral 2. State legislature 3. Vidhan Parishad
4. Vidhan Sabha 5. State legislature
- D.** 1. A bicameral state legislature in India consist of two houses.
2. No the Vidhan Sabha does not have a fixed term because the Vidhan Sabha is formed for a normal term of five years, but may be dissolved earlier.
3. In India, every state has a Legislative Assembly, which has members in proportion to the states population. These Members of the Legislative Assembly (MLAs) are elected by the people, who form the government. Thus, the MLAs are elected representatives of the people.
4. A cabinet is a group of chosen members of a government which is responsible for advising and deciding on government policy.
5. A union territory is administered by a Lieutenant governor or chief administrator or chief commissioner.
- E.** 1. If no party is able to win the majority of seats in vidhan sabha after election then the President's intervention is must when all the parties in the house fails to register a clear majority. The President of calls upon the leader of the largest single party to form the government this being the first possible option to elect a party or a coalition.
2. Unlike the Vidhan Sabha, which is elected directly by the people, the Vidhan Parishad is elected by a body of electors, who exercise this power on behalf of the people. Thus :

- One-twelfth members of the Vidhan Parishad are elected by teachers who have taught in secondary schools and above for more than three years.
 - One-third members of the Vidhan Parishad are elected by the Vidhan Sabha.
 - One-third members of the Vidhan Parishad are elected by the members of the local bodies in the state.
 - The rest of the one-sixth members are not elected. They are nominated by the Governor. They must have distinguished themselves in the field of art, literature, science, social service or the cooperative movement.
 - One-twelfth members of the Vidhan Parishad are elected by graduates of 3 year's standing.
3. A bill introduced in any house of the legislature is discussed and debated in three stages. Then it is put to vote. If the majority of the members present vote for the bill, it is sent to the other house. There it goes through the similar process. A bill passed by both the houses is sent to the 'Governor' for his consent. In a unicameral legislature, a bill passed by the legislative assembly is sent directly to the Governor. When the governor signs the bill, it becomes a law.

4. Qualifications for Membership to the Two Houses

The person must be a citizen of India.

- To qualify for election to Vidhan Sabha, the person must be not less than 25 years of age and for the Vidhan Parishad not less than 30 years of age.
- Must possess all the qualifications prescribed by the Parliament.
- Must not hold any office of profit under the government of India or the government of any state.
- Must not be of unsound mind, an undischarged insolvent or have been disqualified by law for having committed a crime.

5. All decisions made by the council are communicated to the governor by the chief minister. The wishes of the governor are also communicated by him/her to the legislature.

The chief minister is the leader of the majority party in the Vidhan Sabha. Once he/she is appointed Chief Minister, he/she has to submit a list of names to be appointed as ministers to the governor. The timetable of the meetings of the legislature is prepared by the speaker. He consults the chief minister when he prepares the programme. The chief minister is the chairperson of the meetings of the Council of ministers and the work of different departments are coordinated by him/her.

When elections take place to the state legislature, government is formed by the party that gets the majority of seats. The elected members of this party elect a leader. This leader is formally appointed the chief minister of the state by the governor. The chief minister allots each minister a department. Ministers are also given a rank.

6. Administration in a state is carried out in the name of the governor. Each state has a governor, but the same person can be appointed the governor of two or more states.

The governor can be removed earlier by the President. This can only happen, for example, in cases of glaring crime.

The governor has some law-making powers. He/she calls a meeting of the state legislature to carry out its work for a number of days. This is known as the session of the legislature. The governor has the power to dissolve the Vidhan Sabha. Bills become laws only if they are signed by the governor.

A statement of the income and expenditure of the government is presented to the legislature by the finance minister with the permission of the governor. This is known as the budget.

The governor is consulted by the president in the appointment of judges to the High Court. He/she has certain

powers to reduce the punishment of criminals who have been declared guilty by the court for violating the laws of the state. These are the judicial powers of the Governor.

7. The day-to-day administrative work in the departments of the government is done by officials of the civil service. These officials are known as civil servants. The special body called the Union Public Service Commission (UPSC), which selects civil servants for the central civil service, posts some civil servants in each state. The rest of the civil servants of a state are selected by the State Public Service Commission.



3

Role of The State Government

- A. 1. (b) 2. (c) 3. (c) 4. (d)
- B. 1. state 2. union 3. doctors, healthcare
- C. 1. ✗ 2. ✓ 3. ✗ 4. ✓
- D. 1. A state government makes laws and provides services according to the special needs of the state concerned.
2. The subjects on which a state government makes laws are mentioned either in the State List or in the Concurrent List. Among these subjects are land reforms, irrigation, water, education and public healthcare.

In 1976, education was made a subject of the Concurrent List. Since then, the central government has been playing a leading role in determining the educational needs of the country. The central government tries to maintain a uniform standard of education throughout the country.

Primary education is given a lot of importance. All children aged between 6 and 14 years now have the right to get free primary education. The central government and the state governments run schools to provide education to children.

3. The healthcare services provided by the state government reach us through a chain of healthcare centres. At the village level, there is usually a small healthcare centre where minor illnesses can be treated. The village healthcare centre is under the supervision of a Primary Healthcare Centre (PHC).

A PHC supervises the healthcare centres of several villages. PHCs have qualified doctors. They refer seriously ill patients to bigger healthcare centres such as the district hospital, where specialised facilities for testing and treatment are available. Cities usually have large government hospitals where all kinds of illness-minor and major, can be treated.

4. The state government is responsible for planning, carrying out and monitoring schemes to improve public healthcare. It gets financial and technical help from the central government. Usually, local self-government bodies and NGOs are actively involved in efforts to improve public healthcare.

The state government runs hospitals and healthcare centres in urban and rural areas of the state to provide medical treatment to the public at reasonable cost. These are run mostly out of taxes paid by the public. The state government arranges for sanitation and waste management. It also organises different kinds of healthcare camps in the state to vaccinate people against diseases, to conduct free medical tests, to spread awareness about healthcare and so on.

- E. 1. Depending on the needs of the state, the state government has dams, canals, wells etc. constructed to provide irrigation. Often, the actual work is carried out by the local self-government bodies. Also, the state government often encourages the farmers to form associations for building and maintaining small irrigation works. The state government usually frames a policy for managing the state's water resources. This is especially important in arid states. Much of the water used for irrigation is drawn from rivers and many of these rivers flow through more than one state. State governments enter into formal agreements with each other for the sharing of water from a common river. Sometimes there are disputes. If the state governments concerned cannot settle such disputes by themselves, the central government has to step in.

2. Every state has its own special needs and it is not possible for the Central government to take care of all these needs. So, we have governments at the state level as well. The state government's job is to make and give effect to laws on subjects that deal with the special needs of the state. Such a system of government in which individual states have control over their own affairs but are controlled by a central government in matters of national importance, is called a **Federal system**.

We have federal system in India because federalism allows for the accommodation of diversity and regional autonomy within a larger political unit.

3. The Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan scheme has been launched to make education available to all children, especially girls, children from the weaker sections of the society, children from remote areas, working children and school dropouts.

To achieve the target, state governments are opening schools in the places which do not have schools. Also, existing schools are being strengthened through additional classrooms, toilets and teacher training programmes. Life skills, girls' education, computer education and education for the children with special needs are the other components of SSA.



4

The Media in Democracy

- A. 1. (d) 2. (c) 3. (d) 4. (a)
- B. 1. print media 2. Media 3. public
4. Rajasthan 5. organize
- C. 1. ✓ 2. ✗ 3. ✗ 4. ✗
- D. 1. The means by which large numbers of people get information and entertainment are called media.
2. The main aim of the media is to give people information on matters of public interest. The media should present such information correctly, decently and in an unbiased manner. To do this, the media must follow a code of ethics.

3. The media performs a variety of functions. Some of the most important ones are giving information, allowing discussion and debate and shaping public opinion.
 4. The media keep track of everything that goes on around us in our own country and around the world. They give us the latest information about important events, about the policies of our government and about the policies of other countries towards our country.
 5. In a democratic country, the people also have a right to know about the activities of the government they have elected. Our government uses the mass media to give information to the people and also to provide education and entertainment. The Ministry of Information and Broadcasting is responsible for developing, regulating and sending out information.
- E. 1. Every public authority must publish information about its organisation, functions, duties, important policies and decisions, planned expenses and so on. Every public authority (institution or body established, controlled or funded by a government) must maintain its records in such a way that such records can easily be accessed by people.
2. The following principles are included in codes of media ethics:
 1. **Maintaining Accuracy and Fairness:** The media should not publish or broadcast information that is incorrect or misleading or distorted. All the different views on an issue should be presented.
 2. **Correcting Errors and Allowing Replies:** When an error is detected in any information given by the media, the media should promptly publish or broadcast the correct version and apologise for the mistake.
 3. **Respecting People's Privacy:** The media should respect people's privacy. A person's identity and details about his or her family, personal life, religion, caste etc. should not be made known unless it is necessary to do so in the interest of the public.
 4. **Protecting the Interests of Nation and Society:** The media should be very cautious while presenting any news

or information that may threaten the security and unity of the nation or harm the society. For example, information on disputes between religious, racial or cultural groups should be verified before being made public.

The media may, in the interest of the public, criticise the judgement or actions of a court. But, such criticism should not be unreasonable or unfair.

The media should not publish or broadcast anything that is vulgar (showing bad taste). They should avoid publishing or broadcasting anything that contains images or expressions that are rude or obscene or likely to offend people. Robberies, killings, child marriages and other acts involving violence or social evils should not be presented so as to glorify them.

3. An organisation called the Mazdoor Kisan Shakti Sangathan (MKSS) took up the people's cause. The main aim of the MKSS was to win the right to get copies of all documents related to public works. The MKSS raised awareness on this issue through jan sunwais (public hearings). It also organised dharnas (protests in which the protesters refuse to go away until their demands are met) in several towns, including Beawar and the state capital, Jaipur.

4. The main functions of the media are:

Giving Information: To form intelligent opinions about different happenings around us we need correct and unbiased information on them as and when they happen. Similarly, to form opinions about the actions of the government we need information about the government's policies as and when they are adopted.

Shaping Public Opinion: The people's opinions about an issue are based mainly on information given by the media. Such opinions are deeply influenced by the way the issue is presented by the media.

The media consist of a number of independent rival agencies, each of which has the freedom to present an issue in its own way. This allows the people to gather information from several different versions before forming an opinion.

Forum for Discussion and Debate: The media organise discussions and debates on various social, economic and political issues. You may have watched such discussions and debates on TV or heard them on radio. The participants in these discussions and debates often include common people as well as politicians, journalists, economists, businessmen, legal experts and so on.



5

Gender Prejudice : Social Aspects

- A. 1. (b) 2. (c) 3. (a) 4. (b)
- B. 1. social life 2. manly, womanly
3. unequally 4. English
- C. 1. ✗ 2. ✗ 3. ✗ 4. ✓
- D. 1. The term gender refers to economic, social and cultural attributes and opportunities associated with being a male or female.
2. It is a social concept and therefore, it changes over a period of time, from one culture to another and even among different groups within one culture. Hence, gender roles, responsibilities, inequalities and differences are not the same in various societies. They differ according to the historical development and institutions of that particular society.
3. Women face discrimination in many matters. Some of these matters are healthcare, education, decision-making and economic freedom.
4. In India, posts reserved for women in some government bodies to promote gender equality and empower women.
- E. 1. In many societies, men and women are not only treated differently but also unequally. Unequal treatment based on gender can take different forms in different societies. It can also be different in different sections of any given society. Usually, the forms change over time. In a number of societies, including the present Indian society, women face discrimination in many matters. Some of these matters

are healthcare, education, decision-making and economic freedom.

2. In India there are about 943 women for every 1,000 men. In Indian society, girl children are often neglected because parents prefer to have male children. Sometimes, girl children are even killed because they are not wanted. This is called female infanticide.

The health of women affects the health of the children they bear. Children, including male children, borne by an unhealthy woman are likely to be unhealthy. So, men too are indirectly harmed if women are not given proper healthcare.

3. (a) In India, women now have equal rights as men, at least formally. There are also special laws to protect women from physical and mental torture at home and from harassment at work and in educational institutions. There are laws also to punish those who demand dowry. All this has become possible because of campaigns by people and organisations that work for women's welfare. These people and organisations spread awareness about the difficulties that women face. They draw attention to women's problems by writing articles, by speaking at public rallies and meetings and by organising poster campaigns, street plays etc. They also give advice, information and sometimes money and legal support to women to help them deal with problems. This enables many women to know and exercise their rights.
(b) In most societies, men enjoy more decision-making power than women do. In families, men usually make most of the important decisions. Usually, men also hold most of the important posts in offices and government bodies. In India, posts are reserved for women in some government bodies to give more decision-making power to women.
4. In the nineteenth century, there were several social reform movements in India. The reformers encouraged women's education. Among the reformers was Pandita Ramabai. She

received education at home and became a Sanskrit scholar. This was a rare achievement for a woman of those times. Ramabai set-up the Mukti Mission at Khedgaon near Pune. Here, widows and poor women were given education and taught various skills so that they could earn a livelihood. Some of the skills taught were farming, weaving, carpentry and running a printing press. This mission still exists and carries on its work.

Another champion of gender equality was Rokeya Sakhawat Hossain. Educated in Urdu, she learnt Bengali and English with the help of her elder brother and sister. Later, encouraged by her husband, she became an author. She wrote a story called Sultana's Dream about an imaginary land where the gender roles were reversed. There, men lived in seclusion just as the Muslim women of those times lived behind the purdah (veil). And women drove flying cars like airplanes, which were then flown only by men. Rokeya Sakhawat Hossain also set-up the Sakhawat Memorial Girls' High School at Bhagalpur. The school was later shifted to Kolkata, where it still exists.



6

Markets Around Us

- A. 1. (a) 2. (b) 3. (c) 4. (d)
- B. 1. Middlemen 2. A market
3. Co-operative 4. wholesalers
- C. 1. ✗ 2. ✓ 3. ✓ 4. ✓ 5. ✗
- D. 1. A market serves as a link between the producers and consumers of goods and services. The link is usually established through intermediaries (middlemen).
2. Retailing involves buying products in large quantities and selling them to consumers in small quantities for personal or household use.
3. The government announces a Minimum Support Price (MSP) for certain kind of grain. The government buys from farmers at this price, even if the market price is lower. This assures farmer producers of fair earnings.

4. A shopping mall is a large building with shops of different kinds on its many floors. Most of the goods sold are branded and expensive, but the customers get benefits such as credit-card purchase, parking for vehicles and so on.
- E. 1. Retailing is usually done through different types of shops, door-to-door selling and so on. Wholesaling is usually done in a marketplace, where buyers and sellers from different places gather. Wholesale markets usually serve larger areas than retail markets do.

In wholesale markets, products are sold in large quantities at a time. In retail markets, products are sold in small quantities at a time.

A wholesaler usually deals in one product or only a few different products. A retailer may deal in a single product, a few products or many products.

It is more common for ultimate consumers to buy from retailers than to buy from wholesalers or producers. Thus, retailers usually have direct contact with the ultimate consumers. Retailers are, therefore, in the best position to understand consumer's needs. Wholesalers usually deal with traders and are more aware of trader's needs.

2. (a) An open market is a market with no regulatory barriers, such as taxes, licensily requirements and government subsidiaries.
- (b) An open market allows buyors and sellers to trade freely without any external market.
- (c) The prices for good and services are determined by the shift in supply and demands.
3. A weekly market is held on a particular day of the week. In such a market, temporary stalls are set-up for the day. They are taken down after the day's business is over. Not much money is required to set-up shop in a weekly market and most of the goods sold are not branded. Hence, the prices are generally low. These markets are more common in villages than in cities.

In a large town or city, every neighbourhood usually has a marketplace with permanent shops. In these markets, there are often some temporary stalls too. The owners of permanent shops have to pay rent, electricity bills, phone bills etc. for their shops. Hence, they charge higher prices. However, the buyers can usually make credit purchases.

4. Role of Intermediaries

Keeping prices low: Middlemen bear much of the cost of transporting and storing goods. Such costs are usually lower for larger quantities of goods. As middlemen handle large quantities of goods, they can keep their expenses low and provide their services at reasonable rates. This helps in keeping the prices of products low.

Taking products to customers: The most important function of intermediaries is to take products to the customers in convenient forms and at affordable prices.

Giving information: Middlemen inform producers about changes in the customer's tastes and needs, the entry of new rival producers and products into the market and so on. Besides, middlemen have to compete with many other middlemen. This also encourages them to charge less for their services.

Sometimes, the process of taking goods to the customers can be quite expensive and inconvenient without the help of middlemen.

Providing funds: Sometimes, middlemen buy goods and services by paying the producers in advance. This money is used to meet the production cost.

Attracting customers: Middlemen tell customers about the products available. They also encourage customers to buy products.

Social Studies-8

History



1

When, Where and How?

- A. 1. (d) 2. (d) 3. (d) 4. (b)
- B. 1. mid-18th 2. Vasco da Gama 3. 1526, 1707
4. Nadir Shah 5. 1498
- C. 1. ✓ 2. ✗ 3. ✓ 4. ✗ 5. ✓
- D. 1. The Modern Period is generally said to have started in the 18th century in Europe.
2. The industrial revolution was when machine-made goods began to replace handmade goods.
3. The modern period in India is associated with scientific progress, industrialisation, colonization and urbanization or growth of cities.
4. The source of information refers to the origin or place where information comes from administrative records were important source of information.
With the invention of the printing press, there was great growth in the production of books, magazines, newspapers and journals.
- E. 1. Some European rulers encourage merchants to form companies to trade in the East because by the end of the sixteenth century, European overseas trade began to fetch enormous profits. The rulers of several European countries such as Holland, England and France granted exclusive rights to groups of merchants to start companies to trade in the East. In return, the rulers received a share of the profits. Thus, the English East India company was set up in 1600, the Dutch East India company in 1602, and the French East India Company in 1664.
2. Hyderabad, Bengal and Awadh are three succession states that arose in eighteenth century in India. In the first few decades of the eighteenth century, many Mughal provincial

governors became independent. Since they remained loyal, at least in name, to the Mughals their states are called succession states.

3. Administrative Records were important source of information. The spread of education inspired many people to write and this created a rich treasure of documents. With the invention of the printing press, there was great growth in the production of books, magazines, newspapers and journals. This provided the basis of what happened during a particular period.

The literary sources include individual writings as well as government records of the British administration. The British believed that the act of writing was very important. Every instruction, investigation, plan and policy has to be clearly written down. This methodology produced important memos, notings and reports.

The British also felt the need of preserving important documents and letters. Thus, record rooms were set up. The village Tahsildar's Office, the Collectorate, the Commissioner's office and law courts—all had their record rooms. Museums and archives were also established to preserve important records.

Newspapers are another important literary source. They are very important as they capture the spirit of the time. The newspapers carry news, cartoons, letters, editions and even advertisements. Many newspapers have kept their old editions in the form of microfilms in archives.

In the National Archives of India built in the 1920s, there are innumerable documents available for the period under study. There are actual proceedings of meetings of government officials, diaries of officials, letters, eyewitness accounts and records of court proceedings.

4. The industrial revolution began in England in the mid-eighteenth century when machine-made goods began to replace handmade goods. The revolution brought about many social, economic and political changes in England. These changes spread to other parts and to North America as well. Large industrial cities were developed.

New transport and communication: The needs of industrialisation led to revolutionary changes in transport and communication. Road construction improved vastly and railways and steamships were introduced. All this helped in the expansion of trade and industries and in the large-scale migration of people in search of jobs.

Laws and education: To meet the new needs, uniform laws were formed and codified. The importance of education increased as the demand for specialised and skilled personnel increased. All these changes helped in modernisation.

5. Before the industrial revolution took place in the European countries, the land was under various feudal lords who were powerful. They collected taxes and imposed fines on farmers and lived a life of luxury.

After the arrival of the factory system, a new class of people arose who were the owners of the factories. Their only motive was to make money. These people controlled the production and sale of their goods or, in other words, they controlled capital. Thus, they came to be known as capitalists. They paid meagre salaries to their workers and exploited them in numerous ways. This way, there were two distinct groups of people—the capitalists or the ones who had money and all comforts and the workers or the have-nots who worked hard yet did not earn much.



2

The Establishment of Company Power

- A. 1. (b) 2. (b) 3. (c) 4. (d)
- B. 1. Sixteenth 2. Thomas Roe 3. Mir Jafar
4. Dalhousie 5. Mysore
- C. 1. ✓ 2. ✗ 3. ✗ 4. ✗ 5. ✗
- D. 1. Robert Clive introduced the Dual System of administration in Bengal.
2. Vasco-da-gama was the Portuguese traveller discovered the sea-route to India.

3. Tipu Sultan was the son of Haider Ali.
 4. Dalip Singh was son of Ranjit Singh.
 5. Farukhsiyar was the Mughal Emperor.
- E.
1. When Siraj-ud-Daulah became the Nawab of Bengal in 1756, he drove the English out of Calcutta for expanding fortifications against the orders and misusing trading rights. He sent his troops and occupied the Company's factories in Calcutta. The British officials were alarmed at this development and decided to depose Siraj-ud-Daulah and install a puppet nawab in his place. Under Robert Clive's leadership, the Company tried to regain its position in Bengal. This led to the famed Battle of Plassey.
 2. The Battle of Buxar was a decisive battle in Indian history. The weakness of the Indian armies was thoroughly exposed. The nawabs of Awadh and Bengal, and the Mughal Emperor now became dependent on the English East India Company. Total financial control over the rich eastern provinces gave the British enormous resources for the next round of expansion.
 3. Siraj-ud-Daulah failed in the Battle of Plassey because Robert Clive bribed some important members of Siraj's court including his commander-in-chief Mir Jafar. On 23rd June, 1757, the armies of Siraj-ud-Daulah and the English East India Company met at Plassey (Palashi). Mir Jafar and his loyal soldiers in the Nawab's army did not take part in the battle.
 4. The Subsidiary Alliance system compelled Indian rulers. Britishers asked the rulers to accept the paramountcy of the British and sign a subsidiary treaty with them. In return, the British promised to protect the ruler from internal rebellions and from attacks by his rivals.
 5. The third Anglo-Maratha War (1817-1819) destroyed the Maratha power completely. The Peshwa was exiled to North India and his territories were taken over by the British. Other Maratha chiefs were also forced to give up their territories and were no longer allowed to keep an army.

- F. 1. There was an intense rivalry among the trading companies of different European countries due to power and regional dominance. In order to discover new trade routes, found colonies and utilise the resources of far-off areas, the European nations founded trading companies. The presence of numerous trading companies vying for goods such as spices (pepper, clove, cardamom, cinnamon), cotton, silk, indigo, saltpetre, and so on, led to intense rivalry among them. All of them wanted to buy these goods at low prices in India and sell them at very high prices elsewhere, particularly in Europe. Since profits from trade were huge, each European country vied for a greater share of this trade. However, the quantum of trade was not sufficient to sustain all the companies. Little by little, the profits earned by them began to shrink. The only way to increase profits was by eliminating competitors and ensuring a trade monopoly. The companies which had the support of their respective governments set out to do just that. They built their own armies and were not averse to using force to achieve their goals.
2. In the 18th century, three wars were fought between the French and the British for control over the coastal strip of present day Tamil Nadu, known at that time as Carnatic. These wars came to be known as Carnatic wars. The Carnatic region was under the possession of the Nizam of Hyderabad.
- First Carnatic War:** The traditional rivalry between France and Britain and their conflicting trade interests in India led to the Carnatic wars between 1744 and 1763. The first war was fought when the French, led by Governor Dupleix, captured Madras, which was a British possession. However, Madras was restored to the British as part of the peace settlement in Europe, following the Austrian war of succession.
- Second Carnatic War:** The second Carnatic war was fought over the issue of successors to the throne of Hyderabad and Carnatic, with the British and the French supporting different candidates. This time, the French were defeated and Dupleix was recalled to France. The Second Carnatic war ended with the Treaty of Pondicherry signed in 1754.

Third Carnatic War: The final phase of the Anglo-French conflict started in 1756, when the Seven Years War broke out in Europe. Both the countries were fighting on opposite sides. So their companies started fighting in India. In this war, the French forces led by court de Lally were decisively defeated in Carnatic. The English replaced the French in Hyderabad. The Nizam gave the English the Northern Sarkars, the French lost all their possessions in India. A peace treaty was signed in 1763. The French factories in India were restored to them but they could no longer be fortified. They could serve only as centres.

3. Ranjit Singh, the founder of the Sikh kingdom of the Punjab, was a capable ruler and a great statesman. His only son and successor Kharak Singh could not stop the disintegration of the kingdom. Kharak Singh and his son Naunihal Singh were killed in 1840. Then began the bloody succession wars. In 1844, Rani Jindan widow of Ranjit Singh started ruling Punjab with the help of her brothers, Lal Singh and Tej Singh.

First Anglo-Sikh War (1845-46)

When the First Sikh war with the British began in 1845. The Khalsa army under Tej Singh crossed the Sutlej and swung into position for an attack on the small, isolated British force at Ferozepur. The Sikhs fought bravely, but since they had no leader, they were defeated at Mudki, Ferozeshah, Aliwal and Sobraon. By the Treaty of Lahore (1846), Dalip Singh, the infant son of Ranjit Singh was recognized as the Raja.

Second Anglo-Sikh War (1848-49)

Lord Dalhousie had been in Delhi for barely six months when the Second Anglo-Sikh war started. Rani Jindan had been removed from Lahore to Shekhupura on a charge of conspiracy against the British resident. The disbanded Sikh soldiers were restive. In 1848, Diwan Mulraj, the Governor of Multan failed to comply with the financial demands of the Lahore durbar and resigned. The revolt at Multan assumed quite a formidable proportion. The Khalsa army came together once more to fight the English. The English

emerged victorious after destroying the Sikh army. The Afghan cavalry under Dost Mohammad, and ally of the Sikhs had been chased back to their native hills. The Punjab, annexed by a proclamation became a British province.



3

Agrarian Structure Under The British

- A. 1. (b) 2. (a) 3. (c) 4. (b) 5. (b)
- B. 1. british Prime minister William Pitt 2. Haileybury
3. civil services 4. Indian penal code
5. Company's
- C. 1. ✓ 2. ✓ 3. ✗ 4. ✓ 5. ✓
- D. 1. The Regulation Act (1773) marked the first step towards Parliamentary control over the company and towards a centralised administration in India.
2. Lord Cornwallis started the civil services in India as Indian Civil Services (ICS) to administer the Company's territories effectively in 1793.
3. A regular police force was organised to maintain law and order. Lord Cornwallis established a regular police force in India.
4. Indigo is a natural blue dye extracted from the indigo plant. This dye is used for colouring cloth. Since ancient times, this dye has been popular in India and was also exported. But only a small portion of land was used to cultivate it in India.
5. Indian laws were based on regional and local customs and traditions.
- E. 1. The Permanent Settlement was introduced in Bengal and Bihar by Lord Cornwallis in 1793. It had two features:
The zamindars, rajas, taluqdars and revenue collectors were converted into landlords. The zamindars were not to act as agents of the Government in collecting land revenue from the ryot, they were also to become the owners of the entire land in their zamindaris. Their right of ownership was made hereditary and transferable. On the other hand, the

cultivators were reduced to the status of mere tenants and were deprived of their rights to the soil. The use of pasture, forest lands, irrigation, fishers were some of their rights which were sacrificed.

In fact, the tenants of Bengal and Bihar were left entirely at the mercy of zamindars. This was done so that the zamindars might be able to pay in time the exorbitant land revenue demand of the Company.

The zamindars were to give 10/11th of the rental they derived from the peasantry to the state keeping only 1/11th for themselves.

2. Satyendranath Tagore, was the first Indian to pass the ICS exam. He went to Britain to give the exams and was selected in June 1863. He completed his training and returned to India in November 1864. His first posting was at Bombay presidency.
 3. In 1793, Lord Cornwallis introduced a code of laws known as the Cornwallis Code. This code covered various aspects of governance in writing. These laws included civil and criminal jurisdiction, land revenue and the police system. This code was meant to establish the superiority of written laws over the old-age customs and traditions.
 4. Ryotwari settlement system of land revenue collection was introduced in Bombay and Madras presidencies. The peasants or the ryots were considered the owners of the land and land revenue was collected directly from them. The rate of revenue was fixed at roughly half of the total produce. It was settled for a period of 30 years after which it could be revised.
- F. 1. The effects of the Permanent Settlements was the zamindars were to give 10/11th of the rental they derived from the peasantry to the state keeping only 1/11th for themselves. But the sums to be paid by them as land revenue were fixed permanently. If the rental of zamindar's estate increased owing to extension of cultivation and improvement in agriculture or his capacity to extract more from his tenants, he could keep the entire amount of the increase. The state

would not make any further demand upon him. At the same time, the zamindar had to pay his revenue on the due date even if the crop had failed, otherwise his lands were to be sold off. Numerous zamindaris were thus, sold off.

The initial fixed revenue was made arbitrarily with the zamindars. Therefore, the rates of revenue fixed were very high. Between 1765-66 and 1793 land revenue nearly doubled. John Shore calculated that if the gross produce of Bengal be taken as 100, the government claimed 45, Zamindars received 15 and only 40 remained with the actual cultivator. One result of this high land revenue demands was that nearly half the zamindari lands were put up for sale between 1794 and 1807.

Neither the zamindars nor the cultivators or tenants had an interest in improving the land. There was possibility of income for Zamindars without the trouble and risk of investment in land. The cultivators found the arrangement miserable. The rent he paid to the zamindar was very high and he was left just enough to sustain his family. His land was insecure because if he failed to pay the rent he was evicted from the plot he had cultivated for generations. So, he fell in the cruel clutches of the moneylenders from which he never go out.

2. Three systems of revenue collection introduced by the East India Company were :

The Permanent Settlement (1793): The economy was in ruins and most Company officials felt that investment in land had to be encouraged. It was at this stage that the idea of fixing land revenue in perpetuity emerged. Finally, after prolonged discussion, the Permanent Settlement was introduced in Bengal and Bihar by Lord Cornwallis in 1793.

The Ryotwari Settlement (1820): This system of land revenue collection was introduced in Bombay and Madras presidencies. The peasants or the ryots were considered the owners of the land and land revenue was collected directly from them. The rate of revenue was fixed at roughly half

of the total produce. It was settled for a period of 30 years after which it could be revised.

Though the ryotwari settlement recognized the peasants as the owners of the land, high rate of revenue made them dependent on moneylenders.

The Mahalwari Settlement (1830): This system was introduced in western Uttar Pradesh, parts of Madhya Pradesh and Punjab. Under this system, the land revenue settlement was made for the entire estate or mahal. The talukdar or the head of the village had to collect the revenue from the villages and hand it over to the British. The rate of revenue was roughly half of the total agricultural production, which was subject to a periodic revision.

However, even under this system, the condition of the peasant remained pitiable as the head of the village retained the right of extracting revenue.

3. The British needed an efficient police force to maintain law and order. Lord Cornwallis established a regular police force in India. He divided each district into a number of thanas. A district Superintendent headed the police force in the district. A daroga was in-charge of each thana with armed men under him to maintain peace and order. Towns and villages had kotwals and chowkidars, respectively.

Indians were excluded from all superior posts in the police force too. The police was an effected force and they succeeded in reducing major crimes. However, the police was not popular among the masses as the lower ranked police persons were notorious for corruption, oppression and unsympathetic behaviour.

4. The British Indian Army consisted of two troops the Royal troops and the Company's troops. The Royal troops had only British recruits. Their terms of service were far better than the Company's troops which were a mix of both European and Indian soldiers. The Indian soldiers were called sepoys from the Persian word sipahi meaning soldier. They formed the bulk of the Company's troops. However, the higher posts

with better service conditions, in the Company's troops were held by the European soldiers. The highest position that an Indian could hold in the Company's troops was that of a subedar, a rank lower than that of an officer.

By 1815, there were 2,00,000 soldiers in the army. The soldiers lived in cantonments and wore European type uniforms. The huge army was used to control India in the following ways:

- (a) To conquer more territories.
- (b) To protect British territories from rivals.
- (c) To protect the trading interests of the Company.
- (d) To suppress the internal revolts as and when arose against the British.



4 Colonialism and Tribal Societies

- A.** 1. (d) 2. (b) 3. (c) 4. (c)
- B.** 1. wandering Muslim religious mendicants
2. Bengal
3. Haji Shariatullah
4. Sidu & Kanu
- C.** 1. ✗ 2. ✓ 3. ✓ 4. ✓
- D.** 1. The term tribe can be understood as people belonging to the same race, practising same culture, same religion, using the same language and inhabiting a specific region of a country.
2. The establishment of British authority in the area had led to dislocation in the socio-economic living pattern of the Ho people. A large number of Hindu, Muslim and Sikh traders and moneylenders had come and settled among them. Their lands were being occupied by these outsiders through contracts enforced by courts of law.
3. The leaders of the Santhal rebellion were two brothers, Sidu and Kanu of Bhagnadihi.
4. Birsa Munda was born in Ulihatu in Ranchi, Jharkhand. He gained huge popularity among the masses so much so that

he was almost revered as God. He advocated the rights of the Mundas as real proprietors of the soil and sought to abolish the existence of middlemen.

- E. 1. The European traders wanted the Indian tillers to cultivate indigo (for which there was no remuneration) on some portion of their lands failing which the cultivators had to tolerate adversities like being kidnapped, their women and children being tortured, and their crops being destroyed and burnt.

This led the peasants to launch Non-cultivation of Indigo Movement. The movement originated in Govindpur village in Noida district in 1859-60, and soon spread to other parts of Bengal as well. The peasants went on strikes and also sought legal assistance and filed cases against the planters. Press and missionaries offered whole-hearted support to the rebels. Neel Darpan, a play directed by Dinbandhu Mitra, portrayed the plight of the indigo peasants and won great fame.

2. **Farazi Movement:** The Farazi Movement of Bengal led by Dudu Mian (1819-60) of Faridpur (present Bangladesh) brought together all the cultivators of Bengal against the tyranny and illegal exactions of the landlords. The Farazi sect was founded by Haji Shariatullah of Faridpur in East Bengal. He was the father of Dudu Mian. Dudu Mian championed the first ever no-tax campaign against the British Government, as he believed that all land belonged to God and no man had the right to demand any tax on it. He boycotted courts and administered justice summarily himself.

Dudu Mian was tried several times on various charges such as unlawful assembly, abduction, plunder and even murder. On each occasion he was acquitted as the prosecution found it impossible to get witnesses against him.

Wahabi Movement: The Wahabis, a sect which called upon Muslims to return to pure Islam, carried on a struggle against British rule. Its leader Sayyid Ahmed of Rae Bareilly was determined to restore Muslim power in India. Muslims from all walks of life—priests, merchants, soldiers, preachers,

peasants participated in the movement which soon spread across Bengal, Bihar, Punjab, North-West Frontier Provinces and also in Hyderabad and Madras. The movement was primarily religious in its origin, but soon assumed the character of a class struggle in some places, especially in Bengal where irrespective of communal distinctions peasants united against their landlords. The Wahabi Movement was the strongest during 1829-70.

3. Many tribes inhabited the Chhota Nagpur region around the border of Bengal, Bihar and Orissa. This region witnessed many tribal movements. Similarly, the Northeast was another important hotspot of tribal uprising. Let's have a brief look at some of the revolts that took place in these regions during the British period.

The Munda Rebellion: The Mundas inhabited the region around Ranchi. They traditionally enjoyed a preferential rent rate as the Khunkattidar or the original clearer of the forest. But by 19th century, this system was destroyed with the coming of jagirdars and thikadars. In the last decade of 19th century, as the monsoons failed, the situation became worse. Faced with starvation and epidemics, the Mundas rose up in rebellion against the British. They were led by Birsa Munda.

Kol Rebellion and the Khond Rebellion: The Kols inhabited large portions of the Chhota Nagpur region. They rebelled to resist British entry into their dominion. Soon, they joined the Munda rebellion. It was only in the middle of 19th century that the Kols and the Mundas were finally defeated.

Khasi Revolt: Khasis were a prominent tribe in the hilly region between Jantia and Garo hills in the northeast. They resented the coming of outsiders into their territories including the Europeans and Bengali contractors. They rose in rebellion, led by Tirut Singh, when there was a proposal of construction of a road connecting Brahmaputra valley and the Surma valley that was to pass through their region. The Khasis feared that it might pave the way for foreigners to establish their rule over them. The revolt lasted from 1829 to 1833.

4. The Mundas inhabited the region around Ranchi. They traditionally enjoyed a preferential rent rate as the Khunkattidar or the original clearer of the forest. But by 19th century, this system was destroyed with the coming of jagirdars and thikadars. In the last decade of 19th century, as the monsoons failed, the situation became worse. Faced with starvation and epidemics, the Mundas rose up in rebellion against the British. They were led by Birsa Munda. Birsa Munda was born in Ulihatu in Ranchi, Jharkhand. He gained huge popularity among the masses so much so that he was almost revered as God. He advocated the rights of the Mundas as real proprietors of the soil and sought to abolish the existence of middlemen. However, he was captured by the British in 1900 and died in captivity in Ranchi jail.



5

The Revolt of 1857

- A. 1. (c) 2. (c) 3. (d) 4. (c)
- B. 1. her adopted son 2. Lord Canning 3. 1858
4. Kanpur 5. Mangal Pandey
- C. 1. ✗ 2. ✗ 3. ✓ 4. ✓ 5. ✓
- D. 1. The Governor-general under the Company became known as the viceroy. The Viceroy was answerable to the Crown through the secretary of state.
2. The modern educated Indian didn't support the revolt of 1857 because they believed that the British rule would help Indian modernise.
3. (a) The French Revolution (b) The Revolt of 1857
4. Nana Sahib, Rani Laxmi Bai, Tantia Tope, Begum Hazrat Mahal are some of the leaders of the Revolt of 1857.
5. Nawab Wajid Ali Shah was the ruler who was deposed when the British annexed Awadh.
- E. 1. They promised non interference in India's religious and social customs. This meant that the British would no longer take interest in social and religious reforms. They hoped this would win them the loyalty of the orthodox sections of society.

2. The Revolt of 1857 failed because the Indian military techniques were outdated. The rebel leaders lacked experience and coordination, and they failed to consolidate their gains. Moreover, the rebels got almost no support from the British stronghold of Bengal, Bombay and Madras, where the British took all possible precautions to keep rebellious people in check.
3. The political causes of the Revolt of 1857 were :
 - (a) The annexation of States by the Subsidiary Alliance System and the Doctrine of Lapse created unrest among the rulers of India.
 - (b) The princes of the States were denied their rights of succession. The company did not recognise the adopted son of Rani Lakshmi Bai of Jhansi as the heir to the throne after her husband's death.
 - (c) The Nawab of Carnatic and Tanjore lost their royal titles.
 - (d) The pension to Nana Sahib, the adopted son of Peshwa Baji Rao II, was denied and he was forced to live in Kanpur, far away from his ancestral place at Poona.
 - (e) The Muslim feelings had also been greatly hurt as the names of Mughal kings were removed from the coins minted by the Company.
4. The Revolt of 1857 can be called a way of Independence because the revolt began with the mutiny of the sepoys, but was soon transformed into a popular revolt when people from different sections of the society spontaneously joined in. This is evident from the fact that out of the estimated 1,50,000 people killed in the revolt, 1,00,000 were civilians.
5. Awadh had been annexed by Dalhousie earlier on the grounds of maladministration.

This angered the 75,000 sepoys who came from Awadh and created an atmosphere of rebellion. The British had taken over the landed estates of 21,000 talukdars. The end of the Nawab's rule threw many people out of jobs. The royal family was reduced to poverty and its jewellery auctioned off.

- F. 1. The British pursued the policy of divide and rule to prevent the Indians from uniting. They followed a policy of deliberate discrimination against the Muslim community.

To remove all prospects of revolts, the army was reorganised so as to keep it well under British control. The proportion of European soldiers to Indian soldiers was increased. Strategic military positions and crucial military equipment such as artillery were placed exclusively in the charge of European soldiers and officers. The British began to recruit fewer soldiers from Awadh, Bihar, Madras and other areas where there had been revolts in or before 1857. They now recruited more soldiers from among the Sikhs, Gurkhas, Pathans, Rajputs and Jats, who had remained neutral or had helped the British during the revolt.

2. The sepoys were discontented because new rules like 'crossing of the sea' introduced by the British, hurt the religious sentiments of the sepoys. In those days, crossing the sea meant losing one's religion and caste. When the sepoys were asked to fight for the Company in Burma in 1824, they refused to go by the sea. They preferred going by the land route. In 1856, the Company had to pass a new law making it compulsory for the army persons to go overseas whenever required.

As the Indian sepoys mostly belonged to the villages with agricultural backgrounds, they fully supported the peasants in the Revolt.

3. The economic causes of the Revolt of **1857** were :

(a) Both the peasants and the Zamindars, were dissatisfied with the revenue policy of the British. They were against the high taxes as well as the harsh methods of revenue collection.

(b) In the newly acquired territories, the British had totally ignored the landlords and established direct contact with the peasants.

(c) Unable to pay the high revenues, the peasants either had to lose their lands or fell a prey to the moneylenders.

- (d) Large areas of lands were confiscated and sold by auction to the highest bidders.
- (e) The decline of Indian handicrafts and industries, and the resulting unemployment caused discontent among people.



6

Education and British Rule

- A.** 1. (d) 2. (a) 3. (c) 4. (a) 5. (a)
- B.** 1. grants of kind and revenue 2. Indian
3. universities 4. education
5. Raja Rammohan Roy
- C.** 1. ✓ 2. ✓ 3. ✗ 4. ✓ 5. ✓
- D.** 1. Warren Hastings was a governor general set up a Madarsa in Calcutta.
2. Raja Rammohan Roy was the pioneer of Modern India.
3. Lord Williom Bentincks established the Calcutta Medical College and Elphinston College.
4. Mohammedan Anglo-Oriental College was established in 1875.
5. Henry Derozio was an Indian poet and assistant headmaster of Hindu College, Kolkata.
He started what is known as the Young Bengal Movement and his followers worked for the welfare of the people.
- E.** 1. All aspects of Indian society were touched by the works of reformers. They fought against the social evils of society like casteism, sati system etc. They promoted education among women and better status for them.
2. Raja Rammohan Roy knew that education would stop the degeneration of society and increase the awareness among the people. Some steps taken in this sphere by him were:
(a) Writing of a grammar book in Bengali and encouraging the learning of this language.
(b) Supporting the cause and introduction of western sciences and education.
(c) Starting of an English medium school in Calcutta.

- (d) Setting up of the Hindu College at Calcutta in 1817 with the help of some British nationals.
 - (e) Opening up of a college which offered both Indian and Western learning.
3. The different steps taken for the spread of education were :
- (a) The Arya Samaj started a chain of DAV schools and colleges all over the country. They also started gurukuls.
 - (b) Sir Syed Ahmed Khan set up the Mohammedan Anglo-Oriental School at Aligarh.
 - (c) Raja Rammohan Roy opened a school at his own cost in Bengal and later opened colleges also.
 - (d) Ishwar Chandra Vidysagar also encouraged education and is said to have organized 35 girls' schools and granted scholarships to the poor.
 - (e) Mahatma Gandhi started schools under a new scheme of education called Nai Talim.
 - (f) Rabindranath Tagore started the Vishwa Bharati at Shanti Niketan.
- F. 1. In 1854, the policy was given a new direction by what is known as the Wood's despatch and the author was Charles Wood.
- The Despatch set forth a comprehensive scheme of education in India. It recommended the setting up of a network of educational institutions in the country. It made a provision for education from primary upto the university level. English was made the medium of instruction for Western knowledge and sciences. It was felt that the time had come for the establishment of universities in India. Departments of education were set up in the provinces in 1854. In 1857, universities were set up at Calcutta, Madras and Bombay on the lines of London University.
- However, the drawback was that mass, technical and women's education were neglected. Moreover, the medium of instruction was English and there was emphasis on western science and literature.
2. **Tagore's Santiniketan:** In 1901, Tagore founded an experimental school in rural West Bengal at Santiniketan

(abode of peace) where he sought to blend the best in the Indian and Western tradition. He settled permanently at the school, which became Visva Bharati University in 1921. An experimental school, Tagore based it on the ashrama model with pioneering emphasis on learning in a harmonious and natural setting. He felt that a well rounded education using all the five senses and not relying on memorising by rote was the better way to teach children.

Gandhi and Tagore: Since Gandhi and Tagore were two leading Indian thinkers in the 20th century, many commentators have tried to compare their ideas.

According to Gandhiji “Craft, art, health and education should all be integrated into one scheme. Nai Talim (the basic education programme) is a beautiful blend of all the four and covers the whole education of the individual from the time of conception to the moment of death...”

Vadodara, earlier known as Baroda, is an important city of Gujarat. **Maharaja Sayajirao III** (who was the ruler from 1875 to 1939) is credited with modernizing his state. He was a great visionary and took lot of steps for the upliftment of the poor and spread of education. He wanted to ensure free and compulsory primary education besides patronizing study of fine arts.

In 1906, he became the first Indian ruler to introduce free and compulsory education in his state.

Sir Syed Ahmed Khan felt that Islam should be interpreted and brought in conformity with modern science and philosophy. They encouraged Muslims to receive modern education and enter British services.

Sir Syed realized the importance of studying English language and literature if the Muslims wanted to progress socially and politically. With his initiative, the Mohammedan Anglo-Oriental College was founded in Aligarh in 1875. This was done with a view to combine the western system of education with Islamic values.

3. Sir Syed realized the importance of studying English language and literature if the Muslims wanted to progress socially and politically. With his initiative, the Mohammedan Anglo-Oriental College was founded in Aligarh in 1875. This was done with a view to combine the western system of education with Islamic values. Soon, this college became Aligarh Muslim University. Thus, the movement of reform started by Sir Syed came to be known as Aligarh Movement. The Aligarh Muslim University became a breeding ground of new trends in the political, social and cultural life of the Muslims.



7

Reforms in Indian Society

- A. 1. (c) 2. (d) 3. (a) 4. (c)
- B. 1. Rama Krishna Bhandarkar
2. Chembeti Sridharalu Naidu, 1864
3. women rights 4. lower caste
- C. 1. (b) 2. (c) 3. (a) 4. (d)
- D. 1. ✗ 2. ✓ 3. ✗ 4. ✓
- E. 1. Ishwar Chandra Vidyasagar was the social reformer who launched a crusade for remarriage of widows.
2. The act or custom of Hindu widow was burnt alive on the funeral pyre of her husband.
3. Tasks such as removing dead bodies, tanning leather, making leather goods, cleaning drains and toilets and sweeping roads were performed by the outcasts.
4. B.R. Ambedkar founded several journals to spread his message. In between 1927 and 1932, he led his followers in a series of non-violent campaigns to assert the right of the untouchables to enter temples and draw water from public wells.
- F. 1. Reformers like Raja Rammohan Roy, Ishwar Chandra Vidyasagar and others realized that improvement in the status and condition of Indian women was a necessary precondition for the overall social transformation.

Hence, they advocated :

- Improving the status of women through laws banning will practices such as sati and female infanticide.
 - Making modern education available to women.
 - Allowing women a share in the family property.
2. The Indian society in the first half of the 19th century was caste-ridden, decadent and rigid.

The conquest of India by the British during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, exposed some serious weakness and drawbacks of Indian social institutions.

3. Jyotirao Phule was a social reformer, thinker and social activist. Amongst the “low-caste” leaders Jyotirao Phule was one the most vocal leaders.

In 1873, Jyotirao Govindrao Phule, affectionately called Mahatma Phule or Jyotiba, founded the Satyashodhak Samaj. Its membership was open to people of all religions. The association propagated caste equality and worked for the upliftment of the oppressed classes.

4. The condition of the untouchables in British India was lower castes were considered unclean. They were not allowed to draw water from wells used by people of the high castes. Nor were they allowed to enter temples or study the shastras. The untouchables were thought to have a polluting effect on people and therefore a high caste person would not eat or drink anything touched by an untouchable.

- G. 1. Widow Remarriage:** In the nineteenth century, the condition of widows was pitiable. They were not allowed to remarry. Nor could they attend family and community functions because their presence at such happy occasions was considered inauspicious.

Ishwar Chandra Vidyasagar launched a crusade for the betterment of the widows. He also wanted that widows should be allowed to remarry, if they so wished.

Education for Girls: Today, most girls go to school and receive education. But the situation was very different in

the nineteenth century. Girls, then, were discouraged from attending school. Some people believed that girls who were educated would not find a husband. Others were of the belief that the husband of an educated woman will die young.

Law Against Child Marriage: During that time, children were married off at a very early age. The reformers protested against this and after a lot of struggle, the Child Marriage Restraint Act (also known as Sarda Act) was passed in 1929. The Act fixed the minimum age for marriage of girls at 18 and for boys at 21.

2. Some associations that worked for socio-religious reforms were :

Brahmo Samaj: In 1828, Raja Rammohan Roy founded the Brahmo Sabha (Later called Brahmo Samaj) in Calcutta to work for social and religious reforms. Debendranath Tagore and Keshab Chandra Sen were actively involved in its activities.

Veda Samaj: The Veda Samaj was founded in Madras in 1864. It was based on the ideals of the Brahmo Samaj. Its most important leader was Chembeti Sridharalu Naidu. The association attacked superstitions and the caste system. It also promoted women's education and encouraged the remarriage of widows.

Prarthana Samaj: Mahadev Govind Ranade and Ramakrishna Bhandarkar founded the Prarthana Samaj in Bombay in 1867. The association worked for the abolition of the caste system and untouchability, improving the social status of women, widow remarriage, Hindu-Muslim unity and the spread of modern education.

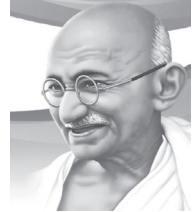
Satyashodhak Samaj: In 1873, Jyotirao Govindrao Phule, affectionately called Mahatma Phule or Jyotiba, founded the Satyashodhak Samaj. Its membership was open to people of all religions. The association propagated caste equality and worked for the upliftment of the oppressed classes.

Arya Samaj: The Arya Samaj was founded by Swami Dayanand Saraswati in 1875. Among other things, the association worked for the remarriage of widows.

Ramakrishna Mission: Swami Vivekananda founded the Ramakrishna Mission in 1897 to work for socio-religious reforms. His guru was Swami Ramakrishna Paramhansa.

Socio-religious reformers raised the voice against various social evils like caste system, Dowry, Sati, Widow Remmariage, Girl Education, Child Marriage etc.

3. **Mahatma Gandhi:** Mahatma Gandhi started a nationwide movement against untouchability. He called people of the so-called lower castes 'Harijans' or children of God. He founded the All India Anti-Untouchability League and started the weekly Harijan.



Mahatma Gandhi

Bhim Rao Ambedkar: B.R. Ambedkar wanted to end untouchability, caste discrimination and the exploitation of the harijans. He founded several journals to spread his message. Between 1927 and 1932, he led his followers in a series of non-violent campaigns to assert the right of the untouchables to enter temples and draw water from public wells.



B. R. Ambedkar

4. In southern India, a popular leader committed to caste reforms was Kandukuri Veeresalingam. He started a Telugu journal to spread the message of social reform and caste equality. Chembeti Sridharalu Naidu also protested against the caste system.

Sri Narayana Guru was another reformer from the south. He had experienced the oppressive caste system and devoted his life to the upliftment of the untouchables.

Reformers such as E.V. Ramaswamy Naicker, K. Kelappan and J.K. Madhavan fought for the right of the untouchables to enter temples. Dr. B.R. Ambedkar was also actively involved in the Temple Entry Movement. E.V. Ramaswamy Naicker, popularly called 'Periyar', started the Self-respect Movement to fight against the domination of the Brahmans. In eastern India, the reformers of the period criticized caste

inequalities. Raja Rammohan Roy realized that the reform of Indian society had to be preceded by a reform of Hinduism itself.

Ishwar Chandra Vidyasagar and Swami Vivekananda also worked for caste reforms. Vivekananda also criticized the practice of untouchability. He said that the Hindu religious texts did not advocate untouchability.

In western India, Gopal Hari Deshmukh, Jyotiba, Ramakrishna Bhandarkar, M. G. Ranade and Ramabai Ranade were the prominent reformers of western India. All of them spoke and wrote against the caste system.

Jyotiba propagated caste equality and worked to uplift the status of the untouchables. He was against the dominance of the Brahman priests. He opened many schools for people considered low in the caste hierarchy.



8

Challenging the Caste System

- A. 1. (c) 2. (a) 3. (b) 4. (c)
- B. 1. Maharashtra, Andhra Pradesh
2. Sri Narayana Dharma Paripalana Yogam
3. Singh Sabhas
4. Social Reform
- C. 1. ✗ 2. ✓ 3. ✗ 4. ✓
- D. 1. (d) 2. (a) 3. (b) 4. (c)
- E. 1. Rajashekhara Charitra
2. Dr. B.R. Ambedkar
3. Gopal Hari Deshmukh
4. Ranade and Ramakrishna Bhandarkar
- F. 1. The Satyashodhak Samaj was established in 1848 in Maharashtra by Jotiba Phule. The organization also worked for the upliftment of the oppressed classes. He condemned the caste system and welcomed everyone into the Samaj without any distinction of caste and religion. He even started the practice of performing marriage ceremonies without Brahmin priests. All his ideas were compiled in his work titled Satyashodh which was published in 1887.

2. Kandukuri Veerasalingam fought vigorously against social evils and heralded a social revolution in Andhra Pradesh.

He encouraged inter-caste marriages and fought against the caste system. He was an avid reader and a great writer and through his plays and essays in Telegu, vigorously degraded the caste system. He was the author of Rajashekhara Charitra, the first Telegu novel.

Veerasalingam was a great supporter of the oppressed and the downtrodden. The first Brahma Mandir was constructed by him in Andhra Pradesh in 1887 and the Hithakarini School in 1908. He also started a home for widows. He started a magazine in Telegu called Vivekavardhini.

3. Mahatma Gandhi made social reform a part of the programme of the nationalist movement. His greatest achievement in the field of social reform was the campaign against the inhuman institution of untouchability, which had degraded millions of Indians. It was Gandhiji who coined the term Harijan and started a magazine Harijan in 1933. Gandhiji assigned utmost importance to the removal of untouchability. He declared that this was no less important than the political struggle for freedom. Untouchability, according to him, had no sanction in the Hindu scriptures.
4. The removal of caste inequalities in society become an important issue because:
- It promotes untouchability.
 - It encourage discrimination at the workplace.
 - It is an obstalle to the social progress.
 - Since democracy promotes inequality caste system in a democracy is a stigma.

Hence, strict actions should be taken to remove the caste inequality from society.



9

Rise of Indian Nationalism

- A. 1. (b) 2. (d) 3. (c) 4. (a) 5. (d)

- B.** 1. British 2. modern industries 3. nationalistic
 4. national consciousness 5. Swadeshi, Boycott
- C.** 1. (c) 2. (d) 3. (b) 4. (a)
- D.** 1. ✓ 2. ✓ 3. ✓ 4. ✗ 5. ✗

E. 1. A.O. Hume initiated the formation of the Indian National Congress.

2. During the first 20 years of the Congress, the moderate nationalists or moderates dominated the party. Surendranath Banerjee, Dinshaw Wacha, Pherozeshah Mehta and Gopal Krishna Gokhale were some important moderate leaders. They were 'moderate' in their objectives and methods.

3. Some important features of the anti-partition movement in Bengal are :

The Indian National Congress and the nationalists of Bengal firmly opposed the partition. Within Bengal, different sections of the population— zamindars, merchants, lawyers, students, the poor, and even women rose up in spontaneous opposition to the partition of their province.

The official step had been taken in utter disregard of public opinion. Thus, the vehemence of Bengal's protest against the partition is explained by the fact that it was a blow to the sentiments of a very sensitive and courageous people. Therefore, the conditions for the emergence of militant nationalism had developed and the Indian National Movement entered its second stage.

4. The system of separate electorates was introduced. The Muslims were grouped into separate constituencies from where only Muslims candidates could contest elections. This was done to pacify the leaders of the Muslim League, which had been formed a few years earlier.

5. Three demands of the Moderates were :

(a) freedom of speech and expression.

(b) expansion of welfare programmes.

(c) promotion of education.

- F. 1. The three factors that contributed to the rise of nationalism in India were :

Discontent against British Rule

You have read how the British exploited India. All sections of society suffered under British rule. The peasant had to pay high taxes. The artisan was ruined by foreign competition. The factory worker received very low wages.

The attitude of superiority adopted by the British was also disliked. The British considered themselves a superior race and the Indians as belonging to an inferior one. In trains, some compartments were reserved for the white people and Indians were not allowed to travel in them. All these factors resulted in growing opposition to British rule.

Political, Administrative and Economic Unification of the Country

India was unified under British rule as one unit. The British introduced a uniform system of governance throughout the country. Laws, at least in theory, were uniformly applied to all. People from all parts of the country worked in these industries. By working and travelling together, caste, community and regional feelings began to weaken. A feeling of solidarity and togetherness developed. The railways, telegraph and postal system helped people to come in contact with one another. People realized that British rule was responsible for their suffering. This anti-British feeling was a major factor that contributed to the rise of nationalism.

Spread of Modern Education

The spread of modern education also helped in the rise of nationalistic feelings to western ideas made people more conscious of their rights. They were impressed by the ideas of freedom and equality, popularized by the American and French Revolutions. They began to criticize the government for suppressing these ideas in India and denying basic human rights to Indians.

The English language acted as a unifying factor because

people from different parts of India, speaking different languages, could now communicate with one another through a common medium. Educated Indians acquired a democratic and nationalistic outlook.

2. India was unified under British rule as one unit. The British introduced a uniform system of governance throughout the country. Laws, at least in theory, were uniformly applied to all. Economic life in India became interlinked after the introduction of modern industries. People from all parts of the country worked in these industries. By working and travelling together, caste, community and regional feelings began to weaken. A feeling of solidarity and togetherness developed. The railways, telegraph and postal system helped people to come in contact with one another. People realized that British rule was responsible for their suffering. This anti-British feeling was a major factor that contributed to the rise of nationalism.
3. In 1883, Lord Ripon's law member, Sir Ilbert, introduced a bill which later came to be known as the Ilbert Bill. It had a provision which gave Indian judges the power to try cases involving Europeans. Immediately, the whole European community started an agitation opposing the bill. These protests forced the government to withdraw the bill. To the Indians it was a proof that they could never expect equality from the British government.
4. The revolutionaries took to assassinating British officials. The Chapekar brothers assassinated two unpopular British officials in Maharashtra. In 1908, in Muzaffarpur (Bihar), Khudiram Bose and Prafulla Chaki threw a bomb at Kingsford, the district judge. In 1912, an attempt was made on the life of Viceroy Lord Hardinge.

Some revolutionaries were also active abroad, especially in Europe and America. The Ghadar Party was a revolutionary association. It published journals (one of them was Ghadar) to spread revolutionary ideas. It also sent revolutionaries to organize uprisings in India. Some revolutionary leaders who

worked from outside India were Lala Hardyal, Rashbehari Bose, Shyamaji Krishna varma, Madam Bhikaji Cama, Muhammad Barkatullah, Sohan Singh Bhakna, V. D. Savarkar and Obeidulla Sindhi.

The British used all means to suppress the revolutionaries. Khudiram Bose was hanged.

Aurobindo Ghosh and Barindra Kumar Ghosh were put in jail. Some revolutionaries were sentenced to life imprisonment.

5. (a) The Indian press played an extremely important role in strengthening national consciousness.

The newspapers of the period highlighted the anti-Indian policies of the British government and asked the people to unite and work for a common cause. Both the English and the vernacular press became a medium to mobilize public opinion and create a feeling of national bonding. The government tried to suppress the growing feeling of nationalism and patriotism by banning newspapers and books. These attempts, however, failed.

The works of scholars and writers like Bankim Chandra Chatterjee, Rabindranath Tagore, Subramania Bharati, Bhartendu Harishchandra and others were also important in arousing national consciousness. Their nationalist literature in the form of fiction, essays and patriotic poetry developed self-confidence in the masses.

- (b) The partition of Bengal gave rise to two new methods of struggles—Swadeshi and Boycott. Swadeshi literally means ‘of one’s own country’. It was aimed at popularizing goods manufactured in India so that Indian industries could prosper. The method of boycott focussed on asking people to boycott goods manufactured in Britain. This way, the British would stop treating India as a dumping ground for British goods.

Starting from Bengal, the movements spread across the country. People boycotted British goods and began to use Indian-made goods. At some places, huge bonfires of foreign clothes were organized. People who wore

clothes made from cloth manufactured in Britain were criticized. Some washermen even refused to offer their services to such people. Students and women played a very important role in these movements. They picketed shops selling foreign goods.



10

The Nationalist Movement

- A.** 1. (a) 2. (d) 3. (a) 4. (d) 5. (a)
- B.** 1. Non-cooperation 2. Dominion of India
3. Independence Day 4. Sabarmati Ashram, 1930
- C.** 1. ✓ 2. ✗ 3. ✓ 4. ✓
- D.** 1. After the first World War, Britain imposed humiliating terms on the ruler of Turkey, who was also the caliph of Islam. This angered the Indian Muslims. They started the Khilafat Movement in 1919.
2. Khan Abdul Gaffar Khan called Frontier Gandhi because in the North-West Frontier Province, Khan Abdul Gaffar Khan and his group of volunteers called Khudai Khidmatgar (servants of God) stopped paying taxes. Khan's commitment to non-violence earned him the title Frontier Gandhi.
3. Satyagraha a compound of the words satya (truth) and agraha (holding fast). It was based on the principle of non-violent, non-cooperation and passive resistance. Gandhiji's philosophy was to resist evil without hating the evildoer. Satyagraha was just a new name for "the law of self-suffering."
4. In Amritsar, the arrest of two prominent leaders, Dr. Saifuddin Kitchlew and Dr. Satya Pal, led to strong protests. Unaware of a ban on public meetings, the people of Amritsar held a meeting at the Jallianwala Bagh on 13 April, 1919. General Dyer, the military commander of Amritsar, blocked the park's narrow exit and ordered indiscriminate shooting. Hundreds of people were killed. This stunned the nation.
- E.** 1. Gandhiji wanted immediate British withdrawal from India. On 8 August, 1942, the Quit India Resolution was adopted at the Congress session in Bombay. Gandhiji gave the people

the motto of Do or die”, that is, either free India or die in the attempt.

On 9 August, the members of the Congress Working Committee were arrested and the Congress was banned. The Quit India Movement began the next day.

People destroyed symbols of British authority such as rail tracks, post offices and police stations. They set up parallel governments in various parts of India, as in Bengal, Maharashtra, Uttar Pradesh, Andhra Pradesh, Orissa and Tamil Nadu. Seven young students were shot dead in Patna while trying to hoist the national flag at the secretariat.

The Congress worked by sending messages through secret radio transmissions. Ram Manohar Lohia, Aruna Asaf Ali, Sucheta Kripalani and Jaiprakash Narayan were among the leaders who led the movement at this time. Although the movement was brought under control by September 1942, it shook the foundations of the British rule in India.

2. The British departure from India after World War II because by the end of World War II, Britain had become economically too weak to sustain its empire in India. In the post-war elections to the legislatures, the Congress won all the general seats and the Muslim League won the seats reserved for Muslims. Due to widespread unrest in India, the British prime minister Clement Attlee decided to transfer power to the Indians as soon as possible.

Cabinet Mission

In March 1946, the Cabinet Mission was sent to India to start the process of transferring power. It proposed the formation of a 389-member constituent assembly to draft the constitution of India and an interim government at the centre to carry on day-to-day administration until the new constitution was implemented.

3. The Non-cooperation Movement aimed to disrupt normal life and bring the British administration to a standstill.
 - (a) It was to proceed in stages beginning with the renunciation of titles Indians had received from the British. Gandhiji

returned his Kaiser-I-Hind medal while Tagore and Subramania Iyer had already returned their titles.

- (b) Students were asked to boycott educational institutes run by the British. Indigenous institutions such as Jamia Millia Islamia and Kashi Vidyapeeth were set up.
 - (c) People were asked to boycott foreign goods. Huge bonfires were lit to burn foreign goods.
 - (d) People refused to cast their votes when elections were held to elect representatives to the legislature. Lawyers boycotted courts. Strikes and hartals took place all over the country.
 - (e) A campaign for non-payment of taxes was to start at the last stage of the movement. Bardoli in Gujarat was chosen as the first state where taxes would not be paid.
4. The Muslim League, formed in 1906, was the most prominent communal party. In 1939, when the Congress leaders resigned from the provincial legislatures, the Muslim League celebrated the day as 'day of deliverance' from Hindu domination. In 1940, at the Lahore session of the Muslim League, Pakistan resolution was passed which adopted Muhammad Ali Jinnah's two-nation theory. The Congress rejected the resolution. Jinnah demanded separate state for the Muslims called Pakistan as he believed Hindus and Muslims belonged to two separate nations. Aiming to weaken the national movement, the British supported this demand.

Geography



1

Resources

-
- A. 1. (b) 2. (b) 3. (c) 4. (b) 5. (d)
- B. 1. Actual 2. West Asia 3. energy
4. resource 5. potential
- C. 1. ✗ 2. ✓ 3. ✓ 4. ✓ 5. ✓
- D. 1. Human resources are the most important resources of a nation. In order to utilize various natural resources,

the human resources need to be developed. It is not the number of human resources, but their skills that are of prime importance.

For example, the vast resources of Africa remained undeveloped for centuries because the natives were ignorant of the usefulness of those resources.

- 2. Actual Resources:** Resources whose quantity is known and which are being used by man are called actual resources.

The rich deposits of petroleum in the West Asia, the dark soils of the Deccan plateau in Maharashtra are some other examples of actual resources.

Potential resources: Resources whose actual quantity is not known and which are being not used by us at present. For example, the uranium reserve in Ladakh is a potential resource which can be used in future.

- 3. Ubiquitous resources:** Resources which are more or less evenly distributed around the world are called ubiquitous resources. For example, air and water are ubiquitous resources.

Localised resources: Resources which are found in selected geographical areas are called localised resources. Distribution of many resources depends on many geographical factors, like climate, topography, etc.

- 4. Renewable resources:** Resources which quickly get replenished by nature are called renewable resources. For example, the air we breathe is replenished easily by nature, hence it is a renewable resource.

Non-renewable resources: Resources which take thousands of years to get replenished are called non-renewable resources. Since, it takes more than the life span of humans to replenish these resources, so they are called non-renewable resources. For example, petroleum and coal can take thousands years to form and hence they are non-renewable resources.

- 5. Conservation** means utilizing the resources at a slow rate of consumption so that they last longer to serve humanity. You have seen that most of the resources are non-renewable

and will get exhausted quickly if they are being used at a fast rate.

There are, however, some resources which cannot be conserved but have to be protected. Conservation means keeping the resources safe and protecting them against destruction.

- E. 1. On the basis of their exhaustibility are termed as renewable and non-renewable resources.

Renewable resources: Resources which quickly get replenished by nature are called renewable resources. For example, the air we breathe is replenished easily by nature, hence it is a renewable resource.

Non-renewable resources: Resources which take thousands of years to get replenished are called non-renewable resources. Since, it takes more than the life span of humans to replenish these resources, so they are called non-renewable resources. For example, petroleum and coal can take thousands years to form and hence they are non-renewable resources.

2. While using these resources we should make a balance between our needs and the need to conserve these resources. This is important to leave the planet, Earth which is rich in resources for our future generations. Thus, utilizing resources in addition to meeting the needs of the present and also taking care of the future generation is called Sustainable Development.

3. Three R's stand for Reduce, Reuse and Recycle.

Reduce: We should reduce our consumption of certain items whenever possible. For example, if your school is near the place where you live, then you can walk down to school or use your bicycle for going to school. It is better than going by a car or a bus. This would help in saving fossil fuel. We should try to avoid wastage of electricity.

Reuse: Many old items can be reused by making them into useful items. For example, old cloth can be used for making rugs and doormats. We can make shopping bags and baskets from used items, like jute and old newspaper.

Recycle: Paper, glass, iron and tin can be recycled many times. Old newspapers and other items should be given to the kabadiwala. They, in turn, sell them to the recycling industry. After recycling, many useful items are made from these discarded items.

4. Natural resources have the great values. Their values can be categorised as economic value, legal value, aesthetic and ethical value.

Economic Value: Products made up of the natural resources bring high economic value.

Legal Value: The acts that are started to control air and water pollution give legal value to these resources.

Aesthetic Value: Scenic beauty of natural features and resources provide aesthetic value to natural resources.

Ethical Value: The responsibility to protect national parks and sanctuaries refers to the ethical value of the resource.

5. Based on their origin resources can be classified as under:

Biotic resources: Resources which come from living sources are called biotic resources. For example, plants and animals are biotic resources.

Abiotic resources: Resources which come from non-living sources are abiotic resources. For example, rocks, soil, air and water are abiotic resources.



2

Abiotic Resources : Land, Soil and Water

- A. 1. (c) 2. (b) 3. (a) 4. (c) 5. (b)
- B. 1. regur 2. Iron Oxides
3. Rainwater harvesting 4. Cotton
5. Stoneshope
- C. 1. ✗ 2. ✗ 3. ✓ 4. ✓ 5. ✓
- D. 1. Land fit for ploughing or tilling is called arable land. More than 50 per cent of India's land is arable.
2. Climate influences soil formation mainly through the action of temperature, moisture and wind. Moisture and higher

temperatures accelerate the chemical reactions involved in soil formation. Thus, thick and well-developed soils are mostly found in the warm, wet low latitudes.

3. Mountain soils are thin, but can be cultivated with the use of fertilisers. Peat soils is rich in humus. Mountain soils are particularly suited for fruit orchards.
 4. It is due to the fact that wind blows easterly. Therefore the eastern margins receives more precipitation and moisture. The western margins are dry and thus desert concentrated in these regions.
 5. The major causes of water scarcity are, natural calamities such as droughts and floods, Increased human consumption, overuse and wastage of water. A global rise in freshwater demand.
- E. 1. Three methods of soil conservation are:
- Afforestation:** Under this method, rows of trees are planted at short distances in the farms to provide shelter belt to it. It is mainly used in coastal and dry regions.
- Mulching:** In this method, organic matter such as straw, grass, etc. are used to cover the bare ground between rows of plants. It helps soil to retain moisture.
- To Control Overgrazing:** Overgrazing must be checked properly. Fodder should be raised as a crop. Because the free movement of animals loosen soil particles.
2. Water is the most common substance on Earth. It covers more than 70% of the Earth's surface. Without water there can be no life. Every living thing need water to live. In fact, every living thing consists mostly of water. Your body is about two-thirds water. A chicken is about three-fourths water, and a pineapple is about four-fifths water. Water is both master and slave to people. We use water in our homes for cleaning, cooking, bathing and carrying away wastes. We use water to irrigate dry farmlands so that we can grow more food.

The Earth has a tremendous amount of water, but all of it is in oceans. Oceans contain about 97% of all the water on

the Earth. Ocean water is too salty to be used for drinking, agriculture, or industry. But the salt is left behind during evaporation, and the precipitation that falls to the Earth is fresh water. Only about 3% of the water on Earth is fresh water, and most of it is not available to people. It includes water locked in glaciers and ice-caps, i.e., more than 2% of the Earth's water. About half of 1% of the Earth's water is beneath the earth's surface. Rivers and lakes contain only about one-fifth of 1% of the Earth's water.

Water resources can be used for agricultural, industrial, domestic, recreational and environmental activities. Majority of the users need fresh water.

3. Black cotton soils are found mainly in the north-western part of the Deccan plateau. Locally called regur, these soils are derived from volcanic rocks, particularly Basalt. They are clayey in character, and can retain moisture for a long time. They are rich in iron and magnesium compounds. These soils are so good for cotton cultivation.



3

Biotic Resources : Natural Vegetation and Wildlife

- A. 1. (c) 2. (a) 3. (b) 4. (d)
- B. 1. natural vegetation 2. equatorial
3. temperature, moisture 4. Rhea 5. Australia
- C. 1. ✓ 2. ✗ 3. ✓ 4. ✓ 5. ✓
- D. 1. Coniferous forests are found in the belt of Taiga Region. Coniferous trees are evergreen, tall and have straight trunks with needle-shaped leaves. However, some deciduous trees like larch are also found here. There is no undergrowth. Only one or two tree species are found in pure stands.
2. **Tropical grasslands:** The tropical grasslands are found between the equatorial forests and the tropical deserts. These areas receive moderate rainfall during the summer season. These areas also experience a distinct dry season. Thus, tall grasses grow in such areas. These grasslands are called the Savanna.

Temperate grasslands: The temperate grasslands are found between 30° to 55° latitudes in both the hemispheres. These treeless grasslands are situated in the interior of the continents. These grasslands are found in the transitional zone between the humid coastal areas and the mid-latitude deserts. The height of the grasses depends upon the amount and distribution of rainfall. The temperate grasslands are known as Prairies in North America, Pampas in South America, Steppes in Eurasia, Velds in South Africa and Downs in Australia. These grasslands are suitable for cattle rearing and large-scale cultivation of wheat and maize.

3. The clearance and destruction of natural vegetation, especially forests, have led to:
 - Barren hill slopes.
 - Increased surface run off.
 - Soil erosion on a large scale.
 - Less underground seepage of water.
 - Decrease in rainfall.
 - Destruction of habitat of wild animals.
4. The following steps should be taken by our government to conserve wildlife:
 - Animals and plants have a strong relationship with their habitat. Forests constitute the best natural habitat for wildlife. So the natural habitats should be conserved.
 - Illegal hunting and trapping of animals should be prohibited.
 - The government should enact laws forbidding the hunting of rare or endangered animals, like lion, tiger, peacock, cheetah, bustard, black buck, snow leopard and python. The people disobeying the law should be properly punished.
 - A number of national parks and sanctuaries should be established to conserve rare species. The government should provide funds for this purpose.

- E. 1. The plants which grow naturally are known as natural vegetation. The original natural vegetation of the Earth has been modified by human beings. Nowadays, all types of plants whether natural or modified, are included in natural vegetation.

Wildlife refers to a variety of life forms, fish, reptiles and other animals that live together in the natural surroundings. There is a close relationship between animal life and vegetation in a region.

All organisms, whether they belong to the plant or animal kingdom, interact with each other. They are also interdependent on each other for their survival. The interaction between the organisms and their physical environment in a particular area is referred to as an ecosystem.

The taiga forest belt extends between 50° N and 70° N latitudes. The main trees found in the taiga region are douglas-fir, sitka, spruce, larch and redwood.

The removal of forest cover is called deforestation. Apart from destruction by man, other factors namely fire, insects, diseases and storms are also responsible for the destruction of natural vegetation.

2. The growth of vegetation is mainly controlled by temperature and moisture. The availability of these essential requirements varies from place to place. Thus, we see a large variety of plants on the earth. We can broadly classify the natural vegetation into forests, grasslands and shrubs.

Forests: They grow in hot and humid climate. Forests are not found in regions that are too hot or too cold.

Grasslands: The location and extent of the grasslands depend on the total amount of rainfall and its seasonal distribution. As the amount of rainfall decreases, the forest cover becomes less dense and grasses grow between the scattered trees.

Shrubs: Shrubs grow in areas of very high and low temperature and scanty rainfall. Thus, they are found either in hot deserts or in very cold regions, like the tundra.

3. Africa: Africa is rich in wildlife, Elephants, hippos, rhinos, pythons, crocodiles, gorillas, apes and chimpanzees live in the equatorial forests.

South America: South America has a rich diversity of wildlife. Rhea is a flightless bird like ostrich, while condor, is the largest bird of prey in the world.

Australia: Australia has many unique animals. Half of them are marsupials. Kangaroos and koalas are found only in this continent.

Europe: Europe has limited wildlife as most of the forests have been cleared. The main animal species found in this continent are polar bears, wolves, wild boars, wild sheep and native anatelopes.

North America: The northern part of North America experiences very cold climate. Thus, the animals have thick fur to keep them warm. The main animal species found here are the reindeer, arctic foxes, musk oxen, sables, polar bears and blue foxes. In other parts of the continent one can find mooses, elks, bisons, badgers, beavers and hedgehogs.

Asia: Asia has extremely varied wildlife. Monkeys, sloths, leopards, tigers, elephants and lions are found in the tropical areas.

Antarctica: In Antarctica there is plenty of life where land and water meet. The water body which surrounds the continent has creatures which range from small krills to whales. Penguins are native to this continent and they have become the symbol of Antarctica.

4. Some of the initiatives taken are as follows:

- Protecting the forest reserves.
- Increasing the area under forest cover.
- Discouraging the practice of shifting cultivation.
- Protecting forests from forest fires.
- Planting adequate trees to make provisions for future needs.
- Encouraging social forestry.



4

Agriculture

- A. 1. (a) 2. (b) 3. (d) 4. (c) 5. (b)
- B. 1. man with all his needs 2. tribal people
3. Truck 4. fruits, flowers
5. Netherlands
- C. 1. ✗ 2. ✓ 3. ✗ 4. ✗ 5. ✓
- D. 1. This is a commercial type of farming where most of the agro products are market-oriented. Even the large quantities of food grains grown are meant for sale.
Here the size of the farm is quite big, often more than a thousand hectares. On such big farms most of the work is done with machinery. These are, thus, highly mechanized farms. This type of farming is done on sparsely or moderately populated parts of the world.
2. This is basically a commercial type of farming and a monoculture plantation farming is that practice of agriculture which is a specialisation of a single crop over large estates or farms, where most of the work is done on scientific basis and where the product is processed before it becomes market-oriented.
Most of the plantations have been developed in tropical regions under hot and humid climatic conditions.
Cocoa, coffee, tea, rubber and sugarcane are the main crops produced in plantations.
3. Shifting Farming is known by different names in different countries, i.e. Jhuming in North-East India, Ladang in Indonesia, Milpa in Central America, Caingin in Philippines, Ray in Vietnam, Roca in Brazil, etc.
4. This type of farming is done on a Permanent basis on a particular piece of land. The farmers settle permanently and do not move from place to place. They keep on cultivating on the same landholding year after year. The land is cultivated intensively so as to grow two or three crops a year.
Rice is the main crop but a great variety of other crops

depending on climate are also produced. Wheat, barley, maize, cotton, millets, sugarcane, oilseeds, etc., are the other crops.

5. This type of farming is practiced by tribal people. They stay at one place for sometime, burn the wood, cultivate and when within three or four years the soil is eroded or over run by weeds, they leave that area and migrate to some other place. They are thus, Nomads. The land belongs to the government. The nomads can neither purchase nor sell the land. This type of farming leads to soil erosion and destruction of forests, that is why shifting farming is being discouraged nowadays.
6. The growing of fruits and flowers is horticulture. They are in great demand in towns and cities. Bananas, mangoes, apples, peaches, walnut, jigs, cherries, oranges, lemons and grapes are the main fruits. Fruit farming is a specialised type of farming. The development of fruit farming largely depends upon the efficient system of transport. The Netherlands is world famous for its cultivation of its national flower—the tulip. All the Mediterranean countries specialize in fruit farming.
7. State farming is practised on state farms. It is typical of Russia. State farms in Russia are owned and operated by the State Government and their farm workers are paid employees. State farms are very large in size and they are developed on new virgin lands. State farms are basically research farms. They have a role in leading and improving agriculture in Russia. The use of agricultural machinery, scientific methods of farming and diversification of crops have improved production of agricultural crops.
8. The degree of agricultural development of a particular area is limited by certain physical factors such as climate, topography, soil, temperature and rainfall. Socio-economic factors such as available technology, like mechanization, economic condition of the farmer, storage facilities, irrigation facilities, marketing opportunities, government policies, etc. also affect agriculture.

The farming activities are very complex and as such it is very difficult to classify the agricultural types of the world.

- E. 1. This type of farming is being practised in the mid-latitude grasslands. These regions have low amount of rainfall and the growing season is not long. The soil is rich due to the presence of humus. The main areas where extensive agriculture is done are the Steppe lands of Russia, Prairies of Canada and US, Pampas of Argentina and Downs of Australia. Although cattle farming is also practised here yet the area under crops is expanding and as a result the grasslands are shrinking giving way to agricultural farmlands. These parts are the granaries of the world. Wheat is the most important crop of these areas. Other crops are corn, barley, rye, oats and cotton. Because of less labour and more mechanization per person yields are quite high.

2. The major agriculture types are:

Shifting cultivation, Sedentary intensive agriculture, Extensive agriculture, Plantation farming, Mixed farming, Dairy farming, Truck farming and Horticulture, Cooperative farming, Collective farming and State farming.

Mixed Farming: It is that practice of farming in which crops are grown on the farms and cattle are also reared side by side. This practice of farming is quite popular where the size of farm is moderate, cereal crops like wheat, maize and barley are grown but along with that root crops like potatoes and turnips are also grown. Beans, sugar beets, tobacco are other crops. Fodder crops like alfalfa and lucerne are also grown. Remnant part of the crops are also the fodder for the cattle. The animal dung is used for fertilizing the soil. Cattle for beef, sheep for mutton and poultry are reared by the farmers. The farmer supplements his income from the sale of a variety of farm products. Mixed farming provides greater security than cultivation of simple crop over a large area.

3. (a) **Intensive Agriculture:** This type of farming is practised in densely populated parts of the world mainly in South-

East Asian countries like India, China, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, Bangladesh, North Korea, South Korea, Japan, etc. Rice is the main crop but a great variety of other crops depending on climate are also produced. Wheat, barley, maize, cotton, millets, sugarcane, oilseeds, etc., are the other crops.

Now modern methods are also being introduced. Machinery like tractors, seeddrills, harvesters and threshers are also being used. High yielding variety of crops are being grown which give much higher yields per hectare.

Extensive Agriculture: This is a commercial type of farming where most of the agro products are market-oriented. Even the large quantities of food grains grown are meant for sale.

Here the size of the farm is quite big, often more than a thousand hectares. On such big farms most of the work is done with machinery. These are, thus, highly mechanized farms. This type of farming is done on sparsely or moderately populated parts of the world.

- (b) **Shifting Cultivation:** It is a simple subsistence primitive method of farming. This type of farming is practiced by cutting a patch of forests or by burning bushes, etc. The patch of land is cleared and then cultivated. It is also known as 'Slash and Burn' agriculture. Mostly root crops are grown like tapioca, cassava, manioc, yams or maize, millets and rice. Not much attention is paid to cultivation. When the crops are ready the people join together, harvest and store for consumption.

Sedentary Intensive Agriculture: This type of farming is done on a Permanent basis on a particular piece of land. The farmers settle permanently and do not move from place to place. They keep on cultivating on the same landholding year after year. The size of the farm is usually small. The use of animals and manual labour is maximum. The land is cultivated intensively so as to grow

two or three crops a year. The use of machinery is less. Cowdung and green manure is largely used to maintain soil fertility. Hired labour is often less and members of the family of a farmer themselves work on the fields.

- 4. Collective Farming:** Collective farming is widely practised in Soviet Russia and some East European countries. After the Russian revolution, the communist Government made radical changes in agricultural practices. A collective farming is a voluntary productive cooperative union based on social ownership of the means of production and on collective labour which excludes exploitation of man by man. The farm is managed by a committee headed by a farm manager.

State Farming: State farming is practised on state farms. It is typical of Russia. State farms in Russia are owned and operated by the State Government and their farm workers are paid employees. State farms are very large in size and they are developed on new virgin lands. State farms are basically research farms. They have a role in leading and improving agriculture in Russia. The use of agricultural machinery, scientific methods of farming and diversification of crops have improved production of agricultural crops.



5

Major Industries

- A. 1. (c) 2. (b) 3. (b) 4. (b) 5. (c)
- B. 1. TISCO 2. Fossil fuel 3. Iron and Steel
- C. 1. ✗ 2. ✗ 3. ✗ 4. ✓
5. ✗ 6. ✓
- D. 1. (c) 2. (d) 3. (e) 4. (a) 5. (b)
- E. 1. Silicon valley is close to some of most advanced scientific and technological centres in the world. Bangalore has the largest number of educational institutions and IT colleges in India. Pleasant climate with an attractive and a clean environment. Plenty of space for development and future expansion.
2. TISCO was the only iron and steel company in India, before

1947. TISCO began its operations in 1907 in Sakchi which is on the confluence of rivers Subarnarekha and Kharkai in Jharkhand. Geographically, Jamshedpur is an ideal place for an iron and steel factory. There are many reasons for this. Sakchi was only 32 km from Kalimati railway station on Bengal-Nagpur railway line. Deposits of iron ore, coal and manganese were close to Sakchi. Sakchi was close to the major market of Kolkata.

3. An economic activity in which some goods are manufactured, or some minerals are being extracted or some service is being provided is called an industry. For example, in iron and steel industry, iron and steel are manufactured. In coal industry, coal is extracted. In tourism industry, a tourism service is provided.
 4. Iron and steel industry is also called the backbone of modern industry because Iron and steel industry is a feeder industry. Iron is a raw material for many other industries. Many things, from a safety pin to a car are made from steel most of the things are either made from steel or made by tools which are made of steel. From simple household tools to large machines, every machine is made from steel. Pipelines used for supplying gas, are made from steel. The main frame of a building is made of steel.
 5. Availability of raw materials, power, labour, land, capital, transport, market, communication, water, etc., are important factors for location of industries. A place where all of these or some of these are present is ideal for development of an industry. In some states, the government provides facilities, like subsidised power, better communication, infrastructure, low cost transport and tax breaks to attract industries. Industrialisation leads to overall development of an area.
- F. 1. The differences between public sector and private sector are:
- Public Sector Industries:** These industries are owned by the government, or its agencies, such as Bhilai Steel Plant and Indian Railways.

Private Sector Industries: These industries are owned by individuals or group of individuals. For example, the Birla Jute Mills.

2. Geographically, Jamshedpur is an ideal place for an iron and steel factory. There are many reasons for this. Sakchi was only **32** km from Kalimati railway station on Bengal-Nagpur railway line. Deposits of iron ore, coal and manganese were close to Sakchi. Sakchi was close to the major market of Kolkata. Coal comes from coal mines of Jharia; and iron ore, limestone, dolomite and manganese come from Odisha and Chhattisgarh. The Kharkai and Subarnarekha rivers ensured sufficient water supply. After the TISCO plant started in Jamshedpur, the government also took many steps for development of the area. After TISCO was set up in Jamshedpur, several other industrial plants came up. Chemicals, locomotive parts, agricultural equipment, machinery, tinplate, cable and wire are produced in these factories.

There are many small and ancillary plants apart from big steel plants in India. There are secondary producers, rolling mills as well. The steel industry gave a new boost to the Indian economy, because steel provides the backbone for most of the industries.

3. On the basis of ownership, industries are classified as:
 - (a) **Public Sector Industries:** These industries are owned by the government, or its agencies, such as Bhilai Steel Plant and Indian Railways.
 - (b) **Private Sector Industries:** These industries are owned by individuals or group of individuals. For example, the Birla Jute Mills.
 - (c) **Joint Sector Industries:** These industries are owned by the state and individuals or group of individuals.
 - (d) **Cooperative Sector Industries:** These industries are owned by the producers of raw materials and workers.
4. Pittsburg is an important steel city of the USA. There are several location related advantages with this city. While coal

is available locally, the iron ore comes from the iron mines at Minnesota. Minnesota is about 1500 km from Pittsburgh. The famous Great Lakes waterway, which is one of the best shipping routes in the world, provides a perfect channel between these two cities. Railway route is also present between these two cities.

In present days, Pittsburgh has very few large steel mills and most of them are in the valleys of the Monogahela and Allegheny rivers above Pittsburgh and along the Ohio River below it. Both land and water route are used for transporting finished steel. There are many other factories in Pittsburgh and these factories use steel as their raw materials. They make many different products such as railroad equipment, heavy machinery and rails.

5. The differences between agro-based and mineral-based industries are:

Agro-based Industries: Those industries which derive their raw materials from agriculture are called agro-based industries. Textile industry, sugar industry, vegetable oil industry and paper industry are all examples of agro-based industries.

Mineral-based Industries: Those industries which are based on minerals are called mineral-based industries. Iron and steel industry, cement industry and chemical industry are examples of mineral-based industries.



6

Human Resources

- A. 1. (c) 2. (a) 3. (a) 4. (d) 5. (c)
- B. 1. population density 2. British Period
3. fresh water 4. minerals
5. Plains
- C. 1. ✗ 2. ✗ 3. ✓ 4. ✗ 5. ✓
- D. 1. Healthcare facilities improved and food production increased significantly during this period. As a result the child mortality rate decreased sharply, while the birth rate

remained quite high. If the birth rate is more than the death rate, then there would be an increase in population.

2. Population composition means what type of people the country is made up of. It refers to attributes like age structure, ratio of females to males (sex ratio), life expectancy, literacy, occupation structure and other characteristics.

1.	0-14	Child Population
2.	15-64	Working Population
3.	65+	Old Age Population

3. Literate and healthy population are an asset. People can be turned into a productive asset if we make an investment on them in the form of education, training and medical care.
 4. Kenya had earlier experienced a very high death rate and birth rate. Of late, death rate in Kenya has come down, while birth rate is still high. That is why Kenya's population is growing sharply.
- E. 1. The change in number of people over a period of time can be termed as population change. The world population grew slowly and steadily till 1800. This was because of several reasons. There was no healthcare facility and as a result most of the babies died at an early age. Additionally, the farm productivity was not enough to meet the demand of a growing population.

It was around 1820s that the world population started to grow significantly. During this period, the world population reached 1 billion. By 1970 the world population reached 3 billion. By 1999, the world population reached 6 billion. Such a high rate of growth is called population explosion. Healthcare facilities improved and food production increased significantly during this period. As a result the child mortality rate decreased sharply, while the birth rate remained quite high. If the birth rate is more than the death rate, then there would be an increase in population.

2. Different geographical terrain, climate and economic factors affect the population density varies across all the countries.

For example, agriculture and industries flourish along the east coast of Brazil. As a result, these areas have a higher population density than the other parts of Brazil.

3. Distribution of world's population is affected by many factors are as follows :

Geographical Factors

Topography: Plains have always attracted large human settlements. Plains are suitable for farming and other economic activities.

Climate: Moderate climate is preferred over harsh climate for human settlements. This is the reason that major portion of world population is found in the tropical regions.

Soil: Soil fertility affects the population density in a significant way. This is the reason for dense population in plains of Ganga and Brahmaputra in India, plains of Hwang-Ho and Chang Jiang in China and plains of Nile in Egypt.

Water: Areas where fresh water is available in plenty are suitable for human habitation. River valleys are densely populated while deserts are sparsely populated.

Minerals: Areas rich in minerals are usually densely populated. This is the reason for dense population near diamond mines of Africa.

Social, Cultural and Economic Factors

Social: Areas where better education, health and housing facilities are available attract more number of people. For example; Pune is densely populated because of these factors.

Cultural: Places of religious importance always attract more number of people. This is the reason of dense population of Varanasi and Mathura in India. Similarly, Vatican City and Jerusalem are also densely populated.

Economic: Industrialisation results in increase of population in an area. This is the reason of dense population of cities, like Jamshedpur, Dhanbad and Gurgaon in India. Osaka in

Japan and London in the UK are densely populated because of this.

Government Policies: Government polices play a crucial rule for migration of people from one place to another. During British period Indians were sent to Fiji, Malaya and Mauritius.

4. Population pyramid is a diagramatic visual description for understanding age structure, gender-wise distribution of population. The components of population of a country can be understood by looking at the population pyramid.

A population pyramid tells us about the percentage of (males and females) people living in that particular country. The age groups are shown along the vertical axis (in %) while the horizontal axis shows the age of males and females (in %). In the pyramid bar graph the percentage of children below 15 years are shown at the bottom and the size of the aged people above 65 years are shown at the top. People aged between 15 and 65 years is shown on the middle and they comprise the working population. People below 15 years and more than 65 years are considered to be dependent population. The developed nations of the world have less percentage of dependent population.

Civics

The Constitution and The Need For Laws



-
- A. 1. (c) 2. (c) 3. (c) 4. (b) 5. (b)
- B. 1. constitution 2. laws
3. Dowry 4. salt law
- C. 1. ✓ 2. ✓ 3. ✓ 4. ✗
- D. 1. The Rule of Law implies that no one is above the law. This not only regulates the power of the government but also stresses that everyone is equal before the law.

2. To curb the practice of dowry, the government passed the Dowry Prohibition Act in 1961. This Act prohibited giving and taking of dowry. According to the Act, anyone caught giving or taking dowry is liable for both imprisonment and fine.
 3. The Civil Disobedience Movement began with Gandhiji's breaking of the Salt Law. According to the law, making of salt was the government monopoly. This law prevented Indians from making salt from sea water without the government's permission. Gandhiji protested the law with the famous Dandi March.
 4. India is a democratic country. In a large country like India, people think differently, the aspirations and needs are different and they follow varied cultures. All this is enough to give rise to conflicts among them. To maintain the order in the society and to ensure the welfare of the people, laws are needed. The constitution establishes the rule of law in the country.
- E. 1. Our Constitution contains valuable information regarding the structure organs, duties and responsibilities of the government.
- Our Constitution has a system of checks and balances. This prevents the misuse of power vested in the government.
- Because India has a diverse population, it is important to protect the rights of the minorities. Our Constitution guarantees certain rights to protect the minorities against the oppression by the majority.
- Our Constitution also guarantees certain Fundamental rights to the citizens in order to protect them against any injustice by the government.
2. Even today daughters are considered a financial burden by many people. Thus, female foeticide is on the rise. This practice has affected India's sex ratio. The 2001 census shows a decline in the number of females in the age group of 0-6 as compared to the 1991 census. According to the 2011 census, there are 943 females per 1,000 males in the

age group of 0-6 as against 945 females for 1,000 males in 1991.

To curb the practice of female foeticide, the government has passed the Pre-natal Diagnostic Techniques (Regulation and Prevention of Misuse) Act (PNDT Act) in 1994. It was brought into effect from 1 January, 1996. The PNDT Act prohibits the determination and disclosure of the sex of the foetus. It also prohibits any advertisement of prenatal sex determination. Any violation of the PNDT Act can result in imprisonment and fine.

3. When a law made by the government is against the interests of the people, then people protest the law by showing their dissent. This has happened quite often when India was under British rule. This still happens sometimes even after India has gained independence.

Dissent can be of two types:

Constructive Dissent: The constructive dissent is a creative way of showing dissent. In this form of dissent, people show their disagreement in a peaceful manner instead of resorting to destructive ways. For example, if the students of a university are not happy with a regulation passed by their Vice Chancellor, they may submit a petition to the VC to look into the matter instead of resorting to burning furniture or road blocks, etc.

Destructive Dissent: People protest to show disagreement towards the laws which are not favourable for them. We often find students, communities and unions blocking roads and setting public property on fire because they are not happy with the system or the law. Such destructive dissent can only bring destruction and unhappiness to all concerned.

4. The Civil Disobedience Movement began with Gandhiji's breaking of the Salt Law. According to the law, making of salt was the government monopoly. This law prevented Indians from making salt from sea water without the government's permission. Gandhiji protested the law with the famous Dandi March. On 12 March, 1930 Gandhiji and 78 other members of Sabarmati Ashram in Ahmedabad started to

3. It was passed by the Constituent Assembly on 26 November, 1949 but it came into effect on 26 January, 1950, a day selected for its historical significance.

At the Lahore Session of the Congress in December 1929, it was decided that 26 January would be celebrated as the day of Purna Swaraj or 'Complete Independence'. So, when India became independent, 26 January was chosen as the day to declare India a republic.

4. Human rights are important for a person to lead a dignified life. The founding fathers of the Constitution of India enshrined certain fundamental rights in it. These rights form the basic democratic set up. The success of democracy depends upon the success of these rights.
5. Our Constitution recognises the dignity of the individual and protects her/him against any form of exploitation.
- The Constitution prohibits trafficking in human beings.
 - It also prohibits beggar or forced labour which is done without any wage in return.

- E. 1. Three Directive Principles for building a just society are :

To Promote Economic Justice

The State will take steps:

- to provide equal means of livelihood to all the citizens.
- to secure proper conditions of work for all workers.
- to secure equal pay for equal work men and women.
- to protect children from exploitation.

To Promote Welfare and Social Justice

The state will take steps:

- to help the sick, aged and unemployed.
- to promote the educational and economic interests of the weaker sections of society.
- to give free legal aid to poor so that they are not denied justice.
- to provide care to children and education to all children up to the age of fourteen. To raise the standard of living of people and improve public health.
- to ban intoxicating drugs and drinks.

To strengthen the Democratic System

To state will take steps:

- to ensure the separation of the judiciary from the executive and enable the judiciary to be independent and impartial.
 - to establish village panchayats as units of local self-government.
 - to establish a uniform civil code in the country.
 - to establish uniform laws relating to marriage, divorce and inheritance for all citizens.
2. When we have the rights, it becomes our duty to exercise these rights responsibly. All rights are accompanied by a corresponding duties. Absence of duties may bring lawlessness and violation of the others' rights. With this view, Fundamental Duties were incorporated in the Constitution in 1976.

There are eleven fundamental duties. Initially, there were ten fundamental duties. The eleventh duty was added by the 86th Constitutional amendment in 2002.

Our fundamental duties are:

- (a) To abide by the Constitution and respect its ideals and institutions, the National Flag and the National Anthem.
- (b) To cherish and follow the noble ideals which inspired our national struggle for freedom.
- (c) To uphold and protect the sovereignty, unity and integrity of India.
- (d) To defend the country and render national service when called upon to do so.
- (e) To promote harmony and the spirit of common brotherhood amongst all the people of India.
- (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 wild life, and to have compassion for living creatures.

- (h) To develop the scientific temper, humanism and the spirit of inquiry and reform.
- (i) To safeguard public property and to abjure violence.
- (j) To strive towards excellence in all spheres of individual and collective activity so that the nation constantly rises to higher levels of endeavour and achievement.
- (k) To give opportunities for education to children, own or adopted, aged between 6 and 14 years.

3. Freedom is a basic human right and a very significant element of democracy. The Right to Freedom guarantees six basic freedoms to the Indian citizens as follows:

- Freedom of speech and expression,
- Freedom to assemble peacefully and without arms,
- Freedom to form associations and unions,
- Freedom to move freely throughout the country,
- Freedom to reside and settle in any part of the country, and
- Freedom to practise any profession or to carry on any occupation, trade or business.

4. Socialism: Socialism means that everyone must enjoy social and economic equality. Under social equality, everyone must have equal status and opportunities. Economic equality refers to equitable distribution of wealth and a decent standard of living for all.

Secularism: The Preamble states that India is a secular country. This means that there will be no state religion. All religions will be treated equally. The Constitution also guarantees the Right to Freedom of Religion as a Fundamental Right. This includes the freedom to profess, propagate and practice any religion. Hence, every religious group in India can practice and propagate its faith.

Federalism: India has a federal form of government. This means that our country is governed at two levels, i.e. at the centre and at the state. The President is the head of

our country. The Prime Minister heads the government makes laws for the country. At the state level the Governor is the nominal head while the Chief Minister heads the government. The Vidhan Sabha or the State Legislature makes laws for the state. The powers and functions of the centre and the state governments have been clearly defined under three lists Union List, State list and Concurrent list.

Liberty: It indicates absence of any subjective restraints on individual freedom for her/his holistic development.



3

Our Parliament : Union Legislature

- A.** 1. (d) 2. (b) 3. (c) 4. (b) 5. (b)
- B.** 1. two 2. 12 3. one-third
4. Two-third 5. Governor 6. Vice President of India
- C.** 1. ✓ 2. ✗ 3. ✗ 4. ✓ 5. ✓
- D.** 1. We need the elected representatives to run the government because they are chosen by public through the electoral process to represent their interest and make decisions on their behalf.
2. The normal tenure of the Lok Sabha is for five years. The Rajya Sabha does not have a fixed term. One-third of its members retire after every two years and new members are elected to replace them.
3. The Parliament controls the income and expenditure of the government. The government receives money through various taxes. It spends this money on various welfare programmes for the people.
- E.** 1. Members of the Lok Sabha are directly elected by people (the Lok Sabha cannot have more than 552 members). There are 545 members in the Lok Sabha, out of which 543 are elected members while 2 members are nominated by the President. The normal tenure of the Lok Sabha is for five years. Elections for the Lok Sabha are held after every five years in the normal scenario. These elections are also known

as General Elections. If, due to some reasons, the President dissolves a Lok Sabha before the expiry of its term then mid-term elections are held to constitute a new Lok Sabha.

Based on population, the country is divided into parliamentary constituencies. People from each constituency elect a member of Parliament. All citizens who are more than 18 years of age have the voting right in India.

To select the executive government from among themselves is an important function of the members of the Lok Sabha.

2. Members of the Rajya Sabha are elected by people's representatives from the State Legislatures. There are 245 members in the Rajya Sabha out of which 12 members are nominated by the President. The President nominates members for the Rajya Sabha from various walks of life, like journalists, artists, fine arts, musicians, social workers, etc. The Rajya Sabha does not have a fixed term. One-third of its members retire after every two years and new members are elected to replace them. The Vice-President of India is the Chairman of the Rajya Sabha.

3. The executive is a group of persons who work together to implement the laws made by the Parliament.

The emergency power of president is that he can impose emergency at the time of war or financial instability of the country. He can also impose emergency in state. It is called President's Rule.

4. The President is the real head in the Presidential form of government.

The President is elected directly by the people and is not responsible to the legislature.

The President is not necessarily from the majority party that wins a majority in the parliament. For example, United States of America has Presidential form of government.



4

The Judiciary

A. 1. (c)

2. (d)

3. (c)

4. (b)

5. (b)

(e) He should be an eminent jurist in the opinion of the President.

To be eligible for appointment as a judge one must:

(a) be a citizen of India.

(b) have held a judicial office in India for ten years.

(c) have practised as an advocate of a High Court or two or more such Courts in succession for a similar period.

(d) he should be an eminent writer in the field of law.

(e) he should be a recognized teacher of good reputation in a college of law.

2. Supreme Court is the guardian of the individual liberties and fundamental right. It has the power to declare a law passed by any legislature null and void if it encroaches upon the fundamental rights guaranteed to the people by constitution. Since the Supreme Court is the highest court, it has a large number of functions to perform, such as judicial, administrative and miscellaneous functions.

3. The High Courts of the states have three types of jurisdictions. Under the original jurisdiction, it has the power to issue orders called writs to any person or authority within its jurisdiction against the violation of the Fundamental Rights of citizens. It can also try civil and criminal cases.

The Appellate jurisdiction of the High Court includes the power to hear appeals on civil and criminal cases against the decisions of lower courts within the State.

The High Court has the authority to supervise the working of all subordinate courts under its jurisdiction. Moreover, it is also a Court of Record and has the power to punish for causing contempt of court.

4. Below the High court lies a hierarchy of Subordinate Courts. Panchayat courts also function in some States under various names like Nyaya Panchayat, Panchayat Adalat, Gram Kachheri, etc., to decide civil and criminal disputes of petty and local nature.

Different State laws provide for different kinds of jurisdiction of courts. Each State is divided into judicial districts presided

over by a District and Sessions Judge, which is the principal Civil Court of original jurisdiction and can try all offences including those punishable with death.

The Sessions Judge is the highest judicial authority in a district. Below him, there are Courts of civil jurisdiction, known in different states as Munsifs, Sub-judges, Civil Judges and the like. Similarly, the Criminal Judiciary comprises the Chief Judicial Magistrates and Judicial Magistrates of First and Second class.

5. The States of India are divided into a number of districts called zillas. Within each district, a judge presides as a district judge over civil cases. These courts are known as Subordinate Courts.

A Sessions Judge presides over the criminal cases. The judges are appointed by the Governor in consultation with the State's High Court. District courts are subordinate to the authority of the High Court.

There is a hierarchy of judicial officials below the district level. Many officials are selected through competitive examination by the State's Public Service Commission. Civil cases at the subdistrict level are filled in munsifs also known as the subdistrict courts.

Lesser criminal cases are entrusted to the courts of subordinate magistrates functioning under the supervisory authority of a District Magistrate. All magistrates are under the supervision of the High Court. At the village level, disputes are frequently resolved by Panchayats or Lok Adalats or People's courts.



5

Marginalisation And Social Justice

- A. 1. (b) 2. (d) 3. (d) 4. (c) 5. (a)
- B. 1. Casteism 2. social inequalities
3. prohibited 4. used every four out of to houses
5. Affirmative 6. invoking fundamental

C. 1. ✗ 2. ✗ 3. ✗ 4. ✓

D. 1. The government provided reservations for SCs and STs, in government educational institutions, government jobs and in legislatures. This was done so that the socio-economic condition of the oppressed classes could improve.

2. The government has given the minorities a right to run their own educational institutions to promote and to preserve their unique culture. But it is the people from that community who need to make efforts to promote and preserve their culture.

3. Only making a law is never enough for removing a social evil. More often than not, people have to become aware and assertive to invoke certain Fundamental Rights. There have been many examples when members of the SCs and STs have risen in protest against social evils and have created enough pressure on the government to improve the situation by enforcing a Fundamental Right. Even the practice of untouchability has minimised because of assertive actions of people who had been at the receiving end to this practice.

4. Policies which directly or indirectly help in improving the lot of the marginalized can be taken under affirmative action.

5. A number of laws were enacted to affect the provisions in the Constitution. Examples of such laws include The Untouchability Practices Act, 1955, Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe (Prevention of Atrocities) Act, 1989.

E. 1. A number of social reformers like Raja Ram Mohan Roy, Ishwar Chandra Vidyasagar, Swami Dayanand Saraswati, Mahadev Govind Ranadey and others condemned the evils of the caste system. Mahatma Gandhi, the Father of the Nation, devoted his whole life to the upliftment of the so called untouchables. He called them Harijans i.e., the children of God. His efforts came as a big jolt to the cruelties of the caste system. These days, they are known as Schedules Castes.

Things are changing. The caste system is losing its grip,

especially in urban areas. Education, science and technology, industrialisation and the fast means of communication have contributed a great deal to this happy change. Untouchability has been declared unlawful.

2. (a) We need to arrange the proper technology which can automatically perform the scavenging work without any manual efforts.
- (b) After arranging such technology we have to produce that technological equipments into mass scale and we have to distribute that technological equipments to every region where manual scavenging is taking place.
- (c) Moreover, the government efforts are the most necessary things to demolish the blot of the manual scavenging.

3. Right to equality

The government has taken many steps to tackle the problem of untouchability. These steps can be classified as follows:

- (a) Affirmative Actions
- (b) Protective Arrangements
- (c) Development

Affirmative Actions: Policies which directly or indirectly help in improving the lot of the marginalized can be taken under affirmative action. The government provided reservations for SCs and STs, in government educational institutions, government jobs and in legislatures. This was done so that the socio-economic condition of the oppressed classes could improve.

At present certain percentage of seats are reserved for members from SCs and STs, in government educational institutions and in government jobs. A candidates appearing for entrance examination and selection procedures for these institutions has to mention his/her caste. If the candidate belongs to the dalit community then he needs to furnish a caste certificate also.

The National Commission for Scheduled Castes and Tribes has been formed to look into the matters of atrocities against oppressed classes.

Protective Arrangements: Untouchability in all forms had been banned by the constitution in 1950. In spite of that, practice of untouchability continued and is still being in practice in India. Several measures were taken to punish the offenders to reduce cases of untouchability. A number of laws were enacted to affect the provisions in the Constitution. Examples of such laws include The Untouchability Practices Act, 1955, Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe (Prevention of Atrocities) Act, 1989, The Employment of Manual Scavengers and Construction of Dry Latrines (Prohibition) Act, 1993, etc.

4. It has been pointed out by several activists that there should be stringent legislation for punishing the offenders who unlawfully take the possession of land previously under the control of tribal people. As they think, the 1989 Act only reiterates what has already been promised in the Constitution, which holds the practice of selling or purchasing tribal lands to be illegal.

Some of those who are not fully satisfied with the attitude of legislative bodies towards the issue of tribal development go on to say that state governments in the country themselves have violated from time to time the rights of the tribal people guaranteed by the Constitution. Even if the blame cannot be put straightaway on the state governments, there is no gain saying the fact that a vast majority of people from outside, who have encroached upon the tribal regions to pursue their self-interests, have not been subjected to punitive measures. Moreover, there are no palpable provisions of compensation and redressal for those tribals who have lost their lands and resources due to state-sponsored developmental activities or the operation of corporate groups. Given all these loopholes in its tribal policy, the government must act promptly to ensure through a set of strict legislative measures that the rights of the tribal people will not be violated in any situation and nobody will be authorised to encroach upon those rights.



6

The Government and Economic Development

- A. 1. (c) 2. (a)
- B. 1. Economic 2. Planning Commission 3. needs
4. Economic Development 5. Private Sector
- C. 1. ✗ 2. ✓ 3. ✓ 4. ✓ 5. ✓
- D. 1. Economic development means an increase in the wealth of the people. Besides an increase in income, it means better nutrition, healthcare, housing, education, entertainment and so on. It requires an efficient system of producing and distributing various goods and services.
2. The objectives laid down in this plan are as follows:
- Construction of all-weather roads to connect all villages.
 - Provide telephones for communication.
 - Provide clean drinking water.
 - Provide electricity to rural households.
 - Construction of 60 lakh houses for the poor.
 - Bringing as much as one crore hectares of land under irrigation.
3. The Five-Year Plans helped the government to tackle problems of poverty, unemployment and price rise. The Five-Year Plans had led to an improvement in infrastructure such as, increased power generation, better communication and transportation. This in turn has facilitated industrial and agricultural development.
4. The government promotes small-scale industries by adopting the following measures:
- Tax benefits are offered to set up small-scale industries.
 - Special tax incentives are given to set up industries in backward areas to help and develop the small-scale sector.
 - Some produces are reserved for exclusive manufacture by the small-scale industries.
 - Special training facilities are provided to set up small-scale industries.

- 5. Health:** Several Primary and Community Health Centres have been set up in rural areas. The National Rural Health Mission was started in 2005 to provide better healthcare facilities to the rural population throughout the country. Similarly, the National Urban Health Mission was launched to provide healthcare for the urban poor living in the slums.
- Education:** The Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan was started in 2001. This programme encourages and promotes universal elementary education for all children in the age group of 6-14 irrespective of their caste and gender.
- E. 1.** The planning commission of India was set up in 1950, with the Prime Minister of India as its ex-officio chairman.
- The planning commission identified the immediate needs of the country. In this it was guided by the constitution's Directive Principles for ensuring economic and social justice. The Planning Commission set targets which the country should fulfil over a short period. It also makes plans for the fulfilment of the targets. Usually, the plan period was five years, but annual plans were also made sometimes.
- The Planning Commission advised the government on how the country's resources should be utilized. It also regulated the distribution of the produced goods and services so that these may reach most of the people. In a mixed economy like ours, there is government as well as private participation in agriculture, industry and service production.
- The Planning Commission took special care to improve housing, transport and communication, water and power supply, etc., to strengthen the country's infrastructure. It also took special care to help the social sector, which includes self-employed workers, small industrial units, the poor and the disabled.
- 2.** The Green Revolution helped to increase the agricultural production by introducing farmers to modern agricultural machinery, high yielding variety (HYV) seeds, fertilizers and pesticides, and irrigation.

Modern agricultural machinery: Earlier, implements like the plough and trowel were used to till land. Gradually new agricultural machinery like tractors, sowing machines, threshers and harvesters were introduced.

High yielding variety seeds: High yielding variety seeds, particularly for wheat and rice are extensively used. They have helped to increase the output.

Fertilisers and pesticides: To increase the fertility of land, the use of fertilisers was encouraged. The government has established fertiliser manufacturing units in Sindri, Trombay, Neyveli, Rourkela and Nangal.

Irrigation: Nearly 60 per cent of the agricultural land depends on rainfall for irrigation. Insufficient or late monsoon often results in crop failure and less productivity.

- 3. Public Industries:** Industrial development is the key to a higher standard of living. After independence, India needed rapid industrial development. For this, heavy industries, requiring the investment of large amounts of money, needed to be set up. The government took the responsibility of setting up such industries. Hence, most of our heavy industries are in the public sector. Public sector industries are controlled by the government. Most of the money invested in these industries is paid by the government out of the taxes collected from the people. Some examples of public sector industrial units in India are Bharat Heavy Electricals Limited (BHEL), Steel Authority of India Limited (SAIL) and National Thermal Power Corporation (NTPC).

Private Industries: Private sector industries produce mostly consumer goods.

Small-scale Industries: Our government has encouraged the development of small-scale industries. These can be set up faster than large scale industries and they also help to generate employment. The small-scale industries produce essential consumer goods like soaps, hosiery, hand tools and utensils.

Cottage Industries: Cottage industries have always existed in our country but they could not be developed to their full capacity during colonial rule. Now the government has initiated efforts to develop the cottage industries. The family members usually run these units from their homes. Items like baskets, toys, ropes and handlooms are manufactured by cottage industries.

4. The Bharat Nirman Plan was started for the development of rural areas in 2005.

Employment: The National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme was launched in 2006. The scheme provides legal guarantee of 100 days employment every year to adult members of rural households below poverty line.

Housing: To improve the conditions of the poor in the urban slums, programmes like Basic Services to the Urban Poor (BSUP) and Integrated Housing and Slum Development Programmes (IHSDP) have been initiated. These aims to provide housing facilities, basic services and other civic amenities to the urban poor. In rural area Indira Awaas Yojana was launched to meet the shortage of housing.

Health: Several Primary and Community Health Centres have been set up in rural areas. The National Rural Health Mission was started in 2005 to provide better healthcare facilities to the rural population throughout the country. Similarly, the National Urban Health Mission was launched to provide healthcare for the urban poor living in the slums.

Education: The Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan was started in 2001. This programme encourages and promotes universal elementary education for all children in the age group of 6-14 irrespective of their caste and gender.

Sanitation: Incentive-based programmes like Nirmal Gram Puraskar (2002) have been launched to promote rural sanitation. In urban areas, recycling and reuse of sewage is encouraged.