



8th Std Social Science
Notes
TnpSC Syllabus Portion



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8th Social Science Lesson 1 Notes in English

1. Advent of the Europeans

Introduction

- Many of the foreign travelers, traders, missionaries and civil servants who came to India in the **18th and 19th** centuries have left accounts of their experiences and their impressions of various parts of the country.
- To know the events of modern period, we have abundant sources at the international, national, and regional level.

Sources of Modern India

- The sources for the history of modern India help us to **know the political, socio-economic and cultural developments** in the country.
- From the very beginning, **the Portuguese, the Dutch, the French, the Danes, and the English** recorded their official transactions in India on state papers.
- Well preserved records are very valuable to know about their relations in India.
- The archives at **Lisbon, Goa, Pondicherry and Madras** were literally store houses of precious historical informations.
- All these sources must, however, be critically evaluated before they are used for historical writing.

Kinds of Sources

We can write history with the help of sources like written sources and material sources.

Written Sources

- After the advent of the **printing press, numerous books** were published in different languages.
- Hence, people began to acquire knowledge easily in the fields **like art, literature, history and science**.
- The Europeans came to know about the **immense Wealth of India** from the accounts of **Marco Polo** and similar sources.
- The wealth of India attracted Europeans to this country. **AnandaRangam** is a name to conjure with in the annals of Tamil history.
- He was a **Dubash (Translator)** in Pondicherry to assist French trade in India.
- He recorded the events that took place in French India. His diaries contain the daily events from **1736 to 1760**, which are the only written secular record available during that period.
- His diaries reveal his profound capacity for political judgment, and is a most valuable source of history.

- Written sources include Literatures, Travel Accounts, Diaries, Auto Biographies, Pamphlets, Government Documents and Manuscripts.

Archives

- This is the place where historical documents are preserved. The National Archives of India (NAI) is located in **New Delhi**.
- It is the chief storehouse of the records of the government of India.
- It has main source of information for understanding past administrative machinery as well as a guide to the present and future generations related to all matters.
- It contains authentic evidence for knowing the political, social, economic, cultural and scientific life and activities of the people of India.
- It is one of the **largest Archives in Asia**.

Tamil Nadu Archives



Tamil Nadu Archives

- The Madras Record Office, presently known as Tamil Nadu Archives (TNA) is located in **Chennai**.
- It is one of the oldest and largest document repositories in Southern India. The most of the records in the Tamil Nadu archives are in English.
- The collections include series of administrative records in **Dutch, Danish, Persian and Marathi**. Few documents are in **French, Portuguese, Tamil and Urdu**.
- Tamil Nadu Archives has **1642** volumes of **Dutch** records which relate to Cochin and Coromandal coast.
- These records cover the period from **1657 – 1845**. The Danian records cover the period from **1777 – 1845**.
- **Dodwell** prepared with great effort and the first issue of the calendar of Madras records was published in **1917**.
- He was highly interested in encouraging historical researches. He opened a new chapter in the History of Tamil Nadu Archives.

Material Sources



St. David Fort (Cuddalore)

- Many paintings and statues are the main sources of modern Indian history.
- They give us a lot of information and the achievement of national leaders and historical personalities.
- Historical buildings like **St. Francis Church at Cochin, St. Louis Fort at Pondicherry, St. George Fort in Madras, St. David fort in Cuddalore**, India Gate, Parliament House, President House in New Delhi, etc are different styles and techniques of Indian architecture.
- Other objects and materials of religious, cultural and historical value are collected and preserved in Museums.
- These museums help to preserve and promote our cultural heritage. The national museum in Delhi is the largest museum in India which was established in **1949**.
- Coins are a good source to know about administrative history. The first coinage in modern India under the crown was issued in **1862**.
- **Edward VII** ascended after Queen Victoria and the coins issued by him bore his model.
- The Reserve Bank of India was formally set up in **1935** and was empowered to issue Government of India notes.
- The first paper currency issued by **RBI in January 1938** was **5 rupee notes bearing the portrait of King George VI**.

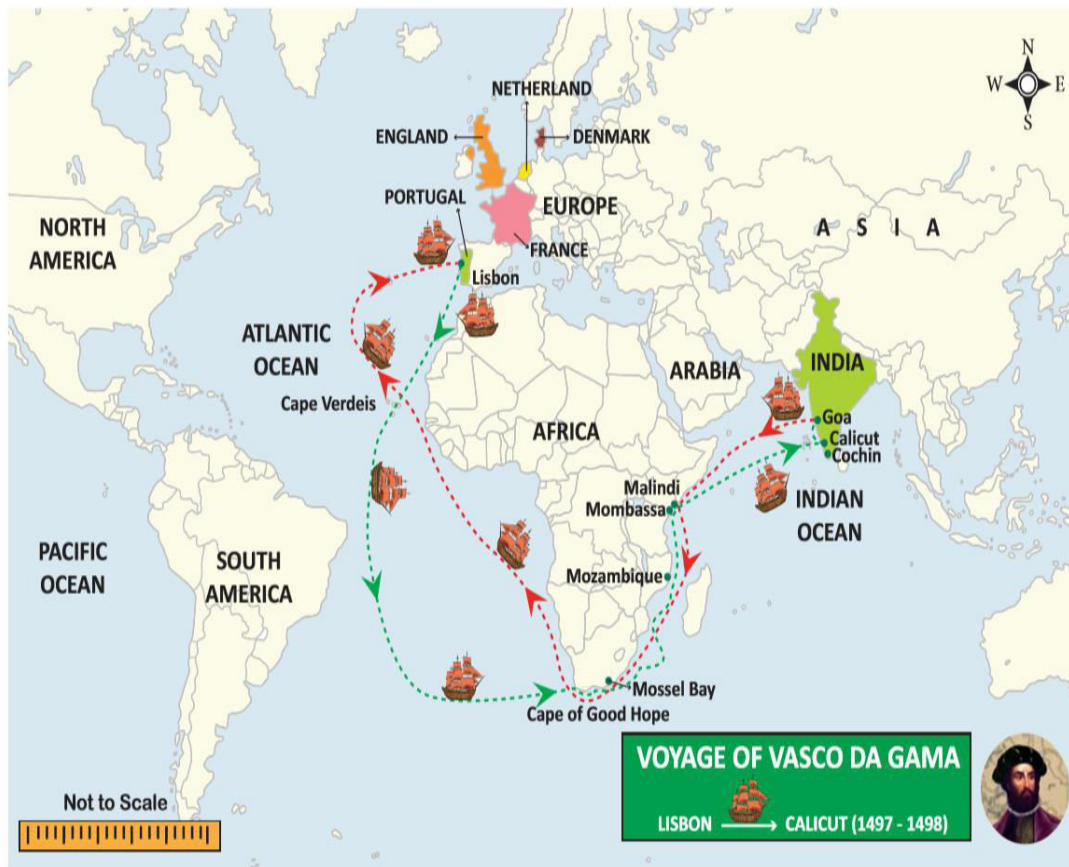
Advent of the Europeans

- After the capture of Constantinople by the **Turks in A.D (CE) 1453**, the land route between India and Europe was closed.
- The Turks penetrated into North Africa and the Balkan Peninsula.
- It became imperative on the part of the European nations to discover new sea routes to the East.

Portugal

- Amongst the entire European nations Portugal was the foremost to make a dynamic attempt to discover a sea route to India.
- **Prince Henry of Portugal**, who is commonly known as the “**Navigator**”, encouraged his countrymen to take up the adventurous life of exploring the unknown regions of the world.
- **Bartholomew Diaz**, a Portuguese sailor reached the southern-most point of Africa in **1487**.
- He was patronized by the King John II.

Vasco da Gama



- Vasco da Gama, another Portuguese sailor reached the southern-most point of Africa and he continued his journey to Mozambique from where he sailed to India with the help of an Indian pilot.
- In **A.D (CE) 1498**, he reached Calicut, where he was cordially received by **King Zamorin**, the ruler of Calicut.
- A second Portuguese navigator, **Pedro Alvares Cabral**, sailed towards India, following the route discovered by **Vasco da Gama with 13 ships** and a few hundred soldiers in **1500**.
- On his arrival at Calicut, there arose conflicts between the Portuguese and king Zamorin.
- Vasco da Gama came to India for the second time in **1501 with 20 ships** and founded a trading centre at **Cannanore**.
- One after another, they established factories at Calicut and Cochin.

- **King Zamorin** attacked the **Portuguese in Cochin**, but was defeated.
- Cochin was the first capital of the Portuguese East India Company. The third voyage of **Vasco da Gama was in 1524**.
- He soon fell ill, and in **December 1524** he died in Cochin.

Francisco de Almeida (1505-1509)

- In **1505**, **Francisco de Almeida** was sent as the first Governor for the Portuguese possessions in India.
- Almeida had the aim of developing the naval power of the Portuguese in India. His policy was known as the **"Blue Water Policy"**.
- As Portuguese tried to break the Arab's monopoly on Indian Ocean trade, it negatively impacted on the trade interests of **Egypt and Turkey**.
- Sultans of Bijapur and Gujarat were also apprehensive of the expansion of Portuguese control of ports which led to an alliance between Egypt, Turkey and Gujarat against Portuguese invaders.
- In a **naval battle fought near Chaul**, the combined Muslim fleet won a victory over the Portuguese fleet under Almeida's son who was killed in the battle.
- Almeida defeated the combined Muslim fleet in a naval battle near Diu, and by the year **1509**, Portuguese claimed the naval supremacy in Asia.

Alfonso de Albuquerque (1509-1515)

- The real founder of the Portuguese power in India was Alfonso de Albuquerque. He captured Goa from the **Sultan of Bijapur in November 1510**.
- In **1515**, he established the Portuguese authority over Ormuz in Persian Gulf. He encouraged the marriages of the Portuguese with Indian women.
- He maintained friendly relations with Vijayanagar Empire.

Nino de Cunha (1529-1538)

- Governor Nino de Cunha moved capital from Cochin to Goa in 1530.
- In **1534**, he acquired Bassein from Bahadur Shah of Gujarat. In **1537**, the Portuguese occupied Diu.
- Later, they wrested Daman from the local chiefs of Gujarat. In **1548**, they occupied **Salsette**.
- Thus during the 16th century, Portuguese succeeded in capturing **Goa, Daman, Diu, Salsette, Bassein, Chaul and Bombay on the western coast, Hooghly on the Bengal coast and San Thome on the Madras coast** and enjoyed good trade benefits.
- The Portuguese brought the cultivation of tobacco to India.
- Due to the influence of Portuguese Catholic religion spread in certain regions on India's western and eastern coasts.
- The printing press was set up by the **Portuguese at Goa in 1556**.

- A scientific work on the Indian medicinal plants by a European writer was printed at Goa in **1563**.
- In 17th century, the Portuguese power began to decline to the Dutch and by **1739 the Portuguese pockets became confined to Goa, Diu and Daman.**

The Dutch

- The Dutch followed the Portuguese into India.
- In **1602**, the United East India company of Netherlands was formed and it received the sanction of their government to trade in East India.
- After their arrival in India, the Dutch founded their first factory in Masulipatnam, (**Andhra Pradesh**) in **1605**.
- This company captured **Amboyna from the Portuguese in 1605** and established its supremacy in the Spice Islands.
- They captured Nagapatnam near Madras from the Portuguese and made this place as their strong hold in South India.
- At first, Pulicat was their headquarters. Later, they shifted it to **Nagapatnam in 1690**.
- The most important Indian commodities traded by the Dutch **were silk, cotton, indigo, rice and opium.**
- They monopolized the trade in black pepper and other spices. The important factories in India were **Pulicat, Surat, Chinsura, Kasim bazaar, Patna, Nagapatnam, Balasore and Cochin.**
- The English East India Company remained engaged in rivalry with the Portuguese and the Dutch throughout the 17th century.
- In **1623**, the Dutch cruelly killed ten English traders and nine **Javanese in Amboyna**.
- This incident accelerated the rivalry between the two Europeans companies.
- Their final collapse came with their defeat by the English in **the Battle of Bedera in 1759**.
- The Dutch lost their settlements one by one to the English and was completely wiped out by the year 1795.

Dutch in Tamil Nadu

- The Portuguese who established a control over **Pulicat since 1502** were over thrown by the Dutch.
- In Pulicat, the Dutch built the **fort Geldria in 1613**.
- This fort was once the seat of Dutch power.
- The Dutch established their settlement at **Pulicat in 1610**. Diamonds were exported from Pulicat to the western countries.
- The other Dutch colonial forts and possessions were **Nagapattinam, Punnakayal, Porto Novo, Cuddalore and Devanampatinam.**

The British

- On **31st December 1600**, Elizabeth, the Queen of England granted a charter to the governor and company of Merchants of London to trade with East Indies.
- The Company was headed by a Governor and a court of **24 directors**.
- **Captain Hawkins visited Jahangir's court in 1608** to get certain concessions for the company.
- He secured permission to raise a settlement at Surat. However, the Emperor cancelled the permission under pressure from the Portuguese.
- **In 1612, the English Captain Thomas Best**, inflicted a severe defeat over the Portuguese in a naval battle near **Surat**.
- The Mughal Emperor Jahangir permitted the **English to establish their factory in 1613** at Surat, which initially became the headquarters of the English in western India.
- **Captain Nicholas Downton** won another decisive victory over the Portuguese in 1614. These events enhanced the British prestige at the Mughal court.
- **In 1615, Sir Thomas Roe was sent to Jahangir's court by King James I of England.**
- He remained at Agra for three years and succeeded in concluding a commercial treaty with the emperor.
- Before the departure of Sir Thomas Roe, the English had established their trading centres at **Surat, Agra, Ahmadabad and Broach**.
- On the coastline of the Bay of Bengal, the English established their **first factory in 1611 at Masulipatam**, an important port in the territory of the kingdom of Golconda.
- **In 1639**, the English merchant, Francis Day, obtained **Madras** as a lease from **Chennappa Nayaka, the ruler of Chandragiri**.
- The East India Company built its famous factory known as **Fort St. George in Madras**, which became their headquarters for the whole of the eastern belt and first fort built by British.
- King Charles II of England received the island of Bombay as a part of his dowry from the Portuguese King, on the occasion of his marriage with Catherine.
- **In 1668**, the East India Company acquired the island at an annual rent of £ (pounds) 10 from **Charles II**.
- **In 1690** a factory was established at **Sutanuti by Job Charnock**.
- The Zamindari of the three villages of Sutanuti, Kalikata and Govindpur was acquired by the British in 1698.
- These villages later grew into the city of Calcutta.
- The factory at **Sutanuti was fortified in 1696** and this new fortified settlement was named as '**Fort William**' in 1700.

Danish

- On **March 17, 1616** the **King of Denmark, Christian IV**, issued a charter and created a Danish East India company.
- They established settlement at **Tranqueber (Tamilnadu) in 1620** and **Serampore (Bengal) in 1676**.

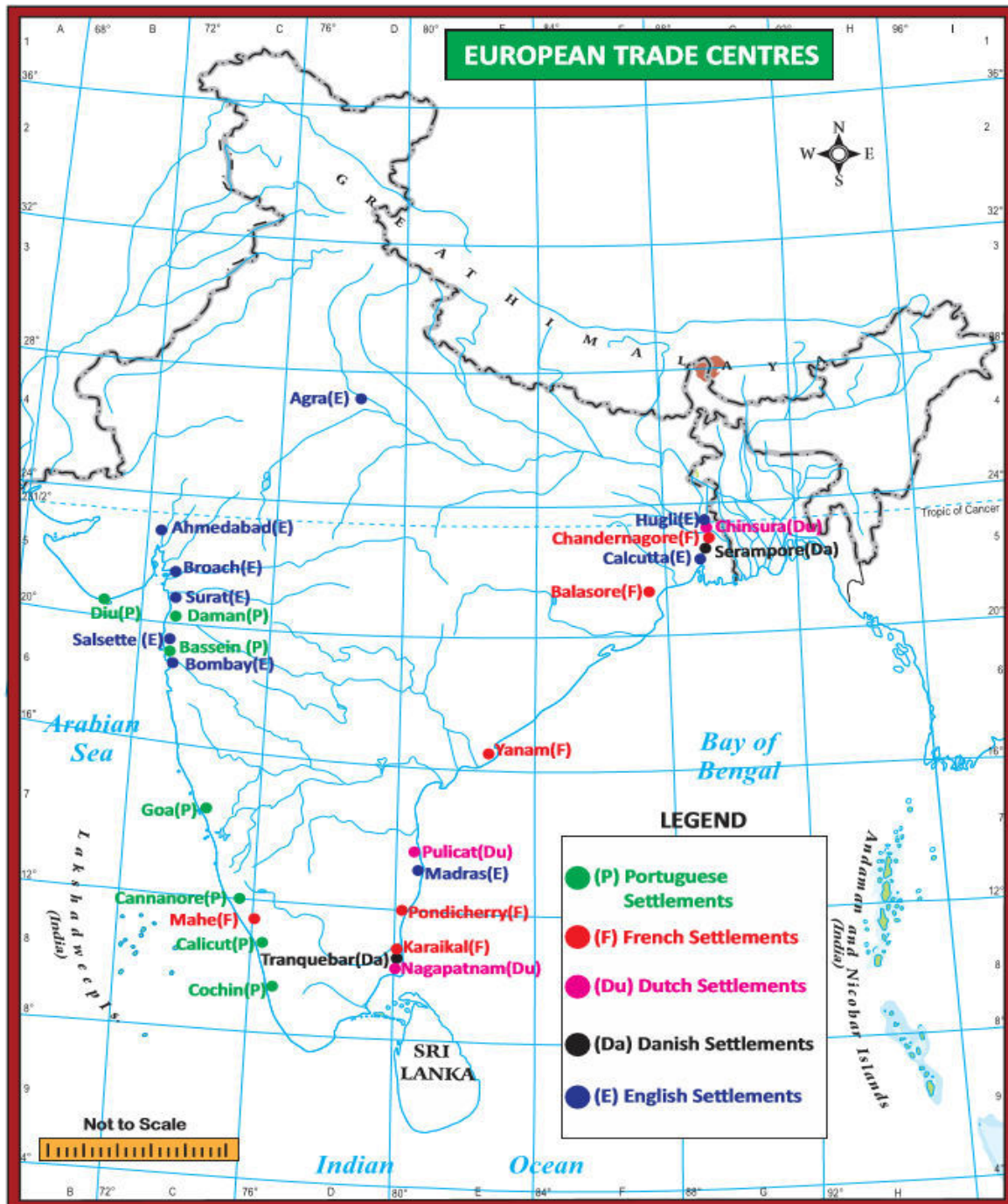
- Serampore was their headquarters in India.
- They failed to strengthen themselves in India and they sold all their settlement in India to the British in 1845.

The French

- The French East India Company was formed in **1664** by **Colbert, a Minister of King Louis XIV.**
- **In 1667**, a French expedition came to India under Francois Caron. France was the last European country to come India as traders.
- **Caron founded the first French factory** in India at **Surat.**
- In 1669, Marcara founded second French factory at Masulipatam by securing a patent from the Sultan of Golkonda.
- In 1673, the settlement of Pondicherry was founded by Martin under a grant from **Sher Khan Lodi, the ruler of Bijapur.**
- Pondicherry became the most important and prosperous French settlement in India. A fort known as **St. Louis** was built by **Francois Martin in Pondicherry.**
- In 1673, the French obtained permission from **Shaista Khan, the Mughal Subedar (governor) of Bengal** to establish a township at **Chandranagore, near Calcutta.**
- The French East India Company established factories in different parts of India, particularly in the coastal regions such **Mahe, Karaikal, Balasore and Qasim Bazar.**
- These were a few important trading Centers of the French East India Company.
- The vision of the French power in India was further reinforced by the appointment of **Joseph Francois Dupleix** as the Governor of the **French East India Company in 1742.**
- He succeeded Dumas as the French governor of Pondicherry.

Conclusion

- Since the Portuguese were eliminated by the Dutch and the later extinguished by the English, the French were left to face the English for control over trade and territory.
- The French neglected trade and entangled themselves in wars with Indian and other European powers.
- The three "**Carnatic wars**" ruined the French and rejuvenated the English to embark on a systematic territorial expansion.
- The comparative success of the British over **the Portuguese, the Dutch, the Danish, and the French** was largely due to their **commercial competitiveness, spirit of supreme sacrifice, government support, naval superiority, national character and their ascendancy in Europe.**



More to Know

The Swedish

- The Swedish East India Company was founded in Gothenburg, **Sweden**, in 1731 for the purpose of conducting trade with the Far East.
- The venture was inspired by the success of the Dutch East India Company and the British East India Company.

Danish called Tranqueber as Danesborg. The king of Denmark sent **Ziegenbalg** to India. Ziegenbalg set up a printing press at **Tranqueber (Tarangambadi)**.

In 1690, **Fort St. David's** was built by the British in **Cuddalore**.

Audiovisual media

- Audio-visual means possessing both a sound and a visual component, such as slide-tape presentations.
- Audio-visual service providers frequently offer web streaming, video conferencing and
- live broadcast services.
- Television, films, internet are called 'Audiovisual media'.

George William Forrest can rightly be called as the **Father of National Archives of India**.

8th Social Science Lesson 2 Notes in English

2. From Trade to Territory

Introduction

- In the 15th Century, Europe witnessed an era of geographical discoveries through land and sea routes.
- In **1498, Vasco Da Gama of Portugal** discovered a new sea route from Europe to India.
- The main motive behind those discoveries was to maximize profit through trade and to establish political supremacy.
- The rule of East India Company in India became effective after the conquest of Bengal.
- The main interest of the company in India was territorial and commercial expansions.

Battle of Plassey (1757)

- Alivardi Khan, the Nawab of Bengal died in 1756 and his grandson **Siraj-ud-daula** ascended the throne of Bengal.
- The British taking advantage of the New Nawab's weakness and unpopularity seized power.
- So, Siraj-ud-daulah decided to teach them (British) a lesson by attacking over their political settlement of Calcutta.
- The Nawab captured their factory at Kasimbazar.
- On **20th June 1756**, Fort William surrendered but Robert Clive recovered Calcutta. On **9th February 1757, Treaty of Alinagar** was signed, where by Siraj-ud-daulah conceded practically all his claims. British then captured Chandranagore, the French settlement, on March 1757.
- The battle of Plassey took place between the British East India Company and the Nawab of Bengal and his French allies. It was fought on **23 June 1757**.
- The English East India Company's forces under Robert Clive defeated the forces of Siraj-ud-daulah.
- After the collapse of Bengal, the company gained a huge amount of wealth from the treasury of Bengal and used it to strengthen its military force.
- The beginning of the British political sway over India may be traced from the Battle of Plassey.
- It was the most decisive battle that marked the initiation of British rule in India for the next two centuries.

Establishment of Political Power by the English East India Company

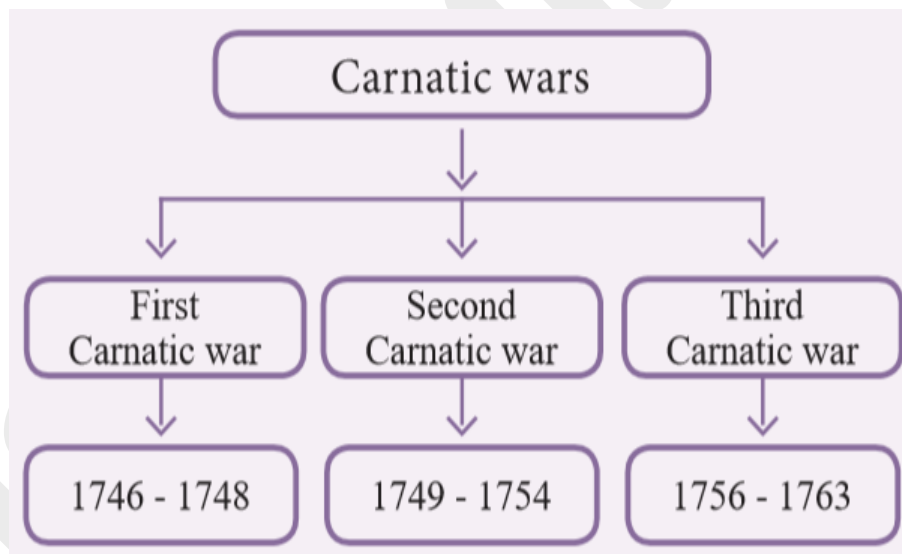


Battle of Buxar (1764)

- After the Battle of Plassey in 1757, the company was granted undisputed right to have free trade in Bengal, Bihar and Orissa.
- It received the place of **24 parganas** in Bengal.
- **Mir Jafar (1757 to 1760)** the Nawab of Bengal however fell into arrears and was forced to abdicate in favor of his son in law, Mir Qasim.
- Mir Qasim ceded Burdwan, Midnapore and Chittagong. He shifted his capital to from Mursidabad to Monghur.

- Mir Qasim soon revolted as he was angry with the British for misusing the destakes (free duty passes).
- However, having been defeated by the British, he fled to Awadh, where he formed a confederacy with Shuja-ud-daulah and Shah Alam.
- The Battle was fought on **October 22, 1764 at Buxar**, a “small fortified town” within the territory of Bihar, located on the banks of the Ganges river about 130 kilometers west of Patna.
- It was a decisive victory for the British East India Company. Shuja-ud-daulah, Shah Alam and Mir Qasim were defeated by General Hector Munro. Mir Jafar was again placed on the throne.
- On Mir Jafar's death, his son Nizam-ud-daulah was placed on the throne and signed Allahabad Treaty on **20th February 1765** by which the Nawab had to disband most of his army and to administer Bengal through a Deputy Subahdar nominated by the company.
- Robert Clive concluded two separate treaties with Shuja-ud-daula and Shah Alam II. Dual System of government started in Bengal.

Carnatic wars



- In the 18th century, three Carnatic wars were fought between various Indian rulers, British and French East Indian Company on either side.
- Traditionally, Britain and France were rival countries in Europe.
- Their rivalry continued in India over trade and territories.
- It resulted in a series of military conflicts in the south known as the Carnatic wars which spanned from **1746 to 1763**.
- These wars resulted in establishment of political supremacy of British East Indian Company.

First Carnatic war

- On the outbreak of the Austrian war of succession in Europe the English and the French were on opposite camps increased the hostility between these two forces.
- The echo of this war was felt in India.

Battle of Adayar (1746)

- The First Carnatic War is remembered for the **battle of San. Thome (Madras)** fought between the French forces and the forces of Anwar-ud-din, the Nawab of Carnatic, who appealed the British for help.
- A small French army under Captain Paradise defeated the strong Indian army under Mahfuz Khan at San. Thome on the banks of the River Adayar.
- This was the first occasion when the superiority of the well-trained and well equipped European army over the Indian army was proved beyond doubt.

Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748)

- The war was ended by the **treaty of Aixla-Chapelle** which brought the Austrian War of Succession to an end.
- Under the terms of this treaty, Madras was returned back to the English, and the French, in turn, got their territories in North America.

Second Carnatic War

- The main cause of this war was the issue of succession in Carnatic and Hyderabad.
- Anwaruddin Khan and Chanda Sahib were the two claimants to the throne of Carnatic, whereas Nasir Jang and Muzaffar Jang were claimants to the throne of Hyderabad.
- The French supported **Chanda sahib and Muzaffar Jang**, while the British supported the other claimants with the objective of keeping their interest and influence in the entire Deccan region.

Battle of Ambur (1749)

- Finally Dupleix, Chanda Sahib and Muzaffar Jang formed a grand alliance and defeated and killed Anwar-ud-din Khan, the Nawab of Carnatic, on **3 August 1749** in the Battle of Ambur.
- Muhammad Ali, the son of Anwar-ud-din, fled to Trichinopoly.
- Chanda Sahib became the Nawab of Carnatic and rewarded the French with the grant of 80 villages around Pondicherry.
- In the Deccan, too, the French defeated and killed Nasir Jang and made Muzaffar Jang as the Nizam.
- The new Nizam gave ample rewards to the French. He appointed Dupleix as the governor of all the territories in south of the river Krishna. Muzaffar Jang was assassinated by his own people in 1751.

- Salabat Jang, brother of Nasir Jang was raised to the throne by Bussy. Salabat Jang granted the Northern Circars excluding the Guntur District to the French.
- Dupleix's power was at its zenith by that time.

Battle of Arcot (1751)

- In the meantime, **Dupleix sent forces to besiege the fort of Trichy** where Muhammad Ali had taken shelter.
- Chanda Sahib also joined with the French in their efforts to besiege Trichy.
- Robert Clive's proposal was accepted by the British governor, Saunders, and with only **200 English and 300 Indian soldiers**, Clive was entrusted the task of capturing Arcot. His attack proved successful.
- Robert Clive defeated the French at Arni and Kaveripak.
- With the assistance of Lawrence, **Chanda Sahib was killed in Trichy**.
- Muhammad Ali was made the Nawab of Arcot under British protection. The French Government recalled Dupleix to Paris.

Treaty of Pondicherry (1755)

- Dupleix was succeeded by **Godeheu** who agreed the treaty of Pondicherry.
- According to it, both the powers agreed not to interfere in the internal affairs of the native states.
- They were to retain their old positions.
- New forts should not be built by either power.
- The treaty made the British stronger. The second Carnatic war also proved inconclusive.
- The English proved their superiority on land by appointing **Mohammad Ali as the Nawab of Carnatic**.
- The French were still very powerful in Hyderabad. However, the predominant position of the French in the Deccan peninsula was definitely undermined in this war.

Third Carnatic War

- The outbreak of the Seven Years' War in Europe led to the third Carnatic war in India.
- By this time, Robert Clive established the British power in Bengal by the Battle of Plassey which provided them with the necessary finance for the third Carnatic war.
- **Count de Lally** was deputed from France to conduct the war from the French side.
- He easily captured Fort St. David. He ordered Bussy to come down to the Carnatic with his army, to make a united effort to push the British out of the Carnatic.
- Taking advantage of **Bussy's departure**, Robert Clive sent Colonel Forde from Bengal to occupy the **Northern Circars (parts of Andhraparadesh and Odhisha)**.

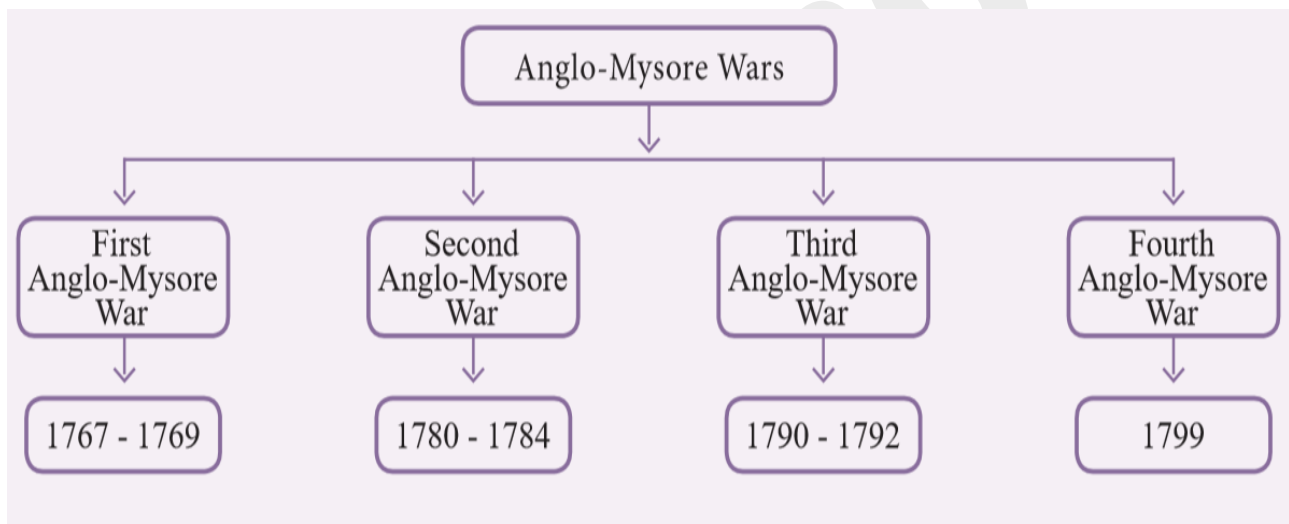
Battle of Wandiwash (1760)

- The decisive battle of the third Carnatic war was fought on **January 22, 1760**.
- The English army under **General Eyre Coote** totally routed the French army under Lally.
- Within a year the French had lost all their possessions in India.
- Lally returned to France where he was imprisoned and executed.

Treaty of Paris (1763)

- The Seven Years' War was concluded by the treaty of Paris.
- The French settlements including Pondicherry were given back to the French.
- But they were forbidden from fortifying those places. They were not allowed to gather armies. The French dominance in India practically came to an end.

Mysore and its Resistance to British Expansion



- The state of Mysore rose to prominence in the politics of South India under the leadership of **Haider Ali (1760-82)**.
- He and his son Tipu Sultan (1782-99) played a prominent role against the expansion of British Empire in India.
- Both of them faced the English with undoubted courage. In **1761**, he became the de facto ruler of Mysore.
- He also proved to be the most formidable enemy of the English in India.

The First Anglo-Mysore War

Causes

- Haider Ali's growing power and his friendly relations with the French became a matter of concern for the English East India Company.
- The Marathas, the **Nizam** and the **English** entered into a **triple alliance** against Haider Ali.

Course

- The Nizam, with the help of British troops under General Joseph Smith, invaded Mysore in 1767.
- Haider Ali defeated English and captured Mangalore.
- In **March 1769**, he attacked Madras and forced the English to sign a treaty on **4 April 1769**.

Treaty of Madras (1769)

- At the end of the war, the Treaty of Madras was signed between Haider Ali and British East India Company.
- Both the parties returned the conquered territories and promised to help each other in case of any foreign attack on them.

The Second Anglo-Mysore War

Causes

- The English did not fulfill the terms of the **treaty of 1769**, when Haider's territories were attacked in 1771 by Marathas, Haider did not get help from the British.
- British captured Mahe, a French settlement within Haider's Jurisdiction.
- It led to the formation of an alliance by **Haider with the Nizam and Marathas against the English in 1779**.

Course

- In 1781, the British General **Sir Eyre Coote defeated Haider Ali** at Porto Novo.
- The Mysore forces suffered another defeat at Solinger.
- Haider Ali died of cancer during the course of the war.
- After the death of **Haider Ali in 1782**, his son Tipu Sultan, continued the war against the English.
- Tipu captured Brigadier Mathews, the supreme commander of the British forces along with his soldiers in 1783. It was a serious loss to Tipu.

Treaty of Mangalore (1784)

- On **7th March 1784 the treaty of Mangalore** was signed between the two parties.
- Both agreed to return the conquered territories and also the prisoners of war.
- Thus, Warren Hastings saved the newly established British dominion from the wrath of powerful enemies like Marathas and Haider Ali.
- When the British lost their colonies in America and elsewhere, Warren Hastings lost nothing in India.
- Instead, he consolidated the British power in India.

The Third Anglo-Mysore War

Causes

- Tipu was trying to seek alliance of foreign powers against the English and for that purpose he had sent his ambassadors to France and Turkey.
- Tipu attacked on **Travancore in 1789** whose ruler was an ally of the British.
- The English, the Nizam and the Marathas entered into a "Triple Alliance" against Mysore.

Course

- Tipu fought alone which continued for two years. It was fought in three phases. The attack of the English under **General Medows** failed.
- Therefore, in December 1790, Cornwallis himself took the command of the army.
- Cornwallis captured all the hillforts which obstructed his advance towards **Srirangapatam** and reached near its outer wall.
- Tipu felt desperate and opened negotiations with the English. Cornwallis agreed and the **treaty of Srirangapatnam was concluded in 1792.**

Treaty of Srirangapatnam (1792)

- Tipu surrendered half of his kingdom to the allies.
- Tipu agreed to pay **3.6 crore of rupees** to the English as war indemnity and surrendered two of his sons as hostages to the English.
- The English acquired **Malabar, Coorg, Dindigul and Baramahal (Coimbatore and Salem).**

The Fourth Anglo-Mysore War

Tipu Sultan did not forget the humiliating treaty of Srirangapatnam imposed upon him by Cornwallis in 1790.

Causes

- Tipu sought alliance with foreign powers against the English and sent ambassadors to Arabia, Turkey, Afghanistan and the French.
- Tipu was in correspondence with Napoleon who invaded Egypt at that time.
- The French officers came to Srirangapatnam where they founded a **Jacobin Club and planted the Tree of Liberty.**

Course

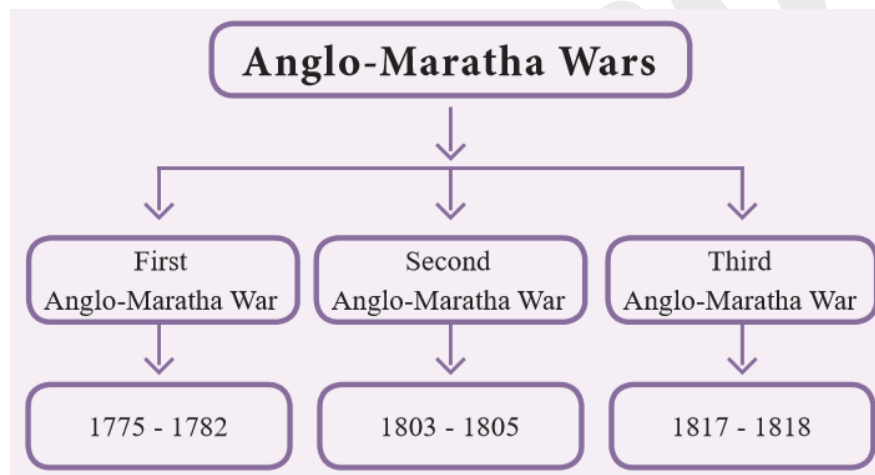
- Wellesley declared war against Tipu in 1799. The war was short and decisive.
- As planned, the Bombay army under General Stuart invaded Mysore from the west.

- The Madras army, which was led by the GovernorGeneral's brother, Arthur Wellesley, forced Tipu to retreat to his capital Srirangapatnam.
- On **4th May 1799 Srirangapatnam** was captured.
- Tipu fought bravely and was killed finally. Thus ended the fourth Mysore War and the whole of Mysore lay prostrate before the British.

Mysore after the War

- The English occupied Kanara, Wynad, Coimbatore, Darapuram and Srirangapattinam.
- **Krishna Raja Odayar** of the former Hindu royal family was brought to the throne.
- Tipu's family was sent to the fort of Vellore.

Anglo-Maratha Wars



- The Marathas managed to overcome the crisis caused by their defeat at Panipat and after a decade recovered their control over Delhi.
- However the old Maratha Confederacy controlled by the Peshwa had given way to five virtually independent states.
- Peshwa at **Pune**, Gaikwads at **Baroda**, Bhonsle at **Nagpur**, Holkars at **Indore**, and Scindias at **Gwalior**.
- The Peshwa's government was weakened by internal rivalries, and the other four leaders were often hostile to one another.
- Despite this, the Marathas were still a formidable power. The internal conflict among the Marathas was best utilized by the British in their expansionist policy.

First Anglo-Maratha War

- In the case of the Marathas, the first British intervention was at the time of dispute over succession to the **Peshwaship** following the death of **Narayan Rao**.
- After the death of **Narayan Rao**, **Raghunath Rao (Raghoba)** became the **Peshwa**, but his authority was challenged by a strong party at Poona under **Nana Phadnavis**.

- The party recognised the infant born posthumously to Narayan Rao's wife, Ganga Bai, as the Peshwa and set up a council of regency in his name.
- Having failed in his bid to capture power, Raghunath Rao approached the British for help.
- The Treaty of Surat between the English and Raghunath Rao was concluded in **1775**.
- However, the majority of the Supreme British Council in Calcutta was opposed to the Surat treaty, although Warren Hastings himself had no objection to ratifying the treaty.
- The council sent Colonel Upton to Poona to negotiate a peace with the Poona regency.
- Accordingly, Upton concluded the Treaty of Purandhar in 1776.
- The treaty, however, did not take effect due to opposition from the English government in Bombay.
- In 1781, Warren Hastings dispatched British troops under Captain Popham.
- He defeated the **Maratha chief, Mahadaji Scindia**, in a number of small battles and captured Gwalior.
- Later on **17th May 1782**, the **Treaty of Salbai** was signed between Warren Hastings and Mahadaji Scindia.

Results

- Raghunath Rao was pensioned off and Madhav Rao II was accepted as the Peshwa.
- Salsette was given to the British.
- The Treaty of Salbai established the British influence in Indian politics. It provided the British twenty years of peace with the Marathas.

The internal affairs of the Marathas

- The internal affairs of the Marathas deteriorated further after the close of the first Maratha War.
- **Nana Fadnavis** grew fond of power, jealous of Mahadaji Scindia and became progressively inclined to seek the support of the English.
- The young Peshwa, Madhava Rao II, tried to improve the affairs but could not check the rivalry of the Maratha chiefs.
- **Mahadaji Scindia died in 1794** and was succeeded by his grand nephew Daulat Rao Scindia. His death left Nana Fadnavis supreme at Poona and the English to expand their influence in north India.
- Peshwa Madhav Rao II committed suicide in 1795, and Baji Rao II, worthless son of Raghunath Rao, became the Peshwa.
- The **death of Nana Phadnavis in 1800** gave the British an added advantage.
- Jaswant Rao Holkar and Daulat Rao Scindia were fighting against each other. The Peshwa supported Scindia against Holkar.
- The Peshwa and the Scindia agreed to help each other. Holkar marched against the Peshwa.

- The combined forces of Scindia and the Peshwa were utterly defeated in 1802 and captured the city.
- Bajirao II approached Lord Wellesley, the then Governor-General of India, for help. Lord Wellesley welcomed the Peshwa and made him sign the Treaty of Bassein, in other words, the Treaty of Subsidiary Alliance, accepting the status of a British subsidiary in 1802.
- As an immediate to the Treaty of Bassein, the British troops marched under the command of Arthur Wellesley towards Poona and restored the Peshwa to his position.
- The forces of Holkar vanished from the Maratha capital.

The Second Anglo-Maratha War

- After accepted the subsidiary alliance by the Peshwa, Daulatrao Scindia and Raghooji Bhonsle attempted to save Maratha's independence.
- But the well prepared and organised army of the English under **Arthur Wellesley defeated the combined armies of Scindia and Bhonsle at Assaye and Argaon.**
- The English forced them to conclude separate subsidiary treaties namely the Treaty of Deogaon and the **Treaty of Surji-Arjungaon respectively in 1803.**
- But, Yashwantrao Holkar (also called as Jaswantrao Holkar) was yet undefeated. He had not participated in the war so far.
- Holkar plundered the territory of Jaipur and, in 1804, the English declared war against him.
- Yashwantrao Holkar made an attempt to form a coalition of Indian rulers to fight against the British. But his attempt proved unsuccessful.
- The Marathas were defeated, reduced to British vassalage and isolated from one another.

Results

- The Maratha power was gradually weakened.
- The English East India Company started becoming the paramount power in India.

The Third Anglo-Maratha War

- The Third Anglo-Maratha War was the final and decisive conflict between the British East India Company and the Maratha Empire in India.
- It began with an invasion of the Maratha territory by British East India Company troops. The troops were led by the Governor General Hastings and he was supported by a force under General Thomas Hislop.
- The Peshwa Bajirao II's forces, followed by those of **Mudhoji II Bhonsle of Nagpur and Malharrao Holkar III of Indore**, rose against the British.
- Daulatrao Scindia of Gwalior remained neutral.
- The Peshwa was defeated in the **battles of Khadki and Koregaon** and several minor battles were fought by the Peshwa's forces to prevent his capture.
- Bhonsle was defeated in the battle of Sitabaldi and Holkar in the battle of Mahidpur.

Results

- The Maratha confederacy was dissolved and Peshwaship was abolished.
- Most of the territory of **Peshwa BajiRao II** was annexed and became part of the Bombay Presidency.
- The defeat of the Bhonsle and Holkar also resulted in the acquisition of the Maratha kingdoms of Nagpur and Indore by the British.
- The BajiRao II, the last Peshwa of Maratha was given an annual pension of **8 lakh rupees**.

The British Administrative Organisation in India

The British Indian administration was run by four principal institutions - Civil Services, Army, Police and Judiciary.

Civil Services

- The term 'civil service' was used for the first time by the East India Company to distinguish its civilian employees from their military counterparts.
- Translating law into action and collecting revenue were the main jobs of the civil service.
- The civil service was initially commercial in nature but later it was transformed into a public service.
- In the beginning, the appointment to these services was the sole prerogative of the Court of Directors of the Company.
- But the nominated civil servants indulged in corruption, bribery and illegal private trade. So, Cornwallis who came to India as Governor-General in **1786**, enforced the rules against private trade.
- He also raised the salary of the Company's servants who became the highest paid civil servants in the world.
- **Lord Wellesley, who came to India as Governor-General in 1798**, introduced the idea of suitable training for the civil servants in India.
- **In 1800, he established the College in Fort William at Calcutta** to provide training in literature, science and languages.
- However, the directors of the Company disapproved of his action and replaced it by their own East India College, established at Haileybury in England in 1806.
- The idea of competition for recruitment was introduced first by the Charter Act, 1833.
- But the system of competition was these not nominated by the Court of Directors were not eligible to write the competitive examination.
- Hence, the system was called as nomination cum-competition system.
- The system of recruitment on the basis of open competitive examination was introduced in 1853.
- This system was confirmed by the Government of India Act of 1858. The maximum age for competitors was fixed at **23**.

- Subsequently, **East India College at Haileybury was abolished in 1858**, and recruitment to civil services became the responsibility of the civil service commission.
- By the Regulation of 1860 the maximum age was lowered to 22, in 1866 to 21 and in 1876 to 19.
- The Indian Civil Service Act of 1861 passed by the British Parliament exclusively reserved certain categories of high executive and judicial posts for the covenanted civil service which was later designated as the Indian Civil Service.
- Due to the lowering of age limit and holding of examination in London it could be possible only for a very few wealthy Indians to appear at the I.C.S. examination.
- In 1869, **three Indians - Surendra Nath Banerje, Ramesh Chandra Dutt and Bihari Lal Gupta became successful in the I.C.S. examination.**
- Later on, the Indians demanded to increase the age limit and to establish centre for examination in India instead of England.
- In 1892, the minimum age limit for appearing for the Civil Service Examination was raised to 21 and the maximum to 23.
- In 1912, a Royal Commission on Public Service was appointed.
- Chaired by Lord Islington, this commission had two Indian members - **G.K. Gokhale and Sir Abdur Rahim** - besides four Englishmen. The Commission published its report in 1917.
- Islington commission's recommendations partly fulfilled the demand for the Indianisation of Civil Service.
- In 1918, Montague and Lord Chelmsford recommended that 33% Indian should be recruited in Indian Civil Services and gradually the number should be increased.
- In 1923, a Royal Commission on Public Services was appointed with Lord Lee of Fareham as chairman.
- This commission recommended that recruitment to all-Indian services like the Indian Civil Service, the Indian Police Service and the Indian Forest Service should be made and controlled by the Secretary of State for India.
- The Lee Commission recommended the immediate establishment of a Public Service Commission.
- The Act of 1935 also made provisions for the establishment of a Federal Public Service Commission at the Centre and the Provincial Public Service Commissions in the various provinces.
- Provision was also made for a Joint Public Service Commission in two or more Provinces.
- Although, the main aim of this measure was to serve the British interests, it became the base of the civil service system in independent India.

Army

- The army was the second important pillar of the British administration in India.

- The East India Company started recruiting its own army, which came to be known as the sepoy (**from sipahi or soldier**) army.
- That sepoy army was trained and disciplined according to European military standards and was commanded by European officers in the battlefield.
- During the early stage of British rule, three separate armies had been organised in three Presidencies of Bengal, Bombay and Madras.
- Army had a great contribution in the establishment and expansion of British rule in India.
- Indian soldiers were given less salaries and allowances than English soldiers.
- In 1857, the Indians constituted about **86 percent** of the total strength of the Company's army.
- However, the officers of the army were exclusively British.
- For example, in **1856**, only three Indians in the army received a salary of 300 rupees per month.
- The highest rank an Indian could ever reach was that of a subehdar.
- After the revolt of 1857, the important changes were made in the Indian army services in 1858.
- They increased British troops and reduced Indian troops. Also, only English were appointed in artillery.

Police

- When the East India Company took over the diwani in 1765, the Mughal police system was under the control of faujdars, who were in charge of their 'sarkars' or rural districts.
- The kotwals were in charge of towns, while the village watchmen were paid and controlled by the Zamindars.
- The police system was created by Lord Cornwallis. He relieved the Zamindars from police functions and **established a regular police force in 1791**.
- Cornwallis established a system of circles or 'thanas' each headed by a 'daroga'.
- The authority of the daroga extended to village watchmen who performed the police duties in the villages. The hereditary village police became '**chowkidars**'.
- In the big cities, the old office of kotwal was, however, continued, and a daroga was appointed to each of the wards of a city.
- The daroga system was extended to **Madras in 1802**.
- Before the post of district superintendent of police was created, all the thanas were under the general supervision of the district judge.
- In 1808, a Superintendent of Police was appointed for each division.
- Later, the district collector was entrusted with the task of controlling the police force in the districts.
- The main task of the police was to handle crime and to prevent conspiracy against the British rule.

Judicial system

- In 1772, the Dual Government was abolished and the Company took over the direct responsibility for the collection of revenue as well as the administration of justice.
- Consequently a **Diwani Adalat** and **Faujdari Adalat** were established. By the Regulating Act of 1773, a Supreme Court was set up in Calcutta.
- This court consisted of a chief justice and three puisne judges who were appointed by the Crown.
- This court decided civil, criminal, ecclesiastical and admiralty cases. On the model of the Supreme Court of Calcutta, **a Supreme Court was established in Madras in 1801 and in Bombay in 1823.**
- In 1832, William Bentinck started jury system in Bengal. A Indian Law Commission was established to compile the laws.
- A rule of law was established for the whole empire.
- According to the **Indian High Courts Act, 1861**, three High Courts were set up in Calcutta, Bombay and Madras in place of the old Supreme Courts.

The Subsidiary Alliance

- Lord Wellesley introduced the system of Subsidiary Alliance to bring the princely states under the control of the British.
- It was the most effective instrument for the expansion of the British territory and political influence in India.
- The princely state was called 'the protected state' and the British came to be referred as '**the paramount power**'.
- It was the duty of the British to safeguard the state from external aggression and to help its ruler in maintaining internal peace.

Main Features of Subsidiary Alliance

- An Indian ruler entering into this alliance with the British had to dissolve his own armed forces and accept British Forces.
- A British Resident would stay in his capital.
- Towards the maintenance charges of the army, he should make annual payments or cede some territory permanently to the Company.
- All the non-English European officials should be turned out of his state.
- The native ruler should deal with foreign states only through the English Company.
- The British would undertake to defend the state from internal trouble as well as external attack.

Merits for the British

- The British Company maintained a large army at the expense of the Indian rulers.

- All Frenchmen in the service of native rulers were dismissed, and the danger of French revival was completely eliminated.
- The British Company began to control the foreign policy of the Princely States.
- Wellesley's diplomacy made the British the paramount power in India. He transformed the British Empire in India into the British empire of India.

Defects of the Princely states

The Subsidiary Alliances made the Indian rulers weak, oppressive and irresponsible. Protected by British arms, they neglected their duty towards their subjects and even exploited them.

Doctrine of Lapse

- **Lord Dalhousie** was one of the chief architects of the British Empire in India. He was an imperialist.
- He adopted a new policy known as Doctrine of Lapse to extend British Empire.
- He made use of this precedent and declared in **1848** that if the native rulers adopted children without the prior permission of the Company, only the personal properties of the rulers would go to the adopted sons and the kingdoms would go to the British paramount power.
- This principle was called the Doctrine of Lapse.
- It was bitterly opposed by the Indians and it was one of **the root causes for the great revolt of 1857**.

Factors for the success of the British

- Greater naval power.
- Development of textile. Scientific division of labour.
- economic prosperity and skilful diplomacy of the British.
- Feelings of insecurity among the Indian merchants.
- The inequality and ignorance of the Indian kings.

Conclusion

- The Battle of Plassey was the foundation of British dominion in India.
- The company's administration was not for the interests of people. It was imperialistic, expansionist and exploitative.
- It brought more Indian territories under British domain through subsidiary Alliance and Doctrine of Lapse.
- This policy led to a **South Indian rebellion (1800-01), Vellore Rebellion (1806) and the Great Rebellion (1857)**.

More to know:

1. Applying the Doctrine of Lapse policy, Dalhousie annexed **Satara in 1848, Jaipur and Sambalpur in 1849, Baghat in 1850, Udaipur in 1852, Jhansi in 1853 and Nagpur in 1854.**

2. The first Indian state to accept the **Subsidiary Alliance** was **Hyderabad (1798)**. It was followed by **Tanjore (1799), Auadh (1801), Peshwa (1802), Bhonsle (1803), Gwalior (1804), Indore (1817), Jaipur, Udaipur and Jodhpur (1818).**

3. **Sir Elija Impey** was the first Chief Justice of the Supreme Court at Fort William in Bengal.

4. **Sir Thiruvarur Muthusamy Iyyar** was the first Indian Chief Justice of the Madras High Court.

5. Strength of British Army

- **Plassey war (1757):** 1950 European infantry, 100 European artillery, 50 English sailors, and 2,100 Indian sepoys, an English army of 6000 troops was maintained in Bengal.
- In 1857, the strength of the army in India was **3,11,400 of whom 2,65,900** were Indians. Its officers were British.

6. **Satyendranath Tagore**, the elder brother of poet Rabindranath Tagore, was the first Indian to pass the **I.C.S. Examination in 1863.**

7. The Black Hole tragedy (1756)

- There was a small dungeon room in the Fort William in Calcutta, where troops of the **Nawab of Bengal Siraj-ud-daula**, held **146 British Prisoners** of war for one night.
- Next day morning, when the door was opened **123** of the prisoners found dead because of suffocation.

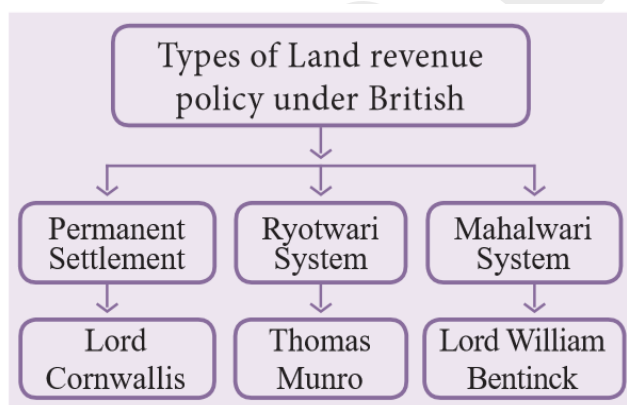
8th Social Science Lesson 3 Notes in English

3. Rural Life and Society

Introduction

- In the pre-colonial period, Indian economy was predominantly an agrarian economy.
- Agriculture was then the primary occupation of the people and even **industries like textiles, sugar, oil, etc.** were dependent on it.
- The British Government in India did not adopt a pro-Indian agriculture and land revenue policy.
- British Government introduced three major **land revenue and tenurial systems in India, namely, the Permanent Settlement, the Mahalwari system and the Ryotwari system.**
- The economic exploitation of the peasants led to the revolt in future.

The Land Revenue Policy under the British



Permanent Settlement

- When Robert Clive obtained **the Diwani of Bengal, Bihar and Orissa in 1765**, there used to be an annual settlement (of land revenue).
- Warren Hastings changed it from annual to quinquennial (five-yearly) and back to annual again.
- During the time of Cornwallis, a ten years' (decennial) settlement was introduced in 1793 and it was known Permanent Settlement.
- Permanent settlement were made in **Bengal, Bihar, Orissa, Varanasi division of U.P., and Northern Karnataka**, which roughly covered **19 percent** of the total area of British India.
- It was known by different names like **Zamindari, Jagirdari, Malguzari and Biswedari.**

Salient Features of the Permanent Settlement

- The Zamindars were recognised as the **owners of land as long as they paid the revenue to the East India Company regularly.**
- The Zamindars acted as the agent of the Government for the collection of revenue from the cultivators.
- The amount of revenue that the Zamindars had to pay to the Company was firmly fixed and would not be raised under any circumstances.
- They gave **10/11** of the revenue collected by them from the cultivator to the Government.
- The Zamindars would grant patta (**written agreements**) to the ryots.
- The ryots became tenants since they were considered the tillers of the soil.
- All judicial powers were taken away from the Zamindars.

Merits

- Under this system many of the waste lands and forests became cultivable lands.
- The Zamindars became the owner of the land.
- The Zamindars were made free from the responsibility of providing justice.
- The Zamindars remained faithful to the British Government.
- This system secured a fixed and stable income for the British Government.

Demerits

- The British Government had no direct contact with the cultivators.
- The rights of the **cultivators were ignored and they were left at the mercy of the Zamindars.**
- The peasants were almost treated as serfs.
- This system made the **Zamindars lethargic and luxurious.**
- Many conflicts between the zamindars and the peasants arose in rural Bengal.

Ryotwari system

- Ryotwari system was introduced by **Thomas Munro and Captain Read in 1820.**
- Major areas of introduction of Ryotwari system included **Madras, Bombay, parts of Assam, and Coorg provinces of British India.**
- By Ryotwari system the rights of ownership was handed over to the peasants. British government collected taxes directly from the peasants.
- Initially, one-half of the estimated produce was fixed as rent. This assessment was reduced to one-third of the produce by Thomas Munro.
- The revenue was based on the basis of the soil and the nature of the crop. Rents would be periodically revised, generally after **20 to 30 years.**
- The position of the cultivators became more secure. In this system the settlement was made between the Government and the Ryots.
- Infact, the Government later claimed that the land revenue was rent and not a tax.

Salient Features of the Ryotwari system

- Revenue settlement was done directly with the ryots.
- Measurement of field and an estimate of produce was calculated.
- Government fixed the demand at **45 to 55 percent** of the produce.

Effects of the Ryotwari Settlement

- In most areas the land revenue fixed was excessive; the ryots were hardly left with bare maintenance even in the best of seasons.
- Under this system the **government exploited the farmers instead of zamindars**.

Mahalwari system

- Mahalwari system, a brain child of Holt Mackenzie was modified version of the Zamindari settlement introduced in the Ganga valley, the North-West Province, parts of the **Central India and Punjab in 1822**.
- Lord William Bentinck was to suggest radical changes in the Mahalwari system by the guidance of **Robert Martins Bird in 1833**.
- Assessment of revenue was to be made on the basis of the produce of a Mahal or village.
- All the proprietors of a Mahal were severally and jointly responsible for the payment of revenue. Initially the state share was fixed two-thirds of the gross produce.
- Bentinck, therefore, reduced to fifty percent. The village as a whole, through its headman or Lambardar, was required to pay the revenue.
- This system was first adopted in **Agra and Awadh**, and later extended to other parts of the United Provinces.
- The burden of all this heavy taxation finally fell on the cultivators.

Salient Features of the Mahalwari Settlement

- The Lambardar acted as intermediaries between the Government and the villagers.
- It was a **village-wise assessment**. One person could hold a number of villages.
- The village community was the owner of the village common land.
- The village land belonged to the village community.

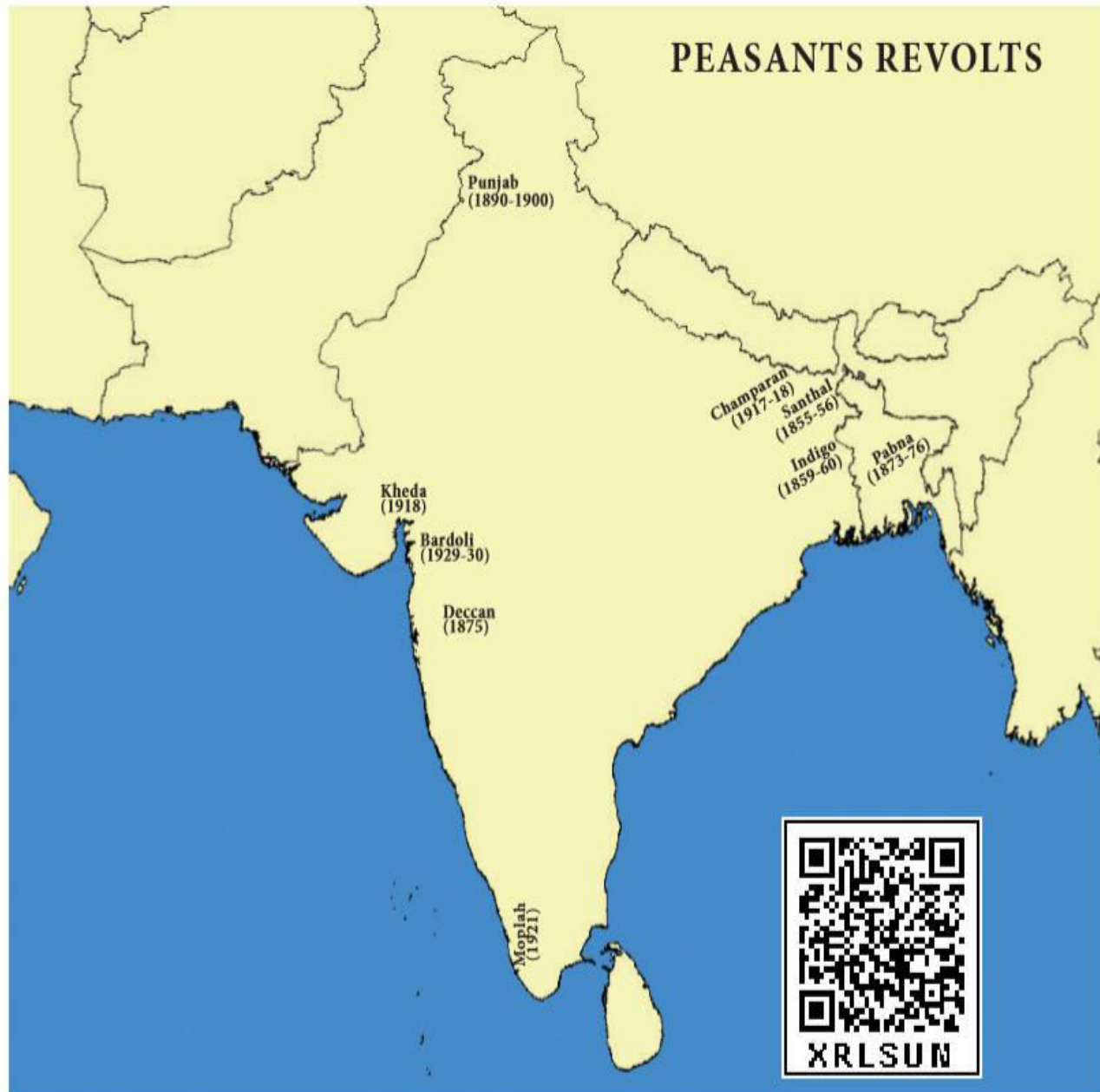
Effects of the Mahalwari Settlement

- The Lambardar enjoyed privileges which was misused for their self-interest.
- This system brought no benefit to the cultivators.
- It was a modified version of the **Zamindari system and benefited the upper class in villages**.

Impact of the British land revenue system on the cultivators

- A common feature of all the settlements was the assessment and the maximize income from land. It resulted in increasing land sales and dispossession.
- The peasants were overburdened with taxation.
- Due to the tax burden and famines, in general, the people suffered in poverty and burdened with debts.
- They had to seek the moneylenders who became rich and acquired lands from the peasants.
- The Zamindars, money-lenders and lawyers exploited the poor peasants.
- The stability and continuity of the Indian villages was shaken.
- **Cottage industries disappeared on account of the import of British goods and the peasants had nothing to supplement their income.**
- The old body of custom was replaced by **new apparatus of law, courts, fees, lawyers and formal procedures.**
- The British policy proved advantageous only to the government of a privileged section of the society at the cost of the cultivators who were the rightful owners of their lands and claimants of the larger share of the produce.

Peasants Revolts



- The British rule in India brought about many changes in the agrarian system in the country.
- The old agrarian system collapsed and under **the new system, the ownership of land was conferred on the Zamindars.**
- They tried to extract as much as they could from the cultivators of land. The life of the peasants was extremely miserable.
- The various peasant movements and uprisings during the 19th and 20th centuries were in the nature of a protest against the existing conditions under which their exploitation knew no limits.

The Santhal Rebellion (1855-56)

- The first revolt which can be regarded as peasants' revolt was **the Santhal Rebellion in 1855-56**.
- The land near the hills of **Rajmahal in Bihar** was cultivated by the Santhals.
- The landlords and money-lenders from the cities took advantage of their ignorance and began grabbing their lands.
- This created bitter resentment among them leading to their armed uprising in 1855.
- Consequently, under the belief of a divine order, around **10,000 Santals gathered under two Santhal brothers, Siddhu and Kanhu**, to free their country of the foreign oppressors and set up a government of their own.
- The rebellion assumed a formidable shape within a month.
- The houses of the European planters, British officers, railway engineers, zamindars and money-lenders were attacked.
- The rebellion continued till **February 1856**, when the rebel leaders were captured and the movement was put down with a heavy hand.
- The government declared the Parganas inhabited by them as Santhal Parganas so that their lands and identity could be safeguarded from external encroachments.

Indigo Revolt (1859-60)



Indigo Revolt

- The Bengal indigo cultivators strike was the most militant and widespread peasant uprisings.
- The European indigo planters compelled the tenant farmers to grow indigo at terms highly disadvantageous to the farmers.
- The tenant farmer was forced to sell it cheap to the planter and accepted advances from the planter that benefitted the latter. There were also cases of **kidnapping, looting, flogging and burning**.
- Led by **Digambar Biswas and Bishnu Charan Biswas**, the ryots of Nadia district gave up indigo cultivation in **September 1859**.
- Factories were burnt down and the revolt spread.

- To take control of the situation, the Government set up **an indigo commission in 1860 whose recommendations formed part of the Act VI of 1862.**
- The indigo planters of Bengal, however, moved on to settle in Bihar and Uttar Pradesh. The newspaper, Hindu Patriot brought to light the misery of the cultivators several times.
- **Dinabandhu Mitra wrote a drama, Nil-Darpan,** in Bengali with a view to draw the attention of the people and the government towards the misery of the indigo-cultivators.

Pabna Revolt (1873-76)

- Pabna Peasant Uprising was a resistance movement by the peasants against the oppression of the Zamindars.
- It originated in the **Yusufshahi pargana of Pabna** in Bengal. It was led by **Keshab Chandra Roy.**
- The zamindars routinely collected money from the peasants by the illegal means of forced levy, abwabs, enhanced rent and so on.
- Peasants were often evicted from land on the pretext of nonpayment of rent.
- Large crowds of peasants gathered and marched through villages frightening the zamindars and appealing to other peasants to join with them.
- Funds were raised from the ryots to meet the costs. The struggle gradually spread throughout Pabna and then to the other districts of East Bengal.
- Everywhere agrarian leagues were organized. The main form of struggle was that of legal resistance.
- There was very little violence. It occurred only when the zamindars tried to compel the ryots to submit to their terms by force.
- There were only **a few cases of looting of the houses of the zamindars.**
- A few attacks on police stations took place and the peasants also resisted attempts to execute court decrees.
- Hardly zamindars or zamindar's agent were killed or seriously injured. In the course of the movement, the ryots developed a strong awareness of the law and their legal rights and the ability to combine and form associations for peaceful agitation.

Deccan Riots (1875)

- In 1875, the peasants revolted in the district of Poona, that event has been called the 'Deccan Riots'.
- The peasants revolted primarily **against the oppression of local moneylenders who were grabbing their lands systematically.**
- The uprising started from a village in Poona district when the village people forced out a local moneylender from the village and captured his property.
- Gradually, the uprising spread over **33 villages** and the peasants looted the property of **Marwari Sahukars.**

- The uprising turned into violent when the Sahukars took help of the police.
- It was suppressed only when the army was called to control it.
- However, it resulted in passing of the **Deccan Agriculturists Relief Act** which removed some of the most serious grievances of the peasants.

Punjab Peasant Movement (1890-1900)

- The peasants of the Punjab agitated to prevent the rapid alienation of their lands to the urban moneylenders for failure to pay debts.
- The Government of India did not want any revolt in that province which provided a large number of soldiers to the British army in India.
- In order to protect the peasants of the Punjab, the Punjab Land Alienation Act was passed in 1900 **"as an experimental measure"** to be extended to the rest of India if it worked successfully in the Punjab.
- The Act divided the population of the Punjab into three categories viz., the agricultural classes, the statutory agriculturist class and the rest of the population including the moneylenders.
- Restrictions were imposed on the sale and mortgage of the land from the first category to the other two categories.

Champaran Satyagraha (1917-18)

- The European planters of **Champaran in Bihar** resorted to illegal and inhuman methods of indigo cultivation at a cost which was wholly unjust.
- Under the **Tinkathia system in Champaran**, the peasants were bound by law to grow indigo on **3/20 part** of their land and send the same to the British planters at prices fixed by them.
- They were liable to unlawful extortion and oppression by the planters. Mahatma Gandhi took up their cause.
- The Government appointed an enquiry commission of which Mahatma Gandhi was a member.
- The grievances of the peasants were enquired and ultimately the **Champaran Agrarian Act was passed in May 1918.**

Kheda (Kaira) Satyagraha (1918)

- In the Kheda District of Gujarat, due to constant famines, **agriculture failed in 1918**, but the officers insisted on collection of full land revenue.
- The local peasants, therefore, started a **'no-tax' movement in Kheda district in 1918**. Gandhi accepted the leadership of this movement.
- Gandhiji organised the peasants to offer Satyagraha and opposed official insistence on full collection of oppressive land revenue despite the conditions of famine.
- He inspired the peasants to be fearless and face all consequences.

- The response to his call was unprecedented and the government had to bow to a settlement with the peasants.
- Sardar Vallabhai Patel emerged as an important leader of the Indian freedom struggle during this period.

Moplah Rebellion (1921)

- The **Muslim Moplah (or Moplah) peasants of Malabar (Kerala)** was suppressed and exploited by the Hindu zamindars (Jenmis) and British government.
- This was the main cause of this revolt. The Moplah peasants got momentum from the Malabar District Conference, held in **April 1920**.
- This conference supported the tenants' cause, and demanded legislations for regulating landlord-tenant relations.
- In **August 1921, the Moplah tenants** rebelled against the oppressive zamindars.
- In the initial phase of the rebellion, the Moplah peasants attacked the police stations, public offices, communications and houses of oppressive landlords and moneylenders.
- By **December 1921**, the government ruthlessly suppressed the Moplah rebellion.
- According to an official estimate, as a result of government intervention, **2337 Moplah rebels were killed, 1650 wounded and more than 45,000 captured as prisoners.**

Bardoli Satyagraha (1929-30)



Bardoli Satyagraha

- In **1928**, the peasants of Bardoli (Gujarat) started their agitation under the leadership of Sardar Vallabhbhai Patel, in protest against the government's proposal to increase land revenue by **30 percent**.
- The peasants refused to pay tax at the enhanced rate and started no-tax campaign from **12 February 1928**.

- Many women also participated in this campaign. In 1930, the peasants of Bardoli rose to a man, refused to pay taxes, faced the auction sales and the eventual loss of almost all of their lands but refused to submit to the Government.
- However, all their lands were returned to them when the Congress came to power in 1937.

8th Social Science Lesson 4 Notes in English

4. Peoples Revolt

Introduction

- The establishment of political and economic dominance by the British over many parts of India after the **Battle of Plassey, 1757** disrupted the political, social and economic order of the country.
- This led to the divesting many landlords and chieftains of their power and estates.
- Naturally, many of them revolted against the British. The English assumed the right of collecting the annual **tribute from the Palayakkarar**.
- The first resistance to the British was offered by the Pulithevar.
- Since then there had been rebellions by Palayakkarar such as **the Veerapandiya Kattabomman, Oomathurai, Marudu brothers and Dheeran Chinnamalai**.

Origin of Palayam

- The Vijayanagar rulers appointed Nayaks in their provinces. The **Nayak of Madurai** in turn appointed Palayakkarar.
- Viswanatha became the Nayak of Madurai in **1529**. He noticed that he could not control the chieftain who wanted more powers in their provinces.
- So with the consultation of his minister **Ariyanatha Mudaliyar**, **Viswanatha instituted Palayakkarar system in 1529**.
- The whole country was divided into **72 Palayams** and each one was put under a Palayakkarar.
- Palayakkarar was the holder of a territory or a Palayam. These Palayams were held in military tenure and extended their full co-operation to be need of the Nayaks.
- The Palayakkarars collected taxes, of which one third was given to the **Nayak of Madurai** another one third for the expenditure of the army and rest was kept for themselves.

Early revolts of South India



Revolt of the Palayakkars

- During the 17th and 18th centuries the Palayakkarars played a vital role in the politics of Tamil Nadu. They regarded themselves as independent.

- Among the Palayakkarars, there were two blocs, namely the Eastern and the Western blocs.
- **The Eastern Palayams** were the Nayaks ruled under the control of Kattabomman and the Western palayams were the Maravas ruled under the control of Pulithevan.
- These two palayakkarars refused to pay the kist (tribute) to the English and rebelled.
- The early struggle between the Palayakkarars and the East India Company had a strong political dimension.
- By the **Carnatic treaty of 1792**, consolidated the English power over the Palayakkars. The English got the right to collect taxes.
- The result was the outbreak of the revolt of Palayakkars.

Pulithevar

- Pulithevar was the pioneer in Tamil Nadu, to protest against the English rule in India. He was the **Palayakkarar of the Nerkattumseval, near Tirunelveli**.
- During his tenure he refused to pay the tribute neither to Mohammed Ali, the Nawab of Arcot nor to the English.
- Further he started opposing them. Hence, the forces of the **Nawab of Arcot and the English attacked Pulithevar**.
- But the combined forces were defeated by **Pulithevar at Tirunelveli**. Pulithevar was the first Indian king to have fought and defeated the British in India.
- After this victory Pulithevan attempted to form a league of the Palayakkars to oppose the British and the Nawab.
- In **1759, Nerkattumseval** was attacked by the forces of Nawab of Arcot under the leadership of Yusuf Khan.
- Pulithevar was defeated at **Anthanallur and the Nawabs forces captured Nerkattumseval in 1761**.
- Pulithevar who lived in exile recaptured **Nerkattumseval in 1764**. Later, he was defeated by **Captain Campell in 1767**.
- Pulithevar escaped and died in exile without fulfilling his purpose, although his courageous trail of a struggle for independence in the history of South India.

Virapandya Kattabomman

- The Ancestors of Kattabomman belonged to Andhra. They migrated to Tamil country during the 11th century.
- As a feudatory under **Pandya**s, **Jagaveerapandiaya Kattabomman ruled Virapandyapuram**.
- Panchalankurichi was its capital. He later became a Poligar during the rule of Nayaks. He was succeeded by his son **Veerapandya Kattabomman**.
- His wife was Jakkammal and his brothers were Oomathurai and Sevathaiah.

Nawab of Arcot

- After the decline of the **Vijayanagar empire**, the **mughals** established their supremacy in the south.
- The Nawabs acted as their representatives in Karnataka. Panchalamkuruchi palayam was acted as an ally to the Nawab of Arcot.
- Hence it paid tribute to the Nawabs. But in 1792, the political condition had completely changed.
- Based on the Carnatic treaty of 1792, the company gained the right to collect taxes from Panchalamkuruchi.
- The collection of tribute was the main cause for the rivalry **between the English and Kattabomman**.

Kattabomman met Jackson

- In 1798, **Colin Jackson**, the collector of Ramanathapuram wrote letters to Kattabomman asking him to pay the tribute arrears.
- But Kattabomman replied that he was not in a position to remit the tribute due to the famine in the country.
- Colin Jackson got angry and decided to send an expedition to punish Kattabomman.
- However, the Madras government directed the collector to summon the Palayakkarar at Ramanathapuram and hold a discussion.
- In 1798, **Kattabomman** and his minister Siva Subramaniam met the Collector at Ramanathapuram.
- Upon a verification of accounts, Colin Jackson was convinced that Kattabomman had cleared most of the arrears leaving only **1080 pagodas** as balance.
- During this interview **Kattabomman and his Minister, Sivasubramaniam**, had to stand before the arrogant collector for three hours.
- The Collector insulted them and tried to arrest Kattabomman and his minister. Kattabomman tried to escape with his minister.
- Oomathurai suddenly entered the fort with his men and helped the escape of Kattabomman.
- But unfortunately Sivasubramaniam was taken as prisoner.

Edward Clive and Kattabomman

- After his return to Panchalamkuruchi, Kattabomman wrote a letter to the Madras Council narrating the behaviour of the Collector Colin Jackson.
- **Edward Clive**, the Governor of Madras Council ordered Kattabomman to surrender. The Madras Council directed Kattabomman to appear before a Committee.
- Meanwhile, Edward Clive dismissed the Collector for his misbehaviour and released SivaSubramania.
- Kattabomman appeared before the Committee, and found Kattabomman was not guilty.

- **S.R. Lushington** was appointed collector in the place of Colin Jackson, who was eventually dismissed from service.

The confederacy of Palayakkarars

- During that time, Marudu Pandyan of Sivaganga formed the South Indian Confederacy of rebels against the British, along with the neighbouring Palayakkarars.
- This confederacy declared a proclamation which came to be known as **Tiruchirappalli Proclamation**.
- Kattabomman was interested in this confederacy. He tried to establish his influence over **Sivagiri, who refused to join with alliance of the rebels**.
- **Kattabomman advanced towards Sivagiri**. But the Palayakkar of Sivagiri was a tributary to the Company.
- So the Company considered the expedition of Kattabomman as a challenge to their authority. So the Company ordered the army to march to Panchalamkuruchi.

Fall of Panchalamkuruchi

- Major Bannerman moved his army to Panchalamkuruchi on 5th September.
- They cut off all the communications to the Fort.
- In a clash at **Kallarpatti, Siva Subramaniam** was taken as a prisoner.
- Kattabomman escaped to Pudukottai.
- **Vijaya Ragunatha Tondaiman, Raja of Pudukottai**, captured Kattabomman from the jungles of Kalapore and handed over to the Company.
- After the fall of Panchalamkuruchi, Bannerman brought the prisoners to an assembly of the Palayakkarars and after trial sentenced them to death.
- Sivasubramania was executed at Nagalapuram.
- On the **16th October ViraPandya Kattabomman** was tried before an assembly of Palayakkarar, summoned at Kayathar.
- On **17th October 1799**, Kattabomman was hanged at the fort of Kayathar.
- Kattabomman's heroic deeds were the subject of many folk ballads which kept his memory alive among the people.

Velu Nachiyar

- Velu Nachiyar was a queen of Sivagangai. At the **age of 16**, she was married to Muthu Vaduganathar, the Raja of Sivagangai.
- In **1772, the Nawab of Arcot** and the British troops invaded Sivagangai. They killed Muthu Vaduganathar in **Kalaiyar Koil battle**.
- Velu Nachiyar escaped with her daughter Vellachi Nachiyar and lived under the protection of **Gopala Nayaker at Virupachi near Dindigul**.

- During this period she organised an army and employed her intelligent agents to find where the British stored their ammunition.
- She arranged a suicide attack by a faithful follower Kuyili, a commander of Velu Nachiar.
- She recaptured Sivagangai and was again crowned as queen with the help of Marudu brothers.
- She was the first queen to fight against the British colonial power in India. She is known by Tamils as Veeramangai and also known as '**Jhansi Rani of South India**'.

Marudu Brothers

- Marudu brothers were the sons of Mookiah Palaniappan and Ponnathal.
- The elder brother was called **Periya Marudu (Vella Marudhu)** and the younger brother Chinna Marudu.
- Chinna Marudu was more popular and was called Marudu Pandiyan. Chinna Marudu served under **Muthu Vaduganatha Peria Udaya Devar (1750-1772) of Sivaganga**.
- In 1772 the Nawab of Arcot laid siege of Sivaganga and captured it.
- **Muthu Vaduganatha Peria Udaya Devar**, died in battle. However after a few months Sivaganga was re-captured by Marudu Brothers and Periya Marudu was enthroned as the ruler.
- Chinna Marudu acted as his adviser. Due to the terrorist activities against British, he was called as "**Lion of Sivaganga**".
- In the later half of the eighteenth century the rebellion against the British was carried by Marudu Brothers in South India.

Causes for the conflict

- Kattabomman was hanged to death and his **brother Umaithurai** and others fled to Sivaganga, where Marudu Pandya gave protection to them.
- The merchants of Sivaganga did not like the interference of the company in their internal politics.
- The company waged war against Sivaganga for these two causes.

The South Indian Rebellion (1800-1801)

- In February 1801 the brothers of Kattabomman, **Oomathurai and Sevathaiah** escaped from **Palayamkottai prison and reached Kamudhi**.
- Chinna Marudu took them to Siruvayal, his capital. They reconstructed their ancestral fort at Panchalamkurichi.
- The British troops under Conlin Macaulay retook the **fort in April and the Palayakkarar brothers sought shelter in Sivaganga**.
- The English demanded Marudu Pandyas to hand over the fugitives, the latter refused. Conlonel Agnew and Colonel Innes marched against them.

- The Palayakkarar War assumed a much broader character than its predecessor. It was directed by a confederacy consisting of **Marudu Pandiar of Sivaganga, Gopala Nayak of Dindugal, Kerala Varma of Malabar and Krishnappa Nayak and Dhoondaji of Mysore.**
- The English declared war against the confederacy.

The Tiruchirappalli Proclamation (1801)

- The Marudu Pandyas issued a proclamation of Independence called Tiruchirappalli Proclamation in June 1801.
- The Proclamation of 1801 was the first call to the Indians to unite against the British.
- A copy of the proclamation was pasted on the walls of the **Nawab's palace in the fort of Tiruchi and another copy was placed on the walls of the Vaishnava temple at Srirangam.**
- Thus Marudu brothers spread the spirit of opposition against the English everywhere.
- As a result many Palayakkarars of Tamil Nadu went on a rally to fight against the English.
- Chinna Marudu collected nearly **20,000 men** to challenge the English army. British reinforcements were rushed from **Bengal, Ceylon and Malaya.**
- The rajas of Pudukkottai, Ettayapuram and Thanjavur stood by the British. Divide and rule policy followed by the English split the forces of the Palayakkarars.

English annexed Sivagangai

- In May 1801, English attacked the rebels in Thanjavur and Tiruchi areas. The rebels went to Piranmalai and Kalayarkoil.
- They were again defeated by the forces of the English. In the end, the superior military strength and the able commanders of the British army won the battle.
- The rebellion failed and English annexed Sivagangai in 1801.
- The Marudu brothers were executed in the Fort of Tirupathur in Ramanathapuram District on **24 October 1801.**
- Oomathurai and Sevathaiah was captured and beheaded at Panchalamkuruchi on 16 November 1801.
- Seventy three rebels were sentenced to Penang in Malaya, then called the Prince of Wales Island.
- Though they fell before the English, they were the pioneers in sowing the seeds of nationalism in the land of Tamil.
- Thus the South Indian Rebellion is a land mark in the history of Tamil Nadu. Although the **1800-1801** rebellion was to be categorized in the British records as the Second Palayakkarar War.
- Under the terms of the Karnataka Treaty on 31 July 1801, the British assumed direct control over Tamil Nadu. The Palayakkarar system was abolished.

Dheeran Chinnamalai

- Dheeran Chinnamalai was born at Melapalayam in Chennimalai near Erode. His original name was Theerthagiri.
- He was a palayakkarar of Kongu country who fought the British East India Company.
- The Kongu country comprising Salem, Coimbatore, Karur and Dindigul formed a part of the Nayak kingdom of Madurai but had been annexed by the **Wodayars of Mysore**.
- After the fall of the Wodayars, these territories along with Mysore were controlled by the Mysore Sultans.
- After the third and fourth Mysore wars the entire Kongu region passed into the hands of the English.
- Dheeran Chinnamalai was trained by French military in modern warfare. He was along the side Tippu Sultan to fight against the British East India Company and got victories against the British.
- After Tippu Sultan's death Chinnamalai settled down at Odanilai and constructed a fort there to continue his struggle against the British.
- He sought the help of **Marathas and Maruthu Pandiyar to attack the British at Coimbatore in 1800**.
- British forces managed to stop the armies of the allies and hence Chinnamalai was forced to attack Coimbatore on his own.
- His army was defeated and he escaped from the British forces.
- Chinnamalai engaged in guerrilla warfare and defeated the British in battles at Cauvery, **Odanilai and Arachalur**.
- During the final battle, Chinnamalai was betrayed by his cook Nallapan and was hanged in **Sankagiri Fort in 1805**.

Vellore Revolt (1806)

- The family members of Tippu were imprisoned at Vellore fort after the fourth Mysore war.
- Some three thousand ex-servants and soldiers of Hyder and Tippu had also been moved to the vicinity of Vellore and their property in Mysore confiscated.
- It was quite natural that they were all unhappy and they hatred the English.
- The Vellore fort consisted of large majority of Indian troops, a good part of it recently been raised in **Tirunelveli after the Palayakarar uprising of 1800**.
- Many of the trained soldiers of the various Palayams were admitted into the English army.
- Thus the Vellore fort became the meeting ground of the rebel forces of South India. In 1803, William Cavendish Bentinck became Governor of Madras.
- During his period certain military regulations were introduced in **1805-06** and were enforced by the **Madras Commander-in-Chief Sir John Cradock**.
- But the sepoys felt that these were designed to insult them.

Causes for the revolt

- The strict discipline, new weapons, new methods and uniforms were all new to the sepoys.
- The sepoys were asked to shave the beard and to trim the moustache.
- The wearing of religious mark on the forehead and the use of ear-rings were also banned.
- The English treated the Indian sepoys as their inferior. There was the racial prejudice.

Immediate Cause

- In **June 1806**, **military General Agnew** introduced a new turban, resembling a European hat with a badge of cross on it. It was popularly known as '**Agnew's turban**'.
- Both the Hindu and Muslim soldiers opposed it. So the soldiers were severely punished by the English.

Course of the Revolt

- The Indian soldiers were waiting for an opportunity to attack the English officers. Tippu's family also took part.
- **Fettah Hyder, the elder son of Tippu**, tried to form an alliance against the English.
- On July 10th in the early morning the native sepoys of the **1st and 23rd Regiments** started the revolt.
- Colonel Fancourt, who commanded the garrison, was their first victim. The fort gates were closed.
- Meantime, the rebels proclaimed **Futteh Hyder, as their new ruler**. The British flag in the fort was brought down.
- The tiger-striped flag of Tippu Sultan was hoisted on the fort of Vellore.

Suppression of the Revolt

- Major Cootes who was outside the fort rushed to Ranipet and informed **Colonel Gillespie**. **Col. Gillespie reached Vellore fort**.
- He made an attack on the rebel force. The revolt was completely suppressed and failed. Peace was restored in Vellore.
- On the whole, **113 Europeans and about 350 sepoys were killed** in the uprising.
- The revolt was suppressed within a short period.
- It was one of the significant events in the history of Tamil Nadu.

Effects of the Vellore Revolt

- The new methods and uniform regulations were withdrawn.
- The family of Tippu as a precautionary measure was sent to Calcutta.
- **William Cavendish Bentinck** was removed from his service.

Causes for the failure of the Revolt

- There was no proper leadership to guide the soldiers properly.

- The rebellion was also not well organised.
- Divide and Rule policy of the English, split the unity of the Indians. V.D. Savarkar calls the Vellore revolt of 1806 as the prelude to the **first War of Indian Independence in 1857**.

The Revolt of 1857



- The early uprisings did not succeed in threatening the British in India.
- It took the Revolt of 1857 to bring home to the Company and the British thought that their rule was not accepted to a large section of the population.
- The **Revolt of 1857** was a product of the character and the policies of colonial rule.
- The cumulative effect of British expansionist policies, economic exploitation and administrative innovations over the years had adversely affected the positions of all rulers of Indian states.

Causes of the Revolt

- The **most important cause of revolt 1857** was a popular discontent of the British policy of economically exploiting India.
- This hurt all sections of society. The peasants suffered due to high revenue demands and the strict revenue collection policy.
- Policies of doctrine of lapse, subsidiary alliance and policy of Effective Control created discontentment among people.
- Annexation of Oudh proved that even the grovelling loyalty can't satisfy British greed for territories.
- The conversion activities of Christian missionaries were looked upon with suspicion and fear.
- The priests and the maulavis showed their discontent against the British rule.
- Abolition of practices like sati, female infanticide, support to widow remarriage and female education were seen by many as interference in their Indian culture by the Europeans.
- The Indian sepoys were looked upon as inferior beings and treated with contempt by their British officers.
- They were paid much less than the British soldiers. All avenues of the promotion were closed to them as all the higher army posts were reserved for the British.

Immediate cause

- The immediate cause was the introduction of new Enfield Rifles in the army.
- The top of the cartridge of this rifle was to be removed by the mouth before loading it in the rifle.
- The cartridges were greased by the fat of pig and the cow.
- The Indian sepoys believed that the British were deliberately attempting to spoil the religion of both the Hindus and the Muslims because while the Hindus revered the cow, the Muslims hated the pig.
- The soldiers, therefore, determined to refuse their service and, ultimately revolted.
- Thus, the primary and the immediate cause of the revolt was the use of the greased cartridges.

The Outbreak of the Revolt

- On **29 March 1857 at Barrackpur (near Kolkata) Mangal Pandey**, a young Sepoy from Bengal Regiment, refused to use the greased cartridge, and shot down his sergeant.
- He was arrested, tried and executed. When this news spread many sepoys revolted.

Course of the Revolt

Places of Revolt	Indian Leaders	British Officials who suppressed the revolt
Delhi	Bahadur Shah II	John Nicholson
Lucknow	Begum Hazrat Mahal	Henry Lawrence
Kanpur	Nana Saheb	Sir Colin Campbell
Jhansi & Gwalior	Lakshmi Bai, Tantia tope	General Hugh Rose
Bareilly	Khan Bahadur Khan	Sir Colin Campbell
Bihar	Kunwar Singh	William Taylor

- On **10 May 1857**, the Sepoys of the third cavalry at Meerut openly revolted by swarming the prisons and releasing their comrades.
- They were immediately joined by the men of the **11th and 20th Native Infantry**, and they murdered some English officers and then marched to Delhi.
- The arrival of Meerut sepoys at Delhi on **11th May** and **declared of Bahadur Shah II** as the Emperor of India.
- Delhi became the centre of the Great Revolt and Bahadur Shah, its symbol. The revolt spread quickly.
- There were mutinies at **Lucknow, Kanpur, Jhansi, Bareilly, Bihar, Faizabad**, and many other places in north India.
- Many of them found that it was a good opportunity to burn the papers of their landlords.
- Many others whose titles and pensions were abolished by the British who participated in it, in order to take revenge.
- The **Muslim leaders and Maulvis** sought the opportunity of establishing the Muslim rule in India after turning out the British.

Suppression of the Revolt

- Lord Canning, the governor-general took immediate steps to suppress the revolt. He collected the **forces of Madras, Bombay, Sri Lanka and Burma**.
- On his own initiative, he called the British army which was deputed to China by Britain to Calcutta.

- He ordered the loyal Sikh army to proceed to Delhi immediately. The British regained their lost positions very soon.
- Delhi was recaptured by General John Nicholson on **20 September, 1857** and **deportation of Bahadur Shah II to Rangoon where he died in 1862.**
- Military operations with the recovery of Kanpur were closely associated with the recovery of Lucknow.
- Sir Colin Campbell occupied Kanpur. Nana Saheb was defeated at Kanpur and escaped to Nepal.
- His close associate Tantia Tope escaped to central India, was captured and put to death while asleep.
- The Rani of Jhansi had died in the battle-field. Kunwar Singh, Khan Bahadur Khan were all dead, while the Begum of Awadh was compelled to hide in Nepal.
- The revolt was finally suppressed. By the end of 1859, British authority over India was fully re-established.

Rani of Jhansi:

- In Central India the Revolt was guided by Rani Lakshmi Bai of Jhansi. She was one of the greatest patriots of India.
- **Sir Hugh Rose occupied Jhansi.** Rani Lakshmi Bai fled from Jhansi and joined hands with Tantia Tope who had assumed the leadership of the rebel army at Gwalior.
- But the British captured **Gwalior in June 1858.**
- Rani was killed in the battle.
- Tantia Tope fled away but was captured and later executed.
- According to the British historians, present at the time of revolt, **Rani Lakshmi Bai was the best and the bravest among the leaders of the Revolt of 1857.**

The Causes for the Failure of the Revolt

- Various causes were responsible for the failure of the revolt.
- Lack of organisation, discipline, common plan of action, centralised leadership, modern weapons and techniques.
- The rebel leaders were no match to the British Generals.
- Rani Lakshmi Bai, Tantia Tope and Nana Saheb were courageous but they were not good generals.
- Non-participation of Bengal, Bombay, Madras, western Punjab and Rajputana.
- The modern educated Indians did not support the Revolts as they believed that only British rule could reform Indian society and modernize it.
- The British managed to get the loyalty of the Sikhs, Afghans and the Gurkha regiments. The Gurkhas actually helped the British in suppressing the revolt.
- The British had better weapons, better generals, and good organisation.

Consequences of the Revolt

- The Revolt of 1857 marked a turning point in the history of India. It led to changes in the system of administration and the policy of the Government.
- The administration of India was transferred from the East India Company to the British Crown through the **'Queen's Proclamation' in 1858**.
- The governor general was given the title of viceroy.
- The Board of Directors and the Board of Control were replaced by the **Council of 15 members headed by the Secretary of State to supervise Indian affairs**.
- The Indian Army was thoroughly reorganised. More Britishers were employed in the army.
- The British military policy came to be dominated by the idea of 'divide and counterpoise'.
- Infact, the Revolt of 1857 played an important role in bringing the Indian people together and imparting them the consciousness of belonging to one country.
- The Revolt paved the way for the rise of the modern national movement.
- It was at the beginning of the twentieth century that the 1857 Revolt came to be interpreted as a **"planned war of national independence"**, by V.D. Savarkar in his book, **First War of Indian Independence**.

8th Social Science Lesson 5 Notes in English

5. Rocks and Soils

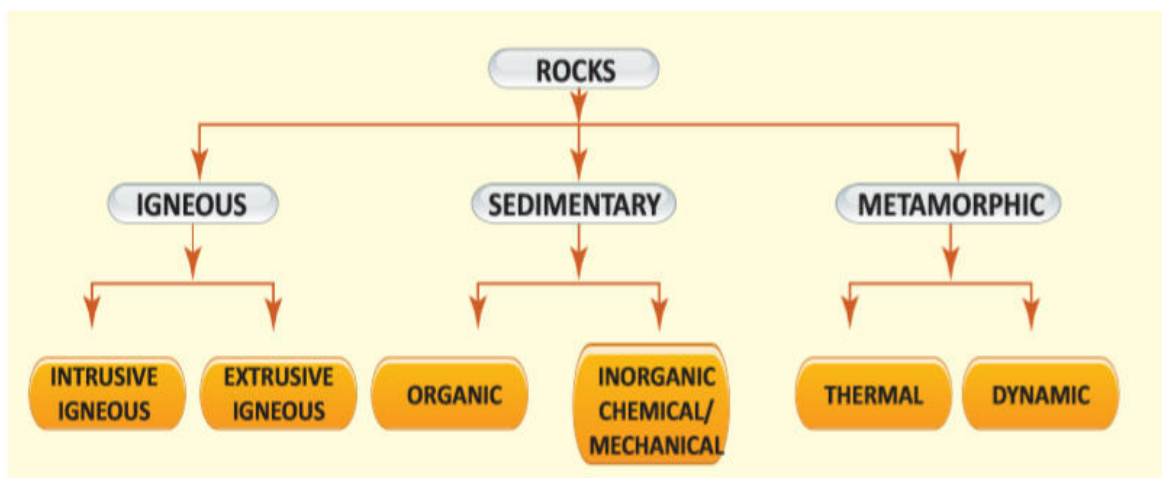
Introduction

- We have studied about four realms of the earth, namely **lithosphere, hydrosphere, atmosphere and biosphere**.
- Lithosphere is the upper most and significant layer of the earth.
- It is composed of solid rocks and unconsolidated materials.
- The literal meaning of lithosphere is **"The sphere of rock"**.

Rocks

- The rocks are the solid mineral materials forming a part of the surface of the earth and other similar planets.
- The **earth's crust (Lithosphere)** is composed of rocks. A rock is an aggregate of one or more minerals.
- Rock is an important natural resource and is found in solid state. It may be hard or soft in nature.
- An estimation reveals that there are **2,000 different types of minerals found on the earth surface out of which only 12** are the basic minerals commonly found all over the earth.
- Minerals are chemical substances which exist in nature. They may occur either in the form of elements or compounds.

Classification of Rocks



According to the mode of formation the rocks are classified into three types as follows.

- Igneous Rocks

- Sedimentary Rocks and
- Metamorphic Rocks

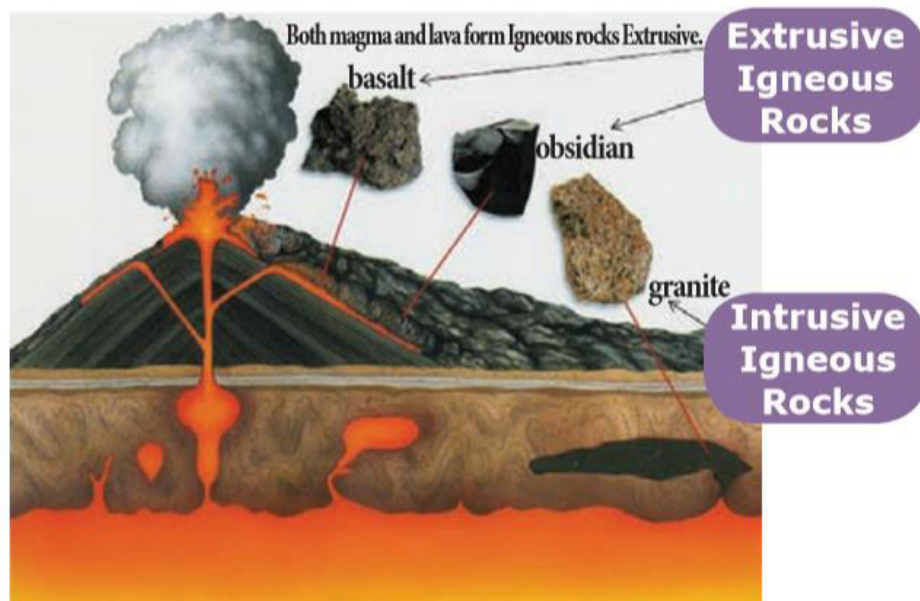
Igneous Rocks

- The igneous rocks are formed by the **solidification of molten magma**.
- These rocks are also called as the '**Primary Rocks**' or '**Parent Rocks**' as all other rocks are formed from these rocks.

Characteristics of Igneous Rocks

- These rocks are hard in nature
- These are impermeable.
- They do not contain fossils
- They are associated with the volcanic activities
- These rocks are useful for construction works

Types of Igneous Rocks



Extrusive & Intrusive Igneous rocks

Igneous Rocks are of two types. They are:

- Extrusive Igneous Rocks
- Intrusive Igneous Rocks

Extrusive Igneous Rocks

- Lava is actually a fiery red molten magma comes out from the interior of the earth on its surface.
- After reaching the earth surface the molten materials get solidified and form rocks.
- Rocks formed in such a way on the crust are called **Extrusive igneous rocks**.
- These rocks are fine grained and glassy in nature due to rapid solidification.
- **Basalt** found in the north western part of peninsular India is the example for this type of rock.

Intrusive Igneous rocks

- The molten magma sometimes cools down deep inside the earth's crust and becomes solid.
- The rocks formed this way is called '**Intrusive Igneous Rocks**'.
- Since they cool down slowly, they form large grains. Intrusive Igneous rocks are of two types.
- The deep seated rocks are called 'Plutonic rocks' and the ones formed at shallow depths are called '**Hypabysal rocks**'.
- Granite, Diorite and Gabbro are the examples of **plutonic rocks** and **Dolerite is an example of hypabysal rocks**.
- Since the intrusive Igneous rocks consist of large crystals, they are also called as 'Crystalline rocks'.

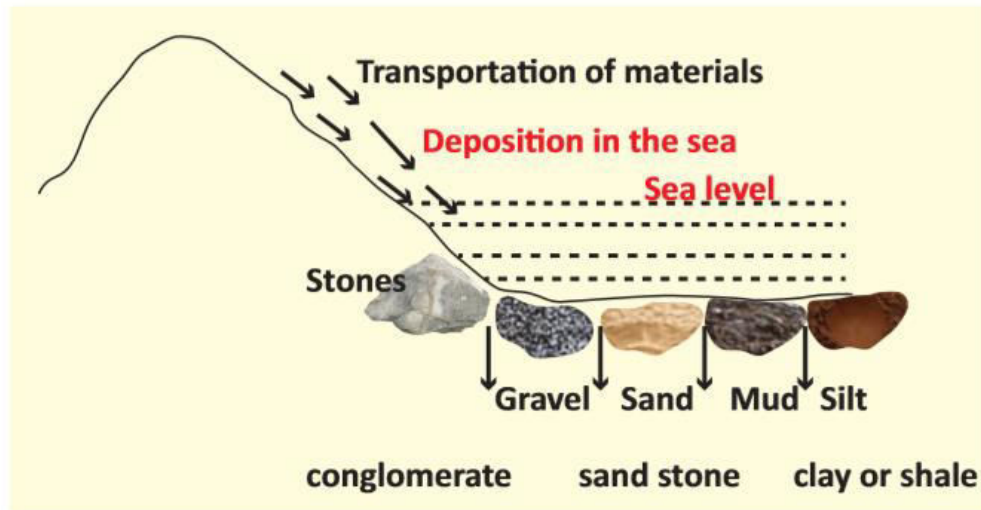
Sedimentary Rocks

- The word 'Sedimentary' has been derived from Latin word '**Sedimentum**' means settling down.
- The sedimentary rocks are formed by the sediments derived and deposited by various agents.
- Due to high temperature and pressure, the undisturbed sediments of long period cemented to form sedimentary rocks.
- Sedimentary rocks consist of many layers which were formed by the sediments deposited at different periods.
- As it consists of many strata, it is also known as '**Stratified rocks**'.

Characteristics of Sedimentary rocks

- They have many layers.
- They are non-crystalline rocks.
- They contain fossils.
- They are soft and get eroded easily

Types of Sedimentary Rocks



Organic Sedimentary Rocks

- These rocks are formed as a result of the decomposition of dead plants and animals. It contains fossils.
- **Chalk, Talc, Dolomite and Limestone** rocks are of this category.

Mechanical Sedimentary Rocks

- These rocks are formed from the disintegration of igneous and metamorphic rocks.
- The natural agents erode and transport these rocks and deposit them at some places.
- After a long period of time, they cemented to form rocks. **Sandstone, Shale and Clay** are the examples of rocks of this type.

Chemical Sedimentary rocks

- These are formed by precipitating of minerals from water. It is formed usually through evaporation of chemical rich solutions.
- These rocks are also called as evaporates. Rock Salt is an example of this kind.

Metamorphic Rocks

- The word Metamorphic is derived from two Greek words "**Meta**" and "**Morpha**", **Meta means change and Morpha means shape**.
- When Igneous and sedimentary rocks subject to high temperature and pressure, the original rocks get altered to form a new kind of rock called metamorphic rocks.
- Metamorphism is of two types. They are **Thermal Metamorphism**: If the change in the rocks is mainly caused by high temperature, the process is called as thermal metamorphism.
- **Dynamic Metamorphism**: If the change in the rock is mainly caused by high pressure, the process is called as Dynamic Metamorphism.

Formation of Metamorphic Rocks from Igneous rocks

- Granite into gneiss caused by dynamic metamorphism.
- Basalt into slate caused by thermal metamorphism.

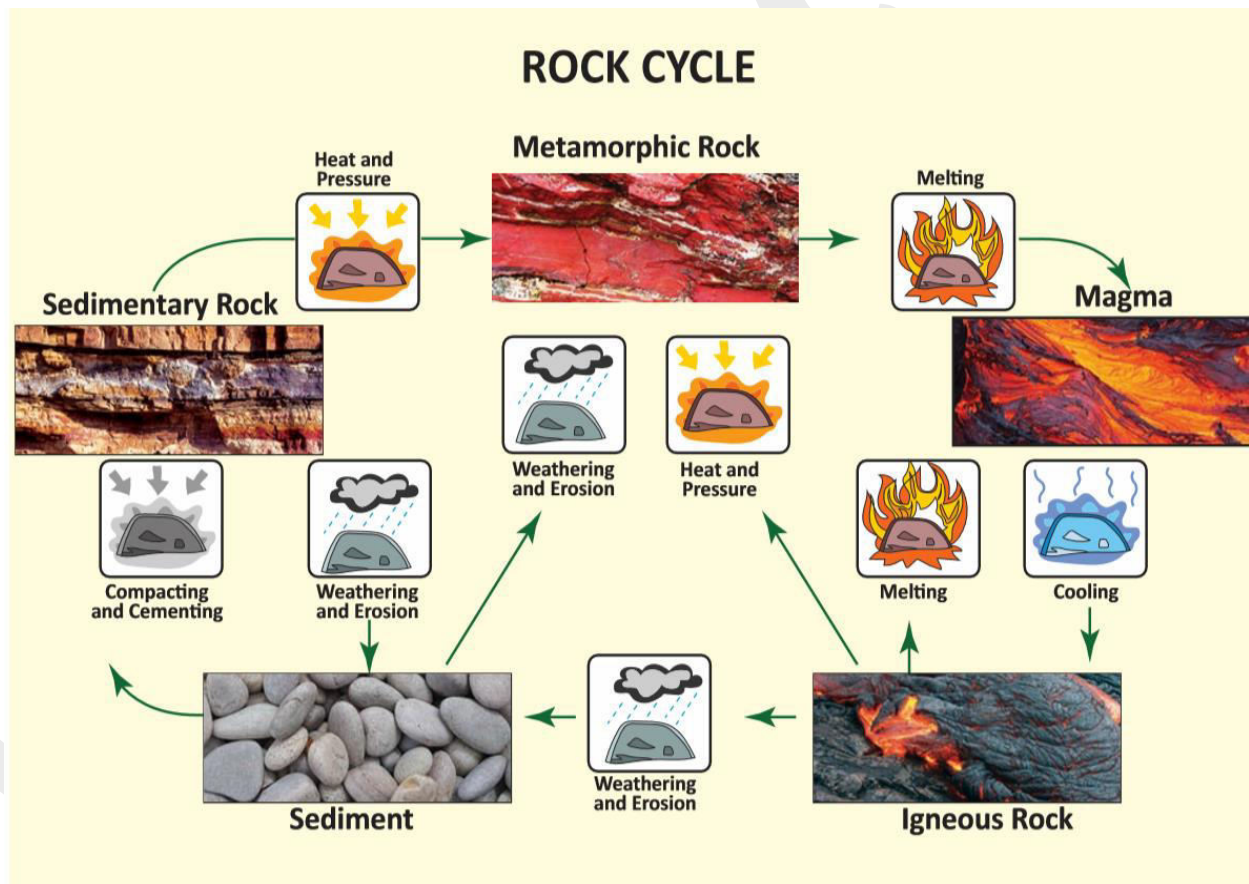
Formation of Metamorphic Rocks from Sedimentary rocks

- Sandstone into quartz caused by thermal metamorphism.
- Shale into slate caused by thermal metamorphism.

Characteristics of Metamorphic Rocks

- Metamorphic rocks are mostly crystalline in nature.
- They consist of alternate bands of light and dark minerals.

Rock cycle



- Igneous rocks are the primary rocks formed first on the earth. These rocks are weathered, eroded, transported and deposited at some places to form sedimentary rocks.
- The Igneous and Sedimentary rocks are changed into metamorphic rocks under the influence of temperature and pressure.

- The metamorphic rocks are also get disintegrated and deposited to form sedimentary rocks.
- Formation of igneous rocks take place when there is an outflow of molten materials.
- Like this, the rocks of the earth crust keeps on changing from one form to another form under various natural forces and agents. The endless process is referred as Rock Cycle.

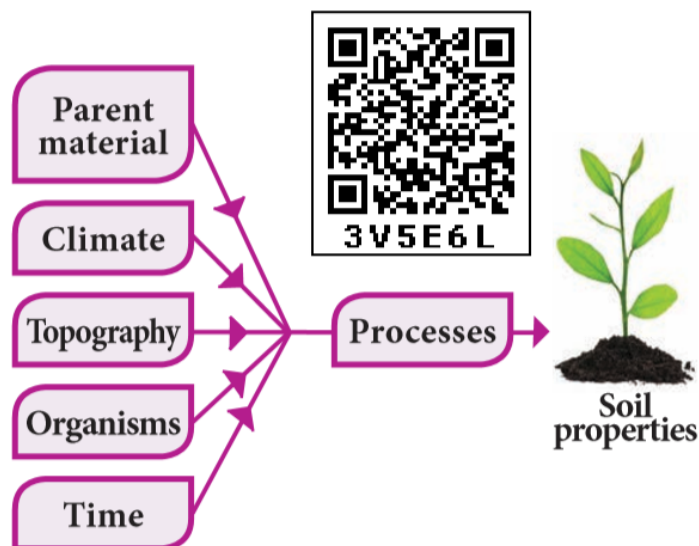
Uses of rocks

- Rocks have been used by mankind throughout the history. Rocks are highly valuable and important to almost all aspects of our economy.
- The minerals and metals in rocks have been found essential to human civilization.
- Rocks are used for many purposes in our life and some of them are given below

Rocks are useful for making

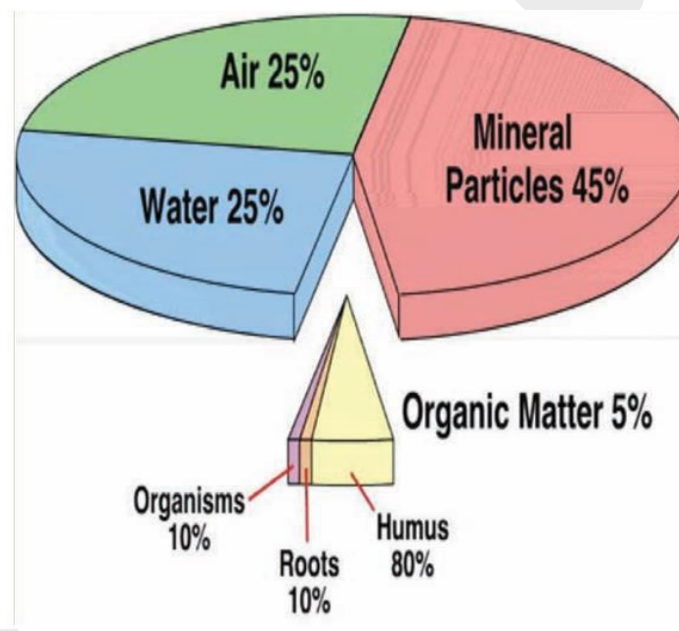
- Cement
- Writing chalk
- Fire
- Building materials
- Bath scrub
- Kerb stone
- Ornament
- Roofing materials
- Decorative materials
- These are valuable source of minerals such as gold, diamond, sapphire etc.

Soil and its Formation



- Soil is a mixture of organic matter, minerals, gases, liquids and organisms that together support life.
- Soil minerals form the basis of soil. It forms on the surface of the earth. It is known as the '**skin of the earth**'.
- Soils are produced from rocks (parent material) through the processes of weathering and natural erosion.
- Water, wind, temperature change, gravity, chemical interaction, living organisms and pressure differences all help break down parent material.
- It leads to the formation of loose material. In course of time, they further break down into fine particles.
- This process release the minerals locked in the rock fragments.
- Later on, the vegetative cover which develop in that region forms humus content in the soil. This way the soil gets matured gradually.

Soil Composition



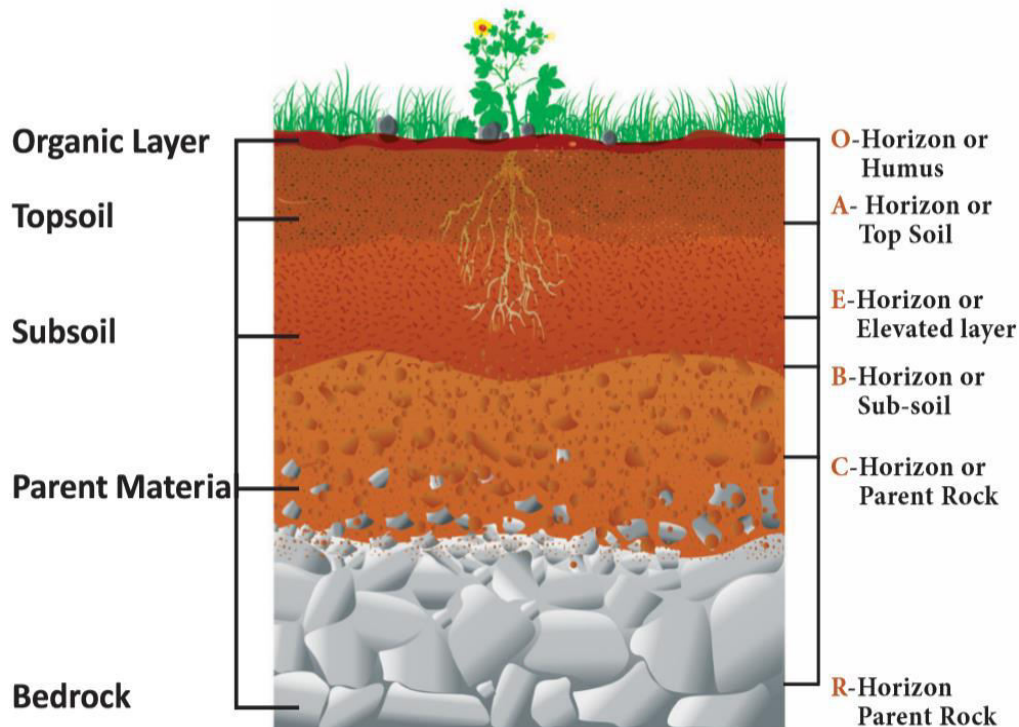
- The basic components of soil are mineral, organic matter, water and air.
- It consists of about **45% mineral, 5% organic matter, 25% of water and 25% air**.
- It is only a generalized fact. The composition of soil varies from place to place and time to time.

Soil profile

The soil profile is defined as the vertical section of the soil from the ground surface and extends downwards.

Classification of soils

LAYERS OF SOIL



Layers of Soil

- Soils are classified on the basis of their formation, colour, physical and chemical properties.
- Based on these, soil is classified into **six** major types.
- They are: **Alluvial soil, Black soil, Red soil, Laterite soil, Mountain soil, Desert soil**

Alluvial soil

- These soils are found in the regions of river valleys, flood plains and coastal regions.
- These are formed by the the deposition of silt by the running water.
- It is the most productive of all soils. It is suitable for the cultivation of **sugarcane, jute, rice, wheat and other food crops.**

Black soils

- These soils are formed by whetherring of igneous rocks.
- Black soil is clayey in nature. It is retensive of moisture. It is ideal for growing cotton.

Red Soils

- These soils are formed by wheathering of metamorphic rocks and crystalline rocks.
- The presence of iron oxide makes this **soil brown to red in colour.**

- It is usually found in semi-arid regions. It is not a fertile soil. It is suitable for millet cultivation.

Laterites soils

- These are the typical soils of tropical regions.
- These soils are found in the regions which experienced alternate wet and dry condition.
- As these soils are formed by the process of leaching, it is infertile. It is suitable for plantation **crops of tea and coffee.**

Mountain soils

- These soils are found over the slopes of mountain. Soils in these regions are thin and acidic.
- However characteristic of soil differs from region to region based on the altitude.

Desert soils

- These are sandy soil found in the hot desert regions.
- These soils are porous and saline. Since it is infertile agriculture in these soils are not so successful.

Soil Erosion

Layers of soil	
O-Horizon or Humus	This layer is dominated by organic material (leaves, needles, twigs, moss and lichens).
A- Horizon or Top Soil	It is a part of top soil, composed of organic matter mixed with mineral matter.
E- Horizon or Elevated layer	E-Stands for elevated layer. This layer is significantly leached of clay, iron, and aluminum oxides, which leaves a concentration of ore
B- Horizon or Sub-soil	This layer reflects the chemical or physical alteration of parent material. Thus iron, clay, aluminum and organic compounds are found accumulated in this horizon.
C- Horizon or Parent Rock	Partially weathered parent material accumulates in this layer.
R- Horizon Parent Rock	This layer consists of unweathered part of bed rock.

- Soil erosion is the removal or destruction of the top layer of soil by natural forces and human activities.
- Soil erosion reduces the fertility of soil which in turn reduces the agricultural productivity.

- Running water and wind are the major agents of soil erosion. **Sheet erosion, Rill erosion and Gully erosion** are the major types of soil erosion.

Soil conservation

- Soil conservation is the process of protecting the soil from erosion to maintain its fertility.
- The methods that are widely practiced for conserving soil are afforestation, controlled grazing, construction of dams, **Crop rotation, Strip farming, contour ploughing, terrace farming, checking shifting cultivation, wind break etc.,**

Uses of soils

- Soil is one of the important natural resource. It is a basic requirement for plant growth and supports various life forms on the earth.
- The minerals present in the soil enhance and nourishes the crops and plants.
- It is used in making of ceramics or pottery.
- It is a source of material for construction and handicraft works.
- It acts as natural filter of water and purifies it.
- Soil supports ecosystem and play an important role in land management. Rocks and soils are the important renewable natural resources.
- Both of them play an important role in everyday life of human beings as well as economic development.
- Nowadays rock-based companies are in **increase which provide employment to a sizeable population.**
- Soils attract human settlement and other economic activities.
- As India is an agricultural country, the proper management of soil resource will lead to sustainable food production besides its use for various other purposes.
- So, the soil resources must be conserved.

More to Know:

1. How long does it take to form soil?

- The time needed to form a soil depends on the Climate.
- The environments which is characterized by mild climate, takes **200400 years** to form one cm of soil and in wet tropical area, soil formation is faster and takes upto 200 years.
- To become a well matured soil, it takes about 3000 years.

2. World Soil Day is observed on **5th December**, every year.

3. Quartzite and Marble are the rocks commonly used for construction and sculpture works. Marbles are widely used for making beautiful statues and decorative items such as vase, tiny gift articles and grinded marble is used to produce plastics, paper etc.,

4. One of the world wonders **Taj Mahal** in India was built by White Marble in a metamorphic rock.
5. Sedimentary rocks are the important source of natural resources like **coal, oil and natural gas**.
6. Oldest sedimentary rocks of the world has been identified in Greenland and estimated as **3.9 billion years old**.
7. Some major Active Volcanoes: **Mount Vesuvius, Mt. Stromboli and Mt. Etna in Italy and Mauna Loa and Mauna Kea in Hawaii Islands**.
8. The word Igneous is derived from the **Latin word 'Ignis' means 'fire'**
9. Petrology is a branch of geology which deals with the study of rocks. **'Petrology' is derived from the Greek word "Petrus" refers to rock and "Logos" refers to study.**

8th Social Science Lesson 6 Notes in English

6. Weather And Climate

Introduction

- Climate is one of the basic elements in the natural environment. **It affects landforms, soil types, fauna and flora.** It influences man to a large extent.
- Weather and climate influence man's activities like what we eat, wear, the house in which we live and work, **farming, sailing, fishing**, modern transport and even our play time etc.
- Hence one should have knowledge about **the weather and climate**.
- So, in this chapter we are going to learn about weather and climate, its elements and how they influence our lifestyle.

Weather

- Weather is the day today conditions(state) of the atmosphere at any place as regards **sunshine, temperature, cloud cover, Wind fog condition, air pressure, humidity**, precipitation and such other elements.
- It refers to short periods like a day, a week, a month or a little longer and as such the weather changes from time to time in a day and one period to the other in an year.
- In the morning the weather might be sunny with a clear sky in a place and evening there might be clouds and rain.
- Similarly the weather is cool in winter and hot in summer. We often hear people saying "Today the climate is good or bad".
- It is incorrect to say like that. Instead it has to be said that the weather is good or bad.
- We could observe the television news readers saying weather report and not the climate report for e.g. cricket match have been postponed due to bad weather etc.

Climate

- Climate is generally defined as the average conditions (state) of the weather of a place or a region.
- The average atmospheric conditions are determined by measuring the weather elements for a long period of time which is usually for **35 years**.
- The elements of weather and climate are the same. The climate does not change often like weather.

Controlling factors of weather and climate

- Angle of the sun's rays, **the length of daytime, altitude, distribution of land and water bodies, location and direction of mountain ranges, air pressure, winds and ocean currents** are the major factors which affect the weather and climate of a region.

- The earth is spherical in shape. So, the sun's rays fall unevenly on the earth's surface.
- The Polar regions receive slanting sun's rays. Hence there **is little or no sunlight**, thus there is an extreme cold winters.
- Vertical sun's ray's fall directly on regions around the equator, hence the climate is very hot and almost no winters.
- The difference in temperature makes the air and water move in currents. **Warm air rises and creates more space for air beneath, while cool air settles down.**

Elements of weather and climate

Temperature, rainfall, pressure, humidity and wind are the major elements of weather and climate.

Temperature

- Temperature is one of the key elements of weather and climate. The earth and its atmosphere get heated from the sun through **insolation**.
- The degree of heat present in the air is termed as temperature. Apart from sun's rays, the heat in air also depends the atmospheric mass to a small extent.
- Temperature varies with time due to changes in the level of radiation which reach the earth surface.
- This is due to motions of the earth (**The rotation and revolution**) and inclination of the earth's axis.
- The temperature influences the level of humidity, the process of evaporation, condensation and precipitation.
- Heat energy from solar radiation is received by the earth through three mechanisms. They are radiation, conduction and convection.
- The Earth's atmosphere is heated more by **terrestrial radiation than insolation**.

Factors affecting the distribution of temperature

Isotherm	Equal temperature
Isocryme	Equal lowest mean temperature for a specified period
Isohel	Equal sunshine
Isolobar	Equal pressure tendency showing similar changes over a given time
Isobar	Equal atmospheric pressure
Isohyet	Equal amount of rainfall

Latitude, altitude, nature of land, ocean currents, prevailing winds, slope, shelter and distance from the sea, natural vegetation and soil are the major factors which affect the distribution of temperature.

Measuring Temperature

- The temperature of a unit volume of air at a given time is measured in scales like **Celsius, Fahrenheit, and Kelvin**.
- Meteorologist measures the temperature by the **Thermometer, Stevenson screen and minimum and maximum Thermometer**.
- The energy received by the earth through insolation is lost by outgoing radiation. Atmosphere is mainly heated by outgoing radiation from **2 to 4pm**.
- So the maximum temperature is recorded between **2 and 4 pm** regularly and minimum temperature is recorded around 4 am before sunrise.

Mean Temperature

- The average of maximum and minimum temperatures within **24 hours** is called mean daily temperature $[(87^{\circ}\text{F} + 73^{\circ}\text{F})/2 = 80^{\circ}\text{F}]$.
- Diurnal range of temperature is the difference between the maximum and minimum temperatures of a day.
- Annual range of temperature is the difference between the highest and lowest mean monthly temperatures of a year.
- The distribution of temperature is shown by means of Isotherms. Isotherms are imaginary lines which connect the same temperatures of different places.

Heat zones of the earth

- The fact that the earth is spherical in shape results in different parts of the earth getting heated differently.
- Based on the heat received from the sun, Earth is divided into three heat zones. They are

Torrid Zone

- It is a region between the tropic of cancer and the tropic of Capricorn.
- This region receives the direct rays of the sun and gets the maximum heat from the sun.
- This zone known as the torrid or the tropical zone

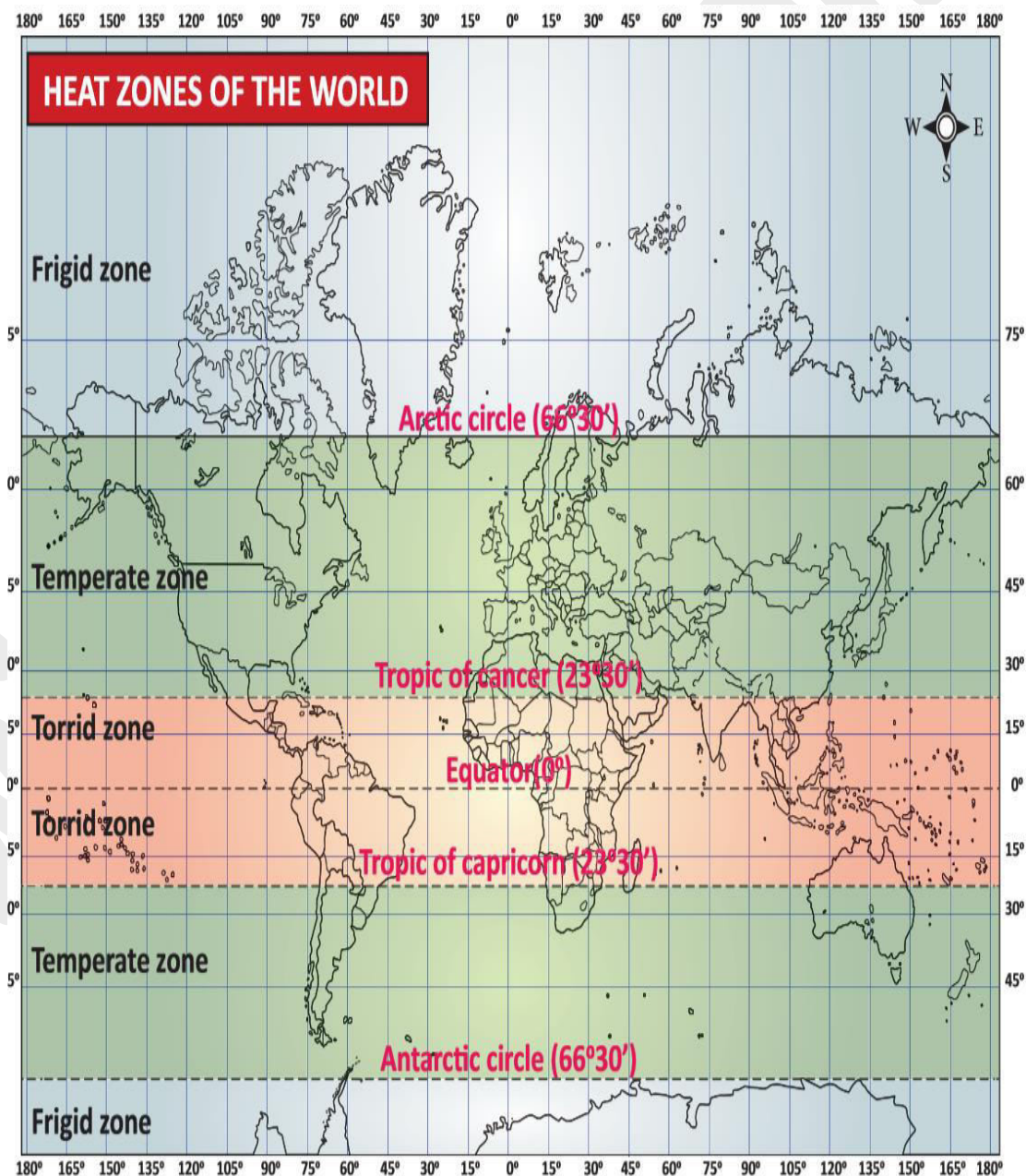
Temperate zone

- This zone lies between the Tropic of cancer and the Arctic circle in the Northern Hemisphere and between the Tropic of Capricorn and the Antarctic circle in the southern Hemisphere.

- This zone gets the slanting rays of the sun and the angle of the sun's rays goes on decreasing towards the poles.
- Thus this zone experiences moderate temperature.

Frigid Zone

- The frigid zone lies between the Arctic circle and the North Pole and between the Antarctic circle and the South Pole.
- This region also known as Polar region.
- Since it receives the extremely low temperature throughout the year, these regions are covered with snow.



Rainfall



Raingauge

- Rain is a liquid water in the form of droplets that have condensed from atmospheric water vapour and then become heavy enough to fall under gravity.
- Rain is a major component of the water cycle and is responsible for depositing most of the fresh water on the Earth. It is the source of water for all purposes.
- There is a close relationship between the temperature and rainfall distribution.
- Generally rainfall is high in the equatorial region and decreases gradually towards poles. Rainfall is measured by Raingauge.

Air Pressure



Aneroid Barometer

- The weight of air above a given area on the earth's surface is called atmospheric pressure or air pressure.
- The air pressure is measured by Barometer. The standard air pressure at sea level is **1013.25mb**.
- At the earth's surface the pressure is **1.03kg.per sq cm**. The variation in standard atmospheric pressure is found both horizontally and vertically.
- Based on the level of pressure, it is categorised into low pressure and high pressure.

- Low pressure area is an area in the atmosphere where the pressure is lower than its surrounding areas.
- In this situation, the wind from the surroundings blow towards the centre of low pressure.
- High pressure is an area of atmosphere where the barometric pressure is higher than its surrounding areas.
- In this case, the wind from the centre of high pressure blows towards the surrounding low pressure areas.
- Low pressure system is marked as **"L"** on weather map, where as the high pressure system is marked as **"H"**.
- Low pressure systems are also called as a depression and cyclones. High pressure system is called anti cyclones. Low pressure leads to cloudiness, wind, and precipitation.
- High pressure leads to fair and calm weather. Isobar is used to show the distribution of air pressure.
- Humans are not sensitive to small variation in air pressure.
- But the small variations in pressure that do exist largely determine the wind and storm patterns of the earth.
- The distribution of atmospheric pressure is controlled by **altitude, atmospheric temperature, air circulation, earth rotation, water Vapour, atmospheric storms etc.**

Measuring air pressure

Meteorologist uses **barometer/aneroid barometer** to measure the air pressure. Barograms are used for recording continuous variation in atmospheric pressure.

Humidity



Hygrometer

- Humidity refers to the degree of water vapour present in the atmosphere in gaseous form in particular time and place.
- It ranges from **0-5 percent** by volume in atmosphere. Climatically it is an important constituent of the atmosphere and its quantity depends on the level of temperature.
- So, the level of humidity decreases towards poles from equator. Humidity is expressed in different ways.
- **Specific humidity** is a ratio of the water vapor content of the mixture to the total air content on a mass basis. It is expressed in grams of vapour per kilogram of air
- **Absolute Humidity** is the mass or weight of water vapour present per unit volume of air. It is expressed usually in grams per cubic meter of air.
- **Relative humidity** is a ratio between the actual amount of water vapour present in the air and the maximum amount of water vapour it can hold at a given temperature. It is expressed as a percentage.
- Generally, warm air holds more water vapour than the cold air. When relative humidity reaches **100%**, the air gets saturated.
- In this condition the temperature is said to be at dew-point. Further cooling will condense the water vapour into the clouds and rain.
- Relative humidity affects human health and comfortness. Very high and very low humidity are injurious to health. It also affects the stability of different objects, buildings and electrical applications.

Measurement of Humidity

- Hygrometer is used to measure the humidity. (which comprises wet and dry bulb plate side by side in the Stevenson screen)

Wind

- The **horizontal movement of air is called wind**. Vertical movement of air is said as air current. The winds move from high pressure to low pressure.
- Unlike other elements a wind is made up of a series of gusts and eddies which can only be felt and not seen.
- Winds get their name from the direction from which they blow i.e, wind blows from south west is called southwest wind.
- The wind systems are broadly categorized into three as follows.
- Planetary winds
- Seasonal winds
- Local winds
- **Planetary Winds** are the ones which blow almost in the same direction throughout the year. So, they are called as Permanent or planetary winds.

- **Trade winds**, Westerlies and polar easterlies are the types of prevailing winds. Seasonal winds are those which change their direction according to season in a year. They are called as monsoon winds.
- These winds blow from sea to land during summer and land to sea during winter.
- **Local winds** are the winds blow over a small area only during a particular time of a day or a short period of a year.
- Land and sea breezes are example of these winds. The **Beaufort scale** is a scale for measuring wind speed.
- It is based on observation rather than accurate measurement. It is the most widely used system to measure wind speed today.
- The scale was developed in 1805 by **Francis Beaufort**, an officer of the Royal Navy and first officially used by HMS Beagle.

Measuring wind direction and speed



Anemometer

- Meteorologist measures wind direction using wind vane or weather cock. Wind speed is measured by anemometer.
- Wind rose is a diagram used to depict the direction and periods (No. of days) of prevailing winds on map.
- Meteorograph or triple register is an instrument which records wind speed and direction, sunshine and precipitation.
- It also provides graphic representation.

More to Know:

1. **Al-Balakhi**, an Arab Geographer collected climatic data from the Arab travellers and prepared the First climatic Atlas of the world
2. Brazil has a large area where the average wind speed is low. **Gabon, Congo and DR Congo in Africa, Sumatra, Indonesia and Malaysia** are the least windy places on earth.

3. With decreasing air pressure, the availability of oxygen to breath also decreases.

- At very high altitudes, atmospheric pressure and available oxygen get so low that people can become sick and even die.
- Mountain climbers use bottled oxygen when they ascend very high peaks.
- They also take time to get used to the altitude as the quick move from high pressure to low pressure can cause decompression sickness.
- Aircraft create artificial pressure in the cabin which makes the passengers remain comfortable while flying.

4. Why Do Your Ears Pop in Airplanes?

As you go up in an airplane, the atmospheric pressure becomes lower than the pressure of the air inside your ears. Your ears pop because they are trying to equalize or match the pressure. The same thing happens when the plane is on the way down and your ears have to adjust to a higher atmospheric pressure.

5. Highest pressure ever recorded

The highest ever air pressure at sea level was recorded at **Agata, Russia on 31st December, 1968.**
The pressure was 1083.8mb

6. Lowest pressure ever recorded

The lowest pressure of 870mb was recorded at **Typhoon Tip, near Guam, Mariana Island in Pacific Ocean on 12th October, 1979.**

7. Highest Temperature ever recorded

The highest temperature ever recorded on the earth is **56.7°C (134°F)**. It was recorded on **10th July 1913 at Greenland Ranch of Death Valley, California, USA.**

8. Lowest Temperature ever recorded

The lowest temperature ever recorded on the earth is **-89.2 °C (-128.6 °F; 184.0 K)**. It was recorded on **21st July, 1983 at Soviet Vostok Station in Antarctica.**

9. Temperature varies both horizontally and vertically. Temperature decreases with increasing height is known as Lapse rate which is **6.5 degree celsius per 1000 meters in troposphere.**

10. The word Climate is derived from the **ancient Greek word "Klimo" which means "Inclination".**

11. Scientific study of weather is called Meteorology and the scientific study of climate is called climatology.

12. Earth's atmosphere is a layer of gases surrounding the planet earth and retained by the earth's gravity. It contains about **78% nitrogen, 21% oxygen, 0.97% argon, 0.03% carbon dioxide and 0.04% trace amounts of other gases and water vapour.**

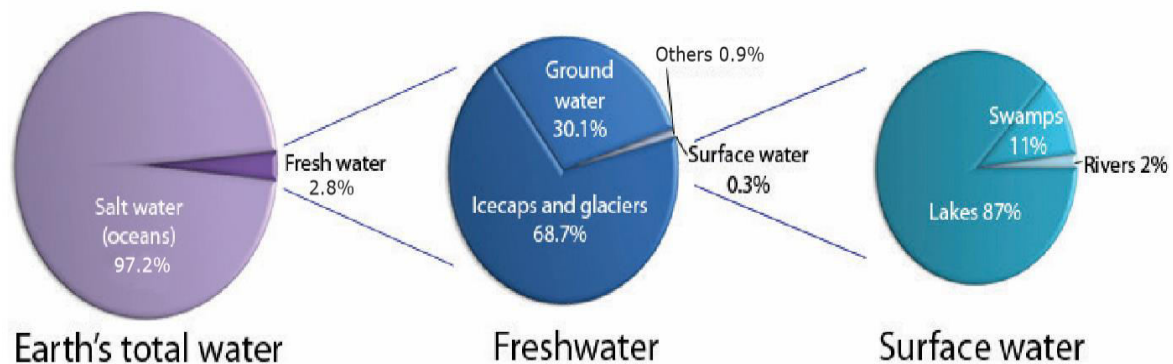
8th Social Science Lesson 7 Notes in English

7. Hydrological Cycle

Introduction

- Water is one of the most important elements on earth. All plants and animals need water for survival.
- Apart from drinking, water is required for domestic, agriculture, industrial purposes etc.
- Water is very essential for carrying out almost all economic activities. So, water is an **indispensible element without which life form on the earth is not possible.**

Water on the Earth

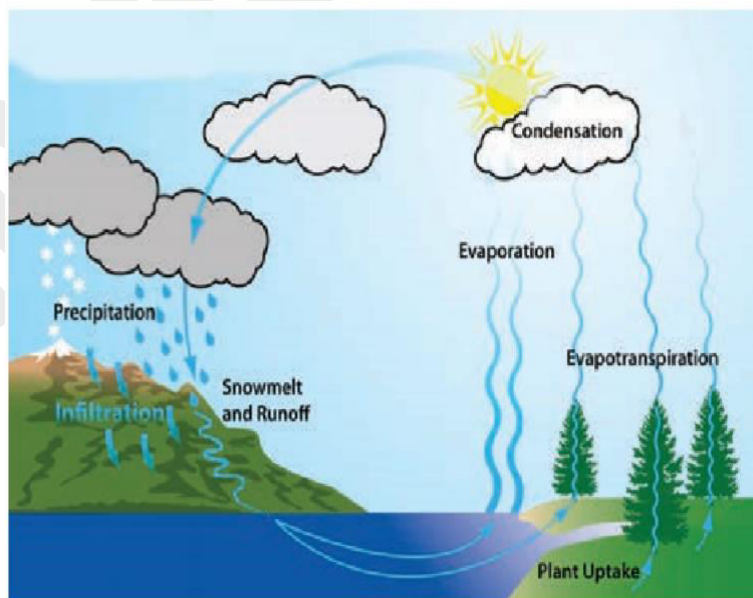


Water on the Earth

- About **71%** of the earth's surface is covered by water. The quantity of water present on the earth is about **326 million cubic miles**. It is hard to visualise this massive quantity of water.
- Most of the water on the earth is saline and is found in seas and oceans.
- The salt water constitutes about **97.2%** and the **fresh water is only about 2.8%**. Out of this **2.8%**, about **2.2%** is available as surface water and the remaining **0.6%** as groundwater. From this **2.2%** of surface water, **2.15%** is available in the form of glaciers and icecaps, **0.01%** in lakes and streams and the remaining **0.04%** is in other forms.
- Only about **0.25%** of the total ground water of **0.6%** can be economically extracted with the present drilling technology.
- Water resources are useful or potentially useful to humans. Water in India is available in three sources. They are precipitation, surface water and groundwater.

Water Source	Volume of water (Cubic Miles)	Percentage to Total Water
Oceans, Seas, & Bays	321,000,000	96.54
Ice caps, Glaciers, & Permanent Snow	5,773,000	1.74
Groundwater	5,614,000	1.69
Soil Moisture	3,959	0.001
Ground Ice & Permafrost	71,970	0.022
Lakes	42,320	0.013
Atmosphere	3,095	0.001
Swamp Water	2,752	0.0008
Rivers	509	0.0002
Biological Water	269	0.0001

Hydrologic Cycle or Water Cycle



Hydrologic Cycle

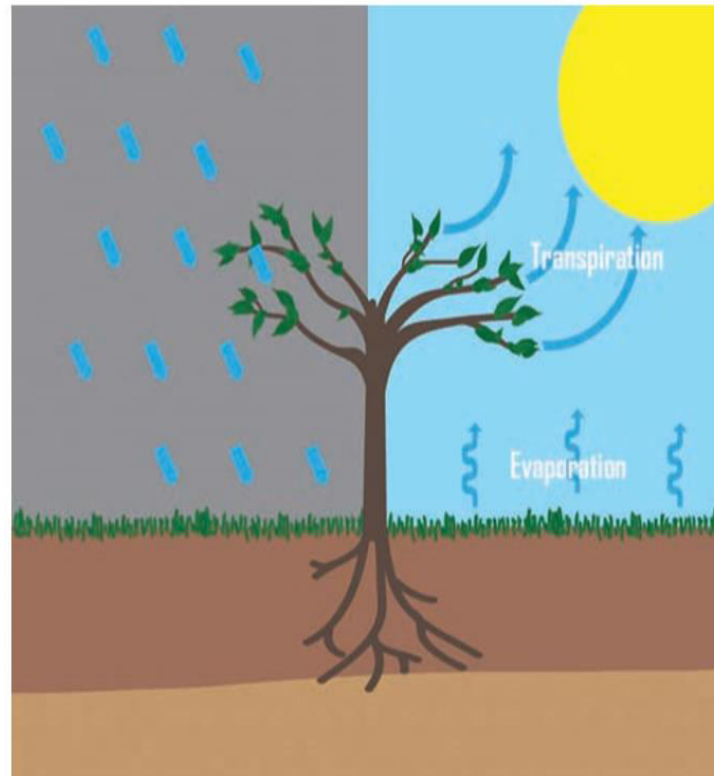
- Hydrology is the science which deals with the various aspects of water such as its occurrence, distribution, movement and properties on the planet earth.
- Availability of water on the earth is not uniform. Some places are very rich in water resources while **some other places are poor in water resources**.
- Hydrologic cycle is a global sun-driven process where water is transported from oceans to atmosphere, from atmosphere to land and from land back to oceans.
- The water cycle can be considered as a closed system for the earth, as the quantity of **water involved in the cycle is invariable, though its distribution varies over space and time**.
- Evaporation takes place from the surface water and transpiration from the plants.
- Water vapour gets condensed at higher altitudes by condensation nuclei and form clouds (**resulting in droplet growth**).
- The clouds melt and sometimes burst resulting in precipitation of different forms.
- A part of water from **precipitation flows over the land is called runoff and the other part infiltrates into the soil** which builds up the groundwater.
- Hydrologic cycle is a circulation of water. It is a continuous process and takes place naturally.
- The three important phases of the hydrologic cycle are:
 - 1) Evapotranspiration
 - 2) Precipitation
 - 3) Runoff.

Components of Hydrologic Cycle

There are six main components in hydrologic cycle. They are:

- Evapotranspiration
- Condensation
- Precipitation
- Infiltration
- Percolation
- Runoff.

Evapotranspiration



Evapotranspiration

- It is defined as the total loss of water from the earth through evaporation from the surface water bodies and the transpiration from vegetation.
- In cropped area, it is difficult to determine the evaporation and transpiration separately. Therefore it is collectively called as evapotranspiration.

Evaporation

- Evaporation refers to the process in which the liquid form of water changes into gaseous form. Water boils at **100°C (212°F) temperature** but, it actually begins to evaporate at **0°C (32°F)**; and the process takes place very slowly.
- Temperature is the prime element which affects the rate of evaporation.
- There is a positive relationship between these two variables. Areal extent of surface water, wind and the atmospheric humidity are the other variables which affect the rate of evaporation.
- Many studies reveal that the oceans, seas, lakes and rivers provide nearly **90 %** of the moisture in the atmosphere through evaporation and the remaining **10 %** is contributed by plants through transpiration.
- On a global scale, the amount of water gets evaporated is about the same as the amount of water delivered to earth as precipitation. This process varies geographically, as the

evaporation is more prevalent over the oceans than precipitation, while over the land, precipitation routinely exceeds evaporation.

- The rate of evaporation is low during the periods of calm winds than during windy times.
- When the air is calm, evaporated water tends to stay close to the water body.
- During windy, the water vapour is driven away and is replaced by dry air which facilitates additional evaporation.

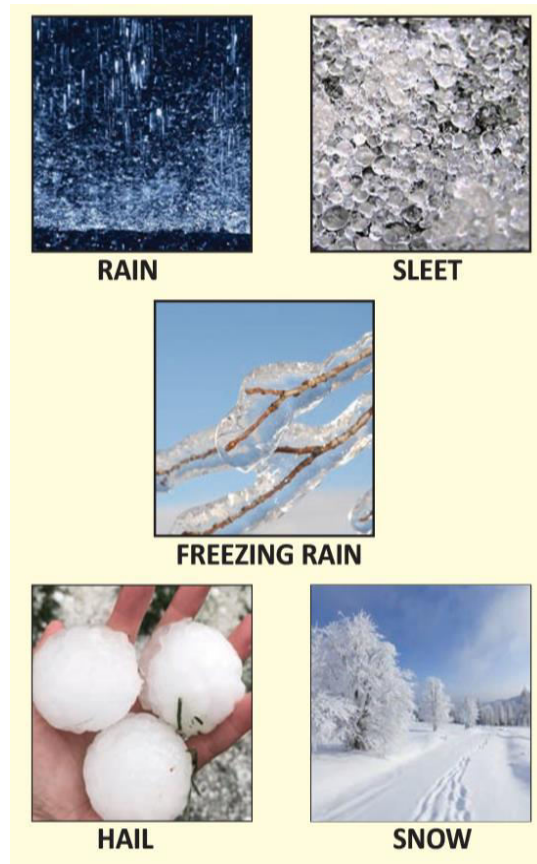
Transpiration

- Transpiration refers to the **process by which the water content in the plants are released into the atmosphere in the form of water vapour.**
- Much of the water taken up by plants is released through transpiration.
- The rate of transpiration is also affected by the temperature, wind and humidity.
- The soil water content and the ability of the soil to conduct water to the roots, the nature of the plant parts including barks and leaves also determine the transpiration rate.
- In case of agriculture, the crop characteristics, its **environment and cultivation practices also affect the transpiration process.**

Condensation

- It refers to the process in which the gaseous form of water changes into liquid form. Condensation generally occurs in the atmosphere when **warm air rises, cools and loses its capacity to hold water vapour.**
- As a result, excess water vapour condenses to form cloud droplets. Condensation is responsible for the formation of clouds.
- These clouds produce precipitation which is the primary route for water to return to the earth's surface in the water cycle.
- **Condensation is the opposite of evaporation.**

Forms of Condensation



Dew, Fog and Clouds are the three major forms of condensation

Dew:

- It is a water droplet formed by the condensation of water vapour on a relatively cold surface of an object.
- It forms when the temperature of an object drops below the dew point temperature.

Frost:

- The ice crystals formed by deposition of water vapour on a relatively cold surface of an object is known as frost.
- It forms when the temperature of an object drops below the freezing point of temperature.

Fog:

- Fog is the suspended tiny water droplets or ice crystals in an air layer next to the earth's surface that reduces the visibility to **1,000 m or lower**.
- For aviation purposes, the criterion for fog is **10 km or less**.

Mist:

- Mist is the tiny droplets of water hanging in the air.

- These droplets form when the water vapour in the air is rapidly cooled, causing it to change from invisible gas to tiny visible water droplets. Mist is less dense than fog.

Clouds:

- Clouds consist of tiny water droplets/ice particles which are so small and light in weight. Clouds are formed by microscopic drops of water or by small ice crystals.
- The size of the droplets generally range from a couple of microns to **100 microns**. This is the limit beyond which cloud drops become rain drops.

Precipitation

- Precipitation refers to **all forms of water that fall from clouds and reaches the earth's surface**.
- For the occurrence of precipitation, cloud droplets or ice crystals must grow heavy enough to fall through the air. When the droplets grow large in size, they tend to fall.
- While moving down, by collecting some small droplets, they become heavy enough to fall out of the cloud as raindrops.

Forms of Precipitation

- The form of precipitation in a region depends on the kind of weather or the climate of the region.
- The precipitation in the warmer parts of the world is always in the form of rain or drizzle.
- In colder regions, precipitation may fall as snow or ice. Common types of **precipitation include rain, sleet, freezing rain, hail and snow**.

Rain:

- The most common kind of precipitation is rain. The precipitation in the form of water droplets is called rain.
- The precipitation in which the **size of rain drops are <0.5 mm in diameter is known as drizzle and the rain drops with >0.5 mm in diameter is known as rain**. Generally drizzle takes place from stratus clouds.

Sleet:

- The precipitation which takes place in the form of mixture of water droplets and tiny particles of ice (**5mm in diameter**) is known as sleet.
- Sometimes raindrops fall through a layer of **air below 0°C**, the freezing point of water.
- As they fall, the raindrops freeze into solid particles of ice. So, the mixture of water droplets and ice particles would fall on the earth surface.

Freezing Rain:

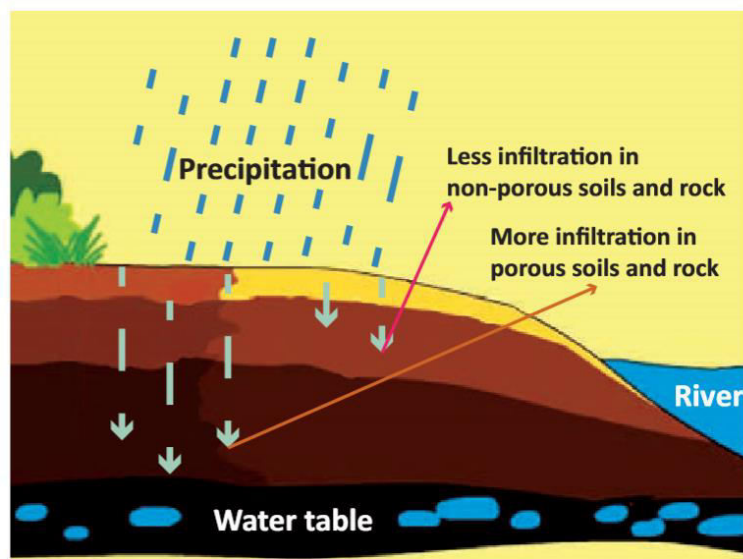
- At other times raindrops falling through cold air near the ground do not freeze in the air. Instead, the raindrops freeze when they touch a cold surface.
- This is called freezing rain and the drops of water are **usually greater than 0.5 mm in diameter**.

Hail:

- The precipitation which consists of round pellets of ice which are **larger than 5 mm in diameter** is called hail or hailstones.
- Hail forms only in cumulonimbus clouds during thunderstorms.
- A hailstone starts as an ice pellet inside a cold region of a cloud.
- Strong updrafts in the cloud carry the hailstone up and down through the cold region many times.

Snow:

- Often water vapour in a cloud is converted directly into snow pieces due to lowering of temperature. It appears like a powdery mass of ice.
- The precipitation in the form of powdery mass of ice is known as snowfall. It is common in the polar and high mountainous regions.

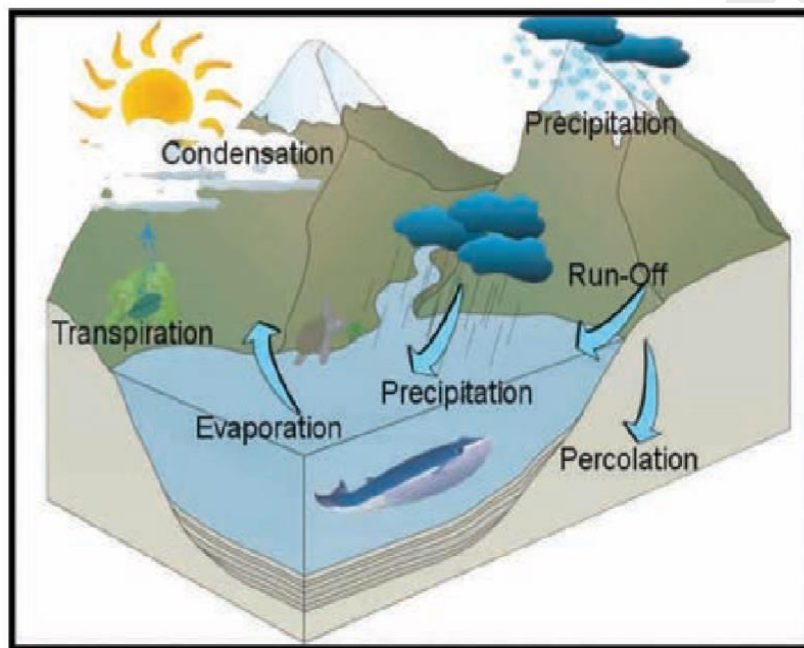
Infiltration

Infiltration Process

- Water entering the soil at the surface of the ground is termed as infiltration.
- Infiltration allows **the soil temporarily to store water, making it available for plants use and organisms in the soil**.

- Infiltration is an important process where rain water soaks into the ground, through the soil and underlying rock layers.
- Some of this water ultimately returns to the surface through springs or low spots down hills. Some of the water remains underground and is called groundwater.
- The rate of infiltration is influenced by the physical characteristics of **the soil, vegetative cover, moisture content of the soil, soil temperature and rainfall intensity**.
- The terms infiltration and percolation are often used interchangeably.

Percolation



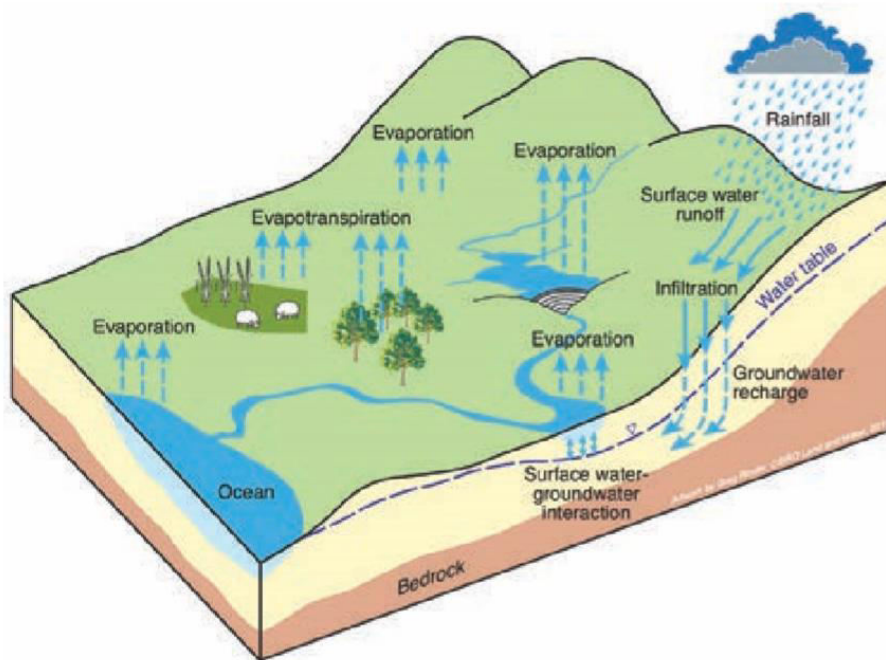
- Percolation is the downward movement of infiltrated water through soil and rock layers.
- Infiltration occurs near the surface of the soil and delivers water from the surface into the soil and plant root zones.
- Percolation moves the infiltrated water through the soil profile and rock layers which leads to the formation of ground water or become a part of sub-surface run-off process.
- Thus, the percolation process represents the flow of water from unsaturated zone to the saturated zone.

Runoff

- Runoff is the water that is pulled by gravity across land's surface.
- It replenishes groundwater and surface water as it percolates into an aquifer (**it is an underground layer of water-bearing rock**) or moves into a river, stream or watershed.
- It comes from unabsorbed water from rain, snowmelt, irrigation or other sources, comprising a significant element in the water cycle as well as the water supply when it drains into a watershed.

- Runoff is also a major contributor to the erosion which carves out **canyons, gorges and related landforms**.
- The amount of runoff that can happen depends on the amount of rainfall, porosity of soil, vegetation and slope.
- Only about **35% of precipitation ends up in the sea or ocean** and the other 65% is absorbed into the soil.

Types of Runoff



Runoff Process

Based on the time interval between the instance of rainfall and generation of runoff, the runoff may be classified into following three types.

Surface Runoff:

- It is the portion of rainfall, which enters the stream immediately after the rainfall. It occurs, when the rainfall is longer, heavier and exceeds the rate of infiltration.
- In this condition the excess water makes a head over the ground surface, which tends to move from one place to another following land gradient and is known as overland flow.
- When the overland flow joins the streams, channels or oceans, it is termed as surface runoff or surface flow.

Sub-Surface Runoff:

- The water that **has entered the subsoil and moves laterally without joining the water-table to the streams, rivers or oceans** is known as sub-surface runoff.
- The sub-surface runoff is usually referred as interflow.

Base Flow:

- It is a flow of underground water from a saturated ground water zone to a water channel.
- It usually appears at a downstream location where the channel elevation is lower than the groundwater table.
- Groundwater provides the stream flow during **dry periods of small or no precipitation**.

More to know:**1. Units of the Measurement pertaining to Hydrology**

- Evaporation /interception - inches (or) cm
- Infiltration - inches (or) cm / hour
- Precipitation - inches (or) mm (or) cm
- Run off - inches (or) mm (or) cm
- Run off rate - cubic feet per second
- Run off volume - acre feet (or) cubic feet
- Storage - cubic feet (or) acre feet.

2. Condensation occurs when the air get saturated.

3. Warm air can hold more water vapour than the cool air.

4. Saturation occurs when the temperature drops down.

5. The rate of evaporation increases with

- Increase in wind speed
- Increase in temperature
- Decrease in humidity
- Increase in areal extent of surface water bodies.

8th Social Science Lesson 8 Notes in English

8. How the State Government Works?

Introduction

- There are two sets of government in our country – the central government and the state government.
- There are **28 state** governments in our country; every State has a government to run its own administration.
- The States have their own executive and legislature and Judiciary.
- The state executive consists of **the Governor and the Council of Ministers headed by the Chief Minister**.
- The Governor is an integral part of the State legislature.

The State Executive

The Governor

- The Constitution provides for the post of the **Governor as the Head of a State in India. He is appointed by the President of India.**
- He is the constitutional Head of a State. The Governor is appointed for a **term of five years**. But before the expiry of his full term, the President can dismiss him from office.
- The Governor may also resign on his own interest. His term of office may be extended and he may be transferred to another State.
- However, the State Government cannot remove the Governor from his post.
- To be the Governor, a person must be a citizen of India and should have completed **35 years of age**.
- And he cannot be a member of the Parliament or the State legislature. He should not hold any office of profit.

Powers and functions

- The Governor is the Chief Executive in a State. All the executive powers of the State are vested upon him and decisions are taken in his name.
- He appoints **the Chief Minister and Council of Ministers**. He makes some important appointments of the State Government, such as, the
- Advocate general, Chairman and members of the State Public Service Commission and others.
- The President imposes emergency in a State under **Article 356** on the basis of the report of the Governor. The Governor also acts as the Chancellor of State Universities.

- He summons and prorogues the sessions of the State legislature and he can dissolve the Legislative Assembly.
- Money bills can be introduced in the State Legislative Assembly only with the approval of the Governor.
- The Governor may promulgate ordinances when the Legislative Assembly or both the Houses of the legislature (**when there are two Houses**) are not in session.
- The Governor may nominate one member from the Anglo- India Community to the Legislative Assembly if there are **Anglo-Indian people** in a State and when they are not duly represented in the State legislature.
- He may also nominate **1/6 members** of the Legislature Council from among persons who are experts in the **fields of science, literature, arts, social service and co- operative movement**.
- The annual budget of the State Government is laid before the legislature with the approval of the Governor.
- The Governor must give his assent to all the bills passed in the legislature including money bills.
- The Contingency fund of the State is also placed at the disposal of the Governor.

Position of the Governor

- The position of the Governor of a State is compared to the President of India as a nominal executive.
- But the Governor is not always a nominal executive. He can exercise his powers in the real sense on some occasions.
- He **acts as an agent of the Central Government in a State**. Therefore, he is responsible for maintaining relation between the Central Government and the State Government.
- The Governor may advise the Council of Ministers when faces difficult situations. The President declares emergency in a State on the basis of the report of the Governor regarding the law and order situation in the State.
- The Governor takes independent decisions while exercising discretionary powers.
- He may seek information from the Council of Ministers regarding various activities of the Government.

The Chief Minister

- The Governor appoints the **leader of the majority party in the State Legislative Assembly as the Chief Minister**.
- He is the head of the State Council of Ministers. The Chief Minister has no fixed term of office.
- He remains in office so long as he gets support of the majority members of the Legislative Assembly. When he loses support in the legislature, he has to resign.

- The resignation of the Chief Minister means the resignation of the whole Council of Ministers in the State.
- The Chief Minister must be a member of the State Legislature. If he is not a member of the State legislature at the time of his taking over charge, **he must be so within a period of six months.**

Powers and Functions

- The Chief Minister is the chief administrator of the State. All major decisions of the State Government are taken under his leadership.
- The Chief Minister plays an important role in the formation of the Council of Ministers. On the advice of the **Chief Minister, the Governor appoints the other Ministers.**
- The Chief Minister supervises the activities of different ministries and advises them accordingly. He also coordinates the activities of different ministries.
- **The Chief Minister plays an important role in making policies of the State Government.** He has to ensure that the policies of the government do not go against public interest. His voice is final in policy decisions of the State Government.
- He plays an important role in making higher appointments of the State Government.
- The Governor appoints different higher officials of the State Government on the advice of the Chief Minister and his Council of Ministers.

The Legislature

In India, the State Legislature consists of the **Governor and one or two houses. The upper house is called the Legislative Council while the lower house is called the Legislative Assembly.**

Legislative Council

states with bicameral legislature



- The Constitution provides that the total strength of the **Legislative Council must not be less than 40 and not more than 1/3 of the total strength** of the Legislative Assembly of the State. The members of the Legislative Council are elected indirectly.
- One third of its members are elected by the local government bodies like the District Panchayat and Municipalities.
- Another one third is elected by the members of the Legislative Assembly.
- One twelfth is elected by the graduates of the constituency and another one twelfth by the teachers of secondary schools, colleges and universities.
- One sixth of the members of the Legislative Council are nominated by the Governor of the State.
- The Legislative Council is a permanent house. One-third of its members retire every two years and elections are held to fill the vacant seats.
- The members are elected for a term of six years. To be a member of the Legislative Council, one must be a citizen of India and **should have completed 30 years of age**.
- He cannot be a member of the Legislative Assembly or either of the houses of the Parliament.
- The Chairman is the presiding officer of the Legislative Council. In his absence, the Deputy Chairman presides over its meetings.
- They are elected from among the members of that house.

Legislative Assembly

- The people who make the laws of a state government are called '**Members of the Legislative Assembly**' (MLA).

- MLAs are chosen from different constituencies. For the election of MLAs the entire state is divided into different constituencies.
- These constituencies are called the legislative constituencies. One legislative constituency may have one lakh or even more people.
- One MLA is chosen from each legislative constituency to represent that legislative assembly.

Election to the Assembly

- Different political parties compete in the elections to the legislative assembly. These parties nominate their candidates from each constituency.
- The candidate is that person who contests for the election and asks people to vote for him.
- A person has to be **at least 25 years old** to contest for election to the legislative assembly.
- One person can stand for election in more than one constituency at the same time. Even if a person does not belong to any political party, he can contest election; such candidate is called an independent candidate.
- Every party has its own symbol. Independent candidates are also given election symbol.
- The members of legislative assembly (MLA) are elected directly by the people. All people residing in the area of a legislative constituency who are **18 years** of age can cast a vote in the legislative assembly elections.
- According to the Constitution, a Legislative Assembly **cannot have more than 500 members and not less than 60 members**.
- Some seats in the Legislative Assembly are reserved for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes.
- The Governor can nominate one member from the Anglo-Indian community.
- The members of the Legislative Assembly are elected for a term of five years. But the Governor can dissolve the house before the expiry of its term and can call for fresh elections.
- The meetings of the Assembly are presided over by the Speaker who is elected from among the members of the Assembly. In his absence, the Deputy Speaker conducts its meetings.

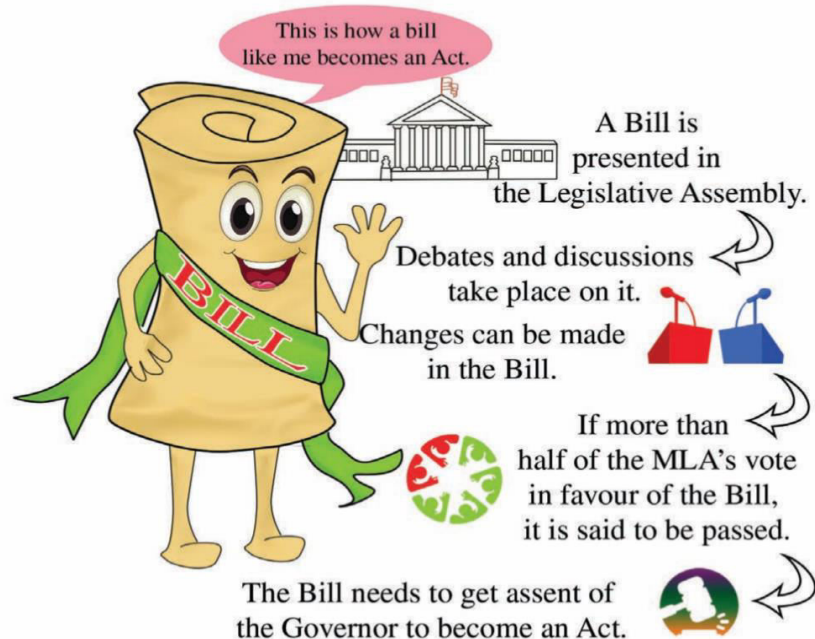
The States Council of Ministers

- The leader of the majority party in the election is chosen as Chief Minister. In Tamil Nadu there are **234 legislative constituencies**.
- The party with more than **118 elected candidates (MLA)** are invited by the governor to form the Government.
- The Chief Minister (**who also should be an MLA**) chooses his ministers from the MLAs of his party.
- Ministers for various departments headed by the Chief Minister is called the State Government.
- So it is said that the party which got majority seats in the election forms the government.

The working of the State Government

- After being elected to the legislative assembly the MLAs are expected to regularly participate in its sittings. The legislative assembly **meets 2 or 3 times in a year**.
- The main duty of the Legislative Assembly is to make laws for the state. It can make law on the subjects mentioned in the state list and the concurrent list.
- However, during state emergency, it cannot exercise its legislative power. The assembly has control over the State council of Ministers.
- The State council of ministers are responsible or answerable to the Assembly for its activities.
- The Assembly may pass a no confidence motion against the council of Ministers and bring its downfall if it is not satisfied with the performance of the council of Ministers.
- The legislative Assembly has control over the finances of the state. A money bill can be introduced only in the Assembly.
- The government cannot impose, increase, lower or withdraw any tax without the approval of the Assembly.
- The elected members of the Legislative Assembly can take part in the election of the president of India and all members can take part in the election of the members of the Rajya Sabha from the state.
- The Assembly also takes part in the amendment of the Constitution on certain matters. So the government has three basic functions: making laws, executing laws and ensuring justice.

How laws are made in State Government?



- Several kinds of rules and laws have been made for all people of our country. For instance, there is a law that you cannot keep a gun without having a licence for it.
- Or that woman cannot marry before the age of 18 years old and men cannot marry before the **age of 21 years**.
- These rules and laws have not been made just like that. People elected their government who thought carefully before making such laws.
- A lot of such laws are made by the state and central government. In the legislative assembly meetings, MLAs discuss a number of topics **like public works, education, law and order and various problems faced by the state**.
- The MLAs can ask questions to know the activities of ministries, which the concerned ministers have to answer.
- The legislative assembly makes laws on certain issues. The process of law making as follows:

Executing Laws

- It is the job of the state's council of ministers to execute the law. **The legislative assembly of Tamilnadu is located at Chennai.**
- The place where a state's legislative assembly is located and where its council of ministers function is called the capital of that state.
- The state government has several lakhs of government employees to execute the laws made by the legislative assembly- Collectors, Tahsildars, Block Development Officers, Revenue officers, Village Administrative Officers, Policemen, Teachers and Doctors, etc.
- All of them are paid salaries by the state government. They have to follow the orders of the state government.

Judiciary of State

High Courts

- The High court stands at the apex of the State Judiciary. As per the constitution there shall be a High Court in each state.
- But there may be a common High Court for two or more states and Union Territories. The State High Court consists of a Chief Justice and such other Judges as the President may appoint from time to time if necessary.
- The number of judges in the High Courts is not uniform and fixed. The President appoints the Chief Justice of High Court in consultation with the Chief Justice of India and the Governor of the state.

A Judge of High Court must have the following qualification:

- He must be a citizen of India

- He must have at least ten years' experience as head of the judicial office in the territory of India.
- He must have at least ten years' experience as an advocate in one or more High Courts.
- A Judge of High Court holds the office until he completes the age of 62 years.
- A Judge of the High Court can be removed from office only for proven misbehaviour or incapacity and only in the same manner in which a Judge of the Supreme Court is removed.

Power and Functions of the High Court

- The High Court has been empowered to issue writs of **Habeas corpus, Mandamus, Prohibition, Certiorari and Quo Warranto** for the enforcement of the fundamental rights and for other purposes.
- Every High Court has a general power of superintendence over all the lower courts and tribunals within its jurisdiction except military courts and tribunals.
- If a case is pending before a sub – ordinate court and the High Court is satisfied that it involves a substantial question of the constitutional law, it can take up the case and decide it itself.
- The High Court controls all the subordinate courts in the State.
- Like the Supreme Court, the High Court also acts as a Court of Record. For the purpose of judicial administration, each state is divided into a number of districts, each under the jurisdiction of a district judge.
- The district court Judges were appointed by the Governor. In the exercise of the above mentioned powers, the High Court enjoys full powers and freedom to act within its jurisdiction.
- The constitutional safeguards have ensured its independent working.

More to Know:

1. The State legislature follows the same procedure for passing an ordinary or a money bill like that of the Parliament. In State legislatures also, the Legislative Assembly which is the lower house is more powerful than the Legislative Council which is the upper house.
2. At present, only six states in India have Legislative Council in their legislature. They are **Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Maharashtra, Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh and Telengana**.
3. While appointing the Governor, the President acts as per the advice of the Union Cabinet. The State Government is also consulted when the appointment is to be made. Generally, a person is not appointed Governor in his own State.

8th Social Science Lesson 9 Notes in English

9. Citizens and Citizenship

Introduction

- Civics is the study of government. The word 'Citizen' is derived from the Latin word 'Civis' which means resident of a City State of Ancient Rome.
- After the disappearance of City State system, it has been used to mean a member of the State.
- The citizens of a state enjoy full civil and political rights.

Citizen and Citizenship

- Citizen is a person of a country who is entitled to enjoy all the legal rights and privileges granted by a state and is obligated to obey its laws and to fulfill his duties.
- Citizenship is the **status given to the citizens which provide them the right to legally live in a country** as long as they want.

Types of Citizen

There are two types of citizens, Natural and Naturalised citizens.

- **Natural citizens:** are the citizens by birth.
- **Naturalised citizens:** are the one who acquires citizenship.

Acquisition of citizenship

The citizenship Act of 1955 prescribes five ways of acquiring citizenship. They are by **birth, descent, registration, naturalisation and incorporation of territory.**

By Birth

- A person born in India on or after **26th January 1950 but before 1st July 1987** is a citizen of India by birth irrespective of the nationality of his Parents.
- A person born in India on or after **1st July 1987** is considered as a citizen of India only if either of his Parents is a citizen of India at the time of his birth.
- Those born in India on or after **3rd December 2004** are considered citizens of India or one of whose parents is a citizen of India and the other is not an illegal migrant at the time of their birth.

By Descent

- A Person born outside India on or after **26th January 1950 but before 10th December 1992** is a citizen of India by descent, if his father was a citizen of India at the time of his birth.

- A person born outside India on or after **10th December 1992** is considered as a citizen of India if either of his parents is a citizen of India at the time of his birth.
- From **3rd December 2004 onwards**, a person born outside India shall not be a citizen of India by descent, unless his birth is registered at an Indian consulate within one year of the date of birth.

By Registration

- A Person of Indian origin who is ordinarily resident in any country or place outside undivided India.
- A Person of Indian origin who is ordinarily resident in India for seven years before making an application for registration.
- A Person who is married to a citizen of India and is ordinarily resident in India for seven years before making an application for registration

By Naturalisation

The Central Government may, on an application, grant a certificate of naturalization to any person

- If he is not a citizen of any country where citizens of India are Prevented from becoming subjects or citizens of that country
- a citizen of any country, renounce the citizenship of that country
- he has either resided in India or been in the service of a Government in India or throughout the period of twelve months
- he is a good character and has an adequate knowledge of a language specified in the Eighth Schedule to the Constitution. (**presently 22 languages**)

By incorporation of Territory

- If any foreign territory becomes a part of India, the Government of India specifies the persons who among the people of the territory shall be the citizens of India.
- Such persons become the citizens of India from the notified date.
- For example, when Pondicherry became a part of India, the Government of India issued **the citizenship (Pondicherry) order, 1962**.

Loss of Indian Citizenship

Part II of the Constitution of India (**Article 5-11**) prescribes three ways of losing citizenship.

Renunciation: (is a voluntary act)

When a person after acquiring the citizenship of another country gives up his/her Indian citizenship.

Termination: (takes place by operation of law)

When an Indian citizen voluntarily acquires the citizenship of another country, he/she automatically ceases to be an Indian citizen.

Deprivation: (is a compulsory termination)

The citizenship is deprived on the basis of an order of the Government of India in cases involving acquisition of Indian citizenship by fraud, false representation or being disloyal to the Constitution.

Single citizenship

- Our Indian Constitution provides for only Single citizenship, that is, the Indian citizenship.
- But federal states like **USA and Switzerland** has dual citizenship. (National citizenship and the State citizenship).
- In India, all citizens irrespective of the state in which they are born or reside enjoy the same political and civil rights of citizenship all over the country.

Rights and Duties of Citizen

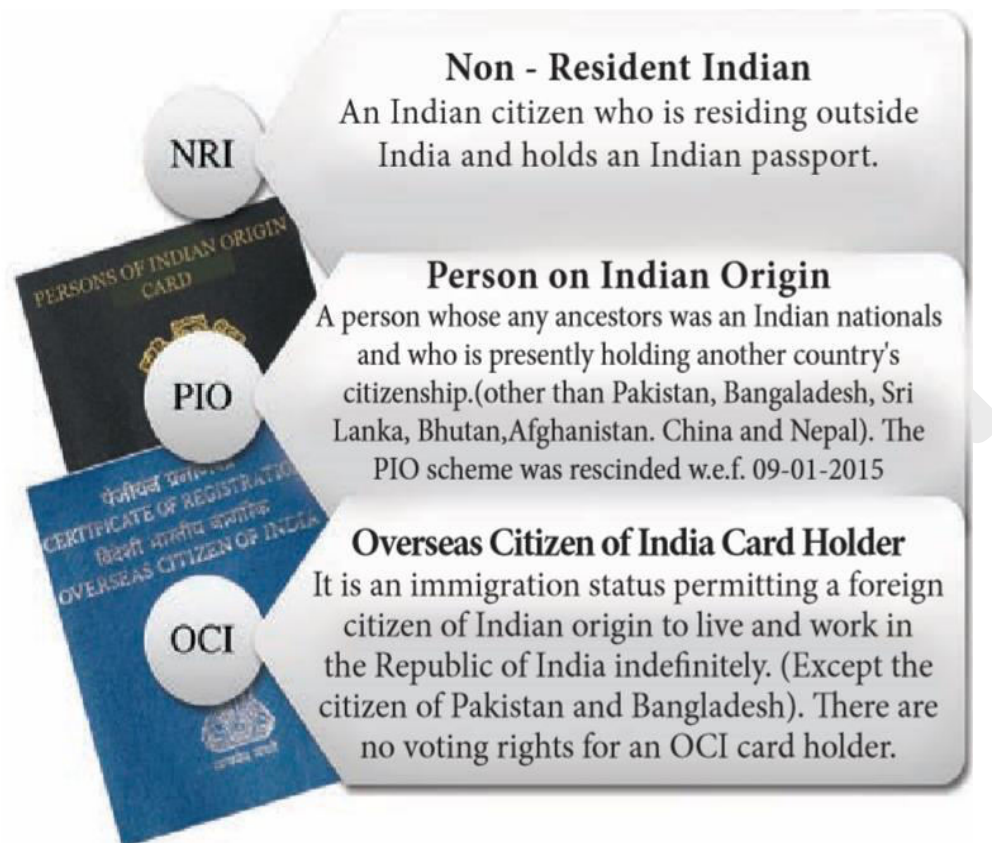
Our Constitution confers the following rights for the citizen of India.

- Fundamental Rights
- Right to vote in the election to the Lok Sabha and the State Legislature
- Right to hold certain public offices
- Right to become the Member of Parliament and State Legislature. According to 42 Amendment of our Constitution, a set of Fundamental Duties are prescribed for all citizens of India. (For e.g. paying taxes honestly, respecting the rights, beliefs and opinions of others, defending the country, respect and obey state and local laws and so on)

Qualities of a good citizen

- Loyalty to the Constitution.
- Obeys laws.
- Contributes to society and community and performs civic duty.
- Quality of goodness and justice.
- Respecting diversity.

Overseas Citizenship of India



Global Citizenship



- Global citizenship is an idea that everyone, no matter where **they live is part of a worldwide community** rather than as the citizen of particular nation or place.
- All people have rights and civic responsibilities.
- It is fundamental in enabling young people to access and participate in shaping modern society.

Conclusion

- Our Constitution of India has introduced Single citizenship and provides uniform rights for the people of India to promote the feeling of fraternity and unity among them to build an integrated Indian nation.

More to Know:

1. Indian Citizenship Act, 1955

This act is to provide for the acquisition and termination of Indian citizenship.

2. Nationality and citizenship

- Nationality is the status of belonging to a particular nation by origin, birth basically, it's an ethnic and racial concept.
- Nationality of a person cannot be changed. Citizenship is granted to an individual by the government of the country when he/she complies with the legal formalities.
- Citizenship can be changed.

3. As per the order precedence **President is the first citizen of our country.**

4. Alien and immigrant :

- Alien and immigrant are two terms that are used to refer to non-nationals of a country.
- Alien refers to all non-citizens or non nationals residing in a country.
- eg. tourists, foreign students Immigrant refers to alien who has been granted the right to reside and work permanently without restriction in a particular country.

5. Overseas Indians' Day

- Pravasi Bharatiya Divas (PBD) Sponsored by **Ministry of External Affairs of Government of India** is celebrated once in every two years, to **"mark the contributions of Overseas Indian Community in the development of India"**.
- The day commemorates the arrival of Mahatma Gandhi in India from South Africa.

8th Social Science Lesson 10 Notes in English

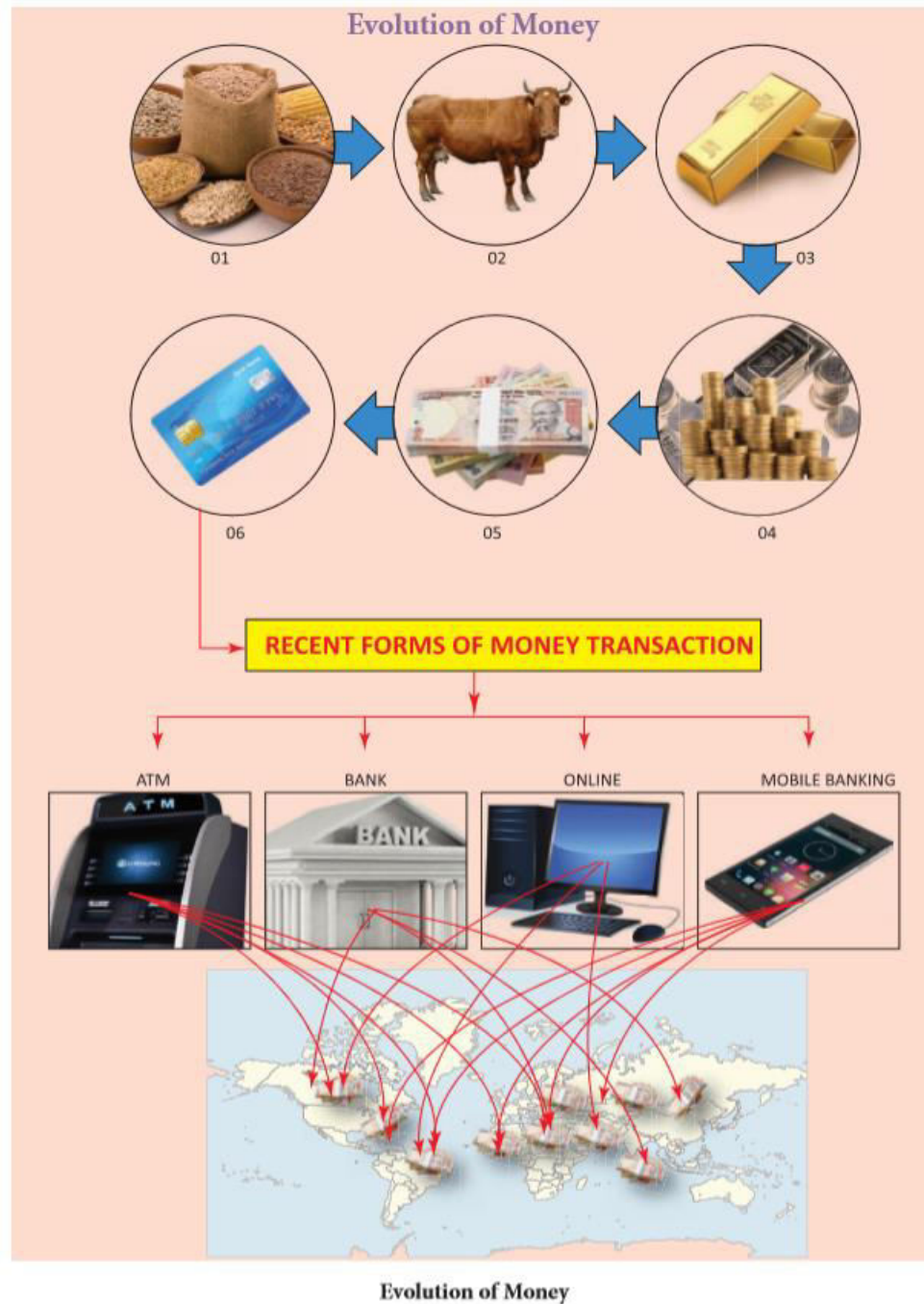
10. Money, Savings and Investments

"Learning gives creativity, creativity leads to thinking, thinking provides knowledge, knowledge makes you great". – A.P.J. Abdul Kalam

Introduction

- Money is a fascinating subject and full of curiosities. It is important to capture this element for the students.
- The history of money and how various forms were used at different times is an interesting story.
- Modern forms of money are linked to the banking system. Money is a fundamental discovery, which has eased the day to day transactions, valuing goods and services and has allowed us to store the wealth and trade in future.
- **"Money is anything which is widely accepted in payment for goods or in discharge of other business obligations"** Robertson.
- Money in some form, has been part of human history for atleast the last 3000 years Before that time, it is assumed that a system of bartering was likely used.

Evolution of Money



- The word Money is derived from Roman word **"Moneta Juno"**. It is the roman goddesses and the republic money of **Roman empire**.
- The Indian rupee is derived from **Sanskrit word 'Rupya'** which means silver coin.
- Today we use paper notes, coins as money. But the evolution of this stage has not happened overnight. It took thousands of years to reach such a stage.
- There are many stages of evolution of money. The earliest and primitive stage is Barter system.

Barter system

Learning Leads To Ruling

During the ancient time.....

BARTER SYSTEM:

Goods and Services are traded in exchange for other good.



Barter system

- Barter system is exchanging goods for goods without the use of money in the primitive stage. A barter system is an old method of exchange.
- This system has been used for centuries and long before money was invented. People exchanged services and goods for other services and goods in return.
- The value of bartering items can be negotiated with the other party. Bartering doesn't involve money which is one of the advantages. Hence Barter system had many deficiencies like,
 1. Lack of double coincidence of wants
 2. Common measure of value
 3. Indivisibility of commodities
 4. Difficulties of storing wealth.

Some of the major stages through which money has evolved are as follows:

Commodity Money, Metallic Money, Paper Money, Credit Money, Near Money and recent forms of Money. Money has evolved through different stages according to the time, place and circumstances.

Commodity Money

- In the earliest period of human civilization, any commodity that was generally demanded and chosen by common consent was used as money.
- Goods like **furs, skins, salt, rice, wheat, utensils, weapons etc.** were commonly used as money.
- Such exchange of goods for goods was known as 'Barter Exchange'.

Metallic Money

- With progress of human civilization, commodity money changed into metallic money.
- Metals like **gold, silver, copper, etc.** were used as they could be easily handled and their quantity can be easily ascertained.
- It was the main form of money throughout the major portion of recorded history.

History of Metallic Money



- The precious metals especially gold, silver, bronze were used for metallic money.
- The standard weight and fineness of metal particularly gold and silver with a seal on it became medium of exchange.
- They were of different denomination easily divisible, portable and were convenient in making payment.
- **King Midas of Lydia** innovated metal coin in the **8th century BC (BCE)** by the ancient historian Herodotus.
- But gold coins were in use in india many centuries than in Lydia.
- The earliest issuers of coins in the world are the ancient Indians along with **Chinese and lydians from the middle east.**

- The first time Indian coins were minted in the **6th century BC (BCE)** by the **Mahajanpadas known as Puranas, Karshapanas or Panas**.
- The Mauryas came up with the Punch Marked Coins minting of silver, gold copper or lead and Indo-Greek Kushan kings introduced the Greek custom of engraving portraits on the coins.
- Turkish sultans of Delhi has replaced the royal designs of Indian kings with Islamic Calligraphy by the 12th century AD (CE).
- The currency was made up of **gold, silver and copper known as Tanka and lower valued coin known as Jittals**.
- The Mughal Empire from **1526 AD** consolidate the monetary system for the entire empire. In this era evolution of rupee occurred with **Sher Shah Suri** defeated Humayun and issued a silver coin of **178 gms** known as rupiya and was divided into **40 copper** pieces or paisa and during the whole Mughal period silver coin remained in use.
- During the British East India company i.e. **1600**, the mughal currency remained popular but in **1717 AD**, **Farrukhsiyar** the Mughal Emperor gave permission to the **Britishes to coin Mughal Money at the Bombay mint**.
- The British gold coins were termed as **Carolina**, the silver coins as **Angelina**, the copper coins as **cupperoon** and the tin coins as **tinny**.

Paper Money

- It was found inconvenient as well as dangerous to carry gold and silver coins from place to place.
- So, invention of paper money marked a very important stage in the development of money.
- The development of paper money started on the basis of storage of gold and the receipts were issued by the goldsmiths for these storages.
- This receipts of goldsmiths were a substitute for money and became paper money. Paper money is regulated and controlled by Central bank of the country (**Reserve Bank of India**).
- At present, a very large part of money consists mainly of currency notes or paper money issued by the central bank.

Credit Money or Bank Money

- Emergence of credit money took place almost side by side with that of paper money.
- People keep a part of their cash as deposits with banks, which they can withdraw at their convenience through cheques.
- The cheque (**known as credit money or bank money**), itself, is not money, but it performs the same as functions of money.

Near Money

The final stage in the evolution of money has been the use of bills of exchange, treasury bills, bonds, debentures, savings certificate etc.

Recent forms of Money

Plastic Money

The latest type of money is plastic money in the form of Credit cards and Debit cards. They aim for cashless transactions.

E-Money

Electronic Money is money which exists in banking computer systems and is available for transactions through electronic system.

Online Banking (Net Banking)

Online Banking, also known as internet banking is an electronic payment system that enables customers of a bank or other financial institutions to conduct a range of financial transactions through website.

E-Banking

Electronic banking, also known as National Electronic Funds Transfer (NEFT), is simply the use of electronic means to transfer funds directly from one account to another rather than by cheque or cash.

Value of Money

Value of money is meant the purchasing power of money over goods and services in a country. Thus it is related to the price level of goods and services. But the relation between the value of money and price level is an inverse one.

The value of money is of two types

- Internal value of money
- External value of money

The **Internal value of money** refers to the purchasing power of money over domestic goods and services.

The **External value of money** refers to the purchasing power of money over foreign goods and services.

Nature of Money

- There has been lot of controversy and confusion over the meaning and nature of money (Scitovsky).
- "Money is a difficult concept to define, partly because it fulfils not one but three functions, each of them providing a criterion of money ness those of a unit of account, a medium of exchange, and a store of value".
- Sir John Hicks, say that **"Money is defined by its functions, anything is money which is used as money, "Money is what money does"**.
- These are the functional definitions of money because they define money in terms of the functions it performs.
- **Some economists define money in legal terms saying that "anything which state declares as money is money"**.
- Such money possesses general acceptability and has the legal power to discharge debts. But people may not accept legal money by refusing to sell goods and services against the payments of legal tender money.
- On the other hand, they may accept some other things as money winch are not legally defined as money in discharge of debts. This may circulate freely.

Functions of Money

Functions of money are classified into Primary or Main function, Secondary function and Contingent function.

Primary or main functions

The important functions of money performed in very economy are classified under main functions:

Medium of exchange or means of payment

Money is used to buy the goods and services.

Measure of value

All the values are expressed in terms of money it is easier to determine the rate of exchange between various type of goods and services.

Secondary functions

The three important of secondary functions are

Standard of deferred payment

Money helps the future payments too. A borrower borrowing today places himself under an obligation to pay a specified sum of money on some specified future date.

Store of value or store of purchasing power

Savings were discouraged under barter system as some commodities are perishable. The introduction of money has helped to save it for future as it is not perishable.

Transfer of value or transfer of purchasing power

Money makes the exchange of goods to distant places as well as abroad possible. It was therefore felt necessary to transfer purchasing power from one place to another.

Contingent functions

- Basis of credit
- Increase productivity of capital
- Measurement and Distribution of National Income

Savings in Banks and Investments

Comparison of Savings and Investments		
Basis for comparison	Savings	Investments
Meaning	Savings represents that part of the person's income which is not used for consumption	Investment refers to the process of investing funds in capital asset, with a view to generate returns
Purpose	Savings are made to fulfil short term or urgent requirements	Investment is made to provide returns and help in capital formation
Risk	Low or negligible	Very high
Returns	No or Less	Comparatively high
Liquidity	Highly liquid	Less liquid

Savings

- Savings are defined as the part of consumer's disposable income which is not used for current consumption, rather kept aside for future use.
- There are several ways through which a person can save money.
- The banking facilitates saving money through various forms of accounts.

Student Savings Account

There are savings accounts some banks offer specifically for young people enrolled in high school or college, and they main feature more flexible terms such as lower minimum balance requirements.

Savings Deposits

Savings deposits are opened by customers to save the part of their current income. The customers can withdraw their money from their accounts when they require it. The bank also gives a small amount of interest to the money in the saving deposits.

Current Account Deposit

Current accounts are generally opened by business firms, traders and public authorities. The current accounts help in frequent banking transactions as they are repayable on demand.

Fixed Deposits

Fixed deposits accounts are meant for investors who want their principle to be safe and yield them fixed yields. The fixed deposits are also called as Term deposit as, normally, they are fixed for specified period.

Benefits of Savings

- You will be financially independent sooner.
- You would not have to worry any unforeseen expenses.
- In future, you will have financial backup in place if you lose your job.
- You will be prepared if your circumstances change.
- You will be more comfortable in retirement.
- Save today for better tomorrow

Intensity to save among the students

- Teach them about taxes and accounting.
- Involve them in grown-up money decisions.
- Encourage them to apply for scholarship
- Help them budget and apply for student loans
- Teach them personal savings.
- Encourage them to open a student **Sanchayeka Scheme**.

Investments

- The process of investing something is known as an investment.
- It could be anything, i.e. money, time efforts or other resources that you exchange to earn returns in future. Investment can be made in different investment vehicles like

- ✓ Stock
- ✓ Bonds
- ✓ Mutual funds
- ✓ Commodity futures
- ✓ Insurance
- ✓ Annuities
- ✓ Deposit account or any other securities or assets.
- An investment always comes with risks of losing money, but it is also true that you can reap more money with the same investment vehicle.
- It has a productive nature that helps in the economic growth of the country.

Black Money

- Black Money is any **money on which it is not paid to the government**.
- Black Money is money earned through any illegal activity controlled by country regulations.
- Black money proceeds are usually received in cash from underground economic activity and, as such, are not taxed.
- The black money is accumulated by the criminals, smugglers, hoarders, tax-evaders and other anti-social elements of the society.
- In India, black money is funds earned in the black market, on which income and other taxes have not been paid.
- The total amount of black money deposited in foreign banks by Indians is unknown.
- The root cause for the increasing rate of black money in the country is the lack of strict punishments for the offenders.

Effects of Black Money on economy

- Dual economy
- Tax evasion, thereby loss of revenue to government.
- Undermining equity
- Widening gap between the rich and poor
- Lavish consumption spending
- Distortion of production pattern
- Distribution of scarce resource
- Effects on production.

Recent steps against Black Money

- Under pressure from India and other countries, Switzerland has made key changes in its local laws governing assist foreign allegedly stashed in Swiss Banks.
- Special Investigation Team appointed by government on the directions of Supreme Court on black money.

- Demonetization

Some Legislative Framework in India against to Black Money

- Prevention of money laundering act 2002
- Lokpal and Lokayukta act
- Prevention of corruption act- 1988
- The undisclosed foreign Income and Asset Bill (Imposition of Tax) 2015
- Benami transactions prohibition act 1988 amended in 2016
- The Real Estate (Regulation and Development) Act, 2016

More to Know:

1. Demonetization

In India, **On 8-November-2016**, the Government of India announced demonetization of all **`500 and `1000 bank notes** against Black Money.

2. Inflation and Deflation

Inflation refers to the prices are rising, the value of money will fall. Deflation refers to the prices are falling, the value of money will rise.

3. Symbol of Rupee

The Indian Rupee symbol ₹ designed by **Mr.Udayakumar, Villupuram Dist Tamil Nadu**. It was approved by the Government of India on **15-July-2010**.

8th Social Science Lesson 11 Notes in English

11. Educational Development in India

Introduction

- Education is a continuous process of **acquiring and sharing of knowledge, skills and values**. Education is recognised as the foundation of a progressive society.
- It plays a vital role in shaping responsible people. The world we live is constantly changing and developing.
- So, to meet the challenges and overcome the obstacles we need to be well educated and to know the role of the education in the human development process.

Education in Ancient India

- The historical sources provide the information that from very early times, the tradition of teaching and learning had been in vogue in India.
- The concept of Education might have originated from the Vedas.
- The literal meaning the Sanskrit word 'Veda' is knowledge and the word derived from the word **Vid**, which **means 'to know'**.
- Our ancient education system evolved over many centuries and focused on the holistic development of the individual by taking care of both the innate and latent capacities.
- It emphasised on values such as **humility, truthfulness, discipline, selfreliance and respect for all creations**.

Sources of Learning

- You must have heard the names of **Panini, Aryabhata, Katyayana and Patanjali**.
- Their writings and the medical treatises of **Charaka and Sushruta** were also some of the sources of learning.
- Various disciplines such as history, logic, interpretation, architecture, polity, agriculture, trade, commerce, animal husbandry and archery were taught.
- Physical education too was an important curricular area and pupils participated in games and recreational activities.
- The Gurus and their students worked conscientiously together to become proficient in all aspects of learning.
- In order to assess students' skills, literary debates were organised. Students at an advanced stage of learning guided younger students.
- A system of peer learning was also practiced, like you have group/peer work.

Ancient Education System in India: A Way of Life



Gurukula System

- In ancient India, both formal and informal education existed. Indigenous education was imparted at home, in temples, **patashalas, and gurukulas**.
- There were people in homes, villages and temples who guided young children in imbibing pious ways of life.
- Temples played a vital role in imparting education and served the centres of learning. Students went to viharas and universities for higher studies.
- Teaching was oral and students remembered and meditated upon what was taught in the Gurukulas.
- Many of these Gurukulas were **named after the sages**. Situated in forests, in serene and peaceful surroundings, hundreds of students used to learn together in Gurukulas.
- During the early period education was imparted by the teacher (**Guru/Acharya**) to the pupils who gathered around him and came to live in his house as members of his family. This was known as Gurukula system of education.
- The family of Guru functioned as a domestic school or an Ashram. During that period, the gurus and their **shishyas (pupils)** lived together helping each other in day-to-day life.
- The main objective was to have complete learning, leading a disciplined life and realising one's inner potential. Students lived away from their homes for years together till they achieved their goals.
- The gurukula was also the place where the relationship between the guru and student strengthened with time.
- Many monasteries and viharas were set up for monks and nuns to meditate, debate and discuss with the learned for their quest for knowledge during this period.
- Around these viharas, other educational centres of higher learning developed, which attracted students from **China, Korea, Tibet, Burma, Ceylon, Java, Nepal and other distant countries**.

Viharas and Universities Buddhist Period

- The Jataka tales, accounts given by **Hiuen Tsang and I-Tsing (Chinese scholars)**, and other sources tell us that kings and society took an active interest in promoting education.
- Through monasteries and Viharas Buddhist scholars carried out the educational work. As a result, many famous educational centres came into existence.
- Among the most notable universities that emerged during that period were situated at **Taxila, Nalanda, Valabhi, Vikramshila, Odantapuri and Jagaddala**.
- These universities developed in connection with the viharas.
- Those at Benaras and Kanchi developed in relation with temples and became centres of community life in the places where they were situated.
- These institutions catered to the needs of advanced level students. Such students joined the centres of higher learning and developed their knowledge by mutual discussions and debates with renowned scholars.
- Not only that, there was also occasional summoning by a king to a gathering in which the scholars of the various **viharas and universities** would meet, debate and exchange their views.

Role of the Teacher

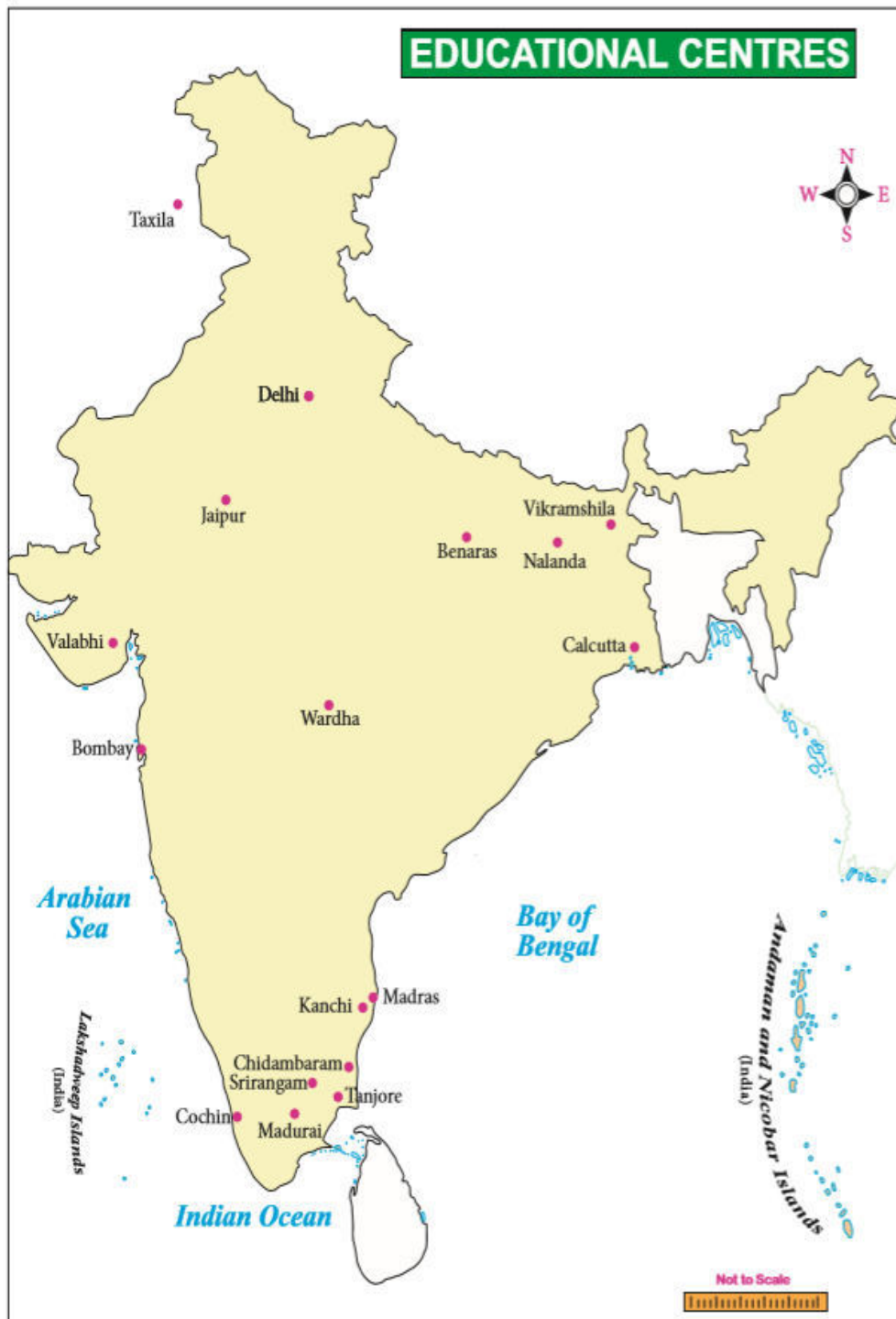
- Teachers had complete autonomy in all aspects from selection of students to designing their syllabi.
- When the teacher was satisfied with the performance of the students, the course concluded.
- He would admit as many students as he liked and taught what his students were keen to learn.
- Debate and discussions were the primary methods of teaching. **Teachers were assisted by their advanced level students.**

Education in Medieval India

- Medieval period witnessed a radical transformation with introduction of Muslim education in the Indian subcontinent.
- The country was invaded by various foreign rulers and several traders from different part of the world.
- The tradesmen and the invaders brought with them their own cultures and intermingled with the people of the country.
- Besides, religion, society and culture, education in medieval India also experienced a new perspective.
- The aim of education during Muslim period (medieval) was the illumination and extension of knowledge.
- In the **eleventh century**, the Muslims rulers established elementary and secondary schools.
- Education developed with a fresh aspect during that period as there was an excellent interaction between Indian and Islamic traditions in all fields of knowledge like **theology, religion, philosophy, fine arts, painting, architecture, mathematics, medicine and astronomy**.

- However before the arrival of the Muslims in India, a developed system of education was already in place.
- Muslim rulers promoted urban education by bestowing libraries and literary societies. They founded primary schools (maktabas) in which students learnt **reading, writing, and basic Islamic prayers**.
- And secondary schools (madrasas) were established to teach advanced language skills. Several **madrasas** were set up by the Sultans, and nobles.
- The main objective of these madrasas was to train and educate the scholars who would become eligible for the civil service.
- **Ilutmish was the first ruler to establish a madrasas at Delhi** during his rule. Gradually many madrasas came into existence.
- The system of education in medieval India was under the control of Ulema. During those days, education was related to religious training.
- However, various subjects such as medicine, Arabic literature, grammar and philosophy were also taught.
- History states that Arab and Central Asian people brought Muslim educational models to India in both the medieval and early modern periods. Women education in India was prevalent during the medieval period.
- **Raja Jai Singh of Jaipur encouraged learning of scientific subjects**. Besides, many institutions were started by private individuals as well.
- **Madrasa of Ghaziuddin in Delhi, and the madrasa of Maulana Sadruddin at Shahjahanabad**. In the later medieval era, the British came to India and introduced English education.
- With the coming of the European missionaries, Western education made firm advances in the country.
- Various universities and thousands of colleges were formed and popularity of education increased.

Modern System of Education



- The beginning of the modern system of Indian education can be traced to the efforts of the Christian missionaries who arrived in India in the wake of European occupation.
- As a result of their efforts, many institutions were established across India.
- These institutions imparted Western as well as Indian education.

Role of Christian Missionaries

- Europeans came to India for trade and established trading companies.
- They acquired lands and constructed fortresses. Later they wanted to spread their culture and religion among Indians.
- The Europeans thought that they could make Indians understand the administration and religious theories better if they could impart education to the local population in their own method.
- So they started educational institutions. The Portuguese were the first Europeans who started modern system of education in India.
- **Francis Xavier, a Jesuit**, started a university at Cochin. They started many primary schools.
- The first college offering degrees on a completion of a course was **started in Goa in 1575 where Christianity, logic, grammar and music** were taught.
- John Kierlander was one of the most zealous pioneers and was perhaps the first missionary in India to introduce education for non-Christian children as an evangelistic agency.
- In 1812, **Dr. C.S. John established 20 free reading schools in Tranquebar**. Followed by the Portuguese, the French opened their institutions for all the Indians where education was imparted by Indian teachers through local languages.
- They started higher secondary schools where French language was taught. Two German Bishops, named **Ziegenbalg and Plustscham**, started schools and a training college for teachers in Travancore.
- After the arrival of English East India Company in **1600 AD (CE)**, institutions were established for imparting instruction in English.
- Gradually Sanskrit colleges were opened in Madras and Benaras.
- The **first Bishop of Calcutta, the Revered Dr. Middleton**, started a missionary college at Calcutta, which became famous as the Bishop's College.
- **Mountstuart Elphinstone** was actually a strong advocate of vernacular education, but on his retirement in **1827**, his admirers collected funds and established a college offering English classes, named the Elphinstone College at Bombay.
- Missionaries made a good deal of attempt for the propagation of education in India. Due to their efforts many institutions were established.
- These institutions imparted Western education as well as Indian education.

Education in the British Rule

History of education in British rule can be divided into four periods:

- ❖ From the early days of the British rule up to 1813;
- ❖ Period from 1813–1853;
- ❖ Period from 1854–1920
- ❖ Period from 1921–1947.
- During its early days, the East India Company followed a policy of indifference and non-interference towards education as this sector did not form a part of its programme.

- The Company's charter was renewed in **1813**, which compelled the Company to assume responsibility for the education of Indians, though on a very limited scale.
- Besides missionaries, non-missionaries like **Raja Ram Mohan Roy of Bengal, Pachyappar of Madras, W. Frazer of Delhi** contributed to the cause of education.
- The second period was also marked by great educational controversies concerning the issues of educational policy, medium of instruction and method of spreading education.
- First, there were the **orientalists** who supported the preservation of Oriental learning and the use of Sanskrit and Persian as the media of instruction.
- They were opposed by the **Anglicists** who advocated dissemination of Western knowledge through English.
- A third section believed in the use of Indian languages as the media of instruction. These controversies were partially set at rest by **Macaulay's Minutes of 1835**.
- Higher education was de-orientalised, encouraging English education for the upper classes. Each province was allowed to follow its own education policy.
- But even then, the controversies continued till 1854.
- The third phase of British-influenced education may be called the period of an All India Educational Policy. It commenced with **Sir Charles Wood's Despatch in 1854**.
- The fourth phase may be called the period of provincial autonomy. The **Act of 1935** ushered a new era of educational advancement through the country.
- The new programmes were hit hard by the worldwide economic depression in 1929.
- The introduction of complete provincial autonomy by the Government of India Act of 1935 further strengthened the position of the provincial ministers of education.
- After the Second World War, a very important plan for educational development, known as the **Sergeant Report (1944) was prepared**.
- This blueprint had a powerful influence on contemporary education, both in thought as well as in practice.

Educational Development of Independent India

- The new epoch making era in the history of education was ushered with the attainment of independence in 1947.
- It brought a new hope, a new vision, a new future for the Indians.
- In **1948, Dr. Radhakrishnan Commission** was appointed to present a report on University education. In pursuance of the Commission's recommendations, University Grants Commission was constituted to determine the standard of higher education.
- One of the most important events that have taken place in the field of secondary education was the appointment of **Secondary Education Commission in 1952–53**.
- It suggested new organisational patterns, improvement in quality of textbooks, curriculum and methods of teachings.

- An education commission under the chairman ship of **Dr. D.S. Kothari** was appointed by the **Government of India in 1964**.
- Free and compulsory primary education for all children up to the age of 14 years and uniform educational structure of **10+2+3** pattern were its main recommendations.

National Policy on Education

- The **first National Education Policy of 1968** marked a significant step in the history of education in post-independent India.
- It aimed to promote national progress, a sense of common citizenship and culture and to strengthen national integration.
- In 1986, the Government of India introduced a New Education Policy. The aim of New Education Policy was to transfer a static society into a vibrant one with a commitment to development and change.
- It emphasised on equal opportunities for marginalised sections of the country and the removal of disparity through scholarships, adult education and open universities, especially for rural India.
- The New Education Policy called for a child-centred approach in primary education and launched Operation Blackboard to improve primary schools nationwide. The **New Education Policy was revised again in 1992**.
- It envisaged the formulation of a **National Curriculum Framework**, emphasis on in-service education, improvement of facilities and streamlining of the evaluation system at the secondary stage.

Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) and Rastriya Madhyamik Shiksha Abhiyan (RMSA)



- The Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) is the Government of India's flagship programme that was launched in **2000-01** to achieve Universal Elementary Education (UEE).
- SSA is now the primary vehicle for implementing the provisions of the Right of Children to **Free and Compulsory Education Act (2009) (RTE)**.

- Right to Education (RTE) provides for free and compulsory education to all the children from the age of **6 to 14 years**.
- The SSA initiates a variety of innovation and activities related to schools. Some important activities include providing the **Mid-Day Meals and stipends for students, the setting up of School Management Committees (SMCs)** and provision of teaching learning materials for classrooms.
- Rastriya Madhyamik Shiksha Abhiyan (RMSA) is a centrally sponsored scheme for **universalisation of access and improvement of quality education at the secondary stage**, which was implemented during Eleventh Five-Year Plan period.
- The goal of RMSA is to make secondary education qualitative, available, accessible and affordable to all young students in the **age group 15–16 years**.
- Science lab, libraries, in-service training for teachers, computer-aided education, co curricular activities and teaching-learning aids are provided by the Government of India through RMSA scheme at the school level.
- The **Union Budget 2018–19** proposed to give school education holistically without segmentation from **Pre-School to Class XII**.
- Samagra Shiksha, and to be prepared with the broaden goal of improving school effectiveness, measured in terms of equal opportunities and equable learning outcomes.
- It subsumes the schemes: SSA, and RMSA. In 2017, a committee was constituted by the Ministry of Human Resources Development to draft the National Education Policy.
- This committee submitted its report in 2019.

Educational Development in Tamil Nadu

- The pattern of education in Tamil Nadu was not merely reading and understanding of books but listening to learned persons.
- The **Thirukkural** stresses the need for education and warns the dangers of illiteracy. In ancient times, the school was called '**Palli**' and the teacher was a '**Kanakkayar**'.
- A significant development took place in the field of education during the Pallava period.
- Ghatika was an educational institution. The Pallava kings supported those educational institutions through endowments.
- The Vaishnava and Saiva mutts provided boarding and lodging facilities to all students and teachers.
- **Hiuen Tsang** gives a graphic picture about Kanchi Buddhist centre and Kanchi, was considered as the main centre of learning.
- The Chola period was the most brilliant and creative period in the Tamil literature. Tamil education enjoyed a greater connection with religion and temple.
- Free education was given to people. The curriculum and syllabi had a theoretical background.

- From the inscription of that period, we can now gain knowledge about the qualification of teacher, method of teaching, salary of teachers, food provided to the students and the land given to the schools etc.
- **Rajaraja Chaturvedimangalam** was the famous seat of a Vedic college (**Ennayiram** in Former South Arcot district).
- At **Tirubuvanai (in Pondicherry)** Vedic college flourished. The **Tiruvidaikkalai** inscription mentions a library.
- **Tiruvaduthurai inscription of Viravajendra** refers to a medical school. The Pandya kings patronised Sanskrit in an exemplary way. It is revealed in the copper plates.
- The educational institutions of that period were called as **Ghatigai, Salai and Vidhyasathana**.
- Lands were given to teachers. They were known as **Salabhogam** (e.g. **Vallabha Perunchalai at Kanyakumari**).
- The famous college during the Pandya regime was **Kandhalur Salai**. Mutts occupied a significant place in the promotion of education.
- Learning flourished under the **Vijayanagar** rule. Many educational institutions were established under their patronage.
- **Thinnappalli Koodam** was established during the **Nayak** rule.

Modern period

- **Fernandez**, who came to Madurai during the time of **Veerappa Nayak**, established a primary school.
- The **Maratha ruler Sarfoji II** collected the old records and kept them in the **Saraswathi Mahal** library.
- He also had a printing press with **Devanagari** type, which was located at **Tanjore**.
- **Pradran** is an important center of higher education in the country. **Sir Thomas Munroe the Governor of Madras Presidency (1820-27)** was highly responsible for the introduction of Western education in Madras Presidency.
- He appointed a committee to conduct a statistical survey of the condition of education. The Education Commission of Munroe recommended the creation of two principal schools (**Collectorate and Tahsildare schools**) in each district.
- In **1835 Lord William** passed a resolution favouring the introduction of western system of education in India.
- **Wood's Despatch of 1854** introduced the Department of Public instruction in Madras Presidency.
- Grant-in-aid was given to all schools. The **Madras University** was founded in 1857. It was the first University in Tamil Nadu under the British rule.
- In **1882 the Local Boards Act** was passed. The Board was empowered to open new schools and to get grants from the government.
- By **1938**, all subjects except English were taught in Tamil in schools. The **Annamalai University** was founded at **Chidambaram** in 1929.

- This was the next step in the development of higher education.

Education since independence

- Free education at the secondary school level was introduced in 1964 – 65. The Gandhigram Rural College was established in 1975.
- Distance education has also been introduced to educate those who could not go to colleges.
- In **1956, Midday Meal Programme** was introduced in schools. Later, it was extended as Nutrition Meal Scheme in 1982 to avoid drop-outs in schools.
- The National Policy on Education was framed in **1986** and was modified in 1992.
- Since then several changes have taken place to meet the changing dynamics of the society.

More to Know:

1. Education remained a state subject till **December 1976**. But now the education is in the concurrent list.

2. Wardha Scheme of Education (1937)

- In 1937, Gandhiji evolved a scheme popularly known as the Wardha Scheme of Basic National Education.
- The principle of nonviolence was the basis of Gandhiji scheme of Basic Education. Through this scheme he wanted to develop those qualities in future citizens of India which he considered necessary for building a non-violent society.
- His system of Education wanted to root out exploitation and centralization in society and create a non-violent social order.

3. Wood's Despatch (1854)

- The **Wood's Despatch (1854)** is called the '**Magna Carta**' of English education in India because it was the first declaration of British education policy for educating the masses at all levels.
- But it resulted in the complete control on state education, divorcing it from Indian ideals and culture.

4. In 1813, the East India Company was compelled to assert the responsibility for the education of the Indians. **Charter of Act of 1813** made a provision for an annual grant of a sum of 1 lakh rupees for the promotion of education in India.

5. The medieval period saw the founding of many religious mutt or monasteries which also took up the cause of education. The **Ahobila mutt in Srirangam** was one among them where is **Sri Ramanuja** has made distinctive contribution to the cause of education. Besides mutts, Jain pallis and Buddhist vihars played a vital role in educating people where ever the existed. They had large libraries of books in all branches of learning.

6. The ancient Nalanda University was a centre of learning from the 5th century AD (CE) to 12th century AD (CE). Located in present-day **Rajgir, Bihar**. Nalanda was one of the oldest universities of the world and UNESCO declared the ruins of Nalanda Mahavihara a world heritage site. The new Nalanda University is envisaged as a centre of inter-civilisational dialogue.

7. **Taxila** was an ancient Indian city, which is now in **northwestern Pakistan**. It is an important archaeological site and the UNESCO declared it as a world heritage site in **1980**. Its fame rested on the university where **Chanakya** is said to have composed his **Arthashastra**. Archaeologist **Alexander Cunningham** discovered its ruins in the mid-19th century.

8th Social Science Lesson 12 Notes in English

12. Development of Industries in India

Introduction

- The history of Indian industry perhaps dates back to the history of humankind. India's traditional economy was characterised by a blend of agriculture and handicrafts.
- According to Edward Baines, **'The birthplace of cotton manufacture is India where it probably flourished long before the dawn of authentic history.'**
- Bernier, who visited India during the reign of Mughal emperor **Shah Jahan**, marvelled at the incredible quantity of manufactured goods.
- Tavernier, **a French traveller**, admired the peacock throne, carpets of silk and gold as well as mini carvings.

Traditional Crafts of India

- The crafts in India has a rich history. Crafts were an integral part in the life of the people. Before arrival of mechanized industry, the production of Indian handicrafts was the second largest source of employment in rural India next to agriculture.
- The traditional Indian industry was known in the **fields of textiles, woodwork, ivory, stone cutting, leather, fragrance wood, metal work and jewellery.**
- The village artisans such as potters, weavers, smiths produced articles and utensils for domestic use.
- But some specialised goods were produced for domestic and international markets.
- Some such specialised goods produced were cotton textiles, muslin, wool, silk and metal articles.
- India was famous for its fine quality of cotton and silk clothes. There are references made in many scholarly works to the professions of the weaver, the tailor and the dyer.
- Certain centres of metal industry were quite well known. For example, **Saurashtra was known for bell metal, Vanga for tin industry and Dacca was identified with muslin clothes.**

Decline of Indian Industries

Loss of Royal Patronage

- The British conquest transformed Indian economy (**self-reliant**) into colonial economy.
- As the British conquered the Indian territories one after another, the native rulers, the nobles and the landlords lost their power and prosperity.
- The demand for the fine articles to be displayed in durbars and other ceremonial occasions disappeared.

- As a result, the craftsman who were patronised by these rulers lost their importance and became poor.
- For generations, these craftsmen had been practicing their **craft, and they did not possess any other skills.**
- So they had to work as labourers in fields to meet their daily needs. This change resulted in increased pressure on agriculture and there was large-scale under-employment in agriculture.
- The substitution of commercial food crops in agriculture ruined the Indian agro-based industry.
- The splendid period of indigenous handicraft industries came to an end as the political influence of the East India Company spread over various parts of the country.

Transition from producer to exporter of raw materials

- Indian handicrafts that had made the country famous collapsed under the colonial rule.
- This was mainly due to the competition posed by the machine-made goods that were imported from Britain by the British rulers.
- The ruling British turned India as the producer of raw materials for their industries and markets for their finished products.
- Moreover, the railways and roadways introduced by the British facilitated the movement of finished products to reach the remotest parts of India and the procurement of raw materials from these parts.

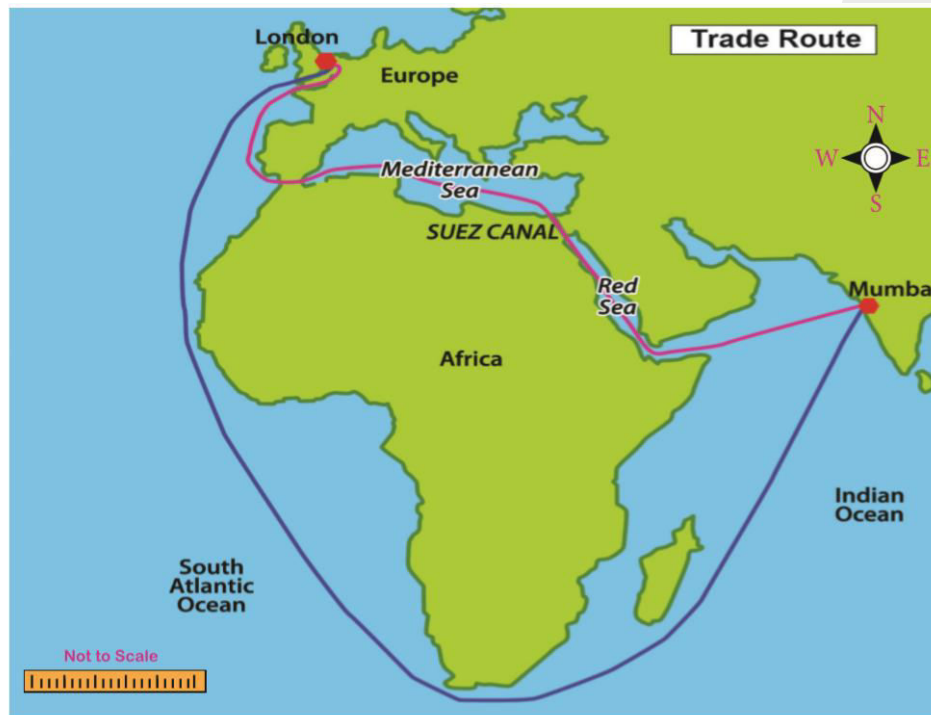
Competition of Machine-Made Goods

- Textile was the oldest industry in India. The highly specialised skills of Indian weavers and the low production cost gave a tough competition to the European manufactures.
- It led to the invention of cottongin, **flying shuttle, spinning jenny and steam engine in England**, which made the production of textiles on large scale.
- India became the market for the finished products of Britain. As a result, peasants who had supplemented **their income by part-time spinning and weaving had to now rely only on cultivation.**
- So they lost their livelihood. Moreover, the Indian goods made with primitive techniques could not compete with industrial goods made in England.

Trading policy of the British

- All the policies implemented by the **British government in India had a deep impact on India's indigenous industries.**
- Free trade policy followed by the East India Company compelled the Indian traders to sell their goods below the market prices.
- This forced many craftsmen to abandon their ancestral handicraft talents.

- East India Company's aim was to buy the maximum quantity of Indian manufactured goods at the cheapest price and sell them to other European countries for a huge profit. This affected the traditional Indian industry.
- The British followed the policy of protective tariffs that was much against the trading interests of India.
- Heavy duties were charged on **Indian goods in Britain**, but at the same time, the English goods entering India were charged only nominal duties.



De-Industrialisation

- During the **first half of 19th century western countries were experiencing industrialisation**, India suffered a period of industrial decline.
- The process of disruption of traditional Indian crafts and decline in national income has been referred to as de-industrialisation.
- The Indian domestic industry could not have withstood foreign competition, which was backed by a **powerful industrial organisation, big machinery, large-scale production**.
- The difficulties in Indian industries was complicated further by the **construction of Suez Canal, because of which transport cost was reduced, which made the British goods cheaper in India**.
- The main cause for the decline of handicraft industry was the greater employment opportunities and income-generating effect of the modern factory.

Beginning of Modern Industries

- The process of industrialisation started in India from the mid-19th century.
- The beginning of modern industry is associated with the development in mainly plantations like jute, cotton and also steel.
- There was a limited **development of mining, especially coal**. The accelerated industrialisation began with the development of railways and roadways.
- This growth greatly influenced the economic and social life of people in the country.
- The two World Wars gave an impetus to the development of number of industries such as **chemical, iron and steel, sugar, cement, glass and other consumer goods**.
- Most mills were setup by wealthy Indian businessmen. Initially this development was confined to the setting up of cotton and jute textile mills.

Plantation Industries

- The plantation industry was the first to attract the Europeans. The plantation industry could provide jobs on a large scale, and in reality, it could meet the increasing demands for tea, coffee and indigo by the British society.
- Therefore, plantation industry was started early on. The Assam Tea Company was founded in **1839**.
- Coffee plantation also started simultaneously. As the tea plantation was the most important industry of Eastern India, coffee plantation became the centre of activities in South India.
- The **third important plantation, which gave birth to factory, was jute**. All these industries were controlled by the many former employees of the British East India Company.

Machine-based Industries

- In India, modern industrial sector in an organized form started with the establishment of cotton textile industry in **Bombay in 1854**.
- In 1855, jute industry was started in the Hooghly valley at Rishra near Calcutta. The first paper mill was started in **Ballygunj near Calcutta in 1870**.
- The cotton mills were dominated by Indian enterprises and the jute mills were owned by the British capitalists.
- Cotton mills were opened in Bombay and Ahmedabad, and jute mills proliferated on the Hooghly river banks.
- The woollen and leather factories became prominent in Kanpur.

Heavy Industries

- The heavy industries included the iron and steel industry, Steel was first manufactured by modern methods at **Kulti in 1874**.
- Iron and steel industries began rooted in the Indian soil in the beginning of 20th century.
- However, the credit for the development of large-scale manufacture of steel in India goes to **Jamshedji Tata**.

- The Tata Iron and Steel Company (TISCO) was setup in 1907 at Jamshedpur. It started producing pig iron in 1911 and steel ingots in 1912.



TISCO - Jamshedpur

Growth of Modern Industries

- The length of railways increased from **2,573 km in 1861 to 55,773 km in 1914.**
- Opening of the Suez Canal also shortened the distance between Europe and India by about **4,830 km.**
- This reduced distance facilitated further industrialisation of India.
- As a result of Swadeshi Movement, the cotton mills increased from **194 to 273** and jute mills from **36 to 64.**
- The British had consolidated the power in India and thereby attracted large number of foreign entrepreneurs and capital particularly from **England.**
- Foreign capitalists were attracted to Indian industry as it held the prospect of high profit.
- Labour was extremely cheap. Raw materials were cheaply available. And India and its neighbours provided a ready market.

Confederation of Indian Industry (CII)



- The Confederation of Indian Industry is a business association in India.
- CII is a nongovernment, not-for-profit, industry-led and industry-managed organisation.
- It was founded in **1985**.
- It has over **9,000 members** from the private as well as public sectors, including small and medium enterprises (SME) and multinational corporations (MNCs).

Industrial Growth in India



- To realise the dream of development of industries, Indian Government adopted certain **industrial policies and Five-Year Plans**.
- One of the most important innovations in the industrial field after Independence has been the introduction of the Five-Year Plans and the direct participation in industry by the government as expressed in the **Industrial Policy Resolution of 1948**.
- This Resolution delineated the role of the state in the industrial development both as an entrepreneur and as an authority.
- As per the **Industrial Policy Resolution 1956**, industries were classified into three categories:

Schedule A: Only the Government can handle these industries. Some of these are atomic energy, electrical, iron and steel and others.

Schedule B: These comprise road and sea transportation, machine tools, aluminium, chemicals including plastics and fertilisers, ferro alloys and certain types of mining.

Schedule C: Under this category, the remaining industries are left to the private sector.

Phases of Industrial development in India

Industrial development during 1950s to 1965

- During this phase, a majority of consumer goods were produced in India. The industrial sector was underdeveloped with weak infrastructure.
- Technical skills were in short supply. The first **three Five-Year Plans** were very important because their aim was to build a strong industrial base in independent India.
- These plans mostly focused on the development of capital goods sector.
- As a result, this phase witnessed a strong acceleration in the growth rate of production.

Industrial development during 1965–1980

- As the first three Five-Year Plans mostly focused on the development of **the capital goods sector, the consumer goods sector was neglected.**
- The consumer goods sector is the backbone of rural economy. As the result, there was a fall in the growth rate of industrial production.
- So this period is marked as the period of structural retrogression.

Industrial Development during 1980s till 1991

The period of the 1980s can be considered as the period of the industrial recovery. This period witnessed quite a healthy industrial growth.

Industrial Development Post 1991 Reforms

- The year 1991 ushered a new era of the economic liberalisation. India took major decision to improve the performance of the industrial sector.
- The **Tenth and Eleventh Five-Year Plans** witnessed a high growth rate of industrial production.
- The **abolition of industrial licensing, dismantling of price controls, dilution of reservation of small-scale industries and virtual abolition of monopoly law** enabled Indian industry to flourish.
- The new policy welcomes foreign investments.

Modernisation

- India has now a large variety of **industries producing goods of varied nature, which shows a high degree of modernisation.**

- Some modern industries have really grown and they are competing effectively with the outside world.
- This has reduced our dependence greatly on foreign experts and technologists.
- On the contrary, India is exporting trained personnel to relatively less developed countries.
- The term information technology includes computer and communication technology along with software.
- Along with **three-sector model of primary, secondary and tertiary industries**, a fourth sector, **information-related industries**, has emerged.
- The knowledge economy depicts the **automation of labour-intensive manufacturing and service activities as well as growth in new service industries such as health care, distance education, software production and multimedia entertainment**.

Self-Reliance

- Another positive aspect of industrial growth is the attainment of the goal of self-reliance.
- We have achieved self-reliance in machinery, plant and other equipment.
- Today, the bulk of the equipment required for industrial and infrastructural development is produced within the country.
- The Indian road network has become one of the largest in the world.
- Government efforts led to the expansion of the **network of National Highways, State highways and major district roads**, which in turn has directly contributed to industrial growth.
- As India needs power to drive its growth engine, it has triggered a noteworthy improvement of availability of energy.
- After almost seven decades of independence, India has emerged **as the third largest producer of electricity in Asia**.

Conclusion

- Industrialisation is an important component of economic growth. India's industrial expansion over the plan period presents a mixed picture.
- Compared to the pre independence level, industrial growth during the Five-Year plan periods is phenomenal.

More to Know:

1. Classification of Industries

- On the basis of raw materials used, industries can be classified into agro-based and mineral-based. According to their role it can be classified into basic and key industries.
- On the basis of ownership it can be classified into **public sector, private sector, joint sector and co-operative sector**.

2. The Drain Theory of Dadabai Naoroji

Dadabai Naoroji was the first to acknowledge that the poverty of the Indian people was due to the British exploitation of India's resources and the drain of India's wealth to Britain.

3. The muslin of Dacca

Mummies in Egyptian tombs dating from **2000 BC (BCE)** were found wrapped in Indian muslins of the finest quality. A **50 metres** of this thin fabric could be squeezed into a match box.

8th Social Science Lesson 13 Notes in English

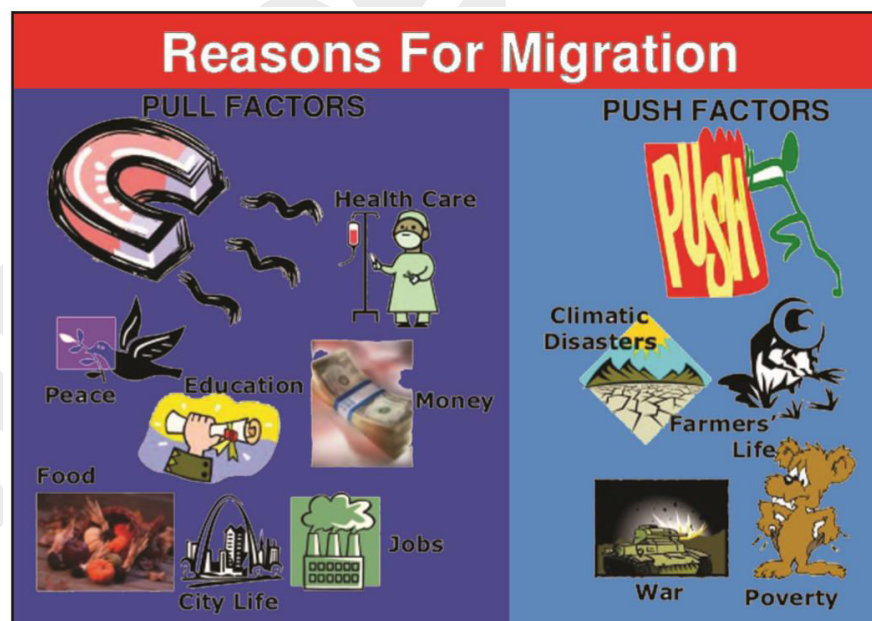
13. Migration and Urbanisation

Migration

- Migration has been defined **differently by different experts**.
- In general, migration is defined as the **permanent or semi permanent change of residence of an individual or group of people over a significant distance**.
- So, the term migration refers to the movement of people from one place to another.

United Nations Organization Definition:

- Migration is a form of geographical mobility of population between a geographical unit to another, generally involving a permanent change of residence.
- One of the most important aspects of social science is **"Human Migration"**.
- It has maintained a close relation with mankind from its earliest stage. Migration is one of the most important dynamic human activities from the very beginning of human life.
- During the early days, people moved from one place to another in search of food.
- When most of the people ceased to live in forest and adopted civilized life, they developed relationship with domesticated animals and fertile land.



Factors of Migration

- There are a number of factors which are responsible for the migration of human population.
- These factors can be grouped under the heads of **favourable and unfavourable** factors.
- The favourable factors which attract people towards a location are called pull factors.

- The unfavourable factors which make the people to move out from a location are called push factors.

The various causes which are responsible for human migration is categorized under five groups as follows.

Ecological or Natural Causes of Migration

- The causes operate under this category are natural ones. They include volcanic eruption, earthquake mankind changed considerably.
- They almost left the nomadic life and started to live in permanent settlements.
- At this stage, people continued to move from one region to another in search of fertile land for cultivation.
- Afterwards, the nature of mobility frequently changed over a period of time. **Earthquake, flood, drought** etc.
- These events force the people to leave their native places and settle in the new areas.
- The conditions like the **availability of water resources, areas free from hazards, pollution etc.**, attract the migrants.

Economic causes of Migration

- Economy is one of the most important causes of human migration from one area to another. Various economic causes determine the level and direction of migration.
- The availability of **fertile agricultural land, employment opportunities, development of technology etc.**, are some of the economic causes that attract the migration.
- The mass poverty and unemployment force the people to move out from their native places to the places where the better employment opportunities are available.

Socio-cultural causes of Migration

- Socio-cultural causes also play some roles in the process of migration.
- Migration of women after marriage and migration associated with pilgrimage are based on the socio-cultural customs.

Demographic causes of Migration

- In demographic sense, the population composition like age and sex, over population and under population are the major causes of migration.
- It is well known fact that adults are more migratory than any other age-groups.
- **Women mostly migrate after their marriage.** Generally over population is considered as a push factor and under population to be pull factor in the context of migration.

Political causes of Migration

- Various political causes like colonization, wars, government policies etc. have always been playing important role in human migration from time to time.
- **Wars** have been one of the significant causes of migration since ancient time.

Pull Factors	Push Factors
Natural Causes	
Least hazard prone zones	Hazard prone zones
Favourable climate	Climate change (including extreme weather events)
Abundance of natural resources and minerals (e.g. water, oil, uranium)	Crop failure and scarcity of food
Economic Cause	
Potential for employment	Unemployment
Socio-cultural Cause	
Unification	Family conflicts
Demographic Cause	
Under population	Over population
Political Causes	
Political security	War, civil, unrest
Independence and freedom	Safety and security concerns (ethnic, religious, racial or cultural persecution)
Affordable and accessible urban services (including healthcare, education, utilities and transport)	Inadequate or limited urban services and infrastructure (including healthcare, education, utilities, transport and water)

Types of Migration

Migration can be classified in several ways. It is usually categorized as follows

Share of Regions in World Population and International Migrants by Origin - 2017

S.No	Name of the Region	Total Population	Percentage of Global Population	International Migrants by origin	Percentage of International Migrants
1	Africa	1,256,268	16.6	36,266	14.1
2	Asia	4,504,428	59.7	105,684	41.0
3	Europe	742,074	9.8	61,191	23.7
4	Latin America and the Caribbean	645,593	8.6	37,720	14.6
5	Northern America	361,208	4.8	4,413	1.7
6	Oceania	40,691	0.5	1,880	0.7
7	Unknown	n/a	n/a	10,560	4.1
8	World	7,550,262	100.0	257,715	100.0

Source: International Migration Report, 2017, United Nations.

Based on the movement associated with administrative limits

Internal migration:

- The movement of people within a country is known as internal migration.
- Further, the **internal migration** is classified into four categories on **the basis of the place of origin and destination of migrants**.
- **Rural to Urban Migration** is the movement of population from rural areas to growing towns and cities mainly in search of employment, education and recreation facilities.
- **Urban to Urban Migration** is the migration between one urban centre to the other like in search of higher salaries.
- **Rural to Rural Migration** is driven by fertile land for cultivation and other sociological factors like Marriage etc.
- **Urban to Rural Migration** is the movement from urban centres to rural areas to get rid-off the urban problems and returning to native places after retirement from jobs.
- Rural to urban migration is the most common one.

International migration

Migration that occurs across the national boundaries are known as international migration.

Based on the willingness of the migrants for migration

Voluntary migration:

If the migration takes place on person's free will, initiative and desire to live in a better place and to improve their financial status, the migration is said to be voluntary.

Involuntary or forced migration:

If the migration takes place against the will of migrants, the migration is termed as involuntary migration. The push factors like war may force the people to emigrate from a place are of this type.

Based on the duration of stay of migrants in the place of destination**Short term migration:**

In this kind of migration, the migrants stay outside only for a short duration before returning to the place of origin. The duration may be from a few days to few months.

Long term migration:

It is a kind of migration in which the migrants stay outside at least for a few years.

Seasonal migration:

- In this type of migration usually a group of people migrates from their native places during a particular season and returns after end of that season.
- People migrating to hill stations during summer and the migration of agricultural workers during sowing seasons belong to this category.
- Transhumance is an another example of seasonal migration.

Consequences of Migration

Migration affects both the areas of origin of migration and the areas of destination. The following are the major consequences of migration.

Demographic consequences:

- It changes age and sex composition of population.
- Migration of females after their marriage leads to decline in sex ratio in the source regions and increase the sex ratio in the regions of destinations.
- The migration of male workers in search of jobs decreases the independent population of the source regions which increases the dependency ratio.

Social consequences:

- The migration of people from different regions towards an urban area leads to the formation of plural society.

- It helps the people to come out of narrow mindedness and people become generous.

Economic consequences:

- The migration of more people from over populated to under populated regions results the imbalance of the resource-population ratio.
- In some cases, the regions of over and under population may become the regions of optimum population.
- Migration may influence the occupational structure of the population of an area.
- Through this it will certainly affect the economy of the regions also. Brain drain is a consequence of migration.
- **Brain drain** refers to the migration in which skilled people from economically backward countries move to developed countries in search of better opportunities.
- Eventually, this leads to backwardness in source regions. This is called as "**backwash effect**".

Environmental consequences:

- Large scale movement of people from rural to urban areas causes overcrowding in cities and puts heavy pressure on resources. It leads to rapid growth of cities.
- The over population in urban areas leads to the pollution of air, water and soil.
- **Scarcity of drinking water, lack of space for housing, traffic congestions and poor drainage** are the common environmental problems prevail in urban areas.
- The lack of space for housing and the rising of land cost lead to the formation of slums.

Urbanisation

Urbanisation refers to the process in which there is an increase in the proportion of population living in towns and cities.

Causes of Urbanisation

- Urbanisation is driven by three factors: natural population growth, rural to urban migration and the reclassification of rural areas into urban areas.
- Present day urbanisation includes changes in demographics, **land cover, economic processes and characteristics of geographic area**.

Origin and Growth of World Urbanisation

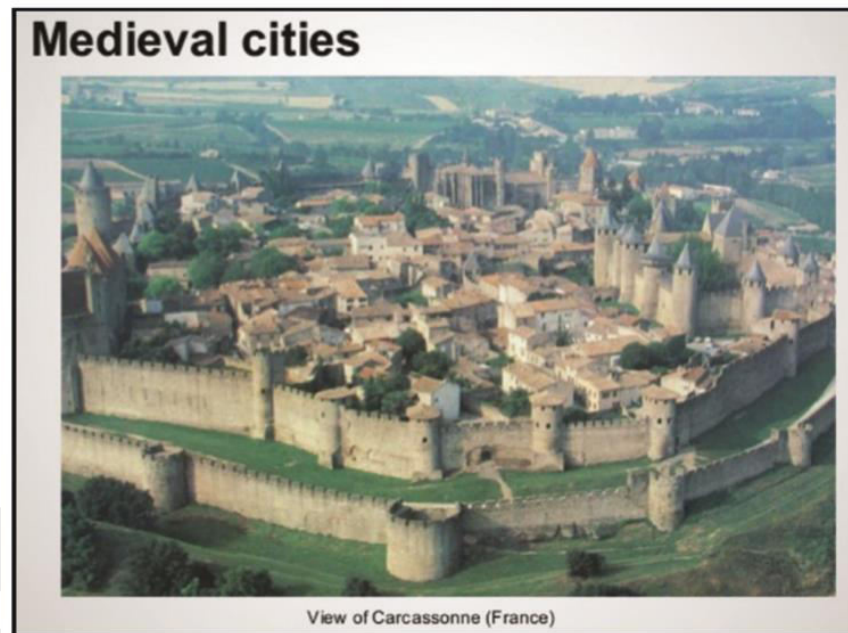
The process of urbanisation in the world has a long history.

Ancient Period:

- The urban centres started developing during the pre-historic period (**before 10000 years**).

- During this period primitive man started domestication of plants and animals. It was the period of development of permanent settlements.
- The river valley regions of the Egypt, Greece and India gave rise to agrarian communities which eventually formed the urban communities and urban centres.
- The excess production of food grains was the major reason for urbanisation.
- **Ur and Babylon in Mesopotamia, Thebes and Alexandria in Egypt, Athens in Greece, Harappa and Mohenjodaro in India** were noted prehistoric cities of the world.
- In ancient period the increase in the number and size of urban centres occurred during the two great colonizing periods of the Greeks and Romans.
- During the beginning of the 7th century itself many cities were found near the Aegean Sea.
- During the Greek colonizing period, the expansion of trade promoted the growth of towns and cities.

Medieval Period:



- It refers to the period after the 11th century. During this period, the European countries, increased their overseas trade which played an important role in the revival of European towns and cities after a period of low development.
- At the end of the thirteenth century, **Paris, London, Geneva, Milan and Venice** were the important cities found in Europe.

Modern Period:

- This period starts from 17th century. It marks the third phase of development in urbanisation.
- The industrial revolution in the **19th century** accelerated the growth of towns and cities.

- The Europeans with urban civilization gave birth to a large number of new towns in North America and Soviet Union.
- The modern means of transport and communication, the development of new trade routes during 19th century had strengthened the trade centres and urban areas.
- The latest development in urbanisation was noticed in the continent of Africa.
- Before 1930, Africa had towns only on its coasts but now it has **50 towns** with population exceeding 1,00,000.
- Major cities in Africa are **Cairo, Nairobi, Mombasa, Bulawayo, Duala, Abidjan, Logos, Accra, Addis Abba, Leopoldville, Luanda, Cape Town, Natal, Pretoria etc.**
- Thus, in modern age, the accelerating urbanisation is resulting in a redistribution of population throughout the world.

Consequences of Urbanisation

Housing and Slums:

- There is a lack of space for housing and a marked reduction in the quality of housing in the urban areas due to increase in population.
- This problem may increase in the years to come. Rapid rate of urbanisation results the development of slums.

Over Crowding:

Over-crowding leads to unhealthy environment in the urban areas. It also the cause of many diseases and riots.

Water supply, Drainage and Sanitation:

No city has round the clock water supply in the world. Drainage situation is equally bad. The removal of garbage is a **Himalayan task for urban local bodies.**

Transportation and Traffic:

- Absence of planned and adequate arrangements for traffic and transport is another problem in urban centres.
- The increasing number of two wheelers and cars make the traffic problem worse. They cause air pollution as well.

Pollution:

- Towns and cities are the major polluters of environment. Several cities discharge their entire sewage and industrial effluents untreated into the nearby rivers.
- Industries in and around the urban centres pollute the atmosphere with smoke and toxic gases.

More to Know:

1. In 1950, 30% of the world's population was urban, and by 2050, 68 % of the world's population is projected to be urban (**World Urbanisation Prospects, 2018, Key facts**).
2. In 2007, for the first time in history, the global urban population exceeded the global rural population and the world population has remained predominantly urban thereafter. (**World Urbanisation Prospects, 2014 Revision, Highlights**).
3. India, China and Nigeria – together are expected to account for 35 % of the growth in the world's urban population between 2018 and 2050. India is projected to add 416 million urban dwellers, China 255 million and Nigeria 189 million (**World Urbanisation Prospects, 2018, Key facts**).
4. The number of international migrants worldwide has continued to grow rapidly in recent years, reaching 258 million in 2017, up from 220 million in 2010 and 173 million in 2000 (**International Migration Report, 2017**).
5. Female migrants outnumber male migrants in Europe, Northern America, Oceania and Latin America and the Caribbean, while in Africa and Asia, particularly Western Asia, migrants are predominantly men. (**International Migration Report, 2017**).
6. In 2017, India was the largest country of origin of international migrants (17 million), followed by Mexico (13 million) (International Migration Report, 2017).

8th Social Science Lesson 14 Notes in English

14. Hazards

- In the beginning of **twenty-first century**, the earth supported a human population that was more numerous and found healthier and wealthier than ever before.
- At the same time, there were a lack of awareness on the risks that faced by the people.
- By keeping this in mind, the present lesson of hazards is intended to familiarise the different types of hazards to promote awareness among students regarding hazards.
- Hazards are defined as a thing, person, event or factor that poses a threat to people, structures or economic assets and which may cause a disaster.
- They could be either **human made or naturally occurring** in the environment.
- The word '**hazard**' owes its origin to the word '**hasart**' in old **French meaning** a game of dice (**in Arabic – az-zahr; in Spanish – azar**).
- Though the society experiences several types of hazards, it is important for a region to be aware of those threats that are most likely to affect the community most severely.

Types of Hazards

Some hazards occur frequently and threaten the people. Hazards are classified in different ways.

- Based on their causes of occurrence.
- Based on their origin.

Based on their causes of occurrence

Hazards can be broadly classified into three types: **natural, human-made and socio-natural hazards**.

Natural hazards:

- These are the results of **natural processes and man has no role to play in such hazards**.
- The main examples of natural hazards are earthquakes, floods, cyclonic storms, droughts, landslides, tsunamis and volcanic eruptions.

Human-made hazards:

- These are caused by undesirable activities of human. It can be the result of an accident, such as an industrial chemical leak or oil spill, or an intentional act.
- Such hazards can disturb the safety, health, welfare of people and cause damage or destruction to property.
- The following are the examples of human-made hazards.
- They are **explosions, hazardous wastes, pollution of air, water and land, dam failures, wars or civil conflicts and terrorism**.

Socio-natural hazards (Quasi-natural hazards)

- These are caused by the combined effect of natural forces and misdeeds of human. Some of the examples are
- The frequency and intensity of floods and droughts may increase due to indiscriminate **felling of trees, particularly in the catchment areas of the rivers.**
- Landslides are caused by natural forces and their frequency, and impact may be aggravated as a result of construction of roads, houses etc., in mountainous areas, excavating tunnels and by mining and quarrying.
- Storm surge hazards may be worsened by the destruction of mangroves.
- Smog is a serious problem in most big urban areas.
- The emissions from vehicles and industries, combustion of wood and coal together combined with fog leads to smog.

Based on their origin

Hazards can be grouped into eight categories

Atmospheric hazard – Tropical storms, Thunderstorms, Lightning, Tornadoes, Avalanches, Heat waves, Fog and Forest fire.

Geologic/Seismic hazard – Earthquakes, Tsunamis, Landslides and Land subsidence.

Hydrologic hazard – Floods, Droughts, Coastal erosion and Storm surges.

Volcanic hazard – Eruptions and Lava flows.

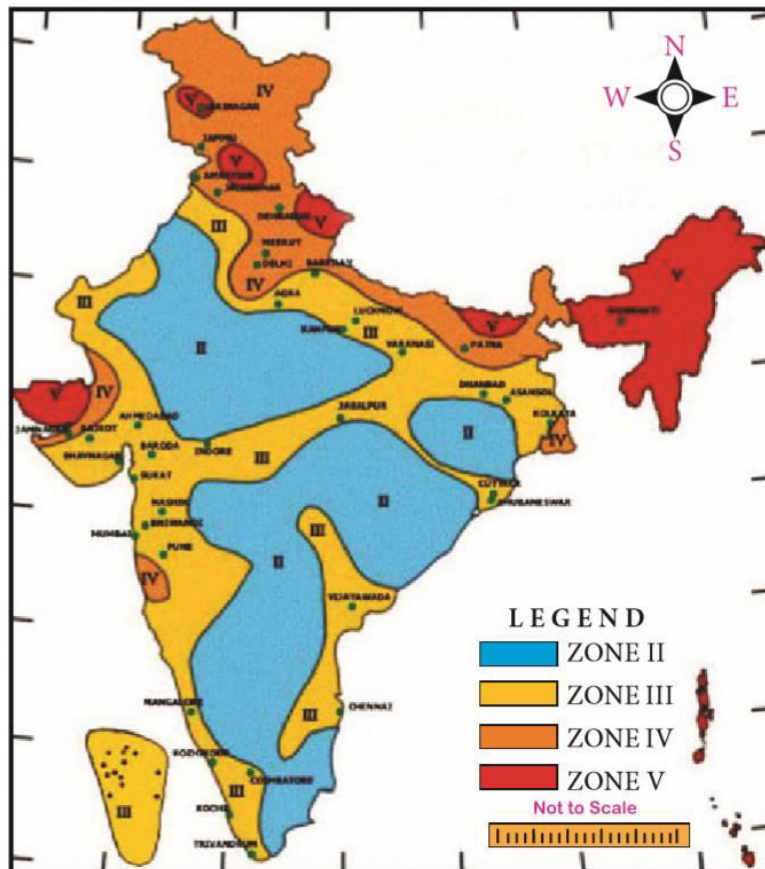
Environmental hazard – Pollution of soil/ air/water, Desertification, Global warming and Deforestation.

Biological hazard – Chickenpox, Smallpox, AIDS [HIV] and Killer bees.

Technological hazard – Hazardous material incidents, Fires, Infrastructure failures [Bridges, Tunnels, Dams] and Nuclear/ Radiological accidents.

Human-induced hazard – Terrorism, Mass shootings, War, Transportation accidents and Civil disorder.

Major Hazards in India:



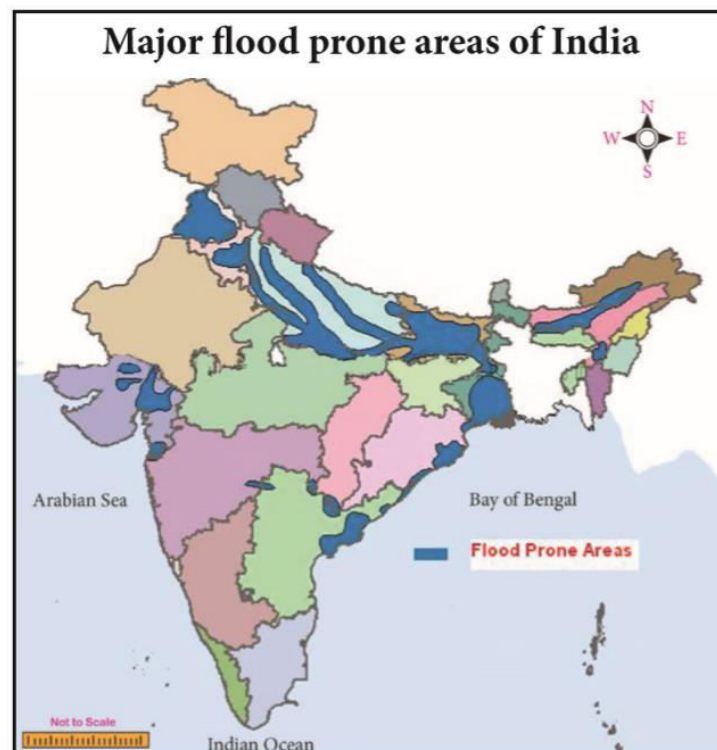
Earthquakes

- Earthquake is a violent tremor in the earth's crust, sending out a series of shock waves in all directions from its place of origin.
- Earthquake prone regions of the country have been identified on the basis of scientific inputs relating to seismicity, earthquakes occurred in the past and tectonic setup of the region.
- Based on these inputs, Bureau of Indian Standards has grouped the country into four seismic zones: **Zone II, Zone III, Zone IV and Zone V** (No area of India is classified as Zone I).

Seismic Zones	Level of Risk	Regions
Zone V	Very High	Comprises entire northeastern India, parts of Jammu and Kashmir, Himachal Pradesh, Uttarakhand, Rann of Kutch in Gujarat, part of North Bihar and Andaman & Nicobar Islands.
Zone IV	High	Covers remaining parts of Jammu and Kashmir and Himachal Pradesh, National Capital Territory (NCT) of Delhi, Sikkim, northern parts of Uttar Pradesh, Bihar and West Bengal, parts of Gujarat and small portions of Maharashtra near the west coast and Rajasthan.
Zone III	Moderate	Comprises Kerala, Goa, Lakshadweep Islands, remaining parts of Uttar Pradesh, Gujarat and West Bengal, parts of Punjab, Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh, Bihar, Jharkhand, Chhattisgarh, Maharashtra, Odisha, Andhra Pradesh, Tamil Nadu and Karnataka.
Zone II	Low	Covers remaining parts of country.

Floods

Flood is an event in which a part of the earth's surface gets inundated. Heavy rainfall and large waves in seas are the common causes of flood.



The major causes of floods are:

Meteorological factors

- Heavy rainfall
- Tropical cyclones
- Cloud burst

Physical factors

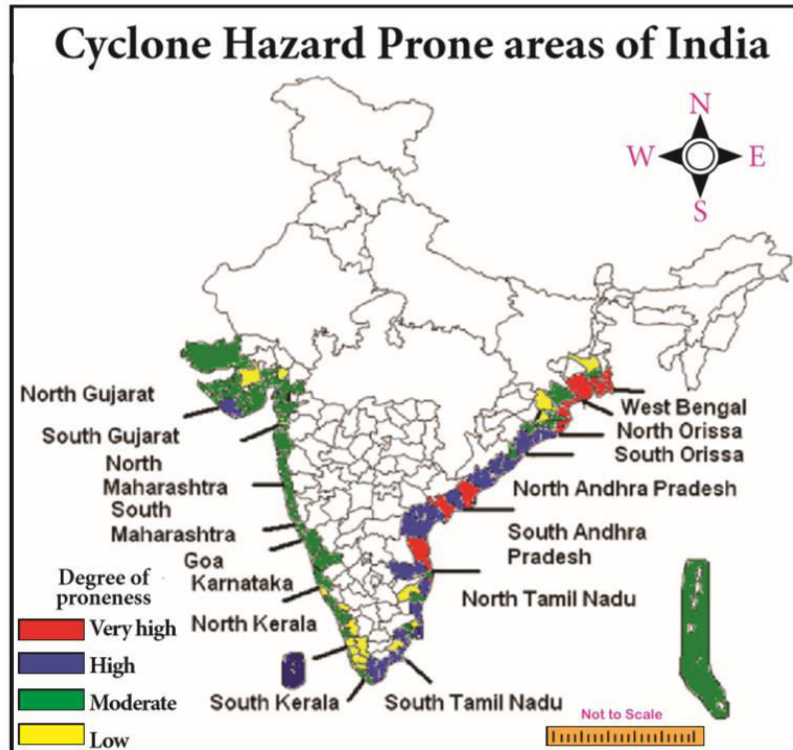
- Large catchment area
- Inadequate drainage arrangement

Human factors

- Deforestation
- Siltation
- Faulty agricultural practices
- Faulty irrigation practices
- Collapse of dams
- Accelerated urbanisation

Gangetic plains covering the states of Punjab, Haryana, Uttar Pradesh, North Bihar, West Bengal and **Brahmaputra valley** are the major flood prone areas in north and northeast India. Coastal Andhra Pradesh, Odisha and southern Gujarat are the **other regions which are also prone to flood often.**

Cyclonic Storms



- A cyclonic storm is a **strong wind circulating around a low pressure** area in the atmosphere.
- It rotates in anti-clockwise direction in Northern Hemisphere and clockwise in the Southern Hemisphere.
- Tropical cyclones are characterised by destructive winds, storm surges and exceptional levels of rainfall, which may cause flooding.
- Wind speed may reach upto **200 km/h** and rainfall may record **upto 50 cm/day for several consecutive days**.
- A sudden rise of seawater due to tropical cyclone is called storm surge. It is more common in the regions of shallow coastal water.

East coastal areas vulnerable to storm surges

North Odisha and West Bengal coasts.

Andhra Pradesh coast between Ongole and Machilipatnam.

Tamil Nadu coast (**among 13 coastal districts, Nagapattinam and Cuddalore districts are frequently affected**).

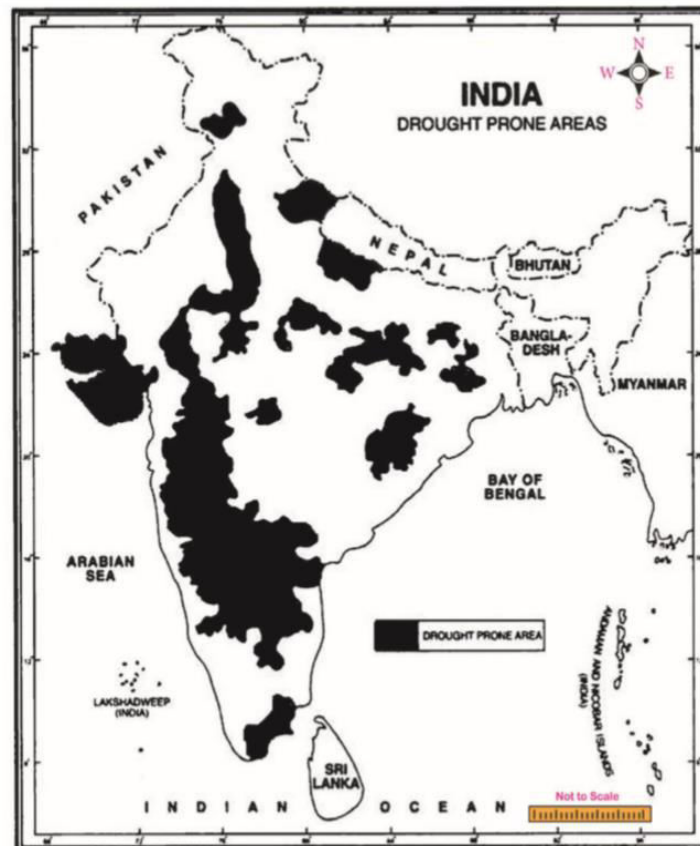
West coastal areas vulnerable to storm surges

The west coast of India is less vulnerable to storm surges than the east coast.

Maharashtra coast, north of Harnai and adjoining south Gujarat coast and the coastal belt around the Gulf of Cambay.

The coastal belt around the Gulf of Kutch.

Droughts



Any lack of water to satisfy the normal needs of agriculture, livestock, industry or human population may be termed as a drought. Further, the drought could be classified into three major types as,

Meteorological drought: it is a situation where there is a reduction in rainfall for a specific period below a specific level.

Hydrological drought: it is associated with reduction of water in streams, rivers and reservoirs. It is of two types

- Surface water drought
- Groundwater drought.

Agricultural drought: it refers to the condition in which the agricultural crops get affected due to lack of rainfall.

- Droughts in India occur in the event of a failure of monsoon. Generally monsoon rainfall is uneven in India.
- Some areas receive heavy rainfall while other regions get moderate to low rainfall.
- The areas which experience low to very low rainfall are affected by drought.

The major areas highly prone to drought are:

- The arid and semi-arid region from Ahmedabad to Kanpur on one side and from Kanpur to Jalandhar on the other.
- The dry region lying in the leeward side of the Western Ghats.

Landslides

- Landslide is a rapid downward movement of rock, soil and vegetation down the slope under the influence of gravity.
- Landslides are generally sudden and infrequent. Presence of steep slope and heavy rainfall are the major causes of landslides.
- **Weak ground structure, deforestation, earthquakes, volcanic eruptions, mining, construction of roads and railways** over the mountains are the other causes of landslides.
- About **15% of India's landmass** is prone to landslide hazard. Landslides are very common along the steep slopes of the Himalayas, the Western Ghats and along the river valleys.
- In Tamil Nadu, **Kodaikanal (Dindigul district) and Ooty (The Nilgiris district)** are frequently affected by landslides.

Tsunamis

- Tsunami refers to huge ocean waves caused by an earthquake, landslide or volcanic eruption.
- It is generally noticed in the coastal regions and travel **between 640 and 960 km/h**.
- Tsunamis pose serious danger to the inhabitants of the coastal areas.

Hazardous Wastes

- The wastes that may or tend to cause adverse health effects on the ecosystem and human beings are called hazardous wastes.

The following are the major hazardous wastes

Radioactive substance: tools and unused fuel rods of nuclear power plants.

Chemicals: synthetic organics, inorganic metals, salts, acids and bases, and flammables and explosives.

Biomedical wastes: hypodermic needles, bandages and outdated drugs.

Flammable wastes: organic solvents, oils, plasticisers and organic sludges.

Explosives: the wastes resulting from ordnance manufacturing and some industrial gases.

Household hazardous wastes: pesticides, waste oil, automobile battery and household battery.

Pollution of Air

- Air is a mixture of several gases. The main gases are **nitrogen (78.09%)** for forming products such as, fertilisers for plants and for making the air inert, **oxygen (20.95%)** for breathing and **carbon dioxide (0.03%)** for photosynthesis.
- Some other gases like argon, neon, helium, krypton, hydrogen, ozone, xenon and methane are also present.
- Besides, water vapour and dust particles make their presence felt in one way or the other.
- Air pollution is the contamination of the indoor or outdoor air by a range of gases and solids that modify its natural characteristics and percentage.
- Air pollutants can be categorised into primary and secondary pollutants. A primary pollutant is an air pollutant emitted directly from a source.
- A secondary pollutant is not directly emitted as such, but forms when other pollutants (primary pollutants) react in the atmosphere.

Primary Pollutants

- Oxides of sulphur
- Oxides of Nitrogen
- Oxides of Carbon
- Particulate Matter
- Other Primary Pollutants

Secondary Pollutants

- Ground Level Ozone
- Smog

Pollution of Water

- Water pollution may be defined as alteration in the physical, chemical and biological characteristics of water, which may cause harmful effects in human and aquatic life.
- In India, water pollution has been taking place on a large scale and since a long period.
- Both surface and groundwater bodies are polluted to a great extent.

The major causes of water pollution in India are:

- Urbanisation
- Industrial effluents
- Sewages

- Agricultural runoff and improper agricultural practices
- Seawater intrusion
- Solid wastes

Need for Prevention Measures

Prevention is defined as the activities taken to prevent a natural calamity or potential hazard from having harmful effects on either people or economic assets.

Prevention planning consists of,

- Hazard identification
- vulnerability assessment.

Delayed actions may increase the economic losses.

For developing countries like India, prevention is perhaps the most critical components in managing disasters.

More to Know:

1. A natural hazard is a natural process and event that is a potential threat to human life and property. The process and events themselves are not a hazard but become so because of human use of the land. A disaster is a hazardous event that occurs over a limited time span in a defined area and causes great damage to property/ loss of life, also needs assistance from others. A catastrophe is a massive disaster that requires significant expenditure of money and a long time (often years) for recovery.

2. About one third area of the country is affected by drought. It severely affects 16% of the land area and 12% of the total population of India. The areas that receive an annual rainfall of less than 60 cm are the drought prone regions of India.

3. The word 'Tsunami' is derived from Japanese word 'tsu' meaning harbour and 'nami' meaning wave (Harbour wave).

4. Indian Ocean Tsunami of 2004

- On **December 26, 2004, at 7:59 a.m.** local time, an undersea earthquake with a magnitude of 9.1 struck off the coast of the Indonesian island of Sumatra.
- The tsunami killed at least **2,25,000 people** across a dozen countries, with Indonesia, Sri Lanka, India, Thailand, Somalia and Maldives, sustaining massive damage.

5. Chernobyl nuclear disaster site (near Pripyat) to become an official tourist spot

Before:

- Chernobyl (then Soviet Union) nuclear accident was happened on **26th April, 1986**.
- The radiation emitted was more than 400 times than that released by the atomic bomb dropped on Hiroshima (Japan) in **1945**.
- This accident remains the largest nuclear accident in history.
- More than **3,50,000** people were evacuated from the area and severe restrictions on permanent human settlement are still in that place.

Now:

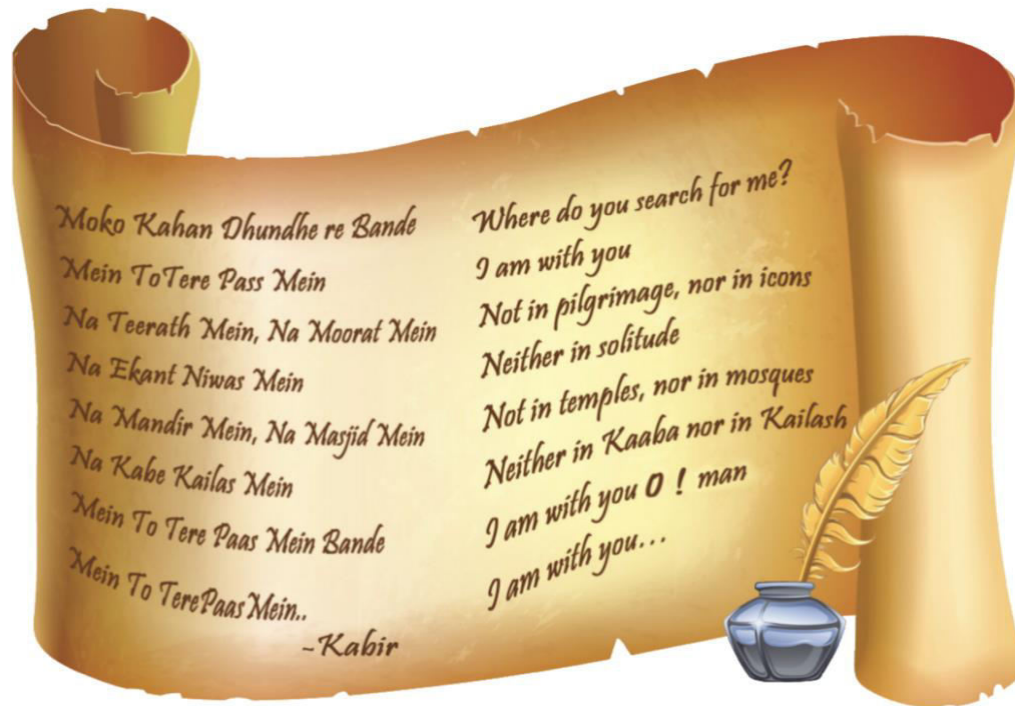
- **33 years after the accident**, the Exclusion Zone, which covers an area now in Ukraine and Belarus is inhabited by numerous animals and more than 200 bird species.
- In 2016, the Ukraine part of this zone was declared as a radiological and environmental biosphere reserve by the government.

6. Nature is emerging as a new weapon of mass destruction, do you agree?

Around 22,000 people have died in India in **10 years until 2017** due to major environmental disasters – Indian Meteorology Department. In the past two decades (**1998-2017**) over **5,00,000** people have died due to extreme weather events around the world – stated by Global Climate Risk Index Report Published by Germanwatch (German-based non-profit organisation).

8th Social Science Lesson 15 Notes in English

15. Understanding Secularism



India will be a land of many faiths, equally honoured and respected, but of one national outlook. -
Jawaharlal Nehru



Introduction

- India is a **land of multi-religious faith and multi-cultural beliefs**.
- It is the birth place of four major religions; **Hinduism, Jainism, Buddhism and Sikhism**.
- In our country people of diverse religions and beliefs have been living peacefully for a long time.

- Modern nation states are multi-religious states, hence there is a need for tolerance of all religions.
- The concept of secularism is aimed at creating a society in which people of religious beliefs or people who do not belong to any religion can live together in harmony and peace.
- **Rajaram Mohan Roy, Sir Syed Ahmad Khan, Rabindranath Tagore, Mahatma Gandhi and B.R. Ambedkar** were some of the noted individuals held high in public regards who contributed towards the spread of secularism in the various spheres of Indian society.
- Secularism is invaluable for a society like India which is characterised by religious diversity.

What does Secularism mean?

- Secularism means an **attitude of tolerance** towards other religions and peaceful co-existence of citizens belonging to different faiths.
- It is a policy of neutrality and equality by the states towards all religious communities.
- Secularism is the principle of separation of state and religion or more broadly no interference of the state in the matters of religion and vice-versa.
- This means that every citizen is free to propagate, practice, and profess their faith, change it or not have one, according to their conscience.

Objectives of Secularism

- One religious group does not dominate another.
- Some members don't dominate other members of the same religious community.
- The state does not enforce any specific religion nor take away the religious freedom of individuals.
- A simple statement by poet Iqbal illustrates the secular view **"Religion does not teach us animosity; We are Indians and India is our home!"**

The Characteristic Features of a Secular State:

Principle of Liberty – the state permits the practice of any religion.

Principle of Equality – the state does not give preference to any religion over another.

Principle of Neutrality – the state remains neutral in religious matter.

- A secular state is the one in which the state does not officially promote any one religion as the country's official religion and every religion is treated equally.
- It gives to every citizen not only the equal right to freedom of conscience but also the **right to profess, practice and propagate any faith of their own choice**. The state observes an attitude of neutrality and impartiality towards all religions.

- In a secular state no one is given preferential treatment and the State does not discriminate any person on the basis of their religious practices and beliefs.
- All citizens are eligible to enter government service irrespective of their faith.
- There should be absolutely no religious instructions in educational institutions and no taxes to support any particular religion.

Importance of Secularism

- The concept of secularism evolved in India as equal treatment of all religions.
- We need secular state to maintain peace and harmony between people of various religious ideologies. It is a part of democracy, which grants equal rights.

Constitution and Secularism

- **Secularism is the part of Indian Constitution.** The makers of the Indian Constitution were aware that a strong and united nation could be built only when all sections of people had the freedom to practice their religion.
- So secularism was accepted as one of the fundamental tenets for the development of democracy in India.
- The word secularism was not mentioned in our Constitution when it was adopted in 1950.
- Later on in 1976, the word secular was incorporated in the Preamble through the 42nd Amendment of the Indian Constitution. **(India is a Sovereign, Socialist, Secular, Democratic, Republic)** The basic aim of our Constitution is to promote unity and integrity of the nation along with individual dignity.
- There is no state religion in India. The state will neither establish a religion of its own nor confer any special patronage upon any particular religion.
- The freedom of religion guaranteed under the Indian Constitution is not confined to its citizen alone but extends to aliens also.
- This was pointed out by the **Hon'ble Supreme Court in the case Ratilal Panchand V State of Bombay in 1954.**

The Constitution of India has the following distinguishing features:

- The state will not identify itself with or be controlled by any religion
- The state guarantees to everyone the right to profess any religion of their own.
- The state will not accord any preferential treatment any of them.
- No discrimination will be shown by the state against any person on account of his religious faith.
- It creates fraternity of the Indian people and gives assurance the dignity of the individual and the unity of the nation.

Mosaic of Constitutional Provisions

Article 15 – prohibition of discrimination on grounds of religion, caste, sex or place of birth etc.

Article 16 – equality of opportunity in public employment.

Article 25(1) – guarantees the freedom of conscience and the right to profess, practice and propagate religion individually.

Article 26 – Freedom to manage religious affairs.

Article 27 – The state shall not compel any citizen to pay any taxes for the promotion of any particular religion.

Article 28 – on religious instruction or religious worship in certain educational institution.

Article 29 (2) – A ban on discrimination in state-aided educational institution .

Why do we need secular education?

Secularism in education means making public education free from any religious dominance.

Children as future citizens must get education which should aim at their development of character and moral behavior irrespective of religious affiliation. Secular education is needed

- to remove narrow mindedness and makes dynamic and enlightened view
- to develop moral and humanistic outlook
- to train the youth to be good citizen
- to strengthen democratic values like liberty, equality, and fraternity and co-operative living
- to give wider vision towards life
- to develop an attitude of appreciation and understanding of others point of view
- to develop the spirit of love, tolerance, co-operation, equality and sympathy
- to synthesise materialism and spiritualism.

Conclusion

- The Indian State is secular and works in various ways to prevent religious domination.
- Secularism undoubtedly helps and aspires to enable every citizen to enjoy fully blessings of life, liberty and happiness.
- The Indian Constitution guarantees **fundamental rights that are based on secular principles**.
- It is one of the glowing achievement on Indian democracy. Secularism allows us to live in civility.
- It compels people to respect other religion. It grants equal rights to the people in respect of their religious faith. It is desirable for a country like India.

More to Know:

1. Akbar's instruction for his mausoleum was that it would incorporate elements from different religions including **Islam and Hinduism**
2. A 19th century Hindu temple in **Khajuraho**, India incorporates a Hindu spire, a **Jain cupola**, a **Buddhist stupa** and **Muslim style dome** in place of usual shikara.



3. The secular Indian state declares public holidays to mark the festivals of all religions.

4. 12th Rock Edict, Ashoka



- Emperor Ashoka was the first great emperor to announce as early as **3rd century BC (BCE)** that the state would not prosecute any religious sect.
 - In his 12th Rock Edict, Ashoka made an appeal not only for the tolerance of all religious sects but also to develop a spirit of great respect towards them.
5. The Mughal emperor Akbar followed the policy of religious toleration. His propagation of **Din-i-Illahi (Divine Faith)** and **Sulh-e-Kul (Peace and harmony among religions)** were advocated for religious toleration.

6. **Atheism** - is a lack of belief in god and gods.
7. **Secularism** - is non – interference of the state in religious affairs and vice-versa.
8. The term secularism is derived from **the Latin word 'saeculum' meaning 'an age' or 'the spirit of an age'.**
9. George Jacob Holyoake a British newspaper editor coined the term secularism.

8th Social Science Lesson 16 Notes in English

16. Human Rights and UNO

Introduction

- **Everybody is born equal.** Each individual in the world has the right to lead a dignified life of his or her own choice. Human rights are related to individuals and society.
- Human rights denotes all those rights that are inherent and ensure that we live as free people and exercise our choices.
- The state's role is to ensure that people have equal rights.

What are Human Rights?

- Human Rights are rights inherent to all human beings **regardless of race, sex, nationality, ethnicity, language and religion.**
- **Human rights include freedom from slavery and torture, freedom of opinion and expression and fair trial, the right to life work and education.**

Where do Human Rights come from?

A set of basic rights and freedoms has deep roots in European and American countries.

Written Precursors of Human Rights Documents

The Magna Carta of 1215(England) – gave people new rights and made the king subject to the law.

The Petition of Right 1628(England) – set out the rights of the people.

The Habeas Corpus Act of 1679(England) – an act for the better securing liberty of the subject.

The English Bill of Rights of 1689 – set out certain basic civil rights.

The French Declaration on the Rights of Man and Citizen 1789 – a document of France, stating that all citizens are equal under the law.

The US Constitution and Bill of Rights 1791 - safeguards the rights of the citizens.

The Birth of United Nations

- The idea of human rights emerged stronger after the Second World War. This War led to unimaginable violation of human rights.
- During the times of war, human lives lost its value and those affected by war had to struggle till the end of their life.
- Atrocities during the Second World War made clear that previous efforts to protect individual rights from government violations were inadequate.

- The **rights of man were prevented or eliminated** in several parts of the world due to several factors.
- It is proved that the government of some countries alone could not protect human rights.
- People wanted to ensure that never again would anyone be unjustly denied **life, freedom, food, shelter, and nationality**.
- These voices played a critical role in the San Francisco meeting in which the **United Nations Charter was drafted in 1945**.
- At this juncture, an International body, the United Nations Organisation (UNO) which was established on **24th October 1945** took up the issue.
- Human Rights is an important theme in all UN policies and programmes in the areas of peace and security, development, humanitarian assistance and economic and social affairs.

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR)

- One of the greatest achievements of United Nations is the creation of human rights law.
- To advance this goal, the UN established a Commission on Human Rights.
- The Commission guided by **Eleanor Roosevelt's (wife of former US president Franklin D Roosevelt)** forceful leadership captured the world's attention.
- Finally, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) was adopted by the **UN General Assembly in 1948**.
- It is a milestone document in the history of Human rights. The Declaration was proclaimed by the UN General Assembly in Paris, France on **10th December 1948 (General Assembly resolution 217A)**.
- In remembrance of every year 10th December is observed as the Human Rights Day and its regular observance commenced from 1950.
- It is also known as modern International Magna Carta of Human Rights.
- Its principles have been incorporated into the Constitutions of most of the **(more than 185) nations. UDHR has been translated into more than 500 languages**. It is the most translated document in the world.

Human Rights are based on the values of

Dignity – The right to life, the right to integrity, the prohibition of enforced labour, slavery and degrading punishment.

Justice – The right to fair trial, proportional punishment to crime, the right not to be tried more than once for the same crime

Equality – Equality before law. No discrimination on race, religion, gender, age, ability/disability etc.

Basic Characteristics of Human Rights

Inherent – they are not granted by any person or authority.

Fundamental – they are fundamental rights because without them, the life and dignity of man will be meaningless
Inalienable – they cannot be taken away from the individual.

Indivisible – they can't be denied even when other rights have already been enjoyed.

Universal - they are universal. They apply irrespective of one's origin or status. They are enforceable without national border.

Interdependent - they are interdependent because the fulfillment or exercise of one human right cannot be had without the realization of the other.

Kinds of Human Rights

There are **30 Articles** incorporated in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. These rights are broadly classified into **Five** primary categories. They are as follows

Civil Rights

- The term civil rights refers to the basic rights afforded by laws of the government to every person.
- This is the right to be treated as an equal to anyone else. It includes the rights to life, liberty, freedom from slavery and arbitrary arrest.

Political Rights

- Political rights are exercised in the formation and administration of a government. The Civil and Political rights are directly related to modern democracy.
- They protect the individual from the misuse of political power and recognise every individual's right to participate in their country's political process.
- It includes the freedom of expression, and peaceful assembly, the right to take part in the government of one's country, **the right to vote, the freedom of speech and obtain information.**

Social Rights

- It is necessary for an individual to fully participate in the society.
- Social rights are those rights necessary for an adequate standard of living including the right to education, health care, food, clothing, shelter and social security.

Economic Rights

- The right to participate in an economy that benefits all and to desirable work.

- Economic rights guarantee every person to have condition under which they are able to meet their needs.
- This includes the rights to employment and fair wage, the reasonable limitation of working hours, shelter, education and adequate standard of living, and the right to property.

Cultural Rights

- The right to freedom of religion and to speak the language and to practice the cultural life of the community, the right to share in scientific advancement, and right to the protection of moral and material interest.

The Difference between Human Rights and Civil Rights

Human Rights	Civil Rights
Human rights belong to everyone, everywhere, regardless of <i>nationality sexuality, gender, race, religion or age</i> .	Civil rights are those rights that one enjoys by virtue of citizenship in a particular nation or state.
Human rights are considered universal to all human beings and universal in all countries.	Civil rights vary greatly from country to the country's or government to government. It is related to the Constitution.
No nation may rightfully deprive human rights to an individual.	Different nations can grant or deny different civil rights and liberties.
Human rights are basic rights inherent with birth.	Civil rights are creation of the society.

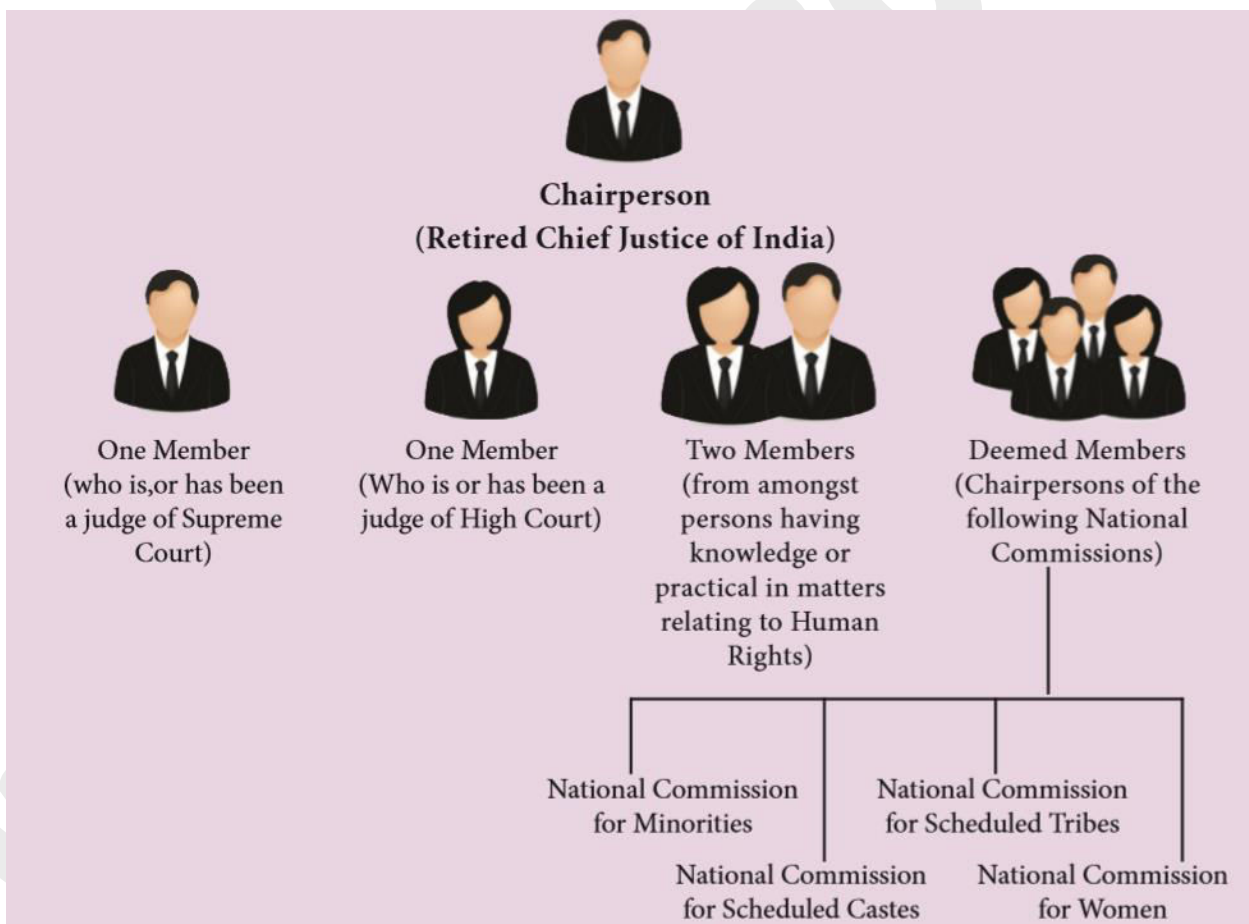
Human Rights Commission

- The **Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC)**, a principal organ of the United Nations was empowered to setup a commission for the promotion of human rights.
- National level and State level human rights commissions were established to ensure the protection of human rights.

National Human Rights Commission



- The National Human Rights Commission (NHRC) of India was established on **12th October, 1993**.
- It is an independent statutory, and non-constitutional body. Its headquarter is located in New Delhi.
- NHRC is a multimember body which consists of a Chairperson and other members. The President appoints the Chairperson and other members.
- They are appointed for **5 years or till the age of 70 years** whichever is earlier. NHRC has **five divisions**.
- Law Division, Investigation Division, Policy Research & Programmes Division, Training Division and Administrative Division.
- The National Human Rights Commission is responsible for the protection and promotion of human rights in India.



State Human Rights Commission

- The state Human Rights Commission of Tamil Nadu was formed on **17th April, 1997**.
- It functions at the state level. It consists of three members including a Chairperson.

- A state Human Rights Commission can inquire into violation of human rights related to subjects covered under State list and Concurrent list in the seventh schedule of the Indian Constitution. (not if NHRC already enquiring)

Human Rights Organisations

- Many organisations around the world have taken their efforts to protect human rights and for ending human rights abuses.
- These Nongovernmental organisations monitor the actions of governments and pressure them to act according to human right principles.
- Some of these organisations are **Amnesty International, Children's Defense Fund, Human Rights Watch.**

Child Rights

- According to **Article 1** of the **United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child 1989**, 'a child means every human being below the age of eighteen years'.
- The Convention on the Rights of the Child was proclaimed by UN on **20th November 1989**.
- The child is considered as an important national asset. The future of a nation depends on how its children mature and develop.
- So protection of children from all kinds of exploitation and abuses has become the main objective of our society. There are laws in India protecting the rights of the children.

Right to Education Act Article 21A provides that the state shall provide free and compulsory education to all children aged six to fourteen years.

The Child Labour Act (Prohibition and Regulation Act 1986) It provides no child who has not completed 15 years of age can be employed

The Juvenile Justice Act 2000 (Care and Protection of Children) This Act tries to protect children deprived of adequate care and to reform the children by adopting child friendly approach.

POCSO Act 2012 Protection of Children from Sexual Offences Act regards the best interest of the child as being paramount importance in every state.

Women Rights

- Women and girl's rights are human rights. Women are entitled to the full and equal enjoyment of all of their human rights and to be free from all forms of discrimination.
- This is fundamental to achieve human rights, peace and security and sustainable development.
- The Charter of the United Nations guarantees equal rights to both women and men.

- The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), adopted in **1979** by the UN General Assembly, is described as an International bill of rights for women.
- In **1995 the Fourth World Conference of Women**, held in Beijing, developed a Platform for Action to recognise women's rights and improve women's livelihood worldwide, and follow-up meetings monitored progress towards meeting these goals.
- The United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM), has worked since **1995 to implement the Beijing Platform for Action**.
- Only when women and girls have full access to their rights will true equality exist.

Conclusion

- Human rights are about equality and fairness for everyone and it ensures that everyone is treated with dignity and respect.
- The protection of human right is everyone's responsibility.
- An understanding and respect for human rights provides the foundation for peace, harmony, security and freedom in our community.

More to Know:

1. Maintenance and Welfare of Parents and Senior Citizen Act 2007

This Act makes it legal obligation for children and heirs to provide maintenance to senior citizens and parents. Protection and support during old age are envisaged as human rights.

2. 1098 Child Line



This is India's first 24 hours' free emergency phone service for children in need of assistance. Special care is given for vulnerable children those affected by child labour, child marriage and children affected by any abuse.

3. Indian Constitution

Article 24 - prohibits child labour.

Article 39 (f) - provides for children to develop in healthy manner

Article 45 – provides that the state shall endeavor to provide early childhood care and education for all children until they complete the age of six years.

4. UNO has declared

1978 as International year of women.

1979 as the International year of children.

5. Human Rights Day

Human Rights Day is celebrated annually on 10th December every year. It is to honour the United Nations General Assembly for declaring the human rights universally.

6. Preamble of UDHR

All men are born free and all are equal in status and rights. They are endowed with intelligence and conscience and obliged to promote the spirit of common brotherhood amongst all men.

7. The Cyrus Cylinder 539 BC (BCE)



- Cyrus the Great, the first king of ancient Persia, freed the slaves and declared that all people had the right to choose their own religion and established racial equality.
- These and other decrees were recorded on a **bakedclay cylinder in the Akkadian** language in cuneiform script.
- It is translated into all **six official languages** of the United Nations and its provisions parallel the first four Articles of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

Legislations	Provisions
The Hindu Widow Remarriage Act 1856	Legalised widow remarriage.
The Hindu Marriage Act 1955	States that the marriageable age for women is 21.
The Hindu Succession Act 1956	Ensures the right to women to inherit their parental property.
The Dowry Prohibition Act 1961	Provides drastic punishments for those ill-treating the bride in the name of dowry.
The Eve Teasing Act 1997	Gives relief to women.
Indecent Representation Act 1999	Prohibits the indecent representation of women in magazine, newspapers etc.
The Factory Act 1948, The Plantation Labour Act 1951, The Mines Act 1952 The Maternity benefit Act 1961	Protects the women workers.
Protection of Women from Domestic Violence Act 2005	Protects women from harassment by husband and family members.

8th Social Science Lesson 17 Notes in English

17. Road Safety Rules and Regulations

Introduction

- Our entire civilization has been based upon some of **our extraordinary infrastructures which give us speed and connectivity**.
- The roads are one of the most crucial inventions of man. In today's world transport has become an integral part of every human being.
- **Roads minimises the distance** but on the other hand road accidents injures lakhs of people and results in loss of lives.
- Road safety is primarily meant about to protect and provide security of all those who travel on roads.

Importance of Road Safety

- Every day the newspapers report of accidents of road and mishaps occurring frequently. Road accidents are undesired events that lead to injury or death.
- These deaths and injuries result in significant social and economic costs.
- The problem does not lie with roads; it is our carelessness that results in such misfortune. The loss of life results in the loss of livelihood.
- Our traffic is a heterogeneous mix of slow moving as well as high-speed vehicles which is the cause for the problem.

Direct Consequences of Accidents: Fatality (death), Injury, Property damage.

Reasons for the Road Accidents

Over Speeding

- The higher the speed greater the risk. Most of the fatal accidents occur due to over speeding.
- Increase in speed multiplies the risk of accident and severity of injury during an accident. Tailgating is illegal and dangerous habit. **(driving too close behind a vehicle)**

Drunken Driving

- Consumption of alcohol reduces concentration. It hampers vision due to dizziness.
- And driving under the influence of alcohol causes accidents. **(Random breath test is done to detect consumption of alcohol)**

Distraction to Drivers

- Distraction could be outside or inside the vehicle.

- The Major distraction now a days is talking on mobile phones while driving.
- The act of talking on phone occupies a major portion of the brain's function and the smaller part handles the driving skills.
- Some other distractions are inattentive or lost in thought (daydreaming), **adjusting mirrors while driving, stereo in vehicle, animals on road, banners and billboards etc.**

Red Light Jumping

- The main motive behind red light jumping is saving time.
- Studies have shown that traffic signals followed properly by all the drivers save time and commuters reach destination safely and on time.

Avoiding Safety Gears

- Use of seat belt in four wheelers and helmets for two wheelers have been brought under law.
- These two things reduce the severity of injury during accidents.

Other different factors

Drivers - over speeding, rash driving, violation of rules, failure to understand signs, fatigue and consumption of alcohol.

Pedestrian - carelessness, illiteracy, crossing at wrong places, moving on roads and jaywalkers.

Passengers - projecting their body outside the vehicle, by talking to drivers, travelling on footboards, catching a running bus etc.

Vehicles – failure of brakes or steering, tyre burst, insufficient headlights, overloading and projecting loads.

Road Condition – damaged road, potholes, eroded road merging of rural road with highways, diversion and illegal speed breakers

Weather Conditions – fog, snow, heavy rainfall, wind, storms and hail storms.

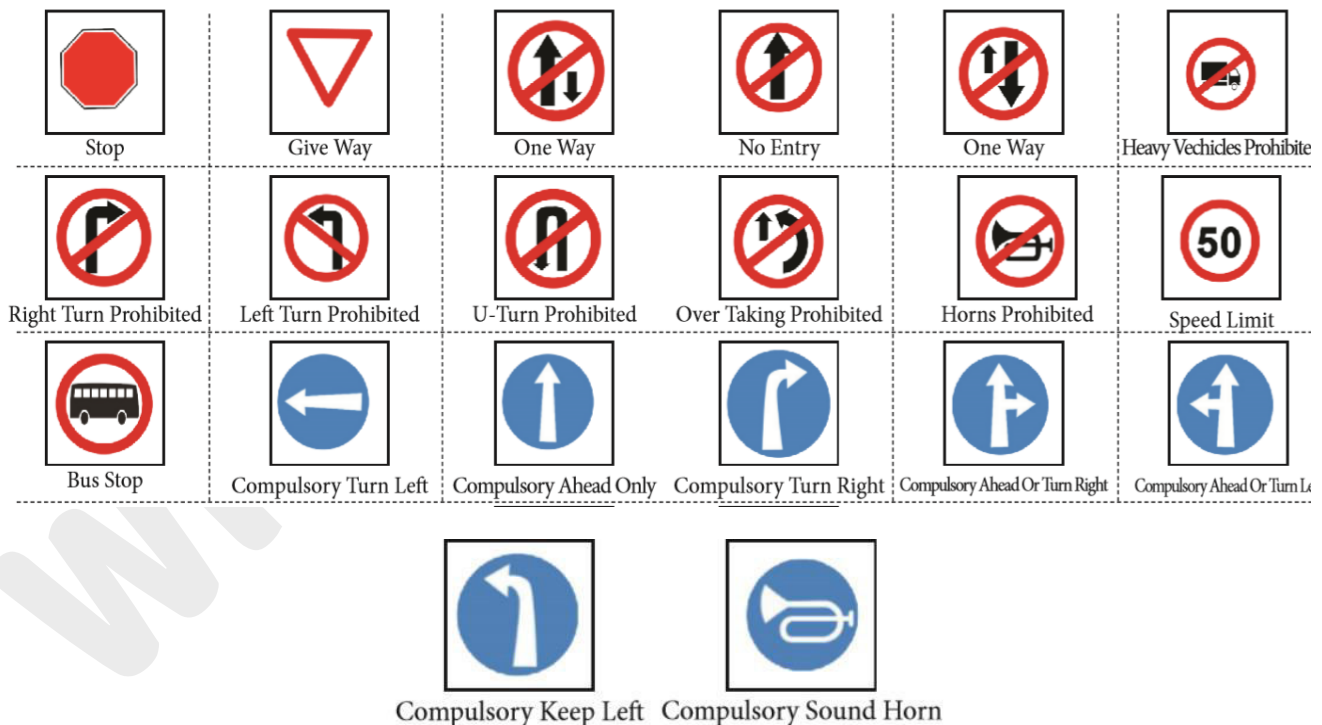
Safety Measures

- **Always keep to the left** - While driving, keep to the left and allow vehicles to pass from the opposite direction.
- **Slow down on bends and turn** - A very important thing to keep in mind is to become cautious and slow down on the bends.
- **Use helmets** - Make it a habit of strapping the helmet before mounting the bikes.
- **Never exceed the speed limit** - The speed limit is related to the traffic condition of the area. So maintain speed limit.

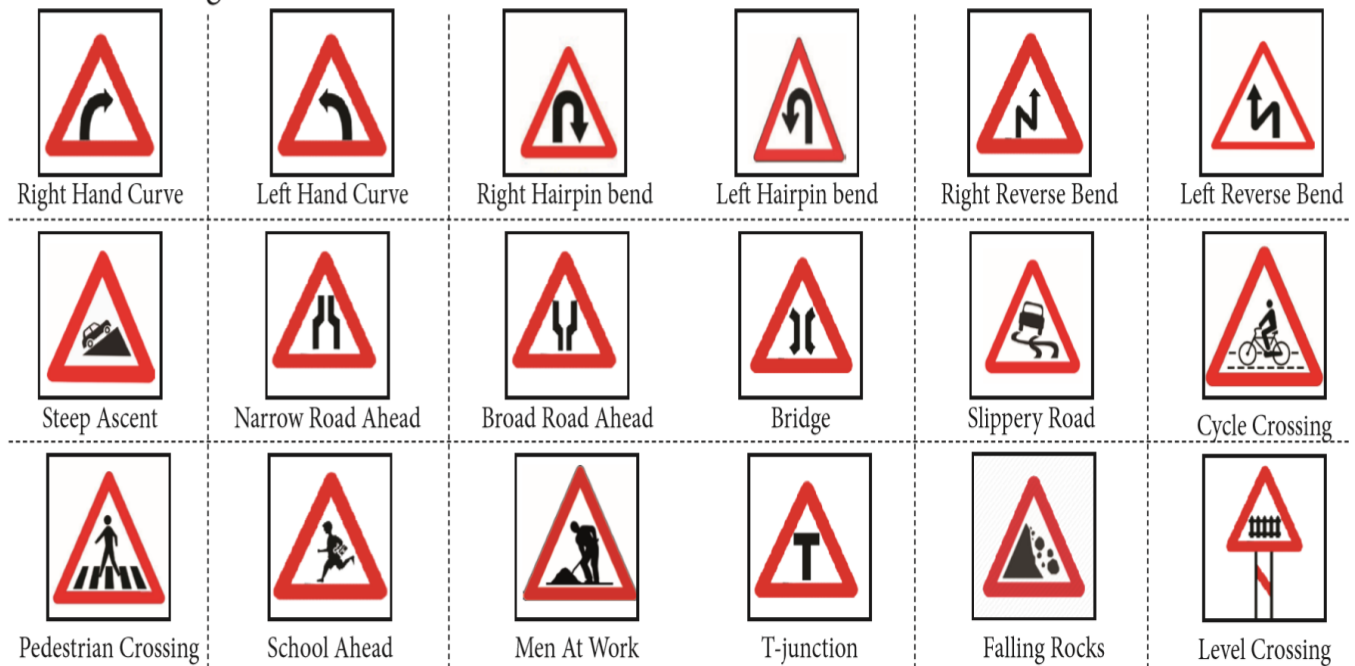
- **Maintain the right distance** - Collisions occur because we do not maintain adequate distance from the vehicle in the front. So maintain a safe distance from the bigger vehicles. Keep out of their blind spot (an area not seen through the rear view and wing mirror)
- Park the vehicles only along the designated parking bays/zones not on the sides of the high ways. Use parking lights and caution triangle while attending breakdown.
- **Follow the road signs** - Road signs are mostly pictorial so it is not hard to comprehend.
- **Some other safety tips are** - Never ever drive when drunk, never use cell phone while driving, avoid listening to too loud music, check your mirrors before changing lanes, always wear seat belts, always remain calm while driving and never yell or shout at pedestrian or other drivers.
- **For pedestrians** - Cross only at zebra crossing. The two minutes' time that you waste for the signals are worth your life. Never cross on red and yellow light. Take a sidewalk and avoid walking on the roads.

Mandatory Signs

The first category of traffic signs is mandatory signs. Violation of any mandatory traffic sign is an offence punishable by law by the Roadways and Transport Department.



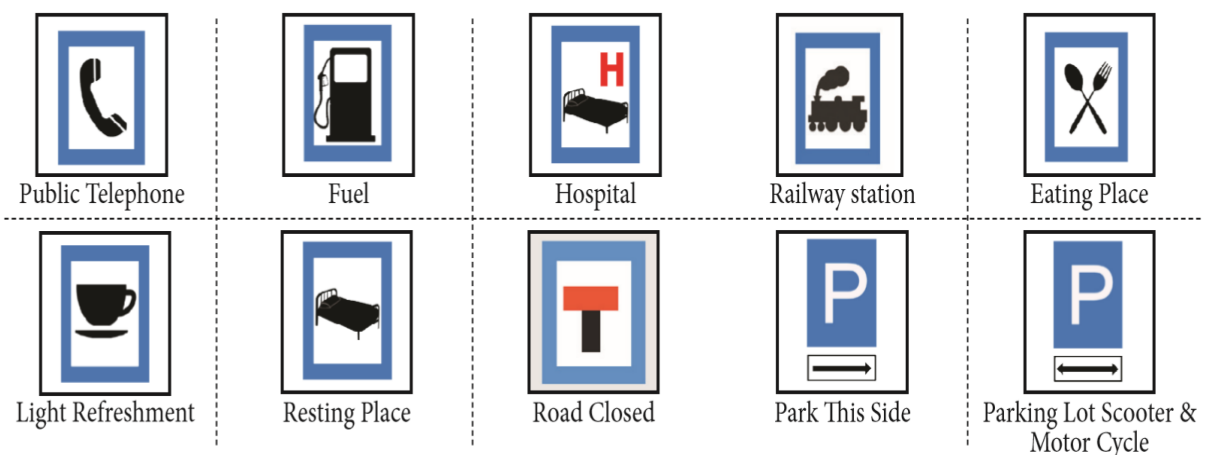
Cautionary Signs



- A total of **40 cautionary traffic signs** have been added by the Roadways and Transport Department.
- The main function of cautionary signs is to warn the driver to take necessary action to manage the situation.

Informatory Signs

These signs provide information to the drivers via boards.



Traffic Signs

- Traffic signs are there to regulate traffic, warn about hazards and to guide the road users.

- Understanding traffic signs is essential. We should have a proper knowledge of traffic signs.
- The government has made it mandatory for a person who wants to obtain driving license to be well versed with the traffic signs.
- Traffic signs prevent the undesirable risks posed on the road to drivers and passengers in the vehicle. There are **three types** of traffic signs.
- **Mandatory Signs** – give order and need to be followed strictly. They are generally in circular in shape.
- **Cautionary Signs** – warn the user regarding road situation ahead. They are generally, in triangular shape.
- **Informatory signs** – give information regarding directions, destinations, etc., They are generally in **rectangular shape**.

Traffic Signals

- Traffic lights is a signalling device that is positioned at a **road intersection, pedestrian crossing** to indicate when it is safe to drive, ride or walk using a universal colour code.
- **Red** – this signal indicates to stop behind the stop line.
- **Amber (Yellow)** – this signal indicates stop. Do not pass through or start until green shows. If, by mistake, you are caught in yellow signal in the middle of a large road crossing, continue with care and do not accelerate in panic.
- **Green** – this signal indicates you may go if the way is clear.
- **Steady Green Arrow Signal** – this signal may be provided in addition to the full green signal. This indicates to proceed with caution in the direction the arrow points.
- **Flashing Red Signal** - it means to come to complete stop. Proceed only when the way is clear.
- **Flashing Yellow Signal** – it indicates to slow down and proceed with caution.

Traffic Rules in India

The **Motor Vehicle Act 1988** passed by the Parliament which came into force in **1989** is applicable to the whole of India.

- On one-way road the driver should allow the overtaking vehicle through the right. Never park the vehicle in reverse on a one-way street.
- On a two-way road, the driver must drive on the left side of the road.
- It is mandatory for the driver to slow down at all inter junctions and pedestrian crossing.
- Drivers should not use the horns in prohibited areas like hospital zones, school zones etc.
- It is our responsibility to give way to emergency vehicles such as Army convoy fire engine and ambulance.
- **Driver should use high – beam** only when necessary. It is important to dim the lights when there are oncoming vehicles or when driving closely behind another.

- When the driver is slowing down his vehicle, he has to raise the right arm and swing it up and down gently.
- When the driver stopping his vehicle he has to raise the arm vertically for the indication to the other vehicles behind it.
- If the driver is turning right, he has to extend the arm straight out with the palm facing front.
- If the driver is turning left, he has to rotate the hand in the anti-clockwise direction.
- In case of emergency, the hazard indicator should be used, which will switch on both the indicators.
- On a two-wheeler only one pillion rider is allowed.
- The horn should not sound really shrill irritating or loud. Electronic horn is permitted.
- Parking vehicles in front of rescue vehicles such as an ambulance, fire engine or a police vehicle is punishable by law and the individual doing so has to pay fine.

Different colour Number Plates



It is used in the vehicle for the President of India and Governor of States.



It is given to a vehicle that is used by foreign delegates/ ambassadors.



It means that the car belongs to a common citizen.



It is for commercial vehicle.

Essential Documents – A driver should possess the following documents while driving the vehicle: **Driving License, Registration Certificate of the Vehicle, Taxation Certificate, Insurance Certificate, Fitness Certificate, and Permit.**

Steps taken by the Government to prevent Road Accidents

The Ministry of Road Transport and Highways has taken a number of steps to prevent road accidents and road accident fatalities. These include:

- **A multi – pronged strategy has been adopted based on four Es** – Engineering, Enforcement, Education and Emergency care for ensuring road safety. They are meant to provide better and safer road engineering, improved vehicular safety standards, training of drivers, improved trauma care and creating public awareness.
- **Improving Vehicular Safety Standards** - Trucks are prohibited from carrying protruding rods.
- **Anti – locking Brake System (ABS)** has been made mandatory on heavy vehicles. Induction of ABS/CBS for two wheelers are made mandatory. AHO (Automatic Headlight On) made mandatory for two-wheelers to make them more conspicuous.
- **Pilot Projects for Cashless Treatment of Road Accident Victims** - This project has already done in the stretch of **NH 8 and NH 33**. Now it is proposed to implement this scheme along the Golden Quadrilateral, North South and East West Corridors. Quick response ambulances are parked in every **50 kms** on the National Highways by the National Highway Authority of India (NHAI). A **24 x 7 call centre** to receive calls for ambulances has been created and training has been given for providing first aid to road safety volunteers.
- **Speed Governors** – This device has a series of sensors that can detect how fast a vehicle is going and if this crosses the limit set by it, it restricts the flow of air and fuel to the engine. This automatically slows down and stops the vehicle from crossing the pre-determined speed.
- **Variable Message Signs** – These are LED boards which can display important information that needs to be communicated to commuters. These can be used to update road users the traffic conditions in case of major breakdowns, congestions and so on.

Brasilia Declaration on Road Safety

- It is the Second Global High level Conference on Road Safety co-sponsored by the **WHO**.

- Taking road safety as a serious issue, India signed **Brasilia Declaration in 2015** through which the participants across the world are committed to improve road safety and ways to reduce the traffic deaths by the end of this decade.
- The **Ministry of Road Transport and Highways** has released a set of comic books on road safety called **Swachha Safer and Suvarshit Yatra** with the aim of creating awareness among children.

Road Safety Week

- Road safety week is a **national event aimed at raising public awareness** about traffic rules and ultimately to reduce casualties due to road accidents.
- It is also intended to reinforce road safety behaviour among road users.
- Celebrating the road safety campaign was initiated by the Ministry of Road Transport and Highways.
- National Road Safety Week in **India** is organised by the **National Safety Council of India (NSC)**.
- It is an autonomous body set up by the Indian government to engage the public on safety, health and environment issues.
- National Road Safety Week is observed in the month of January every year.

Decade of Action for Road Safety 2011 - 2020

- Decade of Action for Road Safety 2011 -2020, officially proclaimed by the UN General Assembly.
- The decade seeks to save millions of lives by improving the safety of roads and vehicles, enhancing the behavior of road users and improving emergency services.

The international Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies (IFRC)

Suggested 10 points as follows



Conclusion

Road traffic accident are predictable and therefore preventable. So everyone should strictly follow the road safety rules and signs.

More to Know:

1. Save LIFE Foundation

Save LIFE Foundation is an independent, non-profit, non-governmental and public charitable trust that is working to improve road safety and emergency medical care across India.

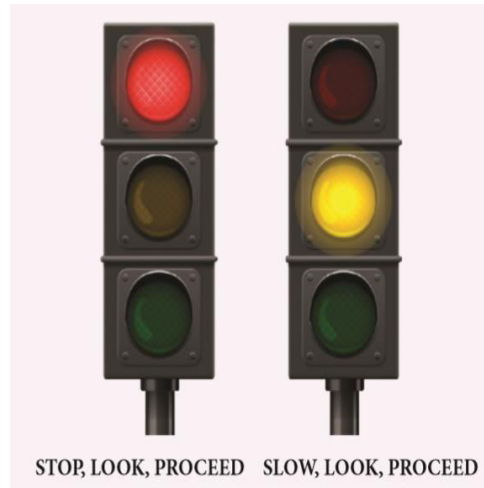
2. Setu Bharatam

A program was launched in 2016 for building bridges for safe and seamless travel on National Highways. It aims to make all National Highways free of railway level crossing by 2019.

3. 304 A of the Indian Penal Code

The police will file a criminal case under this section, which deals with offences relating to death due to rashness and negligence of the driver.

4. Lights at Night:



At night, when traffic has dwindled, the traffic police might switch off the signals in many intersections which means proceed with caution but no need to stop.

5. **Broken white line** – basic marking on roads. you may change lanes, and are allowed to overtake a vehicle or take U turn if it is safe to do so.



6. **Solid white line** – seen on areas of strategic importance. This implies that you are not allowed to overtake and to stay within the lane.



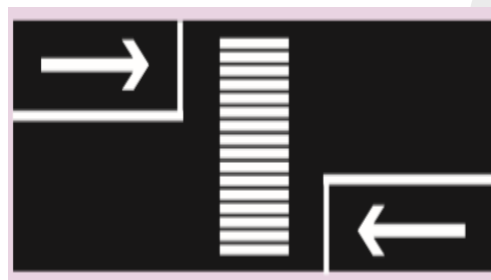
7. **Single solid Yellow lines** – used in areas where visibility is low. It implies that you can overtake and should drive on your side.



8. **Double solid yellow lines** - used on dangerous roads or for two-way traffic. It strictly prohibits anybody from crossing over into the lane. You can overtake inside your own lane.



9. **Stop line** - This is marked before the pedestrian crossing and sets the deadline where car should stop before traffic signal.



10. **Solid and Broken lines** - if you are driving on the side with the broken line you are allowed to overtake and if you are driving on the side of the solid line you are not.



11. The 108 Emergency Response Service

It is a free emergency service providing integrated medical (ambulance), police and fire services. If you find any victims on road don't panic. Call **108** for help and **103** for traffic accidents.

8th Social Science Lesson 18 Notes in English

18. Urban changes during the British period

Introduction

- The evolution of towns (urban settlements) has occurred in different ways and in different stages. Towns flourished since pre-historic times in India.
- Towns in India can be classified into **ancient towns, medieval towns and modern towns**.

Ancient Towns

- In ancient times, towns emerged in and around of residential places of kings and its location easily accessible to sea and rivers for trade.
- Most of them developed as administrative, religious and cultural centres.
- **Harappa, Mohenjadar, Varanasi, Allahabad and Madurai** are well-known ancient towns.

Medieval towns

- During medieval times most of the towns developed as headquarters of principalities and kingdoms.
- They functioned either fort city or port city. Important among them are **Delhi, Hyderabad, Jaipur, Lucknow, Agra and Nagpur**.

Modern towns

- With the arrival of Europeans brought about new changes in the development of towns.
- They first developed some coastal towns such as **Surat, Daman, Goa and Pondicherry**.
- The British after consolidated their power in India developed three main cities - **Mumbai, Chennai and Kolkatta** as the administrative headquarters and trading centres.
- With the extension of domination they developed new towns, depending on its location, purpose and resources.
- The newly developed towns are known differently as **hill towns, industrial towns, court towns, railway station towns, cantonments and administrative towns**.

Unique features of urbanisation under the British

De-industrialisation

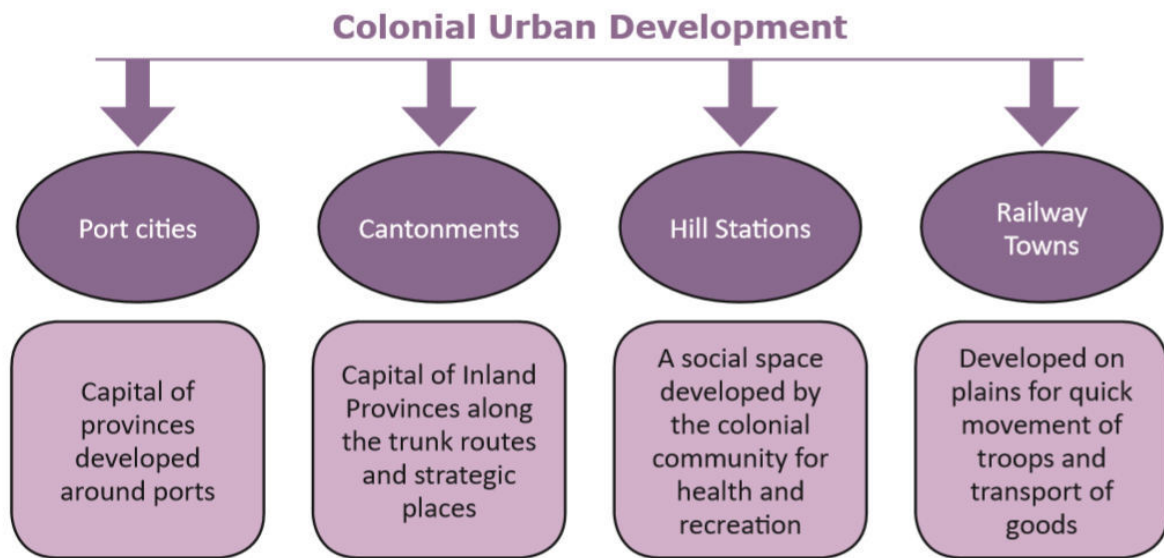
- In the beginning of eighteenth century, the policies of the British proved harmful to the process of urbanisation.
- Later, the economic policies followed by the **British led to the rapid transformation** of India's economy into a colonial economy and development of cities.

- With the help of one-way free trade predominance of British, Indian manufacturing industries were destroyed.
- The effect of this wholesale destruction of the Indian manufacturing industries, led to the ruin of the millions of artisans and craftsman.
- There was a sudden collapse of the urban handicrafts industry which had for centuries made India's name in the markets of the entire civilised world.
- Towns and cities long famed for their specialized products gazed continually shrinking market.
- As a result, old populous manufacturing towns such as **Dacca, Murshidabad, Surat and Lucknow** lost their previous importance.
- The entire industrial structure crashed down under stiff competition of imported goods.
- The traditional industrial base of Indian cities, made by the indigenous handicraft production was destroyed by Industrial revolution.
- The high import duties and other restrictions imposed on the import of Indian goods into **Britain and Europe** led to the decline of Indian industries. Thus, India became the agricultural colony of Britain.

De-urbanisation

- The transformation of India's economy into a colonial one – a market for the manufactures and source for the supply of the raw materials to her industries hit hard the industrial and commercial base of a number of towns.
- The gradual erosion of king's power led to the demise of towns associated with their rule.
- **Agra once an imperial city** in the first quarter of 19th century was surrounded by extensive ruins all around.
- The native rulers lost their kingdom to the British by means of various policies of the colonial power.
- Another factor which contributed to the decline of the urban centres of the pre- British period was the introduction of the network of railroads in India since **1853**.
- The introduction of the railways resulted in the diversion of trade routes and every railway station became a point of export of raw materials.
- The railways enabled British manufactures to reach every nook and corner of the country and uprooted the traditional industries in the villages of the country.

The Growth of New Urban Centres



- British developed new centres of trade like Calcutta, Madras and Bombay on the eastern and western coastal areas.
- **Madras (1639) Bombay (1661) and Calcutta (1690)**, cities which the British largely created and fortified. All those were earlier fishing and weaving villages.
- Here they built their homes, shops and churches as well as their commercial and administrative headquarters.
- From the mid-eighteenth century, there was a new phase of change.
- As the British gradually acquired political control after the **Battle of Plassey in 1757**, and the trade of English East India company expanded.
- In the late 18th century, **Calcutta, Bombay and Madras** rose in prominence as Presidency cities (**for administrative purposes, colonial India was divided into three presidencies**) under the British Rule.
- A new trend of urbanisation began in the latter half of the nineteenth century as a result of the opening of **Suez Canal**, **introduction of steam navigation**, **construction of railways, canals, harbours**, **growth of factory industries**, **coal mining**, **tea plantation**, **banking**, **shipping and insurance**.
- Changes in the networks of trade were reflected in the development of urban centres.

Port cities



Fort St. William in Calcutta

- The British arrived in India for trading. Madras, Calcutta and Bombay became the important ports.
- They played important role in trade. These cities became the prominent commercial areas with tall European – styled buildings.
- The English East India Company built its factories and fortified them for the protection for their settlement.
- **Fort St. George in Madras and Fort St. William in Calcutta** were the best examples.

Cantonment towns

- The British occupied the Indian territory and political power by their military force.
- So they needed strong military camps and established the cantonments.
- The cantonments were thus an entirely new kind of urban centres.
- Army people began to live in these places and gradually they were grown up a city. For **e.g. Kanpur, Lahore.**

Hill stations

- Hill stations were distinctive features of colonial urban development.
- Although Hill stations were not unknown, prior to their founding by the British in India, they were few and had a small population and were often visited for specific purpose.
- For **e.g. Srinagar** was a Mughal recreational centre, Kedarnath and Badrinath were Hindu religious Centres.
- The British coming from a cool temperate climate, found the Indian summer season inhospitable.
- So the cool climate of Indian hills was seen as protective and advantage.
- It protected the Europeans from hot weather and epidemics. So they built up the alternative capitals in cool areas, like Darjeeling was the alternative **of Calcutta, Deradun was the alternative of Delhi.**

- Hill stations became strategic places for billeting troops, guarding frontiers and launching campaigns.
- Hill stations were developed both in North and South India, e.g. **Simla, Nainital, Darjeeling, Ootackamand and Kodaikanal**.
- Simla (Shimla) was founded during the **Gurkha war (1814-16)**. Darjeeling was wrested from the rulers of Sikkim in 1835.
- These hill stations were also developed as Sanatoriums (places for soldiers for rest and recovery from illness). The introduction of railways made hill station more accessible.

Railway towns

- Railway towns were also a type of urban settlements and were established in 1853 after the introduction of railways by the British.
- By the nature of railway transport, all the towns were located on the plains.

Creation of Municipalities and Corporation

The development of local government in the British India may be traced in three distinct phases.

First phase (1688-1882)

- Municipal government in India has been in existence since 1688 with the formation of Madras Municipal Corporation with a Mayor.
- **Sir Josiah Child**, one of the Directors of the East India Company was responsible for the formation of the Corporation.
- The **Charter Act of 1793**, established Municipal administration in the three presidency towns.
- According to the provisions of the Act of 1850, municipalities were formed in **North Western Frontier provinces, Oudh and Bombay**.
- Lord Mayo's famous Resolution of 1870 intended to afford opportunities for the development of self-government.

Second phase (1882-1920)

- Ripon's Resolution on local Self – Government was a landmark in the history of local self-government.
- So Ripon is rightly regarded as the **Father of Local Self – Government** in India and his Resolution as the Magna–Carta of Local Self-Government.

Third phase (1920-1950)

- The Government of India Act of 1919 introduced Dyarchy in the provinces.
- The Government of India Act of 1935 introduced Provincial Autonomy.

- With the attainment of Independence in **1947** India had the unique opportunity of making and moulding local government to meet the needs of the free nation.

Administration of the Presidency Towns

- Towards the close of eighteenth century, a Parliamentary statute authorized the Governor General to appoint justices of the peace in these towns.
- After various trials a system of government was evolved for the three presidency towns which had the essential features like a large corporation with elected members, a strong independent executive authority with adequate safeguards for checking accounts and statutory provision for the performance of essential duties such as sanitation and water supply and collection of revenue etc.

Origin and Growth of Madras



Fort St. George

- The beginning of the city of Madras goes back to the earliest stages of British commercial enterprise in India.
- The English East India Company was started in **1600 A.D(C.E)**.
- Twelve years later, a Factory was set up at Surat on the West coast.
- Subsequently the search for textiles brought British merchants to have port on the east coast.
- The English, after some efforts secured the privilege of building a factory at Masulipatnam. It was well protected from the monsoon winds. But then Masulipatnam was in the throes of a famine. In spite of every assurance of protection, English trade did not thrive at that place.
- Then the English traders looked for a new site. Francis Day, the member of the **Masulipatnam council and the chief of the Armagon Factory**, made a voyage of exploration in **1637** with a view to choose a site for a new settlement.
- At last, he was given the offer to choose **Madrasapatnam**. Francis Day inspected the place and found it favourable to set up factory.

- The official grant for the land was given by **Damarla Venkatapathy Nayak**, the deputy of the **Raja of Chandragiri (12km west of Tirupathi)**.
- Damarla gave British a piece of land between Cooum river and the Egmore.
- In 1639 the deed was signed by English East India Company's Francis Day accompanied by his interpreter **Beri Thimmappa** and superior Andrew Cogan.
- By this Francis Day and Andrew Cogan (**the chief of the Masulipatnam Factory**), was granted permission to establish a factory – cum - trading post and a **fort at Madrasapatnam in 1639**.
- This fortified settlement came to be known as Fort St. George settlement. It is otherwise referred to as the White Town.
- While the nearby villages inhabited by local population was called as Black Town. Collectively the White Town and the Black Town were called Madras.

Madrasapatnam

- Damarla Venkatapathy gave the English the grant of **Madrasapatnam**. He was under the control of Venkatapathy Rayalu, the Rajah of Chandragiri.
- Venkatapathi was succeeded by **Srirangarayaly in 1642**. He issued a new grant to English in **1645** called Srirangarayapatnam.
- Venkatapathy desired that the name Chennapatnam should be given to the new Fort and settlement of the English after his father Chennappa Nayak.
- But the English preferred to call the two united towns by the name of Madrasapatnam.

Making of Chennai

- Chennai was once a group of villages set amidst palm fringed paddy fields until two English East India Company merchants visited there.
- Raja Mahal in Chandragiri palace, where Sir Francis Day of the East India Company was granted land in **1639** in order to set up factory which later came to be known as Madras.
- This first factory was completed on **St. George's Day, 23 April 1640 and named Fort St. George**.
- Day and Cogan were jointly responsible for the construction of Fort St. George. This was the East India Company's principal settlement until 1774.
- The Madras presidency was an administrative sub division which was referred to as the Madras province.
- The Madras presidency during the British regime covered a vast expanse of the southern part of India that encompasses modern day Tamil Nadu, **the Lakshadweep Island, Northern Kerala, Rayalaseema, coastal Andhra, districts of Karnataka and various districts of southern Odisha**.
- After independence in 1947 the Madras presidency became the state of Madras and the other regions that were a part of the erstwhile presidency were constituted in separate states of Andhra Pradesh, Kerala and Mysore under the **States Reorganisation Act, 1956**.

- Later on in **1969** the State of Madras was rechristened as Tamil Nadu. On **17th July 1996**, **Madras was officially renamed as Chennai.**

Bombay

- Bombay was initially seven islands. It was under the control of the Portuguese from **1534** onwards.
- Portuguese king gave it as a dowry to Charles II of England when he married the former's sister in **1661**.
- King leased it to the East India Company. The city of Bombay began to grow when the East India Company started using Bombay as its main port in Western India.
- In **1687**, the English East India Company transferred its headquarters from Surat to Bombay.
- Calcutta In 1690, the English merchants founded a settlement at **Sutanati**.
- In 1698, they secured Zamindari rights over **Sutanati, Calcutta and Gobindpur**.
- The company established Fort William at Calcutta. Calcutta became Presidency with a Governor and Council to manage its affairs.

Conclusion



- The British empire gradually consolidated and established an elaborate spatial structure of administration with an imperial capital, provincial capitals and district headquarters.
- The new rulers brought new officials, new institutions and new structure to these towns with a **kacheri, cantonment, police station, jail treasury**.
- Public garden, post office, schools, dispensary and above all a municipal committee.

- Thus in course of time, administrative headquarters emerged as the most important towns and cities of the country.
- For example, by the beginning of 20th century, **Calcutta, Bombay and Madras** had become the leading administrative commercial and industrial cities of India.
- These cities became the central commercial area with buildings of European style.
- Sub urban railways, tram car and city buses gave the colonial cities a new look and status.

More to Know:

1. An urban area is one that has a high population density engaged in occupations other than food production, living in a highly built environment.
2. Presently Fort St. George is the power centre of Tamil Nadu State Government, extending across **172 sq. KM** (66 sq. miles)
3. The first building to be seen on entering the Fort through the Sea Gate is the seat of the Government of Tamil Nadu. These impressive buildings built between **1694 and 1732** are said to be among the oldest surviving British Construction in India.

8th Social Science Lesson 19 Notes in English

19. Status Of Women In India Through The Ages

Introduction

- Generally human society is constantly changing with additions, assimilations and omissions from within and outside.
- Women constitute half of the population. This is imperative to have a historical understanding of the **status of women through ages**.
- The position of women was not uniform in all periods, differed with regional variations. In ancient India particularly early Vedic period women, enjoyed equal rights.
- But with the passage of time their status in the society found deteriorated as a result of frequent foreign invasions.
- They were subjected to subjugation and subordination. New social practices, customs and systems which crept into the society in turn put limitations and restrictions on the liberty of women.
- During the British Raj, many socioreligious reformers like Raja **Rammohan Roy**, **Dayananda Saraswathi**, **Keshab Chandra Sen**, **Iswara Chandra VidyaSagar**, **Pandita Ramabai**, **Dr. Muthulakshmi Ammaiyar**, **Jyoti rao phule**, **Periyar E.V.R**, **Dr. Dharmambal** were the prominent leaders who fought for the uplift ment of women.
- Raja Rammohan Roy's efforts led to the abolition of sati in 1829.
- Vidya sagar's crusade for the improvement in the condition of widows, led to the passing of **Widow Remarriage Act in 1856**.
- The reformers rightly realized that female education as an emancipating agent in eradicating social evils.
- So they started girls' schools in various parts of the country, which brought significant changes in the lives of women.
- Women played an important part in Indian Freedom struggle. Until independence, there was no radical changes in the status of women.
- In independent India, last few decades have witnessed the all round development of women. Women are now making their presence felt in every walk of life.

The position of women

Ancient Period

- In the ancient Indus civilization of India, evidences show the worship of the mother goddess. Hence, the adoration for the mother is evident during that period.
- During the **Rig Vedic period**, it is believed that the position of wife was honoured and women's position was acknowledged, especially in the performance of religious ceremonies.

- During later Vedic age witnessed a transitional development in the status of women restricting her role in the social life except in the performance of religious sacrifices.
- Her social and political freedom was restricted.
- Sati became popular during **the later Vedic period** where the widows either chose for themselves or were forced to jump into the pyre of their husbands.
- The patriarchal system became rigid. Women were denied to study Vedic scriptures.

Medieval Period

- The position of women in the society further deteriorated during the medieval period and they suffered from many social evils such as **sati, child marriages, female infanticide, Purdah system and slavery.**
- Normally monogamy was in practice but among the rich polygamy was prevalent. 'Sati' was in practice particularly among the royal and upper strata of the society. Widow re-marriage was rare.
- Devadasi system was in practice in some parts of India. Among **the Rajputs of Rajasthan, the Jauhar was practiced.**
- Purdah system became popular as a result of Muslim invasion. The condition of widow became miserable during the medieval period.
- But we don't ignore the fact that the Mughal ruler Akbar attempted to abolish sati. In fact very little attention was paid to female education.
- In spite of general determination, we can find some exceptions **Razia sultana, Queen Durgavati, Chand bibi, Nurjahan, Jahan nara, Jijabai and Mira bai.**
- The system of education in medieval times was still at a rudimentary stage. Women's education was not completely ignored, though no regular separate school seems to have existed.
- Female education was informal. Girls usually had their lessons from their parents in their childhood.
- The rich appointed tutors to teach their daughters at home. The daughters of Rajput chiefs and Zamindars studied literature and philosophy.

British Period

- For centuries women in India had been subordinated to men and socially oppressed. The major effect of national awakening in the nineteenth century was seen in the field of social reform.
- The enlightened persons increasingly revolted against rigid social evils and outdated customs.
- Numerous individuals, reform societies and religious organisations worked hard to spread education among women, to encourage widow remarriage, to improve the living conditions of widows, to prevent marriage of young children, to bring women out of the Purdah, to

enforce monogamy and to enable middle-class women to take up professions or public employment.

- In the beginning of nineteenth century female literacy was extremely low when compared to male literacy.
- The Christian missionaries were the first to set up the **Calcutta Female Juvenile Society in 1819**.
- The Bethune school was founded in **1849** by **J.E.D. Bethune**, who was the president of the council of education in Calcutta.
- Charles Wood's despatch on education in **1854** laid a great stress on the need for female education.
- Indian **Education Commission (Hunter)** of **1882** recommended to start primary schools for girls and teacher-training institution and suggested special scholarships and prizes for girls.
- In 1880's Indian women began to enter universities. They were also trained to become doctors and teachers. They began to write books and magazines.
- In **1914** the women's medical service did a lot of work in training mid-wives. In the **1890s D.K. Karve** established a number of female schools in Poona.
- **Prof D.K. Karve, Pandita Rama bai**, made sincere effort to emancipate women through education was really remarkable.
- The Indian women's university was started by **Prof. D.K. Karve in 1916**. It was an outstanding institution imparting education to women.
- In the same year Lady Harding Medical College was started in Delhi.

Major Social Evils

Female infanticide

- Female infanticide was another inhuman practice afflicting the nineteenth century Indian society.
- It was particularly in vogue in **Rajputana, Punjab and the North Western Provinces**.
- It was mainly to avoid economic burden. Factors such as family pride, the fear of not finding a suitable match for the girl child were some of the major reasons responsible for this practice.
- Therefore, immediately after birth, the female infants were being killed.
- The company administration in India took steps to ban this practice by passing the **Bengal Regulatory Act XXI of 1795, the Regulating Act of 1802 and the Female Infanticide Act of 1870**.

Female Foeticide

- Female foeticide is also an inhuman practice which cuts across the caste, creed, class and regional boundaries.
- Whether it is female infanticide or female foeticide the prime motive remained the same.

- In order to ban the female foeticide and sex-determination the central Government passed various Acts.

Child marriage

- The practice of child marriage was another social disgrace for the women. Child marriage was prevalent among the tribes.
- In **1846**, the minimum marriageable age for a girl was only 10 years. **The native marriage Act was passed in 1872.**
- It fixed the minimum marriageable age of girls at 14 and boys at 18. In 1930, the Central Legislative Assembly passed **Rai Saheb Harbilas Sarada's child Marriage Bill** fixing the minimum marriageable age for boys at 18 and 14 for girls.
- It was later amended to 18 for girls and 21 for boys.

Sati

- Sati was social evil that prevailed in Indian society especially among the Rajputs.
- The feudal society of the time encouraged "sati" which meant self-immolation of the widow on the funeral pyre of her husband.
- Earlier it was a voluntary act but later by the relatives forced the widow to sit on the funeral pyre.
- The Italian traveler, **Niccolo Conti**, who visited Vijayanagar about the year **A.D. (C.E) 1420**, notes that 'the inhabitants of this region marry as many wives as they please, who are burnt with their dead husbands'.
- In the early years of 19th century, sati was in practice in various Parts of Bengal, western India and southern India.
- In 1811, Jagan Mohan Roy, brother of Rammohan Roy, passed away and his wife was burnt along with him.
- Rammohan Roy was moved to the extreme at the sight of it and took an oath that he would have the cruel practice abolished by law. He carried on a continuous agitation through press and platform for the abolition of Sati. Raja Rammohan Roy published his tracts in 1818-20, making the point that the rite of Sati was not enjoined by the Sastras.
- This material was used by the Serampore missionaries to shatter the generally accepted view that Sati was an integral part of the Hindu religion.
- Orthodox Hindu opinion against the abolition was advocated by **Radhakanta Deb, and Bhawani Charan Banerji.**
- When Lord William Bentinck took up the question of Sati, he found that the abolition had been recommended by the judges of the criminal courts.
- He passed Regulation XVII on **December 4, 1829** 'declaring the practice of Sati or burning or burying alive the widow of Hindus, illegal and punishable by Criminal Courts'.
- Similar legislative measures were enacted soon after in Bombay and Madras.

Devadasi System

- The word Devadasi (Sanskrit) or Devar adiyal (Tamil) means “servant of God” dancing girl dedicated to the service of god in a temple.
- Devadasi system was a social evil. There was also tradition of dedicating one daughter to the temple. In addition to taking care of the temple, they learnt and practiced **Bharatha Natiyam** and other classical Indian arts; traditional and enjoyed a high social status.
- Later on they were ill treated and humiliated. The Devadasis lost their dignity, sense of pride, self-respect and honour.
- **Dr. Muthulakshmi Ammaiyar who was the first woman doctor** in India, dedicated herself for the cause of abolishing the cruel practice of Devadasi system from Tamil Nadu.
- Appreciating her role in the agitation against Devadasi system she was nominated to the Tamil Nadu legislative council in **1929**. Periyar E.V. Ramasamy was instrumental in passing the “Devadasi abolition bill”.
- Dr. Muthulakshmi Ammaiyar proposed the bill to the Madras legislative council in **1930**.
- Moovalur Ramamirdham was yet another woman who fought for the emancipation of the Devadasi.
- With the continuous moral support rendered by Rajaji, Periyar and Thiru.Vi.Ka, she raised slogan against this cruel practice. As a result the government passed the “**Devadasi Abolition Act**”.

Role of Social Reformers

- From the second half of the nineteenth century, a number of social reformers and social reform movements sought to promote the upliftment of women by giving them education, raising their marriageable age and taking care of widows, as well as to remove the rigidity of caste and raise the suppressed class to a status of equality.
- The reformers who led the movements were the forerunners of modern India.

Raja Rammohan Roy

- There were some enlightened Indians who supported the British attempt to reform the oppressive social order of India.
- The first was the abolition of sati by law, on humanitarian grounds. **Raja Rammohan Roy**, the pioneer of Indian social reform movement was a casteless crusader of sati after having seen this practice in the case of his own sister-in-law.
- He started his campaign against this inhuman evil practice. Influenced by the ruthless attack of the movement led by Rammohan Roy the British government declared this act as “**culpable Homicide**”.
- Raja Rammohan Roy is most remembered for helping Lord William Bentinck to declare the practice of Sati a punishable offence in **1829**.
- He also protested against the child marriage and female infanticide.

- He favoured the remarriage of widows, female education and women's right to property. Thus the evil practice of sati on any scale was wiped out.

Ishwar Chandra Vidhyasagar

- Ishwar Chandra Vidhyasagar carried on the movement for female education, widow remarriage and abolition of polygamy in Bengal.
- He submitted petitions to this effect to the Indian Legislative Council and to the passing of the **Hindu Widow Remarriage Act in 1856**.
- His son Narayanachandra set an example to others by marrying a widow of his choice.
- To promote female education, Vidhyasagar founded several girls' schools in the districts of Nadia, **Midnapur, Hugli and Burdwan in Bengal**.

Kandukuri Veeresalingam

- Kandukuri Veeresalingam Pantulu was the earliest champion in South India of women's emancipation.
- He published a journal viveka vardhani. He opened his first girls' school in **1874** and made widow remarriage and female education the key points of his programme for social reform.

M.G. Ranade and B.M. Malabari

- In Bombay presidency, **M.G. Ranade and B.M. Malabari** carried on the movement for the upliftment of women.
- In **1869**, **Ranade** joined the Widow Remarriage Association and encouraged widow remarriage and female education and opposed child marriage.
- In **1887**, he started the National Social Conference, which became a pre-eminent institution for social reform.
- In **1884**, **B.M. Malabari**, a journalist, started a movement for the abolition of child marriage.
- He published pamphlets on this subject and appealed to the government to take action.

Gopal Krishna Gokhale

- In 1905, Gopal Krishna Gokhale started the Servants of India Society which took up such social reform measures as primary education, female education and depressed classes' upliftment.
- The spread of female education led to several other social reforms of great consequences, such as the **abolition of Purdah**, which further led to the participation of women in the freedom struggle.
- Kandukuri Veeresalingam Gopal Krishna Gokhale

Periyar E.V.R.

- Periyar E.V.R. was one of the greatest social reformers of Tamil Nadu.

- He advocated women education, widow remarriage and inter-caste marriages and opposed child marriages.

Women Reformers

- Most of the reform movements like **Brahma Samaj (1828)**, **Prarthana Samaj (1867)** and **Arya Samaj (1875)** were led by male reformers who set the limit of the freedom and development of women.
- Women reformers like **Pandita Ramabai**, **Rukhmabai** and **Tarabai Shinde** tried to extent further.
- In 1889, **Pandita Ramabai opened Sarada Sadan** (Home of Learning) for Hindu widows in Bombay.
- It was later shifted to Poona. Her greatest legacy was her effort, the first in India, to educate widows.
- Theosophical society was established at Chennai and Dr. Annie Besant who came from Europe and joined it.
- It also developed general social reform programme. Dr. S. Dharmambal was another reformer who was very much influenced by the ideas of Periyar.
- She showed great interest in implementing widow remarriage and women education. Among '**Moovalur Ramamirdham Ammaiyar**' raised her voice against Devadasi system along with Dr. Muthulakshmi Ammaiyar.
- In her memory, the government of Tamil Nadu has instituted the "**Moovalur Ramamirdha Ammal Ninaivu Marriage assistance scheme**", a social welfare scheme to provide financial assistance to poor women as poverty was the root cause for all these evils.
- Thus women reformers also contributed a lot for winning their own rights. Leading women realized the need of forming their own associations in order to safeguard their interests.
- As a result three major national women's organizations – Women's India Association, National Council of Women in India and the All India Women's Conference were founded.

Women in the freedom movement

- In the early anti-colonial struggle women played major roles in various capacities.
- **Velunachiyar of Sivaganga** fought violently against the British and restored her rule in Sivaganga.
- **Begum Hazrat Mahal**, **Rani Lakshmi Bai of Jhansi** led an armed revolt of 1857 against the British.
- In the freedom struggle thousands of women came out of their homes, boycotted foreign goods, marched in processions, defied laws, received lathi charges and Courted jails.
- Their participation in the struggle added a new dimension of mass character.

Impact of reform movement

- Significant advances were made in the field of emancipation of women.
- It created of national awakening among the masses.
- It created the feeling of sacrifice, service and rationalism.
- The practice of sati and infanticide were made illegal.
- It permitted widow remarriage.

Women in Independent India

- Women in India now participate in all activities such as **education, politics, medical, culture, service sectors, science and technology**.
- The constitution of India guarantees (Article 14) equal opportunity and equal pay for equal work.
- The National policy for empowerment of women was passed under the National Policy on Education (1986), new programme was launched called **Mahila Samakhya**, its main focus was on empower of women.
- Reservation of **33 percent** to women envisaged an improvement in the socio-political status of women.
- The National Commission for women was set up **January 1992**.
- Its main functions is to review women related legislation and intervene in specific individual complaints of atrocities and denial of rights.

Legislation	Provisions
Bengal regulation of XXI, 1804	Female infanticide was declared illegal
Regulation of XVII, 1829	Practice of sati was declared illegal
Hindus Widow's Remarriage Act, 1856	It permitted widow remarriage
The Native Marriage Act, 1872	The Child Marriage was prohibited
The Sharda Act, 1930	The age of marriage was raised for boys and girls
Devadasi abolition Act, 1947	It abolished Devadasi system

More to Know:

1. The Madras Devadasi Act was a law that was enacted on **9th October 1947**. The law was passed in the Madras presidency and gave Devadasis the legal right to marry and made it illegal to dedicated girls to India temples.
2. Akbar prohibited child marriage and made it obligatory for the parents to obtain the approval of both the bride and the bridegroom before the marriage. He prescribed 14 years as the age of constant for girls and 16 years for boys.

3. Jauhar refers to the practice of collective voluntary immolation by wives and daughters of defeated Rajput warriors, in order to avoid capture and dishonor.

8th Social Science Lesson 20 Notes in English

20. Industries

Industry

- Industry is a process by which the raw materials are changed into finished products.
- Many raw materials are not fit for human consumption. Therefore, there is a need for conversion.
- This transformation of commodities from one form to another form is the essence of manufacturing industry or the secondary group of economic activities.
- **Arrival of Science and Technology** helped the man to fabricate raw materials into finished products.
- The economic strength of a country is always measured by the development of manufacturing industries.
- Therefore, any country in the world is basically depends on the effective growth of industries for its economic development.

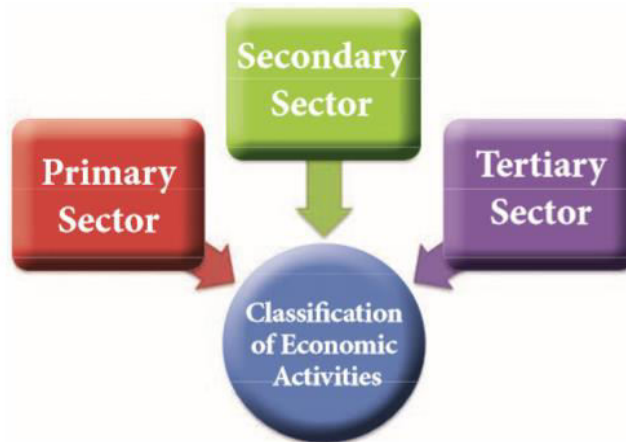
Economic Activity

Any action that involves in the **production, distribution, consumption or services** is an economic activity.

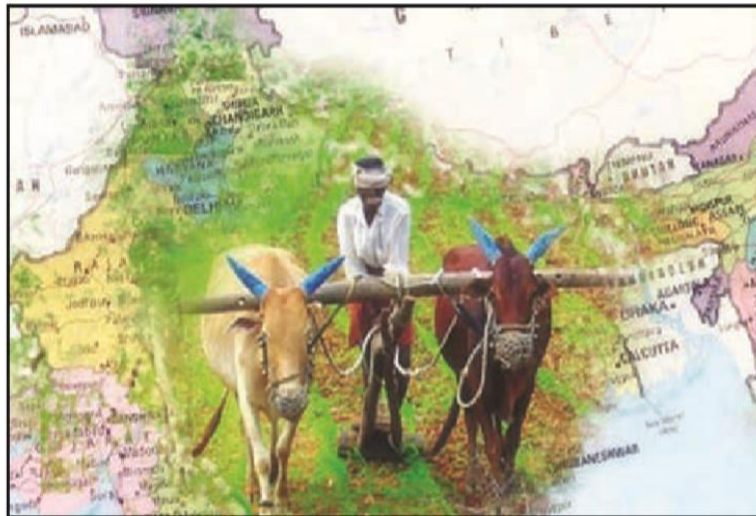
Basics of Economic Activities

The following are the major and fundamental economic activities.

1. Primary Economic Activities (e.g., Raw cotton production)
2. Secondary Economic Activities (e.g., Spinning mill)
3. Tertiary Economic Activities (e.g. Trade, Transport)
 - Quaternary Activities (e.g. Banking sector)
 - Quinary Activites (e.g. Judicial sector)

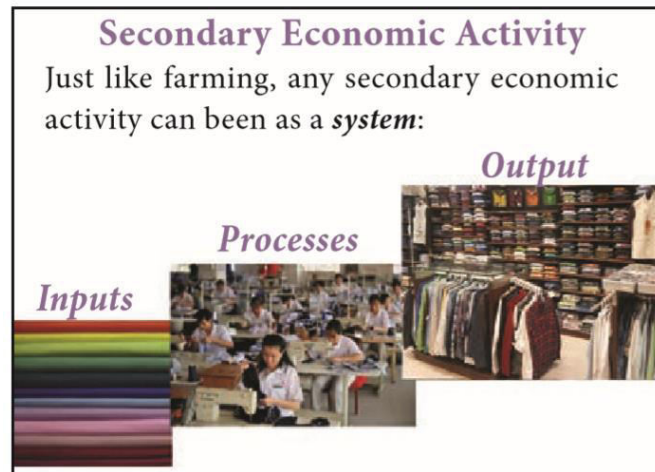


Primary economic activity:



- These are the economic activities which have been originated in the very beginning.
- It includes the activities such as, forestry, grazing, hunting, food gathering, fishing, agriculture, mining, and quarrying.

Secondary economic activity:



- Secondary activities are those that change raw materials into usable products through processing and manufacturing.
- Bakeries that make flour into bread and factories that change metals and plastics into vehicles are examples of secondary activities.

Tertiary economic activity:



- Tertiary economic activities are those that provide essential services and support the industries to function.
- Often it is called service industries, this level includes the transportation, finance, utilities, education, retail, housing, medical and other services.
- We are educated by school. Since, school is doing service, it comes under tertiary activity.
- Tertiary activity is further sub divided into **Quaternary and Quinary** activities.

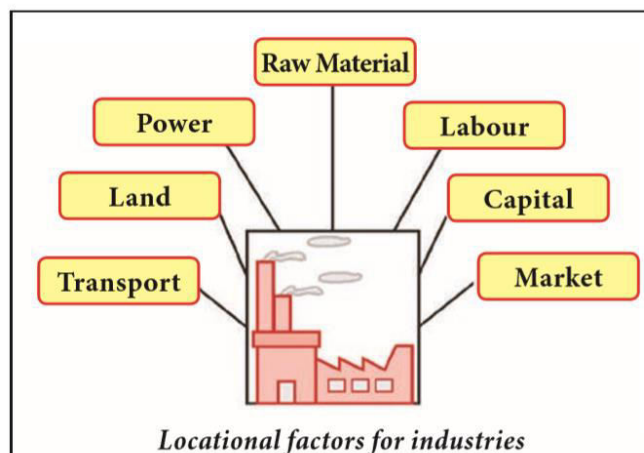
a) Quaternary economic activity:

- Quaternary activities are associated with the creation and transfer of information, including research and training.
- Often called information industries, this level has been dramatic growth as a result of advancements in technology and electronic display and transmission of information. e.g., we watch television. The programs are telecasted from television stations. It is an example of quaternary activity.

b) Quinary economic activity:

- Quinary economic activities refer to the high level decision making processes by executives in industries, business, education, and government.
- This sector include top executives or officials in the fields of science and technology, universities, health care etc.
- In our house, our parents purchase household articles and make decisions by themselves in some situations.
- Similarly, the council of ministers take decisions to introduce various people welfare schemes in the state. These two are examples of quinary activities.

Factors responsible for location of Industries



- Industrial locations are complex in nature. They are influenced by the availability of many factors.
- Some of them are: **Raw Materials, Land, Water, Labour, Capital, Power, Transport, and Market.**
- The locational factors of industries are grouped into: Geographical factors and Non-Geographical factors.

Geographical Factors

Raw Material:

- Bulky goods and weight losing materials cannot be transported for long distances.

- Therefore, industries like iron and steel and sugar industries are located near the place of availability of iron ore and sugar cane respectively.
- **Steel Plant in Salem is located near Kanjamalai**, where iron ore is available. Similarly, Sugar industries are located near the sugarcane growing areas.

Power:

Power is base and essential to run the entire industry. Power is mostly generated from the conventional sources like coal, mineral oil, and water. So, any one of these sources must be located near the industries to fulfil its power requirement.

Labour:

Availability of cheap and skilled labour is another important requirement for labour intensive industries (e.g., Tea industry).

Transport:

- It is needed for transporting raw materials to the industries and also for sending the finished products to the market.
- Availability of easy transportation always influences the location of an industry.
- So, the junction points of waterways, roadways and railways become active centres of industrial activity.

Storage and Warehousing:

The finished goods should reach the market at the end of the process of manufacturing. Hence, such finished products should be stored at suitable storage or warehouse till the goods are taken to the market.

Topography:

The site that is selected for the establishment of an industry must be flat. So, it can be well served by different modes of transport.

Climate:

- Climate of the area selected for an industry is also one of the important factors of location of industries.
- Extreme climate condition is not suitable for the successful industrial growth. Moreover, there are certain industries which require a specific climate.
- Example: Cool- humid climate is ideal for cotton textile industry.
- As **Coimbatore and Tiruppur** have such type of climate, many cotton textile industries are located in this zone.

Water Resources:

Availability of water is another important factor that influences the industrial location. Many industries are established near **rivers, canals, and lakes** for this reason. Iron and steel industries, textile industries and chemical industries require plenty of water, for their proper functioning.

Non-Geographical Factors**Capital:**

Capital or huge investment is needed for the establishment of industries without which no industry can be established.

Availability of Loans:

In most cases, it is not possible to start an industry with enough capital in hand. So, the investors seek loan to start the industries. Thus, the organizational set up which provides loan and insurance are required.

Government Policies/Regulations:

- Government policies are another important factor that influences industrial location.
- The government sets certain restriction in the allocation of land for industries in order to reduce regional disparities, to control excessive pollution and to avoid the excessive clustering of industries in big cities.
- So, the policies also affect the industrial locations.

Classification of Industries

Industries are classified on various basis in the following ways.

On the basis of Raw Materials**Agro Based Industries:**

These industries use plant and animal based products as their raw materials. Example: Food Processing, Vegetable Oil, Cotton Textile, Dairy Products, etc.

Mineral Based Industries:



These are the industries that use mineral ores as their raw materials. Iron made from iron ore is the product of mineral based industry. Cement, Machine Tools, etc. are the other examples of mineral based industries.

Marine Based Industries:

These industries use products from the sea and oceans as raw materials. Example: Processed Sea Food, Fish Oil manufacturing units etc.

Forest Based Industries:

These industries use forest products as their raw materials. Example: Pulp & Paper, Furniture and Some Pharmaceuticals industries, etc.

On the basis of Size and Capital

Large Scale Industries:

The capital required for the establishment of an industry is more than one crore the industry is called as large scale industry. Iron & steel, Oil refineries, Cement and Textile industries are the best examples for large scale industries.

Small Scale Industries:

The capital required for the establishment of an industry is less than one crore, the industry is called as small scale industry. Silk weaving and household industries belong to this category.

Apart from the above cited industries, cottage or household industries are also a type of small scale industry where the products are manufactured by hand, by the artisans with the help of family members. These industries are also classified and grouped as miscellaneous categories. Example: Basket weaving, Pot Making, handicrafts etc.

On the basis of Ownership

Private Sector Industries:

These type of industries are owned and operated by individuals or a group of individuals. Example: Bajaj Auto, Reliance, etc.

Public Sector Industries:

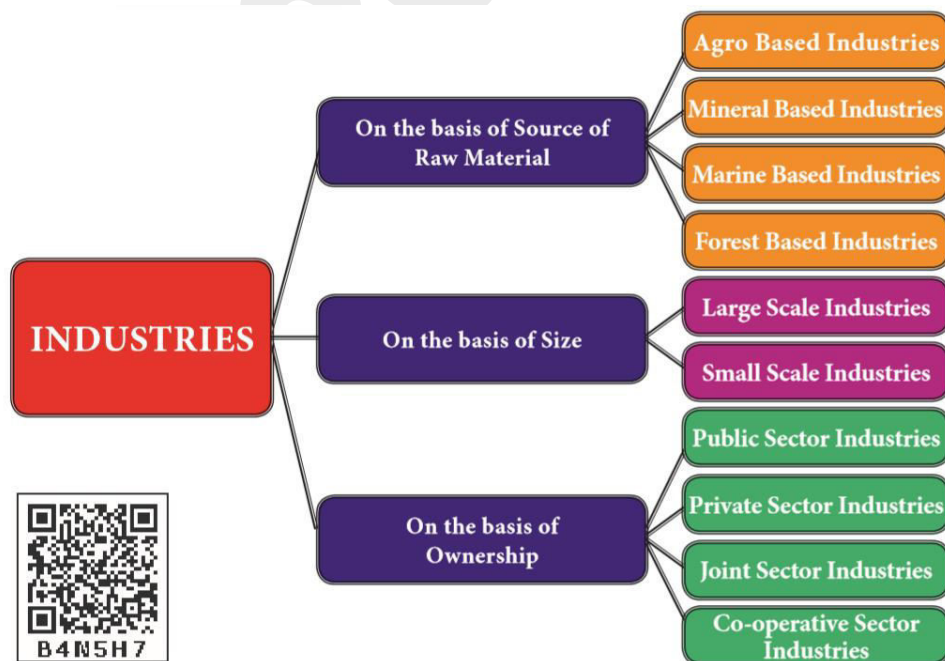
- These type of industries are owned and operated by the Government.
- Hindustan Aeronautics Limited (HAL), Bharat Heavy Electricals Ltd (BHEL), Steel Authority of India Ltd (SAIL) are the examples of Public sector industries.

Joint Sector Industries:

- These types of industries are owned and operated jointly by the Government and Individuals or a Group of Individuals.
- Example: Indian Oil Sky Tanking Ltd, Indian Synthetic Rubber Ltd, Mahanagar Gas Ltd, Maruti Udyog etc.

Co-operative Sector Industries:

- Industries of this kind are owned and operated by the producers or suppliers of raw materials or workers or both.
- Anand Milk Union Limited (AMUL) is the best example of the Co-operative sector.

**More to Know:****1. Detroit of India**

Detroit city in Michigan State, USA is known as the world's traditional automotive centre. In India Chennai is known as 'Detroit of India'. It has the world famous automobile industries such as GM, Ford, Hyundai and Mahindra. The city accounts for 60% of the country's automotive exports.

2. Services sector is the one of the largest sectors of India. Currently this sector is the backbone of the Indian economy and contributing around 53% of the Indian Gross Domestic Product.

8th Social Science Lesson 21 Notes in English

21. Defence & Foreign Policy

I. Defence

Introduction

- India is a **peace loving** country. India has always maintained cordial relationship with all the other countries in general and with its neighbours in particular.
- At the same time, it has to strengthen its security to defend its border from any foreign aggression.
- So the Government of India has given higher priorities to the defence sector. Let us understand the various defence forces of our country.

Need for Defence System

- National Security is very essential for the political, social and economic development of any country.
- It is also important for the growth of a **country's peace and prosperity**.

Indian Defence Services

The **President of India** being the head of the State occupies the highest position in our defence organisation. He is the **supreme commander of the Armed forces in India**.

Security Forces in India can be divided into

Indian Armed Forces – They are primary forces consist of country's **Army, Navy, Air Force and Coast guard**. They serve under the **Ministry of Defence**.

Paramilitary Forces – They are Assam Rifles and Special Frontier Force.

Central Armed Police Forces – They are BSF, CRPF, ITBP, CISF and SSB. They serve under the authority of Ministry of Home Affairs. CAPF work along with both Army and Police in different roles assigned to them.

Indian Armed Forces

Army

- The Indian Army is the land-based branch and it the largest volunteer army in the world.
- It is commanded by the **Chief of Army Staff** primary mission of the Indian Army is to ensure national security, national unity, defending the nation from external aggression, internal threats and maintaining peace and security within its borders.

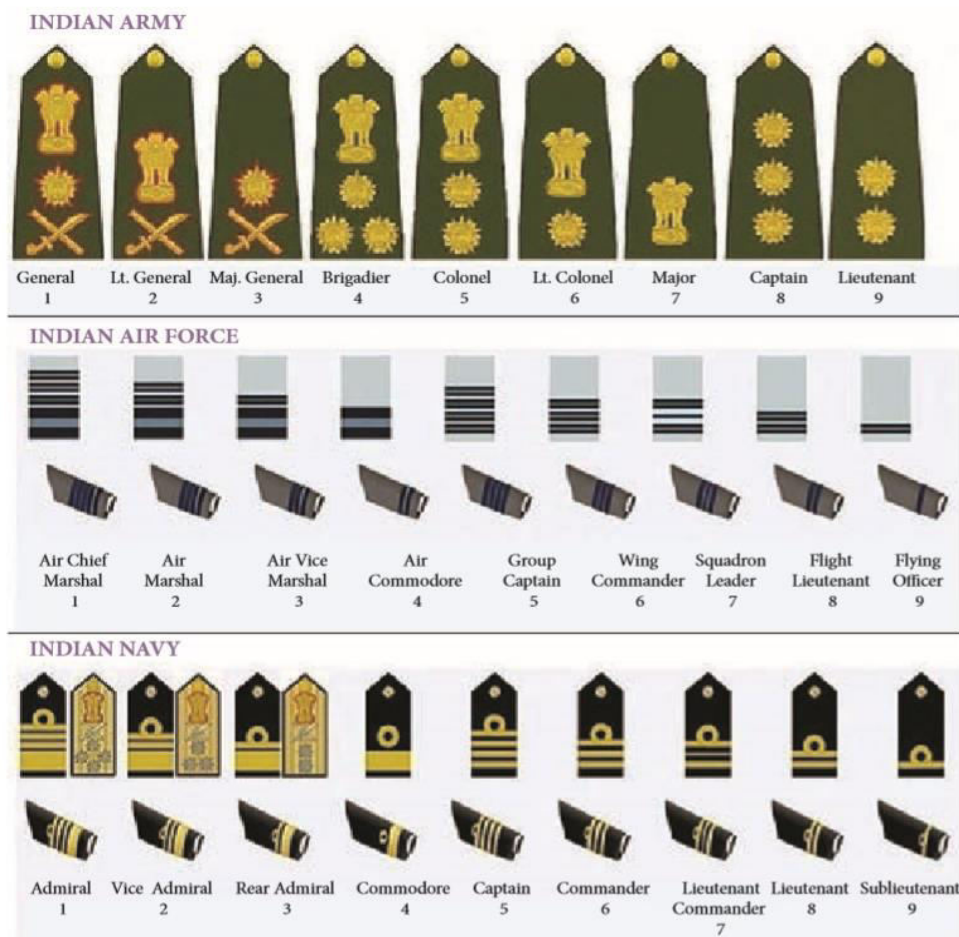
- It conducts humanitarian rescue operations during natural disaster and calamities. The Indian Army has a regimental system.
- It is operationally and geographically divided into seven commands.

Navy

- The primary objective of the navy is to safeguard the nation's maritime borders, and in conjunction with other Armed Forces of the union, act to deter or defeat any threats or aggression against the territory, people or maritime interests of India.
- The **Chief of Naval Staff, a four-star Admiral, commands the navy**. It has three Naval Commands.

Air Force

- The Indian Air Force is the air arm of the Indian armed forces. Its primary mission is to secure Indian airspace and to conduct aerial warfare during armed conflict.
- The **Chief of Air Staff, an air chief marshal, is a four-star officer** and is responsible for the bulk of operational command of the Air Force. It has seven commands.



Indian Coast Guard (ICG)

- The **Indian Coast Guard** was established in 1978 by the Coast Guard Act, 1978 of the Parliament of India as an independent Armed force of India.
- It operates under the Ministry of Defence. The Coast Guard works in close cooperation with the Indian Navy, the Department of Fisheries, the Department of Revenue (Customs) and the Central and State police forces.

Paramilitary Defence Forces

- The Forces which help in maintaining internal security, protecting the coastline and assisting the army are known as "Paramilitary Forces".
- The responsibility is the security of important places like Railway stations, Oil fields and refineries, water reservoirs lines.
- They also participate in the management of natural or man-made disasters.
- During peace time, the paramilitary forces also have the responsibility of protecting the international borders. a) The Assam Rifles (AR) b) The Special Frontier Force (SFF)

The Assam Rifles (AR)

- The Assam Rifles came into being in **1835** which was established by the British in the Assam region, as a militia called the '**Cachar Levy**'.
- There are currently **46 battalions** of Assam Rifles. It is under the Ministry of Home Affairs (MHA).

The Special Frontier Force (SFF)

- The Special Frontier Force (SFF) is a paramilitary special force of India created in **1962**.
- This force was put under the direct supervision of the Intelligence Bureau, and later, under the Research and Analysis Wing, India's external intelligence agency.

The Central Armed Police Forces (CAPF)

- Following five forces which come under Ministry of Home Affairs were earlier considered paramilitary forces, but from March' **2011**.
- They have been reclassified as Central Armed Police Forces (CAPF) to avoid confusion.
 1. The Central Reserve Police Force (CRPF)
 2. Indo-Tibetan Border Police (ITBP)
 3. The Border Security Force (BSF)
 4. Central Industrial Security Force (CISF)
 5. Special Service Bureau (SSB)

The Central Reserve Police Force (CRPF)

- The mission of Central Reserve Police force shall be to enable the government to maintain Rule of law, public order and internal security effectively and efficiently, to preserve national integrity and promote social harmony and development by upholding supremacy of the Constitution.
- The Rapid Action Force is a specialised wing of the CRPF (Central Reserve Police Force) to deal with riot, crowd control, rescue and relief operations, and related unrest situations.

Indo-Tibetan Border Police (ITBP)

It is a border guarding police force. This force is specialized in high altitude operations. It is deployed for border guarding duties from **Ladakh to Arunachal Pradesh (India – China border)**.

The Border Security Force (BSF)

The border security force is a **Border Guarding Force of India**. BSF is charged with guarding India's land border during peace time and preventing transnational crimes.

Central Industrial Security Force (CISF)

The Central Industrial Security Force was set up under an Act of the Parliament of India on **10th March 1969**. Its duties are guarding sensitive governmental buildings, the Delhi Metro, and providing airport security.

Sashastra Seema Bal/ Special Service Bureau (SSB)

Sashastra Seema Bal (SSB), in English the Armed Border Force is the border guarding force for Nepal and Bhutan border.

Home Guard

- The Indian Home Guard is a voluntary force, tasked as an auxiliary to the Indian Police. Home Guards are recruited from various cross sections of the civil society such as professionals, college students, agricultural and industrial workers, etc. who give their spare time for betterment of the community.
- All citizens of India, in the age group of **18–50**, are eligible.
- Normal tenure of membership in Home Guards is three to five years. To protect and guard our nation, our armed forces are always kept ready.
- Youth should come forward to service and save the nation by joining the armed forces.
- Recruitment to the Defence services is open to all Indians. It is the duty of every citizen to have an opportunity to serve the country.

II. Foreign Policy of India

- A foreign policy is a set of political goals that define how a sovereign country will interact with other countries in the world.
- It seeks to secure the best interest of the people, territory and economy of the country.
- Our country's external relation is based on certain principles and policies. India's foreign policy was evolved with the background of her colonial sufferings.

Basic Principles of Foreign Policy

- Preservation of national interest
- Achievement of world peace
- Disarmament
- Abolition of Colonialism, Racism and Imperialism
- Increasing the number of friendly nations
- Economic development.

Panchsheel

- **Jawaharlal Nehru**, the first Prime Minister of India was the chief architect of India's foreign policy.
- Nehru was a supporter of world peace. Hence he gave utmost importance to world peace in his policy planning.
- He declared the five principles of peace, known as Panchsheel.

These principles included

1. **Mutual respect for each other's territorial integrity and sovereignty**
2. **Mutual non-aggression**
3. **Mutual non-interference in each other's internal affairs**
4. **Equality and mutual benefit**
5. **Peaceful co-existence.**

Non-Alignment

- The word Non-Alignment was coined by **V.K. Krishna Menon**.
- Non-alignment has been regarded as the most important feature of India's foreign policy.
- Non-alignment aimed to maintain national independence in foreign affairs by not joining any military alliance formed by the **USA or Soviet Union** in the aftermath of the Second World War.

- Nonalignment was neither neutrality nor noninvolvement nor isolationism. It was a dynamic concept which meant not committing to any military bloc but taking an independent stand on international issues.
- The founding fathers of Non-Aligned Movement: **Jawaharlal Nehru of India, Tito of Yugoslavia, Nasser of Egypt, Sukarno of Indonesia, and Kwame Nkumah of Ghana.**

India's Relation with Neighbouring Countries

- India's position is unique in its neighbourhood. India has always favoured international and regional cooperation, because she believes that through cooperation all disputes and problems among nations can be sorted out peacefully.
- India's foreign policy is based on the principle of developing friendly relations and cooperation with her neighbours.

India is a vast country with



- Pakistan and Afghanistan to the north-west
- China, Nepal, Bhutan to the north
- Bangladesh to the east

- Myanmar to the far east
- Sri Lanka (south-east)
- Maldives (south-west)

Neighbourhood First policy

- It is part of India's foreign policy that actively focuses on improving ties with India's immediate neighbours.
- India provides neighbours with support as needed in the form of resources, equipment and training.
- Greater connectivity and integration is provided so as to improve the free flow of goods, people, energy, capital and information.

Act East Policy

- South East Asia begins with North East India. Myanmar is our land bridge to the countries of the **Association of the Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN)**.
- The purpose is to ensure a stable and multipolar balance of power in the Indo-Pacific and to become an integral part of Asia.
- India is actively engaged in general economic diplomacy with its neighbouring countries as below.

SAARC

- India believes in regional co-operation.
- To foster the bonds of brotherhood, co-operation and peaceful co-existence SAARC (**South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation**) was established. India, Bangladesh, Pakistan, Nepal, Bhutan, Sri Lanka, Maldives and Afghanistan are the eight members of the SAARC.

BCIM

This **Bangladesh – China – India - Myanmar** Economic corridor envisages the formation of a thriving economic belt, focusing on cross- border transport, energy and telecommunication networks.

BIMSTEC

- It refers **Bay of Bengal Initiative for MultiSectoral Technical and Economic Cooperation**.
- Its main objectives are to strengthen and improve the technological economic cooperation, international trade and foreign direct investment cooperation.
- The member countries are **Bangladesh, India, Myanmar, Sri Lanka, Thailand, Bhutan and Nepal**.

BBIN

- **Bangladesh – Bhutan - India – Nepal** has signed a framework to enable movement of passengers, cargo vehicles and for energy development.
- To summarise, India is a huge country with manifold cultures. It has high status in the South East Asia.
- India's foreign policy is to maintain peace, freedom and mutual co-operation among the nations.
- Though India is not in any major military alliance, our relations with the major powers have acquired a strategic depth.

More to Know:

1. India shares a common land border with **Pakistan, Afghanistan, Nepal, China, Bhutan, Bangladesh and Burma**. It also shares a common **sea border with Sri Lanka**

2. Nelson Mandela

- Leader of the African National Council of South Africa.
- A determined fighter against apartheid. Apartheid is the worst form of racial discrimination.
- It is against humanism and democracy. India fought against Apartheid and opposed all types of racial discrimination.
- The end of racialism in **South Africa in 1990** was a great success for India's policy.

3. National Cadet Corps (NCC)

- National Cadet Corps is a Tri-Services Organization, **comprising the Army, Navy and Air Force**, engaged in grooming the youth of the country into disciplined and patriotic citizens.
- The National Cadet Corps in India is a voluntary organization which recruits cadets from high schools, colleges and universities all over India. The Cadets are given basic military training in small arms and parades.

4. 15th January - Army Day

1st February - Coast Guard Day

10th March - Central Industrial Security Force Day

7th October - Rapid Action Force Day

8th October - Air Force Day

4th December - Navy Day

7th December - Armed Forces Flag Day

5. In **1025 AD (CE)**, Rajendra Chola I, the Chola king from Tamil Nadu launched naval on the city-state of expedition Srivijaya in maritime Southeast Asia, and conquered Kadaram (modern Kedah). Rajendra's overseas expedition against Srivijaya was a unique event in India's history.
6. The Madras Regiment is one of the oldest infantry regiment of the Indian Army, originating in the year **1758**. The Regimental Centre is at wellington, Udhagamandalam, Tamil Nadu. In **1962**, after the Sino-Indian War, the need to expand the number of officers was felt. Two Officers Training Schools (OTS) were established in Pune and Chennai to train officers for Emergency Commission into the Army. On **1st January 1988**, the school was renamed as the Officers Training Academy (OTA).
7. **Field Marshal** – is a Five Star General officer rank and the highest attainable rank in the Indian Army.
8. **Sam Manekshaw** was the first Field Marshal of India and the second Field Marshal was **K. M. Cariappa**.
9. **Arjan Singh** was the first and the only officer of the Indian Air Force to be promoted to Five Star Rank as Marshal.
10. The National War Memorial is a monument built by the Government of India to honour the Indian Armed Forces. The memorial is spread over 40 acres of land and is built around the existing **chhatri (canopy)** near India Gate, New Delhi. The names of armed forces personnel martyred during the conflicts are inscribed on the memorial walls.

8th Social Science Lesson 22 Notes in English

22. Judiciary

Introduction

- The judicial system of a country needs to be efficient in order to ensure proper justice to all. India has a single unified and integrated judicial system.
- Judiciary plays an important role as an organ of the government. It administers justice, settles disputes, interprets laws, protects fundamental rights and acts as guardian of the Constitution.

Law:

It is a system of rules imposed through a government or institution to govern people.

Judiciary:

In law, the Judiciary or Judicial system is the system of courts which administers Justice in the name of the State.

Evolution of Indian Judiciary

Judiciary during ancient period

- During ancient times, the concept of justice was linked with religion. The king was regarded as the fountain head of Justice.
- Most of the Kings' courts dispensed justice according to 'dharma', (righteousness and duty) a set of conventional laws, **Dharmic** laws governed not only the individual but also the society.
- The **republics of Ganas** had their own system of law. We find the existence of Kulika court.
- Amongst the **Vajjis**, there was a board of **eight Kulikas** for the investigation of Criminal cases. Appeal proceeded from Kula courts to Gana Courts.

Judiciary during Medieval period

- The Tughlaq period saw the compilation of the code of civil procedure.
- It was called **Fiqha-e-Feroze Shahi**. The code prescribed details of the procedure and the law in several matters.
- It was written in Arabic and was translated into Persian.
- This was followed till the reign of Aurangzeb when it was replaced by **Fatawa-i-Alamgiri** written in 1670.

Judiciary during Modern period

- The Indian judicial system and laws we have today was formed by the British during the colonial rule in the country.
- The beginning of Indian codified common law is traced back to **1727 (Under the Charter of 1726)** when the Mayor's court in Madras, Bombay and Calcutta were established by the East India Company.
- Regulating Act of 1773 made provision for the formation of Supreme Court. A Supreme Court was established for the first time at Fort Williams in Calcutta.
- Sir Elijah Impey was appointed as chief justice of that court. In **1801 and 1824** Supreme Courts were established in Madras and Bombay.
- These Supreme Courts functioned until **1862** when they were replaced by the High Courts at all the three places.
- Warren Hastings, established **Mofussil Diwani Adalat** to resolve civil disputes and Mofussil Fauzdari Adalat to resolve criminal disputes.
- The appeals from these courts could be taken to **Sadar Diwani Adalat (civil court of appeal) and Sadar Nizamat Adalat (criminal court of appeal)**.
- Lord Cornwallis reorganised the civil and criminal judicial system. Under Cornwallis, the District Fauzdari court was abolished and Circuit Court was setup at Calcutta, Dacca, Murshidabad and Patna.
- During the period of William Bentinck four Circuit courts were abolished.
- Sadar Diwani Adalat and Sadar Nizamat Adalat were established at Allahabad. A law commission was setup by Macaulay, which codified the Indian Laws.
- On the basis of this Commission, **A Civil Procedure Code of 1859, An Indian Penal Code of 1860, and a Criminal Procedure Code 1861 were prepared.**
- The **Government of India Act 1935** created Federal Court. It was not the highest court as appeals could lie in certain situation to the Privy Council in England.
- The Jurisdiction of Privy council was abolished by the **Abolition of the Privy Council Jurisdiction Act, 1949.**
- The Supreme Court of India was inaugurated on **28 January 1950.**

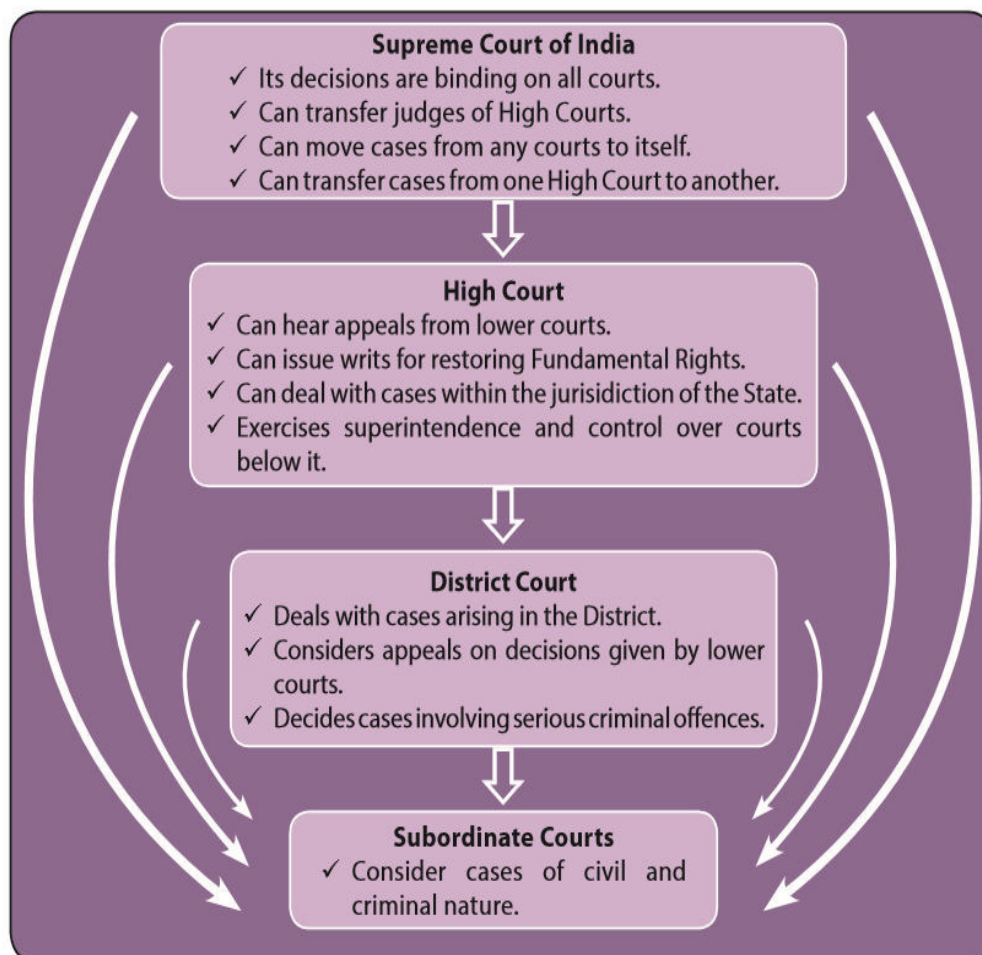
Judiciary and constitution

- India framed its own Constitution. Among the noble aims and objectives of the Constitution, the founding fathers accorded the highest place to 'Justice'.
- During British period, Indian had neither law nor courts of their own and both the law and courts had been designed for the Colonial Power.
- The Constituent Assembly members therefore tried to ensure the independence of the Courts with full power of Judicial review.
- Supreme Court Rules, **1966** are framed under **Article 145** of the Constitution to regulate the practice and procedure of the Supreme Court.

- The Supreme Court of India is the highest court of the land as established by **Part V ('The Union')** under **Chapter IV titled 'The Union Judiciary'** and **Part VI ('The State')** under **Chapter VI titled 'Subordinate Courts'** of the Constitution of India.
- **Articles 124 to 147** of the Constitution of India lay down the composition and jurisdiction of the Supreme Court of India.

Structure of courts in India

There are three different levels of courts in our country.



District Courts: The Courts that hear civil cases at the district level are called District Courts

Sessions Court: The Courts that hear criminal cases are called the Sessions Court.

The Panchayat Courts: The Panchayat Courts deal with Civil and Criminal cases at the village level.

The Revenue courts: The Revenue courts deal with the cases of land records. It also assesses and collects land revenue from the land holders.

Lok Adalat:

- Lok Adalat was set up to provide speedy justice. It hears and settles the disputes in the language of the people in the public presence.
- A Lok Adalat is presided over by a retired judge along with a lawyer and a social worker. Cases are put forward without advocates.
- These cases are solved through mutual consent. The **first Lok Adalat was held on 1982 at Junagadh of Gujarat.**

Fast Track courts: These courts were established in the year **2000** with an aim to clear the long pending Sessions and other lower judicial cases.

Tele Law Initiative:

- To provide legal aid and service to the people in rural areas, the Tele Law Initiative was launched by the Ministry of Law and Justice in collaboration with the Ministry of Electronics and Information Technology.
- People can seek legal advice from the lawyers through video conferencing available at the common service centre on the **'Tele Law'** Portal – a technology enabled platform.

Family Courts:

Family courts specifically handle family law matters. They are civil courts and are utilised for various family related claims such as **Child custody, Divorce, Adoption, Juvenile issues** etc.

Mobile courts:

Mobile courts will be of great relief to the rural people. It would create greater awareness about the judicial system among the rural masses, cut costs for them and render justice as their doorstep.

E-Courts:

The E-Courts project was established in **2005**. According to the project all the courts will get computerised. Judicial service centre is the part of e-court. The public as well as the advocates can ask directly the case status and next hearing dates with free of cost.

Role of the Judiciary

Role of Judiciary can be classified as,

Dispute Resolution	The Judicial system provides a mechanism for resolving disputes between • Citizen • Citizens and the government • Two State governments • The centre and the State governments
Judicial Review	The Judicial has the power to declare a law unconstitutional if it believes that the law passed by the Parliament is violating the basic structure of the Constitution.
Upholding the Law and Enforcing Fundamental Rights	Every citizen of India can approach the Supreme Court or High Court if they believe that their fundamental rights have been violated.

Supreme Court of India

This is the highest court of India and is located in **New Delhi**. According to the Constitution of India, the Supreme Court is the guardian of the Constitution and the highest Court of appeal.

Jurisdiction of Supreme Court

Original Jurisdiction:

The Supreme Court can hear dispute for the first time in that court only. It is mainly concerned disputes between the Union and one or more states and between two or more states.

Appellate Jurisdiction:

It can hear appeals against the decisions made by the High Court on the granting of certificate by the High Court.

Advisory Jurisdiction:

The Court can report to the President its opinion about a question of the public importance referred to it by the President.

Writs Jurisdiction:

The Writs are issued by the Supreme Court under **Article 32** and by the High Courts under **Article 226 of the Constitution of India**.

Court of Record:

It maintains records of the court proceedings and its decisions are binding upon the lower courts.

Special Powers:

It supervises the functioning of the lower courts.

The Litigation Process

There are two different types of legal sections in India: Civil and Criminal

Civil Law	Criminal Law
• It deals with disputes over money property and social matters. Eg. Disputes relating to land, rent, marriage dispute etc., • A petition has to be filed before the relevant court by the affected parties. • Sentences awarded in the form of money remuneration and as per the petitioner's claim.	• It deals with conducts or acts that the law defines as offences. Eg. Theft, murder, women harassment etc., • It usually begins with lodging of an FIR (First Information Report) with police investigation after which a case is filed in the court. • Punishment is awarded if proven guilty, the accused is sent to jail.

High Court

- This is the highest court in the states. Every state in India has a High Court. Two or three states may have a common High Court.
- For example Punjab, Haryana and Chandigarh is having one High Court. It has original, Appellate and Writs Jurisdiction.
- Below the High Court there are a Subordinate courts in the States.

Independent and impartial function of Judiciary

- The framers of the Constitution established independent and impartial judiciary in India.
- Independence of judiciary is important for the purpose of fair justice. Democratic country like India, judiciary is the custodian of rights of citizens.
- Therefore, the framers of the Indian Constitution at the time of framing of our constitution were concerned about the kind of judiciary our country should have.
- This concern of the members of the constituent assembly was responded by **Dr. B.R. Ambedkar** in the following words: **"There can be no difference of opinion in the House that our judiciary must be both independent of the executive and must also be competent in it. And the question is how these two objects can be secured."**
- An effective judiciary should be independent as well as accountable.
- The independence of the judiciary is the independence of the exercise of the functions by the judges in an unbiased manner i.e. free from any external influence.

Conclusion

- Judiciary plays a crucial role in a democratic state.
- Judiciary is the custodian of the Constitution and guardian of fundamental rights. India, the largest representative democracy of the world possesses a well-structured and independent judicial system.

More to Know:

1. Public Interest Litigation (PIL):

- PIL is a litigation filed in a court of law for the protection of “public interest”.
- The Supreme court introduced this system which allows a person to approach the court with his case.
- PIL can be filed for the following reasons such as violation of basic human rights, religious rights, pollution, and road safety.
- This could be done by a written letter stating the case. This concept is unique to the Indian Judiciary.

2. NALSA

- The National Legal Service Authority has been constituted under **the Legal Services Authorities Act, 1987** to provide free Legal Services to the weaker sections of the society and to organise Lok Adalats for amicable settlement of disputes.

3. The first political philosopher, who propounded the idea of an independent judiciary, was **Montesquieu**, the **famous French philosopher**. He believed in the theory of separation of powers of the three branches of the Government - **Legislature, Executive and Judiciary**.

4. The Calcutta High Court is the oldest High court in the country, established in **1862**, whereas the Allahabad High Court is the largest Court.

5. Smiritis

In ancient India Smiritis defined the social duties for the individual. There are **Manusmiriti**, **Naradasmiriti**, **Yajnavalkya smiriti** etc.

8th Social Science Lesson 23 Notes in English

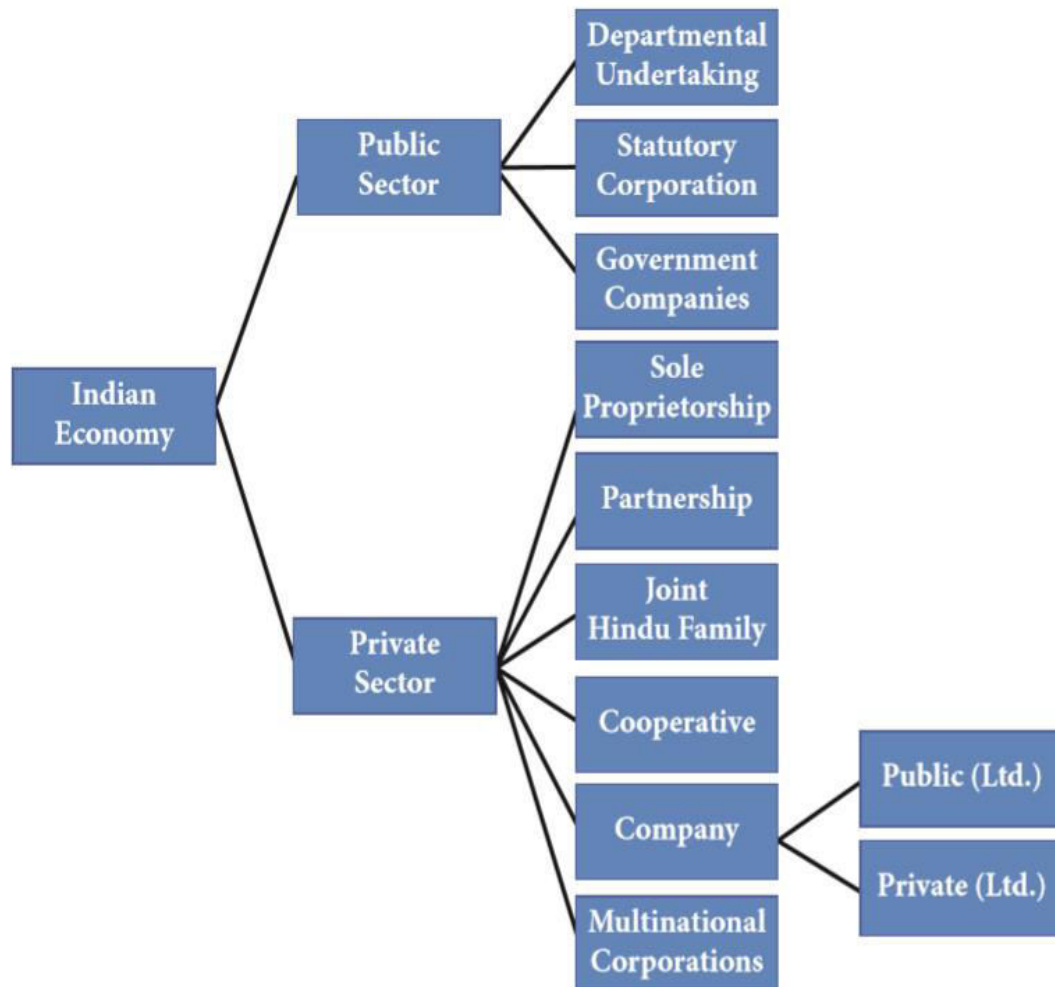
23. Public and Private Sectors

Introduction

- India was basically an agrarian economy with a weak industrial base at the time of Independence.
- There were **high level of poverty, illiteracy and unemployment** in the country.
- India experienced very poor economic and social overheads. It is the principally for their reasons that the state had to play an extensive role in developing the country.
- Hence India conceived to have the Indian economy on socialist lines.
- The economic growth may be sustained at a maximum rate, if private sector and public sector join hands.
- India followed mixed economic system that it is operated both by private enterprises and public enterprises.

Public and Private Sector

- There are all kinds of business organizations – **small or large, industrial or trading, private owned or government owned** in our country.
- These organizations affect in our daily economic life and therefore become part of the Indian economy.
- Since the Indian economy consists of both private owned and government owned business enterprises, it is known as a **mixed economy**.
- The Government of India has opted for a mixed economy where both private and government enterprises are allowed to operate.
- The economy, therefore, may be classified into two sectors viz., **private sector and public sector**.
- The public sector and the private sector are allotted their respective roles in promoting the economic welfare of all sections of the community.
- Public sector industries are under its ownership of Government whereas the private sector industries are under the ownership of private people.
- The public sector enables the full growth in an economy. Public sector is on service motive and the private sector is on profit motive.



Definition of Public Sector

- The sector, which is engaged in the activities of providing government goods and services to the general public is known as Public Sector.
- The enterprises, agencies, and bodies are fully owned, controlled and run by the government whether it is central government, state government or a local government.

History of public Sector

- When India achieved independence in **1947**, it was primarily an agricultural country with a weak industrial base.
- There were only eighteen Indian Ordnance Factories in the country which the British had established for their own economic interest and rule the subcontinent with brute force.

- The national consensus was in **favour of rapid industrialisation** of the economy which was seen as the key to economic development, improving living standards and economic sovereignty.
- Building upon the **Bombay Plan (1940)**, which noted the requirement of government intervention and regulation, the **first Industrial Policy Resolution announced in 1948** laid down broad contours of the strategy of industrial development.
- Subsequently, the **Planning Commission** was formed by a cabinet resolution in **March 1950** and the **Industrial Act was enacted in 1951** with the objective of empowering the government to take necessary steps to regulate industrial development.
- Prime Minister Jawaharlal Nehru promoted an economic policy based on import substitution industrialisation and advocated a mixed economic system.
- He believed that the establishment of basic and heavy industry was fundamental to the development and modernisation of the Indian economy.
- India's **second five year plan (1956–60)** and the **Industrial Policy Resolution of 1956** emphasised the development of public sector enterprises to meet Nehru's national industrialisation policy.
- His vision was carried forward by **Dr. V. Krishnamurthy** known as the **"Father of Public sector undertakings in India"**.
- Indian statistician **Prof. P.C. Mahalanobis** was instrumental to its formulation, which was subsequently termed the Friedman– Mahalanobis model.
- The **1991 industrial policy** was radically different from all the earlier policies where the government was deliberating disinvestment of public sector and allowing greater freedom to the private sector.
- At the same time, foreign direct investment was invited from business houses outside india.
- Thus, multinational corporations, which operate in more than one country gained entry into the Indian economy.
- Thus, we have public sector units, private sector enterprises and multinational corporations coexisting in the Indian economy.

The objectives of Public Sector

- To promote rapid economic development through creation and expansion of infrastructure
- To generate financial resources for development
- To promote redistribution of income and wealth
- To create employment opportunities
- To promote balanced regional growth
- To encourage the development of small-scale and ancillary industries
- To accelerate export promotion and import substitution.

Public Sector Organizations:

- There are two types of public sector organizations, i.e. either the Government fully finances them through the revenues they raise by collection taxes, duties, fees, etc. of the government holds **more than 51%** of the total share capital of the company which comes under various ministries.
- The enterprises are established with service motive. It is the largest sector, which works for the upliftment of the people by providing the following services to the people: Postal services, Railway services, Providing security, education and health facilities at low cost, and generation of employment opportunities, etc..

Organs of public sector:

1. Administration by a Government Department:

It is very common almost in all countries. Example - Post and Telegraph, Railways, Port Trust, Irrigation Projects on India etc.,

2. The Joint sector companies:

It is governed by a company law and controlled by the Government as principal major share holders. Example - Indian Oil Petronas pvt ltd, Indian Oil Sky tanking Limited. Ratnagiri Gas and Power Private Limited, Indian Synthetic Rubber Limited.

3. Public Corporation:

This type of organization is the establishment of public corporation by the state of the parliament of legislature. Example - LIC, Air India, The Reserve bank of India, Electricity Board.

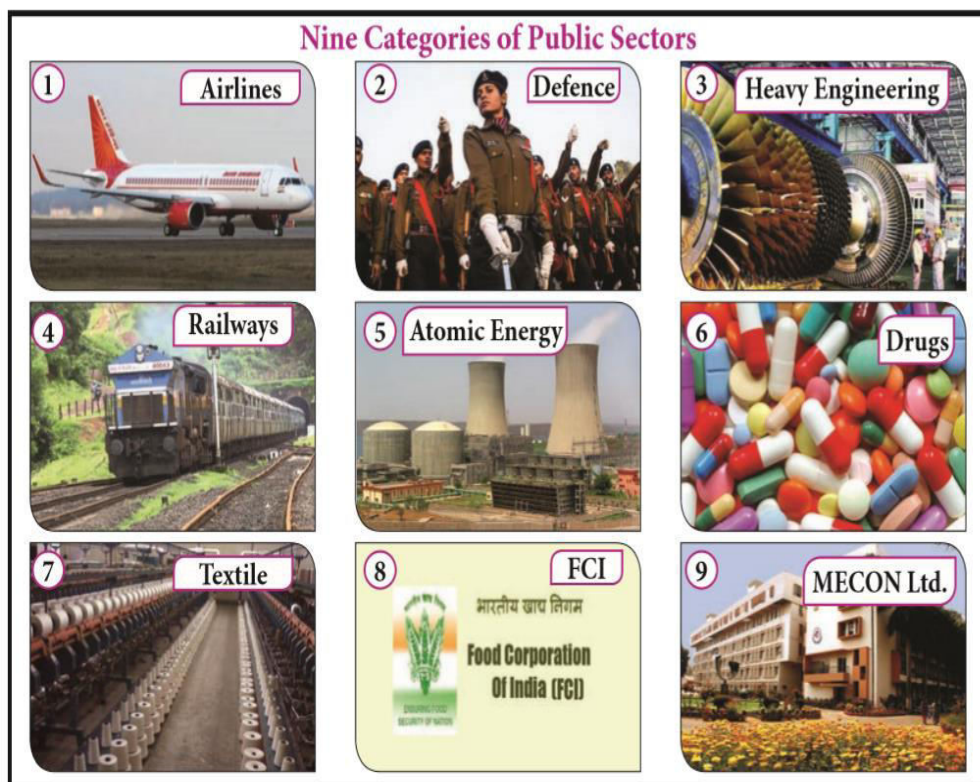
Classification of Industries

- The public sector in India owes its origin in the **1956** Industrial policy resolution of the Government of India. This 1956 resolution classified industries into three categories. The Industries which would be exclusively owned by the state are referred to as **Schedule-A**
- The industries in which the private sector could supplement the efforts of the state sector, with the state taking the sole responsibility for starting new units which are specific in **Schedule-B**.
- The remaining industries which were in the private sector are mentioned in **Schedule-C**.

Public Sector is divided into the following nine categories

1) Public sector enterprises must supply essential infrastructure for economic development which are known as primary public utilities which include the following: Airlines, Shipping, Railways, Power Generation, Tele communication etc.

- 2) Public sector enterprises also to have control of the “commanding heights of the economy” e.g. Defence, Banks, Coalmines, Oil, Steel etc.
- 3) They are to play an entrepreneurial role which is, in other words, called capital intensive industries: e.g., Iron ore, PetroChemicals, Fertilizer, Mining, Ship - Building. Heavy Engineering etc.
- 4) Public sector enterprises under Government monopoly which includes: Telecommunication equipment. Defence production. Railways, Rolling Stock etc.
- 5) Public sector enterprises which are exclusively meant for High Technology industries, e.g.: Atomic energy.
- 6) Consumer oriented public sector undertakings. eg. Drug, Paper, Hotels etc.
- 7) Public Sector enterprise which is set up in order to take over the sick private units, e.g.: Textile, Engineering etc.
- 8) Public sector enterprises which are set up as Trade Corporation, e.g.: FCI, CCI etc.
- 9) Public sector enterprises which serves as a consultancy and engineering service etc. e.g. MECON.



NITI Aayog (National Institution for Transforming India)

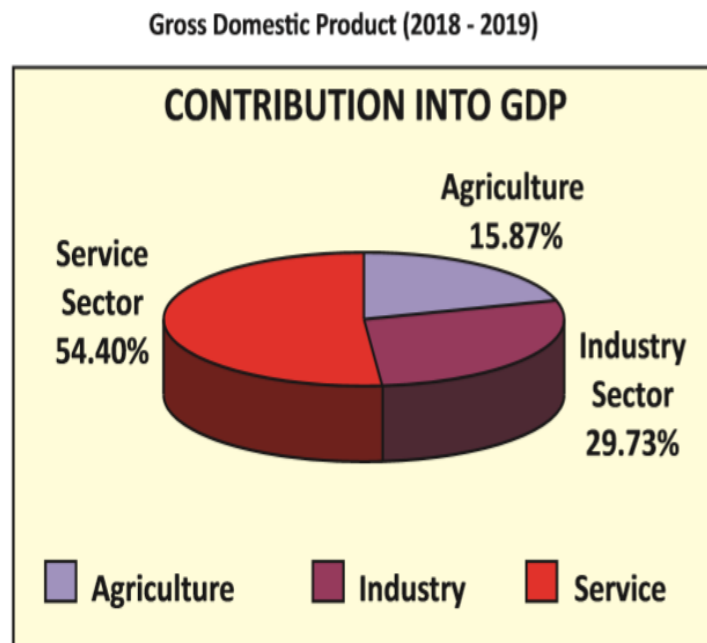
- NITI Aayog replaced **65 years** old planning commission. Planning commission has power to allocate funds to ministries and states, this function will be now at finance ministry.
- NITI Aayog is a policy think tank and a truly advisory body formed on **January 1, 2015**.

Socio-Economic Development

- Socio-economic development is the process of social and economic development in a society. Socio-economic development is measured with indicators, such as GDP, life expectancy, literacy and levels of employment.
- The new **"Think Tank"** is NITI Aayog can form a suitable platform in integrating the social sector initiatives of the Centre, state and the local bodies.

Indicators of Socio Economic Development:

Gross Domestic Product (GDP)



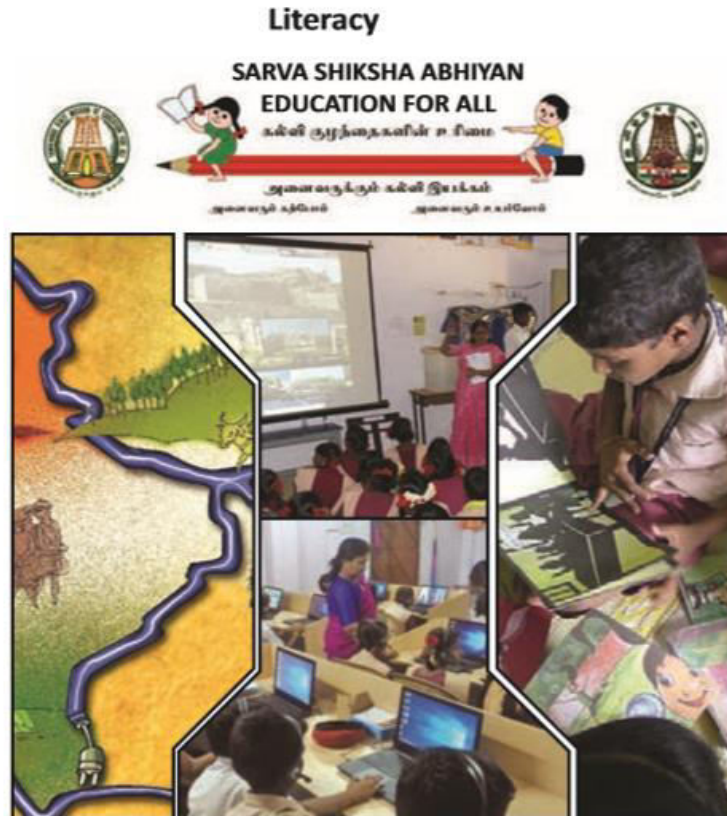
- GDP supports in developing socio - Economic Development. The proportion of GDP by the industrial sector both private and public sector has been increased.
- It results increasing government funds and increase public spending.

Life Expectancy

- According to 2011 Census of India, Life expectancy in India is **65.80 years for men and 68.33 years for women**.
- Government provides high degree of health measures through various programmes.

- The Government announced in the Union Budget 2018-19 the **"National Health Production Scheme"** (NHPS) to serve poor and vulnerable families.

Literacy



- Educational skill plays a vital role in the Socio Economic Development. Sarva Siksha Abhiyan(SSA) is government of India's flagship programme.
- It is implemented for making free and Compulsory Education to the children of **6-14** years with life skills.
- The Government also introduced RMSA, Smart class, e-learning, free computer skill classes and eco-friendly studying environment, Digital India for increasing the level of quality in education.

Employment

- There is a clear shift in employment to secondary and tertiary sector from the primary sector.
- A growing number of people moved urban areas in search of employment. It increased urban population, hence government started the **'Smart city'** Scheme which provides the city with many facilities like hospitals, schools, housing facilities and shopping centers.

- To promote rural and backward areas in terms of employment the government encourages private sectors to start an industry in backward areas by providing tax benefit electricity at a lower tariff, etc., It removes regional inequality.

Provision of House, Clean Drinking Water and Sanitation

- Government sector provides housing facilities, clean drinking water facilities and sanitary facilities under clean India Planning.
- Providing clean water and sanitary facilities overcome diseases and malnutrition.
- By providing these facilities the Life Cycle of the people increases.

Importance of Public sector

Public sector plays a major role in the development of any economy. It has following importance:

1. **Public Sector and Capital Formation:** The role of public sector in collecting saving and investing them during the planning period has been very important.
2. **Economic Development:** Economic development mainly depends upon industrial development. Heavy & basic industries like iron & steel, shipping, mining, etc. are required for supplying raw materials to small industries.
3. **Balanced Regional Development:** Public sector undertakings have located their plants in backward parts of the country. These areas lacked basic industrial and civic facilities like electricity, water supply, township and manpower. Public enterprises have developed these facilities thereby bringing about complete transformation in the socioeconomic life of the people in these regions.
4. **Employment Generation:** Public sector has created millions of jobs to tackle the unemployment problem in the country. The number of persons employed during the year 2011 was 150 lakh. Public sector has also contributed a lot towards the improvement of working and living conditions of workers by serving as a model employer.
5. **Export Promotion and Foreign Exchange Earnings:** Some public enterprises have done much to promote India's export. The State Trading Corporation (STC), the Minerals and Metals Trading Corporation (MMTC), Hindustan Steel Ltd., the Bharat Electronics Ltd., the Hindustan Machine Tools, etc., have done very well in export promotion.
6. **Protection to Sick Industries:** Public sector, to prevent sick unit closing down, takes over their responsibility & prevent many people from getting unemployed not only this but it prevents unnecessary locking of capital, land, building, machinery, etc.
7. **Import Substitution:** Some public sector enterprises were started specifically to produce goods which were formerly imported and thus to save foreign exchange. The Oil and Natural Gas

Commission (ONGC), the Indian Oil Corporation Ltd., the Bharat Electronics Ltd., etc., have saved foreign exchange by way of import substitution.

Difference between Public sector and private sector

Though the public sector and private sector work together for developing the country they have different goals and motives. Here are some important differences between them.

S. No.	PUBLIC SECTOR	PRIVATE SECTOR
1.	Ownership of industries is with government	Ownership of industries is with private individuals
2.	Public Revenue depends upon levy of taxes, on income and commodities and services	Issuing shares and debentures or by taking loan

3.	Public sector ensures the proper wage	Private sector exploits the workers
4.	It does not allow to concentrate huge wealth in few hands or rich people	It allows concentrate of huge wealth in few hands or rich people
5.	Public sector industries: Example NLC, SAIL, BSNL	Private sector industries: Example TVS Motors, Ashok Leyland, TATA Steel
6.	No tax evasion	Tax evasion is possible
7.	It is service oriented	It is purely profit oriented
8.	Reservations are implemented. Priority is given to the socially backward people	It does not care the socially backward class, reservation is not followed

List of Public Sector undertaking industries:

In India, as for the year 2017 there are **8 Maharatna** industries, **16 Navratna** industries and **74 Miniratna industries**. There are nearly 300 CPSEs (Central Public Sector enterprises) in total.

Maharatna Industries

Three years with an average annual net profit of over ` **2500 crore**, or Average annual Net worth of ` **10,000 crore for 3 years**, or Average annual Turnover of ` **20,000 crore for 3 years (against ` 25,000 crore prescribed earlier)** are called as Maharatna industries.

- National Thermal Power Corporation (NTPC)
- Oil and Natural Gas Commission (ONGC)
- Steel Authority of India Limited (SAIL)
- Bharat Heavy Electricals Limited (BHEL)
- Indian Oil Corporation Limited (IOCL)
- Coal India Limited (CIL)
- Gas Authority of India Limited (GAIL)
- Bharat Petroleum Corporation Limited (BPCL)

Navratna Industries

A score of **60 (out of 100)**, based on six parameters which include net profit, net worth, total manpower cost, total cost of production, cost of services, PBDIT (Profit Before Depreciation, Interest and Taxes), capital employed, etc., and a company must first be a Miniratna and have 4 independent directors on its board before it can be made a Navratna.

- Bharat Heavy Electronics Limited (BHEL)
- Container Corporation of India (CONCOR)
- Engineers India Limited (EIL)
- Hindustan India Limited (HAL)
- Hindustan Petroleum Corporation Ltd. (HPCL)
- Mahanagar Telephone Nigam Ltd (MTNL)
- National Aluminum company (NALCO)
- Neyveli Lignite Corporation India Ltd. (NLCIL)
- Oil India Ltd. (OIL)
- Shipping corporation of India (SCI)

Miniratna Industries - 1

Have made profits continuously for the last three years or earned a net profit of Rs. 30 crore or more in one of the three years. Some Miniratna Industries – 1 are

- Airports Authority of India (AAI)
- Bharat Dynamics Ltd.(BDL)

- Bharat Sanchar Nigam Ltd. (BSNL)
- Chennai petroleum Corporation Ltd. (CPCL)
- India Trade Promotion Organization (ITPO)
- State Trading Corporation of India (STCI)

Miniratna Industries - 2

Have made profits continuously for the last three years and should have a positive net worth. Some Miniratna Industries – 2 are

- HMT (International) Limited
- Indian Medicines & Pharmaceuticals Corporation Limited
- MECON Limited
- Mineral Exploration Corporation Limited
- National Film Development Corporation Limited
- Bharat Pumps & Compressors Limited

Definition of Private sector

- The segment of a national economy that is owned, controlled and managed by private individuals or enterprises is known as Private sector.
- The private sector companies are divided on the basis of sizes which are privately or publicly traded organizations.
- They can be created in two ways, i.e. either by the formation of a new enterprise or by the privatization of any public sector enterprise.
- The Private sector is a part of country's economic system that is run by individuals and companies, rather than the government.
- Even the vast expansion of public sector, the contribution of the private sector continued to be very large.
- This was due to the development of medium, small and very small or micro industries. Also, the contribution of the products of cottage, and village industries and the small, scale industries is the major portion of the wholesale and retail trade.
- The contribution of private sector towards national production is higher than the public sector, Private sector is dominant in road, ship, and airways transport and also in consumer industries.

Major private companies

- Infosys
- Aditya Birla Company
- Reliance Industrial companies
- Tata Group of companies

- WIPRO Limited
- Hindustan Unilever Limited
- ICICI Bank Limited

Functions of Private Sector

- The main function of private sector is to create innovation and modernization. The profit motive drives them to invent, innovate new techniques of production and manage the productive activities in a scientific manner.
- Develop and maintain infrastructure and services.
- Promote and expand existing businesses.
- Promote human capital development, to help vulnerable groups especially to participate in the labour market and encourage community development by promoting community business and co-operatives, local exchange systems and informal credit etc.
- Promote small, micro and medium enterprises (SMME) through supply side measures and demand side measures and attract investment in the city.
- In India, being a mixed economy, has assigned a great importance on the private sector of the country for attaining rapid economic development.
- The Government has fixed a specific role to the private sector in the field of industries, trade and services sector.
- The most dominant sector of India, i.e., **agriculture and other allied activities like dairying, animal husbandry, poultry etc.** is totally under the control of the private sector.
- Thus private sector is playing an important role in managing the entire agricultural sector and thereby providing the entire food supply to the millions.
- Moreover, the major portion of the industrial sector engaged in the non-strategic and light areas, producing various consumer goods both durables and non-durables, electronics and electrical goods, automobiles, textiles, chemicals, food products, light engineering goods etc., is also under the control of the private sector.
- The social and economic challenges before the country are great. To meet the targets in structural transformation and economic growth public sector and private sector must join together.

More to Know:

1. The term Navaratna meant a talisman composed of nine precious gems. Later, this term was adopted in the courts of Gupta emperor Vikramaditya and Mughal emperor Akbar, as the collective name for nine extraordinary courtiers at their respective courts.
2. The largest public sector employer in india is Indian Railways.
3. Mixed economy is the mixture of merits of both capitalism and socialism.