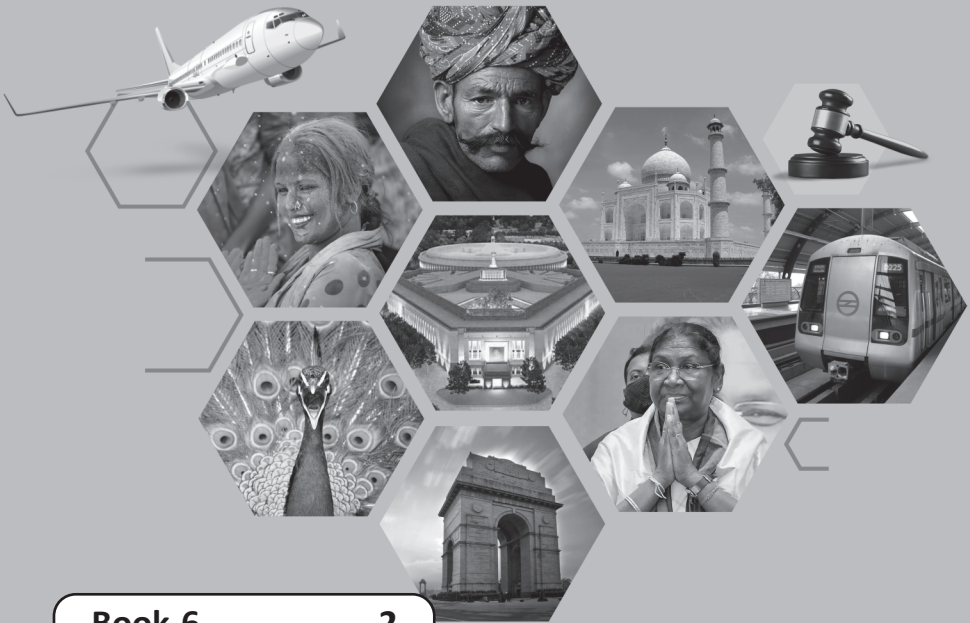




Teacher's Help Book (6-8)

INTEGRATED
**Social
Studies**

HISTORY | GEOGRAPHY | CIVICS



Book-6	2
Book-7	90
Book-8	182

Social Studies-6

Unit-1 : History

Chapter 1

When, Where and How

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (c); 2. (d); 3. (c); 4. (d); 5. (c)
B. 1. mistakes, methods; 2. fossils; 3. manuscripts; 4. Brahmi
C. 1. T; 2. T; 3. T; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. The word 'History' gets its origin from the Greek word 'historia' which means, 'inquiry'. History displays the course of human civilisation since the earliest times.
2. There are the two types of sources of history :
1. Archaeological Sources and 2. Literary Sources.
3. Secular Literature is the literature that has no connection with religion. It includes poetry, drama, plays, travelogues or accounts of foreign travellers, and texts on science, grammar and politics.
4. Banabhatta was a writer in the court of Harshavaradhana who wrote Harashacharita. Bilhana's Vikramankdevacharita and Chand Bardai's Prithviraj Raso are the other important memories.
5. Some foreigners who travelled India, are Megasthenes, Fa-Hein, Hiuen-tsang, I-tsing etc.
- B. 1. The 'Prehistory' is referred to the entire period from the time when human-like beings appeared till the time when the practice of recording past events began. The entire period before recorded history is called prehistory. Protohistory is the period between prehistory and the historical period. There was a period for which we have no direct written evidence available from contemporary sources.
2. The past events are arranged in order of time, i.e. events

that happened first are followed by the events that happened later. This order is known as chronology.

A chronology without a certain point of reference is not possible.

3. Tools, pieces of pottery, sculptures, paintings, ornaments, etc are some other objects. They are used as valuable supplementary sources for additional information. Numerous terracotta figurines, bronze statuettes and steatite seals help in our understanding of the past.
 4. Religious Literature is the literary text on religious subjects. The Vedas, the Ramayana, the Mahabharata, the Gita, the Puranas and Jataka Tales are important sources of ancient Indian history.
 5. The difference between archeological and literary sources are : Archaeological sources are building, art facts, coins etc. while literary sources. Include books and biographies. Archaeological sources are the primary sources while literary sources are primary as well as secondary sources.
- C. 1. The study of history is important because :
- With the help of history, we can understand the way civilisations flourished and certain inventions and discoveries were made.
 - When we understand how several cultures and civilisations interacted with each other, we learn the spirit of tolerance.
 - It helps us understand our course of evolution and how our ancestors overcame the problems which they faced in everyday life.
 - We can analyse past mistakes and apply the best possible methods to correct them.
 - We can observe the nature of present-day problems in the light of history and try to find solutions.
2. The major physical feature of the subcontinent is the southern peninsula, separated from the north by the Vindhyan mountain range. There are mountains, rivers, valleys and plateaus. In ancient times, people used two

trade routes to travel across the region. Geographical factors played a significant part in the way civilisations flourished and declined. The Indus Valley civilisation is a noteworthy example. Fertile plains on the banks of the River Indus and its tributaries served as natural means for highly productive agricultural practices. Which gave to the birth of urban centres where different classes of crafts persons and traders were emerged.

3. The scientific study of the material remains of the past discovered through excavations conducted at various historical sites is known as archaeology. Monuments, coins, sculptures, paintings, weapons, pottery, ornaments are the archaeological sources.
4. Many foreign visitors came to India at different points of time. They closely observed the Indian way of living, traditions, practices and people, and recorded their experiences in the form of travelogues, memoirs and accounts. Special mention can be made of the Indica by Megasthenes, who was a Greek ambassador in the court of Chandragupta Maurya. Periplus of the Erythraean Sea by an unknown sailor and The Geography of India by Ptolemy are also well known examples of ancient Greek writings on India. Other notable examples are the accounts of Chinese travellers Fa-Hien, Hiuen-tsang and I-tsing. These accounts are collectively called foreign literature.

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (d); 2. (b); 3. (c); 4. (c); 5. (a)
- B. 1. old stone age; 2. Knives, Scrappers; 3. factory sites; 4. hunting, fishing, food gathering techniques; 5. burials
- C. 1. T; 2. T; 3. F; 4. T; 5. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. Palaeolithic remains have been found in the upper Narmada region near Chennai. The main sites are Madurai,

Tanjore, Kadur, Nyamti, Talya Bellary, Hyderabad, Dharwad, Bijapur, Belgaum, Gujarat, Rewa Bundelkhand, Bengal, Bihar, Odisha and Madya Pradesh.

2. The tools used by paleolithic man are pieces of stones. Later, different types of crude stone tools were made. Flint, a type of stone, was widely used to make tools and weapons.
 3. Flint is a type of stone, which was widely used to make tools and weapons.
 4. Mesolithic man also practiced hunting, fishing and food gathering techniques. People began to make different types of tools called microliths.
 5. Mesolithic man learnt to tame some gentle animals such as wild dog, cow, goat, etc and used them for his own benefits.
- B.**
1. The word 'Palaeolithic' has come from two Greek words—palaeo and lithos, meaning 'old' and 'stone' respectively. Palaeolithic Age or the Old Stone has been divided by historians into Lower, Middle and Upper Palaeolithic Ages. The climate was cold in this age. The Palaeolithic humans led a nomadic life and were food gatherers and hunters.
 2. Early humans kept a fire burning at the entrance of their caves to prevent the wild animals. Gradually, the practice of eating cooked food was started. It kept them warm in winter.

3. Major Palaeolithic Sites

Sites are the places where archaeologists discover tools, implements and other artefacts of historical importance.

Historical sites have been found on the earth's surface, under the earth and even under water on some occasions.

Most of these sites are located near large water bodies and in areas where stones are available in plenty. Some important Palaeolithic sites in India include Mirzapur, Bhimbetka, Pune, Chikri-Nevasa, Bori, Kunool and Hunsgi.

4. These were smaller, sharper and more efficient than the Palaeolithic tools. They were of two kinds—Core and flake

tools. Core tools were made by chipping off pieces from hand-sized stones of flint (a hard rock). Flake tools were made from the sharp pieces that broke off while shaping the core tools. Scrapers, borers, hammers, sickles and arrow heads were used as tools.

5. At the rock shelters of Bhimbetka, located in Madhya Pradesh, more than 500 paintings by Paleolithic and Mesolithic humans have been found. These caves have been listed as a World Heritage Site by UNESCO.

In most of these paintings, animals have been shown separately, as part of hunting scenes or running after hunters. Birds, fish, lizards, crabs, frogs and scorpions have also been drawn. Some paintings also show men and women. Red and white were the most widely used colours.

- C. 1. The word 'Palaeolithic' has come from two Greek words—palaeo and lithos, meaning 'old' and 'stone' respectively. Palaeolithic Age or the Old Stone has been divided by historians into Lower, Middle and Upper Palaeolithic Ages. The climate was cold in this age.

The Palaeolithic humans led a nomadic life and were food gatherers and hunters. They ate raw meat, wild fruits and vegetables. They used animals' skin, barks and leaves of trees to keep themselves warm during the winter season.

2. **Palaeolithic Age** : Palaeolithic Age or the Old Stone Age has been divided by historians into Lower, Middle and Upper Palaeolithic Ages. The climate was cold in this age.

The Palaeolithic humans led a nomadic life and were food gatherers and hunters. They ate raw meat, wild fruits and vegetables. They used animals' skin, barks and leaves of trees to keep themselves warm during the winter season.

Mesolithic Age : In this age, the climate became relatively warm. The term 'Meso' means 'middle' and 'litho' means 'stone'. Thus, it means the middle stone age. This Age lasted for a comparatively short period of time. The warm climate led to an increase in the variety of plants and animals. Mesolithic man also practiced hunting, fishing

and food gathering techniques. People began to make different types of tools called microliths.

3. Mesolithic humans discovered the food value of the seeds. They began to gather these for food. Seeds that fell at the time of gathering might have sprouted suggesting the magic-link between seeds and plants. Later, they might have experimented by dropping seeds into the soil and found plants growing. The first crops were barley and wheat.

Man learnt to tame some gentle animals such as wild dog, cow, goat, etc and used them for his own benefits.

Chapter **3**

Farmers and Herders

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (d); 2. (b); 3. (b); 4. (a)
B. 1. Karnataka; 2. objects; 3. mixed, stronger; 4. square, rectangular
C. 1. T; 2. F; 3. T; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. Neolithic Age is the last stage of the Stone Age. Progress began to show, as humans started leading a settled community life.
2. Dog, goat, cattle, pig, ox, sheep, horse, cows, buffaloes and donkeys were the most important domesticated animals.
3. Neolithic man used tools such as axes, ploughs, sickles and hoes to clear forests and harvest the crops. They used a kind of rounded stone to grind grain. They also made spindles and home needles.
4. Neolithic settlements include Mehrgarh and Killi Ghul Mohammad in Baluchistan, Burzahom and Gulkral in Kashmir, Mehargarh in Uttar Pradesh, Chirand near Patna in Bihar Sarutaru and in Assam.
- B. 1. Dog, goat, cattle, pig, ox, sheep, horse, cows, buffaloes and donkeys were the most important domesticated animals. Goats and cattle provided milk and sheep provided wool. The horse and the donkey were used to carry burden.

2. As the force of nature like water, fire, rain, thunder, earth, moon, stars and the sun frightened the Neolithic man, he started worshipping them. He thought that there was some superpower which controlled all these forces. This was perhaps the first idea of God came to him.
 3. The dead were buried along with many objects that they used during their lifetime. This shows that the Neolithic man believed in life after death. Cremation was also practiced. They used urns for keeping the bones and ashes of the dead. The urns were oval-shaped.
 4. The man use fire in a wider way. He could heat earthenware to a certain degree in order to make them strong and harder. He learnt to make small fire in an earthen bowl too which could be used a lamp.
- C. 1. Hoof marks on clay suggests domestication of cattle. All the animals have been identified through their characteristics. At Tekkalkota (Karnataka), bones of sheep and goats have been found.
- Though people had started leading settled life, they would often travel from one place to another in search of pastures where they could feed their cattle.
2. During the Neolithic Age, tools were much sharper than those used in the Mesolithic period. People began to produce polished and fine cutting tools. People used tools such as axes, ploughs, sickles and hoes to clear forests and harvest the crops. They used a kind of rounded stone to grind grain. They also made spindles and home needles. Microliths of the Mesolithic age were used in spears and arrows. These were made of basalt and flint tied to a piece of wood or bone for a firm grip.
 3. The wheel was a remarkable invention of the Neolithic humans. It is possible that a log or a stone rolling downwards sparked off the idea of the wheel. The wheel and the cart made life easier. People could now

travel from one place to another much faster than before. He could also easily transport heavy objects. The potter's wheel also came to be used that improved the process of making pots. Perhaps, the wheel was also used in spinning thread, which led to weaving.

- 4. Social Life :** Early humans lived in groups. Each group consisted of men, women, children and domesticated animals. Everything belonged to the group. Simple division of labour existed within the group. Each group had a leader. The ornaments were made by women. The clothes also underwent a change. Men began to use clothes made from cotton.

Religious Life : The early man was afraid of natural calamities. As he was ignorant of the causes of lightning and thunder, earthquakes and weather changes, he worshipped the sky, the Sun, rain and other objects of nature.

Chapter 4

First Cities

Objective Types Questions

- A.** 1. (d); 2. (a); 3. (a); 4. (d)
B. 1. food, eggs; 2. citadel, lower town; 3. bricks, uniform;
4. in huge earthen pots, food, ornaments
C. 1. F; 2. F; 3. T; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A.** 1. The main features of the Indus Valley Civilisation are Town planning, Citadel, The Great bath, The Lower town, Houses, occupations, Agriculture, Drainage.
2. The first extensive excavation at Harappa on the bank of river Ravi [(a small village at Montgomery in district of Punjab, (present day Pakistan)].
3. The women wore a short skirt. It was held at the waist with a girdle. Women wore necklaces, bangles, bracelets, earrings and waist-bands. The women combed their hair. Men had also adorned themselves with ornaments like armlets and finger rings.

4. The Indus Valley people worshipped Pashupati Shiva and Mother Goddess. Mother Goddess represented fertility. There are no temple or other structure among the remains.
- B.**
1. **Citadel** : It was the raised part of the city. It was often described as the fort or administrative block. The citadel had massive walls which provided protection against floods. The citadel consisted of important buildings like the granary and the assembly or town hall.
 2. The drains were made of baked or kiln-fired bricks. The kitchen and the bathroom had drains leading out in the alleys. The main drain ran alongside the main road and was lined with bricks. Most of them were covered with removable slabs of stone. The drains were cleaned periodically. They were connected to the main drain in the street.
 3. The Indus people were farmers, weavers, potters, metal workers, toy makers, jewellers, stone cutters and traders.
 4. According to historians, the Indus Valley Civilisation began in 2600 BCE. Excavations reveal that it spread over large parts of present day Pakistan (Sutkeyendaro) and the state of Punjab (Ropar and Sanghol), Gujarat (Lothal, Surkotada, Rangpur, Dholavira and Rojdi), Uttar Pradesh, (Alamgirpur), Rajasthan (Kalibanga) and Haryana (Banawali and Rakhigarhi) in our country. It even reached the modern day Sindh, Baluchistan, Afghanistan, some parts of Central Asia and Iran. Some of the important sites of Indus Valley Civilisation are Mohenjo-daro, Harappa, Lothal, Kot Diji, Dholavira (Gujarat), Ropar (Punjab), Kalibanga (Rajasthan), Sutkagendor, Rakhigarhi and Amri (Pakistan).
- C.**
1. One of the unique features of the Indus Valley Civilisation is town planning. Most of the cities had two parts – the citadel (the raised part) and the lower town (the lower part). Often walls of baked bricks were built around each part. The bricks were laid in an interlocking pattern.

2. A highly developed way of living characterised by a developed social system and technological development is known as civilisation. Every civilisation grows on technological advancement and material progress. Some of the major features of civilisation are as follows :
- Urban centres such as towns and cities
 - An efficient administrative system
 - Specialisation of occupations : social as well as economic differentiation
 - Prevalence of complex systems of belief
 - Use of some script and language for communication
 - Growth of crafts and different forms of art and architecture
3. The Indus people were farmers, weavers, potters, metal workers, toy makers, jewellers, stone cutters and traders.
4. Not much is known about the religion followed by Indus Valley dwellers, but probably, they worshipped trees and animals. The pipal tree and bull are the common seals found.

A seal representing a male deity and some female figurines found at different sites suggest that they probably worshipped Pashupati Shiva and Mother Goddess. Mother Goddess represented fertility. There are no temple or other structure among the remains.

Chapter 5

The Vedic Period

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (a); 2. (a); 3. (d); 4. (d)
- B. 1. Mandalas, 1028; 2. Bhrahmans, Kashatriyas, Vaishyas, Shudras; 3. five tribes, Panchajanas; 4. grammar, astronomy, medicine, music, geometry, algebra, astrology, the art of war
- C. 1. F; 2. F; 3. T; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. The four Vedas of the Vedic Age are—the Rigveda, the Samaveda, the Yajurveda and the Atharvaveda.

2. The Mahabharata and the Ramayana are the two great epics of the Vedic Period.
 3. The Vedic people amused themselves through music and dance, sporting events, festivals etc.
 4. The subjects studied during the vedic period like grammar, astronomy, architecture, medicine, arithmetic, algebra, etc.
- B.** 1. There are some more vedic texts too. They are the Brahmanas, the Aranyakas, the Upanishads and the Purans.

the Brahmanas are commentaries on the vedic hymns. The Aranyakas or forest books give account of an ascetic's life in the forests. The Upanishads are philosophical texts on different ideas and understanding the world and the cycle of birth and death. The Puranas are religious texts. They narrate the history of the world from creation to its destruction. The two epics, the Mahabharata and the Ramayana are parts of the Puranas.

2. During the Later Vedic Period, the life of a man was divided into four ashrams or stages. These were :
 - Brahmacharya or student life
 - Grihastha or life of a householder
 - Vanaprastha or life of a hermit
 - Sanyas or complete renunciation of all worldly pleasures
3. The entire society was divided into four main classes or Varnas – Brahman, Kshatriya, Vaishya and Shudra. The priests, who looked after religious matters and recited prayers, were Brahmans. The Kashatriyas were warriors, who protected the tribes from external dangers. The Vaishyas worked as cultivators, craftsmen, merchants and traders. Those who served the other three varnas and did most of the menial work were called Shudras. The Aryans who disobeyed social rules were also considered Shudras. The varnas were based on the kind of work not birth.
4. During the Later Vedic Period, agriculture and cattle

rearing was the chief means of livelihood. The use of iron produced better weapons and heavier agricultural implements. Weaving, leather work, pot-making, jewellery-making and carpentry become more advanced in this period.

- C. 1. In the Early Vedic Period, the Aryans were divided into tribal groups. The tribe was called jana or vaish. Each tribe occupied a particular area and consisted of a number of villages. The tribal chief was called Rajan.

Rajan performed the military and religious duties. He maintained law and order. On the battlefield, he was assisted by the Senani, the Commander-in-Chief. In the religious duties, he was helped by the Purohita (the chief priest). The village headman (the gramani) took advice from him on the issues concerning the village. Two assemblies, the Sabha and the Samiti, advised the king on important matters. The Sabha was an assembly of selected people. The Samiti consisted of all people of the tribe. The Samiti elected the Rajan.

2. During the Later Vedic Period, a steady decline came in the position of women. Now, only women of the upper classes could receive education. The Brahmans and Kshatriyas shared the power to rule. The Shudras were still deprived of many of the privileges enjoyed by the upper classes.

By the end of this period, the varna system became very rigid. Occupation came to be related to birth. This period also marked the beginning of kingship.

3. The things found along with the burials tell us a lot about the customs, practices, and social set up. The large stones served the purpose of marking the sites of the burials and providing an impressive look in honour of the departed. They have been found in Tekkalakota and Brahmagiri in the Deccan and Nagarjunkonda in Andhra Pradesh and Adichchanallur in Tamil Nadu.

Some burials are marked with a single stone while some

have a number of stones arranged in a pattern. Several objects including expensive gold jewels, pottery, tools and weapons have been found as grave goods. The quality of goods exhibit the financial status of the person buried.

4. The early and later vedic period were distinct phase of ancient Indian history marked by changes in society, religion, culture and politics. Some key differences between the two periods are :

Early Vedic Period (ca 1500-1000BCE)

- The Period was characterized of the composition of the Rigveda, the oldest of the vedic scriptures, which contain hymns prayers and rituals of the early Aryan settlers.
- The early vedic religion was polytheistic and focused on sacrifice, offerings and the worship of natural forces and elemental gods.

Later Vedic Period (ca 1000-500 BCE)

- This period saw the composition of the remaining vedic scriptures yajurveda. Samaveda and Atharvaveda which cant an more complex rituals and beliefs.
- The later vedic religion saw the development of the idea of reincarnation the concept of the caste system, and the emergence of the first philosophical school.

Chapter **6**

Janpadas and Mahajanpadas

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (a); 2. (b); 3. (b); 4. (b)
B. 1. monarchies, republics; 2. Sakyas, the Koliyas, the Mallas;
3. agriculture; 4. tax
C. 1. T; 2. T; 3. F; 4. F

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. Janapadas and Mahajanapadas were political division in ancient India, with Janapadas being small territories ruled by chiefs and Mahajanapadas being larger kingdoms ruled by king.

2. There were many ancient states where political power was exercised by a group of people. These were called ganas or ganarajyas or ganasanghas, terms that are generally translated as republic.
3. Gana parishad was a political organization in India that aimed to represent the voices and interests of the rural population.
4. Merchants organised themselves into associations or guilds, which were called shrenis.

B. 1. Mahajanapada	Capital
• Gandhara	Takshashila or Taxila
• Kamboja	Rajpur
• Asmaka	Potana
• Vatsa	Kaushambi
• Avanti	Ujjain
• Surasena	Mathura
• Chedi	Shuktimati
• Malla	Kushiara, Pawa
• Kuru	Hastinapur/ Indraprastha
• Matsya	Virat Nagar
• Vajji	Vaishali
• Anga	Champa
• Kashi	Benaras
• Kosala	Shravasti
• Magadha	Girivraja/Rajgriha
• Panchala	Ahichhatra (Northern Panchala), Kampilya (Southern Panchala)

2. Three types of officials who assisted the king.

These were :

amatya (minister) : He assisted the king in governing the state;

the senapati : He led the king's army on the battlefield; and

the purohita : he guided the king on how to perform the various religious and social duties sanctioned by the scriptures.

3. Different types of taxes were imposed on the subjects and the revenue from those taxes was used for paying the soldiers, maintaining the army and numerous activities of public welfare.

The taxes collected were both in cash and in kind. The farmers paid 1/6th of their produce as tax. Similarly, hunters and herders also paid the king in kind.

It was collected in kind and later on, in cash. Bali was another important tax. Tax paid in the form of labour, called vishti. It involved offering free services to the king.

4. From 600 BCE, the Vedic religious system underwent transformation. People gradually became dissatisfied with the existing form of religion and sought different religious options. As a result, new religions such as Jainism and Buddhism, which did not conform to Brahmanical principles, became popular.

- C. 1. Villages grew in size and number with steady increase in population. Each village had a headman (gramni/gramika). Sometimes, villages developed into towns, particularly if they were famous for certain types of crafts or due to their proximity to trade routes.

2. **Monarchies** : Kings of some mahajanapadas steadily assumed great power and began to exercise complete control over all affairs relating to their subjects. The institution of kingship became hereditary and based on the principle of primogeniture or jyesthadhikar. The king would often nominate his successor during his lifetime. The prince who was thus nominated by his royal father as his successor was called heir-apparent or Yuvaraj. Coronation or rajyabhishek of the king was an important ceremony.

Republic : Ganasanghas : There were many ancient states where political power was exercised by a group of people. These were called ganas or ganarajyas or ganasanghas, terms that are generally translated as republics.

The group of rulers of these mahajanapadas met several

times where senior and responsible citizens made all decisions unanimously or through collective consent.

- 3. Society :** The society was divided into four Varnas. The Varna system characterised by the division of society into Brahmans, Khatryias, Vaishyas and Shudras. Steadily, it ceased to be skill-based and became hereditary.

Villages grew in size and number with steady increase in population. Each village had a headman (gramni/gramika). Sometimes, villages developed into towns, particularly if they were famous for certain types of crafts or due to their proximity to trade routes.

4. Great Kings of Magadha

Bimbisara (544–493 BCE) : Bimbisara, the first great ruler of Magadha, hailed from the Haryanka family. His capital was Girivraja or Rajagriha. He made Magadha a powerful kingdom by various means. He married princesses of other kingdoms, conquered hostile kingdoms, encouraged trade, improved the means of transport and used iron for making weapons.

Ajatashatru (493–461 BCE) : Bimbisara's son, Ajatashatru, became king in 493 BCE. He was ambitious and wanted to extend the boundaries of the Magadhan empire. He attacked the rulers of Kosala and the Lichchhavi gansangha even though both rulers were related to him. The capital of Magadha was Rajagriha or modern day Rajgir in Bihar. Later, a new capital in the form of a waterfort or jaladurga was built at Pataliputra by Ajatashatru's successors.

Chapter **7**

New Religions and Ideas

Objective Types Questions

- A.** 1. (c); 2. (c); 3. (a); 4. (d); 5. (a)
B. 1. 1000 BCE, 400 BCE; 2. 29; 3. Vardhamana Mahavira; 4. right faith, right knowledge, right action
C. 1. T; 2. T; 3. F; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. Yajnavalkya, Aruni, Shandilya, Aitareya, Shaunaka.
2. Siddhartha Gautam
3. Vardhamana Mahavira was the founder of Jainism.
4. Bimbisara, Udayin, Chandragupta Maurya and Kharvel were some of the prominent royal patrons of Jainism.
- B. 1. The Upanishads in Sanskrit literally means 'sitting near the guru or teacher'. The major Upanishads were composed between 1000 BCE and 400 BCE. There are about 108 Upanishads.
2. Siddhartha Gautama was the founder of Buddhism. He was the son of Shuddhodana, the Shakyian king of Kapilavastu and his queen Maya.
Buddha's main teachings are contained in the Four Noble Truths (Arya Satya) and the Eight- Fold Path, (Arya Ashtangik Marga).
3. **The Four Noble Truths**
• Dukkha – The world is full of sorrow.
• Dukkha Samuddaya – The cause of sorrow is desire.
• Dukkha Nirodha – Sorrow can be stopped by killing desires.
• Dukkha Nirodha Gamini-Patipada – Sorrow can be ended by the eight-fold path.
4. The Angas and the Purvas are the sacred texts of the Jains. First preserved through the oral tradition, the teachings of Mahavira were subsequently written down in 14 Purvas. Later, these were arranged into 12 Angas.
They adopted Prakrit, the language of common people. The Jain literature includes epics, novels and dramas. The famous epics of Jainism are Jivka Chintamani, written by Tiruthakkadevar and Silapadhikaram, written by Ilango Adigal.
- C. 1. Prince Siddhartha once went out on his chariot to visit the city where he lived with his parents. While travelling around, he saw the successive days of a sick man, an old man, a dead person and a hermit.

He was so disturbed after seeing these sights, that he quietly left home at the age of 29 to seek answers to the problems of sufferings. This event is termed as Mahabhinishkramana. He practiced severe penance in the forest near Gaya for six years.

Finally, he found answers to his questions and attained under a peepal tree at the modern Bodh Gaya in Bihar.

2. The Eight-Fold Path

- Right faith
- Right speech
- Right living
- Right remembrance
- Right thought
- Right action
- Right efforts
- Right meditation

While following the Eight-Fold Path, one should neither give up all worldly possessions, nor live in luxury. He called this the Madhya Marga or the Middle Path. Historians place the date of the Buddha's passing away between 486 BCE to 483 BCE in Kusinagar, in the present day Uttar Pradesh.

3. He stressed that freedom from the cycle of birth, death and rebirth was Nirvana or moksha and this could be attained by following the Three Jewels or Triratnas of Jainism – right faith, right knowledge and right conduct or action. The teachings of Mahavira may be summed up as follows :

Ahimsa : non-violence towards all beings.

Satya : speaking the truth.

Asteya : the practice of not stealing.

Tyaga : not owning property and leading a detached life.

Brahmacharya : leading a life of celibacy.

4. There were many causes for the spread of Jainism. These were :
 - Mahavira preached in Prakrit, the language of the common people.
 - Many kings patronised Jainism. They made Jainism popular.

- Mahavira rejected the caste system. This attracted a large number of followers.
- The Jain munis or monks spread Mahavira's teachings to southern and western India. Later, it spread to Kalinga in Orissa (present day Odisha) and the southern district of Tamil Nadu. Gradually, it penetrated Malwa, Gujarat and Rajasthan.

Chapter 8

The Earliest Societies

Objective Types Questions

- A.** 1. (c); 2. (b); 3. (b); 4. (d)
- B.** 1. Takshashila, Chanakya, Kautilya; 2. delegations, dhamma; 3. Aramaic, Kharoshthi; 4. large, efficient
- C.** 1. T; 2. T; 3. F; 4. F

Subjective Types Questions

- A.** 1. Chandragupta Maurya founded the Mauryan Empire.
 2. Bindusara was the son of Chandragupta Maurya.
 3. Ashoka ruled for nearly 40 years.
 4. Stupas were dome-shaped structures where relics of the Buddha or Buddhist monks were kept. The Stupa at Sanchi (near Bhopal) is known as the Great Stupa.
- B.** 1. Alexander was a great military leader. He had a highly skilled army under the control of brave and committed commanders. He was the king of Macedonia in Greece. He invaded north-western India conquering all the kingdoms in his route. This was the period when the Nandas were ruling over Magadha.
 2. Chandragupta Maurya might have been born around 340 BCE. It seems that Chandragupta served the Nandas for some time, and sought refuge in the northwest. There, he learnt the art of warfare. He got support and inspiration from a wise Brahmin teacher at Takshashila (now in Pakistan) named Chanakya or Kautilya. He was a teacher at Takshashila University. Impressed with Chandragupta's talent, Chanakya decided to give him proper training in

warfare and statecraft. With his help, Chandragupta established the Mauryan empire in Magadha in 321 BCE. This was the first empire in the history of India.

3. Ashoka is regarded as one of the greatest rulers in the world. He ruled from his capital Pataliputra. Revolts in Ujjain and Takshashila were crushed by him.

When Ashoka came to the throne, Kalinga was the only major kingdom which was unconquered. In 261 BCE, Ashoka marched against Kalinga (modern Odisha) and conquered it after a fierce battle. He was moved by the massive slaughter and bloodshed. So, he resolved not to fight another war. He decided to conquer the people by love and compassion. After the Kalinga War, Ashoka embraced Buddhism. It became a world religion due to Ashoka's efforts.

4. (a) Ashoka was even more concerned about his subjects and made a lot of efforts to ensure their comfort and convenience. He built good roads for the travellers. Fruit trees were planted along the roads. To provide the travellers with shade and food, wells were dug at regular intervals to provide water, rest houses were built. Ashoka also built many hospitals both for people and animals. For the cultivation of medicinal herbs, Ashoka set up a number of nurseries.

(b) The Mauryas had a large army headed by a Senapati, the army commander. He was responsible for the warfare and maintenance of army. The Mauryan army included infantry, cavalry, elephants, chariots and navy.

(c) The Mauryan king maintained a large and efficient spy system. The spies were trained. Most of the spies were women. They were posted in different parts of the kingdoms. They informed the king about the development within the kingdom and outside. The spies also collected public opinion on different important issues.

- C. 1. Dhamma is a Prakrit form of the Sanskrit word Dharma, Ashoka accepted dhamma Vijaya, that is, conquest through

dharma. Ashoka's dhamma was mainly influenced by Buddhism. It was based on tolerance, non-violence and respect for elders. The main principles of dhamma are :

- To live together in peace and harmony
- To speak the truth
- To respect other religions
- To follow the path of ahimsa, that is, nonviolence and non-injury to all living creatures
- To show charity to the poor and be kind to all
- Masters should be kind to their servants
- Children should respect and obey their elders

Spread of Dhamma

- Ashoka himself followed the principles of dhamma and he issued edicts (royal orders) to spread the message of dhamma.
- Ashoka himself toured the kingdom. He also sent a number of royal delegations abroad (Ceylon, Syria, Egypt, Burma, etc.) to spread the message of dhamma in other countries. His son Mahendra and daughter Sanghamitra led one such delegation that reached Ceylon (now Sri Lanka). He appointed special officers called dhamma mahamattas (or dharma mahamatras) to interpret and carry out royal orders.

2. Administration Under the Mauryas

The Mauryan empire administrative system functioned at four levels : Central, Provincial, District and Village. The capital city of Pataliputra was administrated separately.

Central Administration : The king was the supreme authority. He took all important decisions. A council of ministers (mantri parishad) assisted him. The various branches of administration such as agriculture, defense, revenue, security, etc were under officials called amatyas.

Provincial Administration : The empire was divided into four big provinces Tosali (in the east), Ujjain (in the west), Suvarnagiri (in the south) and Takshashila (in the north).

Each province was headed by a Kumara or royal prince. The Kumara was assisted by Mahamatya (Prime Minister) and a Mantri parishad (council of ministers).

District Administration

Each province was divided into a number of districts. The head of the district was pradeshta. He was assisted by junior officials such as the yuktas and the rajukas.

Village Administration : Each district consisted of many villages. The village was the smallest political unit. Its head was dharmadhyaksha.

4. Ashoka paid special attention towards art and architecture. The remains of stupas, stone pillars and monasteries reflect the mastery of the Mauryan craftsman over stone.

Stupas were dome-shaped structures where relics of the Buddha or Buddhist monks were kept. The Stupa at Sanchi (near Bhopal) is known as the Great Stupa.

The Ashokan pillars were made of sandstone. These were beautifully polished.

They have finely carved animal figure at the top, called the Lion Capital. The most famous pillar is at Sarnath near Varanasi. Four lions sitting back to back and facing the four directions are carved on the top of this pillar. Below each lion is a wheel or chakra. The Lion Capital is now the National of the Government of India. The wheel or Chakra has found a place in our National Flag.

5. The Mauryan empire began to break up after the death of Ashoka in 232 BCE. A number of causes contributed to the decline of the empire. These are briefly discussed below :
 - Ashoka was succeeded by a series of weak rulers who were not able to control the vast empire.
 - Mutual discord and disunity among royal siblings and scions also contributed to the decline of the empire.
 - The empire had become too big. It became difficult to control the provinces located far away from the centre. Gradually, they became independent.

- The taxes could not be collected properly and timely.
- The empire became financially weak. The army and administrative machinery was large.
- The officers became corrupt which affected the entire administrative system.
- Ashoka's policy of non-violence and tolerance dissatisfied brahmins. The popularity of Buddhism due to royal patronage too had reduced their income. So they revolted.

Chapter 9 The Age of Second Urbanisation

Objective Types Questions

- A.** 1. (d); 2. (d); 3. (d); 4. (c)
- B.** 1. Rajagriha, Pataliputra, Vaishali, Benaras, Mathura;
2. Sangam; 3. Adichannallur, industrial; 4. Roman coins
- C.** 1. T; 2. T; 3. F; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A.** 1. Rajagriha, Pataliputra, Vaishali, Benaras (now Varanasi), Mathura, Kaushambi, Shravasti, Ayodhya and Kapilavastu.
2. Many Indian products like Indian silk, fine cotton cloth called muslin, ivory goods, precious stones, pearls, medicines and spices were in great demand overseas.
3. Northern Black Polished Ware Pottery was made during this period.
4. Bhrigukachchha, Surparaka
- B.** 1. The increased pace of urbanisation in the post-Mauryan phase is referred to as the second urbanisation. Some of the towns that flourished during the post-Mauryan period were Rajagriha, Pataliputra, Vaishali, Benaras (now Varanasi), Mathura, Kaushambi, Shravasti, Ayodhya and Kapilavastu.
2. The use of iron became extensive. This along with the improved knowledge of cultivation, increased the area of cultivation, and consequently resulted in agricultural surplus.

3. This was a special type of pottery that was used by people during this period. It was black in colour and had a glossy surface. The remains of such pottery have been found in the Gangetic Plains of Uttar Pradesh and Bihar, central, eastern and southern India.
 4. In the Tamil region, a number of urban centres flourished. Most important among these were Madurai, Uraiyur, Puhar, Kaveripattanam, etc. Uraiyur was a famous centre of craft. Evidences found at Adichannallur in Tamil Nadu indicate that it had trade relations with other regions. Adichannallur was a mining and industrial town.
- C. 1. The increased pace of urbanisation in the post-Mauryan phase is referred to as the . Some of the towns that flourished during the post-Mauryan period were Rajagriha, Pataliputra, Vaishali, Benaras (now Varanasi), Mathura, Kaushambi, Shravasti, Ayodhya and Kapilavastu.
2. The key features of the second urbanisation are discussed below :

Iron Tools and Implements

The use of iron became extensive. This along with the improved knowledge of cultivation, increased the area of cultivation, and consequently resulted in agricultural surplus.

Urban Centre

Many of these early cities were the capitals of the janapadas and the mahajanapadas. Sometimes, the cities grew around crafts and trading centres. Vaishali and Varanasi were centres of art and crafts, such as textiles, ivory making, etc.

Coins

Earlier, the mode of trade was barter. Gradually, coins came to be recognised as a mode of trade. By the Mauryan period, a large number of coins were in circulation. This led to an increase in coin minting techniques.

Guilds

During the second urbanisation, the trading class grew.

People organised themselves into shrenis or guilds. Each guild had its own president called the pramukha or shreshthin.

Extension of Trade

This period of flourishing trade saw the extension of trading networks. Indian kingdoms traded with Sri Lanka, Burma, Java, Malaya and several western countries too.

Northern Black Polished Ware Pottery

This was a special type of pottery that was used by people during this period. It was black in colour and had a glossy surface. The remains of such pottery have been found in the Gangetic Plains of Uttar Pradesh and Bihar, central, eastern and southern India.

3. During the second urbanisation, the trading class grew. People organised themselves into shrenis or guilds. Each guild had its own president called the pramukha or shreshthin.

Membership to the guild was hereditary. There were two kinds of guilds – merchant and craft. Traders and merchants comprised merchant guilds; while leather and ivory workers, gold smiths, weavers, carpenters, etc formed the crafts guild. They also sometimes served as banks.

Internal and external trade flourished with the expansion of towns. Some of the major imports were wine, copper, tin, lead, coral, topaz, gold and silver coins; while the major exports were cotton, woollen and silk cloth, carpets, medicines, essence, oils, ivory goods, pearls, gems, etc.

4. Major Cities

In the Tamil region, a number of urban centres flourished. Most important among these were Madurai, Uraiyur, Puhar, Kaveripattnam, etc. Uraiyur was a famous centre of craft. Evidences found at Adichannallur in Tamil Nadu indicate that it had trade relations with other regions. Adichannallur was a mining and industrial town.

Kaveripattnam was a port city. The plan of this city is described in the Tamil epic Silappadikaram. The city was divided into two areas – residential and harbour.

Chapter **10**

Kings, Merchants and Pilgrims

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (b); 2. (d); 3. (a); 4. (c)
B. 1. Yajnasri Satakarni; 2. Kerala; 3. Kushanas, the Pahlavas, the Shakas; 4. Indo Greeks, Shakas, Parthians, Kushanas
C. 1. F; 2. T; 3. F; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. Andhras
2. 500 BC to 500 AD
3. The most powerful Chola kings were Karikala, Rajaraja and Rajendra.
4. Agriculture was the main occupations of Satavahanas.
- B. 1. The Satavahana traded through a network of well-connected roads. Outside India, trade was carried on with west and south-east Asia. Broach, Kalyan and Sopara were centres of trade with countries like Persia, Iraq, Egypt and Arabia. The cities on the east coast traded with Burma and Malaya.
2. The Kushanas were a nomadic tribe belonged to the Yueh-Chih tribe living near China. The founder of the Kushana dynasty in India was Kujula Kadphises. Vima Kadphises succeeded him and conquered parts of north India. He called himself as lord of the world.
They established themselves at Takshashila and Peshawar after defeating the Indo-Greeks, the Pahlavas and the Shakas. Later, they occupied the whole of Kashmir and Punjab and parts of present day Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh.
3. The word Sangam means 'assembly' or 'conference'. Basically, Sangam was the gathering of scholars under the patronage of the Pandyas of Madurai. Sangams of the

Tamil poets were held between 500 BC – 500 AD. Of the three Sangams, poems of the first two Sangams have been lost, except one, Tamil Grammer. The outcome of the third Sangam was the compilation of the eight anthologies which probably is the earliest literature we have in Tamil.

4. Shakas (Scythians) : The Shakas were nomadic people of Central Asia. They defeated the Indo-Greeks and came through the Hindukush mountains in the first century CE. They settled down in Western India and gradually spread all over the region. Rudradaman I (130-150 CE) was the most powerful Shaka ruler. He annexed Gujarat, Sindh, Saurashtra, Narmada Valley, Malwa Kathiawar, Western Deccan and Konkan. His capital was Ujjain. Rudradaman I used titles like Maharaja (great king) and Maharajadhiraj (King of kings).

C. 1. The Satavahanas ruled in the Deccan for nearly 300 years (100 BCE to 220 CE). The capital was Pratisthan (modern Paithan in Maharashtra) on the River Godavari.

The Satavahana dynasty was founded by Simuka after the fall of Mauryas. Simuka ruled for 23 years.

A prominent position was given to women in the society. The kings were known after the names of their mothers. A matronymical system prevailed in the society, like Gautamiputra Satakarni was the son of Gautami.

The greatest ruler of the Satavahana dynasty was Gautamiputra Satakarni (106 CE – 130 CE). He extended his kingdom up to Sanchi in the north and River Krishna in the south. He was known as the 'Lord of South'. His successor Vasishthiputra Pulumayi (130 CE – 154 CE) married the daughter of the Shaka king Rudradaman. The last great ruler of the dynasty was Yajnasri Satakarni (165 CE – 194 CE). He had a large army. He conquered some areas from the Shakas and sent naval to Malaya.

2. Kingdoms of the South

The region lying south of the River Krishna was known as Tamilakam or the Tamil region. Cholas, the Pandyas and

the Cheras dynasties ruled in this region. The Sangam literature is our main source of information on these kingdoms. This age was known as the Sangam Age.

The Cholas : The Chola kingdom was in the Kaveri Delta. Between the Pennar and the velur river popularly known as Cholamandalam. In Tamil Nadu, the areas comprising the Tiruchi-Thanjavur regions were under the Cholas. They had two capitals – Uraiyr, near Tiruchi, as the main capital and the port city Kaveripattinam, as the secondary capital. The symbol of the Cholas was the tiger.

The Pandyas : The Pandya kingdom comprised the districts of Tirunelveli, Ramnathpuram and Madurai in Tamil Nadu. Madurai was their capital and fish was their emblem. The Pandya kingdom was wealthy and strong. There were major changes in the living standards of the people of Tamil Nadu. Arikamedu (Pondicherry) was a port city.

The Cheras : the Keralaputras : The Cheras had ruled over the whole of present day Kerala and north-west Tamil Nadu. Their capital was Karur Vanji. The bow was their emblem. The most famous Chera king was Neduncheral. He fought against the Cholas and the Pandyas. The Chera rulers encouraged trade. They had trading contacts with Rome and Egypt.

3. The king was the supreme authority. He was assisted by a council of ministers and officials. The king was advised by a special body called Sabha on important matters. Local bodies looked after the local issues of administration. All the three southern kingdoms maintained a huge army. The revenue came from land and trade for the upkeep of the army. Merchants had to pay taxes when they took their goods from one place to another.
4. Buddhism under the royal patronage of the Mauryas spread throughout the Magadha kingdom from East to West. In north-west India, Takshashila was an established religious centre.

Religious preachers spread the teachings of Buddha up to Gandhara and then to Central Asia. Afghanistan became an important centre of Buddhism. Various monasteries, stupas and colossal statues of the Buddha are testimony to the importance of Buddhism.

Buddhism also spread to the countries of Southeast Asia. Ashoka sent his son Mahendra and daughter Sanghamitra to Sri Lanka and his officials to Java, Sumatra, Vietnam, Thailand and Cambodia to preach Buddhist ideas. The great Stupa at Borobudur in Java is dedicated to Buddha.

Today, Buddhism is a popular religion in central and south-east Asia.

Chapter 11

The Gupta Empire

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (b); 2. (c); 3. (c); 4. (a)
B. 1. Samudragupta; 2. Ashvamedha; 3. Rathavali, Priyadarshika, Nagananda; 4. Pulkeshin I, 535 CE
C. 1. T; 2. F; 3. T; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. Chandragupta I founded the Gupta Empire.
2. An inscription engraved on a pillar at Prayag (now Prayagraj), known as the Prayag Prashasti, is the main source of information regarding the conquests of Samudragupta and his personal qualities.
3. Provinces were called bhuktis and districts were called Vishayas.
4. Varahamihira wrote Brihat Samhita
- B. 1. Sri Gupta founded the Gupta kingdom. The Guptas started as the ruler of a small kingdom in the present day Bihar. It covered some parts of northern and central India. Ghatotkach Gupta, one of the successors of Sri Gupta, further expanded the kingdom. During the reign of Chandragupta I, the kingdom rose to prominence. He was the significant ruler of the Gupta Empire.

2. He defeated twelve kings of the south and four kings of the north. He wisely decided not to take control of territories that would be difficult to rule directly from Magadha. He set up indirect control over these territories and got tributes from them.

According to the Prayag Prashasti, Samudragupta's rule extended from the Himalayas in the North to the River Narmada in the South, and from the Brahmaputra in the East to the Yamuna in the West.

He extended his power up to Kanchipuram in the South. He compelled the kings of South India, to pay an annual tribute as a token of their subjugation.

3. **Administration** : The Guptas had a well organised administration. The king was all powerful. A council of ministers assisted the king in administrative matters.

The empire was divided into bhuktis (provinces), which were further divided into Vishayas (districts). Princes were usually appointed as governors of bhuktis. They were assisted by a group of officials called Kumaramatyas. The vishayas were administered by the ayuktas. There was also a district council in each vishaya. A council of village elders looked after village administration.

The Gupta administration was decentralised in structure. The officials of the various bhuktis and vishayas enjoyed a certain degree of autonomy and independence.

4. **Bhakti Movement** : Though the Pallavas were the followers of Hinduism, they were tolerant towards other religions. Around the time when they ruled in South India, a group of people started to believe that religion was essentially a subject of personal devotion or bhakti to God. Some of these people were popularly known as Tamil saints or Bhakti saints. They were devotees of Lord Vishnu (alvars) and Lord Shiva (nayanars). They travelled from place to place singing hymns in praise of God. The Bhakti saints commanded great respect in South India.

- C. 1. **Social Life** : People led a happy, comfortable and prosperous life.

Agriculture was the main occupation of the people. The caste system had become extremely rigid. The chandalas or untouchables were looked down upon by others. They lived outside the towns and performed menial jobs for the higher castes.

Trade : Agriculture, trade and industry flourished. During the early phase of the Gupta rule, both internal and external trade prospered. Trade flourished on the Western Coast with the ports of Bharuch, Sopara and Kalyan. The Guptas had trade contacts with Western Asia, Africa and Arabia. Goods exported from India included spices, pearls, ivory, etc. Perfumes, textiles and precious stones were the major items of trade. The rulers issued gold and silver coins as a medium of exchange.

2. **Art and Architecture** : Architecture flourished under the patronage of the Gupta kings. The temple architecture with different styles became very popular. Early temples had a large room where the idol or idols were placed. The temples constructed at Deogarh, Sanchi and Bhattargaon were very famous. Stones and bricks were used for construction and the temple doorways were very decorative.

The Gupta Age is famous for its murals (wall paintings) which can be seen in the Ajanta Caves. Ellora caves near Nasik are famous for Buddhist shrines.

3. **Science**

All branches of science made rapid progress during this period.

Astronomy : Aryabhatta and Varahamihira were two wellknown scientists and astronomers of this age. Aryabhatta wrote 'Suryasiddhanta' while Varahamihira wrote 'Panchasiddhantika' (five schools of astronomy).

Aryabhatta stated that the Earth moves around the Sun

and at the same time, it moves on its own axis. Aryabhata wrote Aryabhatiyam.

Mathematics : Indian mathematicians had contributed remarkably to the field of mathematics and came up with the concept of zero, the decimal system and the numerals.

Metallurgy : The branch of science that deals with the properties of metals is known as metallurgy. The Iron pillar at Mehrauli, Delhi, built during this period, has remained exposed to the Sun and rain for over 16 centuries.

Medicine : Ayurveda, a system of medicine based on herbs and plants, was very popular at that time and many diseases were cured with the help of this system. Doctors attended to patients in hospitals which were built during this period. Dhanvantri was the greatest physician of this time. Vridhavagra Bhatta and Brahmagupta were physicians of repute.

4. Deline of the Gupta Dynasty

There were a number of factors that led to the decline of the Gupta dynasty.

- The successors of Skandagupta were very weak, inefficient and incapable of keeping the vast kingdom under their control.
- Capitalising on the weakness of the centre, the governors of provinces revolted and broke away.
- Land-based grants in lieu of cash made the officials strong and independent. This proved to be a setback for the empire.
- The attacks by the Huns, a nomadic tribe from Central Asia, weakened the empire and led to its decline.

Chapter 12 Culture and Science of Our Past

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (a); 2. (a); 3. (b); 4. (d)
- B. 1. Rigveda, Samveda, Yajurveda, Atharva; 2. Bhagvat Gita;
3. Mauryan, Ashoka; 4. Valmiki, Ved Vyas

C. 1. T; 2. F; 3. T; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. Rigveda, Samveda, Yajurveda, Atharvaveda.
2. Panini composed Ashtadhyayi.
3. 14 Purvas and 12 Angas
4. Dhanvantari was are some jain texts famous physician who lived during the Gupta period.
- B. 1. The Mahabharata is a religious epic. It was composed by Ved Vyas. Originally it contained 8,800 verses and was called Jaya Samhita. Later the number of verses was increased to 24,000. Today, the Mahabharata has 1,00,000 verses. It is the story of the Kauravas and the Pandavas and also includes the Bhagvat Gita, a dialogue between Krishna and Arjuna on the battlefield about the struggle between good and evil.
2. During the ancient period, many travellers and pilgrims came to India. During the reign of Chandragupta II, Fa-Hsien stayed for six years in India (405-411 CE). He wrote an account of his stay in India. His account gives a detailed description of the life of the people under the Guptas. Some centuries later, another Chinese traveller Hiuen-Tsang came to India during the rule of Harsha Vardhana. I-Tsing was another traveller who wrote about India.
3. The Satavahanas were also patrons of architecture. Most of the Satavahana architecture was religious, especially Buddhist Chaityas (worship halls), stupas and viharas. A beautiful Chaitya Hall at Karle (near Pune) is a fine example of Satavahana architecture.
4. The Neolithic humans probably made the first sculpted objects. The Indus Valley people sculpted things by using clay and mud. The stone workers of the Mauryan period mastered the art of polishing stone. With the coming of the foreigners, the art of sculpting developed further. The Gandhara and Mathura Schools of Art flourished during

the Kushana period. The Gandhara School combined Greek art styles with the Indian style. The Mathura School produced images in purely Indian style.

- C. 1. There are two famous Indian epics – the Ramayana and the Mahabharata. They remain the most popular texts and have been rendered in several languages of the world.

The Ramayana was composed by Valmiki. Originally, the epic had 6,000 verses. Later, the number went up to 12,000 and finally to 24,000. It is the story of Rama, the ruler of Ayodhya and his war with Ravana, the king of Lanka.

The Mahabharata is a religious epic. It was composed by Ved Vyas. Originally it contained 8,800 verses and was called Jaya Samhita. Later the number of verses was increased to 24,000. Today, the Mahabharata has 1,00,000 verses. It is the story of the Kauravas and the Pandavas and also includes the Bhagvat Gita, a dialogue between Krishna and Arjuna on the battlefield about the struggle between good and evil.

2. India made rapid progress in art and architecture. The earliest architecture in the Indus Valley Civilisation characterises well-planned cities and houses. Architecture reached perfection during the reign of the Mauryan rulers, particularly Ashoka. Ashoka built a large number of Stupas, Viharas and monasteries. The Dhamek Stupa at Sarnath is a masterpiece.

Architecture flourished under the patronage of the Gupta kings. Many temples were built during the Gupta period. During this period, Buddhist art flourished. The Dashavatara Temple at Deogarh (near Jhansi), the temple at Bhitargaon (near Kanpur) and the temple at Sanchi in Madhya Pradesh are beautiful examples of Buddhist architecture. They were constructed of bricks and stones. The cave temples at Ajanta also belonged to this period. Nalanda University was established by the late Gupta rulers. It was the first residential university in the world.

3. Sculpture : The Neolithic humans probably made the first sculpted objects. The Indus Valley people sculpted things by using clay and mud. The stone workers of the Mauryan period mastered the art of polishing stone.

The Sarnath School flourished during the Gupta period. One of the finest examples of Gupta sculpture is the statue of the seated Buddha.

The Pallavas and the Chalukyas were also patrons of sculpture. Mahabalipuram has many sculptures carved on rocks.

Painting : In India, the practice of painting on rocks and walls began from the Stone Age.

In Bhimbetka, many prehistoric paintings have been found. Under the patronage of the Guptas and the Chalukyas, paintings were done on cave temples in Ajanta. These paintings are called murals. They depicted themes from the life of Buddha. The colours were made from minerals and plants and still retain their glow.

4. Ancient India was very advanced in science. The town planning of Indus Valley people was based on scientific methods. Among other fields like mathematics, astronomy, metallurgy and medicine all touched new heights.

In the fields of astronomy Romaka Siddhanta, a great work on astronomy was composed during this period. Aryabhatta and Varahamihir were two of the most famous astronomers and mathematicians.

Charaka wrote a famous book called Charaka Samhita. Sushruta was an expert in plastic surgery. It is believed that he performed thousands of operations, particularly the reconstruction of the nose. Sushruta wrote the medical treatise Sushruta Samhita describing as many as seven branches of surgery.

The science of metallurgy improved to a great extent. The Iron Pillar at Mehrauli, which has not rusted yet, was cast during the Gupta period.

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (d); 2. (a); 3. (a); 4. (b)
B. 1. Universe; 2. light years; 3. Red planet; 4. Oval
C. 1. T; 2. T; 3. F; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. Space is the part of the universe. The universe consists of stars, planets, comets, constellations, galaxies and all other forms of matter and energy.
2. The distance in space is measured in light years. A light year is the distance in space travelled by light in one year.
3. Mercury, Venus, Earth, and Mars are called inner planets as they are closer to the Sun.
4. Pluto, Ceres, Eris, Makemake and Haumea are dwarf planets.
- B. 1. There is a large vacuum beyond the sky. This vacuum has many celestial bodies. This is called space. Space is the part of the universe. The universe consists of stars, planets, comets, constellations, galaxies and all other forms of matter and energy. On the other hand, space is the void that exists between celestial bodies.
2. A galaxy is a vast cluster of stars, planets, gas, dust, etc which are held together in space by gravity. There are billions of galaxies spread out in the universe. A galaxy may have billions or trillions of stars.
Galaxies have different sizes, shapes and brightness. Galaxies may be elliptical, spiral and irregular in shape.
3. Stars are formed in millions of years. They begin their lives in a nebula which is a cloud of gas and dust. Soon, the nebula becomes a hot dense ball and the centre heats up. This hot core becomes a star, giving out great amount of heat and energy. These are located at various distances

from the earth. The sun is the nearest to the Earth. The next nearest star is Alpha star centauri.

4. Meteors are tiny pieces of metal or rock, which come into existence when asteroids break up. Most meteors burn up before they even reach the earth. When these objects fall on the earth's surface, they are called meteoroids. Large meteoroids can cause huge craters when they fall on the earth and other planets.

Many large fragments of rock do not get destroyed as they complete their journey to the earth. Such meteoroids are called meteorites.

- C. 1. The Big Bang theory describes how the universe expanded from an initial state of high density and temperature.

It is supposed that the universe originated from a gigantic explosion of a cosmic egg. This is called the 'Big Bang'. In the beginning, atoms were formed and later molecules. They ultimately formed as a giant cloud of gases and tiny dust particles called the nebula. Particles of the spinning nebula attracted each other and collided with a very high speed. This collision resulted in release of huge amount of heat and glowing bodies such as stars. This is how the stars were born. Scientists have concluded that the universe is still expanding as new stars are being born.

2. The Eight Planets of the Solar System

Mercury : Mercury is the smallest planet in the Solar System. It is the closest planet to the Sun. It takes 88 days to revolve around the Sun once.

Venus : Venus is the hottest planet. It is also called Sister Planet of the Earth as its size is almost the same as that of the earth. It is the brightest planet in the night sky and easy to spot from the earth. It is also called Morning Star or Evening Star.

Earth : The earth is the fifth largest and the third nearest planet to the Sun. It is the only planet that has life. It is called the Blue Planet.

Mars : Mars is often referred to as the Red Planet because of the presence of red soil. It has an atmosphere with clouds and polar caps.

Jupiter : Jupiter is the largest planet of the Solar System with faint rings around it. It is about 318 times heavier than the earth.

Saturn : Saturn is the second largest planet in our Solar System. It is known for its rings.

Uranus : Uranus is the third largest planet. It is four times larger than the earth. Uranus is similar to Jupiter and Saturn in its composition but is cold.

Neptune : Neptune, also called the Blue Giant, is the farthest planet in the Solar System. It spins quite rapidly on its axis taking only 16 hours 7 minutes for one rotation.

3. Satellites are small heavenly bodies which revolve around the planets. The moon is the only satellite of the earth. Like planets, they also do not have any heat or light of their own.

They reflect the light from the sun. Satellites may be human-made or natural. Human-made satellites are sent into space to collect information on celestial bodies. They are launched into the orbit using rockets. The moon is a natural satellite of a planet. Jupiter, Saturn, Uranus, Neptune and Mars have many moons while Mercury and Venus have no moons at all.

4. The moon is the brightest object in the night sky which reflects light from the sun. The moon is about 3,84,400 km away from the earth.

The surface of the moon is rocky and covered with dust. It has large holes on its surface called craters. There is no air on the moon. It has no life of any kind.

The various sizes of the Moon, visible to us during a month, are called the Phases of the Moon. The day we see a complete circular moon is called the Full Moon day. After the Full Moon day, the size of the Moon gradually

decreases everyday and after 15 days it disappears. This is called the New Moon day. After the New Moon day, size of the Moon starts increasing and the Full Moon is once again visible after 15 days.

These changes are due to the amount of light of the sun falling on it as it moves around the earth.

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (a); 2. (b); 3. (c); 4. (d)
B. 1. Northern hemisphere, Southern hemisphere;
2. Torrid zone; 3. 111.32 km; 4. 82 1/2° E meridian
C. 1. T; 2. F; 3. T; 4. F

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. A globe is a model of the earth which represents the earth in its actual shape.
2. Grid is a pattern of straight lines crossing each other to form squares.
Graticule is a network of lines representing meridians and parallels.
3. Axis
4. There are three heat zones on the earth—torrid, temperate and frigid zones.
- B. 1. To study the earth, man made many efforts and he made a model of the earth which helped us to know about the whole earth. This model is called a globe.
A globe is a true model of the earth. It has an axis slightly tilted just as the earth. It is shown to rotate on a line passing through its centre. This line is known as its axis. Its two ends are known as the North Pole, and the South Pole. These two poles are the two fixed points of reference on the earth's surface.
2. Geographers and cartographers use a geographic grid system, with the help of which the location of any place on the earth can be found. You must have noticed lines

crisscrossing a globe or a map. These are the lines of latitude and longitude. They form the grid system called graticule.

3. There are three major thermal zones into which our planet is divided. These are also known as heat zones.

The Torrid Zone is the area between the Tropic of Cancer in the north and the Tropic of Capricorn in the south.

The Temperate Zone is the area between the Tropic of Cancer and the Arctic Circle in the north, and that between the Tropic of Capricorn and the Antarctic Circle in the south.

The four annual seasons, spring, summer, autumn and winter, occur in these areas. All European countries lie in this zone.

The Frigid Zone lies between the Arctic Circle and the North Pole, and the Antarctic Circle and the South Pole.

4. Standard time is the time that the residents of a time zone or a country follow. It is the local time of the central or standard meridian chosen by that country.

In India, the local time of the $82\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}\text{E}$ meridian has been selected as the standard time. This is known as the Indian Standard Time of IST. The $82\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}\text{E}$ passes through Prayagraj (Allahabad), which lies roughly at the centre of the country.

- C. 1. Every place on the earth has a unique and definite location. Each one of these places has an address of its own. This is called the absolute location.

Geographers and cartographers use a geographic grid system, with the help of which the location of any place on the earth can be found. You must have noticed lines crisscrossing a globe or a map. These are the lines of latitude and longitude. They form the grid system called graticule.

So, the absolute location of a place would be mentioned as a latitude number followed by the longitude number. For

example, the absolute location of Mumbai on the globe is 18°N latitude and 72°E longitude.

2. Lines of latitude are circular imaginary lines. They run horizontally, in a west-east direction. The equator is the central and the longest latitude. The equator represents the 0° latitude and thus, is a reference point. All the other lines, drawn at a distance of 1° angle, go on increasing in value but reducing in length till they converge into a point. That is how the North Pole and the South Pole measure 90° each. All the latitudes are measured as angles from the centre of the earth (north or south of the equator).

As latitudes run parallel to each other, so they are also called parallels of latitude. The latitudes to the north of the equator are denoted by the letter N, while those to south of the equator are denoted by the letter S.

The important latitudes are as follows :

- the equator (0°)
 - the Tropic of Cancer (23½°N) in the Northern Hemisphere
 - the Tropic of Capricorn (23½°S) in the Southern Hemisphere
 - the Arctic Circle (66½°N) in the Northern Hemisphere
 - the Antarctic Circle (66½°S) in the Southern Hemisphere
3. Meridians of Longitudes are imaginary lines running vertically from the North Pole to the South Pole. The longitudes are also known as meridians. In all, there are 360 meridians. The distance between two longitudes is measured in degrees. Each degree is further divided into minutes and minutes into seconds.

The Central longitude is the Prime Minister. It divides the Earth into two vertical halves—the Eastern Hemisphere and the Western Hemisphere. The meridians are of equal lengths. It has been decided that the count should begin from Greenwich in England. The Prime Meridian is therefore also called the Greenwich Meridian. It is

regarded as the 0° longitude. The remaining longitudes are measured as angles east or west of the Prime Meridian. There are 180 meridians of longitude on the east of the Prime Meridian, and 180 on its west.

4. No direction (E or W) is required to refer to the 180° longitude. It is because the 180° longitude represent both the 180°E and the 180°W longitudes. It runs through the Pacific Ocean and is called the International Date Line. However, it is not a straight line. Let us see how this line works. When you travel east across the International Date Line, you need to subtract a day. Similarly, you gain one day when you travel west across the 180° longitude. 180° meridian is 12 hours away from the Prime Meridian in either directions.

Chapter 3

Motions of the Earth

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (b); 2. (a); 3. (a); 4. (a)
B. 1. rotation, revolution; 2. 365, 5, 48, 46; 3. 93 millions;
4. Tropic of Cancer ($23\frac{1}{2}^\circ\text{N}$).
C. 1. T; 2. F; 3. F; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. The two motions of the earth are—Rotation and Revolution.
2. Rotation of the earth is the spinning on its axis.
3. Revolution is the movement of the earth in which it moves around the sun.
4. The occurrence of the day and night is the result of the rotation of the earth.
- B. 1. The earth takes one year or $365\frac{1}{4}$ or 365 days 5 hours 48 minutes and 46 seconds to complete one revolution. The extra 6 hours in four successive years are added together that amount to one day. So, after four years, we get a year with 366 days instead of the usual 365 days. Such a year is called a leap years.

2. The imaginary line that divides the day from night on the globe is called the circle of illumination.
3. Tides are another effect of the earth's rotation. The gravitational force of the moon pulls the water in the oceans and causes water to rise when it is overhead. This is called high tide. When the moon is farthest from the earth, the water level recedes. This is called low tide. This movement happens twice a day.

4. Effects of Rotation

Day and Night : The earth's axis is tilted $23\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ or $66\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ with the plane of its orbit. This plane is called the orbital plane of the earth. When the earth rotates, one part faces the Sun and has daylight, while the opposite side, which is away from the Sun, is in darkness and experiences night.

Tides : Tides are another effect of the earth's rotation. The gravitational force of the moon pulls the water in the oceans and causes water to rise when it is overhead. This is called high tide. When the moon is farthest from the earth, the water level recedes. This is called low tide. This movement happens twice a day.

- C. 1. The moving around the Sun by the earth is called revolution. As the orbit is elliptical and the earth tilts while revolving, there are times when the earth is at its farthest distance or closest distance from the sun. The farthest distance is called Aphelion and the closest is called Perihelion. The earth takes one year or $365\frac{1}{4}$ or 365 days 5 hours 48 minutes and 46 seconds to complete one revolution.

The extra 6 hours in four successive years are added together that amount to one day. So, after four years, we get a year with 366 days instead of the usual 365 days. Such a year is called a leap year.

2. Effects of Revolution

Seasons : The earth orbits around the Sun, its axis remains

tilted at $23\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ in the orbital path. This means that as the earth revolves, the Northern Hemisphere faces the sun for half of the year and tilts away from it for another other half. It also means that different locations on the earth face the Sun at various times of the year. This constant inclination of the earth on its axis, combined with the revolution of the earth, causes different seasons.

When the Northern Hemisphere faces the Sun, it is summer in the Northern Hemisphere and winter in the Southern Hemisphere. On the other hand, when the Southern Hemisphere tilts towards the Sun, it has summer while the Northern Hemisphere has winter.

3. Equinoxes

Spring Equinox : On 21st March, the Sun is directly overhead on the equator. On 21st March, the Sun crosses the equator to move into the Northern Hemisphere. So, every place on the earth has 12 hours of daylight and 12 hours of night. This is called the spring or vernal equinox.

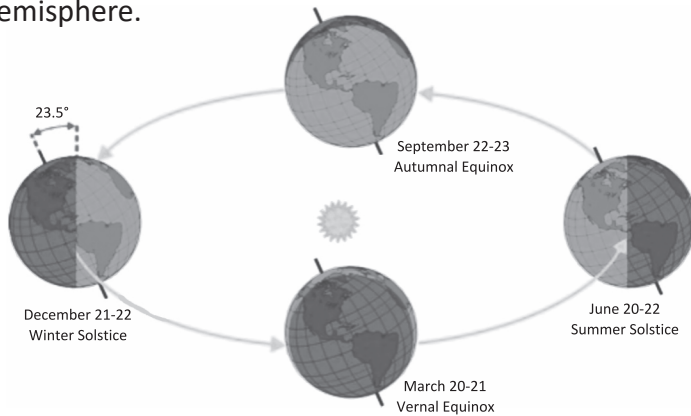
Autumnal Equinox : On 23 September, the sun is overhead on the equator again. The sun again crosses the equator but to move into the Southern Hemisphere. On this day, the Northern Hemisphere has autumnal or fall equinox while the Southern Hemisphere has spring equinox.

Solstice

Summer Solstice : On 21st June, the Sun is overhead on the Tropic of Cancer ($23\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}\text{N}$). This is called the summer solstice in the Northern Hemisphere. Because of the tilt of the earth's axis, the circle of the illumination does not pass through the poles and the places north of the Arctic Circle have 24 hours of daylight.

Winter Solstice : Since the earth keeps revolving, the rays of the Sun fall directly on the Tropic of Capricorn on 22nd December. This is the longest day in the Southern

Hemisphere but the shortest day in the Northern Hemisphere.



Equinox and Solstice

4. You may have wondered why the day time is longer in summer and shorter in winter. This is because of the inclination of the earth on its axis. During summer a large part of the Northern Hemisphere remains inclined towards the Sun. So, there are longer hours of daylight during summer. In contrast, a large part of the Southern Hemisphere is away from the Sun, experiences longer hours of darkness and, therefore, has longer nights. However, the areas around the Equator have 12 hours of daylight throughout the year.

Chapter **4**

Reading Maps

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (d); 2. (d); 3. (c); 4. (d)
 B. 1. sizes, earth; 2. scale, map; 3. Conventional; 4. linear scale, verbal statement, representative fraction
 C. 1. T; 2. F; 3. F; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. A map shows weather, tourist spot, physical features etc. in great detail.
 2. Green colour is used to show vegetation.

3. There are four cardinal directions—North, South, East and West and four intermediate directions—north-east, north-west, south-east and south-west.
 4. A sketch is a diagram that is drawn without taking into consideration the actual distance between places or direction.
- B.**
1. A representation of the earth's surface or a part of it on a flat surface drawn according to a scale is called a map. They are of different sizes and can show any place on the earth.
 2. The elements of a map are as follows :
 - Title** : The title of a map is the heading of the map which explains its main purpose. For example– political maps (shows boundaries of cities, villages, etc), physical maps (shows rivers, hills, plains, etc), weather maps (shows weather conditions), etc.
 - Distance** : Every small unit on a map represent some distance on actual ground. So, we use a scale to correctly represent the surface of the earth on a map.
 - Scale** : Scale can be defined as the ratio between a given distance on a map and the actual distance on the earth's surface.
 - Direction** : There are four main or cardinal directions North, South, West and East (NEWS).
 - Legends** : Legends or keys define the types or features shown on a map. It is a standard practice to use blue for all water bodies, green for vegetation, brown for physical features and black for names.
 3. **Linear Scale** : A straight line is drawn and it is divided according to the proportional distance on the ground.
 4. There are four main or cardinal directions North, South, West and East (NEWS) :
 - North is always at the top.
 - South is always at the bottom.
 - East is to the right.
 - West is to the left.

Generally, we use a magnetic compass to find the direction of a place. The needle of a magnetic compass always points in the north–south direction. In between the cardinal points, north, south, east and west, we have the intermediate directions—north-east, south-east, south-west and north-west.

- C. 1. **Sign and Symbols of Map** : Common signs and symbols that are universally accepted are known as conventional symbols. These symbols represent features such as mountains, rivers, forests, railway tracks, bridges, airports, temples, etc.

Legends : Legends or keys define the types or features shown on a map. It is a standard practice to use blue for all water bodies, green for vegetation, brown for physical features and black for names.

2. Three types of scales commonly used are :

Linear Scale : A straight line is drawn and it is divided according to the proportional distance on the ground.

Verbal Statement : Units of distance are mentioned on the map. For example, 1 cm = 100 km. This means that 1 cm on the map corresponds to a distance of 100 km on the ground.

Representative Fraction (RF) : In this, the units of distance are not mentioned. The ratio between the map distance and the ground distance is represented as a fraction. For example, 1 : 1,00,000. This means that 1 cm on the map represents 1,00,000 cm, that is 1 km on the ground.

3. On the based on content, maps are two types : Topographic and General Maps which summarizes the actual landscape. Other maps, especially the Thematic Maps that comment on specific feature types of a place.
4. **Sketch** : A sketch is a diagram that is drawn without taking into consideration the actual distance between places or direction. Important landmarks such as hospital, shops, offices, ponds, bridges, etc can be marked. It is not a map and is just a drawing from memory.

Plan : A plan is an outline drawing of a building or a room or a small area, using the accurate direction, symbols and distance. A plan gives many details whereas a sketch gives only the main features of the area to be studied. A plan is different from a sketch because it is drawn to a scale.

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (a); 2. (b); 3. (d); 4. (d)
B. 1. oceanic crust; 2. outer, inner; 3. 3330, S-shaped; 4. about 160 kilometres
C. 1. F; 2. F; 3. T; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. The earth is a home to many plants and living beings. The term realm means an area of specific dimensions. The environment that is suitable for life consists of four major realms or regions. They are—

- Lithosphere
- Hydrosphere
- Atmosphere
- Biosphere

2. It consists of nitrogen, oxygen, carbon dioxide, other gases and water vapour.

Major gases in the atmosphere

Gas	Percentage
Nitrogen	78.09%
Oxygen	20.95%
Argon	0.93%
Carbon dioxide	0.04%

3. The Pacific Ocean is the largest and deepest ocean in the world. The Arctic Ocean is the smallest of all the oceans and encircles the North Pole.
4. Exosphere is the uppermost limit of our atmosphere.
- B. 1. The earth is a unique planet. It is the only planet that supports life. It has land, water and air. Other planets do not have these and do not support life. The earth gets sunlight and heat in right amount not much not less. The

earth is a home to many plants and living beings. The term realm means an area of specific dimensions. The environment that is suitable for life consists of four major realms or regions. They are—

1. Lithosphere
 2. Hydrosphere
 3. Atmosphere
 4. Biosphere
2. Continents of Asia and Europe is together known as Eurasia. Asia and Europe are continents which are not separated by sea.
 3. The oceans, seas, lakes, rivers, streams, waterfalls, water vapour in the air, glaciers, ice and snow are all parts of the hydrosphere. More than 71 per cent of the earth is covered with water. So our earth is also called the blue planet.
 4. The narrow zone where all the other three spheres— land, water and air meet is called the biosphere. We find life forms on the surface of the earth's crust, within a few kilometres of the lower atmosphere, and even deep in the oceans. It supports between 5–30 million species of plants, animals and other small organisms.
- C. 1. A large landmass separated from the other landmasses by sea is called a continent. It is believed that all the continents were once joined together as the giant supercontinent called Pangaea. Now, there are seven continents in all. Most of these lie in the Northern Hemisphere.

Asia : Asia is the world's largest continent in terms of both area and population. It covers one-third of the earth's total land surface, and is surrounded by the Arctic Ocean in the north, the Indian Ocean in the south and the Pacific Ocean in the east. It has the highest mountain (the Mt. Everest) and the lowest point (Mariana Trench) in the world.

Africa : Africa is the second largest continent in the world. It covers about one-fifth of the earth's land surface. It is surrounded by the Atlantic Ocean in the west and the Indian Ocean in the east. Africa is joined to Asia by the Isthmus of Suez.

North America : North America is the third largest continent in the world. It is surrounded by the Arctic Ocean in the north, the Atlantic Ocean in the east, and the Pacific Ocean in the south and west. North and South America are joined by the Isthmus of Panama.

South America : South America is the fourth largest continent in the world. It covers one-eighth of the earth's land surface. It is bounded by the Pacific Ocean on the west and the Atlantic Ocean on the north and east.

Europe : Europe is the second smallest continent. It covers about one-fifteenth of the earth's land surface. It is bounded by the Arctic Ocean in the north, the Atlantic Ocean in the west, the Mediterranean Sea and the Black Sea in the south.

Antarctica : Antarctica is the fifth largest continent. It is almost entirely covered by huge sheets of ice. It lies in a circular pattern around the South Pole. With an average elevation of 2,195 m, it is the world's highest continent.

Australia : Australia is the only continent that is also a country. It is the smallest continent. It is surrounded on all sides by oceans and seas and is also known as the Island continent.

2. Apart from the four major oceans—the Pacific, Atlantic, Indian and Arctic—many geographers call the water surrounding Antarctica as the Southern Ocean. It is the place where the water of the Pacific Ocean, Atlantic Ocean and Indian Ocean merge. Water of the oceans is saline due to the high quantity of mineral salts.

The Pacific Ocean : The Pacific Ocean is the largest and deepest ocean in the world. It covers one-third of the earth's surface. It is surrounded by Asia, Australia, North America and South America.

The Atlantic Ocean : The Atlantic Ocean is the second largest ocean. It covers one-fifth of the earth's surface. It separates Europe and Africa; and North America and South America.

The Indian Ocean : The Indian Ocean is the third largest ocean. It covers one-seventh of the earth's surface. The Indian Ocean is about 3,890 m deep. It is the only ocean named after a country – India.

The Arctic ocean : The Arctic Ocean is the smallest of all the oceans and encircles the North Pole. It is surrounded by North America and Eurasia, and has an ice cover. Its average depth is about 1,998 m.

The Southern Antractic Ocean : The Southern Antarctic Ocean is located around the South Pole across the Antarctic Circle in the Southern hemisphere. It is home to emperor penguins and albatrosses.

- 3. Air Temperature :** The atmosphere is heated as gases, dust particles and water vapour present in the air absorb heat. As we go up, the air becomes thinner, hence the heat absorbed by the air is also less. Therefore, air temperature decreases with height.

Atmospheric Pressure : The atmosphere is kept in place due to the earth's force of gravity. Air has weight and it exerts pressure on the earth's surface. We do not feel it because there is equal pressure inside our body and it gets counterbalanced.

Water Vapour : The air contains some amount of water vapour which is called humidity. It varies from place to place. As you know, water vapour enters the atmosphere through evaporation from the water bodies on the earth's surface, hence humidity of the air decrease with height.

4. Interdependence of the Four Realms of the Earth

The atmosphere and the hydrosphere cause the surface of the lithosphere to be eroded or weathered, changing its look over millions of years. They also support the biosphere as they are sources of gases such as oxygen, carbon dioxide and water. The biosphere, comprising all the living organisms, in turn, regulates the atmosphere and affect the hydrosphere in a variety of ways.

Objective Types Questions

- A.** 1. (a); 2. (a); 3. (b)
- B.** 1. continents, deep; 2. timber, wood; 3. tableland;
4. resources, minerals
- C.** 1. T; 2. F; 3. T; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A.** 1. The difference in elevation between the highest and the lowest parts is called relief.
2. Exogenic process causes erosion and deposition.
3. The lava that flows from the vents of volcanoes causes the formation of volcanic plateaus. The Deccan Plateau in India was formed in a similar manner.
4. Tectonic Plains are formed by internal forces causing uplift of sea coasts, such as the low-lying coastal plains of the Malabar Coast along the western sea coast of India.
- B.** 1. Endogenic process is the internal process. It is the process in which some forces act within the earth. This results in the upliftment or sinking of the earth's crust. This is how mountains, hills and plateaus are formed.
2. Endogenic process is the internal process. It is the process in which some forces act within the earth. This results in the upliftment or sinking of the earth's crust.
- Exogenic process is the external process. It is the process in which forces are generated by external agents like wind, water, sun, tides, glaciers, etc on the earth's surface. It results in the erosion and deposition.
3. They are classified as intermontane plateau, lava plateau, crustal plateau, residual plateau and continental plateau, etc.
4. Both land and water are being used in various ways by humankind. Nowadays, a large part of both the resources is being misused and wasted. There will be no water and all the land would gradually become a wasteland. We have

to, and need to make a conscious effort in working towards a healthier and greener earth.

- C. 1. Fold mountains are formed by a collision between tectonic plates within the earth. This causes land to fold and lift up. When the horizontal layers of sediments deposited on the seabed are subjected to the force of pressure from both sides, they are squeezed and folded and get lifted up.
2. • Mountains form an ecosystem wherever they occur.
• Mountains are centres of biodiversity where various kinds of plants and animals are found living together.
• Most rivers like the Ganga originate in the mountains and are fed by the mountain glaciers.
• Mountains have beautiful sports that attract tourists and thus, provide employment to people and help in livelihood.
• Mountains are also a source of minerals.
• The forest in the mountains provide timber and wood products for daily use.
3. The vast area of flat elevated land that is generally bounded by steep slopes is called a plateau. They are also called tableland. Plateaus cover nearly 45 per cent of the land surface. They are store houses of minerals.

Types of Plateaus

Plateaus are of three types based on their formation.

Continental Plateau : These plateaus rise suddenly from the sea or nearby lowland. The Chota Nagpur Plateau, the Plateau of Western Australia and the Plateau of South Africa are continental plateaus.

Intermontane Plateaus : Intermontane plateaus are high plateaus surrounded by mountains. The plateau of Tibet is the highest 4,000 to 6,000 metres intermontane plateau in the world.

Volcanic Plateaus : The lava that flows from the vents of volcanoes causes the formation of volcanic plateaus. The Deccan Plateau in India was formed in a similar manner.

Crustal Plateaus : When the magma below the lithosphere pushes the crust on top but is unable to break through. As a result, the entire flat land surface above it, is uplifted.

Piedmont Plateaus : They have mountains on one side and on the other side either there is a lowland or a sea.

Residual Plateaus : After the wearing down of millions of years of erosion, some old fold or block mountains get converted into plateaus.

4. A relatively flat or gently rolling lowland is called a plain. Plains cover one-third of the earth's land surface. They are generally not more than 200 metres above the sea level.

Sygnificance of Plains

Among all landforms, plains are the most valuable to humans. Therefore, they have become densely populated and are centre of industry, transportation and business.

- River plains have been the centre of ancient civilisation.
- The level land helps in building houses, roads and railways. The rivers too can be used for transportation.
- Water – an important resource for humans, agriculture and industry – is easily available in the plains.
- Plains generally have fertile soil suitable for agriculture. Besides, the flat land is easily cultivable.

Chapter 7

India : Physical Division

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (b); 2. (a); 3. (b); 4. (c)
B. 1. Arabina Sea, Bay of Bengal; 2. the Greater Himalayas, the Lesser Himalayas, the Outer Himalayas; 3. Indira Gandhi Canal; 4. 572
C. 1. F; 2. T; 3. T; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. Peninsula is a land surrounded by water on three sides.
2. The neighbouring countries of India are—Pakistan, Afghanistan, China, Nepal, Bhutan, Bangladesh and Myanmar.

3. The marshy region at the base of this range is called the Terai.
4. There are two island groups—the Andaman and Nicobar Islands and Lakshadweep Islands in India.

B. 1. Political Division

There are 28 states and 8 union territories in India. Delhi is the national capital of India. The newly added union territories are Ladakh, and Jammu and Kashmir added on August 6, 2019. Rajasthan is the largest and Goa is the smallest state in India. The states are further divided into districts. Among Union Territories, the Andaman and Nicobar Islands in the Bay of Bengal is the largest while Lakshadweep in the Arabian Sea is the smallest union territory.

Physical Division

India can be divided into six distinct physical regions.

- The Northern Mountains
- The Northern Plains
- The Peninsular Plateaus
- The Coastal Plains
- The Indian Desert
- The Islands

2. The Himalayan mountains form the northern mountains of India. They are the highest mountain ranges in the world. These mountain ranges start from Pamir Knot in the west and extend up to Purvanchal in the north-west to the borders of Myanmar in the east and form an arc.

3. The Northern Plains stretch south of the Himalayas from west to east for about 2,400 km. The river systems of the Ganga, the Indus and the Brahmaputra formed these plains. These are densely populated areas.

The main part of the Northern Plains is formed by the Ganga. It is drained by the River Ganga and its tributaries. It flows through Uttarakhand, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar and West Bengal. The river then flows into Bangladesh, where it is known as the Padma.

4. The easternmost part of the Great Plains is formed by the Brahmaputra Valley. Assam is drained by the Brahmaputra and its tributaries, the Subansiri, the Bharali, the Manas,

the Dhansiri and the Teesta. The Brahmaputra river rises near Lake Mansarovar in Tibet, it is known as Tsangpo. The Ganga and the Brahmaputra rivers join in Bangladesh. These two rivers together form the Ganga-Brahmaputra Delta or Sunderbans, a major part of which lies in Bangladesh. It is the largest delta of the world.

- C. 1. Mountain chain is made up of three parallel ranges— the Greater Himalayas, the Lesser Himalayas and the Outer Himalayas.

The Greater Himalayas : It is also called Himadri. These are the highest mountains with an average elevation of above 6,100 m. Mount Everest (8,848 m) on the Nepal-China border, Kanchenjunga (8,586 m) on the Indo-Nepal border, and Nanda Devi (7,816 m) in Uttarakhand are found here. Mt Everest is the highest peak in the world. This range is permanently covered with snow and has glaciers like the Siachen, Gangotri and Yamunotri.

The Lesser or Moddle Himalayas : It is also called Himachal. It lies to south of the Greater Himalayas. The average height ranges between 3,700 m and 4,500 m. This range is marked by fast flowing rivers and streams, and steep gorges.

The Outer Himalayas : It is also called the Shivalik. It has an average height of 350 m to 1,500 m. This range lies between the Northern Plains and the Lesser Himalayas. The Outer Himalayas are dotted with flat valleys or duns in between, such as Dehradun.

2. The Northern Plains are fertile and important for the economy of the country. Agriculture is the main occupation of our country.
3. The desert region of India lies to the west of the Northern plains in western Rajasthan known as the Thar Desert. This desert extends into Pakistan. It is bounded in the east by the Aravalli range, on the south by the Rann of Kutch, and on the west by the Indus river.

The Aravalli hills divide Rajasthan into two parts. The Western part of Rajasthan is the Great Indian Desert.

The Luni is the only large river in the region. Lake Sambhar is an important salt water lake here. The Indira Gandhi Canal carries water from the river Satluj to other areas in the desert.

4. There are two island groups—the Andaman and Nicobar Islands and Lakshadweep Islands in India.

The Andaman and Nicobar Islands are situated in the Bay of Bengal. They consist of 572 islands out of which only 37 are inhabited and thickly forested. The smaller Nicobars are separated by a channel called the “Ten Degree Channel” which is around 150 km wide.

The Lakshadweep Islands consist of small, horeshoe-shaped 36 islands in the Arabian Sea. Lakshadweep officially consists of 12 atolls, 3 reefs and 5 submerged banks. They are located closed to the Malabar Coast.

Many of the islands in Lakshadweep are formed by Coral polyps.

Chapter 8

Climate of India

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (c); 2. (d); 3. (c); 4. (a)
B. 1. equable, wet; 2. Shikla, Rajasthan; 3. moisture; 4. clear, low, low, cool
C. 1. T; 2. F; 3. T; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. Latitude, altitude, distance from the sea, mountains are the factors that affect climate.
2. India is located within the tropical (in southern India) and subtropical (in northern India) zone.
3. The coastal areas have a more equable or moderate climate, with much less difference between summer and winter temperature.

4. Yes, monsoon is seasonal in nature.

B. 1. The average weather condition of a particular area over a long period of time is known as climate. It plays a very vital role in shaping the economy and the environmental diversity of a country.

2. Altitude refers to height. So temperature decreases with increase in altitude. Places in the mountains are colder than places in the plains. As for instance, Shimla and Ludhiana are situated in the same latitude, yet Shimla being located at higher altitude has a cooler climate.

3. The retreat of the monsoon winds starts in the second week of September.

The months of October and November are marked by clear skies and warm days but cooler evenings. By December, the temperature goes down to mark the onset of winter season.

The cyclones originating over the Bay of Bengal reach the eastern coast of India and cause widespread damage to life and property.

The annual cycle of seasons is dominated by the monsoons. All forms of life – plants, animals and human beings in India respond to the seasonal rhythm created by monsoons.

4. The rainfall in India is not evenly distributed. The distribution can be divided into four main categories as follows :

- Regions under very heavy rainfall
- Regions under heavy rainfall
- Regions under moderate rainfall
- Regions under low rainfall

C. 1. **Factors affection the Climate of India**

Latitude : The Tropic of Cancer runs through almost the middle of the country. So, most of India lies in the tropical

and sub-tropical zones. Therefore, the temperature is quite high throughout the country.

Altitude : Altitude refers to height. So temperature decreases with increase in altitude. Places in the mountains are colder than places in the plains.

The Himalayas : The Himalayas stand in the north. It acts as a barrier against the cold winds from Northern and Central Asia. Thus, North India is warm or mildly cold during winters. In summer, the same phenomenon makes India relatively hot.

Distance from the Sea : Places away from the ocean and sea have extreme temperature and continental climate. The climate of the coastal areas is moderate. Their climatic conditions are determined by the sea and land breezes.

Coastal Areas and Places Near the Sea : The coastal areas have a more equable or moderate climate, with much less difference between summer and winter temperature. The ocean acts as a storehouse of moisture for the winds that blow from the sea towards the land.

Winds : When there is a difference in atmospheric pressure between two regions, air moves from the region of higher pressure to the region of low pressure. The movement is called wind. The monsoon is a seasonal wind which blows in a fixed direction during a particular season.

Western Disturbances : The cold weather is generally characterised by clear skies, low temperatures, low and light and cool winds. These conditions are disturbed by cyclones coming from the Mediterranean Sea. These cyclonic winds are known as Western Disturbances.

2. The Himalayas stand in the north. It acts as a barrier against the cold winds from Northern and Central Asia. Thus, North India is warm or mildly cold during winters. In summer, the same phenomenon makes India relatively hot. The Himalayas also forces the monsoon winds to shed

most of their moisture within the subcontinent and causes three-fourth of India's rainfall.

3. This season starts in the month of June and continues till the end of September. A low pressure area develops over north-west India due to excessive heating of land during the summer season. The south-east trade winds cause the bulk of rainfall in many parts of India. The amount decreases from south to north and east to west. However, the Tamil Nadu coast remains dry at this time.

The sudden advent of monsoon winds along with thunder or lightning is called the burst of monsoon. The south-west monsoon winds reach India by the start of June. This is known as the 'Onset of Monsoon'.

4. Distribution of Rainfall

The rainfall in India is not evenly distributed. The distribution can be divided into four main categories as follows :

Regions Under Very Heavy Rainfall : These regions get more than 500 cm of rain in a year :

- The western coastal areas and slopes of the Western Ghats get very heavy rainfall from the south-west monsoon of the Arabian Sea branch, while the eastern slopes of the Western Ghats lie in the rain-shadow areas.
- In the Northern Plains, the rainfall decreases from east to west as the Bay of Bengal branch of the south-west monsoon sheds its moisture all along upto the Ganga Valley.

Regions Under Heavy Rainfall : The areas that receive 100 to 200 cm of rainfall come under this category. The south-eastern coast of India receives a moderate amount of rainfall during the winter season from the northeast monsoon and retreating south-west monsoon.

Regions Under Moderate Rainfall : These regions receive 50 to 100 cm of rainfall. These areas include Gujarat,

eastern Rajasthan, western Uttar Pradesh, Haryana, northern Punjab and most of the Deccan surrounded by hills on all the sides.

Regions Under Low Rainfall : These regions receive less than 50 cm annual rainfall. Northern Ladakh in Kashmir, Kinnaur and Lahaul-Spiti in Himachal Pradesh receive very little rainfall. These areas, however, do get snowfall in winter from the Western Disturbances. This gives rainfall to Punjab and Haryana in the plains.

Chapter **9**

Natural Vegetation and Wildlife of India

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (d); 2. (a); 3. (b); 4. (b)
- B. 1. hot and humid, Western Ghats, Assam, Meghalaya, Andaman and Nicobar Islands; 2. Sunderbans; 3. Marine Ridley turtles; 4. 106, 52, 164, 18
- C. 1. T; 2. T; 3. F; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. The natural vegetation of India can be classified as following—the tropical rainforests, the tropical deciduous forests, the thorny bushes, the tidal forests and the Himalayan forests.
2. Trees like teak, sal, shisham, mahua, sandalwood, rosewood, ebony and bamboo are Tropical deciduous forest.
3. The main trees are babul and keekar.
4. • Forests give shelter to large and diverse wildlife.
• Forests prevent soil erosion.
- B. 1. Different species of trees grow here which shed their leaves at different times of the year, that is why they are called evergreen.
2. The tidal forests or the mangrove forests are found in those areas that are flooded by the high tides of the sea.

The lower delta of the Ganga and the Brahmaputra rivers, called the Sunderbans, is full of Sundari trees which are a good example of mangrove trees.

3. The Himalayan forests are distributed according to the altitude. The Shivaliks or the foothills of the Himalayas are covered with tropical deciduous forests and sal is the most important tree. This is followed by sub-tropical hill vegetation in which evergreen oaks, chestnut and pine (chir) trees are found.

4. **The Tropical Deciduous Forests :** The tropical deciduous or the monsoon forests are mostly found in those areas where the average annual rainfall ranges from 100 cm to 200 cm. These areas extend from the Shivalik ranges in the north to the eastern side of the Western Ghats in the south.

C. 1. Vegetation is related to plants. Natural vegetation refers to the vegetation which grows naturally without any interference of humans. It is also called as virgin vegetation. Many a time, plants are also referred a flora. The term vegetation is used for the vegetation or plants as a whole while flora is restricted to plants of a particular region or period. The vegetation depends on the amount of rainfall in each area. The other factors which affect the growth of natural vegetation are land, soil, temperature and sunlight. At present, about 21 per cent of the total area of our country is under forests.

The natural vegetation of India can be classified into five major divisions. They are as follows :

- The tropical rainforests
- The tropical deciduous forests
- The thorny bushes
- The tidal forests
- The Himalayan forests

Importance of Forests

- Adequate forests help in making the environment stable which leads to increased agricultural products.
 - Plants inhale carbon dioxide and exhale oxygen and maintain the balance of these gases in the air.
 - Forests give shelter to large and diverse wildlife.
 - Forests prevent soil erosion.
 - Forests account for about 25 per cent of the fodder needs of our country.
 - They meet nearly 40 per cent of the energy.
2. The natural vegetation of India can be classified into five major divisions. They are as follows :

The Tropical Rainforests : The tropical rainforests or evergreen forests are found in hot and humid areas that receive heavy rainfall. The annual rainfall is more than 200 cm and well distributed. The rainy slopes of the Western Ghats, the hills of Assam and Meghalaya, Andaman and Nicobar Islands and some parts of West Bengal and Odisha are the house of these forests.

The Tropical Deciduous Forests : The tropical deciduous or the are mostly found in those areas where the average annual rainfall ranges from 100 cm to 200 cm. These areas extend from the Shivalik ranges in the north to the eastern side of the Western Ghats in the south.

The Thorny Bushes : These are mostly found in the areas with less than 80 cm average annual rainfall. The main trees are babul and keekar. Wild palms are common in wetter areas. Even the small trees have deep roots, thick skins and long thorns. These forests generally have an undergrowth of shrubs and thorny bushes in scanty rainfall areas.

The Tidal Forest : The tidal forests or the mangrove forests are found in those areas that are flooded by the high tides of the sea.

The Himalayan Forests : The Himalayan forests are distributed according to the altitude. The Shivaliks or the foothills of the Himalayas are covered with tropical deciduous forests and sal is the most important tree. This is followed by sub-tropical hill vegetation in which evergreen oaks, chestnut and pine (chir) trees are found.

3. India has great diversity in wildlife. The elephant, tiger, leopard, one-horned rhinoceros, Indian bison, sloth bear, hyena, mongoose, wolf, jackal, fox, porcupine, wild sheep, wild goat as well as several species of deer, antelope and monkeys are some of the wide range of animals found in India.

There are about 90,000 animal species found on land and water including 2,500 species of fish exclusive to India. About 1,200 species of birds are found in Indian forests including parrots, kingfisher and the peacock. Other than the national bird peacock, there are ducks, pigeons, parrots, geese, mynah, pheasants, etc among the wild variety of birds in India. India also has a variety of reptiles including snakes, crocodiles and turtles. Many species of birds migrate to India from cold countries during winter. Among them are various types of ducks and Siberian cranes.

4. Animals are very important part of our national heritage. We observe wildlife week in the first week of October each year. Projects have been taken up for the protection of elephants, tigers, rhinos and bustard. Several wildlife sanctuaries, about 106 national parks, 52 project tiger areas, 164 zoological parks and 18 biosphere reserves have contributed towards the conservation of animals and birds species in India. Anti-poaching laws are being implemented in a strict manner. Apart from these, steps like 'ECOMARK', labelling for environment are being implemented.

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (d); 2. (d); 3. (b); 4. (a)
B. 1. Diversity; 2. rumals, topis, turbans; 3. Intertwined; identity
C. 1. F; 2. T; 3. T; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. Diversity is the key feature of India.
2. Baisakhi in Punjab, Onam in Kerala, Pongal in Tamil Nadu, Makar Sankranti in Bihar and Uttar Pradesh and Bihu in Assam are which are harvest festivals .
3. The Indian constitution recognises 22 languages.
4. In spite of being diverse, all the citizens of India are one as an Indian. This is the unity in diversity of India.
- B. 1. The family is the smallest unit of social institutions. Some families are small or nuclear. Such families are mostly found in cities.
2. The 22 recognized languages by the Indian constitution are : Assamese, Bengali, Bodo, Dogri, Gujarati, Hindi, Kannada, Kashmiri, Konkani, Maithili, Malayalam, Manipuri, Marathi, Nepali, Odia, Punjabi, Sanskrit, Santhali, Sindhu, Tamil, Telugu and Urdu.
3. India is a secular country. A secular country gives its people the right to follow any religion of their choices and celebrate their religious festivals. India's oldest religion is Hinduism and the birth place of Buddhism, Sikhism and Jainism.
Religious communities consider India their home and live in peace and harmony. The government of the country treats people of all religions alike without any kind of discrimination.
4. The presence of a wide range of features in any sphere is called diversity.

Diversity can be in all fields of life. Diversity adds variety and makes our lives more interesting. India is a country of diversities. Diversity has been one of our most remarkable features. People of India are Indians first.

- C. 1. In India, there are the lofty Himalayas, fertile plains, the Deccan plateau, vast coastal areas, the arid Thar desert and many other landforms.

Regional Diversity : The existence of India depends on the interrelation of different regions and their dependence on one another. A person living in Delhi will get coconut grown in the coastal areas while a person living in the coastal areas will eat rice grown in the northern plains. All this is possible because the different regions of the country are connected to each other.

Geographical Diversity : The diversity in geographical features add a lot of variety to our culture as well. While a woman living in the hot and humid Bengal prefers wearing a cotton saree, woman living in the cold climate of Kashmir wears woollen phirans.

Religious Diversity : India is a secular country. A secular country gives its people the right to follow any religion of their choices and celebrate their religious festivals. India's oldest religion is Hinduism and the birth place of Buddhism, Sikhism and Jainism.

Linguistic Diversity : People of India speak different languages and dialects, and use different scripts. The primary official language is Hindi while the secondary official language is English. The government encourages every state to develop its language and culture.

Social Diversity : The family is the smallest unit of social institutions. Some families are small or nuclear. Such families are mostly found in cities. In joint families, parents, their children grandparents and other close relatives live together under a common roof, sharing food

from the same kitchen. Such families are mostly found in villages.

Cultural Diversity : Customs, beliefs and traditions of different communities have helped to promote cultural diversities in our country.

Kerala's snakeboat race shows the strong bond of people living in coastal regions with water. Similarly, Pushkar's camel fair shows how much the people living in the desert value the camel.

2. Forms of Diversity in India

Diversity in Attire : India is the only country in the world where unstitched clothing like saree, lungi, dhoti and turban is still popular. There are different styles to wear them depending upon the region. Many types of head-gears like rumals, topis and turbans are prevalent in India.

Diversity in Food Habits : The food habits of Indians depend on the availability of raw materials, cooking traditions, local spices and their religious faiths. India is well-known for its sweet-dishes, mostly based on sugar, milk and jaggery. Bengal is famous for its milk-based sweets.

Diversity in Cinema : Bollywood Mumbai Cinema is the largest movie-producing industry across the world. The cities like Kolkata and Chennai also produce movies. The South Indian film industry is known as 'Tollywood' (Telugu Cinema), and Kollywood (Tamil Cinema).

- 3. Linguistic Diversity** : People of India speak different languages and dialects, and use different scripts. The primary official language is Hindi while the secondary official language is English. The government encourages every state to develop its language and culture.
- 4.** In spite of all the differences, people living in India are Indians first. This unity has been a part of our history. People from all regions, religions and languages had come together to participate in our struggle for freedom.

When India became independent, the leaders ensured that the unity in diversity stays preserved.

Today, this unity in diversity is intertwined with the very identity of India. The Indian Army, the Indian Civil Service, the National Cricket, football and other sports teams, the popular movie industry—the diversity is apparent everyday. As future citizens of our country, it is important that we uphold the unique spirit of unity in diversity of our country.

Chapter **2**

Prejudice and Discrimination

Objective Types Questions

- A.** 1. (b); 2. (d); 3. (c); 4. (c)
B. 1. prejudice, discrimination; 2. inequalities; 3. superior caste, inferior; 4. care, attention
C. 1. F; 2. F; 3. T; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A.** 1. Prejudice is a poor attitude or opinion about a person or thing without knowing him or them.
2. Discrimination means to make a distinction among people on the basis of class, race, religion, gender, age, etc with no regard to their individual merit.
3. The practice of untouchability has been banned by the Indian Constitution.
4. Special children need our special care and attention. They need love, respect and acceptance by others.
- B.** 1. Prejudice means, forming an early opinion of a subject or a group, without the complete knowledge of facts. Prejudice affects our behaviour towards a person.
2. To understand what a stereotype is, let us consider these cases :
- All the girls are meant to cook, wash and do other household jobs because it is the duty of a woman to do household jobs.

- The statement like ‘Boys don’t cry’ shows our stereotype about boys being strong and girls being soft and weak.
 - Dheeraj is a miser as he belongs to a caste where all are misers.
 - Rita did not get good marks in maths. Her teacher tells her it’s okay because girls are not good at maths.
- 3.** An extreme form of discrimination was untouchability. Due to the efforts of social reformers the caste system as well as the practice of untouchability have been almost eradicated from the society. The practice of untouchability has been banned by the Indian Constitution.
- 4.**
- Focus on your strengths.
 - Create an anti-discrimination policy.
 - Avoid making exceptions.
 - Use inclusive language instead of derogatory.
 - Listen to others when they explain their ideas or experiences.
- C. 1.** All the girls are meant to cook, wash and do other household jobs because it is the duty of a woman to do household jobs.
Rita did not get good marks in maths. Her teacher tells her it’s okay because girls are not good at maths.
- 2.** In many places, women are still considered solely as homemaker and are denied right to education. In some places, there are rigid rules on what women can or cannot do. Very often employed women get paid much less than their male counterparts for the same amount of work done.
- 3.** India became independent on 15th August, 1947 and the Constitution of India came into force on 26th January, 1950. The framers of the Indian Constitution, led by the chairman of the Drafting Committee Dr B R Ambedkar, envisioned that all Indians should get equal rights and

opportunities and be considered equal. Only for some sections of the society which have been traditionally denied right to education, the Constitution has made some special provisions, called reservation.

Moreover, to ensure equality and justice, the constitution has granted every citizen of India certain basic rights, irrespective of their differences in terms of caste, creed, sex, race and religion. These are called the Fundamental Rights.

4. Some children are special, because they are differently-abled. Special children need our special care and attention. They need love, respect and acceptance by others. It is important that differently-abled children do not face discrimination. Till recently, regular schools did not admit children with special needs. So they had to attend 'special schools' meant for them. But now, there are many inclusive schools, where children with special needs get the opportunity to study together with other children.

Chapter **3**

Government of India

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (a); 2. (a); 3. (b); 4. (a)
- B. 1. government; 2. Central Government, State Government; 3. dictator; 4. the Indian democracy
- C. 1. T; 2. T; 3. T; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. The government is a body which governs a country.
2. The government has three organs—the legislature, the executive and the judiciary.
3. The Parliament consists of the two houses : Lok Sabha and Rajya Sabha.
4. The members of Legislative Assembly or MLAs make laws that are applicable to the people of their respective states only.

- B. 1.** A government is necessary to take decisions and to run the affairs of the country. There may be decisions regarding providing water, electricity and houses to the people; or constructing bridges, roads and canals; or setting up of schools, hospitals and factories.

The government protects the boundaries of the country and maintains peaceful relations with other countries.

- 2.** The legislature is the first organ of the government. It is the law making organ. The laws are made by the Parliament. The Parliament consists of the two houses : Lok Sabha and Rajya Sabha.

The members of the Parliament are called MPs. Every state of India has a separate legislature. It consists of a Vidhan Sabha (Legislative Assembly) and Vidhan Parishad (Legislative Council). The members of Legislative Assembly or MLAs make laws that are applicable to the people of their respective states only.

- 3.** The biggest problem with this kind of government is that the people have no right to choose their ruler. Even if the heir of a monarch is not capable enough to rule, the people have to accept him as their ruler. Bhutan has this form of government.

- 4.** In a representative democracy, elections play an important role. All adult citizens of the country have the right to cast votes, irrespective of their caste, creed, gender, etc. Right to vote is called franchise. When all the citizens of the country have the right to vote, it is referred to as universal adult franchise. India has democratic government. To govern India, it is divided into states and union territories.

- C. 1.** The main functions of the government are :
- To make laws and ensure that the people living in a country follow them.
 - To improve the infrastructure of the country and raise the standard of living of the people by providing

facilities such as roads, electricity, clean drinking water and healthcare.

- To prevent crime and maintain law and order.
 - To build bridges, dams, canals and highways.
 - To provide transport facilities in the form of buses, railways and airways.
 - To ensure economic development of the country.
 - To build schools, colleges and other educational institutions.
2. Our government has three organs—the Legislature, the Executive and the Judiciary.

The Legislative : The legislature is the first organ of the government. It is the law making organ. The laws are made by the Parliament. The Parliament consists of the two houses : Lok Sabha and Rajya Sabha.

The Executive : The executive implements the laws. Officially, India's Central Executive is responsible for the implementation of laws.

The President of India is its head, but the real powers lie with the Prime Minister and his/her Council of Ministers. A State Executive is headed by a Governor and run by its Chief Minister and his/her Council of Ministers.

3. **Monarchy** : A Monarchy is headed by a king or a queen. It is mainly a hereditary form of government. A monarch heads the government of a country, and he is assisted by a council of ministers.

The biggest problem with this kind of government is that the people have no right to choose their ruler. Even if the heir of a monarch is not capable enough to rule, the people have to accept him as their ruler. Bhutan has this form of government.

Dictatorship : Dictatorship is a form of government in which all the power rests with one individual – the dictator. The dictator does not adhere to any rules or laws

nor does he care about the welfare of the people. He rules according to his own whims and fancies. Hence, dictatorship is mostly oppressive.

4. Universal adult franchise is a significant feature of the Indian democracy. It was adopted as soon as Indian Constitution came into being. The first general elections held in the country in 1952, were based on universal adult franchise.

Earlier, only the rich and educated men had right to vote. Women and the people were not allowed to vote. It was only after long struggles, led by social activists and great campaigners for women's rights. Today, women in almost every country have voting rights.

Chapter **4**

Democratic Government

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (d); 2. (b); 3. (c); 4. (d)
B. 1. election; 2. Media, group discussions 3. resolve, peaceful;
4. secular
C. 1. F; 2. T; 3. F; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. A democracy gives equal rights to all the citizens.
2. The term 'apartheid' means 'separateness or 'apartness' in Afrikaans.
3. An important feature of democracy is that people participate in elections through which they choose their representatives to form the government.
4. Nelson Mandela was the leader of the ANC.
- B. 1. Elections give people a change to evaluate their leaders. Elections give people a chance to change the government. Elections help the people in the selection of their representatives. Elections given law making power directly to the people.

2. Elements of Democracy

An important feature of democracy is that people participate in elections through which they choose their representatives to form the government. In India, the government is elected for a period of five years. If people are happy with the performance of the government they can elect the same leader for the next five years. After the end of the period, they are free to elect a new government.

3. Newspapers, television channels and radio reports highlight important issues to keep people informed about the various developments and issues of key concern. Media sometimes organises group discussions among citizens to know their opinion on a particular issue. These help to understand the sentiments of the people.
 4. Women have been denied the right to education and other privileges for many centuries. So, the government has passed several laws to ensure justice for women and the girl child. Some states provide free education for girls till the secondary level. Income tax laws allow tax benefits for women. Girls can also claim a share in their parental property.
- C.
1. People also participate in the process of governance. If they feel that a particular policy of the government is against their interests, they can hold protest marches and rallies. They distribute pamphlets, hold meetings, perform street plays. Sometimes, protests get violent. Signature campaigns are also a form of protest. Groups of people also organise themselves into social movements to draw attention of the government. The Narmada Bachao Andolan and Chipko Movement are two examples of social movements.
 2. The term 'apartheid' means 'separateness or 'apartness' in Afrikaans. The dark-skinned people were denied all rights

and they were made to lead separate lives. They had separate neighbourhoods, schools, hospitals trains and buses. They did not even have the right to vote.

3. Freedom refers to the freedom of speech, expression, freedom to practise one's own religion, to do any job and to vote. Such freedoms are enjoyed by the people in a democracy, provided they do not break any laws or harm others in any way.
4. It is the duty of the government to resolve all conflicts in a peaceful manner. Sometimes, some vested interests ignite conflicts to serve their own purpose. If the conflicting parties cannot reach any amicable solution, they should approach the court of justice.

When a conflict arises between the houses of Parliament, it is resolved in a joint session of the Parliament. The conflicts between the centre and the states are resolved by the Supreme Court of India.

Chapter 5

Panchayati Raj

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (c); 2. (d); 3. (a); 4. (d)
- B. 1. Gram Sabha, Gram Panchayat, Nyaya Panchayat; 2. Gram Sabha; 3. Gram Panchayat; 4. Zila Parishad
- C. 1. T; 2. F; 3. T; 4. F

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. The local self-government for a rural area is called the Panchayat or Panchayati Raj.
2. The Panchayati Raj has three tiers—Zila Parishad, Block Samiti and Gram Panchayat.
3. The Nyaya Panchayat is the village court.
4. Members of the state legislature and members of the Parliament from the district are also members of the Zila Parishad.

- B. 1.** Every village Panchayat is divided into wards. The representative of the ward is known as ward member (panch). The Sarpanch and the ward members or the Panchs form the Gram Panchayat. The members of the Gram Panchayat are elected for a period of five years. Seats are reserved for members of the Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and for women. The Gram Panchayat has a secretary who is also the secretary of the Gram Sabha. He is appointed by the government.
- 2.** The Pradhan and members of the Gram Panchayat shall be elected by direct election under secret ballot by the members of the Gram Sabha from amongst themselves.
- 3.** A Block-Samiti is responsible for a block of 20 to 60 villages.

Members of the Block Samiti : Members of the Block Samiti are the Members of the Lok Sabha, the Rajya Sabha, the Legislative Council and the Legislative Assembly from the block. Seats are reserved for women, the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. Some members of the Block Samiti are elected by the people of the block.

- 4. Function of the Block Samiti :** The functions of the Block Smiti are as follows :
- It undertakes various social welfare schemes and relief works during the times of droughts and natural disasters.
 - It supervises the working of the Gram Panchayats within the block.
 - It provides basic education to the children.
- C. 1.** The Panchayati Raj has three tiers. Each state is divided into districts, blocks and villages. At the village level, it forms the Gram Panchayat; at the block level, it forms the Block Samiti or the Panchayat Samiti; and at the district or Zila level, there is the Zila Parishad.
- Zila Parishad (District level)

- Block Samiti (Block level)
- Gram Panchayat (Village Level)

2. Function of the Gram Panchayat

- Providing basic amenities such as clean drinking water and sanitation facilities to the villages.
- Maintaining healthcare centres and providing basic healthcare facilities to the people.
- Maintaining wells, tanks and pumps.
- Constructing and maintaining roads, street lights, etc.
- Providing educational facilities, constructing and maintaining school buildings.

3. The Nyaya Panchayat is the village court, responsible for three to four villages. Its members are elected by the Gram Panchayat. The Nyaya Panchayat has the following functions :

- It resolves minor disputes in the village, as petty thefts and provides speedy justice.
- The Nyaya Panchayat can impose fines on a person if found guilty but it cannot send him to prison.
- If a person is not satisfied with the judgement of the Nyaya Panchayat, he can appeal to a higher court.

4. Block Samiti

A Block-Samiti is responsible for a block of 20 to 60 villages.

Members of the Block Samiti : Members of the Block Samiti are the Members of the Lok Sabha, the Rajya Sabha, the Legislative Council and the Legislative Assembly from the block. Seats are reserved for women, the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. Some members of the Block Samiti are elected by the people of the block.

A chairperson or pramukh as well as a vice chairperson or the up-pramukh are elected by the members of the Block Samiti. The state government appoints a Block Development Officer (BDO) to take care of the administration.

5. Functions of the Zila Parishad

- It acts as a link between the state government and the Block Samiti/Gram Panchayat.
- It supervises the work done by the Gram Panchayat and the Block Samitis.
- The Zila Parishad is responsible for the overall development of the district.
- It supervises the implementation of projects under the Five-Year plans in the district.
- It imparts new techniques of training to farmers and maintains pastures and grazing lands.
- It maintains primary health centres and hospitals in village and conducts vaccination programmes.
- It looks after the development of cottage and small scale industries and opening of cooperative societies in the district.
- It establishes schools in the villages and conducts adult literacy programmes.

Chapter 6

Rural Administration

Objective Types Questions

- A.** 1. (b); 2. (c); 3. (a); 4. (d)
- B.** 1. Subinspector, Assistant Subinspectors, Constables, Head Constables; 2. sewing, carpentry; 3. District Collector, Deputy Commissioners; 4. District administration
- C.** 1. T; 2. F; 3. T; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A.** 1. Station House Officer is the head of a thana.
2. In the villages, the Sarpanch solves such disputes with the help of the land record officer or Patwari and the police.
3. Patwari collects the land revenue.
4. Public Works Department.
- B.** 1. The police maintains law and order. In each district, there is one Superintendent of Police (SP) who heads the police

administration. Each district is divided into five to six subdivisions. Each subdivision is headed by a Deputy Superintendent of Police (DSP). Subdivisions are further divided into Police Circles. An inspector is in charge of each circle. Each circle has about 10 police stations called Thanas. A thana is under the charge of a Station House Officer (SHO).

2. It is important that the khasra contains updated information about each plot of land. If a farmer digs a new well, or increases the area of cultivable land, it should be reported to the patwari immediately, so that his records can be referred to in case of a dispute.
3. District Civil Surgeon, Public Works Department.
4. The land revenue is collected by the Tehsildar. He works under the District Collector. The Tehsildar has the following functions :
 - supervising the works of the Patwari
 - hearing all land related disputes
 - proper maintenance of the land records and collection of land revenue
 - ensuring that if required, the farmers can easily obtain a copy of their land records.

At Subdivisional level, the subdivisional officer collects the revenue. He is a link between the Tehsildar and the District Collector.

- C. 1. The law and order are important because it acts as a guideline as to what is accepted in society. Without it there would be conflicts between social groups and communities. It is pivotal that we follow them. The law allows for easy adoption to changes that occur in the society.
2. The main duties of a Patwari are :
 - measuring the land and maintaining records of the size of land

- maintaining records of ownership and inheritance of land
 - maintaining records of the crops grown at every harvest season
 - providing information to the government about the crops grown, based on harvest inspection
 - reporting all serious calamities affecting the land or the crop, and outbreak of diseases among people as well as animals to the authorities
 - organising the collections of land revenue from the village
 - The patwari maintains a detailed report of each plot of land in a village.
 - After the harvest season, he conducts inspections to find out the yield of crops from each plot.
- 3.** All his records are written down in a report called the Khasra. A farmer has the right to ask for the khasra of his land if there is any dispute. It is important that the khasra contains updated information about each plot of land. If a farmer digs a new well, or increases the area of cultivable land, it should be reported to the patwari immediately, so that his records can be referred to in case of a dispute.
- 4.** The district administration provides basic amenities such as water, sanitation and healthcare to the people living in the district.
- The District Civil Surgeon is the head of health services in a district. He supervises the working of various health centres and hospitals in the district.
 - The government maintains schools and colleges in a district. The District Education Officer is responsible for the proper functioning of the schools.
 - The Public Works Department (PWD), headed by the Executive Engineer, looks after all work of construction and maintenance in a district.

- In case of natural calamities, the district administration provides relief to the people and also help in their rehabilitation.

Chapter **7**

Urban Administration

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (b); 2. (c); 3. (d); 4. (b)
B. 1. taxes, grants; 2. political party, five; 3. Municipal commissioner, administrative; 4. Municipal Corporation, private
C. 1. T; 2. F; 3. T; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. The state government appoints a Chief Executive Officer (CEO) of the Municipal Corporation.
2. Municipal Corporations hire private agencies as sub-contractors.
3. The two main sources of income for Nagar Panchayat are taxes and grants. Sales tax, vehicle tax, toll tax and property tax are the taxes levied and collected by them.
4. Today, we use different types of electronic products such as computers, mobile phones, televisions and washing machine. Such electronic waste is called e-waste.
- B. 1. **Urban Administration**

Waste Disposal : One of the major concerns of urban administration is the effective disposal of waste. There should be provisions for environment-friendly garbage bins for waste disposal, where biodegradable and nonbiodegradable wastes can be get collected separately.

E-waste : Today, we use different types of electronic products such as computers, mobile phones, televisions and washing machine. Such electronic waste is called e-waste. Proper disposal of e-waste is a major concern. Large ewaste centres are located in Delhi, Meerut, Ferozabad and Chennai.

2. The Municipal Corporation is an elected body. It looks after the civil administration of densely populated cities. The members of the Municipal Corporation are elected every five year.

Each city is divided into wards according to the size of the city. From each ward, one member is elected, who is known as the councillor.

All adult citizens can participate in the Municipal Corporation elections.

3. Sometimes, the Municipal Corporation seeks partnerships with private organisations. Municipal Corporations hire private agencies as sub-contractors. They do the work on behalf of the Municipal Corporation.

For the smooth functioning of urban administration, it is important that citizens cooperate with the administrative bodies. If they are not satisfied with something, citizens should deal with it in a peaceful manner.

4. Sources of Income of the Municipal Corporation

- Grants from the central and state governments
- Taxes such as property tax, education tax, water tax, road tax, entertainment tax and electricity tax, toll tax, income tax etc.
- Fee for issuing birth and death certificates

- C. 1. The Municipal Corporation is an elected body. It looks after the civil administration of densely populated cities. The members of the Municipal Corporation are elected every five year. Each city is divided into wards according to the size of the city. From each ward, one member is elected, who is known as the councillor. All adult citizens can participate in the Municipal Corporation elections.

Reservation : In the Municipal Corporation, some seats are reserved for the Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Other Backward Classes. One-third of the seats are reserved for women. The members of parliament and

members of the state legislatures elected from the city also become members of the Municipal Corporation. Some well-known residents of the city are nominated as members of the Corporation as well. They are called aldermen.

2. Function of the Municipal Corporation

- maintaining the cleanliness of the city, ensuring proper disposal of garbage and cleaning of drains
- providing supply of water and electricity
- building primary and secondary schools
- building hospitals and dispensaries and organising mass health camps and vaccination programmes
- keeping a record of births and deaths taking place in the city
- maintaining market places and public toilets
- maintaining street lights
- building and maintaining roads, libraries, parks, museums and community centres
- maintaining fire stations and providing firefighting services

3. Nagar Panchayat is the local self-government in small towns, with a population more than 30,000 and less than 1,00,000. The members of the Nagar Panchayat are also elected and the number of members depends on the size and population of the town. Usually, it varies between 9 to 20. A Nagar Panchayat is elected for a period of five years. These members should be at least 21 year of age. Everyone above the age of 18 years can vote in the elections.

The two main sources of income for Nagar Panchayat are taxes and grants. Sales tax, vehicle tax, toll tax and property tax are the taxes levied and collected by them.

4. Waste Disposal

One of the major concerns of urban administration is the effective disposal of waste. There should be provisions for

environment-friendly garbage bins for waste disposal, where biodegradable and nonbiodegradable wastes can be get collected separately.

While it is the duty of the urban administration to provide proper garbage disposal facilities, it is the duty of all the citizens to utilise these facilities to keep their city clean and hygienic.

Objective Types Questions

- A.** 1. (a); 2. (b); 3. (d); 4. (d); 5. (d)
B. 1. weather, climate; 2. own; 3. very less; 4. agricultural labourers; 5. kiosks; 6. permanent shops; 7. government
C. 1. T; 2. F; 3. T; 4. T; 5. T; 6. T; 7. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A.** 1. A job or a profession that is followed to earn a livelihood is called an occupation.
2. There are three kinds of occupations—primary, secondary and tertiary.
3. A big farmer owns 20 hectares of land, as well as a number of cows, whose milk he sells in the market.
4. In many villages, there are dairy cooperatives, where villagers sell the milk. Apart from milk, different dairy products such as butter, cheese, paneer and ghee are prepared and sold by the cooperatives in cities all over the country.
5. Migration means a large gathering of people moving from one place to another. Rural people usually migrate to towns or big cities in search of jobs and better living standards.
6. There are many daily wage earners who work in different shops, offices and factories, and earn on a daily basis.
7. Self-Employed Women’s Association.

- B. 1. Occupations are categorised in three groups. They are as follows:

Primary Occupations : Primary Occupations are the occupations based on producing or extracting useful materials from the natural resources. Agriculture, mining, forestry, cattle raising, fishery, sericulture, etc are a few examples of primary occupations.

Secondary Occupations : Secondary Occupations are the occupations which process the raw materials produced by primary occupations is done and further converted into useful products. Textile industry, machine tool industry and oil-mills are a few examples of secondary occupations.

Tertiary Occupations : Tertiary Occupations are various services which are provided by the people who are experts in their fields. Banking, railways, postal services, medical services, etc are tertiary occupations.

2. Livelihood contribute to food security prevent dependency, reduce vulnerability, enhance self-reliance and can develop or build a set of specific skills during displacement. This may have a positive impact on internally displaced persons (IDPs) well-being and future opportunities.
3. Sometimes, he lends money to farmers to buy seeds, fertilisers, agricultural tools and implements. He also owns some shops in the main market of the village. The sugarcane that he grows in his fields is sold to the local sugar mill, and he is able to make a profit there too.
4. Fishing is a major occupation for people living in the coastal region. Generally, the men go out for fishing very early in the morning. The women sell the fish.

5. Urban Livelihood

Migration : Migration means a large gathering of people moving from one place to another. Rural people usually migrate to towns or big cities in search of jobs and better living standards.

Cause of Migration : Rural people are able to save and send some money to their dependents in villages to save them from starvation.

6. Most of the big government offices are located in cities. Many people are employed in these offices. Government jobs are permanent jobs with all the facilities like House Rent Allowance (HRA), Dearness Allowance (DA), Travelling Allowance (TA), etc. People who work in government offices may get transferred to different places periodically.
7. Many people in the cities work in offices. Offices can be in the government sector or owned by private individuals or institutions. These are mostly permanent jobs. The employees get a fixed salary at the end of each month and are also entitled to weekly holidays, casual leaves and sick leaves. Women employees are entitled to maternity leaves during childbirth. Bigger offices even have facilities such as provident fund. The employees also get holidays during festivals and are entitled to annual leaves.

- C. 1. Fishing is a major occupation for people living in the coastal region. Generally, the men go out for fishing very early in the morning. The women sell the fish.

A fisherman leads a tough life. He has to depend on the weather. Moreover, fishing cannot happen during the breeding season of the fish. In those times; they depend on various other odd jobs to earn a livelihood.

A large number of fishermen risk their lives and go out fishing even during bad weather. Sometimes, caught in the cyclones, many of them lose their lives. Even the modern fishing boats can get submerged during powerful cyclones. During the 2004 tsunami, a large number of villages along the coastal areas inhabited by fishermen were totally destroyed.

2. The Middle-level Farmers : A middle-level farmer, or a small farmer owns a small plot of land. During the harvest season, all his family members help him in the field. If the harvest is good, he makes a good profit. If the harvest is not very good, he does not earn much profit. In the next season, he takes loans to buy seeds, fertilisers and other things.

Big Farmers : A big farmer owns 20 hectares of land, as well as a number of cows, whose milk he sells in the market. During the harvest season, he employs many agricultural labourers to work on his fields.

3. Non-farming (non-agricultural) Livelihood

The kind of livelihood persuaded by people in an area depends on the physical features of that area as well as the availability of raw materials. People are engaged in pottery, collecting fruits and firewood from the forests and weaving. Blacksmithing, selling goods in shops, carpentering and teaching are some other occupations. Some people are engaged in animal husbandry and some work as labourers, while some are involved in small-time trading.

4. Dairy Farming : In many villages, there are dairy cooperatives, where villagers sell the milk. Apart from milk, different dairy products such as butter, cheese, paneer and ghee are prepared and sold.

5. In big cities and towns, thousands of people earn their living by working on the streets. Such people are called hawkers and street vendors. Hawkers and street vendors set up their temporary shops on the pavements, where they display their products on the ground, some of them set up small kiosks on the pavement while some use carts and move from one place to another.

6. Some people in the cities have set up their own shops or businesses. They are called the self-employed. Hawkers and street-vendors are also self-employed, but they do not own permanent shops. The self-employed generally have definite places, where they set their shops or businesses. Sometimes, they employ other people on a permanent or contract basis. Some self-employed people provide specific services, like teachers, electricians, carpenters, plumbers, lawyers and doctors.
7. The Business Process Outsourcing (BPO) industry has generated many jobs in India. A BPO is hired to provide services to a large company, which may be located in India or elsewhere. Foreign companies prefer setting up BPOs in India as they can employ staff at very affordable rates. BPO has revolutionised the urban livelihood sector and thousands of young people are employed in this sector. It has provided employment opportunities to students without professional degrees and has introduced a new BPO culture in the society.

Social Studies-7

Unit-1 : History

Chapter 1

The Medieval Period

Objective Types Questions

- A.** 1. (a); 2. (d); 3. (b); 4. (b)
- B.** 1. art, religion, economic conditions, trade; 2. Palm leaves bark of birch trees, animals' skin; 3. mythological tales, palace scene, forest life; 4. Turkish
- C.** 1. T; 2. F; 3. T; 4. F

Subjective Types Questions

- A.**
1. The Rajputs claimed their descent from Agni Kula.
 2. A mural is any piece of artwork painted or applied directly on a wall, ceiling or other permanent surface.
 3. Chand Bardai wrote 'Prithviraj Raso'.
 4. Sapta Sindhu, the land of seven river, Indoi, People of the Indus, Hindustan.
- B.**
1. The early medieval period lasted from the 8th to the middle of the 13th century. The Palas, the Gurjara-Pratiharas, the Rashtrakutas, the Cholas and the Rajputs were the powerful dynasties that ruled during the early medieval period.
 2. Coins inform us about the political and economical condition of a period. They convey the names, date of issue, titles and portraits of kings and occasionally even their dynastic emblem.
 3. Literary sources include both religious and nonreligious sources, available in the form of biographies and autobiographies, court chronicles (at times called names in Persian) and historical accounts by pilgrims, traders and royal ambassadors. The literary sources usually catergorised into indigenoues and foreign writings.
 4. Baburnama was originally written in the Turkish language, but later it was translated into Persian. Many Sanskrit

scriptures like the Bhagvad Gita and the Upanishads were also translated into Persian. It was during this period that the religious texts, the Ramayana and the Mahabharata were also translated in regional languages.

- C. 1. Medieval Indian history has left behind a rich legacy of archaeological and literary sources which help us reconstruct the history of the period.

Archaeological Sources

Archeological sources may include monuments, paintings, sculptures, inscriptions and coins.

Monuments and Building : Historical monuments and buildings such as palaces, temples, forts, mosques, tombs, clock towers, etc help to reconstruct the past in many ways.

Inscriptions : Inscriptions are writings engraved on solid surfaces like rocks, metals, pillars and stone tablets and other structures written in various languages and scripts.

Coins : Coins inform us about the political and economical condition of a period. They convey the names, date of issue, titles and portraits of kings and occasionally even their dynastic emblem.

Painting and Sculptures : The paintings reflected themes of religion, forest life, court scenes, mythological stories, lifestyle of the period and food habits of the times.

Literary Sources : Literary sources include both religious and nonreligious sources, available in the form of biographies and autobiographies, court chronicles (at times called names in Persian) and historical accounts by pilgrims, traders and royal ambassadors. The literary sources usually catergorised into indigenous and foreign writings.

2. **Religions Literature** : The saints and sages associated with the Bhakti and Sufi movements composed poems, songs, dohas, etc. in the local languages. They reflect the period during which they wrote.

Regional Literature : Regional literature of the period was highly acclaimed in the form of stories, poems and dramas such as Jayadeva's Geet Govinda and Chand Bardai's Prithviraj Raso. During this period, texts were composed in different languages such as Marathi, Urdu, Tamil, Persian, Kannada, Arabic and some European languages as well.

3. India's Geographical Influence

The three major physiographical divisions that have played an important role in the history of the Indian subcontinent are the Himalayan uplands, the Indo-Gangetic Plains and Peninsular India.

The Himalayan uplands consists of a chain of lofty mountains. The three great perennial river systems—the Indus, the Ganga and the Brahmaputra are fed by the Himalayan snows.

The course of Indian history has largely been shaped by the geographical features of India. The Ganga-Yamuna Doab, the Middle Ganga Valley, Malwa, Northern Deccan, Andhra, Kalinga (coastal Orissa) and the Tamil plains are the major perennial nuclear regions which emerged as bases of power quite early.

At most periods of its history, India, though a cultural unit, was torn by internecine wars. Famine, floods and plague killed millions of the people. Inequality of birth was given religious sanction, and a lot of the humble was generally hard.

Unlike Egypt, Mesopotamia and Greece, however, the traditions of India has been preserved without a break to the present day.

4. During the ancient period India was referred by such names as Bharatvarsha and Jambudwipa. The Vishnu Purana says, 'The country lying to the north of the ocean and south of the Himadri, i.e. the Himalayas, is called Bharatavarsha. This name is also mentioned in the Rig Veda. South Asia was also called Jambudwipa. The term

Aryavarta or land of the Aryans is said to have been used by Patanjali to denote the northern part of India lying between the Himalayas and the Vindhayas.

The Zend Avesta, the sacred book of the Parsees, described the sub-continent as Sapta Sindhu or the land of seven rivers. The ancient Greeks referred to the Indians as Indoi or People of the Indus. During the medieval period, the name that gained popularity was Hindustan.

The terms Hind were used in both Persian and Arabic languages after the Islamic conquests of the 11th century.

Chapter 2

New Kingdoms

Objective Types Questions

- A.** 1. (a); 2. (b); 3. (c); 4. (a)
B. 1. Gurjara-Pratiharas, Rashtrakutas, Deccan, Palas; 2. Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan; 3. his son Vijaychandra; 4. elephants, cavalry
C. 1. T; 2. F; 3. F; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A.** 1. Dantidurga was the founder of the Rashtrakuta dynasty.
2. The most famous rulers of this kingdom were Govinda III (793-814 CE), Amoghavarsha (814-878 CE) and Krishna III (934-963 CE).
3. Mahmud of Ghazni raid North Indian seventeen times.
4. The head of a district was called the visayapati.
- B.** 1. The beginning of the medieval Indian history was marked by a long struggle involving the Gurjara-Pratiharas of Malwa, the Rashtrakutas of Deccan and the Palas of Bengal to establish their supremacy over Kannauj which was an important region. Historians described it as the Tripartite Struggle. The constant struggle eventually weakened the three dynasties and resulted in their ultimate decline.
2. Dantidurga (Dantivarman) founded the Rashtrakuta kingdom. The Rashtrakutas were the of the Chalukyas in

central India. The capital of the Rashtrakutas was Malkhed (Manyakhet) near modern Sholapur in Maharashtra. They fought many wars with the Gurjara-Pratiharas, the Chalukyas, the Pallavas and the Pandyas. Gradually, large tracts of Maharashtra, Gujarat and Malwa came to be included in the Rashtrakuta Empire.

3. The Chauhan or Chahaman dynasty of Ajmer was established in the 11th century. Before coming to power, they were vassals of the Gurjara-Pratiharas. Vighraharaj was one of the famous rulers of the Chauhan dynasty. He captured Chittor around 1169 CE. The throne of Ajmer was ascended by Prithviraj Chauhan, the most outstanding Chauhan ruler. His most famous expedition was against the Chandellas of Bundelkhand.
4. The Gahadvalas were among the many ruling families of North India.

The ruling family perhaps originated in the area of Benaras (Varanasi) and Oudh (Ayodhya) in Uttar Pradesh. The dynastic power became gradually consolidated in the period of the first three rulers namely, Yashovigraha, Mahichandra, and Chandradeva. The Gahadvalas had taken control of Varanasi, Ayodhya, Kannauj and Indrathaniyaka (modern Delhi) and had expanded throughout Uttar Pradesh. The Gahadvalas endeavoured to spread eastward to Patna and Munger areas in Bihar. In 1168-69, south western Bihar was under a feudatory of his son Vijaychandra (1155-69).

5. The caste system was the basis of social life during this period. The Brahmins (priests) and the Rajputs (Kshatriyas) enjoyed the highest status in society, while the Vaishyas (traders and merchants) played a significant role in local administration. There was a decline in the position of women during this period. Sati and child marriage were practised.

- C. 1. The beginning of the medieval Indian history was marked

by a long struggle involving the Gurjara-Pratiharas of Malwa, the Rashtrakutas of Deccan and the Palas of Bengal to establish their supremacy over Kannauj which was an important region. Historians described it as the Tripartite Struggle. The constant struggle eventually weakened the three dynasties and resulted in their ultimate decline.

- 2. The Chandelas :** The Chandelas (9th-10th century) were a powerful dynasty of North India during the early medieval period.

The kingdom of the Chandelas of Khajuraho (the capital city) was a part of the large empire of the Gurjara-Pratihars. Nannuk was the founder of the Chandela dynasty. He was succeeded by his son Vakapati.

Jaishakti and Vijayshakti, the two sons of Vakapati, succeeded him. Jaishakti, the elder brother who ruled first, was also called Jai Jak and from this name the regions ruled by the Chandelas acquired the name of Jaijikhukti. Rahil and Harshdev, the successors of Vijayshakti, further consolidated the Chandela kingdom.

Yashoverman, the son of Harshdev, annexed large areas of the Rashtrakuta kingdom. During his reign, Chandelas became a strong political power in north and central India. He is also credited with having constructed the magnificent Lakshmana Temple.

- 3.** The villages served as the basic unit of the administration. The gramapati was the headman and accountant of the village.

To assist him, there were village committees. They looked after local schools, roads, water tanks, temples, etc. Such committees also existed in towns. Law and order issues in towns and neighbouring areas were looked after by the kotwal.

- 4.** The copper plate inscriptions are actually long documents engraved or embossed on thin sheets of copper. They contain details about the land, wells, trees, canals, rivers,

pastures, types of taxes and fines and all other rights enjoyed by the grantee. Inscriptions on stone, pillars and temple walls, are useful in reconstructing the history of the period. We get to know about local self-government in the Chola Empire. These inscriptions describe the village assemblies in great detail.

These inscriptions shed light on the socioeconomic life of the medieval period. Some of these also showed the royal seal of the dynasty. The inscription tells us about the conquests of King Rajaraja of the Chola dynasty and gifts made to the temple. Names of officers like those who collected revenue, managed the temple, aided and advised the king are also mentioned in the inscriptions.

Chapter 3

The Delhi Sultanate

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (a); 2. (b); 3. (a); 4. (b)
B. 1. Afghanistan, northern, Delhi Sultanate; 2. Razia Sultan;
3. justice; 4. Lodi Dynasty
C. 1. T; 2. F; 3. F; 4. F

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. Mamluk in Arabic means 'Slave'.
2. Iltutmish was the son-in-law of Qutbuddin Aibak. He ascended the throne in 1210 CE.
3. Bahlol Lodi founded the Lodi Dynasty.
4. Amil was the head of the pargana.
- B. 1. Qutbuddin Aibak was the founder and first ruler of the Delhi Sultanate. Under him, the modern day Afghanistan and a large part of the northern Indian subcontinent formed the Delhi Sultanate. He initially ruled from Lahore, but he shifted his capital to Delhi later. The Quwwat ul Islam mosque in Delhi and the Adhai-din ka Jhonpara in Ajmer were built during his reign. He also initiated the construction of the Qutb Minar but was unable to

- complete it. He died in an accident in 1210 CE while playing chaugan, a kind of polo played on horseback.
2. Razia Sultan, the daughter of Iltutmish, was the only Muslim woman ruler of Delhi. She was a great monarch, wise, dispenser of justice and protector of her subjects. She wore male attire and appeared in public without any veil. She established law and order throughout the empire. Her rule triggered a power struggle between the sultan and the chahalgani (chalisa). The nobility opposed her rule and also disapproved of the high position she granted to her Ethiopian slave, Yakut. Eventually, they revolted against her. She was killed as part of a conspiracy by the nobles while she was on her way to reclaim her empire.
 3. Bahlol Lodi founded the Lodi dynasty. It was the first Afghan dynasty that came to power during the Sultanate period. He appointed loyal Afghan nobles in their place. He extended his rule from Punjab to the Western borders of Bihar. Bahlol died in 1489 and was succeeded by his son Sikandar Lodi. He founded the city of Agra in 1503 CE. He annexed Jaunpur and Bihar and signed a treaty of friendship with the ruler of Bengal. He also introduced many public welfare schemes like lowering the prices of essential goods and digging canals and wells, etc.
 4. Timur Lang (Timur, the Lame) rose to power in Central Asia. In 1398, Timur Lang attacked Delhi and did not face much resistance as the Delhi Sultanate was very weak. Like other Turk and Mongol invaders, he started looting and terrorising people. When they resisted, he ordered their massacre. On his way back, Timur looted many other cities and carried away enormous wealth with him. He also took skilled artisans to work on monuments in Samarkand. Before leaving Delhi, which was in a state of shock after his invasion, Timur appointed Khizr Khan as the viceroy of his Indian territories.

C. 1. The Tughlaq Dynasty

Ghiyasuddin Tughlaq (1320-25 CE) : Ghiyasuddin Tughlaq laid the foundation of the Tughlaq dynasty. He believed that the state should be based on the support of the people. He carried out many works of public utility and built the famous Tughlaqabad Fort in Delhi. He died in 1324 CE. He was succeeded by his son Jauna Khan who assumed the name, Muhammad Bin Tughlaq after becoming the sultan.

Muhammad Bin Tughlaq (1325-51 CE) : Muhammad Bin Tughlaq's empire included the southern states, present day Odisha, Bengal and the Deccan. He transferred the capital from Delhi to Devagiri (renamed Daulatabad) in the Deccan. Muhammad Bin Tughlaq issued the bronze and copper token currency. This measure aimed to overcome the financial crisis. Such coins had the same value as the gold and silver coins.

Firoz Shah Tughlaq (1351-88 CE) : Muhammad Bin Tughlaq died in 1351 CE and was succeeded by his cousin, Firoz Shah Tughlaq. He had inherited an empty treasure and hostile nobles. To win support of the nobles and the ulema, he tried to win them over by giving them bigger iqta and made them hereditary. He also ruled according to Islamic laws and imposed the Jaziya tax on the non-Muslims. All this made the nobles and ulema very powerful and they started influencing the sultan.

- 2. Economy :** Different types of taxes such as kharaj or land tax, house tax, etc. were levied to extract revenue. The prices of essential commodities like food grains, sugar, cooking oil, cloth, cattle and slaves were fixed by Alauddin Khilji. The markets were under the control of an officer known as Shahnā. He maintained a register of merchants and controlled the shopkeepers and prices. The revenue payable depended on the measurement of the land and its yield. The khuts and muqaddams also had to pay taxes.

Muhammad Bin Tughlaq. He continued the demand one half of the produce as tax from the peasants. However, lack of rainfall and famine led to the farmer's inability to pay taxes, which resulted in rebellions against the Sultan. His successor Firoz Shah Tughlaq introduced significant modifications in the tax structure.

3. The Sultan had all the powers in the empire. He needed support of the nobles (ulema), yet had to keep a check on them. There was a constant struggle between ulema and the sultan. The wazir (minister) and his deputies looked after income, expenditure, collection of revenues and other finances.

The Ariz-i-mumalik and his deputies looked after the needs of the army. Chief Qazi was the head of the justice department.

The Diwan-i-risalat looked after the charities and religious matters.

The Dabir-i-Khas and his assistants looked after all the correspondences between the sultan and the other rulers.

The Barid-i-mumalik was the head of the state news agency. He kept the sultan informed of the latest happenings in the empire.

The Amir-i-hajib was the master of ceremonies. Only his assistants could allow anyone to meet the sultan.

The Wakil-i-dar looked after the sultan's household, bodyguards and personal assistants.

4. Decline of the Delhi Sultanate

- The major cause of the downfall of Delhi Sultanate was that the rulers ruled only with sword and could not win the confidence of the people.
- The vastness of the empire was also the reason to make it difficult to control.
- The Mongols also made the Delhi Sultanate weak by their continuous invasions.
- Most of the sultans were pleasure loving and weak rulers.

- Most of the sultans were intolerant towards Hindus. The Hindus were forced to pay Jazia, a religious tax, for the practice of their religion. Even their temples were destroyed by the sultans.

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (b); 2. (c); 3. (d); 4. (d)
- B. 1. Ryotwari settlement, mushasilana; 2. peace with all;
3. Ahmednagar, Bijapur, Golconda; 4. provincial, local
- C. 1. T; 2. F; 3. T; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. Babur founded the Mughal Empire in India.
2. The welfare of the peasants was a prime concern.
3. Ariz-Mamalik was the head of the Diwan-i-arz.
4. Jaziya is a kind of tax that was imposed by Muslim rulers over their non-muslims subjects (the Hindus).
- B. 1. For administrative convenience, Sher Shah divided his whole empire into 47 divisions called sarkars, and these were again subdivided into smaller administrative units called parganas.

There were two important officials at the sarkar level :

Shiqdar-i-shiqadaran : He maintained law and order.

Munshif-i-minshifan : He supervised the revenue collection.

Three important officials at the pargana level were :

Shikdar : He maintained law and order;

Amin : He collected revenue;

Munsif : He looked after judicial matters.

In the field of central administration, Sher Shah followed the Sultanate pattern. There were four main central departments which were as follows:

Diwan-i-Wijjarat, Diwan-i-Arz, Diwan-i-Insha, Diwan-i-Rasalat, Revenue, Army, Currency, Trade and Commerce, Roads.

2. Sher Shah Suri lost his life accidentally in 1545. His successors were unable to sustain his empire. After Humayun's death in 1556, his 13 years old son, Akbar was crowned king with Bairam Khan as regent. Hence, the general of the Afghan, leader Adil Shah Sur, was defeated and killed by Bairam Khan in the Second Battle of Panipat in 1556 CE. Thus, the Mughals re-occupied Delhi and Agra. Akbar took the reins of the government in his own hands in 1560.
3. The administration system under the Mughals, based on centralisation of power in the hands of the monarch, is mainly attributed to Akbar. The Ain-i-Akbari, authored by Abul Fazl, provides a great deal of information about the system of administration as it existed during the period. According to this system, the provinces were ruled under a single centralised authority vested in the emperor.

The Emperor

The emperor held an absolute power and all decisions of the state were carried out in his name.

Governance

The central administrative machinery was based on the division of power among various departments. The diwan or diwan-i-ala, the head of the revenue department, was responsible for all income and expenditure. The central revenue department had several branches where a clerk, a secretary and a superintendent held their respective positions.

Provincial Administration

The Mughal Empire was divided into small provinces or subas, governed by a subedar. He looked after the welfare of the people and was responsible for building wells, rest houses, roads, etc. Military affairs were looked after by the mir bakshi while the diwan headed the accounts department.

The Mansabdari System

Under this system, each officer, known as a mansabdar, was given a rank or a mansab. A mansabdar generally entered service at a low rank but rose higher through loyalty. The ranks were divided into zat and sawar.

4. After the death of Aurangzeb, his successors, known as the later Mughals, were unable to hold the empire together. His death was followed by a war of succession among his sons. Bahadur Shah emerged victorious and ascended the throne in 1707 CE. Many provinces broke away from the empire and established themselves as independent kingdoms.

During the reign of Muhammad Shah (1719-48), the empire began to break up, a process hastened by dynastic warfare, factional rivalries, and the Iranian conqueror Nadir Shah's brief but disruptive invasion of northern India in 1739. After the death of Muhammad Shah in 1748, the Marathas overran almost all of northern India. Mughal rule was reduced to only a small area around Delhi which passed under Maratha (1785) and then British (1803) control. The last Mughal, Bahadur Shah II, was exiled to Yangon, Myanmar (Rangoon, Burma) by the British after his involvement with the Indian Mutiny of 1857-58.

C. 1. Babur (1526-30 CE)

Babur's real name was Zahiruddin Muhammad Babur. He founded the Mughal Empire in India. At a young age of 11, he succeeded his father to the throne of Farghana, a small principality in Transoxiana.

He captured Kabul in 1504 CE. He started planning an expedition to India. He defeated Ibrahim Lodi in the First Battle of Panipat, fought on 20 April 1526 CE. This victory made Babur the master of Central India. In the battle of the Khanwa in 1527, Babur defeated Rana Sanga, the ruler of Mewar and controlled, northern India.

Humayun (1530-40 CE; 1555-56 CE)

Babur was succeeded by his son, Nasiruddin Muhammad, Humayun. His father had divided the annexed territories between him and his brothers.

His brothers were not happy with the areas that they had been given; the Rajputs were regrouping to launch an attack against the Mughals; the kingdom still lacked proper system of administration, but the greatest threat was from the Afghans. The Afghan ruler Sher Shah Suri had emerged as a big power in the eastern part of India. He wanted to control India as well.

2. Sher Shah settled the land revenue directly with the tilers of the soil and fixed the state demand at one third of the gross produce. It was payable either in cash or kind depending on the productivity of land crop. The land was measured in gaja (32 points). The rights and liabilities of the tenants were clearly defined in documents known as pattas (title deeds) and kabuluyats (deed of agreement).

His revenue management is compared with the modern Ryotwari settlement. Todar Mal contributed greatly to the development of the revenue policy of Sher Shah. During the rule of Sher Shah, peasants had also to pay jaribana (2.5%) (survey charge) and muhasilana (tax collection charge) (5%).

3. Akbar's liberal approach toward religion was guided by an enthusiasm to unite the entire nation. He introduced a new religion named Din-i-Ilahi. Its main concerns were sociopolitical rather than overtly religious.

Raja Birbal, a faithful follower of Akbar, accepted his religion while Raja Man Singh disapproved it.

Akbar believed in the policy of Sulh-i-Kul, which means 'peace with all.'

Akbar built the Ibadat Khana (a Hall of Prayer) at Fatehpur Sikri in 1575. He invited teachers of various religions like the Ulemas, Pandits, Zoroastrians, Christians and even atheists.

4. The Indian economy remained as prosperous under the Mughals as it was, because of the creation of a road system and a uniform currency, together with the unification of the country. Manufactured goods and peasant-grown cash crops were sold throughout the world. Key Industries included shipbuilding, textile and steel. The Mughals maintained a small fleet, which merely carried pilgrims to Mecca, imported a few Arab horses in Surat.

Chapter 5 Architecture, Painting and Music

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (d); 2. (d); 3. (c); 4. (b)
B. 1. Garbha Griha; 2. garden complex; 3. white marble, red sandstone; 4. Swami Haridas, Tansen, Baiju Bawra
C. 1. T; 2. T; 3. T; 4. F

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. Haveli is a private mansion with historical and architectural significance.
2. Miniatures are small-sized paintings, generally done in water colour on cloth or paper.
3. Indian classical music emerged as two separate traditions—North Indian Hindustani and South Indian carnatic.
4. Famous Indian musicians such as Swami Haridas, Tansen and Baiju Bawra left their impressions on the history of North Indian music.
- B. 1. In North India, temples were built mostly in the Nagara style. The Kandariya Mahadeva Temple in Khajuraho in present day Madhya Pradesh, and the Sun Temple at Konark in present day Odisha, the Jagannath Temple at Puri, Lingaraja Temple at Bhubaneswar and Dilwara (Jain) Temple at Mount Abu are famous examples of this style.
2. The advent of the Turks, the Afghans and the Mughals in India led to the evaluation of a distinct Indo-Islamic style of architecture. Certain distinct architectural features of this

style were the dome, true arch, minarets, mosaics, floral and geometric motifs and calligraphy which blended well with the Indian architectural forms already in use. Red sandstone, yellow sandstone and marble were used to build these monuments. Geometric and floral patterns, including motifs such as lotus, bell and the swastika were beautifully carved on the walls. The combination of these decorative devices came to be known as arabesque. The use of lime as mortar was a major element.

3. Structure for water

Tank, wells, canals, etc. were constructed for supplying water to town and agricultural fields. Baolis (step wells) served as wells. Here water could be accessed by descending a flight of steps. They are mostly found in the arid regions of western India, eastern and southern Haryana. Construction of baolis involved a well planned and durable method of obtaining water.

4. Rajput paintings depict a number of themes, events of epics like the Ramayana and the Mahabharata, Krishna's life, beautiful landscapes and humans. Miniatures were the preferred medium of Rajput paintings, but several manuscripts also contain Rajput paintings. Paintings were even done on the walls of palaces, inner chambers of the forts, havelies, particularly the havelis of Shekhawati.

C. 1. **Nagara Style** : In North India, temples were built mostly in the Nagara style. The Kandariya Mahadeva Temple in Khajuraho in present day Madhya Pradesh, and the Sun Temple at Konark in present day Odisha, the Jagannath Temple at Puri, Lingaraja Temple at Bhubaneswar and Dilwara (Jain) Temple at Mount Abu are famous examples of this style.

Dravida Style : The Dravida style can be seen in the temples of South India, especially those in Tamil Nadu and Karnataka.

2. Mughal architecture reached its peak under Shah Jahan. The style of Mughal architecture that developed during his reign was a mixture of Indian, central Asian and Persian styles. There was extensive use of marble, bulbous domes and elaborate floral ornamentation through the technique of pietra dura. In this technique, semi precious stones were used for inlay work on stone. The Moti Masjid, built entirely of marble, consists of domes, kiosks, extensive marble work and recessed archways.

3. Indian classical music emerged as two separate traditions—North Indian Hindustani and the South Indian Carnatic. The Hindustani system may be thought as a mixture of traditional Indian musical concepts and Persian performance practice. Many new musical forms like Khyal and Ghazal developed and flourished.

Musicians received patronage in the courts of the new rulers. While the initial generations may have been rooted in cultural traditions outside India, they gradually adopted many aspects from their kingdoms which retained the traditional Hindu culture.

Amir Khusrau introduced several ragas such as Yaman Kalyan, Zeelaf and Sarpada. He created the qawaali genre, which fuses Persian melody and beat on a dhrupad like structure. A number of instruments (such as the sitar and tabla) were also introduced in his time.

4. Mughal Paintings

Mughal painting is a particular style of Indian painting (a blend of Indian, Persian and Islamic styles) generally confined to illustrations on the books and done in miniatures.

Akbar's reign (1556-1605) ushered a new era in Indian miniature painting. He collected artists from India and Persia. Mir Sayyid Ali and Abdus Samad were the two Persian master artists. Most of the painters were Hindu from Gujarat, Gwalior and Kashmir.

One of the creations attributed to the school of miniature painting was the Hamzanama series.

Regional Styles

Rajput Paintings : Rajput paintings depict a number of themes, events of epics like the Ramayana and the Mahabharata, Krishna's life, beautiful landscapes and humans.

Tanjore Paintings : Tanjore painting is an important form of classical South Indian painting native to the town Tanjore in Tamil Nadu. The art form dates back to the early 9th century.

Chapter 6

Trade, Towns and Crafts

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (d); 2. (c); 3. (d)
B. 1. trade, agriculture, baking, craft production; 2. Portuguese, Duarte Barbosa; 3. silk; 4. cotton, raw silk.
C. 1. F; 2. F; 3. T; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. Sultan Muhammad Quli Qutub Shah founded the city of Hyderabad.
2. Delhi, Agra, Kannauj, Tanjore, Vijaynagara (Hampi) and Devagiri were among the prominent capital towns of the period.
3. Long coastline of the country and its extensive trade with the outside world encouraged the rise of many port towns.
4. The town was a major centre for export of textiles, indigo and other articles.
- B. 1. Capital towns were the main seat for the administrative machinery. Existence of capital cities, to a large extent, depended on royal patronage. Delhi, Agra, Kannauj, Tanjore, Vijaynagara (Hampi) and Devagiri were among the prominent capital towns of the period.

The palaces where the king held court developed into capital towns. Workshops called karkhanas, Learning and

cultural activities also flourished and a rapid urbanization took place at these administrative centres.

2. A grand capital city Hampi is located on the banks of River Tungabhadra in northern Karnataka. Hampi stands among the ruins of Vijayanagara, the former capital of the Vijayanagara Empire. It is also referred to as Virupakshapura, after the name of the patron deity of the Vijayanagara rulers, Virupaksha. The empire was founded by the Telugu princes, Harihara and Bukka in 1336 CE.
3. Besides beautiful palaces, there were many temples in the city, including the Vitthalaswami and Virupaksha temples. The temples were the hub of cultural activities and devadasis. According to Abdur Razzaq, a huge tank was built with the help of Portuguese masons. Channels were constructed to supply water from the tank to different parts of the city.

Vijayanagara enjoyed voluminous maritime trade with Persia, Arabia, Africa, the Malayan archipelago, Burma, China and numerous islands in the Indian Ocean region. The main articles of export were gold, spices and precious stones. The articles of import were saffron, coral, knives, rose water, quicksilver and vermilion.

4. The artists, weavers, painters, masons, stone cutters, carpenters, perfume-makers, etc. played a pivotal role in popularising Indian crafts in India and all across the world. The conceptualised beautiful and innovative designs and patterns translated on to cloth, paper or any other base. Jewellery, carpets, furniture, perfumes, home furnishing, sculpture and handmade crafts were greatly in demand.
- C. 1. Towns could be categorised into temple towns, commercial towns, port towns or administrative centres. Most towns combined several temple towns as well as centres of commercial activities and crafts production.

Administrative Centres/Capital (court) Towns

Capital towns were the main seat for the administrative

machinery. Existence of capital cities, to a large extent, depended on royal patronage. Delhi, Agra, Kannauj, Tanjore, Vijaynagara (Hampi) and Devagiri were among the prominent capital towns of the period.

Temple Towns and Pilgrimage Centres

Temple towns such as Tirupati, Somnath, Madurai, Ajmer, Banaras, Mathura and Nashik were centred around large temples. A variety of people congregated around temples to participate in trade, agriculture, banking and craft production which were organised and promoted by the temples.

Centres of Trade and Commerce

These towns developed as a result of the products found in that area or because they were near the ports or other trade routes. The growth of markets encouraged both internal and external trade.

Port Towns

Long coastline of the country and its extensive trade with the outside world encouraged the rise of many port towns. Cambay, Sopara, Bharuch, Surat and Goa were located on the western coast while Tamralipti and Masulipatnam were important ports on the eastern coast.

Founded Towns

When the existing ones became overcrowded, new capital cities were founded. In the 16th century, Sultan Muhammad Quli Qutub Shah founded the city of Hyderabad, Akbar founded Fatehpur Sikri to mark his victory after conquering Gujarat.

2. Traders used this port to conduct trade with West Asia. In 1514 CE, the Portuguese traveller, Duarte Barbosa described it an important sea port. During the Mughal rule, Surat became the main commercial city of India. The town was a major centre for export of textiles, indigo and other articles. Fine cotton textile, produced in Bengal, was transported to Surat to be shipped out to West Asia,

East Africa and Malabar. The main commodities exported from Surat were zari work, jewellery, silk fabrics, etc.

3. The artists, weavers, painters, masons, stone cutters, carpenters, perfume-makers, etc. played a pivotal role in popularising Indian crafts in India and all across the world. The conceptualised beautiful and innovative designs and patterns translated on to cloth, paper or any other base. Jewellery, carpets, furniture, perfumes, home furnishing, sculpture and handmade crafts were greatly in demand. Cotton was the most important among all the fabrics used in this period. Akbar encouraged the production of silk and Bengal became a thriving centre for the production of cotton and raw silk. Craftspersons and traders resided in and around areas of export like the coast, trade centres and in European factory towns like Madras and Calcutta.
4. Accounts of foreign travellers shed ample light on the self sufficiency of the village, towns and cities. The major articles of internal trade were wheat, rice, sugar, textiles and spices. Sea and land routes were used to conduct trade. Superior quality rice and sugar from Kannauj, wheat from Punjab, sugarcane and textiles from Bengal found their way to the markets of Delhi. Trade relations with Africa, Europe, Indonesia, China, Persia and Burma existed during this period. Articles like rice, spices and sugarcane were exported to South-East Asian countries, while horses, luxury products and metals were imported from Persia. Indian textiles were also in great demand abroad.

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (d); 2. (b); 3. (a); 4. (c)
- B. 1. medieval, natural; 2. four, deity; 3. Sukapha; 4. Caste standard
- C. 1. F; 2. T; 3. F; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A.**
1. The people who conduct this study are called Anthropologists.
 2. Princess Durgawati is the daughter of Salbahan, the Chandel Rajput ruler of Mahoba.
 3. The Gond worshipped a High God known as Persa Pen, also referred to as Baradeo and Sri Shambu Mahadeo.
 4. The Battle of Saraighat was fought in 1671 CE.
- B.**
1. Tribal people in the early medieval period depended on the natural resources of their region. They were engaged in agriculture, herding and hunting. They settled in one area permanently. They lived mostly in dense forests or hilly areas which were isolated from the other cultures.
In the later medieval period, as the tribal groups were exposed to new cultures, they began to change their isolated lifestyle. They learnt new ways of farming and led a settled life. They included prayers and other customs in their existing culture.
Kinship bonds were very important within each tribe. Tribes were composed of clans.
 2. The Gond mostly practised farming or worked in the forest. Their staple food comprised two millets known as kodo and kutki. The vegetables were either collected from the forests or grown in the kitchen gardens. They gathered honey from the forests as well. Shifting cultivation was widely practised by the Gond people. Cattle rearing, hunting, fishing, carpentry, metal work and making of bamboo baskets were the other important occupations.
 3. The Ahoms claimed descent from the Shah dynasty of China and South-East Asia. They crossed the Patkai hills in the north-east and settled down in the Brahmaputra valley in the 13th century. The Ahom kingdom was established by Sukaphaa in 1228 CE.
 4. The relationship between the Ahoms and Mughals was always hostile. The Mughals desired to conquer and establish their control over Assam. In 1162 CE, the

Mughals under Mir Jumla, Aurganzeb's general, attacked the Ahom kingdom and defeated them, however, Ahoms regained their power. At the Battle of Saraighat (1671 CE), the Mughals were defeated by the Ahoms. Later, the kingdom of Ahoms came under the control of the British in the 19th century.

- C. 1. In the early medieval period, the region around Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Odisha, Andhra Pradesh and present day Chattisgarh formed the kingdom of the Kalachuri dynasty. The Kalachuris took tribute from the tribes that resided in this hilly and forested regions. The largest among these tribes were the Gonds, after whom this area was often called Gondwanaland. They had probably migrated from the south between the 10th and 12th centuries and were traditionally agriculturists. While some practised shifting cultivation, others grew cereals, herded cattle or worked as labourers. Their language was known as Gondi.

Administrative History of Gonds

After the decline of the Kalachuris in and around the 13th century, several Gond chieftains established independent strongholds in southern and western parts of the Kalachuri kingdom. The capitals of the Gond chiefs were usually built near a hill or a river and were located at Deogarh, Kherla, Mandla and Chanda. The large palaces, forts and walled cities stand as a reflection of the immense power and wealth of the Gond tribe.

2. The Ahoms claimed descent from the Shah dynasty of China and South-East Asia. They crossed the Patkai hills in the north-east and settled down in the Brahmaputra valley in the 13th century. The Ahom kingdom was established by Sukaphaa in 1228 CE. The region occupied by the Ahoms came to be called Assam or Asom. The Ahoms ruled over Assam for about 600 years (1228 CE to 1826 CE). The Ahoms adopted the Assamese language.

Society

The Ahom society was divided into seven main clans known as Satgaria Ahoms comprising the royal family, the nobility as well as the four priestly group while the remaining people came under the paik system. All the political transactions were recorded in the chronicles or buranjis, and were mostly complied under officials.

3. Administrative History of Gonds

After the decline of the Kalachuris in and around the 13th century, several Gond chieftains established independent strongholds in southern and western parts of the Kalachuri kingdom. The capitals of the Gond chiefs were usually built near a hill or a river and were located at Deogarh, Kherla, Mandla and Chanda. The large palaces, forts and walled cities stand as a reflection of the immense power and wealth of the Gond tribe. They paid occasional tributes to the Mughals and managed to maintain their independence fairly well.

Administration of Ahoms

The Ahoms followed a centralised system of administration. The Ahom kings were called Swargadeos (Lord of the heaven). Their kingdom was divided into provinces. Each province was kept under the control of a governor called bharpakhans. An important element of the Ahom state was the system of providing labour known as the paik system. Basically, every male member of the village between the age of 15 and 50 years who was not a noble, a priest, a high caste or a slave had to adhere to this system of providing service to the kingdom.

- 4.** The tribal and nomadic communities who did not adhere to the varna system at times came into conflict with caste-based societies. But in many cases the relationship between the two was symbiotic.

Some tribes of Punjab, Sindh and north west frontier region adopted Islam and rejected the caste system. Today,

the constitution of India refers to the tribal and ethnic groups as Scheduled Tribes. They are recognised as historically disadvantaged groups who were also known as the Depressed Classes by the British.

Chapter **8**

Religious Beliefs and Popular Movements

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (b); 2. (c); 3. (d)
B. 1. Nirguna; 2. idol-worship, performing rituals, going on pilgrimage, Bhakti Movement; 3. ideas, practices
C. 1. T; 2. T; 3. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. The Alvars were the devotees of Vishnu, or Vaishnavites, while the Nayanars were the devotees of Shiva or Shaivites.
2. Shankaracharya is remembered as one of the first Hindu thinkers who conducted a re-examination and reformation of the Vedic philosophy. His philosophy is known as Vedanta.
3. Sankardeva founded the Mahapurasiya Dharma.
- B. 1. The term bhakti derived from the Sanskrit word bhaj refers to devotion to a supreme entity with exceptional power of knowledge. The origin of the Bhakti Movement can be traced back to the Brahmanical and Buddhist traditions of ancient India. Rejection of the caste system and complex rituals added to the popularity of this movement. The Bhakti Movement surfaced in South India and was disseminated by the Alvars and the Nayanars. The Alvars were the devotees of Vishnu, or Vaishnavites, while the Nayanars were the devotees of Shiva or Shaivites. They stressed on the devotion to a personal god either saguna (in physical form) or nirguna (without any form).
2. **Ramanuja**
The Vaishnava saint Ramanuja, born in Tamil Nadu in the

11th century, was one of the key proponents of Bhakti philosophy. He believed in the equality of all human beings and spoke against the practice of forbidding lower castes' entry into temples. Ramanuja preached the doctrine of vishishtadvaita or qualified oneness, that the soul, even when united with the supreme God, remained distinct.

The Virashaivas

The Shaivite saints who advocated monotheism and rejected the caste system and the authority of the Vedas were known as the Virashaivas or the Lingayats. Basavanna, a social reformer, was the founder of this religion and people of varied social backgrounds as well as women were included within the fold of the religion.

3. Saints of the Maharashtra

The most important Bhakti saints of Maharashtra were Jnaneshwar, Namdeva, Eknath, Sakku bai and Tukaram. They were the worshippers of Lord Vitthala (Vishnu). Jnaneshwar wrote Jnaneshwari, Marathi commentary on the Bhagvad Gita. Namdeva and Tukaram were known for their devotional poems. The Marathi poet-saints focused on the notion of a personal God residing in the hearts of all people. They rejected all forms of ritualism, social differences based on birth, and the idea of renunciation and preferred to live with their families earning their livelihood. They emphasised the new humanist idea of sharing one another's pain.

C. 1. Saguna Bhakti

In Maharashtra, Namdeva, Tukaram, Eknath and Jnaneshwar popularised the devotion to Vitthala (a form of Vishnu). Chaitanya Mahaprabhu Surdas and Mirabai popularised Bhakti and composed hymns in praise of Lord Krishna. Surdas wrote the book Sursagar, Vallabhacharya built a temple for lord Krishna on Govardhan hill near Mathura.

Nirguna Bhakti

Saint Kabir was the greatest poet-saint, who preached the

nirguna form of worship during the Bhakti movement. He was born at Kashi (now Varanasi). He was adopted by a childless Muslim weaver, Neeru and Neema.

He was the disciple of the saint Ramananda. Kabir did not believe in idol-worship, performing rituals, going on pilgrimages, bathing in holy rivers and other forms of worship.

2. The Bhakti Movement became popular in northern India by the 15th and 16th centuries. Movement like the Nathpanthis, which challenged the caste system and the superiority of the Brahmins, had many followers. Movement in the North was the emphasis on syncretism.

Ramanand

Bhakti saint Ramanand was a follower of Ramanuja. He resided in Banaras. He was the devotee of Rama in place of Vishnu.

Ravidas

Ravidas was a 15th century socio-religious reformer, humanist, poet and spiritual thinker. He believed in one's actions rather than birth.

Chaitanya Mahaprabhu

Chaitanya Mahaprabhu was a Vaishnava saint. A native of Bengal, he was a devotee of Radha and Krishna and a social reformer.

Srimanta Sankardeva

Srimanta Sankardeva was a famous Bhakti saint from Assam. Around the 16th century, he founded the Mahapurusiya Dharma.

Sikhism

In the late fifteenth century, saint Guru Nanak became very popular among the people of Punjab.

3. Women Bhakti Saints

The Bhakti movement saw an influx of women saints who expressed their devotion and love for God through the medium of bhajans. In the process, it gave women the

space to express their opinions. Akka Mahadevi and Andal were two important women saints of South India.

Akka Mahadevi was a Virashaivite saint famous for her vachanas and her complete rejection of the material world to surrender herself to Shiva. Andal was the only female Alvar saint from Tamil Nadu. She is credited with the great Tamil work Tirupavai and Nachiar Tirumozhi in honour of Vishnu. Sant Janabai (1298-1305 CE), was a Marathi poet-saint. She was a great devotee of Lord Vitthala at Pandharpur.

Chapter 9

Regional Cultures

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (a); 2. (d); 3. (c)
- B. 1. 2000, Hindi, Persian, Arabic; 2. Janamshakhis, Sikhism; 3. kirtans, bhajans, bishnupads, kabirai
- C. 1. T; 2. F; 3. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. Jayadev's Geet Govinda, composed in the 12th century CE describes the relationship between Lord Krishna and Radha.
2. The Yadava dynasty of Devagiri adopted Marathi as the court language.
3. He created many ragas like Miyan ki Malhar, Darbari and Miyan ki Todi.
4. Bharatnatyam is the oldest dance form of India.
- B. 1. During the first half of the medieval period, Sanskrit was patronised by kings in Central and South India. The Bhakti saints Ramanuja, Madhavacharya and Shankaracharya wrote in Sanskrit. A large number of or Dharmshastras digests on Hindu law and customs were written in Sanskrit. Bilhana's Vikramankdevacharita is the biography of the Chalukyan king Vikramaditya.
- Chand Bardai wrote Prithviraj Raso. It described the achievements of the Chauhan ruler of Delhi and Ajmer.

Some Jaina scholars like Hemachandra Suri also preferred to write in Sanskrit. Sanskrit literature, especially the epics, the Mahabharata and the Ramayana, as well as the were frequently translated into regional languages. Kalhana's Rajatarangini, written in the 12th century, was a string of biographies of the kings of Kashmir and was the first royal chronicle in Sanskrit.

2. All Indian classical dance forms depend almost entirely on Hindu mythology and legends for their thematic content. Distinct classical dance forms developed in different Indian states, i.e. Bharatnatyam in Tamil Nadu, Kathakali in Kerala, Odissi in Odisha, Kuchipudi in Andhra Pradesh, Manipuri in Manipur and Kathak in North India.
3. The important features of the Mughal style of painting included restricted movement of figures, fineness of lines of drawing and, flat depiction of architectural columns, naturalism and rhythm. The flat effects of the Persian style was replaced with the three dimensional effect of the Indian style. The Razmnama, the Persian translation of the Mahabharata, the Akbarnama and the Hamzanama contain important illustrations of this period.
4. The Deccan style of painting, which developed in the late 16th century in the kingdoms of Ahmadnagar, Bijapur and Golconda, depicted battle scenes, kings in different moods and so on. Sultan Ibrahim Adil Shah II of Bijapur was a great patron of this school of painting.

C. 1. Birth of New Languages

Hindi : The development of Hindi, one of the popular languages, may be traced back to the 7th and 10th centuries when poets composed work in praise of the valour and courage of Rajput kings in a Rajasthani version of Hindi, Chand Bardai's Prithviraj Raso is the best instance of it.

Urdu : Urdu, meaning 'camp' in Turkish evolved in the Deccani army camps due to the mixing of Persian and

regional languages. Urdu gradually developed as a link language.

Marathi : The Yadava dynasty of Devagiri adopted Marathi as the court language and extended royal patronage to Marathi scholars. Vivedasindhu written by Mukundaraj is considered one of the oldest books in prose form.

Punjabi : Punjabi was enriched by the writing of the Sikh gurus. The Janamsakhis or biographies, included details about the life of Guru Nanak as well as the main tenets of Sikhism. Folk tales also formed an integral part of Punjabi literature.

Tamil : Devotional literature in Tamil was composed by the Alvar and Nayanar saints of Tamil Nadu. The well known Alvar saints were Andal, Nammalvar and Tondaradipodialvar, while Nambiandar Nambi was a popular Nayanar saint.

Telugu : Literature in the Telugu language flourished under the Vijayanagara dynasty. Krishnadevaraya, one of the most famous rulers of the dynasty was a gifted writer.

Malayalam : Malayalam was originally a dialect of Tamil but over a period of time it acquired the status of an independent language. The earliest work, Ramacharitam was written in the 14th century.

Kannada : The Bhakti saints of Karnataka preached in Kannada, the language which was enriched by the writing of Pompa, Panna and Ranna, referred to as the 'Three jewels, of Kannada literature.'

2. Even the sultans of Delhi like Firoz Shah were deeply interested in music and got Indian texts like Ragadarpan translated into Persian. Tansen, who was at the court of Akbar, is considered one of the greatest musicians of Hindustani classical music. He created many ragas like Miyan ki Malhar, Darbari and Miyan ki Todi. Similarly, Raja Mansingh at the Akbar's court promoted the Dhrupad style of North Indian music. Aurangzeb was an accomplished veena player.

3. Kathak is a predominant dance of North India, which derived its name from the word katha (story). Since it originated from the devotional recitation of stories of gods and goddesses by story tellers or kathakaras who were attached to temples.

Kathakali is the oldest form of theatre of dance drama in Kerala. Its themes were drawn from the Ramayana and the Mahabharata. Kathakali meant story play and was an elaborate dance depicting the victory of truth over evil.

Mohiniattam, another classical dance form of Kerala was based on the theme of love and devotion to God, where Lord Vishnu is the hero. It is described as a drama in dance and verse.

4. By the 15th century, the kingdoms of Malwa, Gujarat and Jaunpur emerged as important centres of art. Humayun commissioned two Persian master painters Mir Syed Ali and Abdus Samad to illustrate manuscripts for him and tutor Akbar when he was a boy. A tasvir khana or a painting studio was established under these master painters, the Mughal School of Painting was a synthesis of Indian, Central Asian and Persian traditions. Hunting scenes, crossing of a river, seizing a fortress and scenes from the royal court were common themes. Bright colours such as peacock blue and red were popular

Chapter 10

New Political Formations

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (d); 2. (d); 3. (a)
B. 1. land revenue, law and order, military administration;
2. Nawabs, governors; 3. Tipu Sultan
C. 1. T; 2. T; 3. F

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. Jaipur is known as the pink city.
2. The first three Peshwas (Balaji Vishwanath (1713-1720),

Baji Rao I (1720-1740) and Balaji Baji Rao (Nanasaheb Peshwa) (1740-1761).

3. The two kinds of taxes levied on were chauth and sardeshmukhi, with chauth being one fourth of the yield of the territory and sardeshmukhi being one-tenth of the yield.
- B.**
1. The Rajputs were ruling dynasty. Sawai Raja Jai Singh (1681-1743 CE) of Amber is remembered as one of the prominent Rajput rulers. He founded Jaipur which is based on the principles of shilpa shastra or the Indian principles of Vedic planning. It is known as the pink city. Sawai Jai Singh also built astronomical observatories with highly sophisticated instruments in Jaipur, Delhi, Ujjain, Mathura and Benaras.
 2. Shivaji was born in 1627 CE. Under the guardianship of Dadaji Kondadeva, he grew adept in the art of administration and guerrilla warfare. Shivaji earned his first military success at the age of 16 when he seized the fort of Torana, followed by the forts at Kondana and Raigarh. The Mughal Emperor Aurangzeb did not like the growing influence of Shivaji. In 1663, he sent Shaista Khan to invade Shivaji's kingdom.
 3. The Marathas developed a fairly effective political, military and financial administrative system. The state was divided into prants or provinces which were further subdivided into tarafs (districts) and manza (sub districts). The administration of the kingdom was carried on with the aid of the ashtapradhan or the council of eight ministers. The Peshwa or prime minister looked after civil and military affairs of the empire. The dabir looked after foreign affairs and the senapati was the commander-in-chief. The secretary or chitnis managed royal correspondence.
- C.**
1. Aurangzeb's strict political policies also angered the Sikhs, the Rajputs, the Jats and the Marathas who rose in revolts. Inefficient successors of Aurangzeb stagnated in

intellectual and military spheres and lack of advancement in military equipment further contributed to the decline of the empire. The frequent change of rulers caused political instability in the empire.

The unprotected north-west frontiers were attacked by foreign invaders. The English and the French took advantage of the political situation in India and established their supremacy.

2. The Sikh Gurus shared a cordial relationship with the Mughal rulers like Akbar. Under Aurangzeb, the Sikhs rose in revolt as a result of the Mughal emperor's rigid policies. This turned the Sikhs completely against the Mughals.

During the reign of Bahadur Shah I, the Sikhs emerged as a powerful group under the leadership of Banda Bahadur who fought the Mughals for eight years. After his death, the Sikhs organised themselves into 12 misls or confederacies. Maharaja Ranjit Singh organised these misls into a single force. Seizing Lahore in 1799 and Amritsar in 1802, Ranjit Singh established one of the strongest kingdoms of the period. Thereafter, he added Peshawar, Multan and Kashmir as part of his empire.

3. Sambhaji succeeded Shivaji. However, Sambhaji was defeated and killed by the Mughals. The weak successors of Shivaji were unable to hold the Maratha kingdoms for long and gradually effective power passed into the hands of the Peshwas (1713-1818 CE).

Under the first three Peshwas (Balaji Vishwanath (1713-1720), Baji Rao I (1720-1740) and Balaji Baji Rao (Nanasaheb Peshwa) (1740- 1761), the Maratha Empire gradually strengthened and retained power.

Under Balaji Baji Rao, (Nanasaheb Peshawa) (1740-1761), son of Baji Rao I, the Maratha kingdom reached its greatest extent. Both Delhi and Punjab were captured in the years 1753 and 1758, respectively. The period saw the rise of powerful Maratha families.

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (d); 2. (b); 3. (c)
B. 1. natural environment, human environment; 2. environment;
3. plants; 4. carbon dioxide, global
C. 1. T; 2. F; 3. T; 4. F

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. The environment is broadly classified into two groups— natural environment and human environment.
2. Geographical Environment
3. The three spheres—lithosphere, hydrosphere and atmosphere—converge to form a narrow zone of interaction, the biosphere which supports life.
4. Biomes or life zones are the distinct regions (land or water) found in the biosphere.
- B. 1. Environment is the condition that affects the behaviour and development of somebody or something.
2. The abiotic environment comprises of lithosphere, hydrosphere, atmosphere and biosphere. The biotic environment is the zone where the lithosphere, hydrosphere and atmosphere interact with each other.
3. The biosphere includes, the producers, the consumers and the decomposers. The producers, (autotrophs) such as green plants, can prepare their own food using water, carbon dioxide and sunlight.
The Consumers (heterotrophes) are directly or indirectly dependent on producers (plants) for their food. Herbivores, carnivores and omnivores are the three consumers.
4. An ecosystem comes into existence following the interaction among all living organisms that are dependent on each other, and their interaction with the physical environment in which they reside. It is a natural unit comprising non-living and living elements.

C. 1. Abiotic Environment

The abiotic environment comprises of the inorganic or non-living things in the environment. It is divided into the lithosphere, the hydrosphere, the atmosphere and the biosphere. The lithosphere is the solid rock surface of the earth that makes the existence of plants, animals and human beings possible. The hydrosphere is extremely essential for the survival of all forms of life on the earth. The atmosphere is the mixture of gases, which surrounds the Earth.

Biotic Environment

The three spheres—lithosphere, hydrosphere and atmosphere—converge to form a narrow zone of interaction, the biosphere which supports life. The biosphere is spread from the bottom of the ocean (about 11,000 m below sea level) to the peak of the loftiest mountains (about 9,000 m above sea level).

The biosphere includes, the producers, the consumers and the decomposers. The producers, (autotrophs) such as green plants, can prepare their own food using water, carbon dioxide and sunlight.

2. The biosphere includes, the producers, the consumers and the decomposers. The producers, (autotrophs) such as green plants, can prepare their own food using water, carbon dioxide and sunlight.

The Consumers (heterotrophes) are directly or indirectly dependent on producers (plants) for their food. Herbivores, carnivores and omnivores are the three consumers. Microorganisms such as bacteria which cause the breakdown of dead animals and plants are the decomposers.

3. same as 1
4. The environment is the source of all resources which human beings require in order to prosper and survive. Human beings have transformed the environment to fulfill

their needs. The primary activities like farming, fishing, forestry and mining provide us with food and raw materials required for secondary activities. Even the most advanced societies cannot survive and progress without interaction with their environment.

Chapter **2**

Our Planet : Earth

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (a); 2. (c); 3. (b); 4. (a)
- B. 1. upper continental, sial, oceanic, sima; 2. solid, semi-solid; 3. 3000°C, 6000°C; 4. heating, melting, erosion, deposition, chemical activities
- C. 1. T; 2. F; 3. F; 4. F

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. The earth is divided into three concentric layers— crust, mantle and core.
2. Its average thickness varies between 8 km to 50 km.
3. Some examples of these rocks are basalt, pumice, etc.
4. Metamorphic rock is the hardest rock.
- B. 1. The crust is the solid outermost layer of the earth, composed of rocks and minerals. It consists of two layers— upper continental crust and lower oceanic layers. Its average thickness varies between 8 km to 50 km. The continental crust is made up of silica and aluminium which is called as sial and the oceanic crust is made up of silica and magnesium which is called as sima.
- The continental crust or sial is up to 50 km thick. The oceanic crust or sima may range from a few metres to 10 km in thickness.
2. The earth's innermost layer is known as the core. This layer has a thickness of about 3,500 km. It is mainly made up of heavy metals, particularly nickel and iron or nife. The boundary separating the mantle and the core is known as Gutenberg Discontinuity.

3. The earth's crust comprises numerous types of rocks and minerals. Rocks are natural masses of minerals found on the crust of the earth. They consist of one or more minerals and include hard as well as compact rocks such as granite, diamond and loose particles like clay, mud, sand, etc.

A mineral is an inorganic substance. It contains one or more elements having specific physical and chemical properties. The study of minerals is known as mineralogy. Quartz, feldspar, mica, etc are some of the common rock-forming minerals.

4. Sedimentary rocks are formed due to aggrigation and compaction of sediments. Rock fragments are carried by running water, wind and moving ice and are deposited in depressions under water. Over a period of time, these deposited materials or sediments continuously accumulate in layers, get compressed and hardened with the aid of cementing material, to form sedimentary rocks. These rocks often consist of layers having varying compositions.

C. 1. Mantle (Mesosphere)

The mantle (the second layer) extends up to the core of the earth. Its average thickness is 2,900 km. The mantle is made up of dense and heavy rocks. The mantle consists of three layers, depending on temperature and pressure conditions. They cause the rocks to be solid or semi-solid.

The uppermost mantle of solid rock extends from the crust downwards to a depth of 75 km to 100 km. The middle mantle asthenosphere has an approximate depth of 300 km. The rocks are partially molten and therefore in a fluid state. The rocks of the lower mantle are solid due to heat and pressure.

2. Rocks and Minerals

The earth's crust comprises numerous types of rocks and minerals. Rocks are natural masses of minerals found on the crust of the earth. They consist of one or more

minerals and include hard as well as compact rocks such as granite, diamond and loose particles like clay, mud, sand, etc. A mineral is an inorganic substance. It contains one or more elements having specific physical and chemical properties. The study of minerals is known as mineralogy. Quartz, feldspar, mica, etc are some of the common rock-forming minerals. Rocks containing a particular metallic mineral in large quantities are called ores.

3. Igneous Rocks (Primary Rocks)

The term 'igneous' is derived from the Latin word 'ignis' means 'fire'. Igneous rocks or parent rock are formed by the cooling and solidification of hot lava and magma beneath and earth's interior. On the basis of the origin, Igneous rocks may be classified as : extrusive and intrusive.

4. Inside the earth many processes like heating, melting, erosion, deposition and chemical activities take place. These processes forced one group of rocks to form other group. These processes occurs in a cyclic manner. This process is known as the rock cycle.

The first formed rocks are igneous rocks. When the igneous rocks are deposited and compacted sediments, sedimentary rocks are formed. After being subjected to great heat and pressure, igneous and sedimentary rocks are transformed into metamorphic rocks.

Metamorphic rocks may be broken down into sediments due to natural forces later forming sedimentary rocks and even buried again to form magma. Thus, a cyclical relationship exists between the three rock groups. The entire process is powered by the energy of the sun and involves processes, both on the surface of the earth as well as in its interior.

5. Importance of Rocks and Minerals

Rocks comprise different minerals which are of immense value to humans.

- Rocks are used as building material, e.g. granite, sandstone and marble.

- Minerals like natural gas, coal and petroleum or fossil fuel are sources of power.
- Rocks have also made agriculture possible as soil is formed by the decomposition or degradation of rocks.
- Chemicals found in rocks are sometimes used as fertilisers also.
- Rocks contain fossils which tell us about life in the past.
- Metals and diamonds found in rocks are used to make jewellery.
- Metals like iron, gold and copper are found in rocks.

Chapter **3**

Movements of the Earth

Objective Types Questions

- A.** 1. (c); 2. (c); 3. (d); 4. (b)
B. 1. 6 major, 20 minor; 2. anticlines, synclines; 3. Epicentre;
 4. magma, fertility
C. 1. T; 2. F; 3. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A.** 1. According to Alfred Wegener, all the continents were once joined together as one super continent known as Pangaea.
 2. Example of fold mountain is Aravallis and example of block mountain is the Vindhya range.
 3. A seismometer or seismograph is used to detect and measure the vibrations produced by earthquakes.
 4. Earthquake waves are classified into three main types :
 Primary Waves (P Waves)
 Secondary Waves (S Waves)
 Surface Waves (L Waves)
- B.** 1. According to Wegener, all the continents formed a single continental mass and mega ocean surrounded the same. The supercontinent was names PANGAEA, which meant all earth. The mega-ocean was called PANTHALASSA, meaning all water. He argued that, around 200 million years ago, the supercontinent. Pangaea, began to split.
 2. According to the theory of Plate Tectonics. The lithosphere

is divided into several large as well as small irregularly shaped plates (Lithospheric plates). These can be continental or oceanic in nature.

These are 'floating' independently on the molten mantle or the plastic asthenosphere and are in a state of constant motion. These movements take place faintly about a few millimetres per year due to the heat generated within the interior of the earth.

3. The movement of two lithospheric plates towards each other results in collision and creation of a force of compression which leads the wrinkling of the rock layer of the earth's crust. This is known as folding.

When plates move, stresses and strains are set up in the lithosphere giving rise to fissures and fractures. This causes large-scale displacement of the rock structure. This is known as faulting. The formation of block mountains and rift valleys is due to faulting.

4. An earthquake occurs when sudden displacement of the lithosphere along the plate boundaries takes place. During earthquakes, vibrations or tremors produce.

Volcanic eruptions, landslides, faulting, etc. can also cause earthquakes. The point or place of origin of an earthquake under the surface of the earth is known as the focus of an earthquake. From the focus, the earthquake waves travel in all directions and these vibrations are referred to as seismic waves. Epicentre is the point on the earth's surface, vertically above the focus, which suffers maximum damage during the occurrence of an earthquake.

- C. 1. When there are two almost parallel faults on the earth's crust and the land between them is either uplifted or left standing even after the surrounding areas have subsided, a block mountain is formed. The uplifted part is known as horst or block mountain and the subsided part is referred to as graben or rift valley.

The Vindhya and Satpura ranges in India, are block mountains while the Death Valley in the USA is a graben.

Tear faults occur when the rock structure is displaced laterally, in opposite directions, e.g. the San Andreas Fault in California.

2. An earthquake occurs when sudden displacement of the lithosphere along the plate boundaries takes place. During earthquakes, vibrations or tremors produce.

Volcanic eruptions, landslides, faulting, etc. can also cause earthquakes. The point or place of origin of an earthquake under the surface of the earth is known as the focus of an earthquake. From the focus, the earthquake waves travel in all directions and these vibrations are referred to as seismic waves. Epicentre is the point on the earth's surface.

Measuring Earthquakes

The study of earthquake waves is called seismology. Scientist who study them are known as seismologists. A seismometer or seismograph is used to detect and measure the vibrations produced by earthquakes. The first modern seismometer was invented by John Milne, in 1880.

3. Volcanoes are classified into the following types:

- Active Volcanoes
- Dormant Volcanoes
- Extinct Volcanoes

Active Volcanoes : These volcanoes erupt frequently and throw out lava, gases, ash and rocks. They are also called living volcanoes. There are about 500 active volcanoes in the world. Mt Etna in Italy and Barren Islands in Andaman Islands in India are examples of active volcanoes.

Dormant Volcanoes : These are the volcanoes which were once active but have not erupted for a long time. They are also known as sleeping volcanoes as they may erupt any time.

Extinct Volcanoes : These volcanoes are inactive for hundreds of years and there is no possibility of an eruption in the future either. These volcanoes are also called dead

volcanoes. Mt Kilimanjaro in East Africa is one such volcano. The peaks of the mountains are now covered with ice.

4. Tsunamis are huge tidal waves which are caused by an underwater earthquake or volcanic eruption. An earthquake has to be over about the magnitude of 6.75 on the Richter scale for it to cause a tsunami. These tidal waves travel at a speed of about eight hundred kilometres per hour and at an interval of about 15 minutes across the ocean. They cause devastation and loss of life in the coastal regions. Many tsunamis could be detected before they hit land and the loss of life could be minimised, with the use of modern technology using seismographs, etc. The best defence against any tsunami is early warning that allows people to seek a higher ground for shelter.

5. **(a) Endogenic Forces** : These forces occur inside the earth. They are also called constrictional forces. They cause volcanic eruption, earthquake, landslides etc.

Excogenic Forces : These forces occur outside or on the surface of the earth. They are also called destructional forces. They cause weathering, deposition, erosion etc.

(b) Folding : The movement of two lithospheric plates towards each other results in collision and creation of a force of compression which leads to the wrinkling of the rock layer of the earth's crust. This is known as folding.

Faulting : When plates move, stresses and strains are set up in the lithosphere giving rise to fissures and fractures. This causes large-scale displacement of the rock structure. This is known as faulting. The formation of block mountains and rift valleys is due to faulting.

(c) Volcanic eruptions, landslides, faulting, etc. can also cause earthquakes. The point or place of origin of an earthquake under the surface of the earth is known as the focus of an earthquake. From the focus, the earthquake waves travel in all directions and these vibrations are

referred to as seismic waves. Epicentre is the point on the earth's surface, vertically above the focus, which suffers maximum damage during the occurrence of an earthquake.

Chapter 4 Changing Landforms of the Earth

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (d); 2. (a); 3. (d); 4. (b)
B. 1. Mechanical, physical; 2. upper course;
3. erosion, transportation, deposition;
4. rock pedestals, mushroom
C. 1. F; 2. F; 3. T; 4. F

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. The two processes involved in the gradation are degradation and aggradation.
2. Weathering causes the rocks to crack.
3. When a river falls from a great height over hard surface or down a steep valley, a waterfall is formed.
4. When the speed of the winds decreases, it deposits the sand particles it was carrying along with it. As more and more sand gets deposited here, a hill of sand known as a sand dune, is formed. These sand dunes are not static.
- B. 1. The levelling of the earth's surface through natural process which cause it to increase or decrease is called gradation.
2. Mechanical or physical weathering occurs due to temperature changes and the action of frost. Rocks expand due to high temperatures and contract due to low temperature. This causes the rocks to crack and disintegrate. In cold areas, when water enters the cracks, it freezes at night. This widens the cracks and gradually breaks up the rock.
3. U-shaped valleys form through glacial erosion. Glaciation develops in established V-shaped river valleys where the ice erodes the surrounding rocks to create a "U" shaped valley.

4. When the speed of the winds decreases, it deposits the sand particles it was carrying along with it. As more and more sand gets deposited here, a hill of sand known as a sand dune, is formed. These sand dunes are not static.

C. 1. Weathering is that gradual process by which rock break up and decay due to the atmospheric conditions in situ (in place). Weathering is crucial to the formation of soil.

Mechanical/Physical Weathering : Mechanical or physical weathering occurs due to temperature changes and the action of frost. Rocks expand due to high temperatures and contract due to low temperature. This causes the rocks to crack and disintegrate. In cold areas, when water enters the cracks, it freezes at night. This widens the cracks and gradually breaks up the rock.

Chemical Weathering : Diluted acids in rainwater and the soluble action of water causes decay and break up of rocks leading to chemical weathering.

Biological Weathering : Biological weathering results from roots of plants expanding within existing cracks or deepening into the rocks, and burrowing animals that break up rock. Certain human activities also cause weathering.

2. Rivers function as agents of gradation in three ways—they erode rocks, transport eroded material and deposit it further along their course.

The place from where the river originates is called its source. Later, while moving on its path, the river falls into a sea or ocean.

The place where the river joins another water body is called its mouth. The area drained by the river and its tributaries is called the river basin.

3. **Action of Moving Ice**

Glacier : Precipitation, in higher altitudes, is mostly in the form of snow. A snowline is an altitude above which the ground remains permanently covered with snow. When

the snow creeps down the slope of mountains, it forms a river of ice known as a glacier. A glacier carries rock fragments as well as gravel with it.

Corrie/Cirque : In the mountains, a glacier carves deep hollows forming armchair-shaped depressions known as corrie (in Scotland) or cirque (in France) or cwm. Many such features are found in the Scottish and Welsh highlands.

Corrie/Lake/Tarn : When the ice melts, the basin or hollow is filled with water forming a lake known as a corrie lake or tarn. When two or more glaciers form corrie on either sides of the same mountain, they ultimately form a pointed peak called a pyramidal peak, for instance, Mt Matterhorn in Switzerland.

Moraines : As temperature increases and the ice melts, the glacier leaves behind or deposits the load it is carrying on the valley sides and floor. These are known as moraines. When they are large fragments, they are known as till or boulder clay deposits.

Icebergs : Sometimes, a glacier may break up and form floating masses of ice called icebergs. Many such icebergs are seen off the Scandinavian coast and in the Arctic Ocean.

4. Waves, the most powerful agents of marine action, originate due to the sweeping of winds over the surface of water and gradually become higher and swifter as they move towards the shore.

Sea Cliff : A cliff is defined as a steep vertical rock facing the sea. Where the rock on the coast is soft, marine erosion pushes back the shoreline and carves out sea cliffs and wave-cut terraces or platforms.

Bay and Capes : On the coasts with alternate bands of hard and soft rocks, the softer ones are eroded by waves to form a bay which is an area of water surrounded by land and the harder rocks remain as headlands or capes, e.g. the Cape of Good Hope in Africa.

Sea Caves : Where sea waves continuously strike at the rock, cracks develop over time and became larger and wider. Thus, hollow like caves are formed in the rocks which we called sea-caves.

Sea Arches : Waves strike continuously over sea caves. As a result only the roof of the caves remain and formes sea arches.

Stacks : In due course of time, erosion breaks off the roof of the sea arches and only walls are left which are called stacks.

Beaches : The waves may also deposit the sand and the eroded material they carry, along the shore, causing the formation of beaches, e.g. the Marina Beach in Mumbai.

Chapter **5**

Atmosphere of the Earth

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (d); 2. (d); 3. (a); 4. (d)
B. 1. 80 km, hydrogen, helium; 2. ultraviolet radiation;
3. mesosphere; 4. exosphere, ionosphere
C. 1. F; 2. F; 3. T; 4. F

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. A thick layer of blanket of air surrounds the earth, is called the atmosphere.
2. Oxygen is needed to burn things.
3. The atmosphere has five layers—troposphere (13 km), stratosphere (50 km), mesosphere (80 km), thermosphere (400 km) and exosphere (1600 km).
4. The Troposphere is ideal for flying jet planes.
- B. 1. The atmosphere is a composition of several gases. It contains nitrogen (78 per cent), oxygen (20.9 per cent) and certain other gases in smaller proportions such as argon (0.90 per cent), carbon dioxide (0.03 per cent), neon, helium, krypton, xenon, hydrogen and ozone (0.19%). A substantial amount of water vapour is also found in the atmosphere. The atmosphere of the earth also contains

particles of dust, dirt, salt, plant pollen, bacteria and even soot from fires. Up to about 80 km from the earth's surface, the composition of the atmosphere remains the same, but above this, the levels of oxygen and nitrogen decrease.

2. Carbon dioxide is absorbed by plants, to make food through the process of photosynthesis. Moreover, it also controls the earth's temperature by absorbing the heat radiated from the surface and keeps the earth warm which is referred to as the greenhouse effect.
 3. The atmosphere is important for us because it provides air to breathe and protects us from the harmful effect of sun's rays.
 4. The temperature in the layer drops uniformly at the rate of 1°C for every 165 m of altitude which is known as the normal lapse rate. Clouds, fog, rainfall, snowfall, thunder, lightning, storms etc. occur in this layer.
- C. 1. The envelop of air which surrounds the earth is called the atmosphere. It is a composition of different gases like nitrogen, oxygen, carbon dioxide, argon and others in varying proportions. Though some other planets also have atmosphere, the earth's atmosphere is unique. The earth's atmosphere is positioned between the earth and the sun. It acts as a sort of filter for the rays of the sun that reach us, thus making life possible on the earth.
2. **Composition of Air** : The atmosphere is a composition of several gases. It contains nitrogen (78 per cent), oxygen (20.9 per cent) and certain other gases in smaller proportions such as argon (0.90 per cent), carbon dioxide (0.03 per cent), neon, helium, krypton, xenon, hydrogen and ozone (0.19%). A substantial amount of water vapour is also found in the atmosphere. The atmosphere of the earth also contains particles of dust, dirt, salt, plant pollen, bacteria and even soot from fires. Up to about 80 km from the earth's surface, the composition of the atmosphere

remains the same, but above this, the levels of oxygen and nitrogen decrease. Above 80 km, the atmosphere mainly comprises light gases like hydrogen and helium.

3. Troposphere extends up to a height of 13 km at the equator and 8 km at the poles. The troposphere is the closest and the densest layer of the atmosphere in which 75 per cent of atmospheric mass is concentrated and the air pressure drops with increasing altitude. The temperature in the layer drops uniformly at the rate of 1°C for every 165 m of altitude which is known as the normal lapse rate. Clouds, fog, rainfall, snowfall, thunder, lighting, storms etc. occur in this layer. It protects the earth from excessive amount of heat during the day. It absorbs the maximum amount of heat radiated from the surface of the earth and keeps the earth warm at night. The tropopause acts as the boundary, separating the troposphere from the stratosphere wherein the temperature stops decreasing.

4. **Stratosphere** : The stratosphere is the region of horizontal and stable airflow which extends above the troposphere to about 50 km above the surface of the earth. The absence of convection currents makes the conditions stable and ideal for flying jet planes.

Mesosphere : The mesosphere lies above the stratosphere and extends from the stratosphere up to an altitude of about 80 km above the earth's surface. The temperature decreases with a rise in altitude. Due to the low temperature (-100°C at the mesopause), water vapours present in this layer are frozen, forming ice clouds or noctilucent clouds.

Thermosphere : The exosphere, extends up to 400 km above the surface of the earth. The lower part of this layer is known as the ionosphere due to maximum concentration of the electrically-charged particles known as ions which reflect radio waves back to the earth enabling wireless communication.

Exosphere : The uppermost layer of the atmosphere is called the exosphere. It stretches from the ionosphere upwards to 1,600 km and gradually merges into space. This layer is extremely rarified and is the region where atoms and molecules escape into space.

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (b); 2. (d); 3. (c)
B. 1. insolation, incoming solar radiation; 2. equator, poles;
3. temperature; 4. relief, convectional, cyclonic
C. 1. F; 2. T; 3. T; 4. F

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. 93 million miles (150 million km)
2. The rate at which the temperature decreases with increase in height is known as normal lapse rate.
3. An anemometer keeps a record of wind speed while a wind vane measures the direction of the wind.
4. Rainfall is the most common form of precipitation.
- B. 1. The sun provides heat and light to all the planets in our solar system. It is known as solar radiation. The amount of solar energy received by the earth is called insolation or incoming solar radiation.
2. The pressure exerted on the Earth's surface by the weight of the column of air surrounding us is known as atmospheric pressure or air pressure. Air pressure is expressed in units of millibars (mb) and is measured with a barometer.

3. Factors Affecting Pressure

Altitude : Air pressure decreases with an increase in altitude.

Temperature : With an increase in temperature, air expands, becomes lighter and rises upwards, producing low pressure and thus, exerts less pressure on the surface of the earth.

Moisture : Air containing water vapour is lighter than dry air, hence, an increase in the moisture contents in the atmosphere leads to a decrease in the pressure.

Rotation of the Earth : The rotation of the Earth, at times, displaces the mass of air causing a change in the pressure conditions in the area.

4. This type of precipitation or rainfall is common in the equatorial regions of the world. The layer of air near the earth's surface gets heated, and consequently expands and rises, thus setting up a vertical current of air called convection current.
- C.
1. The climate of any particular place is influenced by a host of interacting factors. These include latitude, elevation, nearby, water, ocean currents, topography, vegetation and prevailing winds.
 2. On the basis of the amount of heat received, the earth has been divided into three heat zones—Torrid Zone Temperate Zone and Frigid Zone.

Torrid Zone : It is located between the Tropic of Cancer and the Tropic of Capricorn. The places located in this zone receive maximum insolation.

Temperate Zone : It lies between the Tropic of Cancer and the Arctic Circle in the northern hemisphere and the Tropic of Capricorn and the Antarctic Circle in the southern hemisphere. The places in this zone receive moderate amount of insolation.

Frigid Zone : It lies between the Arctic Circle and the North Pole in the Northern Hemisphere and the Antarctic Circle and the South Pole in the southern hemisphere. The places lying in this zone are the coldest regions of the earth since they receive minimum insolation.

3. Planetary Winds

The planetary winds blow from high pressure belts to low pressure belts throughout the year. They are also known as prevailing or permanent winds. Trade winds, westerlies

and polar winds are the three major types of planetary winds.

Trade Winds, Polar Winds, Westerlies, Periodic Winds, Monsoon Winds, Local Winds, Variable Winds.

4. Sometimes, the water droplets within clouds become too heavy to stay suspended in the air.

As a result, they fall on the ground as rain, snow, hail or sleet. These are all varied forms of precipitation. The instrument used to measure precipitation is called rain gauge.

Rainfall is the most common form of precipitation. The three major kinds of precipitation are relief precipitation, convectional and cyclonic precipitation.

Chapter 7

The Hydrosphere

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (d); 2. (a); 3. (b)
B. 1. snowfall, sea level; 2. trenches, 11 km; 3. speed, weather conditions; 4. Tides, mouth
C. 1. F; 2. T; 3. T; 4. F

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. The hydrosphere is the domain of water. There is about 71% of water on the earth in the form of oceans, seas, rivers, lakes etc.
2. Water that contains very little dissolved salts is known as freshwater.
3. Arctic ocean is the smallest amongst all the ocean.
4. The broad, slow moving masses of water are called drifts.
- B. 1. The maximum concentration is of sodium chloride or common salt. The degree of concentration of salt in seawater is known as its salinity. Salinity is expressed in terms of parts per thousand. Usually, the average salinity of seawater is 35 parts per thousand or 3.5%, which means that 1000 grams of seawater contains 35 grams of salt.

2. Movements of Ocean Water

Waves, tides, movements of ocean water in oceans.

Waves : A wave is a regular rise and fall of ocean and sea water due to the action of the wind on the surface of water. The shape and size of waves depend on the speed of the wind and other weather conditions.

Tides : Sea water rises up the shore at a certain time of the day and then ebbs or recedes at regular intervals. This rhythmic rise and fall in the level of sea water is known as tides. Tides are caused due to the gravitational force exerted by the moon.

Ocean Currents : The continuous movement or drift of the ocean water in a definite direction is known as ocean currents. The water moves in the form of a river or broad stream flowing through the ocean, at a speed varying from 2 to 10 km per hour.

3. **Tides** : Sea water rises up the shore at a certain time of the day and then ebbs or recedes at regular intervals. This rhythmic rise and fall in the level of sea water is known as tides. Tides are caused due to the gravitational force exerted by the moon. During the full moon and the new moon, the combined gravitational pull of the moon, the earth and the sun causes high tides, known as spring tides.
4. The continuous movement or drift of the ocean water in a definite direction is known as ocean current. The water moves in the form of a river or broad stream flowing through the ocean, at a speed varying from 2 to 10 km per hour. The broad, slow moving masses of water are called drifts.

On the basis of temperature, ocean currents, are classified into two types—warm ocean currents and cold ocean currents. The warm currents flow from the equatorial region towards the polar region while the cold ocean currents flow from the polar region towards the equatorial region.

- C. 1. The hydrosphere is the domain of water. There is about 71% of water on the earth in the form of oceans, seas, rivers, lakes etc. All these are termed as water bodies. Water is found in all the three states of matter i.e. solid, liquid and gas. It is a universal solvent which can dissolve sugar, salt, oxygen, minerals etc.

Hydrological Cycle

The water mass which covers of the earth is called the hydrosphere. Water is a renewable source. The hydrological cycle involves three crucial phenomena—evaporation, condensation, and precipitation.

The sun heats up the water in the water bodies and snow fields. On heating, water evaporates and becomes water vapour. This water vapour rises up in the air. Here, it cools down and becomes liquid as droplets. This is called condensation. This condensed water collects into clouds. When the clouds become heavy and could not hold water any more, precipitation occurs.

2. A huge amount (about 97%) of water is found in oceans. It is saline in nature. The remaining 2 per cent is found in glaciers and icecaps while 1 per cent is found in groundwater, rivers, lakes, atmosphere and within life forms. Only 1 per cent of water is suitable for human consumption.
3. Ocean covers about 70 per cent of the surface area of the earth with an average depth of about 3.8 km. The ocean trenches are the deepest part of the ocean and can reach a depth of nearly 11 km.

The five major oceans of the world are—the Pacific Ocean, the Atlantic Ocean, the Indian Ocean, the Southern Ocean and the Arctic Ocean.

Pacific Ocean : It is the largest and deepest of all the five oceans. It cover 30.5 per cent of the total surface area of the earth. It extends from the Arctic Ocean in the north to the Southern Ocean in the south.

Atlantic Ocean : It is the second largest and busiest ocean. It is less than half the size of the Pacific Ocean.

Indian Ocean : It is located mostly in the southern hemisphere and is the only ocean named after a country (India). It covers 14.4 per cent of the total surface area of the earth and is enclosed on three sides in the north.

Antarctic or Southern Ocean : It surrounds Antarctica and occupies about 4 per cent of the surface area of the earth. Large ice sheets cover the ocean for most part of the year.

Arctic Ocean : It is the world's smallest ocean covering 2.8 per cent of the total surface area of the earth.

4. **Tides** : Sea water rises up the shore at a certain time of the day and then ebbs or recedes at regular intervals. This rhythmic rise and fall in the level of sea water is known as tides. Tides are caused due to the gravitational force exerted by the moon.

Importance of Tides : Tides clear mud and silt deposits from the mouth of rivers and so keep them open for ships. Ships leave the harbor when the tides goes out and enter when the tides come in. Fishermen are greatly benefited due to tides as fish come near the coast during high tide enabling a bountiful catch. Tides are a very important source of renewable energy in the form of fast movement of water during inflow and outflow. The Gulf of Kutch in Gujarat has been identified for the development of tidal power stations.

5. **Importance of Hydrosphere**

The hydrosphere therefore sustains life in the biosphere in many ways.

Water from lakes and rivers is very important for domestic purposes as well as for irrigation. It offers an important link in transport and communication between the continental masses. The various water bodies existing on our planet are a vital source of diverse marine life and marine products. Salt and other minerals are obtained from ocean

waters. Oceans and other water bodies also influence the weather and climate. Tidal energy can be generated from ocean water while hydroelectricity is generated from rivers.

Chapter 8 Natural Vegetation and Wildlife

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (c); 2. (c); 3. (a); 4. (a)
B. 1. tropical, temperate, coniferous forest; 2. dense, Penetration; 3. high, seasonal, distinct dry; 4. extremes, lack
C. 1. T; 2. F; 3. T; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. The natural growth of plant life, without any human interference from the smallest grass to the tallest tree is known natural vegetation.
2. Forests are classified into tropical forests, temperate forests and coniferous forests.
3. The Giant Panda of China is an inhabitant of temperate evergreen forests.
4. Temperate grasslands lie in the temperate zone between 25° and 55° latitudes in both the hemispheres in the interiors of continents.
- B. 1. An ecosystem is formed by the interaction of a community of organisms such as plants, animals, human beings, etc. with each other and with their environment. Ecosystem may either be natural or artificial.
2. The vegetation in these forests forms a canopy and has layered structure with tall trees of medium height, shrubs, creepers, grasses, ferns, mosses and fungi. The trees do not shed their leaves altogether and so the forests appear evergreen. Hardwood trees like mahogany, ebony, rosewood and rubber are commonly found in these forests. The vegetation is dense and the thick canopy on the top prevents the penetration of sunlight, thus hampering the development of undergrowth.

3. The camel, also known as the 'ship of the desert' is the most important animal. Antelopes, gazelles, wild asses, hares, rodents, desert foxes, lizards, snakes, hyenas are also found here.
 4. Animals found here have fur and a thick layer of fat to conserve body fat and survive in the extremely cold climate. Land animals are reindeer, musk ox, polar bear, fox, dog, wolf, etc as well as whales, seals, walruses and variety of fish are found near the coasts. Birds migrate to warmer regions during the cold seasons.
- C. 1. Evergreen forests are so dense that sunlight does not reach the ground. Deciduous forests are those forests that are not so dense. There is no particular season for the evergreen trees to shed their leaves while deciduous forests have a particular season to shed their leaves like in summer.

2. Mediterranean Forests

This type of vegetation is found in the Mediterranean Sea in southern Europe, northern Africa, western Asia, California, South-West Africa, South-West Australia and central Chile. Summer is hot, dry and winter is cool and wet in this region.

3. These forests are found in the regions of southern Canada, Norway, Sweden, Poland, Finland and northern Russia. Even high mountain ranges are covered by coniferous forests due to the decrease in temperature with altitude. Winter is bitterly cold while summer is short and warm. Precipitation is mostly in the form of snow.
4. These grasslands are located in a large part of Africa where they are referred to as Savanna, parts of South America where they are known as Campos and Llanos, parts of the Deccan plateau and northern Australia. Summer is hot and wet, winter is dry and warm and rainfall occurs only during the 6th to 8th month of the year.

Vegetation : Tall coarse grass is the main type of vegetation which may grow to more than 2 m in height during summer. There are a few scattered trees in the savanna, especially where rainfall is higher for instance, baobab.

5. These are cold deserts found in the interior regions of continents, such as Gobi Desert and Tibetan Plateau in Asia and the Patagonian Desert in South America.

These deserts have very harsh and extreme climatic conditions with extremely high temperature in summer such as 50°C in the Gobi Desert while freezing temperature in the Patagonian Desert. Most of the precipitation occurs during the summer months, often in the form of snow.

Chapter **9**

Human Settlements

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (a); 2. (d); 3. (b); 4. (d)
B. 1. temporary settlements; 2. functions, economic;
3. Dispersed pattern; 4. interdependence
C. 1. T; 2. F; 3. T; 4. F

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. Rural settlements have five basic patterns or shapes—linear, circular, dispersed, nucleated and radial.
2. When certain well situated villages acquire a larger size and better services and facilities they grow into towns.
3. They are usually found in forested regions, hilly areas, deserts or areas which are not easily accessible.
4. These towns are centred in areas which are rich in mineral deposits, such as Kudremukh (India), Kalgoorlie (Australia), Yellowknife (Canada), etc.
- B. 1. A settlement is a place where people live and interact with each other to carry out a variety of activities. The size and shape of settlement varies greatly depending on the functions and economic activities it performs.

2. People who are engaged in the primary sector like agriculture, fishing, mining, animal rearing or dairy farming live in the rural settlements. People who work in secondary occupations like manufacturing and construction or tertiary occupation like services, live in the urban settlements.
 3. Urban settlements may be huge in size compared to rural settlements. These are characterised by a plethora of services and amenities. Building materials like cement, iron, bricks and stone are extensively used.
 4. Most of the rural settlements are agricultural societies. The main occupation of coastal villages is fishing with some agricultural activity. Some villages have cottage industries based on local raw materials available there. Many villages have facilities like market, primary school, dispensary, post office, bank, etc. These provide services to the nearby villages too.
- C. 1. A settlement is a place where people live and interact with each other to carry out a variety of activities. The size and shape of settlement varies greatly depending on the functions and economic activities it performs.
- There are many environmental factors which help the growth and development of a settlement, such as suitability of land, availability of water, favourable climate, fertile soil, means of transportation and communication, etc.

2. Pattern of Rural Settlements

Rural settlements have five basic patterns or shapes—linear, circular, dispersed, nucleated and radial.

Linear pattern : These settlements develop along a lane form or human structure with linear feature such as river, road, railway track, canal or coastline in an elongated and narrow form.

Circular pattern : These settlements usually develop in a

circular shape around a water body like a tank, lake, pond, oasis, etc.

Dispersed pattern : This pattern comprises isolated dwellings or houses clustered and scattered over a large area. They are usually found in forested regions, hilly areas, deserts or areas which are not easily accessible.

Nucleated pattern : The settlements built according to this pattern are compact and agglomerated. They are located close together, often clustered around.

Radial pattern : When a settlement comes up along roads and lanes diverging in all directions from a central point, the form of the settlement tends to be radial.

3. Urban Settlements

Urban settlements may be huge in size compared to rural settlements. These are characterised by a plethora of services and amenities. Building materials like cement, iron, bricks and stone are extensively used :

Pattern of Urban Settlements : Urban settlements are generally classified on the basis of the economic activities they perform.

Administrative Town, Market or Trading Town, Defence Town, Mining Towns, Industrial Towns, Collection Centres, Cultural and Educational Centres, Religious Towns, Port Towns, Residential Towns, Resort Towns.

4. Urban-Rural Interdependence

A considerable degree of interdependence exists between urban and rural areas since villages supply food grains, industrial and agricultural raw materials and labour force to cities and towns. The towns and cities, on the other hand, supply industrial goods, health care facilities, education and most importantly, employment opportunities for people in rural area. Therefore, a complementary relationship exists between villages and cities wherein both benefit each other.

Objective Types Questions

- A.** 1. (a); 2. (d); 3. (b); 4. (c)
- B.** 1. Bombay, Thane; 2. Trans-continental railways; 3. time consuming aspect; 4. Morse code
- C.** 1. F; 2. T; 3. F; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A.** 1. Transport is that means which takes more people and goods from one place to another.
2. The first railway train in India started running in 1853, between Bombay (now Mumbai) and Thane.
3. Waterways are mainly of two types : Inland waterways and International waterways.
4. Communication is a means to exchange views and ideas.
- B.** 1. Road transport offers complete freedom to road user to transfer the vehicle from one lane to other. It gives quick and easy transportation of men, machineries, materials, etc.
2. Trans-continental railways refer to a long distance railway network built across a continent.

Some of them are :

The Trans Siberian Railway St. Petersburg to Vladivostok, (Asia). The Canadian-Pacific, (Atlantic Ocean to the Pacific Ocean). The Trans-Andean railways from Buenos Aires to Valparasio.

3. Inland waterways provide services through rivers, lakes and canals across which cargo and passengers are carried through mechanised boats and steamers. Some of the important inland waterways of the world are :

The rivers Mississippi, Amazon Missouri, Danube, Volga, Yangtze, Rhine, Kiange, etc. St Lawrence River Seaway-Great Lakes Waterway between USA and Canada is the largest and busiest inland waterway system in the world.

4. The process of exchange of ideas, thoughts and information through the medium of speech, writing or signals is called communication.

In 1791, the semaphore flag code was invented which made communication in maritime trade easier.

The Morse code was developed by S Morse in 1837. Morse code is used on the telegraph and radio to send messages.

- C. 1. Railways are convenient and the cheapest means to transport heavy goods between distant places. The first railway train in India started running in 1853, between Bombay (now Mumbai) and Thane.

The development of the railways influenced by the density of population, economy and relief features. A rugged topography poses a hindrance to develop a good railway network. Door-to-door connectivity is also impossible in a railway network. Countries with a high population density have a dense network of railways. Certain areas which were earlier inaccessible are now reachable through railways.

2. Inland Waterways

Inland waterways provide services through rivers, lakes and canals across which cargo and passengers are carried through mechanised boats and steamers. Some of the important inland waterways of the world are :

The rivers Mississippi, Amazon Missouri, Danube, Volga, Yangtze, Rhine, Kiange, etc. St Lawrence River Seaway-Great Lakes Waterway between USA and Canada is the largest and busiest inland waterway system in the world.

The River Rhine Canal, Suez Canal, Panama Canal, etc. Nile, waterway in the lower reaches of the Nile is navigable and is used to carry goods.

International Waterways : International waterways provide services through seas and oceans. They carry the larger loads as compared to roads, airways, and railways. Some of the busiest ocean routes are :

The North Atlantic route connecting eastern North America and western Europe. The Mediterranean, Suez-Indian Ocean route connecting Europe with East Africa, South Asia, Far East and Australia through the Suez Canal.

3. Helicopters and aircrafts also help in times of natural calamities and for defence purposes. Domestic airways connect various places within a country while international airways connect different countries. The largest volume of air traffic is registered in eastern USA, western Europe and South East Asia. Some of the important international airports are located in New Delhi, Singapore, New York, Hong Kong, Tokyo, London, Dubai, Sydney, etc.
4. The process of exchange of ideas, thoughts and information through the medium of speech, writing or signals is called communication.

In 1791, the semaphore flag code was invented which made communication in maritime trade easier.

The Morse code was developed by S Morse in 1837. Morse code is used on the telegraph and radio to send messages.

The invention of writing allowed messages to be communicated in the form of letters and the printing press brought books, magazines and newspapers into the world of communication. The telegraph machine invented in 1837 was the first major breakthrough in long distance communication.

Chapter 11 Tropical and Subtropical Regions

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (b); 2. (b); 3. (b); 4. (b)
- B. 1. afternoon; 2. riverine plains; 3. monsoon, seasonal reversal; 4. densely populated
- C. 1. T; 2. F; 3. T; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. Anaconda

2. The average temperature ranges between 25°C and 30°C.
 3. Colorful birds like the hummingbirds, toucans, parrots, etc.
 4. The river Ganga originates from, the Gangotri glacier.
 5. Yamuna, Gomti, Son, Kosi, Damondar etc.
- B.**
1. The climate here is hot and wet throughout the year. There is little horizontal movement of the air. The weather remains hot and uncomfortable because of the high humidity level. The day temperature is high while at night, the temperature goes down. The average temperature ranges between 25°C and 30°C. The annual rainfall here is over 250 cm and it rains almost every day. The rainfall usually takes place in the afternoon.
 2. The dense, evergreen, tropical rainforests known as the selvas occupy most parts of the Amazon basin. These forests form a thick canopy with creepers, climbers and lianas (climbing vines), and giant ferns. Trees are broadleaved hardwoods with thick barks such as mahogany, rubber, ebony, rosewood, corozo palm, coco de mona, divedive and cinchona.
 3. The Trans-Amazonian Highway is one of the few important roads in the region. Waterways are the most reliable mode of transportation, and boats, canoes as well as motorised boats are commonly used.
 4. It is mostly concentrated in the Sunderbans region and parts of the Brahmaputra Valley. Elephant, rhinoceroses, tigers, deer, monkeys and wide variety of fish such as the rohu, catla, hilsa, etc. along with crocodiles and alligators are found here. The Royal Bengal Tiger is an inhabitant of the Sunderbans forest and the onehorned rhino is only found in the Brahmaputra plains. The floodplains of the Brahmaputra serve as a unique habitat for a great number of plants and animals.
 5. A humid subtropical climate is characterized by hot, humid summers and mild, chilly winters. This climate type is

normally found on the eastern sides of continents between 20° and 35° north and south of the equator.

- C. 1. The dense, evergreen, tropical rainforests known as the selvas occupy most parts of the Amazon basin. These forests form a thick canopy with creepers, climbers and lianas (climbing vines), epiphytes and giant ferns. Trees are broadleaved hardwoods with thick barks such as mahogany, rubber, ebony, rosewood, corozo palm, coco de mona, divedive and cinchona. However, these forests are being cleared to provide land for industry, settlements and agriculture.
2. The interior of the forest is inhabited by tribal people who practise hunting, gathering and fishing as their primary occupations. Many of these were nomadic tribes. The tribes who were more settled practised shifting cultivation or slash and burn agriculture.

Economic Activities : In some parts of the Amazon basin, commercial rubber plantations have developed and certain tribes are engaged in tapping rubber from wild trees. Mining has developed in some places.

3. Tropical systems are warm-core weather systems that over water. There are distinct structural differences between the two. For a tropical system, the strongest winds and deepest storms are near the center of circulation. For a subtropical system the max winds and deepest storms are found the center.
4. Located in the sub-tropical region, the Ganga-Brahmaputra Valley is one of the most fertile riverine plains in the world. The plain extends through Delhi, Uttar Pradesh, Uttarakhand, Bihar, Jharkhand, West Bengal, Assam and Arunachal Pradesh in India and parts of Nepal, Bhutan and Bangladesh. The basin is bounded by the Himalayas in the north and the Peninsular Plateau in the south. It merges

with the Indus Plain in the west and stretches up to the Brahmaputra Valley in the east.

5. The Ganga-Bhramaputra basin, is also one of the most densely populated areas in the world. The fertile alluvium, flat plains and the climate support the cultivation of rice, jute, wheat, maize, millets, sugarcane, tea, oilseeds and pulses. A kharif or summer crop and a rabi or winter crop are produced annually. Wherever possible, a third crop is grown between the two, especially in the deltaic tracts. Mixed cropping, crop rotation and intercropping ensure high yields.

Industries

Based on agricultural produce, several agrobased industries such as textile, sugar, edible oil, etc. have also developed in the region. Cottage and small-scale industries have developed in rural areas. Automobiles, engineering, chemicals, fertilisers, electronics, oil refineries and numerous other small and medium scale industrial units provide employment to the millions inhabiting the region.

Chapter 12

Temperate Grasslands

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (d); 2. (b); 3. (d); 4. (d)
B. 1. rich, black, fertile; 2. chinook, rockies, melt the snow;
3. wheat, maize, cotton alfalfa; 4. national parks, sanctuaries
C. 1. T; 2. T; 3. F; 4. F

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. Lake Winnipeg, Lake Manitoba, etc.
2. The prairies have a continental, temperate type of climate with extreme temperatures.
3. Lions, cheetahs, leopards, giraffes, kudu (a native antelope), etc. are the various kinds of wildlife found in this region.

4. The velds is located in the eastern part of the plateau of South Africa, between the Drakensburg Mountains in the east and the Kalahari Desert in the west.
- B.**
1. **Climate** : The prairies have a continental, temperate type of climate with extreme temperatures. Summers are warm and humid with temperatures around 30°C, while winters are extremely cold bringing the temperature below freezing point (–21°C). The average annual rainfall is about 50 cm.
 2. Little rainfall is suitable for the growth of grasses, shrubs and desert xerophytes. The grass, however, withers and dies during autumn and in winter; the grassland is bare, covered with snow. On the slopes of mountains and along the water courses, trees such as willows, poplars and alders are commonly found. The major crops of the area are wheat and maize. Other crops are potato, soyabean, cotton and alfalfa.
 3. Lions, cheetahs, leopards, giraffes, kudu (a native antelope), etc. are the various kinds of wildlife found in this region. Various national parks and sanctuaries have been set up to protect various animal species. The vervet monkey is one such rare species found in the region.
 4. The velds were originally the home of the wandering Bantu tribes, San and Khoikhoi people who hunted in the region. They practised food gathering, hunting and agriculture. They were the Dutch travellers and explorers.
- C.**
1. The prairies in North America are located between the foothills of the Rocky Mountains in the west and the Great lakes and Appalachian Highlands in the east. They are dotted with extensive and undulating plains and the land reaches a height of about 900 m in the west along the slope of the Rocky Mountains and slopes gently towards the east. A number of lakes and rivers flow through the prairies such as Lake Winnipeg, Lake Manitoba, etc. and

rivers Saskatchewan, Athabasca, Red, Missouri and Mississippi.

2. The velds were originally the home of the wandering Bantu tribes, San and Khoikhoi people who hunted in the region. They practised food gathering, hunting and agriculture. They were the Dutch travellers and explorers.

Their descendants, came to be known as Africaners. European settlers gave the name Hottentot to the original inhabitants of the velds. The main occupation of the Hottentots were herding and hunting. Some of them lead a nomadic, pastoral life. While the Africans speak Zulu, Swahili or Bantu languages. The Europeans living in the velds speak either English or Afrikaans.

3. Agriculture and cattle rearing is the main feature of prairie economy. These grasslands are today the world's most important wheat and corn growing agricultural lands. Farmers have introduced multi cropping, mixed farming and crop rotation to improve the fertility of soil and produce higher yields.

Tractors, wagons, , seed drills and combine are widely used on farms. The prairies are often referred to as ' granaries of the world'.

Mixed farming is practised, especially in the west, and sheep rearing. Here, huge ranches, with large animal sheds and pastures, are managed by cowboys. Farm products like milk, butter and cheese are sent to nearby towns.

4. Same as 2

Chapter 13

Life in the Deserts

Objective Types Questions

1. (c); 2. (c); 3. (c); 4. (d)
1. tropical regions, high average; 2. Mediterranean sea, Atlas Mountain, Niger Valley; 3. Bedouins, Tuaregs; 4. the Lamas

- C. 1. F; 2. T; 3. F; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. Camel is known as the ship of the desert.
2. Chad is the largest fresh water lake in the Sahara desert.
3. Wild asses are mules called in Ladakh.
4. Agriculture is main occupation of Ladakhis.
- B. 1. The Sahara, covers almost the whole of Northern Africa. It spreads over 9,400,000 sq km.
It is about three times the size of India. Its eastwest extent is about 5,500 km while the northwest extent is 1,900 km. It is located between 15°N and 30°N latitudes. The Sahara is the world's largest tropical desert. It is bounded by the Mediterranean Sea and the Atlas Mountain in the north, the Nile Valley and the Red Sea in the east, the Niger Valley in the south and the Atlantic Ocean in the west.
2. The Nubra, Shyok, Suru and Zaskar
3. Ladakhi cattle are native to the Ladakh region of Jammu & Kashmir. These are small-sized and short statured black or brown coloured animals well adapted to extreme cold climatic conditions.
4. Khardong La is historically important as it lies on the major caravan route from Leh to Kashgar in Central Asia.
- C. 1. **Natural Vegetation** : The desert is home to xerophytic vegetation such as small, spiny cacti bushes and tufts of coarse grass. They have long roots, waxy leaves, fleshy stems and spines. Date palms grow around the oases. They provide dates for food, the sap is used to make wine and the leaves are used for fodder and to make thatch roofs. Cactus, acacia and baobab are the main plants species.
Wildlife : The animal species adapt superbly to the extreme climate conditions. Small desert animals escape the fierce heat by hiding during the day under stones or into the soil. They are usually swift runners and come out to feed at night. The camel known as the 'ship of the

desert', scorpions, foxes, rodents, hares, gazelles, hedgehogs, the addax (a desert antelope), the jackal, hyena, snakes and lizards are found here.

2. Due to the extreme climate of the desert, it is difficult to lead a settled life. Many nomadic tribes traverse the Sahara. However, the most important are the Arab Bedouins in the north.

The Bedouins and Tuaregs practise animal rearing and move with their herds of camels, sheep and goats in search of water and grass. The animals provide them milk, meat, hide, which is used to make tents, belts, water bags, etc. and hair which is used for making carpets, mats, blankets, etc.

Camels are also used for transportation. People wear long, loose white robes. Agriculture is practised near the oases or in the river valleys. Various crops such as maize, millets, wheat, barley, fruits like figs, dates, apricots, olives, etc. are grown.

3. Ladakh is a Tibetan term meaning 'land of high passes'. It is located in the eastern part of Jammu and Kashmir in India. Ladakh is a cold, mountainous rocky desert. Lying north of the Great Himalays, it is bounded by the Karakoram Range in the north and the Zaskar Mountains in the south. The altitude here ranges from 3,000 m near Kargil to about 8,000 m in the Karakoram Range. The average height of the Ladakh range is 6,000 m.

Several mountain passes provide access to Ladakh, like the Khardung La, Changlang La, etc.

Climate : The climate in Ladakh is extreme with summer temperatures varying between 30°C during the day and -3°C at night while winter temperatures remain below freezing point during the day and may reach as low as -35°C at night. Ladakh receives no rainfall. The annual rainfall is as low as 10 cm. Westerly disturbances and the

bitter cold winds from Central Asia bring snowfall to the region which feeds the glaciers in the mountains. The winds entering through the passes bring heavy snowfall during winter.

4. Wildlife of Ladakh

Due to lack of vegetation and bitter cold, Ladakh has limited fauna. During the short summer season, hare, marmots, barasingha and lizards are visible. The animal most suited to the climate and terrain is the yak (dong), besides, mountain goats, sheep, Tibetan mules or wild ass (kiang), antelopes, 'dzo' (a hybrid yak-cow), and a variety of dogs are also found. Yak, besides being a beast of burden, also provides milk, wool and hair while goats and sheep provide milk, meat and hide. Several species of birds such as the rare blacknecked crane, herons, pigeons, chikar, redstarts, Tibetan snowcock and ravens are also found here.

Life of the People of Ladakh

Ladakh is thinly populated. There are less than 50 people per square km. It has been home to a rich and self-sustaining culture. The Ladakhis are fiercely independent and extremely hardworking people. The majority of the population is Tibetan Buddhist. The Ladakhi people have developed a lifestyle in harmony with nature and use their natural resources very carefully. The economy in Ladakh is based on agriculture, animal rearing and tourism.

Agriculture is practised during the summer months from May to September and wheat and barely are grown. Horticulture is common. Handicrafts also occupy an important place in traditional Ladakhi society in the form of knitting, weaving, cabinet-making, woodcarving, metal work and making embroidered tangkas or silk paintings.

Tourism also provides a source of livelihood for many Ladakhis in the summer season, especially in the urban areas of Leh (capital), Dras, Kargil and Dikit.

Democracy and Equality

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (c); 2. (c); 3. (b); 4. (c)
- B. 1. discriminations; 2. Equality; 3. Aung San Suu Kyi;
4. education, job opportunities
- C. 1. T; 2. F; 3. T; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. Democracy is a form of governance. It depends on the consent of the people.
2. In modern times, there are two kinds of democracy—direct democracy and indirect or representative democracy.
3. There are some special elements of democracy that are essential factors for the democratic government to work successfully.
4. Rosa Parks was an African-American civil rights activist, who is also referred to as the ‘mother of the freedom movement’.
- B. 1. The citizens of a country vote in the elections and choose the representatives of the government. Citizens have a very important role in a democracy as they exercise their rights and freedoms and benefit from the democratic setup of the country. They cooperate with the law and order and rules and regulations.
2. Direct democracy is a form of democracy where the citizens directly participate in the affairs of the government. Each and every decision is taken by majority voting. Direct democracy exists only in small countries.
3. The government has tried to implement equality through laws, and through government programmes or schemes. One scheme through which the government of India has tried to provide greater opportunity to the unequals is the Mid-day Meal Scheme.

4. In India, for many years, people belonging to the upper class or the dominant class, have treated the subordinate classes unfairly, resulting in huge inequalities in the society. They have been subjected to social, economic and religious inequalities and tremendous oppression by the dominant classes. These people are sometimes referred to as the marginalised sections of society.
- C. 1. There are some special elements of democracy that are essential factors for the democratic government to work successfully.

Social-Economic Equality

In democratic countries, all the citizens enjoy equal rights. The judiciary provides equal justice to everyone.

It is also important to have economic equality in society. There should be no gap between the economic sections of society.

Political Awareness : In a democracy, people willingly choose their leaders. They are not forced to do it. All the citizens should be politically aware and should understand the value of their voting right.

National Integration : Political parties are the soul of democracy. National interest should be placed above anything else.

Elections and Leadership : Elections are an integral part of a democracy. The political parties campaign just before elections and enlighten people about their merits and achievements.

Freedom of Expression : In a democratic country, people can express their opinions without fear or hesitation.

Accommodation of Differences : Democracy provides a suitable platform to accommodate a variety of differences.

Tolerance : Tolerance is very important in democracy. Everyone should respect the rights of the others.

2. In a democracy, every person has an equal opportunity to lead his/her own life and follow his/her own ambitions. If a

person has enough talent, can represent his nation in a particular sport or music or dance. During elections, all the citizens of India are allowed to vote, without any restrictions.

There are different kinds of equality.

Political Equality : In a democracy, all the adult citizens of a country have the right to vote. This is called universal adult franchise. It is an example of political equality.

Religious Equality : Religious equality means that people belonging to all religions are treated equally. Every religion has equal importance and festivals of all the religions are celebrated with equal respect.

Economic Equality : Economic equality means equal opportunity for everybody to earn a livelihood.

Social Equality : Social equality means all the citizen living in the society have equal rights to visit all the public places of the country.

Equality and Dignity : Dignity means self-respect or regard of a person in terms of his caste and religion. When persons are not treated equally, their dignity is violated.

Institutional Representation of Democracy

Chapter 2

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (c); 2. (c); 3. (c); 4. (a)
- B. 1. Election; 2. political party; 3. EVM; 4. Indian National Congress, Bhartiya Janata Party, Communist Party
- C. 1. T; 2. T; 3. F; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. Universal adult franchise is based on the principle of one person, one vote. Every adult citizen of a country can vote only once during one particular election.
2. Election is the process through which a democratic government is elected.

3. The Election Commission conduct free and fair elections in the country.
 4. The Bahujan Samaj Party (BSP) in Uttar Pradesh, Jharkhand Mukti Morcha (JMM) in Jharkhand, and the Trinamool Congress in West Bengal are some of the important regional parties in India.
- B.**
1. In these elections, people do not elect their representatives directly. They elect an electoral college. The members of this electoral college have the responsibility to elect the representatives.
In India, this method of indirect election is adopted for the election of the President of India, the members of the Rajya Sabha and for the Vidhan Parishad in the states.
 2. A political party is an organised group of people who have common ideals and goals. Before the elections, each political party brings out an election manifesto which clearly mentions the policies and ideals that the party believes in.
 3. It monitors the functioning of the ruling party and ensures that it does not misuse power. It highlights the various challenges before the government so that public opinion can be generated.
 4. Sometimes, after elections, no single party gets the majority to form a government, two or more parties come together to form a coalition government..
Coalition government have advantages as well as disadvantages. It takes care of the welfare of diverse group of people as the various political parties comprising it represent different sections of the society.
- C.**
1. In the early democracies, only men were allowed to vote. It was called Manhood Suffrage. In some other democratic countries, only male property owners could vote. In some countries, black citizens were not given voting rights while in some others, women were also denied voting rights.

Universal adult franchise is based on the principle of one person, one vote. Every adult citizen of a country can vote only once during one particular election.

2. Elections have been the usual mechanism by which modern representative democracy has operated since the 17th century. Elections may fill offices in the legislature, sometimes in the executive and judiciary, and for regional and local government.
3. The Election Commission announces the election schedule for filing nomination papers, scrutiny of nominations and date of polling. The last date for withdrawal of candidature is also announced.

The political parties select their candidates. The parties select candidates on the basis of the candidate's popularity in the masses and their prospect of winning the elections.

People who want to contest elections file their nomination papers and deposit a fixed amount of money as security with the Returning Officer. Those who fail to secure at least one-sixth of the total numbers of the votes polled, do not get their security money back.

Political parties bring out their Election Manifestos. These manifestos specify the programmes and policies which the parties will implement, if voted to power.

After the election day, the EVMs are stored in a strong room under heavy security. After the completion of different phases of the elections, a day is set to count the votes. The votes are tallied and the verdict is known within hours. The Returning Officer declares the winner. The candidate who gets the maximum number of votes is declared the winner in the constituency. If a candidate feels that elections had not been held fairly, he/she can file a petition in the High Court.

4. Countries around the world have different party systems. These are broadly categorised into one party or single party, two party or bi-party; or multi party systems.

Single Party System : In some countries, only one political party exists. In such a system, the voters really do not have much choice as all the candidates belong to one single party.

Bi-Party System : Some countries such as Japan and the United States of America have a two party system. After elections, one party forms the government and the other party forms the opposition.

Multi Party System : In countries such as India, Pakistan, Canada and Australia, there are many political parties. Voters have a wide choice and they can choose from several candidates belonging to different parties. This is called multi party system.

Chapter **3**

The State Government

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (c); 2. (c); 3. (c); 4. (d)
B. 1. unicameral; 2. chairman; 3. Chief Minister; 4. Ordinary bills, Legislative Council
C. 1. T; 2. T; 3. T; 4. F

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. The government at the state and central levels work through three main organs : Legislature, Executive, Judiciary
2. The state legislature has two houses—the Legislative Assembly or Vidhan Sabha.
3. A bill is a proposal to pass a new law or to change an existing one.
4. Civil services are the huge bureaucratic body that carries out actual day to day administration in a state.
- B. 1. States which have only one legislative body is called unicameral while states that have both the Vidhan Shabha and the Vidhan Parishad are called bicameral. Maharashtra, Karnataka, Bihar, Uttar Pradesh and Andhra Pradesh have bicameral legislature.

2.
 - He/She must be a citizen of India.
 - He/She must be at least 25 years of age for getting elected to the Vidhan Sabha and 30 years for the Vidhan Parishad.
 - He/She must be a registered voter in that state.
 - He/She must not hold any office of profit under the Government.
 - He/She must not be mentally unsound or have been proclaimed by the law of the state.
 3. The members of the Vidhan Sabha elect a speaker and a deputy speaker who looks after the proceedings of the Assembly and also ensures that the discipline in the house is maintained. The proceedings of the Vidhan Parishad are conducted by the Chairman, who is elected by the members.
 4. Each state has an Advocate General appointed by the Governor to perform various legal functions. He/She advises state executive on various legal matters. A person qualified to be a High Court judge can be appointed as an Advocate General. While he/she can take part in the proceeding of the state legislature, he/she does not have the right to vote on any issue regarding the bills.
- C. 1. The Constitution of India clearly defines the structure, powers and functions of each organ of the state government.

The legislature may have one house or two houses. The two houses of the legislature are— Legislative Assembly or Vidhan Sabha and Legislative Council or Vidhan Parishad.

States which have only one legislative body are called unicameral while states that have both the Vidhan Sabha and the Vidhan Parishad are called bicameral. Maharashtra, Karnataka, Bihar, Uttar Pradesh and Andhra Pradesh have bicameral legislature.

2. The state legislature has the following functions:
 - The most important function of the state legislature is to make laws on the subjects mentioned in the Union List, the State List, and the Concurrent List.
 - It passes state budgets, money bills, permission of levying taxes and fixing salaries of the members of state legislatures.
 - All money bills are introduced by legislative assembly.
 - The council of ministers is collectively responsible to the Legislative Assembly. It remains in office as long as it enjoys the confidence of the house.
3. The State executive comprises the Chief Minister, the Council of Ministers and the Governor.

The Chief Minister

The member of the ruling party elect a leader from amongst themselves, who becomes the Chief Minister. The Chief Minister is the most important member of the state executive. He/She has following functions :

- He/She is responsible for the working of the government in the state.
 - He/She is also the leader of the Council of Ministers.
 - He/She Selects other ministers of the state and allocates their portfolios.
 - He/She presides over cabinet meetings.
4. The process of making law is long and complicated. A proposal to pass a new law or to change an existing one is called a bill. A law is presented before a state legislature in the form of a bill. There are two kinds of bills. Ordinary bills deal with general administrative issues. deal with some form of expenditure, impositions of new taxes or abolition of existing taxes.

5. Functions of A Governor

The administration of a state is carried out in the name of the Governor. However, in reality, a Governor is the

nominal head of a state whereas the real power lies with the Chief Minister and the Council of Ministers.

- The Governor appoints the Chief Minister and the Council of Ministers.
- The Governor distributes portfolios to the Council of Ministers on the advice of the Chief Minister.
- He/She also appoints the Advocate General, the judges of the district courts, and the Chairman and Members of the State Public Service Commission.
- The Governor summons and ends the sessions of both the houses of the state legislature.
- The Governor inaugurates the state legislature after the assembly elections and also addresses the first session every year.
- The Governor can return a bill to the state legislature for reconsideration. A bill passed by the state legislature can become a law only after the Governor gives assent.
- When the state legislature is not in session and the Governor considers it necessary to pass a law, he/she can then issue an ordinance.

Chapter 4

Healthcare Services

Objective Types Questions

- A.** 1. (d); 2. (b); 3. (c); 4. (c)
- B.** 1. non-government organization; 2. health workers, health plans; 3. 5-7 years; 4. Private healthcare services
- C.** 1. T; 2. F; 3. T; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A.** 1. Health is defined as physical, mental, economic and social well-being of an individual and the society at large.
2. World Health Organisation
3. NRHM provides healthcare services to the citizens of our country.

4. Our public healthcare policy consists of a three level structure comprising the primary, secondary and tertiary healthcare facilities.

B. 1. The state government undertakes various programmes to look after public health. Sometimes, it takes the help of non-government organisations (NGO) to promote various programmes. The public healthcare expenditure is jointly shared by the central and the state governments.

2. Public Healthcare

Healthcare in India is the responsibility of every state.

The state government undertakes various programmes to look after public health. Sometimes, it takes the help of non-government organisations (NGO) to promote various programmes. The public healthcare expenditure is jointly shared by the central and the state governments.

Private Healthcare Services

In recent times, private healthcare facilities have become very popular. There are speciality and super-speciality private hospitals, offering better infrastructure and facilities. Apart from these, private nursing homes and doctor's clinics have also mushroomed all over the country, specially in urban areas. They provide efficient, clean and prompt services.

3. The public healthcare system does not always reach the common man who needs it the most. There is a scarcity of funds and the granted funds are also not utilized properly. Skilled dedicated doctors are unwilling to serve in rural areas. There is shortage of medical equipments as well as medicines. Due to poor conditions of roads, sometimes, it is difficult to take patients to the nearby medical centre.

4. The Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act came into force from 1st April, 2010. It is the duty of the government to provide elementary education to every child in the age group of 6-14 years. The government will

bear the cost and responsibility of getting a child admitted to school and also ensuring that he/she completes 8 years of schooling.

C. 1. Public Healthcare Services

Our public healthcare policy consists of a three level structure comprising the primary, secondary and tertiary healthcare facilities.

Primary level

It is designed to have three types of healthcare institutions, namely a sub-centre (SC) for a population of 3000-5000, a primary health care (PHC) for 20,000-30,000 people and community health centre (CHC) covering a population of 80,000 to 1.2 lakh.

Secondary level

Secondary healthcare refers to a system in which patients from primary healthcare are referred to specialists in higher hospitals for treatment.

Tertiary level

Once a patient is hospitalised and need a higher level of speciality care within the hospital, he or she may be referred to tertiary level care. Tertiary care requires highly specialised equipments and experts. In India, under public health system, tertiary care service is provided by medical colleges and advanced medical research institutes.

2. The responsibility of providing equal health services to all the citizens lies with the government. The government should open more health care centres and concentrate on all the aspects of health in order to improve the health situation in our country. Another important role played by the state government is maintaining the quality of food products manufactured and sold in the state. In most states, there are food inspectors who keep a check on the quality of food products.

3. Drawbacks of Public Healthcare Service

The public healthcare system does not always reach the common man who needs it the most. There is a scarcity of funds and the granted funds are also not utilized properly. Skilled dedicated doctors are unwilling to serve in rural areas. There is shortage of medical equipments as well as medicines. Due to poor conditions of roads, sometimes, it is difficult to take patients to the nearby medical centre.

The number of public healthcare centres is also inadequate, specially in rural areas. Sometimes patients have to be carried to long distances to reach a medical centre. In case of critical illnesses, this can be fatal.

4. Other Services of the State Government

Land reforms : The state government takes various steps to protect the interests of the farmers and to improve their conditions. Some states such as Kerala have provided landless agriculture workers with land to cultivate. To prevent exploitation, limit has been fixed on the ownership of land.

Water : Water is essential for life and it is the duty of the state government to supply clean drinking water to people in their homes. A system of supplying clean water to homes is created by the local selfgovernment bodies of the state government.

Irrigation : An active role is played by the state government in providing irrigation facilities to the farmers.

Sanitation : Sanitation means promoting health, ensuring prevention of human contact with hazardous wastes that can cause health problems.

Education : Education was included in the subjects of the Concurrent List of states in 1976. Since then, the central government has tried to maintain a uniform standard of education throughout the country.

Right to Education : The Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act came into force from 1st April, 2010. It is the duty of the government to provide elementary education to every child in the age group of 6-14 years.

Chapter **5**

Media and Democracy

Objective Types Questions

- A.** 1. (c); 2. (d); 3. (b); 4. (d)
B. 1. Mass media; 2. Newspapers, magazines; 3. internet; 4. 15th June, 2005
C. 1. T; 2. F; 3. T; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A.** 1. Media is a source of communication which plays an important role in a democracy.
2. Media is classified into two categories—Print Media and Electronic Media.
3. The print media includes newspapers, books, magazines and journals.
4. The internet has become the fastest mode of media, through computers, laptops, tablets and mobile phones.
- B.** 1. The media which can reach a large number of people at the same time, is called mass media.
2. Undoubtedly, the media has evolved and become more active in democracy over the years. It is the media only which reminds politicians about their unfulfilled promises at the time of elections. Television and radio have made a significant progress in educating rural illiterate masses making them aware of all the events in their local languages. Exposing village heads and moneylenders had helped to attract government attention and take strict actions against them.
3. The success of any democracy depends on a strong public opinion. It acts as a guide to the government while making

policies and laws. It controls and checks the government from becoming irresponsible and helps it to remain sympathetic towards the people.

4. Electronic media comprises radio, television, the internet and cinema. Electronic media creates an audio-visual impact. Live coverage allows people to be a part of a particular incident. The radio is a good medium of being in touch with national issues for people who live in remote areas or travel to remote areas, where television transmission may not be available.

- C. 1. Media plays an extremely important role in a democracy because people enjoy the freedom of speech. The success of any democracy depends on a strong public opinion. It acts as a guide to the government while making policies and laws. It controls and checks the government from becoming irresponsible and helps it to remain sympathetic towards the people.

The media brings to the people details of debates in the parliament, the views of political leaders on various issues of national and international importance, and organises debates among leaders belonging to different political parties.

2. The Right to Information Act is a law enacted by the Parliament of India allowing citizens of India to access the records of the Central Government and State Governments. The Act applies to all the states and union territories of India.

The Right to Information Act was passed by the Parliament on 15th June, 2005, and came fully into force on 12th October, 2005.

Under the provision of the Act, any citizen may request information from a public authority which is a body of the Government. That authority is required to reply within thirty days. The Act also required every public authority to

publish certain categories of information so that the citizen need a minimum resource to request for information formally.

3. Difference between Print Media and Electronic Media

S.No.	Print Media	Electronic Media
1.	Only a literate person can use the print media.	Even an illiterate person can use the electronic media.
2.	It works according to a deadline.	There is no deadline for the electronic media.
3.	Readers have the choice to go back and recheck what they have read.	Viewers cannot go back and recheck what they have seen or heard.
4.	No scope for live discussions.	Live discussions are possible.
5.	News are not updated frequently.	Even the minute update is possible.

4. The media acts as a link between the people and the government. A righteous media can help in proper functioning of a democracy.

The aim of the media should be to inform and not to create sensations and mislead the public.

Some of the ethics the media should adhere to are listed as follows :

- The media should source information from a genuine and reliable source, before presenting it to the public.
- The media must present the truth honestly. The media should never give half-baked information based on rumours.

Objective Types Questions

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

- B.** 1. mass communication; 2. catchy lines/words; 3. hurts;
4. advertising agency
- C.** 1. T; 2. T; 3. F 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A.** 1. The promotional activity for selling a product is called advertising.
2. Product Advertisement
3. A brand is the identity of a specific product, service, or business, in the form of a name, sign, symbol, or slogan.
4. In some newspapers and magazines there are classified advertisement. They deal with matrimony, property, housing, jobs, births and deaths, etc.
- B.** 1. A brand is the identity of a specific product, service, or business, in the form of a name, sign, symbol, or slogan. For example, different manufactures will be trying to sell a packet of biscuits manufactured by them. So each of them will advertise its product in the best possible manner to win over the buyers. The brand of biscuits that will be able to attract maximum number of people will have more sales.
2. In some newspapers and magazines there are classified advertisement. They deal with matrimony, property, housing, jobs, births and deaths, etc.
3. Advertising spreads awareness about a particular product and generate people's interest in it. The consumers, get the chance to choose their specific 'brand' of products. Sometimes to attract more consumers, manufactures sell their products with heavy discounts or with special offers. Social and institutional advertising helps consumers to know more about the activities of various charitable as well as corporate organisations. People also get to know about various welfare measures taken by the government, through social advertisement.
4. It is the means by which political parties reach out to the

people. During the time of election, such campaigns are in full swing.

- C. 1. Today, advertisement is a major part of the print as well as electronic media. With the advent of newspapers, advertisement became more elaborate. The first newspaper advertisement announced births, deaths, social appointments, and the arrival and departure of ships. Print advertisement are also seen in magazines.

You must have seen huge advertisement boards all over your city/town. These are called display/advertisement.

2. Kinds of Advertising

Product or Commercial Advertising : The most common type of advertisement is product advertisement. These advertisements are colourful and eye-catching.

Social Advertising : When advertising takes up social responsibility and advertising for a social cause, it is called social advertising.

Institutional Advertising : Institutional Advertising focuses on the social work done by a particular company and how it sponsors sports and cultural events.

3. Various techniques are used by the advertisers to change the public's attitude in their favour.

Some advertisers try to remind people about their brands again and again. Emotional appeals are used to change the emotions of the people. In testimonials recommendations of actual users and experts are used to promote the product and services.

Pressure is put on people in the form of time limit or limited stock. Some advertisers use catchy slogans that become associated with their products. Some advertisers involve associating the product with a desirable image like a model, a landscape, etc.

4. Advertising makes us associate happiness with consumerism. In other words, advertisements create a problem and then offer us a solution to it.

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (c); 2. (b); 3. (a)
- B. 1. humiliation, torture, exploitation; 2. education; 3. freedom struggle; 4. prohibits
- C. 1. T; 2. F; 3. T; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. Gender is the pattern of behaviour expected from boys and girls that is determined by the society.
2. Female foeticide is an inhuman practice where the gender of a child is determined before birth and if found that the child is a girl, it is killed even before birth.
3. Raja Rammohan Roy, Swami Dayanand Saraswati, Ishwar Chandra Vidyasagar, Jyotiba Phule.
4. Matangini Hazra, Annie Besant, Sarojini Naidu and Sucheta Kriplani were some of the important women leaders.
- B. 1. When men and women are treated differently it is called gender inequality. Traditionally, the job of a man and woman can be categories as 'working to earn a living' and 'doing all the household work at home and bear children', respectively.
2. • In many families, preference is given to the birth of the boy and not to the girl as it is believed that the lineage of the family depends upon the boy of the family and not the girl.
- It was considered quite useless to educate women as they were not required to seek employment.
3. Religion is specially cruel to single women such as widows, who are made to follow very harsh rules and regulations. Even the television serials and movies, watched by a huge number of people portray the Indian women as weak and always sacrificing their own wishes for the family. Men are shown to be dominant and insensitive.

4. Women in India work in both the informal and formal sectors. The formal sectors consists of offices, schools, hospitals, banks and BPOs. Sometimes, women face discrimination at workspace. In the formal sector, women enjoy certain benefits such as medical facilities including sick leave, maternity benefits and hospitalisation.
- C.
1. Gender inequality begins from the family. The male member is considered to be the head of the family and women are supposed to do the housework, even if they go outside the house to earn a living. In many homes, women do not have any opinion on household issues and are often not allowed to express their opinions.
 2. In the 1800s, during the Industrial Revolution, women came out of their homes to work in factories and began to earn money.
Today, working women have a very challenging life. They have to balance all the work in their offices and also the household responsibilities. People are increasingly recognising the amount of household work done by women. She is getting house helps, to her to do the work. The male members of the family are also sharing the household work.
 3. Do yourself.
 4. Same as 2

Chapter **8**

Markets

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (c); 2. (a); 3. (d)
- B. 1. disturbing goods, services in order to maximise the profile;
2. neighbourhood; 3. retailer
- C. 1. T; 2. F; 3. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. Market is a place or any other kind of arrangement where buyers and sellers exchange goods and services.

2. Sellers sell goods directly to consumers.
 3. Wholesalers are the sellers who sell goods in a wholesale market while retailers are the sellers who sell goods in a retail market.
- B.** 1. Markets can be physical, i.e. where buyers and sellers interact while buying and selling things, or even virtual, where buyers and sellers interact through the internet.

2. Types of Market

Markets can be of different types.

- In some markets, people buy and sell a particular type of goods in bulk. Such markets are called wholesale markets.
- In some markets, different shopkeepers sell different kinds of goods and services. Such markets are called retail markets. Retail markets are usually situated in neighbourhoods and majority of buying and selling by the common people take place in the retail market.

3. Difference between Retailing and Wholesaling

Retail Market	Wholesale Market
1. Products are sold in small quantities.	Products are sold in large quantities.
2. Prices are high as the retailer has to include other costs while selling, like salaries of employees, rent, sales tax, etc.	Prices are comparatively very low as the wholesaler does not include additional costs.
3. A retailer has no direct contact with the manufacturer.	The wholesaler has direct links with the manufacturer.
4. There is a direct interaction with the customer.	There is direct interaction with the retailers and not the customers.
5. A retailer can choose quality goods and replace the damaged ones.	The wholesaler has no say in the quality. He has to accept what he gets.

- C. 1. Marketing is the way you promote your goods. Earlier, the focus of marketing used to be all about distributing goods and services in order to maximise the profits. With the growth of population, this changed and the manufacturers did all to satisfy and retain their customers. For this, they had to accelerate their services to meet the demands.

Benefits of Marketing

- Marketing allows the producers to concentrate on production activities rather than worrying about selling their products.
- Marketing helps in developing products that are as per the demands of the market.
- It makes the cost-effective, large scale production of goods possible.
- Marketing explores various markets, including the overseas export market, and generates foreign exchange revenue.

2. Type of Retail Outlets

Retail marketing is done in the following ways :

Vendors : The people who sell goods moving from one place to another, are called vendors. They are also known as mobile traders.

Weekly Markets : A weekly market is held on a specific day of the week. The goods in such markets are available at cheaper rates because the traders do not have to incur fixed expenditure like paying rent, electricity, etc.

General stores : These stores deal in a variety of products of daily use. They even offer credits and maintain a record for that.

Single Line or Departmental Stores : A single line store caters to a particular segment of customers. There are several large shops that sell goods on a large scale.

Chain Stores : Chain stores are a group of retail stores operating under the same ownership that carry similar

goods. Chain stores like Pizza Hut, Fab India, Levi's, etc. are mostly found in big cities.

Shopping Complexes and Malls : The shopping complexes are a group of shops within a defined area. Malls are multi-storeyed air conditioned buildings where shops are found on each floor.

3. A product manufactured by the producer reaches the consumer. There are two ways of distribution which are known as channels of distribution. They are—direct channels and indirect channel.

Direct Channels : In this type of marketing, there is no middleman present between the producer and the consumer. There are two types of direct channels—the travelling salespersons and retail showrooms.

Indirect Channels : Indirect channels refers to the distribution channel when the producers sell their goods to consumers through middlemen.

Social Studies-8

Unit-1 : History

Chapter

1

The Birth of Modern India

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (a); 2. (c); 3. (c); 4. (b)
- B. 1. ideas, philosophies, institutions; 2. Hyderabad, Bengal, Awadh; 3. Art, Architecture, language, literature, Indians dressed; 4. Dinbandhu Mitra
- C. 1. F; 2. T; 3. T; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. England
2. Sambad Kaumudi, Amrit Bazar Patrika, Kesari, Maharatta, Harijana, Young India, The Statesman, Hindustan Times etc.
3. These are original documents which are carefully preserved in archives and museums.
4. Dinabandhu Mitra wrote the play Neel Darpan.
- B. 1. After the arrival of the factory system, a new class of people arose who were the owners of the factories. 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.
2. Indigeous sources basically means sources that are available within the country. Rig Veda can be treated as the oldest indigenous source of Indian history.
3. In 1757, the Indian subcontinent was divided into a number of kingdoms and provinces. Large provinces like Hyderabad, Bengal, Awadh, accepted the nominal rule of the decaying Mughals. There were also some independent kingdoms. Over the next 190 years, the British came to establish their direct rule over large parts of India and maintain their strong indirect rule over all other local kingdoms which came to be known as princely states. In

1947, when India became independent, it comprised over 500 princely states and the directly administered territories of Britain.

The British rule in India was first established under the EEIC. However, after 1857, the British Crown or the British Government took direct control over India and ruled the country till 1947.

Another striking political development was the emergence of a coherent and organised opposition to the British rule by people across the Indian subcontinent.

4. Art, architecture, language, literature and in fact even the way Indians dressed, changed considerably during this period. In the field of architecture, the city of New Delhi or Lutyens Delhi, is a good example of colonial architecture. Similarly in the area of art, the Bengal School is a good example where Indian themes were expressed through western styles. In the area of literature, Indian writings in English, which is now very popular around the world, began during this period.

C. 1. Industrial Revolution in Europe was a series of great changes which influenced the growth of the modern European society. These changes were caused by the introduction of new technologies and inventions of new mechanical devices in Europe between the 18th and the 19th centuries. Manufacturing, agriculture, mining, transport and technology were some of the key areas that were influenced by the Industrial Revolution.

2. In 1600, a group of English traders founded the English East India Company (EEIC) in London. About a century later, Farrukhsiyar, a later Mughal ruler, granted important trading rights to English merchants through a royal farmaan.

Following its victory in the Battle of Plassey in 1757, the EEIC became the dominant political power in the Indian subcontinent and gradually most of the Indian

subcontinent became a part of the British colony. Thus, the company that came to India as a trading organisation became the master of the Indian subcontinent.

3. The Nationalism in India means a change in peoples understanding of their identity and sense of belonging. The growth of modern nationalism is intimately connected to the anti-colonial movement.
4. Some of the important social changes that took place during this period were around the issues of caste system, tribal societies and treatment of women. Caste barriers among the Hindus began to grow weak during the colonial period. The banning of sati, the encouragement of widow remarriage, framing of legislations to prevent child marriage and regulations to educate the girl child were some important developments in this area.

The birth of the English-educated middle class of India which not only produced bureaucrats and administrators at the service of the British rulers but also some of the outstanding leaders of the Indian National Movement.

Chapter 2

Colonial Rule in India

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (c); 2. (c); 3. (b); 4. (c)
- B. 1. mercantilism, 17th century; 2. concessions; 3. Sir Eyre Coote, Comte de Lally, 1760; 4. Doctrine of subsidiary Alliance, 1798, 1805
- C. 1. F; 2. T; 3. T; 4. F
- D. 1. (c); 2. (d); 3. (e); 4. (b); 5. (a)

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. The EEIC was established in London in the year 1600 by a Royal Charter issued by Queen Elizabeth I, the Queen of England.
2. Captain William Hawkins.
3. Mir Jafar was the Nawab of Bengal during the battle of Plassey.

4. Warren Hastings.

- B. 1. Captain William Hawkins led the first voyage of the EEIC to India in 1608. His crew sailed into the port of Surat. A trading post or factory was established after going the trade concession from the Mughal Emperor Jahangir in Surat by the English in 1613.

In 1615, Sir Thomas Roe arrived in India as the ambassador of King James I of England and set up factories in Agra, Broach (modern day Bharuch), Ahmedabad and some other places.

2. **Battle of Plassey (1757)** : When the news of the English defeat reached Madras, Robert Clive was dispatched with a strong troop to recapture Calcutta (Kolkata). The British forces under Clive recaptured Calcutta, conspiring with Mir Jafar, the Commander-in-Chief of Siraj-ud-daulah. They also managed to win over other important members of Siraj-uddaulah's court such as Jagat Seth (a banker) and Omi Chand (a rich merchant). With their support, the British forces defeated the forces of Siraj-ud-daulah in the Battle of Plassey in 1757. After this victory, the EEIC became the real power in Bengal. Mir Jafar became the puppet Nawab of Bengal. The EEIC officials and their Indian agents forced the peasants and crafts persons to sell their goods at very low prices, and thus made profits.
3. **Treaty of Allahabad (1765)** : After the battle, Shuja-ud-Daulah and Shah Alam II signed two treaties at Allahabad with Clive, the Governor of the Company. The Nawab of Awadh got his territories restored except those of Allahabad and Kora, which were assigned to Shah Alam II. The Nawab had to maintain and keep the British troops who would defend him if he was attacked. Thus, Awadh became a dependent and a buffer state which would protect Bengal from the direct impact of any invasion from the north-west. In return, the company gave him Kora and Allahabad and an annual tribute of rupees 26 lakhs. The

Nawab of Awadh had to pay an indemnity of rupees 50 lakhs. In lieu of this, his kingdom was restored to him as British protectorate.

4. The Doctrine of Subsidiary Alliance was initiated by Marquess Wellesley, Governor General of India from 1798 to 1805. The main objective was to gain control over large tracts of India without direct wars. Its key features were as follows :

- Any Indian ruler who accepted Subsidiary Alliance with the British had to disband their army and keep British forces within their territory and agree to pay for their maintenance.
- The rulers had to expel all non-English foreigners from their states. They had to surrender control of their foreign affairs to the British and agree to abide by the decisions of the British.
- The Company in return promised to protect such rulers from external and internal dangers.

C. 1. The English East India Company was a trading company which was started by a group of merchants in Britain. The EEIC, which came as a trading company, eventually became the supreme political power in India.

The EEIC was established in London in the year 1600 by a Royal Charter issued by Queen Elizabeth I, the Queen of England. According to this Charter, the Company got the sole rights of trade in the East Indies, which included all places east of Cape of Good Hope.

2. Between 1744 and 1763, a series of three wars were fought between the EEIC and the French East India Company.

The First Carnatic War

In the First Carnatic War, the British captured some French ships. They were supported by the Nawab of Carnatic. The French under Dupleix responded by capturing Fort St George in Madras. Meanwhile, the War of Austrian

Succession ended in Europe and with this, the First Carnatic War also came to an end. By the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748), Madras was returned to the British in exchange for the French fortress of Louisbourg in North America, which the British had captured.

The Second Carnatic War

When a peace treaty was signed in 1748 in Europe, peace also prevailed between the French and the British trading companies. But this peace lasted only for a short time. The Nawab of Carnatic was killed by the French. The Nizam of Hyderabad, Asaf Jah, too died at the same time. Now, both the British and the French wanted to wield influence in these two states. Dupleix supported Chanda Sahib in Carnatic and Muzaffar Jung in Hyderabad.

At the outset, the French succeeded in murdering their opponents and placing their supporters on thrones. However, the British troops soon captured Arcot in 1751. Clive's success led to additional victories for the British, the Nizam and Arcot allies. The war ended with the Treaty of Pondicherry (Puducherry), signed in 1754.

The Third Carnatic War

The British forces captured the French settlement of Chandernagore (now Chandannagar) in 1757. Then, the British commander Sir Eyre Coote decisively defeated the French under Comte de Lally at the Battle of Wandiwash in 1760. The war concluded with the signing of the 1763 Treaty of Paris, which returned Chandernagore and Pondicherry (Puducherry) to France and allowed the French to have 'factories' (trading posts) in India but forbade French traders from administering them.

3. Suspicious of the rising powers of Haider Ali, the Nizam of Hyderabad formed a coalition with the British and attacked Mysore. Haider Ali defeated them and forced the British to sign a treaty, by which they agreed to help each other in case of attack by a third party.

But soon, the British occupied the French port of Mahe, which was Mysore's only opening for European trade. This led to the Second Mysore War (1771-1784).

4. Doctrine of Lapse

The Doctrine of Lapse was a policy of annexation started by Lord Dalhousie, the Governor General of India between 1848 and 1856. According to this policy, any princely state or territory under Subsidiary Alliance System, would automatically be annexed if the ruler was either 'incompetent or died without a direct heir'. This deprived an Indian ruler of their long-standing right to choose a successor or adopt a successor. The Company annexed the princely states of Satara (1848), Jaitpur and Samnampur (1849), Nagpur and Jhansi (1854) and Awadh (Oudh) (1856) using this doctrine.

5. British Administration

An efficient system of civil administration and a professional, well-trained army were two of the most important features of British rule in India.

Civil Administration : Lord Cornwallis is generally regarded as the Father of Indian Civil Administration. It was during his tenure as the Governor-General (1786-93) that the structure of an independent civil service was put in place.

In 1800, the then Governor General Lord Wellesley established Fort William College in Calcutta (Kolkata) to train civil servants in local languages and customs. In 1806, a similar college called the Haileybury College was established in England to train civil servants.

The Army : The EEIC's army was disciplined and loyal. Soldiers were thoroughly trained in the use of the latest arms and ammunition and paid regularly. From 1820s, the cavalry declined in importance and the infantry became more important. Soldiers of this regiment were trained in using muskets and match-locks.

The Judicial System : In the beginning, the administration

of justice was carried out on the basis of the traditional laws of the Indian people. In the case of the Hindus, the Shastras, and in the case of the Muslims, the Shariat was the basis of justice. In 1772, a new system of justice was established. Each district was to have two courts—a Criminal Court and a Civil Court. While Civil Courts were presided over by the Company's collectors, the Criminal Courts were left in the hands of the natives like a qazi and mufti, who worked under the supervision of the collectors.

Chapter **3**

The Peasants and The Raj

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (c); 2. (c); 3. (d); 4. (b)
B. 1. Bengal Famine; 2. ryot or farmer; 3. Agriculture, cultivation; 4. Kukas of Punjab
C. 1. T; 2. F; 3. T; 4. F

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. In 1793, Lord Cornwallis introduced the scheme of Permanent Settlement.
2. The revolt started from a small village in Bengal, Govindapur in Nadia district.
3. Commercialisation of agriculture simply means that a peasant grows more than he and his family can consume, and he sells the rest in the market.
4. Indigo is a dye. It was a major item of international trade from the 16th to the late 19th century. Although it has other uses apart from dyeing
- B. 1. **Permanent Settlement (1793)** : In 1793, Lord Cornwallis introduced the scheme of Permanent Settlement. Under the scheme, the Company fixed the land revenues of Bengal and Bihar on a permanent basis. Later, Cornwallis extended it to Orissa, northern Madras (Chennai) and Varanasi.
2. **Key Features of the Mahalwari Settlement** : The unit of revenue settlement was the village or the mahal and the

revenue demand was made collectively on the village. The village headman or the lambardar was responsible for collecting the revenue and making it over to the government. The lambardars fixed the revenue on the basis of the type of land, total land under cultivation, the customs and right of different agricultural groups. The estimated revenue of each plot within a village was added up to calculate the revenue that each village (Mahal) had to pay. The rate of revenue was to be revised periodically and not fixed permanently.

3. The failure of the Nij method led to its replacement by another method, which came to be known as the ryot method.

4. **Commercialisation of Agriculture and Cultivation**

Commercialisation of agriculture simply means that a peasant grows more than he and his family can consume, and he sells the rest in the market. In India, after the various land revenue settlements were put in place, the commercialisation of agriculture took place. All the three land revenue settlements were based on cash payment. So the zamindar, lambardar or the ryot had to make enough provision for cash by selling a part of the produce in the market to be able to pay cash revenue.

The third change was brought about in the rural areas by the forced cultivation of some commercial crops, sometimes referred to as plantation crops. These crops were not needed locally and were meant only for export. In the first phase of the colonial rule, opium and indigo were the main commercial crops.

- C. 1. **Permanent Settlement (1793)** : In 1793, Lord Cornwallis introduced the scheme of Permanent Settlement. Under the scheme, the Company fixed the land revenues of Bengal and Bihar on a permanent basis. Later, Cornwallis extended it to Orissa, northern Madras (Chennai) and Varanasi.

Key Features of the Permanent Settlement

The revenue for the area was fixed permanently at the highest possible amount that can be derived from the land. The farmer became the tenant of the zamindar or revenue collector and lost rights to his land. Every year, the zamindar had to pay the fixed amount by a certain date. He could extract any amount from the farmers, pay the fixed revenue amount and keep the surplus amount with him. In case of nonpayment, his land was taken over and sold off to someone else.

2. Land Revenue Policies Under British

Permanent Settlement (1793) : In 1793, Lord Cornwallis introduced the scheme of Permanent Settlement. Under the scheme, the Company fixed the land revenues of Bengal and Bihar on a permanent basis. Later, Cornwallis extended it to Orissa, northern Madras (Chennai) and Varanasi.

Ryotwari Settlement (1820) : In the 1820s, Thomas Munro devised the Ryotwari Settlement. This system was introduced in parts of Madras (Chennai) and Bombay (Mumbai) Presidencies. Under this system, the Company made a revenue settlement directly with the ryot or farmer.

Mahalwari Settlement (1822) : The Mahalwari settlement of revenue was introduced in 1830 in the western Uttar Pradesh, parts of Madhya Pradesh and Punjab by Holt Mackenzie. In these areas, the land was commonly owned by a group of villages called mahals. The talukadar or the headman of each mahal was assigned the task of collecting and paying the revenue to the Company. The revenue demand was not fixed permanently and it could be revised periodically.

- 3.** In the beginning, the planters adopted the nij system of cultivation, where the planters produced indigo on lands that they directly controlled, but soon they faced a number

of problems. Large areas of fertile lands for indigo cultivation were not available because the lands were already densely populated, and eviction of the tenants led to conflicts. Secondly, they could not even hire labour to work on indigo plantation. Thirdly, from the same reasons, it was difficult to arrange for ploughs and bullocks as the peasants required these to work on their own fields. Thus, the planters failed to bring large areas of land under indigo cultivation.

4. In 1859, ryots in Bengal refused to grow indigo, and refused to pay rents to the planters. At some places, they even attacked indigo factories and socially boycotted those peasants who worked for the planters. Ryots decided not to take any advances from the planters to sow indigo. In many villages, headmen who had been forced to sign indigo contracts mobilised the indigo peasants and fought against the indigo planters. Even zamindars went around the villages urging the ryots to resist the planters. In September 1860, the peasants refused to grow indigo under duress.

Tribal Communities and the Colonial State

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (d); 2. (c); 3. (a); 4. (b)
- B. 1. subsistence strategies; 2. Van Gujjars, Lambadis;
3. unadministered, British; 4. tribal belief system;
5. the Chota Nagpur Tenancy Act
- C. 1. T; 2. T; 3. T; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. A tribe is a group of people who live together, share the same language, culture and history.
2. Some main tribal groups were the Mundas, the Santhals and the Oraons in the Chhota Nagpur region; the Baigas,

the Gonds and the Khonds in central India and the Khasis and the Nagas in the north-eastern regions.

3. The British had annexed large tribal land for growing cash crops like indigo and jute, the tribal of the area were rendered landless. Their peaceful life was disturbed and they were force to work at very merge wages, soon the tribals went up in arms. This was the main reason behind tribal revolts.
 4. Birsa Munda was a freedom fighter, religious leader, and folk hero who belonged to the Munda tribe.
- B. 1.** A number of tribal communities such as the Khonds of Odisha lived by hunting and gathering forest produce. Some of them also sold forest produce such as Kusum and Palash flowers to local weavers and leather workers, who required these to colour cloth and leather. They also extracted oil from the seeds of sal and mahua trees and exchanged this for rice and grains with traders or neighbouring settled agriculturists. Van Gujjars of the Punjab hills and the Lambadis of Andhra Pradesh were pastoralists.
- Some tribal groups settled down at one place. Gradually, they got the ownership rights to the land they had cultivated for some years. In many cases, the land belonged to the clan as a whole. All members of the clan were regarded as descendents of an original ancestor.
2. The Munda Rebellion led to the enactment of the Chota Nagpur Tenancy Act of 1908. This Act tried to help the Mundas banning bethbegari.
 3. To ensure additional and regular supply of money from the tribal areas, the British introduced land settlement. So, they forced the tribes who practised shifting agriculture to settle down at one place, so that land under cultivation could be measured and revenue could be fixed.
 4. By the mid 19th century, the British had passed a number of Forest Acts. Some forests, which produced commercially

valuable timber like deodar or sal were declared Reserved Forests. Other forests were classified as Protected Forests. In these forests, some customary rights were given to the tribal people.

- C. 1. The British allowed tribal chiefs to continue enjoying their land titles over a group of villages but they were administered under British control. British land revenue rules, British police regulations, British forest laws, etc. came to govern tribal areas as well. Thus the tribal chiefs lost much of the authority which they had earlier enjoyed.

2. The System of Cash Economy

The colonial rule introduced cash economy in the tribal areas. As a result, groups of merchants, middlemen and moneylenders settled down in tribal areas. They were called Dikus. They forcibly acquired large tracts of agricultural and previously forested lands from tribal groups and weakened their economy.

The poor and landless people of the tribal communities had to work as labourers on these lands where they were paid low wages. They often had to take money from the money lenders at a high rate of interest. Thus, their condition became miserable.

3. Throughout the 19th century, many tribal groups across India rose in armed revolt against landlords, outsiders and moneylenders and the British government and officials.

Most of the revolts were rooted in the tribal belief system and had a strong religious sanction. However, in most cases, violence was the last resort of the tribals. Unfortunately, the British officers often recorded only the violent bits of the revolt

4. **Santhal Revolt (1855-1856)** : The Santhal inhabited some parts of the Chota Nagpur Plateau, Bengal and Bihar. The Santhal Rebellion was as much against the British police and revenue officials as it was against the oppression of outsiders like the zamindars and moneylenders. Under the

leadership of two brothers Sidhu and Kanhu, they met in large numbers in June 1855. Some other oppressed sections like blacksmiths (lohar), oil-pressers (teli), potters (kumhar) and weavers (bunkars) joined the Santhals in their agitation. They cut off postal and railway communications between Bhagalpur and Raj Mahal. The Santhals mainly used the tactics of guerilla warfare. Till February 1856, they showed no signs of submission and were openly at war with the British. Finally, the British authorities launched a military campaign against the Santhals and crushed them. Their leaders were arrested and the movement came to an end.

The Mundas and Birsa (1897-1900) : The Mundas inhabited the region around Ranchi. They traditionally enjoyed a preferential rent rate as the Khunkaltidar. However, during the 19th century, under the British rule many non-tribal jagirdars and zamindars migrated to traditional tribal areas and grabbed the land owned by the tribal groups. In due course, the tribals were compelled to work as labourers under non-tribal, exploitative people.

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (b); 2. (b); 3. (d); 4. (a)
- B. 1. of economic; 2. high revenue, ruthless; 3. seven-eighths;
4. Kanpur, Lucknow, Jhansi, Bareilly, Gwalior, Arrah;
5. disciplined, villagers, guerilla
- C. 1. T; 2. T; 3. F; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. Lord Canning
2. Nana Saheb, the adopted son of the last Peshwa Baji Rao II, led the revolt in Kanpur.
3. In Arrah (Bihar), an old zamindar named Kunwar Singh played a leading part in the Revolt of 1857.
4. The British completely suppressed the revolt by 1859.

B. 1. They were unhappy about their pay, allowances and conditions of service.

2. The revolt started with the mutiny of sepoys in several places. In Meerut, people from different sections of society rebelled extending support to the sepoys.

Earlier, in 1853, new pattern of Enfield Rifle was introduced into the British Indian Army. There were rumors that the paper cartridges used for this rifle were greased with fats of cow and pig, regarded sacrilegious by both Hindus and Muslims. So, the sepoys of these communities regarded the practice of biting open these cartridges offensive to their religious sentiments.

3. From Meerut and Delhi, the revolt spread to other areas in northern and central India. Kanpur, Lucknow, Jhansi, Bareilly, Gwalior and Arrah became the major centres of the revolt.

4. Though the British faced some initial setbacks, their response was swift and ruthless. By 1858, most of the rebels had been defeated. Sir John Nicholson besieged Delhi and succeeded in recapturing it in September 1857.

Bahadur Shah Zafar was taken prisoner. His two sons were shot dead before his eyes. Bahadur Shah Zafar was exiled to Rangoon in Burma (Myanmar) where he died in 1862.

Rani Lakshmi Bai was driven out of Jhansi. With the help of Tantia Tope, she captured Gwalior but was killed in June 1858. Tantia Tope was captured in 1859 and hanged. In Kanpur, a British troop led by General Havelock defeated Nana Saheb who fled to Nepal and was never heard of again.

Thus, the Revolt was suppressed by 1858-59. though it took the British many more years to restore peace in the areas affected by the revolt.

C. 1. Causes of the Revolt of 1857

There were many factors that accounted for the Revolt of 1857. Most significant among these are described here.

Political Causes

Discontent of former Ruling Families : The British policies of annexation and conquest demoralised many Indian rulers and chiefs. Subsidiary Alliance and the Doctrine of Lapse particularly infused a sense of deprivation and discontent in their minds. The annexation of Awadh in 1856 on the grounds of 'maladministration' further intensified it.

Economic Causes

Discontent of peasants and artisans : The policy of economic exploitation followed by the British affected all sections of Indian society. Due to high revenue demands and ruthless system of revenue collection, life of the peasants became miserable. They lost most of their traditional rights and were deprived of their lands.

Military Causes

Discontented Sepoys : The sepoy or Indian soldiers formed about seven-eighth of the total British troops in India. But they were often subjected to discriminatory provisions and rules by their British superiors. Besides, they were paid much less than British soldiers. All the higher posts in the army were reserved for the people of British descent.

Social Causes

Colonial Initiatives for Social Reform

During the British rule, a number of legislations were passed to stop various negative social practices. These legislations or laws included those relating to the abolition of Sati, legalisation of widow remarriage and the extension of western education to women.

2. In 1853, New pattern of Enfield Rifle was introduced into the British Indian Army. There were rumors that the paper cartridges used for this rifle were greased with fats of cow and pig, regarded sacrilegious by both Hindus and Muslims. So, the sepoy of these communities regarded

the practice of biting open these cartridges offensive to their religious sentiments.

3. The Revolt of 1857 was a landmark event in the history of India. It shook the foundations of British rule in India. However, as we have seen, it failed to achieve its objectives.

The Bengal province, the Bombay Presidency and the Madras Presidency almost completely stayed away from the revolt. The large princely states of Hyderabad, Mysore, Travancore and Kashmir, and the states of Rajputana too did not join the revolt. In Punjab, the Sikh princes actively supported the Company rather than the rebels.

Lack of Visionary Leadership

Most of the leaders associated with the revolt lacked any clear perception of India as a nation. They had no collective agenda and strategies.

Lack of Common Ideals

There was no unity and common ideal among the revolutionaries. The Hindus wanted to set up a Maratha raj, while the Muslims wanted to revive the Mughal rule.

Lack of Support from the Emerging Middle Class

The emerging middle class did not support the rebels. Members of this class believed that only the British could take India into the modern age.

Old and Outdated Technology

The rebels lacked access to advanced warfare technologies and weaponry. They fought with outdated weapons and therefore, failed to compete with the sophisticated and modern weapons of the British.

Secret Negotiations with the British

Those Indian princes and chiefs who had been allowed to continue by the British, sided with the British during the revolt.

Nature of the Revolt

The British authorities called the Revolt of 1857 Sepoy

Mutiny to reduce its significance. However, the facts suggest otherwise. The revolt began with a mutiny of the sepoys but was soon transformed into a popular revolt when people from different sections of society joined in.

4. The suppression of the Revolt of 1857 was followed by some important changes in the structure, composition and character of British administrative system and practices.

End of the Company's Rule

By an Act passed by the British Parliament (also known as the Queen's Proclamation) in August 1858, the rule of the EEIC in India formally came to an end. All powers relating to governance in the Indian subcontinent were transferred from the EEIC to the British Crown.

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (d); 2. (d); 3. (b); 4. (b)
- B. 1. Industrial Revolution; 2. jobless, misery and poverty; 3. Iron and Steel, Britain; 4. 19th century, textiles
- C. 1. F; 2. T; 3. F; 4. T
- D. 1. (c); 2. (d); 3. (e); 4. (b); 5. (a)

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. Bandhani was a brightly coloured cotton cloth which got its name from Bandhna, meaning 'tying up'.
2. Indian craftsmen had to compete with machine made goods from England.
3. Chhint was popular in England for its floral designs.
4. India was famous for wootz steel.
- B. 1. Before the colonial rule, there was a time when India was the 'Industrial Workshop of the World'. Indian goods, particularly textiles and spices, were in demand throughout the world. Till the early 19th century, India was a great centre of craft and industry.
After the Industrial Revolution, Britain took the lead in the

mechanised production of textiles. It led to the destruction of the traditional Indian cotton textile industry. It was not until the end of the 19th century that the Indian cotton textiles industry regained its premier position, towards the end of the 19th century.

2. After their arrival in India, the Portuguese took back with them cotton cloth along with spices. This type of cotton cloth was called Calico, named after the town of Calicut. Another famous Indian cotton textile especially used in drapery was chintz. Its name is from the Hindi word 'Chhint'. This was a cloth with small colourful flowery designs.
3. Competition with Indian textiles also encouraged the invention of new machines. With a view to harnessing these new machines and improve production through mechanisation, a new technique of production called the Factory System came into existence.

4. The art of making steel which is made by processing iron ore in a way to make it stronger and more ductile, was also known to Indians and Indian steel was known in many parts of the world for its good quality.

In the first millennium BCE, the people used iron axes for clearing forests and iron ploughshares for agriculture. Iron smelting was extremely common in India till the end of the 19th century. In Bihar and Central India, almost every district had smelters that used local deposits of ore to produce iron to make implements and tools of daily use.

- C. 1. Muslin was a finely woven cotton textile cloth made in India particularly in Bengal. It was so fine, that a sari could be drawn through a medium-sized ring. Muslin was in great demand in Europe. Bandhani was a brightly coloured cotton cloth which got its name from Bandhna, meaning 'tying up'. This cloth was produced through a method of tie and dye. It was mostly produced in Rajasthan and Gujarat.
2. Because of great demand for Indian textiles in England,

local manufacturers in England began to panic. Around this time, the British textiles industry had just begun to develop and English producers wanted a secure market within their country. The only way this could be done was by preventing the entry of Indian textiles.

Competition with Indian textiles also encouraged the invention of new machines. With a view to harnessing these new machines and improve production through mechanisation, a new technique of production called the Fadctory System came into existence. Full-time workers worked in a building called a factory, owned by a capitalist. The capitalist paid wages to the workers.

Industrial and technological changes starting in the late 18th century resulted in cheap and efficient mass production of different goods. It came to be known as Industrial Revolutions.

3. The decline of the textile and iron industries and many other handicrafts which were produced for large-scale trade between India and the rest of the world led to 'deindustrialisation'. The term or decline of existing industries. As a result of which the artisans and craftspeople had to return to farming.

The industries that existed in India before the beginning of colonial rule suffered greatly. Some weavers adapted to manufacture only specialised textiles such as coarse clothes which were used by poor Indians or very clolurful clothes, which could not be made by machines, to survive.

4. In the first millennium BCE, the people used iron axes for clearing forests and iron ploughshares for agriculture. Iron smelting was extremely common in India till the end of the 19th century. In Bihar and Central India, almost every district had smelters that used local deposits of ore to produce iron to make implements and tools of daily use.

Indians had also perfected the art of making steel from iron. This was a well-known process in which charcoal was

added to iron to make steel and Indian steel wootz was known all over the world and used for making weapons.

5. TISCO started producing pig iron from 1911 and steel in 1912. This was the first Indian owned steel producing unit in India. In 1914, the First World War broke out. Steel produced by Britain now had to meet the demands of war in Europe. So imports of British steel in India declined, and the Indian Railways turned to TISCO for the supply of steel for rails. As the war dragged on for several years, the demand of the colonial government for steel increased and TISCO became the biggest steel supplier.

Colonial Education and Its Impact

Chapter

7

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (a); 2. (b); 3. (b); 4. (d)
- B. 1. literature and memorise, ancient scriptures;
2. law, customs; 3. wood's despatch, commissions;
4. Raja Subodh Chandra Mullick
- C. 1. F; 2. T; 3. F; 4. T
- D. 1. (e); 2. (a); 3. (d); 4. (b); 5. (c)

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. In 1792, the Delhi Anglo Oriental College was set up in Delhi as well.
2. Nathaniel Halhed translated the Manusmriti as the—'Code of Hindu Laws'.
3. Dayanand Saraswati was the founder of the Arya Samaj.
4. The Vishwa Bharati University was established by Rabindranath Tagore at Shantiniketan.
- B. 1. Before the arrival of the British, there were pathshalas for the Hindus and maktabas for the Muslims in which religious education was imparted. The centres of higher education were mostly located in developed cities and were fewer in number. The students coming to these centres were mostly from the upper classes.

2. Warren Hastings established the Calcutta Madrasa in 1781 while William Jones set up the Asiatic Society of India in 1784 in Calcutta (Kolkata) and started a journal called Asiatic Researches. These became the rallying point of all those who cultivated oriental languages, cultures and texts. This group of people was collectively known as the Orientalists.

There was a rising group of people in official circles promoted a different type of education. This group was of the view that Indians were essentially uncivilised, and that Britain was on a civilising and moral mission in India. They strongly supported the use of English as a medium of instruction and western rational curricula as the basis of education in India. This group came to be known as the Anglicists.

3. From the early 19th century, many thinkers from different parts of India began to feel that Western education would help modernise India. They urged the British to open more schools, colleges and universities and spend more money on education. This trend is best exemplified in Raja Ram Mohan Roy who forcefully articulated the benefits of Western education, yet there were some Indians like Mahatma Gandhi and Rabindranath Tagore, who did not like the British educational system.

In a conference, held on 10 November, 1905, they decided to establish a National Council of Education.

4. Raja Ram Mohan Roy (1772-1833)

Raja Ram Mohan Roy was born in 1772 in an orthodox family of Bengal. He was a well-educated Indian who received his education in Sanskrit at Benaras and in Arabic and Persian at Patna.

He established the Hindu College in Calcutta (Kolkata) in 1817 along with a Scottish scholar David Hare and a Scottish missionary Alexander Duff.

In 1825, he founded the Vedanta College which was a combination of Indian and western education. He also started two newspapers one in Bengali and the other in Persian. He founded the Brahma Sabha in 1828 which later came to be known as Brahma Samaj.

- C. 1. The Wood's Despatch highlighted two practical benefits of promoting education in India : (a) Education was expected to promote an economic understanding, whereby Indians would understand the benefits of British rule and there by adopt a western lifestyle and clothes providing a market for English goods in India; and (b) Through the moral qualities promoted by the education so imparted, Indians would attain higher levels of morality and become more honest and trustworthy.

2. After the Wood's Despatch, colonial education in India continued to be directed by several other commissions.

Hunter Commission, 1882-83 : Set up under the chairmanship of Sir William Hunter, its main recommendation was to take special care for the extension of primary education in vernacular in India. This was to be managed by local government bodies.

The Indian Universities Act, 1904 : The Act increased government control over universities and the control of universities over private colleges.

Education Policy, 1913 : In 1906, the princely state of Baroda introduced compulsory primary education within its territories. There was much pressure on the Government of India to do the same. However, the government could only agree in principle to remove illiteracy.

The Sadler University Commission, 1917-19 : This recommended a 12-year school course before entering the university and setting up of intermediate colleges.

3. The traditional system of education had the following characteristics :

- A traditional school had no classrooms, no textbooks, no roll call, not even school buildings. Schools were very often organised around one teacher.
 - The traditional schools were based on the requirements of the local people and run by them in a sense they only taught you as much as you needed to learn.
 - They were very affordable and it was not always necessary to pay fee in cash.
 - They were based in the local life cycles. Thus the school would not be held during harvest. This suited the rural children.
 - Learning was in local languages and traditional knowledge was imparted.
 - Till the middle of the 19th century the colonial rulers were mostly concerned with higher education, but after the Wood's Despatch, they began to concentrate on vernacular education as well.
4. Most Indian reformers of this time were closely related with education. Here are some Indian reformers who made some significant efforts in the field of education.

Raja Ram Mohan Roy (1772-1833)

Raja Ram Mohan Roy was born in 1772 in an orthodox family of Bengal. He was a well-educated Indian who received his education in Sanskrit at Benaras and in Arabic and Persian at Patna. He established the Hindu College in Calcutta (Kolkata) in 1817 along with a Scottish scholar David Hare and a Scottish missionary Alexander Duff.

Ishwar Chandra Vidyasagar (1820-1891)

Born into a poor Brahmin family, Ishwar Chandra Vidyasagar was a great scholar, teacher and social reformer. He excelled in Sanskrit learning and was appointed as the Principal of the Hindu College of Calcutta for a few years. He waged a long battle for widow remarriage and finally got the Widow Remarriage Act passed in 1856.

Annie Besant (1847-1933)

Annie Besant was a prominent theosophist (a person who tries to know God by means of prayers, meditation, etc.), women's rights activist, writer and speaker.

1908, Annie Besant became the President of the Theosophical Society. Annie Besant founded the Central Hindu School at Benaras, which later became a part of Benaras Hindu University founded by Madan Mohan Malviya.

Dayanand Saraswati (1824-1883)

He was the founder of the Arya Samaj. Dayanand Saraswati's most outstanding contribution was establishing a number of Dayanand Anglo-Vedic (DAVs) schools and colleges all over India.

Objective Types Questions

- A.** 1. (a); 2. (a); 3. (c); 4. (a)
- B.** 1. rationalism, humanism, equality, individualism;
2. Kadambini Basu, Chandramukhi Basu;
3. MG Ranade, RG Bhandarkar;
4. Narayanana Guru, the untouchables
- C.** 1. (c); 2. (d); 3. (e); 4. (b); 5. (a)
- D.** 1. T; 2. T; 3. F; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A.** 1. Behramji Malabari.
2. Raja Ram Mohan Roy
3. Dayanand Saraswati established the Arya Samaj in 1875.
4. Jyotiba Phule wrote Gulamgiri
- B.** 1. In pre-colonial India, the social status of women was very low. Women did not have the right to inherit their father's property. They were also discouraged from attending schools and colleges. Most women were taught at home, if at all, by liberal fathers or husbands.
Usually, the girls were married off at a very young age,

sometimes when they were just two to six years old, to grooms much older than them. By the time they gained maturity, they would become a widow. The girl was also expected to bring huge amount of gifts in cash or kind from her parents's house during marriage. Widows were regarded as a burden both on the family and society.

One of the most barbaric practices prevalent in North and East India during the period was the sati system. As per this system, a woman was proclaimed to be a sati or virtuous woman if she burnt herself on her husband's funeral pyre.

2. Movement for Women's Education

The social reformers believed that only education could raise women above their backward status.

In 1849, Ishwar Chandra Vidyasagar and John Elliot Drinkwater Behtune established the first successful school for Indian girls; the Hindu Balika Vidyalaya, in Calcutta (Kolkata) was founded. In his school, no man was allowed within the walls of the institution, and proper means of transport were arranged for girls.

In Maharashtra, Jyotirao Govindrao Phule opened a school for girls. When the woman teacher of his school died, he trained his wife Savitribai and appointed her as a teacher in his school. Kandukuri Veeresalingam worked for the education of girls. He also started a journal.

- 3.** Dayanand Saraswati established the Arya Samaj in 1875. He strongly opposed child marriage and favoured widow remarriage. Under his leadership, the Arya Samaj ran several widow homes and established Kanya Gurukuls for educating women. Dayanand Saraswati's Satyarth Prakash spread the knowledge of the Vedas and educated people on the true qualities of God.
- 4.** The British introduced a uniform administrative, legal and political system that treated all castes equally. The British introduced a new system of mass transport like the

railways, in which people of different castes had to travel together.

The educational institutions set up by the British for spreading Western education was open to all sections of society. British economic policies resulted in widespread landlessness and deindustrialisation. The poor left their villages to look for jobs that were opening up in the cities.

The outbreak of the First World War also opened job opportunities for the poor low-caste people. As the British government required more soldiers, it started recruiting people from 'low-caste' groups such as the Mahars and formed the Mahar Regiment.

- C. 1. The practice of child marriage prevailed in many parts of India. Often girls were married at the age of two or three when they were too young to understand what marriage meant. Besides, their health got affected as their bodies were not ready to bear children at such a tender age. In many cases, child marriage was also responsible for early widowhood. Thus social reformers took up the task of putting an end to this practice and encouraged state legislation on this matter.

In 1860, the marriageable age of girls was raised to 10 years. In 1891, the Age of Consent Act was passed. By this Act, a girls legally approved age for marriage was raised to 12 years. The next Act, known as the 'Sarda Act' 1929, increased the age of consent to 14 for females and 18 for males.

2. **Dayanand Saraswati and the Arya Samaj** : Dayanand Saraswati established the Arya Samaj in 1875. He strongly opposed child marriage and favoured widow remarriage. Under his leadership, the Arya Samaj ran several widow homes and established Kanya Gurukuls for educating women. Dayanand Saraswati's Satyarth Prakash spread the knowledge of the Vedas and educated people on the true qualities of God.

3. The British introduced a uniform administrative, legal and political system that treated all castes equally. The British introduced a new system of mass transport like the railways, in which people of different castes had to travel together.

The educational institutions set up by the British for spreading Western education was open to all sections of society. British economic policies resulted in widespread landlessness and deindustrialisation. The poor left their villages to look for jobs that were opening up in the cities. There was work in the factories that were coming up in the cities. They also went to work in plantations in Assam, Mauritius and other neighbouring countries. Thus, the rigidities of caste system gradually lost their significance for them.

The outbreak of the First World War also opened job opportunities for the poor low-caste people. As the British government required more soldiers, it started recruiting people from 'low-caste' groups such as the Mahars and formed the Mahar Regiment.

4. Jyotiba Phule hailed from a family of flower seller, founded the Satya Shodhak Samaj in 1873. It aimed to improve the conditions of the oppressed classes and propagate caste equalities. He gave great importance to education and founded a library for low-caste people and a school for low-caste girls. In 1851, he opened one school especially for girls from the downtrodden Mang and Mahar castes.

In his book, titled Gulamgiri, he asked all lowcaste Indians to unite and fight for building a new society based on equality and absence of caste-discrimination.

5. B. R. Ambedkar (Bhimrao Ramji Ambedkar) was born into the Mahar caste, whose members were considered low. So, he devoted his entire life to fight against caste oppression. He organised the All India Scheduled Caste Federation for this purpose. He also organised a number of

nonviolent campaigns to assert the right of the untouchables to enter the temples and to draw water from public wells and tanks. One of the most significant campaigns was held at Chowder Tank in Mahad, Maharashtra. The participants burnt the Manusmriti, the Hindu law book, which they held largely responsible for the practice of untouchability.

To spread education among the lower castes, Dr Ambedkar helped establish the Bahishkrit Hitakarini Sabha or Depressed Classes Welfare Association. He believed that education would help the lower-castes improve their economic conditions.

Chapter **9**

Indian National Movement

Objective Types Questions

- A.** 1. (a); 2. (b); 3. (d); 4. (a)
B. 1. Indian National Congress (INC); 2. Swaraj; 3. 6 April, 1919;
C. 1. F; 2. F; 3. T; 4. T
D. 1. (c); 2. (d); 3. (e); 4. (b); 5. (a)

Subjective Types Questions

- A.** 1. The Vernacular Press Act (1878) allowed the government to confiscate all assets of newspapers if they published anything objectionable.
2. Bal Gangadhar Tilak gave the slogan 'Swaraj is my birthright and I shall have it'.
3. Bankim Chand Chatarjee wrote our National Song 'Vande Matram'.
4. Lord Mountbatten announced the plan for the partition of India on 3 June, 1947.
- B.** 1. Three acts passed by the British further exposed the racial and discriminatory nature of the colonial state.
- The Arms Act (1878) passed by Lord Lytton prohibited Indians from possessing firearms without licence.

- The Vernacular Press Act (1878) allowed the government to confiscate all assets of newspapers if they published anything objectionable.
 - The Illbert Bill (1883) passed during the viceroyalty of Lord Ripon allowed the judges of Indian origin to try Europeans in India. The Europeans in India reacted harshly. Ultimately, the government amended the Bill.
2. In 1905, Bengal was divided into two separate provinces on the pretext of administrative convenience. The real purpose was, however, to weaken feelings of nationalism in Bengal, then one of the main bastions of the Indian National Movement. It was also aimed at dividing the Hindus and Muslims along the communal lines. The partition of Bengal angered people all over India. The partition of Bengal gave a boost to the freedom struggle.
 3. To please the moderates and to win over the Muslims, the government passed the Government of India Act of 1909 also known as the Morley-Minto Reforms. Legislative Councils were reorganised and a system of an indirect elections was introduced for the first time. But a very limited number of voters could vote. Most importantly, separate electorates were allocated to Muslims, that is, some seats were reserved for Muslims and only they could stand for elections or vote from there. This was done in the name of protecting the Muslim minority. However, this Act made no reference to representative government.
 4. Gandhi arrived India in 1915. Before coming to India, he had practised law for about 20 years in South Africa. There, he struggled to improve the conditions of Indians, treated shabbily by the racist white regime. In India, he spent his first few years travelling all over the country. He established the Sabarmati Ashram at Ahmedabad. Gandhiji organised successful satyagraha campaigns in support of the indigo cultivators of Champaran, the mill workers of Ahmedabad and the peasants of Kheda.

- C. 1. Between 1885 to 1907, the Early Nationalists, sometimes known as the Moderates were a group of Indian political leaders. Their appearance signalled the start of India's organised national movement.

The Indian Council Act of 1892, failed to include Indians in the administration of the country. Thus, many people became rather dissatisfied with the methods of the moderates. They formed a new group known as radicals.

2. Swadeshi Movement (1905-1908)

The Swadeshi Movement was a part of the Indian Independence Movement. Strategies of the Swadeshi Movement involved boycotting British products and the revival of domestic products so that Indian industries could prosper. The Swadeshi Movement originated from the partition of Bengal in 1905 and continued till 1911. It was the most successful of the pre-Gandhian movements. The chief architects of this movement were Aurobindo Ghosh, Veer Savarkar, Lokmanya Bal Gangadhar Tilak and Lala Lajpat Rai.

3. Khilafat Movement (1920) and Non-Cooperation Movement (1920-22)

In 1920, the Ali Brothers, Muhammad Ali and Shaukar Ali, along with many others started the Khilafat Movement in support of the Caliph. They wanted to adopt a full fledged noncooperation vis-a-vis the British. Supporting their demands, Gandhiji urged the Congress in 1920 to launch a Non-Cooperation Movement against the 'Punjab wrong', the 'Khilafat wrong', and for 'Swaraj'.

The Non-Cooperation Movement rapidly gained momentum. Students left British-aided schools and colleges and joined schools and colleges run by nationalists. Hundreds of lawyers including Motilal Nehru, CR Das, Asaf Ali, and Rajendra Prasad gave up their legal practice. British titles and legislative positions were surrendered.

4. The Quit India Movement (1942)

On 8th August 1942, the All-India Congress Committee met in Bombay and passed the historic Quit India Resolution. It proposed a mass struggle on the widest possible scale under Mahatma Gandhi. Gandhi gave his mantra of Karo ya Maro and asked the British to quit and leave India to Indians.

The Quit India Movement demonstrated the depth of nationalist feeling in the country, the capacity for struggle and sacrifice among the Indian people. It was now clear that the transfer of power to an independent India was around the corner.

5. Partition of Indian Subcontinent

The Muslim League, at its Lahore session in 1940, passed a resolution calling for a separate state in Muslim majority areas. Led by MA Jinnah, the Muslim League articulated the “Two Nation” theory. In accordance with the Cabinet Mission plan, elections were held in July 1946. The Congress won with an overwhelming majority while the Muslim League boycotted the elections and observed 16th August, 1946, as Direct Action Day. Hindu-Muslim riots broke out in Calcutta (Kolkata) killing thousands of people. In February 1947, Clement Atlee, the British Prime Minister, announced that power would be transferred to Indians by June, 1948. Lord Louis Mountbatten, who became the Viceroy in March 1947, held discussions with Indian leaders and came to the conclusion that partition alone could solve the Indian problem. On 3rd June 1947, Lord Mountbatten, announced the plan for the partition of India into two independent dominions—Pakistan and India.

Objective Types Questions

A. 1. (c); 2. (b); 3. (b); 4. (b)

- B.** 1. Pakistan; 2. French administration; 3. Directive Principles;
4. 22 languages
- C.** 1. T; 2. F; 3. T; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A.** 1. Kashmir, Junagadh, Hyderabad
2. September 1948
3. The group led by the USA, was called the Western Block while the second group led by the former USSR was called the Eastern Block.
4. Subsequently in May 1998, five more nuclear tests were conducted at Pokhran, termed 'Operation Shakti'.
- B.** 1. Soon after the declaration of partition, India and Pakistan saw the worst ever communal riots. As a result, millions of people on both sides of the border were forced to leave their homes. As many as 8.5 million people migrated to India. To provide them with immediate relief, shelter and employment, a rehabilitation ministry was created. New townships and colonies were developed to resettle them. As financial help, loans were given by state governments for starting business and industries. Gradually, the displaced people were assimilated into the mainstream of society.
2. The Constituent Assembly agreed that a federal form of government, having two or more than two levels of government, in order to take democracy down to the lowest level, would be the best for India. These two levels of government were to be the Central level and the State level. The Constituent Assembly distributed the powers between the two levels of government through the union, state and concurrent lists.
3. The Five Principles of Peaceful Coexistence Panchsheel are a series of principles which were to form the bedrock of the relationship between India and the People's Republic of China. They were outlined in 1954, within the context of decolonisation, to ensure that newly independent nations

could coexist peacefully. The five principles were called the Panchsheel.

4. **Kashmir** : Unlike Hyderabad and Jungadh, the ruler of Kashmir was a Hindu (Maharaja Hari Singh), ruling over a Muslim majority. Maharja Hari Singh delayed the accession of the state as he had secret plans of remaining independent. At this time, Kashmir was invaded by tribal people from Pakistan. Hari Singh appealed to India for help and in return he agreed to join India with special concessions. Pakistan and some people in Kashmir felt cheated and a war broke out between the two countries. In 1948, the United Nations's intervention froze the battle line as the line of actual control between India and Pakistan.

C. 1. Same as 1 B

2. The greatest challenge facing India in 1947 was that of development. For a vast majority of people living in villages, agriculture was the main source of income which in turn was completely dependent on the monsoons. Another problem was the large parts of arable and irrigated tracts of land had gone to Pakistan. In urban centres, factory workers lived in crowded slums without healthcare and educational facilities.

In order to tackle all these problems effectively, the country needed a set of guidelines and regulations which would be instrumental in achieving the goal of all-round development while keeping intact the spirit of pluralism and democracy. Due to that, the need for a new Constitution for the country became indispensable.

3. To find out the possibility of creating more states on linguistic basis, the Central Government formed a State Reorganisation Committee in 1953 under Fazal Ali. The Committee completed its work in 1955 and according to the recommendations the whole of India was divided into 14 States and 6 Union Territories on the basis of language.

Provincial boundaries were redrawn to accommodate various language speakers. Since then as and when the need has arisen changes have been made in state boundaries from time to time.

4. After the Second World War, the major countries of the world were divided into two groups or power blocks. The group led by the USA, was called the Western Block while the second group led by the former USSR was called the Eastern Block. The 1950s and 1960s, saw the emergence of a bitter cold war between these two blocks. In addition, numerous military pacts and alliances also divided the people of different countries.

This was also the period when old colonial empires were collapsing and many countries were attaining independence. There were many newly independent countries like India who did not want to join any of the two power blocks. It was at this backdrop that the Non-Aligned Movement (NAM) came into existence.

Unit-2 : Geography

Chapter 1

Natural Resources

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (a); 2. (a); 3. (c); 4. (c)
B. 1. personal, commercial; 2. soil, water; 3. crops;
4. Resource conservation
C. 1. T; 2. T; 3. T; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. A resource is anything that has value for humans. Resources can be natural, human and human-made.
2. Iron, ore, gold, coal etc.
3. Abiotic resources include all physical or non-living things such as land, minerals, soil, water and climate.
4. Oil reserves
- B. 1. **Resources Based on Stage of Development** : On the basis of their stage of development, natural resources can also

be divided into actual or potential resources. Resources whose quantity and quality are known to us, are known as actual resources. Oil reserves, hydroelectric or hydel power, deposits of iron ore, etc. are example of actual resources.

Potential resources are those resources that are known to exist but have not been used as yet. Waterfalls, wind energy, windmills, biofuel and solar energy are potential resources.

2. Soil, water and forests that can be renewed or replenished quickly are called renewable resources. On the other hand, resources like iron ore, gold, petroleum, coal, etc. that are depleted and cannot develop quickly are known as non-renewable resources. These may take millions of years to form.
 3. **Resources Based on Distribution** : Resources can also be classified on the basis of their distribution as ubiquitous or localised. Resources like the air we breathe, water we drink and sunlight that is found everywhere are ubiquitous resources. But the resources that are found only in certain places are localised resources like copper and iron ore.
 4. Human resources constitute human beings themselves. When we talk of the human resource, it must be assessed both in terms of quality and quantity. Along with educational expertise, a healthy human population base is also instrumental in the economic and social development of a region. A natural resource becomes a worthwhile resource only when humans have a use for it. When the quality of education, skills and expertise go up and human beings are able to create more resources, this phenomenon is known as human resources development.
- C. 1. A resource is a mode or source from which a benefit or lots of benefits are produced. We use so many things everyday to fulfil our needs. Their usage gives them a value. Thus resources have a value. This value could be economic, aesthetic, ethical or legal.

Economic Value

The economic value of a resource is counted when it is used for personal and commercial purposes. Crops and minerals carry economic value.

Aesthetic Value

The things that give us pleasure are also resources. Mountains, deserts and seas are resources because we enjoy their beauty.

Ethical Value

When we recognise our responsibility to preserve natural resources for future generations, we attach ethical value to those resources.

Legal Value

When a resource is limited, it becomes extremely valuable for us. As soon as we make a law to protect the resources, we attach legal value to them.

2. Resources can be classified into three broad categories—natural, human and human-made.

Natural Resource

Those resources that occur naturally and support life are called natural resource. Natural resources include air, water, sunlight, land, soil, rocks, minerals, fossil fuels, forests, and animals. For example, if water is eliminated from an area, the vegetation, soils, animals and even the air in that area will be affected negatively.

Resources can also be classified on the basis of :

- origin or source
- stage of development
- renewability
- distribution
- availability

3. Natural Resources

A natural resource becomes a worthwhile resource only when humans have a use for it. When the quality of education, skills and expertise go up and human beings are

able to create more resources, this phenomenon is known as human resource development.

Human-made Resources

Besides human resources, there are resources made or created by human beings. Such resources include technical expertise, government structures, political and economic institutions, as well as the social and cultural setup.

4. Conservation include both the protection and rational use of natural resources.

Earth's natural resources are either non-renewable, or renewable. The combination of growing populations and increasing levels of resources, consumption is degrading and depleting the natural resource base.

The protection of natural resources is known as conservation of resources. Scientists first examine how and why natural resources are being depleted, then, find ways to solve the problem. Major causes of the degradation of environment are human activities, air pollution, the clearing of forests, over-extraction of mineral resources, overgrazing of pastures by farm animals, poaching of animals, etc.

Chapter 2

Land and Soil Resources

Objective Types Questions

- A.** 1. (b); 2. (b); 3. (d); 4. (a)
B. 1. agriculture, mining, deforestation; 2. life, valuable minerals, soil; 3. mountain, high; 4. tidal waves, currents
C. 1. F; 2. T; 3. F; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A.** 1. Natural resource
2. More than 50%
3. There are six types of soils in India—alluvial, black, red, sandy, laterite and mountain.
4. They get their colour from huge concentration of iron oxide.

- B. 1.** All human beings live on land and use it for agriculture and various other purposes. It is only about 29 per cent of the total area of the earth's surface. About one-third of the earth's total land area is uninhabitable. The land surface is also not the same everywhere. Different types of land present different types of resources. Therefore, all places are not evenly populated. In addition, the areas with extremely cold or hot climate are sparsely populated. Soil fertility also varies from place to place.
- 2. Alluvial Soil :** This is a fine-grained soil brought down and deposited by the rivers. It is very rich in mineral content and therefore, most suitable for largescale agriculture in India. This is found in the plains along the rivers Ganga and Brahmaputra and in the deltas of the Southern Peninsula, along the eastern coast. The older alluvium is known as bangur and the new alluvium is known as khadar.
- 3.** Several factors affect soil formation, some of them are parent rock, climate, vegetation and time.
- Parent Rock :** The original rock from which soil is formed is called the parent rock. This determines the type of mineral content, texture, colour, chemical properties and permeability.
- Climate :** Warm temperatures, steady and abundant water supply speed up the formation of soil.
- Time :** Soil takes thousands of years to form. Some soils change colour and also its properties over a time period.
- Topography :** The topography or physical features also affect soil formation. The slope and steepness of the land influence the rate at which water flows into or off the soil.
- 4.** Soils have nearly identical vertical structure—i.e. it forms in horizontal layers. The uppermost layer of soil is known as the topsoil. It is the first layer with a lot of humus. Immediately below is the subsoil that consists of uneven coarse particles of rock and very little humus. Below the subsoil is the bedrock which is hard, solid and tightly

bound rock. The different layers of soil together is known as soil profile.

- C. 1. Land use refers to the economic use of land. The land can be used as agricultural fields to cultivate crops, or as industrial areas to establish factories. Land cover is the physical element that covers the land. Vegetation, buildings or water are included in it. Land use depends on physical factors such as topography, climate, availability of water, soil and minerals. Land use also varies from one part of the world to the other and also within a smaller area. Poor land management has degraded vast amounts of land, reduced our ability to produce enough food and is a major threat to rural livelihoods in many developing countries.
2. **Land Degradation** : Land Degradation happens when the land is no longer suitable for agriculture. Increased population and its ever-increasing pressure on land, deforestation, soil erosion, overgrazing by animals, excessive single cropping and expansion of cities and salinisation are the causes of land degradation. The impact of land degradation is huge. Land productivity goes down leading to uncertainty about food. It often leads to migration and a general destruction of ecosystem. It is very expensive to reclaim degraded land. Sometimes, severely degraded land might not be reclaimed at all.
3. Broadly, six types of soil are found in India.
- Alluvial soil** : This is a fine-grained soil brought down and deposited by the rivers. It is very rich in mineral content and therefore, most suitable for largescale agriculture in India.
- Black soil** : These soils are often called black cotton soil as this type of soil is suitable for growing cotton. Locally, they are called regur. These soils can retain water and are rich in organic content.

Red soil : Red soil and yellow soil have the same colour as their names suggest. They get their colour from huge concentration of iron oxide. They are found in the Western Ghats, eastern Madhya Pradesh and in parts of Odisha, Andhra Pradesh and Tamil Nadu. These soils cannot retain much moisture.

Sandy Desert Soil : These soils are sandy to gravelly with low organic content and low nutrients. They vary in colour from reddish to light brown.

Laterite Soil : The areas that receive heavy rainfall mostly have laterite type of soil. It is also reddish in colour but different from red soil in their mineral composition. These lumpy soils can be broken down easily when they are damp but when they are dry they turn hard as a rock.

Mountain Soil : These are found on the Himalayan mountains and vary from deep alluvium in valleys to highly gravelly soils, based on altitude and vegetation.

4. Soil conservation is the prevention of the wasteful use of soils to conserve resources for future. The following are some methods that will help in controlling soil degradation.
- It is important to establish and maintain ground cover vegetation which will minimise wind, water and soil erosion.
 - Mulching is a simple and beneficial practice to stabilise soil temperature, retain soil moisture and reduce soil erosion.
 - Contour Barriers help in reducing soil erosion.
 - Contour ploughing is a farming practice of ploughing across a slope along its contours. This helps in the slowing down of running water.
 - Intercropping is a method of growing two or more crops on the same land in the same growing season.

Objective Types Questions

- A.** 1. (c); 2. (c); 3. (b); 4. (b)
B. 1. evenly; 2. clean water; 3. roofs, underground; 4. Sardar Sarovar, Narmada Sagar
C. 1. T; 2. F; 3. T; 4. F

Subjective Types Questions

- A.** 1. Water covers 71 per cent of the earth's surface. The earth is rightly called the 'water planet' or 'blue planet'.
2. Nearly 70 per cent of water is used in agriculture.
3. There are 5334 dams in India.
4. Water is used in many ways like agriculture, hydroelectricity, industries, etc.
- B.** 1. Water covers 71 per cent of the earth's surface. The earth is rightly called the 'water planet' or 'blue planet'. Oceans cover two-thirds of the total but all of it is not fit for human consumption. Water in the oceans and seas (97%) is saline. 2% of water is deposited in the form of ice on the hilltops and glaciers. Thus only 1% of water can be used for drinking, domestic use, irrigation, power generation, industries and other purposes.
2. Hydroelectricity is used across the world and it accounts for about 19 per cent of the total electricity production. River valley projects construct large dams across rivers. In all, there are 45,000 dams in the world. Canada is the largest producer of hydroelectricity, followed by the US and Brazil.
3. Here are some steps being taken by different countries to conserve water and its quality.
- Water reuse and recycling
 - Seawater desalinisation
 - Protection of wetlands
 - River cleaning to improve quality of water
 - Afforestation to reduce run-off

- Rainwater harvesting
 - Encouraging better irrigation practices
 - Addressing causes of pollution
4. Rainwater harvesting is one of the most popular methods of conserving water especially in urban areas. The rainwater is collected on the roofs of buildings and then stored underground for later use. This helps in recharging depleted ground waters, raises the declining water table and adds to the existing water supply. It is also environment–friendly in urban areas.
- C. 1. 1. Water in the seas, lakes, rivers and streams gets heated by the sun and then it evaporates or is transformed into water vapour. This water vapour mixes with the air and rises up. The air is cooler higher up, so this cools the water vapour and it is condensed to form tiny drops of water. When many such drops gather together, they form a cloud. As the drops pass through cooler air, they cool down further and the water droplets become heavier. When they become too heavy and cannot hold together, they come down on the earth as rain. This rainwater again goes back into oceans, rivers, lakes, ponds and streams. This process of evaporation and condensation of water vapours is called water cycle.
2. Water resources are unevenly distributed on the earth. Generally, annual precipitation is the highest near the equator. The evaporation is also high in this region. However, evaporation is the highest in the subtropical regions lying between the 20° and 35° latitudes in both the hemispheres. The regions between the 45° and 60° latitudes usually have surplus water. The evaporation and precipitation are the lowest in the highest latitudes.
3. Here are some steps being taken by different countries to conserve water and its quality.
- Water reuse and recycling
 - Seawater desalination

- Protection of wetlands
- River cleaning to improve quality of water
- Afforestation to reduce run-off
- Rainwater harvesting
- Encouraging better irrigation practices
- Addressing causes of pollution

4. Rainwater Harvesting

Rainwater harvesting is one of the most popular methods of conserving water especially in urban areas. The rainwater is collected on the roofs of buildings and then stored underground for later use. This helps in recharging depleted ground waters, raises the declining water table and adds to the existing water supply. It is also environment-friendly in urban areas. In rural areas, rainwater harvesting helps in controlling the flood water flowing into the rivers which then dry up after the rain stops. The water when held back will seep into the ground and recharge the groundwater supply.

Chapter 4 Natural Vegetation and Wildlife

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (c); 2. (b); 3. (b); 4. (d)
 B. 1. climate, relief features; 2. moderate rainfall; 3. tundra, temperate forest, 50°N, 70°N; 4. Hemis, Ladakh
 C. 1. F; 2. F; 3. T; 4. F

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. The term 'forest' refers to natural vegetation of trees that grow close together over a large area.
 2. There are three main types of forests— tropical, temperate and taiga.
 3. Pink-headed duck, rhinoceros, Asiatic Cheetah
 4. Threatened species are those plants, animals, birds and insects that are at risk of becoming endangered in the near future. These are also referred to as the red list species.

- B.**
- 1.** The tropical evergreen forests are found where the annual rainfall is very heavy and temperatures are high throughout the year. These are generally found closer to the equator and are also called tropical rainforests. These forests are dense and have a thick canopy that hardly allows any sunlight to reach the lower layers. Rosewood, mahogany, cinchona and ebony are some of the commonly found trees in tropical evergreen forests.
 - 2.** Evergreen trees retain their leaves throughout the year, deciduous trees shed their leaves in a certain season every year.
 - 3.** Many people are dependent on the forests for their livelihoods. Besides, forests help prevent soil erosion, help maintain the water cycle and check global warming. Wood from forests is used to make paper, pencils and furniture. Forests also help keep the environment clean by muffling noises, buffering strong winds and taking in carbon monoxide.
 - 4.** Conservation studies the way by which the earth's biological diversity is lost and finds means to protect them to keep the ecosystem functioning.
Forests and wildlife can be conserved :
 - by demarcating forests as protected areas and preventing illegal logging,
 - by using recycled paper to reduce pressure on trees,
 - by preventing poaching of wildlife,
 - by protecting endangered and threatened species in reserves to allow breeding.
- C.**
- 1.** The tropical evergreen forests are found where the annual rainfall is very heavy and temperatures are high throughout the year. These are generally found closer to the equator and are also called tropical rainforests. These forests are dense and have a thick canopy that hardly allows any sunlight to reach the lower layers. Rosewood, mahogany, cinchona and ebony are some of the commonly found trees in tropical evergreen forests.

The tropical deciduous forests are found in areas with lesser rainfall and a hot climate. These forests are commonly called monsoon forests. These are open forests and the trees are not very tall.

2. The temperate evergreen forests are found in areas with mild winters and abundant rainfall throughout the year. These are generally of two types—broadleaf and needleleaf. The temperate deciduous forests are found in areas with wet summers and cool frosty winters. The trees are broadleaf with a dense canopy in summer and shed their leaves in winter.
3. These are evergreen coniferous forests with cone-shaped trees that have straight trunks and small narrow needle-like leaves. Red pine, white pine, spruce, firs and larches are the main trees found in these forests. In India, coniferous forests are found on the higher slopes of the Himalayas in Kashmir, Himachal Pradesh, Uttarakhand and Arunachal Pradesh.
4. Conservation studies the way by which the earth's biological diversity is lost and finds means to protect them to keep the ecosystem functioning.

Forests and wildlife can be conserved :

- by demarcating forests as protected areas and preventing illegal logging,
- by using recycled paper to reduce pressure on trees,
- by preventing poaching of wildlife,
- by protecting endangered and threatened species in reserves to allow breeding,
- by preventing hunting and smuggling of rare birds and animals.

The Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora (CITES) ensures that there is no illegal trading in threatened species of wild animals and plants and protects thousands of species of animals and plants.

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (d); 2. (d); 3. (c); 4. (c)
- B. 1. minerals, ores; 2. Drilling; 3. four, 52, 11, 23; 4. petroleum, coal, natural gas
- C. 1. T; 2. F; 3. T; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. Minerals are of two types—metallic and non-metallic.
2. Minerals are chemical compounds that occur naturally in the earth's crust.
3. Petroleum
4. Conventional Power Resources.
- B. 1. A chemical compound or element that occurs naturally in the earth's crust is known as mineral.
2. It is extracted because of its high value and utility. Some common minerals are mica, iron, copper, limestone, gold, silver, feldspar, etc. Minerals are not evenly distributed.
3. Power or energy resources are those resources which are used to generate energy. Mineral fuels, especially fossil fuels, are mainly used across the world to provide most of the energy. Energy or power resources might be non-conventional (renewable) or conventional (non-renewable).

4. Conventional Power Resources

Petroleum : Petroleum and natural gas are usually formed together from the fossils of animals (organic material).

Natural Gas : About 20 per cent of the world's consumption of energy is met by natural gas. It is colourless, highly inflammable hydrocarbon and a type of petroleum that occurs in association with crude oil. Some of the world's largest gasfields are found in Russia.

Coal : This fossil fuel is found in layers of varying thickness in beds of sedimentary rocks. Its distribution is highly uneven in many parts of the world. It is solid and black or

brown in colour. Coal is widely used to generate thermal electricity.

- C. 1. The method of taking out minerals and fossil fuels from rocks buried under the earth is called mining. The method used for extraction of the mineral depends upon the depth at which the mineral is found under the earth.

Mining has helped many industries and encouraged several activities that use minerals and power resources.

There are three main types of mining depending on where and how a deposit is located. We have different processes to deal with different minerals—opencast mining, placer mining and underground mining.

2. **Metallic Minerals** : Minerals that contain one or more metallic elements are called metallic minerals. They occur in rare, naturally formed concentrations known as mineral deposits. Metallic minerals are chemically processed to extract the useful metals contained therein.

The metallic minerals can be further divided into two types—ferrous and non-ferrous. The ferrous minerals contain iron, i.e. iron ore, manganese and chromite. The non-ferrous minerals do not contain iron but may contain some other metals like gold, silver, copper or lead.

3. Minerals are important for our body to stay healthy. Your body uses minerals for many different jobs, including keeping your bones. Minerals such as aluminium, copper and gold are used in making many things. They make our life easier and efficient. Minerals are very useful for us.

4. **Non-Conventional Power Resources**

Hydel Power : Hydel or hydroelectric power is produced from generators that are driven by water turbines. These power plants are usually located in dams. Falling water enters the turbine and the moving blades power the generator to produce electricity. Hydel (Hydroelectric) power accounts for 24 per cent of the world's electricity.

Solar Power : Sunlight is the largest source of non-

polluting, renewable energy received on the earth. Solar energy can be directly converted into electricity by solar cells (photovaltaic cells).

Wind Power : Wind is a renewable energy and is also free. The use of winds for electricity generation has been increasing rapidly and it is estimated that wind power would eventually replace all fossil and nuclear fuels. In Denmark, 20 per cent of the electricity is generated from wind source.

Nuclear Power : Nuclear technology uses a fuel called uranium. Energy is released from uranium when an atom is split by a neutron. The uranium atom is split into two and when this happens, energy is released in the form of radiation and heat. This nuclear reaction is called the fission process.

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (c); 2. (b); 3. (c); 4. (d)
- B. 1. Social, economic, political; 2. Extensive agriculture; 3. employees, quality; 4. practices, climate change
- C. 1. F; 2. T; 3. T; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. Viticulture is the cultivation of grapes.
2. Wheat, Rice, Oats, Maize, Millet, Barley and Corn etc.
3. Transhumance is the practice of farming in which animals migrate seasonally along well-defined traditional routes, in the care of a limited number of herdsmen.
4. Most plantation crops take three to six years to mature and require replanting after a period of production.
- B. 1. Agriculture is also called farming or husbandry. It is the cultivation of animals, plants, fungi and other life forms for food, fibre, biofuel and other products used to sustain life. Agriculture or farming is one of the oldest occupational practices known to humankind.

2. **Shifting Cultivation** : Slash and burn agriculture or shifting agriculture is practised mainly by tribal people. This practice is one of the oldest forms of migratory agriculture. After two or three years of producing vegetables and grain crops on a recently cleared piece of land, the migrants abandon it for another newly cleared plot.
3. **Nomadic Herding** : Some animal herders move from one place to another in search of food and water for their animals. Today many of them are becoming sedentary. Transhumance is a practice where animals migrate seasonally along well-defined traditional routes, in the care of limited number of herdsmen.
4. **Market Gardening and Horticulture** : Many areas, in most countries of the world, specialise in the cultivation of vegetables, fruits and flowers for urban market. Market gardens are usually located outside towns and cities, where soil and climate are favourable and land is available.

C. 1. **Factors Affecting Agriculture**

Climate : Plants thrive best under certain temperature conditions. The annual and seasonal distribution of rainfall determines the available water supply to plants and the active growth period of crops.

Soil : Soils determine the type of crops that can be grown in any region. The soil provides moisture and nutrients to the plants.

Relief and Drainage : Plains are the most suitable for growing crops. Plateaus are not suitable for growing crops as they consist of hard land and thin soil. In the hilly areas, soil erosion is rapid, so such places are not ideal for growing crops either.

Human Factor : Social, economic and political factors all play important role in influencing the type of agriculture practised, and even the crops and animals that are grown and raised.

2. Intensive Subsistence Agriculture

Intensive agriculture means farmers practise multiple cropping, where two or more crops are grown each year. Often crop rotation with vegetables, oilseeds, fruits and even sugar cane is practised. This returns fertility to the soil and balances water shortage in the dry months.

Such intensive tillage generates high yields from every square foot of land. Farms are as small as 0.3 acres in Japan, one acre in India and two acres in China.

In areas where fields are small, unskilled labour is required for tilling, sowing and harvesting. Where fields are large, tractors and ploughs are used along with threshers, rollers and sprayers. In a farming practice called interculture, mixed rows of crops are sown to assure food supply all year round.

- 3. Dairy farming** is practised on large commercial dairy farms in temperate land. Milch cattle of best breeds are kept in green meadows and fed on stored fodder. These supply fresh milk all through the year.

Modern scientific methods of breeding ensure high quality products. Expensive equipments like milking machines, feeding towers and troughs are used. Dairy farming is practised around urban and industrial centres all over the world. Following the White Revolution, a major development has come about in the production of milk and milk products due to which our country has become one of the largest milk producers and exporters in the world.

4. Plantation Agriculture

Plantation agriculture can be defined as the growing and processing of a single cash crop like tea, coffee, rubber, oil, palm, cotton or coca on a very large scale mostly for the purpose of export. Fruits like pineapples or bananas are also grown.

Most plantation crops take three to six years to mature and require replanting after a period of production.

Modern machinery is utilised to process the crop on the plantation itself. The finished product is then traded both nationally and internationally.

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (b); 2. (d); 3. (a); 4. (b)
- B. 1. Clayey, loam; 2. Arabica, Robusta, Liberica;
3. Green revolution; 4. universities, institutes
- C. 1. F; 2. T; 3. T; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. Wheat requires a temperature of 10°C at the time of sowing. However, it requires 15°C to 20°C at the time of ripening.
2. Tea is a beverage crops.
3. Jute is a fibre crop.
4. The Green Revolution was started in 1960.
- B. 1. Crops are mainly of two types: food crops and cash crops. The crops which form the basic food of people are called food crops. The chief food crop of an area is known as the staple crop. Food crops are required for human consumption and they include cereals and pulses, while others may be cash crops or commercial crops that are processed and traded.
2. Tea, coffee and cocoa are considered beverage crops. All are exclusively grown in the tropics and subtropics, mostly as plantation crops, but are consumed all over the world.
3. **Industrial Crops**
Oilseeds : Seeds of mustard, groundnut, sunflower, etc. are grown mainly for oil. The vegetable oils used for cooking and in the manufacturing of paints, lubricants, toiletries, etc. After the oil is extracted, the leftovers of the oilseeds are used as manure.

4. In India, cotton grows best on the regur or black cotton soils of the northwest Deccan Plateau, in Maharashtra, Gujarat and Madhya Pradesh. Tamil Nadu and Andhra Pradesh also grow a little cotton.

C. 1. **Sugarcane** : It is a tropical cash crop which yields sugar. It is a kind of grass with a thick stem which stores sugar. It grows to a height of about three metres and more. Sugarcane is grown almost everywhere in the tropical and subtropical regions.

Sugarcane requires a constant temperature between 20°C to 27°C and 70 cm to 120 cm rainfall is necessary for its cultivation. Loamy, alluvial, black and even laterite soils are suitable for sugarcane production. Cuba, Brazil and India are the three leading producers of sugarcane. China, Indonesia, Thailand, Taiwan and parts of South America are also noteworthy.

2. Beverage Crops

Tea, coffee and cocoa are considered beverage crops. All are exclusively grown in the tropics and subtropics, mostly as plantation crops, but are consumed all over the world.

Tea : Tea is a beverage crop. Tea is prepared from the leaves of a tropical shrub grown in the hilly regions of Asia. The tea bush yields leaves only in the third year. Two leaves and a bud are plucked from each stem to make tea.

Coffee : Coffee is a very popular beverage. The coffee beans or berries are picked, roasted and ground to make coffee powder. Arabica, Robusta and Liberica are the three popular varieties grown in different areas. Arabica is the variety used to make mocha coffee.

Cocoa : Cocoa, obtained from the cocoa tree, is used as a beverage and to make chocolate. Cocoa is suited to tropical areas with high temperature and moderate rainfall.

3. Fibre Crops

Cotton, jute, hemp and flax are fibre crops that are used to make textiles.

Cotton : Cotton is by far the most widely used fibre in clothing. It has three major staple varieties—long, medium and short. It is one of the most important commercial crops. Cotton requires high temperatures of 27°C and above with 200 frost-free days. The crop requires 50 cm to 100 cm of rainfall that is evenly distributed. Well-drained, loamy soil and black volcanic soil are good for cotton growing.

4. The Green Revolution of the 1960s encouraged improvement in agricultural production. Some important aspects of this programme were :
- use of high-yielding and quick-maturing varieties of seeds;
 - improvement in irrigation techniques to combat droughts and extend agricultural areas. Many multi-purpose projects set up at this time were a step in the right direction;
 - use of chemical fertilisers to increase soil productivity and fertility;
 - use of pesticides;
 - increased mechanisation in agriculture;
 - rural electrification.

The White Revolution has vastly improved the standards of production and processing of milk and milk products. Milk cooperatives, such as Amul in Gujarat, have been set up for this purpose.

5. **Agricultural Development in India**

Agriculture is the backbone of Indian economy. It is not only a source of food and raw material for industry, but it also provides income and employment to a vast chunk of our population. It is a foreign exchange earner through the export of agricultural produce.

Agricultural Development in the USA

Due to resources and better developed technology, the agriculture in the USA is far more technically developed than India, even though it started much later there.

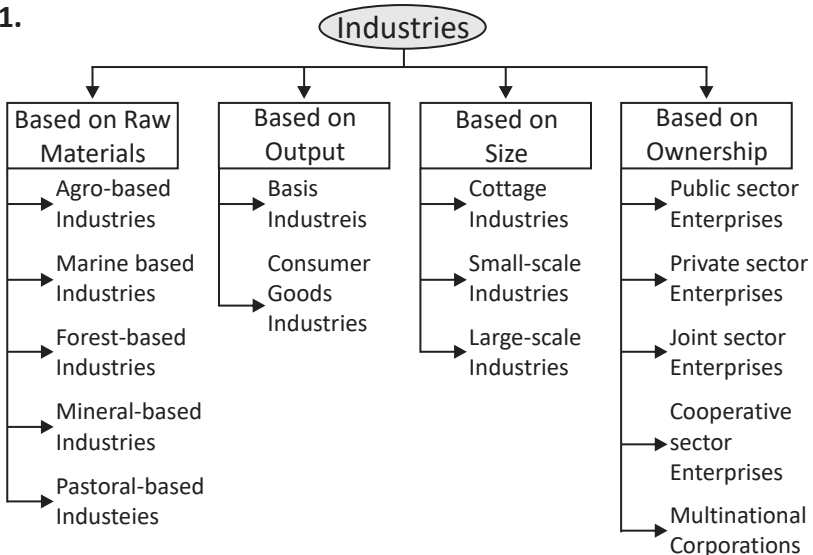
Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (d); 2. (d); 3. (a); 4. (a)
- B. 1. sheep, cows, goats; 2. small capital, marginal transport expenditure; 3. perishable; 4. processed; 5. Chhota Nagpur Plateau
- C. 1. T; 2. F; 3. F; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. Basic Industries, Consumer Goods Industries.
2. **Large-scale Industries** : These industries are capital-intensive. They utilise heavy machinery, consume a lot of power and employ numerous skilled labourers. Raw materials are obtained from a variety of sources or are even imported.
3. **Heavy Industries** : iron and steel, metallurgical, heavy machinery, heavy chemicals, transport equipment and fertiliser industries.
4. Computer software industry are units that prepare programmes which enable computers to operate and enable information and data to be processed.

B. 1.



2. Factors Affecting the Location of Industries

Location : When a manufacturer starts looking for a suitable location for his factory, he has to take into consideration all such factors that it might face in the volatile and unpredictable business arena.

Raw Materials : There are a number of industries that require huge amounts of cheap, bulky raw materials, hence setting it up near the source of raw material will save heavy transportation costs.

Power : During the Industrial Revolution, coal was the major source of power.

Labour and Technology : Where skilled labour in small numbers is called for, they can be moved to the industry, especially if they are a small part of the total costs.

Market : The market or demand factor is particularly important in deciding a location. Manufacturing units of products that get easily damaged in transportation such as glass or ceramics or electronics, are usually located near the market.

Capital : Finance is probably the most important factor for the establishment of different industries. Modern banking has given capital more mobility.

Government Policy : Government plays a role through tax incentives, subsidies and nationalisation. In most countries, the government plays a part in deciding where and what type of industries will be set up.

Transport and Communication : A good and cheap transport network provides flexibility in the location of industries. Port locations often become centres of industry.

3. Iron and Steel Industry

The iron and steel industry involves the manufacturing of pig iron, steel and steel products. Its use in most other industries either as a raw material or in machinery is what makes this industry the most basic of all industries.

China, Japan, Russia, the US, Ukraine, Germany and the UK lead the world production.

France, Southern Australia and India are also major producers. Brazil, South Africa, Colombia, Italy, Canada, Poland and Belgium are smaller producers.

4. Information Technology

The information technology industry is based on the development in two major areas. Computer hardware industry and Computer software industry. The IT industry is creating new jobs at breakneck speed.

The IT industry is today booming in the US, Western and Central Europe, Russia, China, Japan, Malaysia, Thailand, Taiwan and India. India has a flourishing IT industry.

C. 1. Same as 2 B

2. Smalle-scale Industries

These involve organisation of skilled craftspersons and employed labour in which there is a greater use of capital, more machines, electric power and raw materials. Food products, textiles, consumer goods, ceramics, wood products, are all categorised as small-scale industries.

Large-scale Industries

These industries are capital-intensive. They utilise heavy machinery, consume a lot of power and employ numerous skilled labourers. Raw materials are obtained from a variety of sources or are even imported. Production is on a large scale and caters to a national and international market.

3. Textile Industry

The textile industry is one of the oldest industries in the world. It includes textiles made from natural vegetable fibres natural animal fibres: and synthetic fibres: India was one of the largest producers and exporters of textiles. However, after the Industrial Revolution machines like power looms began to be used to manufacture textiles all over the world.

4. Information Technology :

The information technology industry is based on the development in two major areas.

Computer hardware industry and Computer software industry

The IT industry is creating new jobs at breakneck speed.

The IT industry is today booming in the US, Western and Central Europe, Russia, China, Japan, Malaysia, Thailand, Taiwan and India. India has a flourishing IT industry. The Indian IT industry and software technology parks which have a concentration of software firms in Bengaluru, Delhi, Mumbai, Pune, Chennai, Chandigarh, Kolkata, Hyderabad and Thiruvananthapuram are growing very rapidly.

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (c); 2. (d); 3. (b); 4. (c)
- B. 1. coal-fired thermal plants, thermo-electric plants;
2. automobiles; 3. Information Technology Development, Business Process Outsourcing (BPO); 4. Santa Clara Country, the
- C. 1. T; 2. T; 3. F; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. In 1907, Sir Dorabji Tata established the first modern steel plant of India at Sakchi. The steel plant was named Tata Iron and Steel Company (TISCO) and it started producing steel in 1912.
2. The Chhota Nagpur Plateau region is a major industrial region where steel products have a high demand for the manufacture of machinery, tools, automobiles, locomotives and other goods.
3. Ahmedabad
4. IT stands for Information Technology.
- B. 1. Located in Jamshedpur (Jharkhand), the Tata Iron and Steel Company (TISCO) is one of the oldest steel plants in the

country. Tata Steel has withstood tough competition from other public sector plants at Bokaro, Bhilai, Durgapur and Raurkela which were set up after Independence.

2. Ahmedabad is located in the state of Gujarat. It is situated on the banks of river Sabarmati. It is second to Mumbai in textile production. The cotton textile mills of this town are smaller in size but they are well-known for their superb quality.
 3. Today, Information Technology (IT) is the fastest growing industry in the world. This industry has brought speed and accuracy in our activities and reduced our dependence on manual labour. Both in terms of production and exports, the Indian electronics and information technology industry is the fastest growing segment in our industrial sector. Bengaluru, the capital of Karnataka, is the hub of the IT industry. It provides a base for over 10,000 industries.
 4. A venture capitalist (VC) is a private equity investor that provides capital to companies with high growth potential in exchange for an equity stake.
- C. 1. Some of the major factors that must have encouraged Jamshetji Tata to set up the iron and steel plant here are described ahead.
- Jamshedpur has an ideal location in terms of a transport network. The port in Kolkata too facilitates exports.
 - Raw materials required for the plant are found within a small radius in the Chhota Nagpur Plateau.
 - TISCO has its own coal-fired thermal plants and thermo-electric plant. Besides, the Damodar Valley Corporation, a multipurpose project, also supplies hydroelectric power to the plant.
 - Due to their dense population, the neighbouring states of West Bengal and Odisha can provide all the labour required.
 - Both the local and the British government supported Jamshetji's venture.

2. Detroit became the auto capital of the World because:
 - Raw materials required for steel production are available in close proximity.
 - Adequate land is available for the development of large steel plants.
 - The Great Lakes and St Lawrence Seaway serve as an excellent means of water transport.
 - Access to the Atlantic ports is also a major advantage for exports and imports.
 - Detroit gets regular supply of hydroelectric power from the Niagara Falls power plants.
 - Skilled labour is available locally and from the neighbouring regions, which are the most populated parts of the country.
3. Textile industry is one of the oldest industries in the world. India has been famous worldwide for its fine handmade fibre. Even today, textile and garment are exported from India across the globe.

The Textile Industry of Ahmedabad

Ahmedabad is located in the state of Gujarat. It is situated on the banks of river Sabarmati. It is second to Mumbai in textile production. The cotton textile mills of this town are smaller in size but they are well-known for their superb quality.

4. Advantages of the Silicon Valley

- All the technology and scientific research required by the IT industry is developed and carried out at Stanford, Berkeley and other prestigious educational institutions in California.
- International companies moved to the area and established their headquarters here, giving the Valley economic stability.
- Numerous venture capital firms that are ready to provide finance moved into the area and backed early-stage business ventures that needed funding.

- Government support to the industry came by way of land for industrial and the best infrastructural facilities available in the world.
- Uninterrupted power supply ensures there are no shutdowns.
- Road, rail and air transport networks here are among the best in the world.

Chapter 10

Human Resources

Objective Types Questions

- A.** 1. (b); 2. (a); 3. (a); 4. (d)
- B.** 1. 87%; 2. Flat, undulating land, river valleys;
3. cultural opportunities; 4. life expectancy, poor medical and health care
- C.** 1. T; 2. F; 3. F; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A.** 1. The distribution of population is best understood not just in terms of the numbers of people living in a country, but also in terms of the numbers living in a unit area, i.e. the density of population.
2. Varanasi, Mathura, Rome etc. are all centres that attract people of different religions.
3. The age structure explains the percentage of a country's population in different age groups.
4. Occupational structure is the number of people within the total population engaged in primary, secondary and tertiary activities.
- B.** 1. The distribution of population is best understood not just in terms of the numbers of people living in a country, but also in terms of the numbers living in a unit area, i.e. the density of population. While the density of population for the world is about 45 people per sq km, it rises to as much as 9,294 people per sq km in Delhi, over 600 people per sq

km in parts of eastern US and less than 1 per sq km in the Sahara desert or the Canadian Tundra region.

$$\text{Density of population} = \frac{\text{Total population}}{\text{Total area in sq km}}$$

2. Flat or undulating land in the plains and river valleys have always been the most favoured places for human habitation. They are usually better suited to agriculture and other economic activities and allow for better connectivity, through transport and communication facilities. Plains are appropriate for expansion and settlement and water supply from rivers is abundant for all types of work. These areas usually have a better climate, suited to development and growth of human population.
 3. Varanasi, Mathura, Rome etc. are all centres that attract people of different religions. These have developed as commercial centres because they provide services that fulfil the needs of tourists. So population tends to be higher here.
 4. Birth rate is the number of live births per thousand people in a year. Death rate is the number of deaths per thousand people in a year. The difference between these two rates gives the annual growth rate of the population.
- C. 1. **Relief** : Flat or undulating land in the plains and river valleys have always been the most favoured places for human habitation. They are usually better suited to agriculture and other economic activities and allow for better connectivity, through transport and communication facilities. Plains are appropriate for expansion and settlement and water supply from rivers is abundant for all types of work. These areas usually have a better climate, suited to development and growth of human population.
- Climate** : A favourable climate with warm summers and cool winters and an equitable amount of rainfall allows for a wide range of economic activities.

2. Economic Factors

Resources : The presence of natural resources is an indicator that the region can support some economic activity and so a larger population.

Industrial Activity : Most industrial centres create opportunity for employment. Labour is attracted to such centres which have a good infrastructure and so exert a 'pull' on population.

Transport Network : Places connected to other places by road, rail, water and air are preferred to those where these facilities do not exist.

Urbanisation : People are always drawn to urban areas where facilities for living are better and more avenues are open for employment. Most rural areas provide fewer opportunities for growth.

3. Age Structure

The age structure explains the percentage of a country's population in different age groups.

The segment of population in the age groups 0 to 4, 5 to 9 and so on till 75 plus is shown through an age pyramid. While the numbers of males and females are shown on the horizontal axis, the age groups are depicted on the vertical axis. We can call the age group 0 to 14 as young or dependant; 15 to 64 as the adult or working age group; and 65 plus, as the older age group which may again include dependent. The younger age group is non-productive and comprises a large dependant population. This age structure is typical of developing economies like India and Bangladesh.

4. Sex Composition

India's decades long efforts to improve the sex ratio may be finally fruit. For every 1,000 males, the country now has 1,020 females according to the National Family Health Survey –5 (NFHS–5), a nation wide survey by the ministry of health for the period between 2019 and 2021.

Literacy Rate : In India, literacy levels are low and particularly so among females. Rural areas too have very low literacy rates compared to urban areas. Kerala has achieved nearly 100 per cent literacy. Steps are being taken to make primary education compulsory all over the country.

Unit-3 : Social and Political Life

Chapter

1

← Our Constitution

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (b); 2. (c); 3. (d); 4. (d)
B. 1. power, functions; 2. first parliament; 3. laws, implements, disputes, law; 4. adult
C. 1. T; 2. F; 3. T; 4. F

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. Dr B R Ambedkar was the head of the Drafting Committee of the Constituent Assembly.
2. It took three years to frame the Constitution.
3. The Preamble is (an introduction to the Constitution) to our Constitution clearly says that the Union of India is a sovereign, socialist, secular and democratic republic.
4. On 26 January 1950, the Constitution was adopted.
- B. 1. A set of written rules and regulations according to which a country is governed is called the Constitution.
A Constitution binds diverse people together by creating some basic laws for them which are equal for everyone.
2. The Constitution makes us aware about the composition and structure of the government, its powers and functions, the rights of the people, etc.
3. **Sovereignty** : The Preamble states that India is a sovereign country. This means that the Government of the country has an absolute independent authority over the areas within the territorial boundaries of the country. The country is free from any external control.
4. Sometimes, when people are not happy with certain laws, they are allowed to show their displeasure in the form of

protest. This is called dissent. In a democracy, public opinion plays an important role. If one section of the people is not happy, they take the help of mass media to influence other people in the society. Thus, dissents become mass protest. Sometimes, mass protests can lead to changes in existing laws. However, it is important to protest in a peaceful manner without disrupting life or property.

C. 1. Aim of the Constitution

- The Constitution clearly defines the powers and functions of the elected representatives who govern the country, as well as the rights of the citizens.
- It defines the functions and powers of the executive and the legislature and also puts certain limitations on their powers.
- The Constitution tries to uphold the unity, integrity as well as the diversity of the country.
- It clearly defines the ways in which the government will be elected and on what basis it will function.
- In a democratic country, all the citizens are treated equally, and they have equal rights. The laws of the country are same for everyone, no person is above the law just because of his/her caste or religion.
- However, the Constitution mentions some special privileges for certain backward sections of the society, so that they can be at par with the mainstream.
- The Constitution gives some Fundamental Rights to every citizen of the country.

2. Drafting of the Constitution : The Constitution was framed by the Constituent Assembly. Its members were elected by the members of the provincial legislative assemblies. When India gained independence, the Constituent Assembly served as the first Parliament.

Dr B R Ambedkar was the head of the Drafting Committee of the Constituent Assembly. The Drafting Committee took

three years to complete the task of framing the Constitution. On 26 January, 1950, the Constitution was formally adopted.

3. The special features of the Constitution are as follows :

Sovereignty : The Preamble states that India is a sovereign country. This means that the Government of the country has an absolute independent authority over the areas within the territorial boundaries of the country. The country is free from any external control.

Federalism : The Constitution defines the federal structure—which means government at two levels. In India, the government functions at two levels—Central and State. There are also Local Governments in villages and cities.

Parliamentary Form of Government : The Constitution mentions that India has a parliamentary form of government, and it clearly mentions the powers and functions of the Parliament as well. The Parliament is the central legislature. Through general elections, we elect representatives to the Parliament.

Universal Adult Franchise : The Constitution also guarantees universal adult franchise. It means that every adult citizen of the country can cast his/her vote during elections, without any discrimination.

Separation of Powers : The Constitution clearly demarcates and defines the powers and roles of the three organs of the government—the executive, the legislature and the judiciary.

Secularism : The Constitution of India declares that India is a secular country. There is no official religion of the country. Every person has the right to practice and follow his /her own religion.

Fundamental Rights : The Constitution of India guarantees certain basic rights to all its citizens. These are called Fundamental Rights. Nobody can violate these rights and a citizen can approach the court of law if his/her Fundamental Rights are violated.

Fundamental Duties : The Constitution also mentions a code of conduct for the citizens, called the Fundamental Duties. The Fundamental Duties help us to become good citizens.

Constitutional Amendment : The Constitution of India is able to adapt itself to the changing needs of the society. Since it was framed, many social and economic changes have taken place in the country.

4. India is a democratic country. In a large country like India, people think differently, the desires and needs are different and they follow varied cultures. All these are enough to give rise to conflicts among them. To maintain order in the society and to ensure the welfare of the people, laws are needed.

The Government, on the basis of the provisions of the Constitution, creates and implements certain laws. Through these laws, the Government aims to establish equality and social justice.

5. Sometimes, when people are not happy with certain laws, they are allowed to show their displeasure in the form of protest. This is called dissent. In a democracy, public opinion plays an important role. If one section of the people is not happy, they take the help of mass media to influence other people in the society. Thus, dissents become mass protest. Sometimes, mass protests can lead to changes in existing laws. However, it is important to protest in a peaceful manner without disrupting life or property. Dissent can be of two types– Constructive Dissent, Destructive Dissent.

Chapter **2**

Secularism and the Fundamental Rights

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (c); 2. (b); 3. (c); 4. (c)

- B.** 1. diversity, religions; 2. basic rights, dignity; 3. 86th, 2002;
4. 6, 14 years
- C.** 1. T; 2. T; 3. F; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A.** 1. The Preamble describes India as 'Sovereign Socialist Secular Democratic Republic'.
2. The word secular was put in the Preamble to the constitution in 1979 through the 42nd amendment simply to reaffirm the faith of the nation in making the Indian politics stay above petty religious considerations while showing due respect to all religion.
3. Articles (14-18)
4. There are eleven Fundamental Duties.
- B.** 1. People should have the freedom to leave the religion they have been practicing and join another religion. It is for these reasons that it is important to separate the power of the state from religion.
2. The Constitution of India guarantees to its citizens certain basic rights, fundamental for living with basic dignity. These are called the Fundamental Rights. They are the most basic human rights.
The Fundamental Rights are :
- Right to Equality (Article 14-18)
 - Right to Freedom (Article 19-22)
 - Right against Exploitation (Article 23-24)
 - Right to Freedom of Religion (Article 25-28)
 - Cultural and Educational Rights (Article 29-30)
 - Right to Constitutional Remedies (Article 32-35)
3. Fundamental Duties were incorporated in the Constitution in 1976. Initially, there were only ten Fundamental Duties. The eleventh duty was added as a result of the 86th Constitutional Amendment in 2002.
4. **Directive Principles of State Policy** : Some of the Directive Principles are :
- Equal pay for equal work
 - Humane conditions of work

- Promotion of education and economic interests of Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and other weaker sections
 - Protection of national monuments
 - Protection and improvement of environment and safeguarding of forests and wildlife of the country
 - Promotion of international peace and security.
- C. 1. Even when the constitution was adopted, it had distinct secular features.
- The Constitution declares that India has no official religion. Government agencies do not promote any religion.
 - The state does not interfere with the religious practices of its citizens. Every person living in the country has the right to follow his/her own religion and celebrate his/her own religious festivals.
 - However, sometimes, if a religious procession or celebration might lead to disruption of law and order, the police can intervene and impose some restrictions.
 - Citizens following any particular religion have the right to cast their votes during elections or contest elections.
 - The state does not consider the religion of an individual while admission to educational institutions or recruitments in government service.
 - People belonging to every religion have the right to build places of worship anywhere in the country.
2. The Constitution of India guarantees to its citizens certain basic rights, fundamental for living with basic dignity. These are called the Fundamental Rights. They are the most basic human rights.
- The Fundamental Rights are :
- Right to Equality** : This right ensures that every citizen of the country gets equal treatment, without any discrimination on the basis of caste, creed, sex, race or religion.

Right to Freedom : The Right to Freedom in Article 19 guarantees the freedom of speech and expression, freedom to assemble peacefully and without arms, freedom to form associations or unions, freedom to move freely throughout the territory of India, freedom to reside and settle in any part of the territory of India and freedom to practise any profession, or to carry on any occupation, trade or business.

Right against Exploitation : This right is specially meant for people who have faced various forms of exploitation. The right seeks to end the exploitation of children through the practice of child labour by abolishing it.

Right to Freedom of Religion : This right upholds secularism in the country. It guarantees every citizen of India the freedom to follow and practise any religion of his/her choice.

Cultural and Educational Rights : It gives the citizens the right to practice and promote their own language and culture. It also states that no citizen shall be denied admission into any educational institution maintained by the state or to receive aid out of state funds on grounds only of religion, race, caste, language or any of them.

Right to Constitutional Remedies : It states that any citizen can go to a court of law if he/she feels that any of his/her Fundamental Rights is being denied even if it is by the government. The court issues writs to safeguard the citizen's Fundamental Rights.

3. Our Fundamental Duties are :

- To abide by the Constitution and respect its ideals and institutions, the National Flag, and the National Anthem.
- To cherish and follow the noble ideals which inspired our national struggle for freedom.
- To uphold and protect the sovereignty, unity and integrity of India.

- To defend the country and render national service when called upon to do so.
- To promote harmony and the spirit of brotherhood amongst all the people of India transcending (surpassing) religious, linguistic and regional or sectional diversities; to renounce practices installing the dignity of women.
- To value and preserve the rich heritage of our composite culture.
- To protect and improve the natural environment including forests, lakes, rivers and wildlife, and to have compassion for living creatures.
- To develop the scientific temper, humanism, and the spirit of inquiry and reform.
- To safeguard public property and abandon violence.
- 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.
- To give opportunities for education to children, own or adopted, aged between 6 to 14 years.

4. Same as 4 B

Chapter 3

The Parliamentary Government

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (b); 2. (a); 3. (c); 4. (c)
- B. 1. president, vice-president, the prime minister, ministers;
2. summons, prorogues, first sessions; 3. National Planning Commission; 4. bureaucracy, civil services.
- C. 1. T; 2. T; 3. T; 4. F
- D. 1. (b); 2. (c); 3. (d); 4. (e); 5. (a)

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. The Lok Sabha and the Rajya Sabha are the two houses of the Parliament.
2. The total number of members in the parliament is 552.
3. The Rajya Sabha, the Council of States, is the upper house

of the parliament. There are 250 members in the Rajya Sabha.

4. Money bill can only be introduced in the Lok Sabha.
- B.
1. To become a member of the Rajya Sabha, a person :
 - should be an Indian citizen of 30 years or above,
 - should not be bankrupt or mentally unsound,
 - should not hold any salaried government job.
 2. **Legislative Functions** : All laws are introduced as bills in the parliament. After the approval by both the houses, the bill becomes a law. The parliament legislates on all subjects mentioned in the union list, concurrent list and the residuary list.
 3. Lok Sabha can be dissolved before it completes its five-year term. This may happen if a 'No Confidence Motion' is passed against the government in the Lok Sabha. The President then looks for other alternatives. If no other leader is able to form the government due to lack of support, the Lok Sabha is dismissed and fresh elections take place in the country. Thus, a new Lok Sabha is constituted.
 4. To become the president of the country, a person must :
 - be a citizen of India,
 - be 35 years or above,
 - be eligible to become a member of the parliament,
 - not hold any office in the government and
 - not be bankrupt or mentally unsound.
- C.
1. The Lok Sabha, House of the People, is the lower house of the parliament. The members of the Lok Sabha are elected directly by the people through elections. The total number of members in the parliament is 552. 530 members are elected by the people of different states and 20 members are elected by the people of the union territories. The president can nominate two members from the Anglo-Indian community. All the citizens of the country above 18 years can cast their votes. At present, the Lok Sabha has 545 members including the Speaker.

2. Election : For the purpose of elections, the country is divided into constituencies. From each constituency, one member for one seat in the Lok Sabha can be elected. For that one seat, candidates from different political parties contest. Candidates who do not belong to any political party, or independent candidates, can also contest. After elections, the candidate who gets the maximum number of votes in a constituency is declared elected from that constituency. The members are also known as MPs.

The party that wins the maximum number of seats forms the government. Members belonging to other political parties form the opposition. When one single party does not win clear majority of seats in the parliament, two or more parties come together to form a coalition government. The other parties, who do not join the government, form the opposition.

The members of the Lok Sabha elect a Speaker and a Deputy Speaker. They conduct all the proceedings of the Lok Sabha. All resolutions and bills have to be moved with the Speaker's permission.

3. Function of the Parliament

The Parliamentary system of government works through three main organs. They are : legislature, executive and judiciary. These three organs work independently. But to ensure the smooth running of the country, these three organs work in collaboration with each other.

Legislative Functions

All laws are introduced as bills in the parliament. After the approval by both the houses, the bill becomes a law. The parliament legislates on all subjects mentioned in the union list, concurrent list and the residuary list.

Passing of Bills

A bill is a draft of the proposed law. The bills can be broadly divided into two types :

Money Bills : It relates to the finances of the country. It can only be introduced in the Lok Sabha.

Ordinary Bills : Ordinary bills can be introduced in either house of the Parliament. Except money bills, all other bills come under this category.

Financial Functions

The government imposes taxes on the people. Money collected through taxes is utilised to execute its welfare and development programmes.

Constituent Functions

The parliament can make changes or amendments to the constitution. However, all the amendments are valid only after they have been approved by both the houses of the parliament.

Electoral Functions

The parliament performs some electoral functions like electing the President and the Vice-President of India.

Control of the Executive

The parliament keeps a check on the powers of the government. If the parliament is not happy with the working of the government, it can pass a no-confidence motion against the government.

4. Power of the President

The Powers of the President are grouped as under :

Legislative Powers : The President calls a joint session of the two houses to solve any disagreement over a bill. Sometimes, when the parliament is not in session, and it is important for the government to take crucial decisions or pass some crucial laws, in such cases, the president has the power to issue special laws or ordinance. The ordinance has to be approved by parliament once it begins its session.

Executive Powers : The president appoints the Prime Minister, the central council of ministers on the Prime Minister's advice, judges of the Supreme Court and High Courts, and Governors of the states. The president is the Supreme Commander of our defense forces and appoints the Chiefs of the Army, Navy and the Air Force.

Judicial Powers : The President has the power to grant pardon or reduce the sentence of a person convicted for an offence. He can even alter a death sentence.

Diplomatic Powers : The President represents India in international forums and sends and receives Ambassadors. All the international treaties and agreements are concluded in the President's name.

Emergency Powers : On the petition of the Council of Ministers, the President can declare a state of national emergency if the country is threatened by war, external aggression or armed rebellion.

5. Council of Ministers

The Council of Ministers comprises cabinet ministers, ministers of state with independent charge, ministers of state who work with cabinet ministers, and deputy ministers.

Cabinet Ministers : They are the ministers who are the highest in rank. They are given charge of different portfolios. They take major decisions related to their portfolios.

Ministers of State : They follow next in rank. A minister of state helps a cabinet minister or holds independent charge of a department.

Deputy Ministers : They are the lowest in rank. They help the cabinet ministers and the ministers of state.

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (a); 2. (a); 3. (c); 4. (b)
B. 1. live; 2. democracy, representatives; 3. 1961; 4. Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan
C. 1. T; 2. T; 3. T; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. The Vernacular Press Act was passed in 1878 by Lord Lytton. According to his law the editor of a vernacular

newspaper had to get the content reviewed by the police before publishing.

2. Different groups in society raise the need for a particular law. They campaign through the media to generate public opinion.
 3. The Right to Information (RTI) Act came into effect from October 2005.
 4. In the 1990s, the government adopted the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan—a programme aimed at the universalisation of elementary education. Finally, in 2009, Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act or Right to Education (RTE) Act, was enacted by the Parliament.
- B.**
1. A system of rules and guidelines that are used to regulate the life of the people is called law.
 2. Without laws, there would be chaos and everybody would want to do things as per their own way. Laws should be equal for everybody. This equality before law is important for achieving the ideal of rule of law.
 3. Education is of utmost importance for the progress of any country. When India gained independence, the state of education in the country was very poor. The government established the University Education Commission and the Secondary Education Commission to modernise the education system. In 1961, the National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) was formed. It advises the union and state governments on education policies.
 4. In the 1990s, the government adopted the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan—a programme aimed at the universalisation of elementary education. Finally, in 2009, Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act or Right to Education (RTE) Act, was enacted by the Parliament. The Act came into effect on 1 April, 2010. It asserts the importance of free and compulsory education for children between 6 and 14 years of age in India. Right to education has also become a Fundamental Right.

- C. 1. When India became independent, leaders wanted to ensure that there would be no arbitrary laws in the country. All the people in independent India would be equal before the law and would be subjected to equal laws. So, they incorporated in the constitution the idea of rule of law. The parliament passes new laws as well as revises existing ones in order to meet the evolving needs of the society, based on the rule of law.
2. Often, different groups in society raise the need for a particular law. They campaign through the media to generate public opinion. Public opinion is the opinion of the people. In a democracy, the government is formed by the representatives of the people. So it is important that they take into account the opinion of the people. If they are convinced that a new law is necessary for the benefit of the society, the process of framing laws gets started.
3. Any citizen of India who desires to obtain any information under the RTI Act, 2005 may make a request to the Public Information Officer (PIO)/Assistant Public Information Officer (APO) preferably in the application format in writing or through electronic means. The applicant is required to disclose his/her name and contact particulars but not any other reasons or justification for seeking information. The applicant is entitled to receive information within 30 days. In some cases, this time period may exceed thirty days. However, if a person does not get information within specified time period, he/she can appeal again or complain.
4. Education is of utmost importance for the progress of any country. When India gained independence, the state of education in the country was very poor. The government established the University Education Commission and the Secondary Education Commission to modernise the education system. In 1961, the National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) was formed. It

advises the union and state governments on education policies.

The first National Policy on Education (NPE) in 1968 called for ensuring compulsory education for all children up to the age of 14. It also called for equalisation of educational opportunity, especially for women, scheduled tribes and scheduled castes.

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (b); 2. (b); 3. (b); 4. (b)
B. 1. executive, legislative; 2. lower, high, supreme; 3. Supreme; 4. district, district
C. 1. T; 2. T; 3. T; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. The head of the Supreme Court is the Chief Justice, who is appointed by the President of India. Another 30 judges work with him.
2. President appoints the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court.
3. High court is the highest court at state level.
4. Court cases can be of two kinds—civil and criminal.
- B. 1. Independence of the judiciary means that the executive and the legislature cannot influence the functioning and the decisions of the judiciary.
2. The Supreme Court is the guardian of the constitution and the highest court of appeal. The jurisdiction, functions and responsibilities of the Supreme Court are defined by the constitution. The head of the Supreme Court is the Chief Justice, who is appointed by the President of India. Another 30 judges work with him. They are also appointed by the President in consultation with the Chief Justice.
3. Nyaya Panchayats serve as village-level courts that settle minor cases of theft and quarrel. They are a part of the Panchayati Raj institution. There is usually one Nyaya Panchayat for a group of villages. The members are elected

by the Gram Panchayat. Appeal from the Nyaya Panchayat is heard at the district courts.

4. Civil cases deal with matters such as property, marriage, inheritance and money. Criminal cases deal with cases of theft, murder, dacoity or physical injury.

C. 1. Powers of the Supreme Court :

Its powers can be broadly categorised as:

Original Jurisdiction : Some cases can only be heard by the Supreme Court. These cases cannot be initiated in any other court. The Supreme Court holds original jurisdiction over such cases.

Appellate Jurisdiction : In India, if a person is not happy with the verdict of a lower court regarding constitutional, civil, or criminal cases, he/she can appeal against it to the higher court.

Advisory Jurisdiction : The Supreme Court has a special advisory capacity. Sometimes, the President might seek the advice of the Supreme Court on matters which involve the public or those which require interpretation of the Constitution.

Supervisory Jurisdiction : The Supreme Court oversees and supervise the functioning of the lower courts.

Court of Record : The verdicts and judgements made by the Supreme Court are kept as records for reference and use by lawyers.

2. **High Courts :** High Courts are the highest courts at the state level. They function under the supervision of the Supreme Court. The High Courts exercise original, appellate and supervisory jurisdictions.

A High Court exercises original jurisdiction in cases which invoke protection of Fundamental Rights, disputes related to state elections and cases where interpretation of the Constitution is needed. It acts as a court of appeal for the subordinate courts—if a person is unhappy with the verdict of a subordinate court; he/she appeals to the High

Court against the verdict. The High Court also supervises the functions of the subordinate courts. There are 24 High Courts in India.

- 3. Subordinate Courts :** A state is divided into smaller administrative divisions which are known as districts. The courts in the districts are subordinate to the High Court of the state. There are several types of courts in a district.

The court of the district and the sessions judge is the highest court in a district. When a judge of this court hears civil cases, he/she is called the District Judge. When he/she hears criminal cases, he/she is known as the Sessions Judge. So the same court acts as both the district court and the sessions court. The district/judge of this court is appointed by the Governor of the state, after consulting the Chief Justice of the state High Court.

- 4. Lok Adalats :** Lok Adalats settle petty disputes through conciliation and compromise. These courts are organised from time to time to give speedy justice at a low cost as there is no court fee.

Lok Adalats are presided over by a sitting or retired judicial officer, with two other members, usually a lawyer and a social worker.

Chapter 6

The Police and the Judiciary

Objective Types Questions

- A.** 1. (b); 2. (c); 3. (b); 4. (d)
B. 1. Police Act of 1861; 2. District Magistrate, police force;
3. accused, guilty; 4. government, guilty
C. 1. T; 2. T; 3. T; 4. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A.** 1. Most of the senior officers in the police force are appointed through the Indian Police Service examination. They are known as IPS officers.
2. First Information Report

3. The police station is the basic and the most important units of police administration.
 4. A lawyer who defends the accused is called the defence lawyer.
- B.**
1. At the district-level, there is a system of a dual control of the police force. A Deputy Commissioner is incharge of administration in a district. He/She also acts as a District Magistrate and a District Collector.
 2. When a crime is committed, the aggrieved person should go to the police station of the area where the crime has taken place and lodge a written complaint. This is called the first information report or FIR. The police can only initiate action after an FIR has been lodged.
 3. Once an FIR has been registered, the police go to the crime scene and investigate and examines the crime scene, the witnesses and suspects, record statements, collect fingerprints and other technical evidences, seizes property and interrogates the accused.
 4. There are two kinds of offences—cognisable and non-cognisable. Cognisable offences are those where the police are authorised to begin investigations on their own, after an FIR has been lodged. They can even arrest a criminal if necessary, and do not need a warrant. Cognisable offences are mainly criminal cases. A non-cognisable offence is one in which the police cannot register an FIR, investigate or arrest without a warrant.
- C.**
1. The police force in India is a huge body with multiple hierarchies. There is a separate police force in each state and union territory of the country. The Director General of Police (DGP) is the head of the police force in each state. The structure and working of the State police forces are governed by the Police Act of 1861. In some states, the state governments have slightly modified certain rules and regulations.
States are divided into districts and the Superintendent of

Police (SP) is the head of the police force in each district. A group of districts form a range, and each range is under the charge of Deputy Inspector General of Police (DIGP). In some states, two or more ranges form a zone and each zone is under an Inspector General of Police (IGP).

Each district is divided into subdivisions. An Assistant Superintendent of Police (ASP) or a Deputy Superintendent of Police is incharge of police administration of each subdivision.

Each circle has about ten police stations under it which are known as thanas. Each police station is under the charge of an Inspector, assisted by Sub-Inspectors, Assistant Sub-Inspectors, Head Constables and Constables.

2. To report a crime, a person has to go to the nearest police station and meet the officer-incharge to lodge an FIR. If the head of the police station is not available, the officer holding the highest rank should write down the written complaint. The complainant narrates the incident of the crime. Lodging an incorrect FIR is a crime and a person can be prosecuted for it. Once the police officer write down the FIR, he/she has to read it out to the complainant. Then the complainant has to sign it. The complainant has the right to ask for a copy of the FIR.
3. The accused has the right to consult a lawyer of his/her own choice, to defend himself/herself.
4. **Fair Trial** : The Constitution of India states that every citizen of the country is entitled to a fair trial.

It is the Fundamental Right of every citizen to be informed of the crime at the time of arrest. After arrest, he/she should be presented before a magistrate within 24 hours. A person cannot be ill-treated during his/her arrest and trial period. What an accused confesses in the police station cannot be used as evidence. The court should give a copy of the chargesheet and the statement of the witnesses to the accused. The trial has to be held when the

accused is present and the accused can fight his/her case by presenting his/her witnesses. The judge should be unbiased and impartial. After the judgement, if any party is not satisfied, they can appeal to a higher court.

5. In jury system, the facts are judged by the jury and they collectively decide what events occurred relating to the case. Jury system was prevalent in India till some decades ago, but it had to be abolished because it was found unsuitable for the Indian conditions.

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (c); 2. (a); 3. (d); 4. (a)
B. 1. justice, margin; 2. untouchables, dalits; 3. right, carrier;
4. Tribals, adivasis
C. 1. T; 2. T; 3. F; 4. T
D. 1. (c); 2. (d); 3. (a); 4. (b)

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. Untouchability has been banned by the Constitution of India.
2. The Scheduled Castes (SC) is the legal and constitutional name given to the lowest ranks of society, including the dalits, who have been given certain special privileges.
3. Tribals or the adivasis, are believed to be the original inhabitants of the country. Officially they are called the Scheduled Tribes (STs).
4. Another marginalised community are the Other Backward Classes (OBCs)— those who are socially and educationally backward, have been recognised by the central or the state governments.
- B. 1. Groups or communities which have been ignored in the past due to various social and economic causes and are disincluded from the process of decision making and deprived of the benefits of development are known as marginalised groups. This situation against a particular

group of the society is called marginalisation. People who are subjected to marginalisation are generally the ones whose strength in the society is substantially less than the other groups. These sections are called the minorities.

2. Due to lack of education, people might not get a chance to come out of their stereotyped image. Due to illiteracy and ignorance, the marginalised sections are more likely to accept all kinds of discrimination, without raising their voices.

3. Constitutional Provisions

The Constitution aims to protect the interests of the marginalised sections through a three-fold strategy :

- By providing measures that would ensure equality and abolish discriminatory practices.
 - By acts of positive discriminations—where preferential treatment is given to the marginalised sections.
 - By providing resources and benefits for the overall development of the marginalised sections.
4. Reservations are special provisions for the marginalised sections. To ensure political participation of the marginalised sections, seats have been reserved for them in the central and state legislature, and also in local government bodies. In government services, some percentage of the jobs are reserved for the Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Other Backward Classes.

C. 1. Causes of Marginalisation

The Social and Economic Inequality : Social inequality means the difference between the status of people living in society. Economic inequality means the unequal wealth distribution between the rich and the poor.

Untouchability and the Dalits : People who have been traditionally considered untouchables or dalits have been engaged in some of the most significant occupations in society. They have been socially segregated and have been forced to follow many discriminatory rules and customs.

Untouchability (Offences) Act 1955 : A law called the Untouchability (Offences) Act 1955 has made the practice of untouchability illegal and punishable offence. This Act later came to be known as the Protection of Civil Rights Act, 1955.

Lack of Access to Education : Due to lack of education, people might not get a chance to come out of their stereotyped image. Due to illiteracy and ignorance, the marginalised sections are more likely to accept all kinds of discrimination, without raising their voices.

Lack of Access to Justice : The economically and socially weaker sections of society have been traditionally denied all kinds of justice. They have faced all kinds of harsh treatments, but have failed to muster enough courage in the fear of adverse consequences to raise their voices.

2. **The Scheduled Tribes or Adivasis** : Tribals or the adivasis, are believed to be the original inhabitants of the country. Officially they are called the Scheduled Tribes (STs). Adivasis live in different parts of the country. Their greatest concentration is in central India, notably Madhya Pradesh, Jharkhand, Odisha, the Western Ghats (hills) of Gujarat and Maharashtra and northern Andhra Pradesh. There are smaller groups in the mountain areas of Kerala, Tamil Nadu and Karnataka, and also in the Andaman and Nicobar Islands. Adivasis also constitute a major part of the population of the north eastern states—Assam, Manipur, Nagaland, Mizoram, Tripura, Meghalaya and Arunachal Pradesh.
3. They developed a three-fold strategy by expanding irrigation, encouraging landlords and facilitating the market for agricultural produce such as rice and rubber.
4. Reservations are special provisions for the marginalised sections. To ensure political participation of the marginalised sections, seats have been reserved for them in the central and state legislature, and also in local

government bodies. In government services, some percentage of the jobs are reserved for the Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Other Backward Classes.

In institutes of higher learning, some seats are reserved for these communities. Welfare departments in the Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment look after the welfare of these groups by implementing developmental programmes.

5. To effectively implement the various safeguards built into the constitution and other legislations, the Constitution, under Articles 338 and 338A, provides for two statutory commissions—the National Commission for Scheduled Castes and the National Commission for Scheduled Tribes. Acts and Commissions for the protection of marginalised classes :
- Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes (Prevention of Atrocities) Act, 1989
 - Bonded Labour System (Abolition) Act, 1976
 - The Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act, 1986
 - National Commission for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes.

Chapter 8

Government and Development

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (d); 2. (b); 3. (d); 4. (c)
B. 1. private organisation; 2. income tax, sales tax, entertainment tax, property tax; 3. five-year-plan; 4. water, electricity
C. 1. T; 2. F; 3. T; 4. T
D. 1. (d); 2. (a); 3. (b); 4. (e); 5. (c)

Subjective Types Questions

- A. 1. The Prime Minister of India is its ex-officio Chairman.
2. Private organisation
3. 17 zones

4. The Mahatama Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA) aims at enhancing the livelihood security of people in rural areas by guaranteeing hundred days of wage-employment in a financial year to a rural household whose adult members volunteer to do unskilled manual work.
 5. The main source of income of the government is the taxes.
- B.**
1. The government is responsible for providing drinking water, electricity, public transport, health care, public convenience, sanitation, education facilities as well as means of public transport and roads. These facilities are necessary for the people in order to lead a comfortable life. These are known as public facilities.
 2. NITI Aayog, the erstwhile Planning Commission, came into existence on 11 January 2015. The first meeting of NITI Aayog took place on 8th Feb, 2015. The Prime Minister of India is its ex-officio Chairman.
 3. When India became independent, the economy of the country was in a very poor state. The leaders, hence, visualised the development of the country in a planned manner, through specific plans for a limited period of time. The model of Five-Year Plans was adopted from the Soviet Union.
Till date, there have been twelve Five-Year Plans till 2011. With the Planning Commission dissolved, no more formal plans are made for the economy but five-year defense plans continue to be made. There will be no thirteenth Five-Year Plan.
 4. To abide by the Constitution and respect its ideal and institutions, the National Flag and the National Anthem.
- C.**
1. **Fist Five-Year Plan (1951-56) :** The First Five-Year Plan, for the period 1951-56, focused on improving the condition of the agrarian sector. Many irrigation projects were initiated during this period, including the Bhakra-Nangal Dam and

Hirakud Dam. The Indian Institute of Technology (IITs) were started as major technical institutions.

- 2. Agricultural Development :** Soon after the Independence, the government introduced land reforms to enable tenant farmers to buy land at reasonable prices.

In 1952, the Community Development Programme (CDP) was introduced to promote agriculture and all-round development in the rural areas. Cooperative societies were set up under the CDP which gave farmers information about better farming methods. They also helped farmers to get loans and to sell their produce.

- 3.** The Mahatama Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA) aims at enhancing the livelihood security of people in rural areas by guaranteeing hundred days of wage-employment in a financial year to a rural household whose adult members volunteer to do unskilled manual work. If the government fails to provide them jobs, they have to anyway provide their salary. Under the scheme, special job cards were issued to the members. The National Rural Drinking Water Programme (NRDWP) aims to provide clean and safe drinking water for the people in the villages.
- 4.** Increasing number of people put a tremendous strain on resources such as water and electricity. Many people in the urban areas face acute water shortages. The rural area, mostly depend on natural sources of water to meet the daily needs of the people. In many places they have to travel long distances to get access to drinking water. In cities, especially in the slums, scarcity of water is an acute problem.

Laws for the Welfare of the People

Chapter

9

Objective Types Questions

- A. 1. (b); 2. (c); 3. (b)

- B.** 1. Plantation Labour Act; 2. the consumer disputed Redressal Commissions; 3. 1980, healthy environments
- C.** 1. T; 2. T; 3. T

Subjective Types Questions

- A.** 1. The government tries to create a condition of social justice through certain laws and regulations. Let us look at some of them.
2. Workers often have very harsh working conditions as well as poor living conditions. They have long working hours, less payment, inadequate safety measures, no job security or job benefits, absence of leaves and inadequate access to health facilities.
3. The protection of women from domestic Violence Act was passed in 2005.
4. One of the world's worst industrial disasters took place in Bhopal in 1984.
- B.** 1. Labour refers to agricultural workers working in the fields of other farmers, or workers in factories, or casual labourers in construction sites or those who carry load.
2. Under the provisions of the Minimum Wages Act, 1948 both central and state governments fix, review and revise the minimum wages of the workers employed.
- 3. Welfare Laws**
- Maintenance and Welfare of Parents and Senior Citizens Act, 2007
 - Consumer Protection Act, 1986
4. Healthy ecosystem clean our water, purify our air, maintain our soil, regulate the climate, recycle nutrients and provide us with food.
- C.** 1. Labour refers to agricultural workers working in the fields of other farmers, or workers in factories, or casual labourers in construction sites or those who carry load. Workers often have very harsh working conditions as well as poor living conditions. They have long working hours,

less payment, inadequate safety measures, no job security or job benefits, absence of leaves and inadequate access to health facilities.

The workers are usually very poor, illiterate and hence, incapable of asking for compensation or taking any legal action against the employer for the violation of their rights. It is, therefore, the duty of the government to provide some protection to the workers, in the form of laws.

2. The Child Labour Act aims to prohibit the engagement of children below 14 years of age in certain areas of employment and to improve the working condition and environment. Some of these areas are :

- The port authority within the limits of any port.
- Work related to selling of crackers and fireworks in shops with temporary licences.
- Automobile workshops and garages.
- Handling of inflammable substances or explosives.
- Mines and factories.
- Plastic units and fibre glass workshop

The Act also prohibits the employment of children in any workshop where processes such as beedi-making, carpet-weaving, cloth printing, dyeing and weaving, manufacture of matches, explosives and fireworks, or the manufacture of slate pencils are carried out.

3. **Consumer Protection Act, 1986** : This Act aims to safeguard the interests of the consumers. Under this, Consumer Protection Councils have been set up at national, state and district levels to raise the awareness of the consumers about their rights and for the protection of the consumer rights. Special consumer courts have been set up. A consumer can file a case against the seller if he/she receives substandard or faulty 'goods' or 'services'.

The National Consumer Disputes Redressal Commission is

located in Delhi. If a person, after complaining to a District Commission, is not happy with the verdict, he/she can approach the State Commission and ultimately the National Commission.

- 4. The Environment Protection Act, 1986 :** The EPA (Environment Protection Act), 1986 came into force soon after the Bhopal Gas Tragedy. The Act empowers the Central Government to undertake all the measures necessary for protecting and improving the quality of the environment and preventing, controlling and reducing environmental pollution. The central government is also authorised to make rules for carrying out the purposes of this Act.

A pollution-free environment is necessary for our survival. The government periodically enacts laws to protect the environment. Use of plastics is banned by law in many parts of the country. Smoking in public places is also banned.



INTEGRATED

Social Studies

HISTORY | GEOGRAPHY | CIVICS





SPANFORD

EDUCATIONAL PRESS

A UNIT OF NAMAN PUBLISHING (INDIA) PVT. LTD.

Behind Silver Line School, Laxmipuram,
Rajpur Chungi, AGRA-282001
Mobile : +91-9837004559, 9639383865
e-mail : namanpublishing@yahoo.com

Written by :
Ashish Garg
(M.A., B.Ed.)

Edited by :
Damyanti Gupta
Anchal Jain

Designed by :
Mahi Graphix

New Edition

ISBN : 978-93-95953-21-4

© All rights reserved.

No part of this book, including interior design, cover design and icons, may be reproduced or transmitted in any form, by any means (electronic, photocopying, recording or otherwise) without prior written permission from SPANFORD EDUCATIONAL PRESS.

Maps given in the book are not to scale. These are only guideline maps and do not have any relation with the international boundary line of India.



Preface



The present series of Social Studies for classes 6 to 8 is written according to the **New Education Policy (NEP 2020)**. Its aim is to teach Social Studies in such a way that students can develop a social vision.

Each book comprises three sections—History, Geography and Social & Political Life. The history sections throws light on the past of India and make them aware that how India emerged as a great culture and country. The geography section gives knowledge of the earth, its environment, resources and development. The Social & Political Life section helps students to know the various aspects of political, social and economic life as well as our government and its functions and importance.

The key features of the series are as follows :

- ❖ Every lesson begins with **Learning Objective** which highlights the key points that students will go through the lesson.
- ❖ Pictures and maps adds extra information and gives a view of the past.
- ❖ Interesting Facts are introduced under the little **Fact Zone** to enhance general knowledge.
- ❖ **Case Study** adds additional knowledge.
- ❖ **Technical Terms** explains the words related to text of the respective sections and clear their meanings.
- ❖ The text of every lesson sums up with **Review** which gives a brief view of the lesson learnt.
- ❖ Exercises based on the text under the heading **Work Station** with the titles **Objective Type Questions** and **Subjective Type Questions**.

All the above features are set and designed keeping in mind the level of the class so that students can grasp the knowledge without any difficulty and with an ease.

Any suggestions or improvement from respected teachers and students are welcomed for the betterment of the books.

—Publishers



Contents

Unit-1 : History

1. When, where and How	5
2. Hunters and Food Gatherers	13
3. Farmers and Herders	19
4. First Cities	25
5. The Vedic Period	33
6. Janpadas and Mahajanpadas	40
7. New Religions and Ideas	47
8. The Earliest Societies	54
9. The Age of Second Urbanisation	61
10. Kings, Merchants and Pilgrims	66
11. The Gupta Empire	74
12. Culture and Science of Our Past	84

Unit-2 : Geography

1. The Universe	90
2. The Globe	98
3. Motions of the Earth	105
4. Reading Maps	111
5. Realms of the Earth	117
6. Relief Features of the Earth	125
7. India : Physical Division	131
8. Climate of India	139
9. Natural Vegetation and Wildlife of India	145

Unit-3 : Social and Political Life

1. Diversity	152
2. Prejudice and Discrimination	157
3. Government of India	162
4. Democratic Government	168
5. Panchayati Raj	173
6. Rural Administration	179
7. Urban Administration	184
8. Rural and Urban Livelihoods	190
❖ Model Test Paper-1	197
❖ Model Test Paper-2	199