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>>> THE FRENCH REVOLUTION <<<<

French revolution is considered as the most important landmark in human history. The revolution occurred in 1789 and swept away the existing political institutions, overthrew the French Monarchy and aimed at establishing an egalitarian society and responsible government. The revolution began with the siege of Bastille on July 14, 1789 and continued until the rise of Napoleon Bonaparte to power.

FRENCH SOCIETY DURING THE LATE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY

The term 'Old Regime' is usually used to describe the society and institutions of France before 1789. French society before 1789 was divided into three estates; it was called a society of estates. The estates constituted as follows:

- (i) The First Estate - the First Estate consisted of the clergy. The clergy were exempted from paying taxes to the king.
- (ii) The Second Estate - the Second Estate consisted of nobility was also exempted from taxes. The nobles further enjoyed feudal privileges. These included feudal dues, which they extracted from the peasants.
- (iii) The Third Estate - the Third Estate consisted of big businessmen, merchants, court officials, lawyers, peasants and artisan, landless labor, servants, etc. the Third Estate comprised both rich and poor persons.

(a) Causes of the French Revolution:

Political Causes:

- (i) The political structure of the French state was highly unpopular with the people who were burdened with heavy taxes and insecure conditions of life and property.
- (ii) Divine rights of the kings, despotism and tyranny of the French monarchs topped by the extravagance and inefficiency of the Bourbon Kings.
- (iii) Louis XV indulged in a life of ease and pleasure, was not interested in administrative reforms or the welfare of the people.
- (iv) Louis XVI though good natured was completely under the influence of incompetent and corrupt ministers and a domineering queen, Marie Antoinette.
- (v) Absence of any representative body to voice the need of the people. local bodies called Parliament were courts of justice rather than voices of people.

Social Forces:

- (i) The unfair division of French society and its feudal nature were also responsible for the revolution.
- (ii) The first two estates enjoyed all the privileges and benefits in the society. the third estate was fraught with inequalities and discriminations. most of the burden of taxation was borne by the least privileged and most impoverished third estate.
- (iii) Middle class was most receptive to new ideas and values as they were educated and had a broader outlook, denied the whole ideas, rights and privileged existence where the main qualification is that of birth and instead favoured the criterion of merit.

Economic Unrest:

- (i) In the 18th century the condition of common man had become pathetic, problem of subsistence due to failure of crops, increase in the prices of food grains

- (ii) In the second half of the 18th century the French economy had started expanding. but its financial impact was uneven, hardest hit were the Third Estate
- (iii) Between 1689 and 1783 French fought several long and exhausting wars which proved to be disastrous both in terms of French Manpower and finances, not only led to mounting debts but interest on these debts also multiplied.
- (iv) To meet its mounting costs the government increased taxes. Peasantry was the hardest hit who owned the minimum land and paid the maximum taxes.
- (v) Taxes were Taille the direct land tax, salt tax known as Gabelle, feudal dues or payments were taken by nobility and taxes know as Tithe was taken by the Church.

A growing middle class envisages an end to Privileges:

- (i) The French Revolution drew its strength from the ideas of philosophers and thinkers of the time, groups of intellectuals classified by scholars according to their thinking,
- (ii) Physiocrats, Philosophers and some others were grouped as liberals depending on their ideologies.
- (iii) Greatest thinkers were Francois Marie, Arouet de Voltaire, Jean Jacques Rousseau, Charles Louis Montesquieu, John Locke and Diderot to name a few.
- (iv) Through their teachings and writings they stirred the people to action, revolutionized the minds of the people and prepared them for the great changes ahead.

Contribution of the thinkers:

- (i) Charles Montesquieu - A noblemen by birth, he become a lawyer and a judge. He preferred constitutional monarchy in France, he popularized the theory of powers within the government between the legislative , the executive and the judiciary in his book "The Spirit of the Laws"
- (ii) Francis Aronet Voltaire - he was another outstanding philosopher of the revolution. He wanted the people to think about their material life on earth and forget about heaven. He condemned the Church which supported the ignored the poor.
- (iii) Jean Jacques Rousseau - he is regarded as the architect of the French Revolution . In the famous book "The Social Contract", he proved that the government was the result of a social contract between the people on one hand and ruler on the other. So if the ruler didn't fulfill the contract, the people had the right to withdraw their loyalty to him and bring down the tyranny of the ruler by revolting against him.
- (iv) John Locke - he was a great political thinker. He wrote "Two Treatises of Government " in which he sought to refute the doctrine of the divine and absolute right of monarch.

THE OUT BREAK OF THE REVOLUTION

On 5 may 1789, Louis XVI called together an assembly to the Estate General to pass proposals for new taxes. The Estate General was a political body. The three estates sent their representatives to his body. Each of the three estates had a one vote each. The first estate and the second estate had sent 300 representatives each. They were seated in rows facing each other on two sides. The third estate had sent 600 representatives. They required standing at the back. Peasants, artisans and women were denied entry to the assembly. New taxes could be proposed only after the Estate General gave its approval to the king's proposal. Since the first estate and the second estate were exempted from paying taxes, it was a foregone conclusion that the king's proposals on new taxes would get the approval of the Estate General.

(a) The Tennis Court Oath:

Voting in the Estate General in the past had been conducted according to the principle that each estate had one vote. Members of the third Estate demanded that voting now be conducted by the assembly as a whole, where each member would have one vote. When the king rejected this proposal, members of the third Estate walked out of the assembly in protest.

The representatives of the Estate on 20 June assembled in the hall of an indoor tennis court in the grounds of Versailles. They declared themselves a National Assembly and swore not to disperse till they had drafted a constitution of France that would limit the powers of the monarch. While the National assembly was busy at Versailles the rest of France seethed with turmoil, on 14 July the agitated crowd stormed and destroyed the Bastille.

(b) 'Storming of the Bastille':

On the morning of July 14, 1789 the city of Paris was in a state of alarm. A severe winter had meant a bad harvest; the price of bread rose. Bakers exploited the situation and hoarded supplies. Crowds of angry women stormed into the shops.

The army was ordered by the king to move into the city. It was rumored that the army would be ordered to open fire upon the citizens. Thousands of persons gathered and decided to form a people's militia. They broke into a number of government buildings in search of arms. Bastille was a dreaded fortress-prison. It was hated by all because it stood for the despotic power of the king. Protestors stormed into the Bastille in search of arms. The commander of Bastille was killed; the prisoners were released. The fortress was demolished. Louis XVI finally accorded recognition to the National Assembly and accepted the principle that his powers would from now on be checked by a constitution. On the Night of 4 August 1789, the Assembly passed a decree abolishing the feudal system of obligations and taxes.

(c) France becomes a Constitutional Monarchy:

(i) The National Assembly completed the drafting of the constitution in 1791. Power was now separated and assigned to different institutions—the legislature, executive and judiciary making France a constitutionally monarchy.

(ii) The Constitution of 1791 vested the power to make laws in the National Assembly, which was indirectly elected.

(iii) The Constitution began with a Declaration of the Rights of Man and Citizen. Rights such as the Right of life, freedom of speech, freedom of opinion, equality before law were established as 'natural and inalienable' rights.

(d) The Declaration of Rights of Man and Citizen:

(i) Men are born and remain free and equal in rights.

(ii) The aim of every political association is the preservation of the natural and inalienable rights of man; these are liberty, property, security and resistance to oppression.

(iii) The source of all sovereignty resides in the nation; no group or individual may exercise authority that does not come from the people.

(iv) Liberty consists of the power, to do whatever is not injurious to others.

(v) The law has the right to forbid only actions that are injurious to society.

(vi) Law is the expression of the general will. All citizens have the right to participate in its formation, personally or through their representatives. All citizens are equal before it.

(vii) no man be accused, arrested or detained, except in cases determined by the law.

(viii) every citizen may speak, write and print freely; he must take responsibility for the abuse of such liberty in cases determined by the law.

(ix) for the maintenance of the public force and the expenses of administration a common tax is indispensable ; it must be assessed equally on all citizens in proportion to their means.

(x) since property is a sacred and inviolable right, no one may be deprived of it, unless a legally established public necessity requires it. in that case a just compensation must be given in advance

Le-Barbier painted the declaration of the rights of man and citizens in 1790. Majority of people at that time could not read and write, so he used many symbols to convey the content of the declaration of rights.

(i) Figure on the right represented France and figure on the left symbolized the law

(ii) The broken chain - Stands for the act of becoming free.

(iii) The bundle of rods - it implies that strength lies in unity as one can be easily broken but not an entire bundle.

(iv) The eye within a triangle radiating light - Eye stand for knowledge, the rays of sun will drive away the clouds of ignorance

(v) Scepter - It is a symbol of royal power.

- (vi) Snake biting its tail to form a ring, a symbol of eternity.
- (vii) Red cap - Cap worn by a slave upon becoming free.
- (viii) Blue, White, Red - these are National colours of France.
- (xi) winged woman - Personification of the law.
- (x) The law tablet - the law is same for all.

FRANCE ABOLISHES MONARCHY AND BECOMES A REPUBLIC

- (i) Although Louis XVI had signed the Constitution, he entered into secret negotiations with the King of Prussia.
- (ii) The National Assembly voted in April 1792 to declare war against Prussia and Austria. People saw this as a war of the people against kings and aristocracies all over Europe.
- (iii) The revolutionary wars brought losses and economic difficulties to the people. Political clubs became an important rallying point for people who wished to disuse government policies and plan their own form of action. The most successful of these clubs was that of the Jacobins, which got its name from the former convent of St. Jacob in Paris.
- (iv) In the summer of 1792 the Jacobins planned an insurrection of a large number of Parisians who were angered by the short supplies and high prices of food. On the morning of August 10 they stormed the Palace of the Tuileries and held the king himself as hostage for several hours.
- (v) Elections were held. The newly elected assembly was called the National Convention. On 21 September 1792 it abolished the monarchy and declared France a Republic.
- (vi) Louis XVI was sentenced to death by a court on the charges of treason. On 21 January 1793 he was executed publicly at the Place de la Concorde.

(a) The Reign of Terror:

The period in between 1793-94 is referred as the "Reign of Terror".

- (i) During this period Robespierre, who was the government of France followed a policy of severe control and punishment.
- (ii) Ex-nobles and clergy, even members of his own party who did not agree with his methods were arrested, imprisoned.
- (iii) France witnessed the guillotine of thousands of nobles and innocent men who supported.
- (iv) Robespierre issued laws placing a maximum ceiling on prices. Churches were shut down.
- (v) Finally Robespierre was guillotined in July 1794.

(b) A directory Rules France:

The reign of terror ended in 1794. The Jacobin government fell, and a new constitution was prepared by an elected convention providing for a republican form of government with a legislature and an executive body called the Directory. Directory was an executive made up of five members. Directors often clashed with the legislative councils, who then sought to dismiss them. The political instability of the Directory paved the way for the rise of a military dictator, Napoleon Bonaparte.

DID WOMAN HAVE A REVOLUTION

- (i) Most women of the third estate had to work for a living, did not have access to education or job training. Working women had also to support their families; their wages were lower than those of men.
- (ii) In order to discuss and voice their interests women started their own political clubs and newspapers. About sixty women's clubs came up in different French cities. One of their main demands was that women enjoy the same political rights as men.
- (iii) In the early revolutionary government did introduce laws that helped to improve the lives of women, creation of state schools, schooling made compulsory for all girls, could no longer be forced to get into marriage against their will, Divorce could be applied for by both women and men. Women could now train for jobs, could become artists or run small businesses.

- (iv) During the Reign of Terror, the new government issued laws ordering closure of women's clubs and banning their political activities.
- (v) The fight for the vote was carried out through an International suffrage movement during the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. It was finally in 1946 that women in France won the right to vote.

(a) The Abolition of Slavery:

- (i) Slavery was rampant in the European colonies of the Caribbean and the Americas. The slaves were mostly used on sugar, coffee, indigo and tobacco plantation. Their demand was because of their availability and low costs
- (ii) In a debate in the Constituent Assembly in October 1790, to safeguard commercial interests of 'planters' two parties holding opposite views emerged. The group that safeguarded planters' interests but pledged to maintain order in the colonies came up around the Massiac Club founded in August 1789 and their adversaries were the Society of the Friends of the Blacks founded in 1783. The outcome of the debate was that it served the purpose of drawing attention to the condition of slaves and sowed seeds of future political divisions.
- (iii) On February 4, 1794 the Convention (National Assembly) ended slavery in the France Colonies. Napoleon Bonaparte revoked the decree in 1802, slavery was finally abolished from the France Colonies in 1848.

THE ABOLITION OF SLAVERY :

The France Revolution produced great effects not only in France but also on the whole of Europe.

(a) Effect on France:

The France Revolution put an end to the arbitrary rule in France and paved the way for the establishment of a republic there. The special privileges of the high order were abolished and led to the regeneration of France on the basis of social equality. The declaration of the rights of man granted freedom and individual liberty to all without any distinction of class or creed. Many reforms were introduced in the administration. The higher and important posts in the state were opened to talented people. All were granted religious freedom. The Napoleonic code introduced a uniform system of law for France and made it quite clear and simple.

(b) Effects on Europe:

- (i) Equality - the France Revolution had a great influence on Europe. Equality was one of the main principles of the France Revolution. It implied the equality of all before law and abolition of privileges enjoyed by the upper order in the society. It established social, economic and political equality in the European countries.
- (ii) Liberty - Revolutionary idea of liberty was hailed all over Europe. It implied social, political and religious freedom. The declaration of rights made people understand the importance of personal liberty and rights.
- (iii) Sovereignty - the France revolution emphasized the fact that sovereignty resides in the general public and law should be based on the will of the people. It infused the spirit of nationalism and patriotism in the people.

(c) Global impact:

- (i) The France Revolution had a global impact which was felt everywhere in the world.
- (ii) The UN charter of Human Rights also embodies the principles of the Revolution as laid down in the Declaration of Rights of Man and Citizens.

THE RISE AND FALL OF NAPOLEON

In 1804, Napoleon Bonaparte himself Emperor of France. He set out to conquer neighbouring European countries, dispossessing dynasties and creating kingdoms where he placed members of his family. Napoleon saw his role as a moderniser of Europe. He introduced many laws such as the protection of private property and a uniform system of weight and measures provided by the decimal system. Initially, many saw Napoleon as a liberator who would bring freedom for the people. But soon the Napoleonic armies came to be viewed everywhere as an invading force. He was finally defeated at Waterloo in 1815.

Some Important Dates:

1774 – Louis XVI becomes king of France, faces empty treasury and growing discontent within society of the Old Regime.

1789 – Convection of Estates General, Third Estate forms National Assembly, the Bastille is stormed, and peasant revolts in the countryside.

1791 – A constitution is framed to limit the powers of the king and to guarantee basic rights to all human beings.

1792-93 France becomes a republic, the king is beheaded. Overthrow of the Jacobin republic, a Directory rules France.

1804- Napoleon becomes emperor of France, annexes large parts of Europe.

1815- Napoleon defeated at Waterloo

EXERCISE

OBJECTIVE DPP- 1.1

- The various groups in France society were known as:
(A) Caster (B) Classes (C) Estates (D) Tribes
- The term old regime used to describe the society and institution of France:
(A) Before 1879 (B) Before 1689 (C) Before 1789 (D) Before 1859
- Peasants made about Percent of the France population at the time of revolution:
(A) 70% (B) 80% (C) 50% (D) 90%
- A kind of tax called Taille was a/an:
(A) Direct tax (B) Indirect tax (C) indiscriminate tax (D) Custom duty
- The population of France rose from _____ in 1751 to _____ in 1789:
(A) 20 million to 30 million (B) 23 million to 28million
(C) 18 million to 24 million (D) 13 million to 18 million
- Montesquieu wrote:
(A) The social control (B) Two treatises of government
(C) The spirit of laws (D) from monarchy to diarchy
- The agitated crowd stormed and destroyed the Bastille on:
(A) 4 July 1789 (B) 5 May 1789 (C) 14 July 1789 (D) 24 July 1789
- The National Assembly completed the drafting of constitution in -
(A) 1791 (B) 1779 (C) 1782 (D) 1792
- The members of National Assembly were -
(A)Nominated (B) indirectly elected (C) Directly elected (D) Appointed by the king
- To qualify as an elector and then as member of the assembly a man had to belong to the -
(A) Lowest bractet of taxpayers (B) Middle bractet of taxpayers
(C) Highest bractet of taxpayers (D) Not to be a taxpayers
- The constitution begins with a declaration of the -
(A) Rights of Church (B) Rights of the king (C) Rights of feudal lords (D) Rights of man
- After signing the constitution the king of France entered into secret negotiations with the -
(A) King of Russia (B) King of England (C) King of Prussia (D) King of lately
- Which of the following was a patriotic song of France during revolution?
(A) Long live King (B) Long live Robespierre (C) Versailles (D) Marseillaise
- France become a republic after abolishing the monarchy on -
(A) 11 Sept.-1792 (B) 1 st Sept. 1792 (C) 21 Sept. 1792 (D) 31 Aug. 1792
- Who of the following are the examples of individuals who represented to the ides coming from revolutionary France?
(A)Gandhi and Nehru (B) Tilak and Gokhale
(C) Tipu Sultan and Raja Ram Mohan Roy (D) Tagore and V Vivekananda

SUBJECTIVE DPP - 1.2

Very Short Answer Type Questions:

1. What was the main aim of the National Assembly?
2. What was the National Anthem of France? Who composed it?
3. What is a guillotine? Who invented it ?
4. State any two laws passed by Napoleon.
5. Mention two activities of French assembly which hastened the Revolution
6. How has the France society organized during the Old Regime?
7. What do you mean by 'subsistence crisis'? Why did it occur frequently during the old Regime in France?
8. Why did Louis XVI want to raise taxes? Why was he opposed?
9. What was the composition of the Estate General of May 5, 1789?

Short Answer Type Questions:

10. What was the Tennis Court Oath?
11. What was the Bastille? What do you understand by 'Storming of the Bastille'?
12. Explain how the new political system worked?
13. Who were Jacobins? What role did they play in emergence of republic in France?
14. What was Directory? What were its a consequences?
15. What role did the philosophers play in bridging about the France Revolution?
16. Why is the declaration of the Rights of man citizen regarded as a revolutionary document?
17. Give an estimate of Napoleon Bonaparte as the First Consul.
18. What was the impact of the France Revolution on the world?
19. Which groups of France society benefited from the Revolution? Which groups were forced to relinquish power? Which sections of society would have been disappointed with the outcome of the Revolution?

Long Answer Type Questions:

20. What was the impact of France Revolution of France?
21. Write short notes on
(i) France slave trade (ii) Reign of Terror (iii) Fall of Napoleon.
22. What was the importance of slavery to France?
23. Discuss the impact of abolition of censorship in France.
24. How did the teaching of Rousseau lay the foundation of democracy?
25. List the accomplishments of the National Assembly of France from 1789 to 1791.
26. How did France become a constitutional monarchy?
27. Discuss the role of women in the revolutionary movement in France. When did women gain political equality in France?

ANSWER KEY

(Objective DPP 1.1)

Que.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Ans	C	C	D	A	B	C	C	A	B	C	D	C	D	C	C



SOCIALS IN ROPE & RUSSIAN REVOLUTION



SL - 02 (H)

RUSSIAN REVOLUTION

In Russia the government headed by Tsar Nicholas II was very oppressive. The common people began to hate him. Popular discontentment rose to a new height when Russia was defeated by Japan (1904-05). In the wake of this defeat a large number of secret revolutionary parties sprang up. In March 1917, the Tsar was forced to abdicate and a provisional government of moderate social revolutionaries was formed. On November 7, 1917, the Bolsheviks under Lenin brought the downfall of the Menshevik government and established a Soviet Republic.

THE AGE OF SOCIAL CHANGE

The French revolution opened up the possibility of creating a dramatic change in the way in which society was structured. Before the eighteenth century society was broadly divided into estates and orders and it was the aristocracy and church which controlled economic and social power. Suddenly after the revolution, it seemed possible to change this. In many parts of the world including Europe and Asia, new ideas about individual rights and who controlled social power began to be discussed. The development in the colonies, in turn, reshaped these ideas of societal change.

Not everyone in Europe, however, wanted a complete transformation of society. Responses varied from those who accepted that some change was necessary but wished for a gradual shift, to those who wanted to restructure society radically. Some were 'conservatives', others were 'liberals' or 'radicals'.

(a) Liberals, Radicals and Conservatives:

(i) Liberals looked to change society, they wanted a nation which tolerated all religions. They opposed the uncontrolled power of dynastic rulers. They wanted to safeguard the rights of individuals against governments. They argued for a representative, elected parliamentary government, subject to laws interpreted by a well-trained judiciary that was independent of rules and officials. They did not believe in Universal Adult Franchise, felt man of property mainly should have the vote, also did not want the vote for woman.

(ii) Radicals wanted a nation in which government was based on the majority of the country's population. They supported women's suffragette movements. They opposed the privileges of great landowners and wealthy factory owners. They were not against the existence of private property but disliked concentration of property in the hands of a few.

(iii) Conservative opposed to radicals and liberals. after the French revolution, however, even conservatives had opened their minds to the need for change. In the eighteenth century, conservatives had been generally opposed to the idea of change. By the nineteenth century, they accepted that some change was inevitable but believed that the past had to be respected and change had to be brought about through a slow process.

(b) Industrial Society and Social Change:

(i) New cities came up and new industrialized regions developed, railways expanded and the Industrial Revolution occurred.

(ii) Working hours were often long, wages were poor, unemployment was common, and problems of housing and sanitation were growing rapidly. liberals and radicals searched for solutions to these issues.

(iii) Liberals and radicals who themselves were often property owners and employers firmly believed in the values of individual effort, labor and enterprise. If freedom of individuals was ensured, if the poor could labor, and those with capital could operate without restraint, they believed that societies would develop.

(iv) Some nationalists, liberals and radicals wanted revolution to put an end to the king of governments established in Europe in 1815. Nationalists talked of revolutions that would create 'nations' where all citizens would have equally rights. After 1815, Giuseppe Mazzini, an Italian nationalist, conspired with others to achieve this in Italy.

(c) The Coming of Socialism to Europe:

(i) By the mid-nineteenth century in Europe, socialism was a well known body of ideas that attracted widespread attention.

(ii) Socialists were against private property, and saw it as the root of all social evils of the time. rather than single individuals controlling property, they wanted that more attention would be paid to collective social interests.

(iii) Socialists had different visions of the future: Robert Owen (1771-1858) a leading English manufacturer, sought to build a cooperative community called New Harmony in Indiana (USA). other socialists , for instance, Louis Blanc(1813-1882) wanted the government to encourage cooperatives and replace capitalist enterprises. these cooperatives were to be associations of people who produced goods together and divided the profits according to the work done by members. Kari Marx (1818-1883) and Friedrich Engels (1820-1895) added other ideas to this body of arguments.

(d) Support for socialism:

By the 1870's, socialist ideas spread through Europe. An international body was formed-namely the Second international. Workers in England and Germany began forming associations to fight for better living and working conditions, set up funds to help members in times of distress and demanded a reduction of working hours and the right to vote. In Germany, Social Democratic Party won parliamentary seats. By 1905, socialists and trade unionists foamed a Labor Party in Britain and a Socialist Party in France. Their ideas did shape legislations, but governments continued to be run by conservatives, liberals and radicals.

THE RUSSIANIREMOLOTION

(a) The Russian Empire in 1914:

In 1914, Tsar Nicholas II ruled Russia and its empire. Besides the territory around Moscow, the Russian empire included current-day Finland, Lithuania, and Estonia, parts of Poland, Ukraine and Belarus. It stretched to the Pacific and comprised today's Central Asian states, as well as Georgia, Armenia and Azerbaijan. The majority religion was Russian Orthodox Christianity - which had grown out of the Greek Orthodox Church - but the empire also included Catholics, Protestants, Muslims and Buddhists.

(b) Economic and Social conditions of Russia before the revolution:

(i) Peasants and workers formed most of the Czarist Russia's population including the Non-Russian nationalities. their condition was miserable.

(ii) Russia was industrially a backward country. The condition of the workers was bad. They were forced to work for long hours on low wages.

(iii) Both the workers and peasants had no meaningful place in the society. they had no political rights. In, contrast the nobility at the top enjoyed all the privileges in the state.

(iv) Corruption was widespread at all levels. the condition of the soldiers was also not satisfactory.

Political Conditions:

(i) The Russian Czars continued to enjoy unlimited powers and were cruel and irresponsible as before. They never cared for the welfare of their people.

(ii) Czar Nicholas II still believed in the old 'Divine of Kings'.

(iii) People were taxed heaved to maintain armed forces. Only the nobility supported the Czar as all important position in the state were occupied by it.

- (iv) All right officials were recruited from the upper classes only. They were corrupt and inefficient.
- (iv) The Royal family was also corrupt and immoral
- (vi) The Russian Czars had built a vast empire by conquering diverse nationalities in Asia and Europe. The Czars forced the people there to adopt the Russian language and culture.
- (vii) The Czar's policy of expansion also brought them in conflict or wars with other major imperialist powers.

Two classes of the Russian Society:

- (i) The king, the nobles and the clergy were at the top. this privileged class consisted of just ten percent of the total population. Enjoyed all the benefits and occupied all important jobs or posts.
- (ii) The serfs (farmers) who stood at the bottom formed about ninety percent of the Russian population. they led a miserable life. Had to pay heavily for years to own the small holdings they had got.

(c) Socialism in Russia:

George Plekhanov a follower of Kari Marx formed the Russian Social Democratic Party in 1883. Many there socialist groups later joined this organization and were known as the Russian Social Democratic Labor Party in 1898. However the party soon split into two groups over questions of organization and policy. They were known as the Mensheviks and the Bolsheviks. Differences between these two groups were as follows:

- (i) The minority group, led by Plekhanov, was known as the Mensheviks. they wanted to bring changes through peaceful and constitutional means, favored the parliamentary system of government.
- (ii) The minority group consisted of extreme socialists who were called the Bolsheviks. Lenin was their leader.

(d) A Turbulent time: the 1905 Revolution:

Tsar was not subject to parliament. Liberals, Social Democrats and socialist Revolutionaries worked with peasant and workers during the Revolution of 1905 to demand a constitution. They were supported by nationalists and in Muslim - dominated areas by Judasts prices of essential goods rose, 110,000 workers in St. Petersburg went on strike demanding a reduction in the working day to eight hours, an increase in wages and improvement in working conditions.

Bloody Sunday:

On January 9, 1905 a body of peaceful workers led by Father Gapon, with their wives and children was fired at in St. Petersburg. They were on their way to present a petition to the Czar there. Over a thousand of them were killed and many more wounded in the firing. This day came to be known as 'Bloody Sunday' as the massacre had taken place on Sunday.

A dress Rehearsal:

The 1905 revolution proved to be a dress rehearsal of the revolution that came in 1917. The incident of Bloody Sunday caused widespread disturbances all over Russia. Strikes took place in many Russian towns. Mutinies or rebellions broke out in the navy and the army. The sailors of the battleship 'Potemkin' joined the revolutionaries. The work in trade and industry came to a standstill. Workers in factories, docks and railways also went on a strike. The soldiers and the representatives of the non-Russian nationalities came into close contact with the revolutionaries (Bolsheviks) in the country.

The Czar's Manifesto:

Forced by the revolution Czar issued a manifesto in October, 1905. He promised to grant freedom of speech, press and assembly. Also promised a constitution and an elected body called the 'Duma' to make the laws. The implementations of the proposals given in the manifesto were not implemented effectively and the Czar reversed his decision.

Formation of Soviets:

The 1905 revolution gave birth to a new form of organization, called the 'Soviet'. It was the council of workers representatives to conduct strikes, but soon it became the instruments of political power. Soviets played a decisive role, particularly in the 1917 October Revolution.

The Tsar dismissed the first Duma within 75 days and the re-elected second Duma within three months. He changed the voting laws and packed the third Duma with conservative politicians. Liberals and revolutionaries were kept out.

(e) The First World War and the Russian Empire:

In Russia, the war was initially popular and people rallied around Tsar Nicholas II. Later Tsar refused to consult the main parties in the Duma. The common people's support also declined. The Tsarina Alexandra's German origins and poor advisors, especially a monk called Rasputin, made the autocracy unpopular. Though Russia gained initial success in the war but later lost badly in Germany and Austria between 1914 and 1916. The situation discredited the government and the tsar. Soldiers did not wish to fight such a war. Industries suffered a setback, Railway lines began to break down. As most of the men were fighting on the front, there were labor shortages. Large supplies of grain were sent to feed the army. By the winter of 1916, riots at bread shops were common.

THE FEBRUARY REVOLUTION IN PETROGRAD

In the winter of 1917, conditions in the capital Petrograd were grim. In February 1917, food shortages were deeply felt. On 22 February, a lockout took place at a factory on the right bank of the River Neva. Workers in fifty factories called a strike in sympathy. In many factories, women led the way to strikes. This came to be called the international Women's day. As the fashionable quarters and official buildings were surrounded by workers, the government imposed a curfew. The government called out the cavalry and police to keep an eye on them. On Sunday, 25 February, the government suspended the Duma. Demonstrations returned in force to the streets of the left bank on the 26th. On the 27th, the Police Headquarters were ransacked. The government tried to control the situation and called out the cavalry, who refused to fire on the demonstrators. By that evening, soldiers and striking workers had gathered to form a 'soviet' or 'council'. This was the Petrograd Soviet. Military commanders advised Tsar to abdicate. He followed their advice and abdicated on 2 March. Soviet leaders and Duma leaders formed a Provisional Government to run the country. Petrograd had led the February Revolution that brought down the monarchy in February 1917.

(a) After February:

Through the summer the workers' movement spread in industrial areas, factories were formed which began questioning the way industrialists run their factories. Trade unions grew in number. Soldiers' committees were formed in the army. In June, about 500 Soviets sent representatives to an All Russian Congress of Soviets. As the Provisional Government saw its power reduce and Bolshevik influence grew, it decided to take stern measures against the spreading discontent. It resisted attempts by workers to run factories and began arresting leaders. Popular demonstrations staged by the Bolsheviks in July 1917 were seemingly repressed. Many Bolshevik leaders had to go into hiding or flee. Meanwhile in the countryside, peasants and their Socialist revolutionary leaders pressed for a redistribution of land. Land committees were formed to handle this. Encouraged by the Socialist Revolutionaries, peasants seized land between July and September 1917.

Contribution of Lenin in the Russian revolution:

Vladimir Ilyich Ulyanov, known as Lenin, is regarded as one of the socialist revolutionists after Marx and Engels. His name has become inseparable from the revolution of 1917.

- (i) He organized the Bolshevik party as an instrument for bringing about revolution.
- (ii) He set forth 'the fundamental laws for a successful revolution'.
- (iii) Under Lenin's leadership the Bolshevik party put forward clear policies to end the war and transfer land to the peasants and advance the slogan "All power to the soviets".
- (iv) Lenin proclaimed the right of all people including those under Russian empire, to self-determination.
- (v) Under the able leadership of Lenin Russia and other soviets were united into the USSR and it emerged as a super power.

Lenin's "Fundamental Law for a successful revolution:

- (i) The people should fully understand that revolution is necessary and be ready to sacrifice their lives for it.
- (ii) Existing government should be in a state of crisis to make it possible for to be overthrown rapidly.

The four fold demand of the Russian Revolutionaries

(i) Land to the tiller. Land of the nobles, Church and the Czar was to be taken over and transferred to the peasant families for distribution.

(ii) Control of industry was to be handed over to the workers or workers soviets.

(iii) Peace for all, in particular to soldiers who were suffering heavy losses on the front.

(iv) Equal status was to be granted to all non-Russian nationalities living in the Russian territories.

(b) The Revolution of October 1917:

Lenin feared the Provisional government would set up a dictatorship. He began discussion for an uprising against the government. On 16 October 1917, Lenin persuaded the Petrograd Soviet and the Bolshevik Party to agree to a socialist seizure of power. A Military Revolutionary Committee was appointed by the Soviet under Leon Trotsky to organize the seizure. The uprising began on 24 October. Military men loyal to the government seized the buildings of two Bolshevik newspaper Military Revolutionary Committee order its supporters to seize government offices and arrest ministers. The ship Aurora shelled the Winter Place. The city was taken under control committee's control and the ministers surrendered. At a meeting of the All Russian Congress of soviets in Petrograd, the majority approved the Bolshevik action. Uprising took place in other cities.

WHAT CHANGED AFTER OCTOBER?

Congress of the soviets met on the day after the October Revolution and issued a proclamation.

(i) It appealed all peoples and states participating in the war to open negotiations for a just peace. It opposed annexation and paying for war damages.

(ii) Russia withdrew from the war. Signed a peace treaty with Germany, it surrendered all its territories which it had acquired since the time of Peter the Great.

(iii) As a result of the decree on land, the estates of the Czar, the Church and the landlords were taken over and transferred to the soviets of the peasants.

(iv) The control of industries was passed over to shop committees or soviets of workers.

(v) Banks/insurances, large industries, mines, water transport and railways were nationalized by 1918.

(vi) The new government disowned the foreign debts. It also took possession of foreign investments without payment.

(vii) A declaration of the 'Rights of People' was also issued. It gave the right to self-determination to all non-Russian nationalities living within Russian territories.

(viii) The new revolutionary government that came into being was called the Council of People's Commissars. It was headed by Lenin. Its first act marked the beginning of the era of socialism in Russia. It later spread to many other countries.

(a) Civil War (1917 - 20):

(i) The autocratic rule of the Czar had ended, but the forces opposing the Russian Revolution had not been completely destroyed. The officers of the fallen Czar's army organized and revolt against the new government. The nobility, landlords and the Church also supported them in their efforts to capture power once again.

(ii) The imperialist force of the Western powers were determined to overthrow or destroy the world's first socialist government.

(iii) These countries supported the counter-revolutionary forces and even sent their troops to join them.

(iv) The three year old civil war ended in 1920 with the defeat of the counter-revolutionary forces at the hands of the Red Army of the new state. This army mainly consisted of peasants and workers and was badly equipped. But it succeeded in defeating the far better trained foreign troops.

(b) Making a Socialist Society:

Bolsheviks kept industries and banks nationalized, permitted peasants to cultivate the land that had been socialized. A process of Centralised planning was introduced. Centralized planning led to economic growth.

However, rapid construction led to poor working conditions. An extended schooling system developed, and arrangements were made for factory workers and persons to enter universities. Cheap public health care was provided. Model living quarters were set up for workers.

(c) Stalinism and Collectivization:

By 1927-28, the towns in Soviet Russia were facing an acute problem of grain supplies. Stalin believed that the rich person and traders in the countryside were holding stocks in the hope of higher prices. Raids were made on 'Kulaks' - the well-to-do peasants. As shortages continued, the decision was taken to collectivise farms. From 1929 the party forced all peasants to cultivate in collective forms (kolkhoz). The bulk of land and implements were transferred to the ownership of collective farms. Those who resisted collectivization were severely punished. Many inside the party criticised the confusion in industrial production under the Planned Economy and the consequences of collectivization, but were charged with conspiracy against socialism. A large number were forced to make false confessions under torture and were executed, several among them were talented professionals.

(d) Consequence of the Russian Revolution on Russia:

The immediate consequence of the Russian Revolution were as follows:

- (i) The autocratic rule of the Czar ended for ever. the revolution destroyed the power of both aristocracy and the church.
- (ii) Russia became the world's first socialist society. The Czarist Empire changed into a new state called the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics or the Soviet Union.
- (iii) It withdrew from the First World War.
- (iv) The new government signed a peace treaty with Germany. it conceded the territories demanded by its old enemy as a price for peace.
- (v) In order to establish peace, law and order in the new society, Lenin was forced to adopt some drastic measures. these steps were taken under a policy called 'War Communism'.
- (vi) It was during this period (1917-20) that a large scale nationalization of various enterprises, as described under the proclamation of the Congress of Soviets, took place.

THE GLOBAL INFLUENCE OF THE RUSSIAN REVOLUTION AND THE USSR

The possibility of a worker's state, fired people's imagination across the world. In many countries, communist parties were formed-like the Communist Party of Great Britain. The Bolsheviks encouraged colonial peoples to follow their experiment. Many non-Russians from outside the USSR participated in the conference of the Peoples of the East (1920) and the Bolsheviks socialist parties). Some received education in the USSR's Communist University of the Workers of the East. By the time of the outbreak of the Second World War, the USSR had given socialism a global face and world stature. The Bolshevik Revolution contributed greatly to the liquidation of imperialism. The Bolshevik government granted freedom to all its colonies immediately after coming to power. The new Soviet Union came forward as a friend of the subjugated people and proved to be a source of great inspiration to the freedom movements of various Asian and African countries.

EXERCISE

OBJECTIVE DPP- 2.1

- 1. The Russian revolution which affected the course of world history broke out in -
(A) 1915 (B) 1917 (C) 1919 (D) 1920
- 2. In 1883 the Russian Social Democratic Party was formed by -
(A) Karl Marx (B) Engels (C) Lenin (D) George Plekhanov
- 3. The Russian Revolution broke out during of -
(A) Peter (B) Frederick (C) Rasputin (D) Tsar Nicholas II
- 4. One of the greatest thinkers of the Socialist movement, and the leader of the Bolsheviks was -
(A) Karl Marx (B) Engels (C) Lenin (D) George Plekhanov
- 5. a new form or organization developed in the 1905 Revolution was called -
(A) Trade Union (B) Triple Alliance (C) Soviets (D) Mensheviks

6. Rasputin was –
- (A) Popularly called the 'holy devil'
 - (B) a minister of the Tsar's cabinet
 - (C) a friend of the Tsar
 - (D) an advisor to the Tsar

7. After the fall of the Tsar Nicholas II provisional government was established under the leadership of -
 (A) Lenin (B) Stalin (C) Kerensky (D) Mayakovsky
8. The Russian Parliament under the Tsars was called -
 (A) Congress (B) Duma (C) Diet (D) Nassat

SUBJECTIVE DPP -2.2

Very Short Answer Type Questions:

1. Socialist were against private property, and saw it as the root of all social evils of the time. why?
2. What was Second international?
3. Describe the Bloody Sunday.
4. Describe the immediate cause of the Russian Revolution of 1905.

Short Answer Type Questions:

5. How did the Revolution of 1905 prove to be a dress rehearsal for the 1917 Revolution?
6. Examine the role of Lenin in Russian Revolution.
7. Write a few lines to describe the women workers in Russia.
8. Why the Tsar Nicholas II of Russia unpopular? Give two reasons.
9. Differentiate between the two classes into which the Russian society was divided in the 19th century.
10. Which event in the Russian history is known as 'Bloody Sunday'?
11. Describe two reforms introduced by the Russian Tsar Nicholas II after the 1905 Revolution.
12. What new form of organization developed in the 1905 revolution? What role did it play as an instrument of power in future?
13. What wrong decision of Tsar Nicholas II finally ends the power of the Russian autocracy?
14. What two conditions according to Lenin were necessary to make the Russian Revolution a success?
15. Write two basic demands of the Russian Revolution in 1917.
16. What were the causes of the failure of the interim government formed (in 1917) under the leadership of Kerensky? Mention any two.
17. Why did Russian withdraw from the First World War?

Long Answer Type Questions:

18. What were the affects of the October Revolution?
19. Discuss the impact of the Russian Revolution on the world.
20. Describe the social and economic conditions of Russia before the Revolution of 1917.
21. In what ways the working population in Russia different from other countries in Europe, before 1917?
22. Name the political parties of Russia that represented the industrial workers. How did they differ in their policies?
23. Give an account of the rise of socialism in Europe.
24. Discuss the developments between 1905 and 1916 that led to the Russian Revolution of 1917.
25. Describe four major demands of the Russian revolutions before the October Revolution of 1917.
26. Describe the immediate consequence of the October Revolution on Russia's participation in the First World War, the ownership of land, and position of the non-Russian nationalities of the Russian empire.
27. Describe the immediate consequences of the Russian Revolution (1917) on Russia.

ANSWER KEY

(Objective DPP 2.1)

Que.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Ans	B	D	D	C	C	A	C	B



NAZISM AND THE RISE OF HITLER



SL - 03 (H)

In the First World War which continued for nearly four long years, Germany suffered defeat. Germany was forced to sign the treaty of Versailles and Germany became a Republic. Hitler stirred up the emotions of the Germans by condemning the treaty of Versailles. Hitler becomes the Chancellor of Germany in 1933 and President in 1934. He cancelled the civil liberties, abolished the press and radio and controlled all educational institutions. He tortured and executed millions of Jews in Germany. Hitler was determined to make Germany a might power and conquer all of Europe. With surprising rapidity Germany rose from ashes. German forces attacked Poland on 1 September 1939. Britain and France declared war on Germany on 3 September in order to protect Poland. World War II began in September 1939. Germany was defeated in this war. Hitler committed suicide and Germany surrendered to the Allies in May 1945.

BIRTH OF THE WEIMAR REPUBLIC

The defeat of imperial Germany and the abdication of the emperor gave an opportunity to parliamentary parties to recast German polity. A national Assembly met at Weimar and established a democratic constitution with a federal structure. Deputies were now elected to the German Parliament or Reichstag. On the basis of equal and universal votes cast by all adults including woman. This republic, however, was not received well by its own people largely because of the terms it was forced to accept after Germany's defeat at the end of the First World War.

(a) Treaty of Versailles:

Germany signed a peace treaty with the Allies at Versailles according to which -

- (i)** Germany lost its overseas colonies, a tenth of its population, 13 percent of its territories, 75 percent of its iron and 26 percent of its coal to France, Poland, Denmark and Lithuania.
- (ii)** The Allied Powers demilitarized Germany to weaken its power.
- (iii)** The War Guilt clause held Germany responsible for the war damages the Allied countries suffered. Germany was forced to pay compensation amounting to 6 billion pound.
- (iv)** The Allied armies also occupied the resource-rich Rhineland for much of the 1920s.

(b) The Effects of the War:

The war had a devastating impact on the entire continent both psychologically and financially. From a continent of creditors, Europe turned into one of debtors. The Weimar republic carried the burden of war guilt and national humiliation and was financially crippled by being forced to pay compensation.

The First World War left a deep imprint on European society and polity. Soldiers came to be placed above civilians. Politicians and publicists laid great stress on the need for men to be aggressive, strong and masculine. However soldiers lived miserable lives in trenches, trapped with rats feeding on corpses. They faced poisonous gas and enemy shelling, and witnessed their ranks reduce rapidly. Democracy was indeed a young and fragile idea, which could not survive the instabilities of interwar Europe.

(c) Political Radicalism and Economic Crises:

(i) Soviets of workers and sailors were established in many cities. The political atmosphere in Berlin was charged with demands for Soviet-style conveyance. Those opposed to this—such as the socialists, Democrats and Catholics—met in Weimar to give shape to the democratic republic. The Weimar Republic crushed the uprising with the help of a war veteran's organization called Free Corps.

The anguished Spartacists later founded the Communist Party of Germany. Communists and Socialists henceforth became irreconcilable enemies and could not make common cause against Hitler. Both revolutionaries and militant nationalists craved for radical solutions.

(ii) Germany had fought the war largely on loans and had to pay reparations in Gold. In 1923 Germany refused to pay, and the French occupied its leading industrial area, Ruhr, to claim their coal. Germany retaliated with passive resistance and printed paper currency recklessly. With too much printed money in circulation, the value of the German mark fell. As the value of the mark collapsed, prices of goods soared. This crisis came to be known as hyperinflation, a situation when prices rise phenomenally high.

(d) The years of depression:

German investments and industrial recovery were totally dependent on short term loans, largely from the USA. On one single day, 24 October, 13 million shares were sold in Wall Street Exchange. This was the start the Great Economic Depression. The German economy was the worst hit by the economic crisis. Workers lost their jobs or were paid reduced wages. As jobs disappeared, the youth took to criminal activities and total despair became a commonplace. The economic crisis created deep anxieties and fears in people. The currency lost its value. Sections of society were filled with the fear of proletarianisation, an anxiety of being reduced to the ranks of the working class, or worse still, the unemployed. The large mass of peasantry was affected by a sharp fall in agricultural prices and women, unable to fill their children's stomachs, were filled with a sense of deep despair. Politically too the Weimer Republic was fragile. The Weimer constitution had some inherent defects, which made it unstable and vulnerable to dictatorship. Proportional representation and Article 48 were its major shortcomings. People lost confidence in the democratic parliamentary system, which seemed to offer no solutions.

HITLER'S RISE TO POWER

(i) Born in Austria in 1889, Hitler spent his youth in poverty. During the First World War, he enrolled in the German army, acted as a messenger at the front, became a corporal and earned medals for bravery.

(ii) In 1919, he joined a small group called the German Workers Party; subsequently took control of this party, renamed it as the National Socialist German Workers Party. This party came to be known as the Nazi Party. In 1923, Hitler planned to seize control of Bavaria, march to Berlin and capture power. He failed, was arrested and tried for treason, and later released. The Nazis could not effectively mobilize popular support till the early 1930s. It was during the Great Depression that Nazism became a mass movement. In 1928, the Nazi Party got no more than 2.6 percent votes in the Reichstag – the German parliament. By 1932, the Nazi Party had become the largest party with 37 percent votes.

(iii) Hitler was a powerful speaker. His passion and his words moved people. He promised them a strong nation, employment, secure future for the youth and to restore the dignity of the German people. He devised a new style of politics. Nazis held massive rallies and public meetings to demonstrate the support for Hitler and instill a sense of unity among the people.

(iv) Nazi propaganda skillfully projected Hitler as a messiah, a saviour, as someone who had arrived to deliver people from their distress. It is an image that captured the imagination of a people whose sense of dignity and pride had been shattered, and who were living in a time of acute economic and political crises.

(a) The Destruction of Democracy:

On 30 January 1933, President Hindenburg offered the chancellorship, the highest position in the cabinet of ministers, to Hitler. A mysterious fire that broke out in the German Parliament building in February facilitated his move to dismantle the structures of democratic rule. The Fire Decree of February 1933 indefinitely suspended civic rights like freedom of speech, press and assembly that had been guaranteed by the Weimer constitution. The Communists were hurriedly packed off to the newly established concentration camps. On 30 March 1933, the famous Enabling Act was passed, which established dictatorship in Germany. It gave Hitler all powers to sideline Parliament and rule by decree. All political parties and trade union were banned except for the Nazi Party and its affiliates. special surveillance and security forces like, Gestapo (secret state police), the SS (the protection squads), criminal police and the Security Service (SD) were created to control and order society in ways that the Nazis wanted. The police forces acquired powers to rule with impunity.

(b) Reconstruction:

(i) Hitler assigned the responsibility of economist Hjalmar Schacht who aimed at full production and full employment through a state-funded work-creation programme.

(ii) In foreign policy also Hitler acquired quick successes. He pulled out of the League of Nations in 1933, reoccupied the Rhineland in 1936, and integrated Austria and Germany in 1938 under the slogan, one people, One empire, and One leader. He then went on to wrest German-speaking Sudetenland from Czechoslovakia, and gobbled, and gobbled up the entire country.

(iii) Hitler chose war as the way out of the approaching economic crisis. In September 1939, Germany invaded Poland. This started a war with France and England. In September 1940, a Tripartite Pact was signed between Germany, Italy and Japan, strengthening Hitler's claim to international power. By the end of 1940, Hitler was at the pinnacle of his power.

(iv) Hitler wanted to ensure food supplies and living space for Germans. He attacked the Soviet Union in June 1941. The Soviet Red Army inflicted a crushing and humiliating defeat on Germany at Stalingrad. When Japan extended its support to Hitler and bombed the US base at Pearl Harbor, the US entered the Second World War. The war ended in May 1945 with Hitler's defeat and the US dropping of the atom bomb on Hiroshima in Japan.

THE NAZI WORLDVIEW

Nazi ideology was synonymous with Hitler's worldview. According to this there was no equality between people, but only a racial hierarchy. Hitler's racism borrowed from thinkers like Charles Darwin and Herbert Spencer. Darwin explained the creation of plants and animals through the concept of evolution and natural selection. Herbert Spencer later added the idea of survival of the fittest. The Nazi argument was simple: the strongest race would survive and the weak ones would perish. The Aryan race was the finest. It had to retain its purity, become stronger and dominate the world. The Hitler's ideology related to the geopolitical concept of Lebensraum, or living space. He believed that new territories had to be acquired for settlement. Hitler intended to extend German boundaries by moving eastwards, to concentrate all Germans geographically in one place. Poland became the laboratory for this experimentation.

(A) Establishment of the Racial State:

Nazis wanted only a society of pure and healthy Nordic Aryans'. They alone were considered 'desirable'. Only they were seen as worthy of prospering and multiplying against all others who were classed as 'undesirable'. Under the Euthanasia Programme, Nazi officials had condemned to death many Germans who were considered mentally or physically unfit. Jews were not the only community classified as 'undesirable'. Many Gypsies and blacks living in Nazi Germany were considered as racial 'inferiors; Russians and Poles were considered subhuman, and hence undeserving of any humanity. Nazi hatred of Jews had a precursor in the traditional Christian hostility towards Jews. They had been stereotyped as killers of Christ and usurers (moneylenders charging excessive interest). Hitler's hatred of Jews was based on pseudoscientific theories of race, which held that conversion was no solution to 'the Jewish problem'. It could be solved only through their total elimination.

(b) The Racial Utopia:

Occupied Poland was divided up. Poles were forced to leave their homes and properties behind to be occupied by ethnic Germans brought in from occupied Europe. Poles were herded like cattle in the other part called the General Government, the destination of all 'undesirables' of the empire. Polish children who looked like Aryans were forcibly snatched and examined by 'race experts'. If they passed the race tests they were raised in German families and if not, they were deposited in orphanages where most perished. With some of the largest ghettos and gas chambers, the General Government also served as the killing fields for the Jews.

YOUTH IN NAZI GERMANY

(i) Hitler was fanatically interested in the youth of the country. The schools under Nazism were 'cleansed' and 'purified'. Teachers who were Jews or seen as 'politically unreliable' were dismissed. Germans and Jews could not sit together or play together. 'Unreliable children' - Jews the physically handicapped. Gypsies - were thrown out of schools. And finally in the 1940's they were taken to the gas chambers.

(ii) 'Good German' children were subjected to a process of Nazi Schooling. School textbooks were rewritten. Racial science was introduced to justify Nazi ideas of race. Children were taught to be loyal and submissive, hate Jews, and worship Hitler. Hitler believed that boxing could make children iron hearted, strong and masculine.

(iii) Youth organizations were made responsible for educating German youth in 'the spirit of National socialism'. Ten-year-olds had to enter Jungvolk. At 14, all boys had to join the Nazi youth organizations Hitler youth. After a period of rigorous ideological and physical training they joined the Labor services, usually at the age of 18. Then they had to serve in the armed forces and enter one of the Nazi organizations.

(iv) The youth League of the Nazis was founded in 1922. four years later it was renamed Hitler youth. All other youth organizations were systematically dissolved and finally banned.

(a) The Nazi Cult of Motherhood:

(i) Children in Nazi Germany were repeatedly told that women were radically different from men. The fight equal rights for men and women was wrong and it would destroy society. girls were told that they had to become good mothers and rear pure-blooded Aryan children . Girls had to maintain the purity of the race, distance themselves from Jews, look after the home, and teach their children Nazi values. they had to be the bearers of the Aryan culture and race.

(ii) women who bore racially undesirable children were punished and those who produced racially desirable children were awarded . To encourage women to produce many children, Honour Crosses were awarded. A bronze cross was given for four children, silver for six and gold for eight or more. all 'Aryan ' women who deviated from the prescribed code of conduct were publicly condemned and severely punished, were paraded through the town with shaved heads, blackened faces and placards hanging around their necks announcing 'I have sullied the honour of the nation'. Many received jail sentences and lost civic honour as well as their husbands and families for this 'criminal offence'.

(b) The Nazi regime used language and media with care, and often to great effect, the terms they confined to describe their various practices are not only deceptive. They are chilling. Mass killing were termed special treatment, final solution (for the Jews), euthanasia (for the disabled) selection and disinfections. Gas chambers were labeled 'disinfection-area'. Media was carefully used to win support for the regime and popularize its worldview. The most infamous film was The Eternal Jew. Orthodox Jews were stereotyped and marked. They were referred to as vermin, rats and pests. Their movements were to those of rodents. Nazism worked on the minds of the people, tapped their emotions, and turned their hatred and anger at those marked as 'undesirable'.

ORDINARY PEOPLE AND THE CRIMES AGAINST HUMANITY

Many saw the world through Nazi eyes, and spoke their mind in Nazi language. They felt hatred and anger surge inside, marked the houses of Jews and reported suspicious neighbors, believed Nazism would bring prosperity and improved general well-being. The large majority of Germans, however, were passive onlookers and apathetic witnesses. They were too scared to act, to differ, to protest. Pastor Niemöller, a resistance fighter, observed an absence of protest, an uncanny silence, amongst ordinary Germans in the face of brutal and organized crimes committed people in the Nazi empire. Charlotte Beradt secretly recorded people's dreams in her diary and later published them in a highly disconcerting book called the Third Reich of Dreams. The stereotypical image publicized in the Nazi press haunted the Jews. They troubled them even in their dreams. Jew died many deaths even before they reached the gas chamber.

EXERCISE

OBJECTIVE DPP- 3.1

- After the abdication of William Kaiser II, what kind of government was established in Germany?
(A) Autocratic Government (B) Republican Government
(C) Socialist Government (D) Capitalist Government
- which of the following was the political party led by Adolf Hitler?
(A) The German Democratic Party (B) People German Socialist Party
(C) The National Socialist German Workers Party (D) Federal German Republic Party
- Adolph Hitler was born on –
(A) 1887 (B) 1888 (C) 1889 (D) 1890
- By 1932, Nazy Party had become the largest party in the Reichstag with _____ votes.
(A) 26 per scent (B) 30 per scent (C) 35 per scent (D) 37 per scent
- Hitler was a bitter enemy of:
(A) Democracy (B) Dictatorship (C) Monarchy (D) Racism
- The Weimer Republic in Germany was formed after the:
(A) Battle of Water Loo (B) Death of Bismark
(C) End of the First World War (D) Break of the Second World War
- _____ assigned the responsibility of economic recovery to the economist Hjalmar Schacht.
(A) Anton Drackser (B) Adolf Hitler (C) Freidrick Ebart (D) Kaiser William II
- Hitler was imprisoned in 1923 for a term of:
(A) Seven years (B) six years (C) Five years (D) Ten years
- The German parliament was known as:
(A) Diet (B) Duma
(C) German Houses of commons (D) Reichstag
- The peace treaty of Versailles contained _____ proposals for Germany:
(A) Very beneficial (B) Encouraging (C) Harsh and Humiliating (D) Contradictory
- Which of the following areas of coal mines of Germany were occupied by France on account of non- payment of war indemnities?
(A) Ruhr (B) Nuremberg (C) Belzek (D) Leipziog
- Hitler's hatred of Jews was based on _____ theories of race.
(A) Lebensraum (B) Pseudoscientific (C) Natural selection (D) Special treatment
- Killing on large scale leading to destruction of large section of people in Germany was termed as:
(A) Special treatment (B) Final solution (C) Euthanasia (D) All of the above
- Hitler reoccupied the Rhineland in 1936, and integrated Austria and Germany in 1938 under the slogan:
(A) One party, one power (B) One leader one state
(C) One people, one empire and one leader (D) One nation, one government
- Many blacks living in Germany and considered as inferiors by Nazi were called:
(A) Gypsies (B) Black Aryans (C) German Tribes (D) Nordic Germans

SUBJECTIVE DPP - 3.2

Very Short Answer Type Questions:

- Mention two steps taken by the Weimar Republic in 1923 to acquire political stability in Germany.
- Who was Adolf Hitler? What was the main reason for his popularity?
- What is referred to as the 'Great Depression'?
- Why did Germany attack Poland? What were its consequences?

- 5.. Why did Germany attack the Soviet Union?
6. When did the Second World War end in Europe?

Short Answer Type Questions:

7. Explain any two problems face by the Weimer Republic from the very beginning.
8. Explain the major consequences of the War on Germany on the light of the Treaty of Versailles.
9. Explain the major causes of the Great Economic Depression in USA in 1929.
10. What is hyperinflation?
11. Discuss why Nazism became popular in Germany by 1930.
12. What was the effect of Nazism on Germany?
13. What were the inherent defects of the Weimer Constitution?
14. What was the new style of politics devised by Hitler?
15. What were the provisions of the enabling Laws?
16. How did the common people react to Nazism? What are the peculiar features of Nazi thinking?

Long Answer Type Questions:

17. Explain by Nazi propaganda was effective in creating a hatred for Jews?
18. Were the Jews the only section of society which earned the displeasure of the Nazi Party?
19. Explain what role women had in Nazi society. Compare the role of women in this period to that of women in the French Revolution.
20. In what ways did the Nazi state seek to establish total control over the people?
21. How did the Nazi seek to implement a pure German racial state?
22. Give an account of the rise of Hitler.
23. Trace the events that led to the surrender of Germany in 1945.
24. Describe the main provisions of the Treaty of Versailles.

ANSWER KEY

(Objective DPP 3.1)

Que.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	1	15
Ans	A	C	B	D	A	C	B	C	D	C	A	B	C	C	C



FOREST SOCIETY AND COLONIALISM



SL - 04 (H)

ADVANTAGES OF FOREST

- (i) Play a major role in improving the quality of environment, modify the local climate, controls soil erosion , regulate stream flow, support a variety of industries, provide livelihood for many communities and after opportunities for recreation .
- (ii) Forest adds to the floor large quantities of leaves, twigs and branches which after decomposition forms humus.
- (iii) Provided industrial wood, limber, fuel wood, fodder and several other minor products of great economic value.
- (iv) They also provide natural environment for wild life, play an important role in maintaining the life support system.

WHY DEFORESTATION?

The disappearance of forest is referred to as deforestation .deforestation is not a recent problem. The process began many centuries ago; but under colonial rule it became more systematic and extensive.

(a) Land to be improved:

- (i) As population increased over the centuries and the demand for food went up, peasants extended the boundaries of cultivation, clearing forests and breaking new land.
- (ii) The British directly encouraged production of commercial crops like jute, sugar, wheat and cotton. the demand for these crops increased in nineteenth-century Europe where foodgrains were needed to feed the growing urban population and raw materials were required for industrial production.
- (iii) In the early nineteenth century, the colonial state thought that forests were unproductive. They were considered to be wilderness that had to be brought under cultivation so that the land could yield agricultural products and revenue and enhance the income of the state. so between 1880 and 1920, cultivated area rose by 6.7 million hectares.

(b) Sleepers on the Tracks:

- (i) Due to high demand, oak forests in England were disappearing. This created a problem of timber supply for the Royal Navy which required it for building ships. To get the supply of oak for the ship industry British started exploring Indian forests on a massive scale.
- (ii) The spread of railways from the 1850s created a new demand. To run locomotives, wood was needed as fuel. As railway was expanding, the demand for wood also became very high.
- (iii) To lay railway lines sleepers were essential to hold the tracks together. Each mile of railway track required between 1760 and 2000 sleepers. to fulfil the demand of sleepers' trees were felled on massive scale. Up to 1946, the length of the tracks had increased to over 765000km. as the railway tracks spread through India, a larger numbers of trees were felled. Forests around the railway tracks started disappearing.

(c) Plantations:

Large areas of natural forests were also cleared to make way for tea, coffee and rubber plantations to meet Europe's growing need for these commodities. The colonial government took over the forests, and gave vast areas to European planters at cheap rates. These areas were enclosed and cleared of forests, and planted with tea or coffee.

THE RISE OF COMMERCIAL FORESTRY

In India colonial rulers needed huge supplies of wood for railways and ship. This led to widespread deforestation. The British government got alarmed. The government invite Dietrich Brandis, a German expert on forests, for advice, he was appointed as the First inspector General of Forests in India. Brandis emphasized that rules need be framed about the use of forest wealth. Brandis realized that a proper system had to be introduced to manage the forests and people had to be scienc of conservation. This system needed legal sanction. It was at his initiatives that;

(i) Indian Forest Service was set up in 1864.

(ii) Indian Forest Act was enacted in 1865

(iii) Imperial Forest Research institute was set up in 1906. The system they taught here was called 'scientific forestry'.

The 1878 Act divided forests into three categories: reserved, protected and village forests. The best forests were called 'reserved forestry'. Villagers could not take anything from these forests, even for their own use. For house building or fuel, they could take wood from protected or village forests.

(a) How were the Lives of People Affected?

The Forest Act meant severs hardship for villagers across the country. After the Act all their everyday practice - cutting wood for their houses, grazing their cattle, collecting fruits and roots, hunting and fishing n- became illegal. People were now forced to steal wood from the forests, and if they were caught, they were at the mercy of the forest guards who would take bribes from them. Women who collected fuel wood were especially worried. It was also common for police constables and forest guards to harass people by demanding free food from them.

(b) How did Forest Rules Affect Cultivation?

One of the major impacts of European colonialism was off the practice of shifting cultivation or swidden agriculture. Shifting cultivation as a system of agriculture has the following features:

(i) Parts of forests are cut and burnt in rotation

(ii) Seeds are sown in the ashes sifter the first monsoon rains.

(iii) Crop is harvested by October-November.

(iv) Such plots are cultivated for a couple of years and then left-fallow for 12 to 18 years for the forest to grow back. Shifting cultivation has been practiced in many parts of Asia, Africa and South America. In India, it is known by different names, such as dhya, panda, bewar, nevad, jhum, podu, khandad and kumri .

The colonial government banned this practice of shifting cultivation. They felt that land which was used for cultivation every few years could not grow trees for railway timber. When a forest was burnt, there was the added danger of the flames spreading and burning valuable timber. Shifting cultivation also made it harder for the government to calculate taxes .therefore , the government decided to ban shifting

(c) Who could Hunt?

(i) Before the forest laws, many people who lived in or near forest had survived by deer, partridges and a variety of small animals. This customary practice was prohibited by the forest laws. Those who were caught hunting were now punished for poaching.

(ii) While the forest laws deprived people of their customary right to hunt, hunting of big game became a sport. Under colonial rule the scale of hunting increased to such an extent that various species became almost extinct. The British saw large animals as signs of a wild, primitive and savage society. They believed that by killing dangerous animals the British would cavil India. They gave rewards for killing big animals on the grounds that they pose a threat to cultivators. Initially certain areas of frosts were reserved for hunting. Only much later did environmentalists and conservators begin to argue that all these species of animals needed to be protected, and not killed.

(d) Affects of the new forest laws on nomadic and pastoralist communities:

Nomadic and pastoral communities do not maintain a permanent place of residence. they own a herd of cattle and keep moving from one place to another in search of food and shelter for themselves and for themselves and for their cattle wealth. Under colonial rule, the life of these communities changed dramatically.

- (i) Their grazing grounds shrank.
- (ii) Their movements were regulated.
- (iii) The revenue they had to pay increased.
- (iv) Their agricultural stock declined
- (v) Their trades and crafts were adversely affected.

(e) Affects of the new forest laws on firms trading in timber/forest produce:

- (i) The new forest policy of the British ruined the prospects of several firms trading in timber and forest produce.
- (ii) Through various laws, many restrictions were imposed on the local firms.
- (iii) With the coming of the British, trade was completely regulated by the government. the trading rights were given to many large European firms.
- (iv) The local people of the firms which were the real owner of the forests were forced to work for large European traders and firms

(f) Affects of the new forest laws on Plantation owners:

- (i) Large areas of forests were cleared to make way for tea, coffee and rubber plantation.
- (ii) Most of the plantation estates were owned by the European traders.
- (iii) These European traders started making huge profit.
- (iv) The Indian traders and plantation workers were left at the mercy of the European plantation owner.

(g) Impact a various Forests Laws on the Colonial People:

- (i) Various restrictions: The forest act meant severe hardships for villagers across the country. After the act, all their forest activities like cutting wood for their houses, grazing their cattle, collecting fruits and roots, hunting and fishing became illegal.
- (ii) Impact on cultivators shifting cultivation was the most common cultivation practiced by the people, But this was banned because European foresters regarded this'd harmful for the forests.
- (iii) Displacement of the people. To protect the forests, the Europeans started displacing villagers without any notice or compensation.
- (iv) Various taxes. The Europeans started imposing heavy taxes on the forest people.
- (v) Loss of livelihood: the European started giving large European trading firms the sole rights to trade in the forests. Grazing and hunting by local people were restricted in the process, many pastoralists and nomadic communities lost their livelihood.

REBELLION IN THE FOREST

In many parts of the India, and across the world, forest communities rebelled against the changes that were being imposed on them. The leaders of these movements against the British like Sidhu and Kanu in the Santal Pargans, Birsa Munda of Chhottanagur or Alluri Sitaram Raju of Andhra Pradesh are still remembered today in songs and stories.

(a) The People of Bastar:

Bastar is located in the southernmost of Chhattisgarh and borders of Andhra Pradesh, Orissa and Maharashtra. A number of different communities live in Bastar such as Maria and Muria Gonds, Dhurwas, Bhatras and Halbas . The tribal people had formulated strict rules and regulations about how to manage and use the forests. They believed that each village was given its land by the earth , and in return, they look after the earth by making some offerings at each agricultural festival. Since each village knows where its boundaries lie, the local people look after all the natural resources within that boundary. If people from a village want to take some wood from the forests of another village, they pay a small fee called Devsari, dand or man in exchange. Some villages also protected their forests by engaging watchmen .

(b) The Fears of the People:

(i) In 1905 British Government proposed to reserve two-third of the forests, to stop shifting cultivation, hunting and collection of forest produce, the people of Bastar were very worried. For long, villagers had been suffering from increased land rents and frequent demands for free labor and goods by colonial officials. Then came the terrible famines, in 1899-1900 and again in 1907-1908. Reservations proved to be the last straw.

(ii) The initiative was taken by the Dhurwas of the Kanger forest, where reservation first took place. Although there was no single leader, many people speak of Gunda Dhur, from village Nethanar, as an important figure in the movement in 1910, mango boughs, a lump of earth, chilies and arrows, began or culating between villages. These were actually messages inviting villagers to rebel against the British. Every village contributed something to the rebellion expenses. Bazaars were looted, the houses of officials and traders, schools and police station were burnt and robbed, and grain redistributed. Most of those who were attacked were in some way associated with the colonial state and its oppressive laws.

(iii) The British sent troops to suppress the rebellion. The adivasi leaders tried to negotiate, but the British surrounded their camps and fired upon them. After that they marched through the villages flogging and punishing those who had taken part in the rebellion. Most villages were deserted as people fled into the jungles. It took three months for the British to regain control. However, they never managed to capture Gunda Dhur.

(iv) In an major victory for the rebels, work on reservation was temporarily suspended, and the area to be reserved was reduced to roughly half of that planned before 1910. The revolt also inspired the other tribal people to rebel against the unjust policies of the British Government.

FOREST TRANSFORMATION IN JAVA

Java in Indonesia is where the Dutch started forest management. Like the British, they wanted timber from Java to build ships .in 1600 the population of Java was an estimated 3.4 million. There were many villages in the fertile plains, but there were also many communities living in the mountains and practicing shifting cultivation.

(a) The Woodcutters of Java:

The Kalangs of Java were a community of skilled forest cutters and shifting cultivators. When the Dutch began to gain control over the forests in the eighteenth century, they tried to make the Kalangs work under them. In 1770, the Kalangs resisted by attacking a Dutch fort at Joana, but the uprising was suppressed.

(b) Dutch Scientific Forestry:

The Dutch enacted forest laws in Java, restricting villagers access to forests. Now Wood could only be cut for specified purposes only from specific forests under close supervision. Villagers were punished for grazing cattle in young stands, transporting wood without a permit, or traveling on forest roads with horse carts or cattle. The Dutch first imposed rents on land being cultivated in the forest and then exempted some villages from the rent on land if they worked collectively to provide free labor and buffaloes for cutting and transporting timber. This was known as the Blandongdiensten. Later, instead of rent exemption, forest villagers were given small wages, but their right to cultivate forest land was restricted.

(c) Samin's Challenge:

Around 1890, Surontiko Samin of Randublatung village, a teak forest village, began questioning state ownership of the forest. he argued that the state had not created the wind , earth and wood, so it could not own it Soon a widespread movement developed . Amongst those who helped organise it were Samin's sons-in-laws. By 1907, 3000 families were following his ideas. Some of the Saminists protested by lying down on their land when the Dutch came to survey it, while others refused to pay taxes or fines or perform labor.

(d) War and Deforestation:

(i) The First World War and the Second Word War had a major impact on forests. in India, working plans were abandoned at this time , and the forest department cut trees freely to meet British war needs.

(ii) In Java, the Dutch destroyed sawmills and burnt piles of giant teak logs so that they would not fall into Japanese hands. The Japanese then exploited the forests recklessly for their own war industries, forcing forest villagers to cut down forests.

(iii) Many villagers used this opportunity to expand cultivation in the forest. After the war, it was difficult for the Indonesian Forest Service to get this land back.

(e) New Developments in Forestry:

(i) Conservation of forests rather than collecting timber has become a more important goal. The government has recognised that in order to meet this goal, the people who live near the forests must be involved.

(ii) In many cases, across India, from Mizoram to Kerala, dense forests have survived only because villages protected them in sacred grooves known as samas, devarakudu, kan, rai, etc. Some villages have been patrolling their own forests, with each household taking it in turns, instead of leaving it to the forest guards.

(iii) Local forest communities and environmentalists today are thinking of different forms of forest management.

EXERCISE

OBJECTIVE DPP- 4.1

- In 1600, approximately one-sixth of _____ was under cultivation.
(A) Asia's landmass (B) India's landmass (C) World (D) Britain
- By the _____ search parties were sent to explore the forest resources of India.
(A) 1790S (B) 1800 (C) 1810 (D) 1820S
- Which German expert was invited in India by the British for advice and was made the first inspector General of Forests in India?
(A) Tuscany (B) Dietrich Brandis (C) E.P.Stebbing (D) George Yule
- In this type of cultivation parts of the forest are cut and burnt in rotation. Seeds are sown in the ashes after the first monsoon rains, and the crop is harvested by October-November.
(A) Shifting cultivation (B) Commercial cultivation (C) Intensive cultivation (D) None of the above
- The American-owned limited fruit company acquired much power over the government of Central America to draw which of the following fruits:
(A) Bananas (B) Grapes (C) Orange (D) Cherry
- Singham forests are located in:
(A) Himalayas (B) Chhotanagpur (C) Tamil Nadu (D) Andhra Pradesh
- As early as in 1850 in the Madras Presidency alone _____ were being cut annually for railway sleepers:
(A) 40,000 trees (B) 20,000 trees (C) 25,000 trees (D) 35,000 trees
- What was the name of the railways constructed between Sultan and Sukkur during British time?
(A) Sutiuj Valley railway (B) North West railway (C) Indus Valley Railway (D) Punjab Railway
- The 1878 Act divided forests into:
(A) Four categories (B) Two categories (C) Three categories (D) Five categories
- Which of the following is used for making ropes?
(A) Simur (B) Mahua (C) Saiodi (Bauhinia vahlii) (D) All the above Cherry
- Oil for cooking and to light lamps can be pressed from the fruit of the:
(A) Bamboo (B) Tendu (C) Mahua (D) All the above
- Dhya, panda, bewar, nevad, jhum, podu, khaded and Kashmir are some of the local names used for which types of agriculture in India:
(A) Intensive Agriculture (B) Swidden Agriculture
(C) Extensive Agriculture (D) Subsistence Agriculture
- How much number of tigers and leopards were killed by Maharaja of Sarguja alone by 1957?
(A) 2157 tigers and 3000leopards (B) 1057 tigers and 1500 leopards
(C) 1157 tigers and 2000 leopards (D) 1957 tigers and 2400leopards

14. Which of the following were the pastoralist and nomadic communities of Madras Presidency?
 (A) Korava, Karach and Yirukula (B) Santhals Bhuls and Oraons
 (C) Mari, Muria ceondas and Dhurwas (D) Saharias, Garasias and Meenas forests
15. Who of the following were the rebels of Santhal paraganas to lead movement against the British?
 (A) Alluri, Sitaram and Raju (B) Bisva, soran and shibu
 (C) Sidhu and Kanu (D) Marande Raju and Sahil

SUBJECTIVE DPP - 4.2

Very Short Answer Type Questions:

1. "The ship industry of England was also responsible for deforestation in India". Give one reason.
2. Who was Dietrich Brandis? What were his achievements?
3. What were the provisions of the 1878 Forest Act?
4. Why was scientific forestry introduced by the British?
5. Why did the Bastar Rebellion take place?
6. Who were the Kalangs? Why were they important?
7. What was Blandongdiensten system?
8. Who was Surontiko Samin? What did he do?

Short Answer Type Questions:

9. What do you mean by deforestation? Why deforestation does take place?
10. Who was Dietrich Brandis? Why was he invited to India?
11. What do you mean by the term 'Banana Republic'.
12. Explain scientific forestry? Why it was introduced by the British?
13. Name the Act which was enacted to protect the forests. Name the categories of forests under this Act.
14. How did the new forest laws affect plantation owners?
15. Where is Bastar located? Name any four local communities of Bastar.
16. Mention any three factors which prompted the people of Bastar of rebel against the British.
17. What was blandongndeinsten system?
18. Describe in brief the forest rebellion in Java.
19. What are the similarities between colonial management of the forests in Bastar and in Java.
20. Who were Kalangs? Mention any four characteristics of this community?

Long Answer Type Questions:

21. State in brief the major causes of deforestation in India during the British rule.
22. What do you mean by shifting cultivation? How the changes in forest management affect it?
23. Explain the impact of various forest laws and policies which were adopted by the colonial rulers over the colonial people.
24. "While people lost out in many ways after the forest department took control of the forests, some people benefited from the new opportunities that had opened up." Explain by giving examples.
25. Describe in brief the traditional beliefs of the various communities living in Bastar.
26. Explain the rebellion of Bastar people against the British.

ANSWER KEY

(Objective DPP4.1)

Que.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Ans	B	D	B	A	A	B	D	C	C	D	C	B	C	A	C



PASTORALISTS IN THE MODERNWORLD



SL - 05 (H)

PASTORAL NOMADS AND THEIR MOVEMENTS

- (i) Main occupation: Nomad people depend primarily on animal rearing. Goats, sheep, camels and buffaloes are the main animals reared by the nomads. Some of the nomads also cultivate crops.
- (ii) Movements: Nomads do not move randomly across the landscape but have a strong sense of territoriality. They are aware of physical and cultural characteristics of the region of their movement.
- (iii) Food: Pastoral nomads consume mostly grain rather than meat. They consume wheat, rice, bajra and malze. Some of the food grains are grown by themselves and some are arranged from the path of their movement.
- (iv) Economic life: Most of the nomadic people follows barter system, though some use money also. They exchange animals for food or grains.
- (v) Selection of animal: Nomads selects the type and number of animal for the herd according to local cultural and physical characteristics. The choice depends on the relative prestige of animals and the ability of species to adapt to a particular climates and vegetation. The camel is most frequently desired in North Africa and the Middle East, followed by sheep and goats.
- (vi) Changing life: The life of the nomads was affected by the spread of European settlers during the 19th century. The Europeans took and fenced land for their own use. Due to this the traditional way of life for the native people was changed for ever. The European drove the original inhabitants of their land or areas.

(a) In the Mountains:

(i) **The Gujjar Bakarwals:** Gujjar Bakarwals migrated to Jammu and Kashmir in the 19th century in search of pastures for their animals. Gradually, over the decades, they established themselves in the area, and moved annually between their summer and winter grazing grounds. In winter, when the high mountains were covered with snow and there was lack of pasture at the high altitude they moved to low hills of the Shiwalik. The dry scrub forests here provided pastures for their herds. By the end of April they began their northern march for their summer grazing grounds. They crossed the Pir Panjal passes and entered the valley of Kashmir. With the onset of summer, the snow melted and the mountainsides become lush green. By the end of September the Bakarwals started their backward journey.

(ii) **The Gaddi shepherds:** Gaddi shepherds of Himachal Pradesh spent their winter in the low hills of Shiwalik range, grazing their flocks in scrub forests. by April they moved north and spent the summer in Lahul and Spiti. When the snow melted and the high passes were clear, many of them moved on to higher mountain meadows. By September they began their return movement. On the way they stopped once again in the villages of Lahul and Spiti, reaping their summer harvest and sowing their winter crop. Then descended with their flock to their winter grazing ground on the Shiwalik hills. Next April, once again, they began their march with their goats and sheep, to the summer meadows.

(iii) **Movement in Garhwal and Kumaon:** The Gujjar cattle herders come down to the dry forests of the bhabar in the winter, and went up the high meadows - the bughyals - in summer. many of them were originally from Jammu and came to the UP hills in the nineteenth century in search of good pastures.

(iv) Other Pastoral nomads: cyclical movement between summer and winter pastures is typical of many pastoral communities of the Himalayas, including the Bhotiyas, Sherpas and Kinnauris. All of them had to adjust to seasonal changes and make effective use of available pastures in different places.

(b) On the Plateaus, Plains and Deserts:

(i) The Dhangars: the Dhangars were an important pastoral community of Maharashtra. They used to stay in the semi-arid central plateau of Maharashtra during the monsoon. Due to the low rainfall only dry crops could be grown there. In the monsoon these regions become a vast grazing ground for the Dhangars flocks. By October the Dhangars harvested their dry crops. During this season there was shortage of grazing ground so Dhangars had to move towards west. After about a month, they reached Konkan. In this region the locals used to welcome as the flocks of Dhangars provided manure to the field and fed on the stubble.

With the onset of the monsoon the Dhangars, after collecting supplies of rice and other food grains, used to leave the Konkan and returned to their settlements on the dry plateau.

(ii) The Gollas, Kurmas and Kurubas: in Karnataka and Andhra Pradesh the dry central plateau was covered with grass, inhabited by cattle, goat and sheep herders. The Gollas herded cattle. The Kurmas and Kurubas reared sheep and goats and sold woven blankets. They lived near the woods; cultivated small patches of land, engaged in a variety of petty trades and took care of their herds. The seasonal rhythms of their movement was decided by the alternation of the monsoon and dry season. In the dry season they moved to the coastal tracts, and left when the rains came.

(iii) The Raikas: Raikas were the nomads of Rajasthan. They were divided into two groups. One group of Raikas-known as the Maru Raikas-herded camels and another group reared sheep and goats. Cultivation and pastoralism were their primary activities. During the monsoon they stayed in their home villages where pasture was available. By October, when these grazing grounds were dry and exhausted, they moved out in search of other pastures and water.

(c) "The Pastoral groups had sustained by a careful consideration of a host of factors.":

(i) Climatic Factors: they had to judge the climatic conditions of the regions where they wanted to move. They had to judge how long the herds could stay in one area and where they could find water and pasture.

(ii) Timing: they needed to calculate the timing of their movements and ensure that could move through different territories.

(iii) Relationship: they had to set up a relationship with farmers so that herds could graze in harvested fields and manure the soil.

(iv) Different activities: they combined a range of different activities – cultivation, trade and herding to make their living.

COLONIAL GOVERNMENT

Colonial government enacted different laws that had adversely affected the living conditions of nomadic tribes and pastoral communities. The colonial government was driven by the following motives:

(i) The government wanted to convert all grazing into cultivated farms. This way, they wanted to raise more revenue in the form of taxes.

(ii) The government wanted to protect forests, as forests were required to meet their own urgent needs of railways, shipbuilding, etc.

(iii) British officials were suspicious of nomadic people. They were stated to be criminal by nature and birth.

(iv) To expand its revenue income, the government looked for every possible source of taxation. So tax was imposed on land, on canal water, on salt, on traded goods, and even on animals.

The measures led to a serious shortage of pastures. When grazing lands were taken over and turned into cultivated fields, the available area of pasture land declined. Similarly, the reservation of forests meant that shepherds and cattle herders could no longer freely pasture their cattle in the forests. As pasturelands disappeared under the plough, the existing animal stock had to feed on whatever grazing land remained. This led to continuous intensive grazing of these pastures. This in turn created a further shortage of forage for animals and the deterioration of animal stock. Underfed cattle died in large numbers during scarcities and famines.

(a) The impact of Forest Acts on the Nomads or Pastoralists:

(i) Through these Acts some forests which produced commercially valuable timber like deodar or Sal were declared reserved. Access to these forests was not allowed.

(ii) These Forests Acts changed the lives of pastoralists. They were now prevented from entering many forests that had earlier provided valuable forage for their cattle. Even in the areas they were allowed entry. Their movements were regulated. They needed a permit for entry. The timing of their entry and departure was specified, and the number of days they could spend in the forest was limited.

(iii) Pastoralists could no longer remain in an area even if forage was available, the grass was succulent and the undergrowth in the forest was ample. They had to move because the Forest Department permits that had been issued to them now ruled their lives.

(iv) The permit specified the periods in which they could be legally within a forest. If they overstayed they were liable to fines.

Waste Land Rules:

Under the Waste Land Rule uncultivated land was brought under cultivation. The basic aim was to increase land revenue because by expanding cultivation Government could increase its revenue collection. Crops like jute, cotton and indigo were used as raw material in England. So the British government wanted to bring more and more areas under these crops.

Impact on the lives of the pastoralists:

(i) After the Act pastoral movements were restricted.

(ii) Under the Act the grazing land was given to big landlords. Due to this nomads' grazing grounds shrank.

(iii) Due to shrinking grazing grounds the agricultural stock of the nomads declined and their trade and crafts were adversely affected.

Criminal Tribes Act:

In 1871, the colonial government in India passed the Criminal Tribes Act. By this Act many communities of craftsmen, traders and pastoralists were classified as Criminal Tribes. They were stated to be criminal by nature and birth. Once this Act came into force, these communities were expected to live only in notified village settlements. They were not allowed to move out without a permit. The village police kept a continuous watch on them. This restricted their grazing grounds. Their agricultural stock declined and their trades and crafts were adversely affected.

Grazing Tax:

Grazing tax was imposed on the pastoralists. Pastoralists had to pay tax on every animal they grazed on the pastures. In most pastoral tracts of India, grazing tax was introduced in the mid-nineteenth century. The tax per head of cattle went up rapidly and the system of collection was made increasingly efficient. In the decades between the 1850s and 1880s the right to collect the tax was auctioned out to contractors. These contractors tried to extract as high a tax as they could to recover the money they had paid to the state and earn as much profit as they could within the year. By the 1880s the government began collecting taxes directly from the pastoralists. Each of them was given a pass. To enter a grazing tract, a cattle herder had to show the pass and pay the tax. The number of cattle heads he had and the amount of tax he paid was entered on the pass.

Impact in the lives of pastoralists:

- (i) As the tax had to be paid in cash so pastoralists started selling their animals
- (ii) The heavy burden of taxes had an adverse impact on their economic status. Now most of pastoralists started taking loans from the money lenders.

(b) How did the Pastoralists cope with the changes?

Pastoralists reduced to these changes in a variety of ways:

- (i) Some reduced the number of cattle in their herds, since there was not enough pasture to feed large numbers.
- (ii) Others discovered new pastures when movement to old grazing grounds became difficult.
- (iii) Over the years, some richer pastoralists began buying land and setting down, giving up their nomadic life.
- (iv) Some became settled peasants cultivating land, others took to more extensive trading. Many poor pastoralists, on the other hand, borrowed money from moneylenders to survive.
- (v) At times they lost their cattle and sheep and became labourers, working on fields or in small towns.

PASTORALISM IN AFRICA

Over 22 million Africans depend on some form of pastoral activity for their livelihood. They include communities like Bedouins, Berbers, Maasai, Somali, Boran and Turkana. Most of them now live in the semi-arid grasslands or arid deserts where rain fed agriculture is difficult. They raise cattle, camels, goats, sheep and donkeys; and they sell milk, meat, animal skin and wool. Some also earn through trade and transport, others combine pastoral activity with agriculture; still others do a variety of odd jobs to supplement their meager and uncertain earnings from pastoralism.

(a) Where have the Grazing Lands Gone?

Before arrival of the colonial rulers, the Maasaliand spread over a vast area from North Kenya to the steppes of northern Tanzania. This gradually shrank due to the following reasons:

- (i) The colonial powers were hungry for colonial possession in Africa. Once they reached Africa, they began to cut it down in different colonies.
- (ii) The best grazing lands were gradually taken over for white settlement. Massai were pushed into a small area in south Kenya and north Tanzania.
- (iii) The colonial government promoted cultivation. Local peasant communities began to take control over the pastoral lands. Pastoral lands further fell.
- (iv) Large areas of land were also turned into game reserves. Pastoralists were not allowed to enter these reserves; they could neither hunt animals nor graze their in these areas. Very often these reserves were in area that had traditionally been regular grazing grounds for Maasai herds.
- (v) The loss of the finest grazing lands and water resources created pressure on the small area of land that the Maasai were confined within. Continuous grazing within a small area inevitably meant a deterioration of the quality of pastures. Fodder was always in short supply. Feeding the cattle became a persistent problem.

(b) The Borders are Closed:

- (i) From the late nineteenth century, the colonial government began imposing various restrictions on the mobility of the pastures. Special permits were issued to the people. They were not allowed to move out with their stock without special permits. And it was difficult to get permits without trouble and harassment.

- (ii) Pastoralists were also not allowed to enter the markers in white areas. In many regions, they were prohibited from participating in any form of trade. So now they were fully dependent on their stock.
- (iii) When restrictions were imposed on pastoral movements, grazing lands came to be continuously used and the quality of pastures declined. This in turn created a further shortage of forage for animals and the deterioration of animal stock.
- (iv) Now most of the nomads were forced to live within a semi-arid tract prone to frequent droughts.

(c) When Pastures Dry:

- (i) Traditionally pastoralists are nomadic; they move from place to place. This nomadism allows them to survive bad times and avoid crises.
- (ii) From the colonial period, the Maasai were bound down to a fixed area, prohibited from moving in search of pastures. They were cut off from the best grazing lands and forced to live within a semi-arid tract prone to frequent droughts. Since they could not shift their cattle to places where pastures were available, large numbers of Maasai cattle died of starvation and disease in these years of drought.
- (iii) As the area of grazing lands shrank, the adverse effect of the droughts increased in intensity. The frequent bad years led to a steady decline of the animal stock of the pastoralists.

(d) Not All were Equally Affected:

- (i) In pre-colonial times Maasai society was divided into two social categories—elders and warriors. The elders formed the ruling group and met in periodic councils to decide on the affairs of the community and settle disputes. The warriors consisted of younger people, mainly responsible for the protection of the tribe. They defended the community and organized cattle raids. Young men came to be recognized as members of the warrior class when they proved their manliness by raiding the cattle of other pastoral groups and participating in wars. They, however, were subject to the authority of the elders.
- (ii) After the arrival of Britishers there was a change in the political set up of the tribes. The British started appointing chiefs of different sub-groups and imposed various restrictions on raiding and warfare. With the passage of time these chiefs started accumulating wealth and became very rich and started lending money to poor class. Many of these chiefs started living in towns and got themselves involved into other economic activities. The life of the poor pastoralists was miserable. They did not have resources to tide over bad times.

In times of war and famine, they lost nearly everything. Most of them started working as labourers.

- (iii) The social changes in Maasai society occurred at two levels. First, the traditional difference based on age, between the elders and warriors, was disturbed, though it did not break down entirely. Second, a new distinction between the wealthy and poor pastoralists developed.

(e) Conclusion:

- (i) Pastoral communities in different parts of the world were affected in a variety of different ways by changes in the modern world. New laws and new borders affect the patterns of their movement. With increasing restrictions on their mobility, pastoralists find it difficult to move in search of pastures. As pasture lands disappear, grazing becomes a problem. Pastures that remain deteriorate through continuous overgrazing. Times of drought become times of crisis, when cattle die in large numbers.
- (ii) Pastoralists do adapt to new times. They change the paths of their annual movement, reduce their cattle numbers, press for rights to enter new areas, exert political pressure on the government for relief, subsidy and other forms of support and demand a right in the management of forests and water resources. Pastoralists are not relics of the past. They are not people who have no place in the modern world. Environmentalists and economists have increasingly come to recognise that pastoral nomadism is a form of life that is perfectly suited to many hilly and dry regions of the world.

EXERCISE

OBJECTIVE DPP- 5.1

- Which of the following vast natural pastures are on the high mountains, above 12000 ft?
(A) Bhabar (B) Bugyals (C) Niligiris (D) Satpuras
- Kafila refers to -
(A) A fort of Kafils (B) Boat of sailors
(C) A ship of Merchants (D) Group of pastoralists moving together
- Group of Raikas, that herded camels were known as -
(A) Maru Raikas (B) Balu Raikas (C) Raikas of Barmer (D) Maldhani Raikas
- Konkan is located on the -
(A) West coast of our country (B) East coast of our country
(C) Southern most point of India (D) On Kerala coast
- Camel grazing in western is practiced by -
(A) Bhils (B) Meenas (C) Gujjars (D) Raikas
- Gollas of Andhra Pradesh and Karnataka are -
(A) Cattle herders (B) Goat and Sheep herders
(C) Buffalo keepers (D) Blanket weavers
- Kurumas and Kurubas are the pastoralists of :
(A) West Bangal (B) Orissa
(C) Kamataka and Andhra (D) Tamil Nadu
- Through various Forest Acts, some forest which produced commercially valuable timber like deodar and Sal were declared:
(A) Protected (B) Unclassified (C) Reserved (D) None of the above
- The reserved forest has mainly the trees of following types:
(A) Khezri (B) Keekar (C) Sundari (D) Deodar and Sal
- The main areas of Maasai cattle herders of Africa are -
(A) Egypt (B) Nigeria (C) Cango (D) Kenya & Tanzania
- The Maasaliand was cut into half with an Intemational boundary by British in -
(A) 1880 (B) 1885 (C) 1890 (D) 1886
- Criminal Tribes Act was passed in -
(A) 1881 (B) 1871 (C) 1879 (D) 1861
- Which of the following areas is hardest hit by drought and food shortage in Africa?
(A) Vicinity of Amboseli National Park (B) Vicinity of Sambura National Park
(C) Vicinity of Serengti National Park (D) Al of the above
- Massai society of Africa was divided into two groups known as-
(A) Hares and Harenots (B) Capitalist and Labours
(C) Elders and Warriors (D) cultivators and Merchants
- Garhwal, Kumaon, Sahil and Shili are in the states of -
(A) Assam and Meghalaya (B) U.P and Merchants
(C) Arunachal Pradesh & Nagaland (D) Mizoram and Tripura

SUBJECTIVE DPP - 5.2

Very Short Answer Type Questions:

1. Who are nomads? Name any more animals which are reared by them.
2. Mention any two factors which are responsible for the annual movement to the pastoral communities.
3. Name any three pastoral communities of Kamataka and Andhra Pradesh. What was their occupation?
4. Where are the Raikas to be found? why are they both cultivators and pastoralists?
5. How did the life of the pastoralists change under colonial rule?
6. What are the impacts of the various Forest Acts passed during this time on the lives of the pastoralists?
7. What does the word Massai mean? Where are they found?
8. What changes occurred in Massai society during colonial rule?
9. What measures were introduced by the British to administer the affairs of the Massai?
10. How have pastoralsits adapted to changing times?

Short Answer Type Questions:

11. What similarities do you notice in the lifestyles of the Gujjar Bakarwals of Jammu and Kashmir and the Gaddi shepherds of Himachal Pradesh?
12. What factors had to be kept in mind by the pastoralists in order to survive?
13. How did the various laws by the British affect the Indian pastoralists?
14. How did the Pastoralists cope with these changes?
15. What restriction were imposed by the colonial government on the African Pastoralists?
16. Why did the cattle stock of the Massai's under colonial rule?
17. Describe the social organizations of the Massai's in the pre-colonial times.
18. How did the Massai's chiefs appointed by the British benefit economically?

Long Answer Type Questions:

19. Give reasons to explain why the Massai community lost their grazing lands.
20. Discuss why the colonial government in India brought in the following laws. in each case , explain how the law changed the lives of pastoralists :
(A) Waste Land Rules (B) Forest Acts (C) Criminal Tribes Act (D) Grazing Act
21. Explain why nomadic tribes to move form one place to another. What are the advantages to the environment of this continuous movement?
22. There are many similarities in the way in which the modem world forced changes in the lives of pastoral communities in India and East Africa. Write about any two examples of changes which were similar for Indian pastoralsits and the Massai herders.

ANSWER KEY

(Objective DPP4.1)

Que.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Ans	B	D	A	A	D	A	C	C	D	D	B	B	A	C	B



PEASANTS & FARMERS



SL - 06 (H)

THE TIME OF OPEN FIELDS AND COMMONS

- (i) Before late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries in large party of England the countryside was open. It was not partitioned into enclosed lands privately owned by landlords. Peasants cultivated on strips of land, around the village they lived in. each villager was allocated a number of strips to cultivate. Usually, these strips were of varying quality and often located in different places, to ensure that everyone had a mix of good and bad land. Beyond these strips of cultivation lay the common land. All villagers had access to the commons. Here they pastured their cows and grazed their sheep, collected fuel wood for fire and berries and fruit for food. They fished in the rivers and ponds, and hunted rabbit in common forests. For the poor, the common land was essential for survival. It supplemented their meager income, substantiated their cattle, and helped them tide over bad times when crops failed.
- (ii) From about the sixteenth century, when the price of wool went up in the world market, rich farmers wanted to expand wool production to earn profits. They were eager to improve their sheep breeds and ensure good feed for them. They were keen on controlling large areas of land in compact blocks to allow improved breeding. So they began dividing and enclosing common land and building hedges around their holdings to separate their property from that of others. They drove out villagers who had small cottages on the commons, and they prevented the poor from entering the enclosed fields. Between 1750 and 1850, 6 million acres of land was enclosed. The British Parliament passed 4,000 Acts legalising these enclosures.

NEW DEMANDS FOR GRAIN

- (i) English population between 1750 and 1900, multiplied over four times, mounting from 7 million in 1750 to 21 million in 1850 and 30 million in 1900. This meant an increased demand for foodgrains to feed the population. Moreover, Britain at this was industrializing. More and more people began to live and work in urban areas. Men from rural areas migrated to towns in search of jobs. To survive they had to buy foodgrains in the market. As the urban population grew, the market for foodgrains expanded, and when demand increased rapidly, foodgrain prices rose.
- (ii) By the end of the eighteenth century, France was at war with England. Prices of foodgrains in England sky rocketed, encouraging landowners to enclose lands and enlarge the area under grain cultivation.

THE AGE OF ENCLOSURES

- (i) In the nineteenth century, grain production grew as quickly as population. Even though the population increased rapidly, in 1868 England was producing about 80 per cent of the food it consumed.
- (ii) This increase in food-grain production was made possible by bringing new lands under cultivation. Landlords sliced up pasturelands, carved up open fields, cut up forest commons, took over marshes, and turned larger and larger areas into agricultural fields.

Importance of turnip and clover for farmers:

In about the 1660s farmers in many parts of England began growing turnip and clover these crops improved the soil and made it more fertile. Turnip was a good fodder crop relished by cattle. These crops became part of the cropping system. These crops had the capacity to increase the nitrogen content of the soil. Nitrogen was important for crop growth. Cultivation of the same soil over a few years depleted the nitrogen in the soil and reduced its fertility. By restoring nitrogen, turnip and clover made the soil fertile once again.

Enclosures were now seen as necessary to make long-term investments on land and plan crop rotations to improve the soil. Enclosures also allowed the richer landowners to expand the land under their control and produce more for the market.

THE CONDITIONS THE POOR

When fences came up, the enclosed land became the exclusive property of one landowner. The poor could no longer collect their firewood from the forests, or graze their cattle on the commons. They could no longer collect apples and berries, or hunt small animals for meat. Nor could they gather the stalks that lay on the fields after the crops were cut. Everything belonged to the landlords; everything had a price which the poor could not afford to pay. In places where enclosure happened – the poor were displaced from the land. They found their customary rights gradually disappearing. Deprived of their rights and driven off the land, they tramped in search of work. From the Midlands, they moved to the southern counties of England. But nowhere could the poor find secure jobs. Labourers were being paid wages and employed only during harvest time. As landowners tried to increase their profits, they cut the amount they had to spend on their workmen. Work became insecure, employment uncertain, income unstable. For a very large part of the year the poor had no work.

THE INTRODUCTION OF THRESHING MACHINES

(i) During the Napoleonic Wars prices of foodgrains were high and farmers expanded production vigorously. Fearing a shortage of labour, they began buying the new threshing machines that had come into the market.

(ii) After the Napoleonic Wars had ended, thousands of soldiers returned to villages. They needed alternative jobs to survive. But this was a time when grain from Europe began flowing into England, prices declined, and an Agricultural Depression set in. Anxious, landowners, tried to cut wages and the number of workmen they employed.

(iii) The Captain Swing riots spread in the countryside at this time. For the poor the threshing machines had become a sign of bad times.

BREAD BASKET AND DUST BOWL

(i) At the end of the eighteenth century, settled agriculture had not developed on any extensive scale in the USA. Forests covered over 800 million acres and grasslands 600 million acres.

(ii) Most of the landscape was not under the control of white Americans. Till the 1780s, white American settlements were confined to a small narrow strip of coastal land in the east. Native American groups in the country were nomadic, some were settled. Many of them lived only by hunting, gathering and fishing; others cultivated corn, beans, tobacco and pumpkin.

(iii) By the early twentieth century, this landscape had transformed radically. White Americans had moved westward and established control up to the west coast, displacing local tribes and carving out the entire landscape into different agricultural belts. The USA had come to dominate the world market in agricultural produce.

THE WESTWARD MOVE AND WHEAT CULTIVATION

(i) After the American War of independence from 1775 to 1783 and the formation of the United States of America, the white Americans began to move westward. By the time Thomas Jefferson became President of the USA in 1800, over 700,000 white settlers had moved on to the Appalachian plateau through the passes. Seen from the east coast, America seemed to be a land of promise. Its wilderness could be turned into cultivated fields. Forest timber could be cut for export, animals hunted for skin, mountains mined for gold and minerals.

(ii) In the decades after 1800 the US government committed itself to a policy of driving the American Indians westward, first beyond the river Mississippi, and then further west. As the Indians retreated, the settlers poured in. They settled on the Appalachian plateau by the first decade of the eighteenth century, and then moved into the Mississippi valley between 1820 and 1850. Then they cleared larger areas, and erected fences around the fields. They ploughed the land and sowed corn and wheat. When the soil became impoverished and exhausted in one place, the migrants would move further west, to explore new lands and raise a new crop. It was, however, only after the 1860s that settlers swept into the Great Plains across the River Mississippi.

THE WHEAT FARMERS

(i) From the late nineteenth century there was a dramatic expansion of wheat production in the USA. The rising urban population, export market was becoming ever bigger and rise in wheat prices, encouraged farmers to produce wheat. The spread of the railways made it easy to transport the grain from the wheat growing regions to the eastern coast for export. By the twentieth century the demand became even higher, and during the First World War the world market boomed.

(ii) In 1910, about 45 million acres of land in the USA was under wheat. Nine years later, the area had expanded to 74 million acres, an increase of about 65 per cent. In many cases, big farmers – the wheat barons – controlled as much as 2,000 to 3,000 acres of land individually.

THE COMING OF NEW TECHNOLOGY

(i) This dramatic expansion was made possible by new technology. Through the nineteenth century, as the settlers moved into new habitats and lands, they modified their implements to meet their requirements.

(ii) The prairie was covered with a thick mat of grass with tough roots. To break the sod and turn the soil over, a variety of new ploughs were devised locally. By early twentieth century, farmers in the Great Plains were breaking the ground with tractors and disk ploughs, clearing vast stretches for wheat cultivation.

In 1831, Cyrus McCormick invented the first mechanical reaper. By the early twentieth century, most farmers were using combined harvesters to cut grain. With one of these machines, 500 acres of wheat could be harvested in two weeks.

(iii) For the big farmers of the Great Plains these machines had many attractions. The price of wheat was high and the demand seemed limitless.

(v) With power driven machinery, four men could plough, seed and harvest 2,000 to 4,000 acres of wheat in a season.

WHAT HAPPENED TO THE POOR ?

For the poorer farmers, machines brought misery. They borrowed money on loan to buy machines but found it difficult to pay back their debts. Many of them deserted their farms and looked for jobs elsewhere. Mechanization reduced the need for labor. After 1920's most farmers traced troubles. Production had expanded so rapidly during the war and post-war years that there was a large surplus. Unsold stocks piled up, storehouses overflowed with grain, and vast amounts of corn and wheat were turned into animal feed. Wheat prices fell and export markets collapsed. This created the grounds for the Great Agrarian Depressions of the 1930s that ruined wheat farmers everywhere.

DUST BOWL

In the 1930s, terrifying dust storms began to blow over the southern plains. Black blizzards rolled in, very often 7,000 to 8,000 feet high, rising like monstrous waves of muddy water. As the skies darkened, and the dust swept in, people were blinded and choked. Cattle were suffocated to death; their lungs caked with dust and mud. Sand buried fences, covered fields, and coated the surfaces of rivers till the fish died. Dead bodies of birds and animals were strewn all over the landscape. Tractors and machines that had ploughed the earth and harvested the wheat in the 1920s were now clogged with dust, damaged beyond repair. They came because the early 1930s were years of persistent drought. Ordinary duststorms became black blizzards only because the entire landscape had been ploughed over, stripped of all grass that held it together. When wheat cultivation had expanded dramatically in the early twentieth century, zealous farmers had recklessly uprooted all vegetation, and tractors had expanded dramatically in the early twenties century, zealous farmers had recklessly uprooted all vegetation, and tractors had turned the soil over, and broken the sod into dust. The whole region had become a dust bowl.

THE INDIAN FARMER AND OPIUM PRODUCTION

Over the period of colonial rule, the rural landscape was radically transformed. As cultivation expanded, the area under forests and pastures declined. In the colonial period, rural India also came to produce a range of crops for the world market. In the early nineteenth century, indigo and opium were two of the major commercial crops. By the end of the century, peasants were producing sugarcane, cotton, jute, wheat and several other crops for export.

A TASTE FOR TEA : THE TRADE WITH CHINA

- (i) In the eighteenth century, the English East India Company was buying tea and silk from China for sale in England. As tea became a popular English drink, the trade became more and more important in fact the profits of the East India Company came to depend on the tea trade.
- (ii) England at this time produces nothing that could be easily sold in China. In such a situation, how could Western merchants finance the tea trade? They could buy tea only by paying in silver coins or bullion. This meant an outflow of treasure from England, a prospect that created widespread anxiety. Merchants therefore looked for ways to stop this loss of silver. They searched for a commodity they could sell in China, something they could persuade the Chinese to buy. Opium was such a commodity.
- (iii) The Chinese were aware of the dangers of opium addiction, and the Emperor had forbidden its production and sale except for medicinal purposes. But Western merchants in the mid-eighteenth century began an illegal trade in opium.
- (iv) While the English cultivated a taste for Chinese tea, the Chinese became addicted to opium. People of all classes took to the drug-shopkeepers and peddlers, officials and army men, aristocrats and paupers: As China became a country of opium addicts, British trade in tea flourished. The returns from opium sale financed the tea purchases in China.

THE OPIUM CAME FROM

When the British conquered Bengal, they made a determined effort to produce opium in the lands under their control. Before 1767, no more than 500 chests were being exported from India. A hundred years later, in 1870, the government was exporting about 50,000 chests annually.

FARMERS WERE UNWILLING TO TURN THEIR FIELDS OVER TO POPPY

First the crop had to be grown on the best land, on fields that near villages and well matured. Second, many cultivators owned no land. To cultivate, they had to pay rent and lease land from landlords. Third, the cultivation of opium was a difficult process.

Finally, the price the government paid to the cultivators for the opium they produced was very low.

UNWILING WATORS WERE MADE OPPRODUCE OPIUM

- (i) In the rural areas of Bengal and Bihar, there were large numbers of poor peasants. from the 1780s such peasants found their village headmen (mabato) giving them money advances to produce opium.
- (ii) By taking the loan, the cultivator was forced to grow opium on a specified area of land hand over the produce to the agents once the crop had been harvested.
- (iii) The problem could have been partly solved by increasing the price of opium. The prices given to the peasants were so low that by the early eighteenth century angry peasants began agitating for higher prices and refused to take advances.

EXERCISE

OBJECTIVE DPP- 6.1

1. Over the late eighteenth and nineteenth centuries in the English countryside at the beginning of each year, at a public meeting each villager was allocated a number of -
(A) Animals to rear (B) Strips to cultivate
(C) Machines to start his own industries (D) Slaves
2. Till the middle of the eighteenth century the enclosure movement proceeded -
(A) Very fast (B) at the same rate (C) very slowly (D) not at all
3. _____ was the year of Great Agrarian depression.
(A) 1930 (B) 1935 (C) 1925 (D) 1920
4. Findings showed the planting of tumip & clover increase the _____ content of the soil.
(A) Nitrogen (B) Oxygen (C) Carbon - dioxide (D) Lime
5. After the end of the Napoleonic wars grain from Europe began flowing into England, Prices declined and an -
(A) Industrial revolution set in (B) Industrial depression set in
(C) Agricultural depression set in (D) Agricultural revolution set in
6. Till the 1780s, White American settlements were confined to a small narrow strip of coastal land in the -
(A) East (B) West (C) North (D) South
7. Who was the special commissioner at Canton, instructed to stop the Opium trade?
(A) Mao- Tse- Tung (B) Lin Ze-xu (C) San - yu -ki (D) Ho - Chi- Minh
8. In 1870, the government was exporting about _____ chests of opium annually.
(A) 5000 (B) 25000 (C) 5000 (D) 100000
9. In 1910, about _____ of land in the USA was under wheat cultivation.
(A) 40 million acres (B) 45 million acres (C) 50 million acres (D) 55 million acres
10. In 1831 _____ invented the first mechanical reaper.
(A) Cyrus McCormick (B) Sir George Yull (C) John Deere (D) Fred Hultstrand

SUBJECTIVE DPP - 6 .2

Very Short Answer Type Questions:

1. What is strip cultivation?
2. What do you mean by term 'Open Field System'?
3. Explain the importance of the village common to common folk.
4. Why did the rich farmers use the threshing machines?

5. How did food production increase in the 19th century?
6. What were the occupations of the Native Americans?
7. Why and how were the Native Americans driven westwards?
8. What problems did expansion of wheat agriculture in the Great Plain cause?
9. What items did the British merchants buy from China? Why did they start smuggling opium into China?

Short Answer Type Questions:

10. Explain the importance of the village commons to a labourer and a poor man.
11. Why were the threshing machine opposed by the poor in England?
12. Who was Captain Swing? What did the name symbolize or represent?
13. Briefly summaries the impact of introduction of modern agriculture in England.
14. when did the westward movement of the white settlers took place in America and how?
15. What was the impact to the westward expansion of settlers in the U.S.A.?
16. What lessons can we draw from the conversion of country side in the USA from a bread basket to a dust bowl?
17. Write a paragraph on why the British insisted on farmers growing opium in India.
18. Why were Indian farmers reluctant to grow opium?
19. What changes occurred due to the coming of modern agriculture in England?

Long Answer Type Questions:

20. How were the poor affected by the Enclosure Movement?
21. Explain the factors that led to the enclosures in England.
22. What were the advantages and disadvantages of the use of mechanical harvesting machines in the USA?
23. What factor led a dramatic expansion in American wheat production?
24. What was the 'Opium War'? What were its consequences? Consequences?

ANSWER KEY

(Objective DPP 6.1)

Que.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Ans	B	C	A	A	C	A	B	C	B	A



HISTORY & SPORTS: THE SPORT OF CRICKET



SL - 07 (H)

THE IMPORTANCE OF CRICKET IN THE MODERN TIMES

Cricket as a sport has one of the largest followings in the world. Anyone who knows to speak the word 'Cricket' can assume himself to be an expert in the game.

- (i) It is the most widely played game, especially in the former Commonwealth countries. Its range includes from Gully- Mohalla cricket to international test matches.
- (ii) It is the biggest source of entertainment, not only for thousands and thousands of the spectators at the playing grounds but also other millions who watch a ball-by-ball progress on TV sets, etc.
- (iii) Every single ball generates passion.
- (iv) It is one way in which people compete with each other, stay fit and express their social loyalties.
- (v) Cricket matches are organized to establish friendship between Nations; cricketers are seen as ambassadors of the country.
- (vi) Cricket has come to represent the unity of the country.
- (vii) Cricket has emerged as the biggest commercial venture; it is a whole big industry which generates jobs and income on a large scale.

(a) Invention of Cricket and its spread:

- (i) Cricket was invented in Southeastern England in the 19th century. The Britishers took the game to all those places where they went, i.e., to their colonies in Asia and Africa. This is now cricket became a popular game in the former colonies of Great Britain.
- (ii) After these colonies gained independence from their former rulers, they were organized in what came to be known as the Commonwealth. The game of cricket, therefore, is limited to the members of the Commonwealth. Important cricket playing countries are India, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, Bangladesh, Australia, New Zealand, England, West Indies, Zimbabwe, South Africa and Kenya.

(c) Cricket represent's:

Cricket had been invented in England; it became intimately linked to the culture of the 19th century Victorian society. The game was expected to represent all that the Englishmen were supposed to value and respect, i.e.,

- (i) Fair play,
- (ii) Discipline, and
- (iii) Gentlemanliness.

It was in this spirit that game was played till recent times, before commercialization took over the game. With commercialization, money has become the ruling deity of game.

THE PECULIARITIES OF CRICKET

Modern cricket has different varieties; among these the two important ones are:

- (i) Test matches, and
- (ii) one-day matches. Test matches are played over a longer period often (five days presently), whereas a one-day match is restricted to a limited number of overs that each side is to bowl to other side. Originally, cricket developed in the form of test matches.

(a) There were certain features of this game that made it different than other games:

- (i) Test matches were open-ended games. There was no time defined. they would go on till the result was decided (presently a test match is a five day game, if no result is achieved in five days it is declared a drawn game). There is no other game with such a larger time span.
- (ii) In cricket, the length of the pitch is specified-22 yard-but the size or shape of the ground is not defined. This is not so any other game.
- (iii) In cricket, all important tools are made of natural materials, unlike golf and tennis where man-made materials are used.
- (iv) In cricket, a player is a member of a team. he plays for the team and not for individual laurels.

(b) Peculiarities of cricket are shaped by its historical beginnings as a village game:

One, cricket's rules were made before the industrial Revolution. The rhythms of village life were slower. A match could go on and on till was decided. Games that were codified after the Industrial Revolution were strictly time-limited to fit the routines of industrial city life.

Two, cricket was originally played on common lands in the countryside. The size of the common lands varied from village, and region to region. Therefore, it was left open to decide the boundaries of the ground in the area in which the match was being played.

There, unlike other games cricket's most important tools are all made of natural, pre-industrial materials. The bat is made of wood as are the stumps and the bails. The ball is made with leather twine and cork.

In the matter of protective equipment has been influenced by technological change. The invention of vulcanized rubber led to the introduction of pads in 1848. Protective gloves were introduced soon thereafter. Helmets made out of metal and synthetic lightweight materials became an important part of protective equipment.

but technological change did not materially alter the essence of the basic tools of the game, viz.,

- (i) Bat,
- (ii) Stumps,
- (iii) Bails, and
- (iv) Ball. These continue to be made out of natural materials.

LAWS OF CRICKET

(a) The first written 'Laws of Cricket':

The first written 'Laws of Cricket' were drawn up in 1744. They stated, the principals shall choose from amongst the gentlemen present two umpires who shall absolutely decide all disputes. The stumps must be 22 inches high and the bail across them six inches. The ball must be between 5 and 6 ounces, and the two sets of stumps 22 yards apart. There were no limits on the shape or size of the bat.

(b) Major changes that took amine to the game of cricket during the 1760s and 1770s:

During the 1760s and 1770s many changes took place in the game of cricket. it became common to pitch the ball through the air, rather then roll it along the ground . This change gave bowlers the options of length, deception through the air, plus increased pace. It also opened new possibilities for spin and swing. In responses, batsmen had to master timing and shot selection. One immediate result was th replacement of the curved bat with the straight one. All of this raised the premium on skill and reduced the influence of rough ground brute force.

- (i) The weight of the ball was limited to between $5 \frac{1}{2}$ to $5 \frac{3}{4}$ ounces, and the width of the bat to four inches. The latter ruling followed an inning by a batsman who appeared with a bat as wide as the wicked.

- (ii) In 1774, the first leg-before law was published.
- (iii) A third stump became common.
- (iv) By 1780, three days had become the length of a major match, and this year also saw the creation of the first six-seam cricket ball.

(c) Important changes that occurred in the game of cricket during the 19 th century:

During the 19 th century the important changes that occurred in the game of cricket can be briefly stated as follows:

- (i) The rule about wide ball was applied.
- (ii) The exact circumference of the ball was specified.
- (iii) Protective equipment like pads and gloves became available.
- (iv) Boundaries were introduced; earlier all runs were scored by running between the stumps. over arm bowling became legal.

CRICKET AND VICTORIAN ENGLAND

The organization of cricket in England reflected the nature of English society.

The players were divided into two groups: (A) Professionals and (B) Amateurs.

- (i) Those persons who played cricket for a living were called professionals.
The wages of professionals were paid by patronage or subscription or gate money. the game was seasonal and did not offer employment the year round.
Most professionals worked as miners or, in other forms of working class employment in winter, the off-season.
- (ii) The rich who could afford to play for pleasure were called amateurs and the poor who played it for a living were called professionals.

(a) The rich were amateurs for two reasons:

One, they considered sport a kind of leisure. To play for the pleasure of playing and not for money was an aristocratic value. Two, there was not enough money in the game for the rich to be interested.

- (i) The social superiority of amateurs was built the customs of cricket. Amateurs were called Gentlemen while professionals had to be content with being described as Players.
- (ii) They entered the ground from different entrances.
- (iii) Amateurs tended to be batsmen, leaving the energetic, hardworking aspects of the game, like fast bowling, to the professionals. That is partly why the rules of the game always give the benefit of the doubt to the batsman.

(b) Cricket a batsman's game:

Cricket is a batsman's game because its rules were made to favour 'Gentlemen', who did most of the batting. The social superiority of the amateur was also the captain of a cricket team was traditionally a batsman: not because batsmen were naturally better captains but because they were generally Gentlemen. Captains of teams, whether club teams or national sides, were always amateurs. It was not till the 1930s that the English Test team was led by a professional, the Yorkshire batsman, Len Hutton.

(c) "Battle of Waterloo was won on the playing fields of Eton":

In actual fact the Napoleonic wars were won because of the economic contribution of the iron works of Scotland and Wales, the milis of Lancashire and the financial houses of the City of London. it was the English lead in trade and industry that made Britain the world's greatest power, but it suited the English ruling class to believe that it was the superior character of its young men, built in boarding schools , like Eton, playing gentlemanly games like cricket , that tipped the balance.

THE SPREAD OF CRICKET

- (i) In colonies, cricket was established as a popular sport either by white settlers (as in South Africa, Zimbabwe, Australia, New Zealand, the West Indies and Kenya) or by local elites who wanted to copy the habits of their colonial masters, as in India.
- (ii) While British imperial officials brought the game to the colonies, they made little effort to spread the game, especially in colonial territories.
- (iii) Playing cricket became a sign of superior social and racial status, and the Afro-Caribbean population was discouraged from participating in organised club cricket, which remained dominated by white plantation owners and their servants.
- (iv) The first non-white club in the West Indies was established towards the end of the nineteenth century, and even in this case its members were light-skinned mulattos.
- (v) Despite the exclusiveness of the cricket elite in the West Indies, the game became hugely popular in the Caribbean.
- (vi) At the time of their independence many of the political leaders of Caribbean countries like Forbes Burnham and Eric Williams saw in the game a chance for self-respect and international standing.
- (vii) When the West Indies won its first Test series against England in 1950s, it was celebrated as a national achievement, as a way of demonstrating that West Indians were the equals of white Englishmen.
- (viii) The first time a black captain led the West Indies Test team was in 1960 when Frank Worrell was named captain.
- (ix) Through the early history of Indian first class cricket, teams were not organized on geographical principles and it was not till 1932 that a national team was given the right to represent India in a Test match.

(a) Cricket, Race and Religion:

- (i) Cricket in colonial India was organised on the principle of race and religion. The first record we have of cricket being played in India is from 1721. The first Indian club, the Calcutta Cricket Club was established in 1792. Through the eighteenth century cricket in India was almost wholly a sport played by British military men and civil servants in all-white clubs and gymkhana. Indians were considered to have no talent for the game and certainly not meant to play it. But they did.
- (ii) The origins of Indian cricket, that is, cricket played by Indians are to be found in Bombay and the first Indian community to start playing the game was the small community of Zoroastrians, the Parsis. The Parsis founded the first Indian cricket club, the Oriental Cricket Club in Bombay in 1848. The white cricket elite in India offered no help to the enthusiastic Parsis. In fact, there was a quarrel between the Bombay Gymkhana, a white-only club, and Parsi cricketers over the use of a public park. When it became clear that the colonial authorities were prejudiced in favour of their white compatriots, the Parsis built their own gymkhana to play cricket in. A Parsi team beat the Bombay Gymkhana at cricket in 1889, just four years after the foundation of the Indian National Congress in 1885.
- (iii) By the 1890s, Hindus and Muslims were busy gathering funds and support for a Hindu Gymkhana and an Islam Gymkhana. In the late nineteenth century, many Indian institutions and movements were organised around the idea of religious community because the colonial state encouraged these divisions and was quick to recognise communal institutions. Applications that used the communal categories favoured by the colonial state were likely to be approved.
- (iv) This history of gymkhana cricket led to first-class cricket being organised on communal and racial lines. The tournament was initially called Quadrangular, because it was played by four teams: the Europeans, the Parsis, the Hindu and the Muslims. It later became the Pentangular when a fifth team was added, namely, the Rest, which comprised all the communities left over, such as the Indian Christians.

- (v) By the late 1930s and early 1940s, journalists, cricketers and political leaders had begun to criticize the racial and communal foundations of the Pent angular torment. They condemned the Pent angular as a communally divisive competition that was out of place in a time when nationalists were trying to unite India's diverse population. a rive first-class tournament on regional lines , the National Cricket Championship (later named the Ranji Trophy), was established but not until independence did it properly replace the Pent angular . Pent angular was a colonial toumanent and it died with the Raj.

(b) Mahatma Gandhi's views on cricket.

Mahatma Gandhi believed that sport was essential for creating a balance between the body and the mind. However, he often emphasized that games like cricket and hockey were imported into India by the British and were replacing traditional games. Suck games as cricket, hockey, football and tennis were for the privileged, he believed. They showed a colonial mindset and were a less active education then the simple exercise of those who worked on the land.

THE MODERN TRANSFORMATION

- (i) Modern cricket is dominated by Tests and one day internationals, played between national teams.
- (ii) The players Indian fans remember from the ear of the Pent angular and the quadrangular are those who were fortunate enough to play Test cricket.
- (iii) C.K.Nayudu, an outstanding Indian batsman of his time, lives on in the popular imagination when some of his great contemporaries like Palwanker Vithal and Palwanker Baloo have forgotten because his career lasted long enough for him to play Test cricket for India while theirs did not.
- (iv) Nayudu has past his cricketing prime when he played for India in its first Test matches against England starting in 1932; his place in India's cricket history is assured because he was the country's first Test captain.
- (v) Indica entered the world of Test cricket in 1932s,a decade and a half before it became an independent nation. This was possible because Test cricket from its origins 1877 was organised as a contest between different parts of the British empire, not sovereign nations.
- (vi) he first Test was played between England and Australia when Australia was still a white settler colony, not even a self-governing dominion.

(a) The name of ICC was changed from the Imperial Cricket Conference to the International Cricket Conference:

The imperial Cricket Conference was responsible for the regulation of the game of cricket throughout the world. it was dominated by two nations , England and Australia. they had the veto rights.

With the disappearance of the British empire, the organization of world cricket was also undergoing a change. Two major changes suggestive of decolonization and deimperialism were:

- (i) The name of Imperial Cricket Conference was changed into the international Cricket Conference.
- (ii) The veto right were abolished. Equal membership was introduced.

The significance of the shift of the ICC headquarters from London to Dubai.

The shift the ICC headquarters from London to Dubai signified that the balance of power in cricket was shifting from ex-colonial power and white men to South Asis, who have come to dominate the world cricket.

(b) The impact of decolonization on cricket:

Cricket had developed as a game in colonial countries. It spread to those countries where the colonial rulers went. In course of time, colonies began to produce better played of cricket then were available with the colonial power themselves. But the colonial powers could successfully curb the growth of such talent. With decolonization, all such restriction s on the growth of cricket stood removed. Some significant changes began to take place in the organization of cricket:

- (i) The name of the Imperial Cricket Conference was changed into the Intemational Cricket Conference.
- (ii) The headquarters of the ICC were shifted from London to Dubai.

- (iii) Veto right of England and Australia in ICC were removed . all members got equal rights.
- (iv) England had to boycott South Africa who did not permit non-white players to represent their country.
- (v) It came to be accepted that the laws of cricket could not continue to be framed for British or Australian conditions of play. The techniques of 'doosra' and 'reverse swing' evolved by the Asian bowlers to suit their conditions, came to be accepted and endorsed.

COMMERUES MEDIA AND CRICKET TODAY

Advances in technology had a dramatic effect on the game of cricket .

on-field, the concept of 'Third Umpire' was put in practice. a number of major decisions on field could be referred to him as he had the benefit of replays of every event from all possible angles. stumps carried cameras; umpires could talk direct to the ground staff and others from their radios. score - boards became more functional and informative.

off-field, organization of matches became much more convenient with easy free flow required information. with the advent of television , cricket became a marketable game which could generate huge revenues.

- (i) Cricket boards became rich by selling television rights to television companies.
- (ii) Television channels made money by selling television spots to companies who were happy to pay large sums of money to air commercial for their products to cricket's captive television audience.
- (iii) Continuous television coverage made cricketers celebrities who, besides being paid better by their cricket boards, now made even large sums of money by making commercials for a wide range of products , from tyres to colas, on television.
- (iv) Television coverage expanded the audience for the game by beaming cricket into small towns and villages.
- (v) It also broadened cricket's social base. Children who had never previously had the chance to watch international cricket because they lived outside the big cities, where top-level cricket was played, could now watch and learn by imitating their heroes.
- (vi) The technology of satellite television and the world wide reach of multinational television companies created a global market for cricket.

Contribution of Kerry Packer in development of cricket

Kerry Packer was an Australian television tycoon. He saw the money-making potential of cricket as a television sport. He introduced 'World Series Cricket'. He signed up fifty-one of the world's leading cricketers against the wishes of the national cricket boards and for about two years staged unofficial Tests One-Day internationals. The innovations he introduced during this time to make cricket more attractive to television audiences endured and changed the nature of the game.

Coloured dress, protective helmets, field restrictions, cricket under lights, became a standers part of the post-Packer game. Crucially, Packer drove home the lesson that cricket was a marketable game, which could generate huge revenues.

(a) The centre of gravity in cricket has shifted away from the old:

- (i) A more impotent sign that the centre of gravity in cricket has shifted away from the old, Anglo-Australian axis is that innovations in cricket technique in recent years have mainly come from the proactive of sub continental terns in countries like India, Pakistan and Sri Lanka.
- (ii) Pakistan has pioneered two great advances in bowling: the doosra and the; rivers swing'.
- (iii) Initially, both innovations were greeted with great suspicion by countries like Britain and Australia which saw them as an underhanded, illegal bending of the laws of cricket.
- (iv) In time, it came to be accepted that the laws of cricket could not continue to be framed for British or Australian conditions of play, and they became part of the technique of ll bowlers, everywhere in the world.
- (v) Today, the global marketplace has made Indian players the best-paid, most famous cricketers in the game, men for whom the world is a stage.

EXERCISE

OBJECTIVE DPP-7.1

- The length of a cricket pitch is specified as _____.
(A) 12 yards (B) 22 yards (C) 32 yards (D) 42 yards
- The first written 'Laws of Cricket' were drawn up in _____.
(A) 1714 (B) 1724 (C) 1734 (D) 1744
- In 1788 the _____ published its first revision of the laws and became the guardian of cricket's regulations.
(A) Calcutta Cricket Club (B) Marylebone Cricket Club
(C) Lord's Cricket Club (D) Melbourn Cricket Club
- Cricket's most important tools are all made of _____ pre-industrial materials.
(A) Synthetic (B) Artificial (C) Natural (D) Cotton
- The invention of vulcanised rubber led to the introduction of pads in 1848 and _____ soon afterwards.
(A) Protective gloves (B) Helmet (C) Shin guard (D) Chest guard
- The rich who could afford to play cricket for pleasure were called _____.
(A) Professionals (B) Amateurs (C) Rivals (D) Competitors
- Australian Cricket Dennis Lillie tried to play an innings with an _____ bat, only to have it outlawed by the umpires.
(A) Willow (B) Iron (C) Gold (D) Aluminium
- Amateurs tended to be _____ leaving the energetic, hardworking aspects of the game, to the professionals.
(A) Bowler (B) Fielders (C) Batsmen (D) Umpires
- In actual fact the Napoleonic wars were won because of the _____ contribution of iron works of Scotland and Wales, the mills of Lancashire and the financial houses in the city of London.
(A) Political (B) Economic (C) Social (D) Individual
- The pre-industrial oddness of cricket it a hard game to export. it took root only in countries that the _____ conquered and ruled.
(A) Japan (B) French (C) British (D) Dutch

SUBJECTIVE DPP - 7.2

Very Short Answer Type Questions:

- What were the earliest cricket bats of the same shape as hockey sticks?
- Where was the game of cricket represent?
- What did the game of cricket represent?
- Why where the rich who played cricket called amateurs?
- How did cricket become popular in the colonies?
- How were the professionals paid?
- Who started the World Series Cricket?
- What are qualities expected of a capital of a cricket team?
- What items does the sports curriculum of a 19th Century girls school tells us about the behavior considered proper for girl at that time?
- When the West Indies won its first test series against England in 1950, what were two remarkable features?

Short Answer Type Questions:

11. Describe one way in which, the 19 th century technology brought about a change in equipment and give one example where no change in equipment took place.
12. What important change occurred in the game of cricket during the 19 th century?
13. Why is cricket called a batsman's game?
14. "Cricket in colonial India was organized on the principle of race and religion". Elaborate.
15. How has cricket's equipment with the times and yet remained true of its village origins?
16. Mention the main provisions of the Cricketing Laws drawn of in 1744.
17. What were the differences between amateur's and professional?
18. 'The history of Gymkhana cricket led to first class cricket being organised on communal and racial lines. Explain
19. What innovations did Kerry Packer introduce which changed the nature of the game?
20. What changes in bowling have been pioneered by Pakistan and with what results?

Long Answer Type Questions:

21. Test Cricket is a unique game in many ways. Discuss some of the ways in which it is different from other games. How are the peculiarities of Test Cricket shaped by its historical beginnings as a village game?
22. How have advances in technology especially television technology affected the development of contemporary cricket?
23. What innovations did Kerry Packer introduce which changed the nature of the game?
24. "The Battle of Waterloo was won on the playing fields of Eton". Explain
25. What was the impact of decolonization on cricket?

ANSWER KEY

(Objective DPP 7.1)

Que.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Ans	B	D	B	C	A	B	D	C	B	B



CLOTHING : A SOCIAL HISTORY.



SL -08(H)

SUMPTUARY LAWS' & SOCIAL HIERARCHY

- (i) From about 1294 to the time of the French Revolution in 1789, the people of France were expected to strictly follow 'sumptuary laws' which tried to control the behaviour of those considered social inferiors, preventing them from wearing certain clothes, censuring certain foods and beverages and hunting game in certain areas. According to the 'sumptuary laws', only royalty could wear expensive materials like ermine and fur, or silk, velvet and brocade. Other classes were debarred from clothing the selves with materials that were associated with the aristocracy.
- (ii) The French Revolution ended these distinctions. From now on, both men and women began wearing clothing that was loose and comfortable. The colours of France – blue, white and red – became popular as they were sign of the patriotic citizen. Other political symbols too became a part of dress: the red cap of liberty, long rouses and the revolutionary cockade pinned on to a hat. The simplicity of clothing was meant to express the idea of equality.

CLOTHING AND NOTIONS OF BEAUTY

- (i) The end of sumptuary laws did not mean that everyone in European societies could now dress in the same way, differences between the social strata remained. The poor could not dress like the rich, nor eat the same food. But laws no longer barred people's right to dress in the way they wished. Differences in earning, rather than sumptuary laws, now defined what the rich and poor could wear. The notion of what was beautiful or ugly proper or improper, decent or vulgar differed,
- (ii) Styles of clothing emphasized differences between men and women in Victorian England were groomed from childhood to be docile and dutiful. Submissive and obedient. The ideal woman was one who could bear pain and suffering. While men were expected to be serious, strong, independent and aggressive, women were seen as frivolous, delicate, passive and docile. Norms of clothing reflected these ideals. From childhood, girls were tightly laced up and dressed in stays. The effort was to restrict the growth of their bodies, contain them within small moulds. When slightly older, girls had to wear tight fitting corsets. Tightly laced, small-wasted women were admired as attractive, elegant and graceful Clothing thus played a part in creating the image of frail, submissive Victorian women.

(a) How Did Women React to These Norms?

- (i) Many women believed in the ideals of womanhood. The ideals were in the air they breathed, the literature they read, the education they had received at school and at home.
- (ii) But not everyone accepted these values. By the 1830s, women in England began agitating for democratic rights. As the suffrage movement developed, many began campaigning for dress reform. Women's magazines described how tight dresses and corsets caused deformities and lines among young girls. Doctors reported that many women were regularly complaining of actual weakness, felt languid, and fainted frequently. Corsets then became necessary to hold up the weakened spine.
- (iii) In America, a similar movement developed amongst the white settlers on the east coast. Traditional feminine the position of women. If clothes were comfortable and convenient, then women could work,

earn their living and become independent. In the 1870s, the National Woman Suffrage Association headed by Mrs. Stanton, and the American Woman Suffrage Association dominated by Lucy Stone both campaigned for dress reform. The argument was: simplify dress, shorten skirts, and abandon corsets. On both sides of the Atlantic, there was now a movement for rational dress reform.

- (iv) The reformers did not immediately succeed in changing social values. They had to face ridicule and hostility. Conservatives everywhere opposed change. Faced with persistent attacks, many women reformers changed back into traditional clothes to conform to conventions.
- (v) By the end of the nineteenth century, however, change was clearly in the air. Ideals of beauty and styles of clothing were both transformed under a variety of pressures. People began accepting the ideas of reformers they had earlier ridiculed. With new times came new values.

NEW TIMES

Many changes were made possible in Britain due to the introduction of new materials and technologies. Other changes came about because of the two world wars and the new working conditions for women.

(a) New Materials:

- (i) After 1600, trade with India brought cheap, beautiful and easy - to - maintain Indian chintzes within the reach of many Europeans who could now increase the size of their wardrobes.
- (ii) During the industrial Revolution, in the nineteenth century, Britain began the mass manufacture of cotton textiles which became more accessible to a wider section of people in Europe. By the early twentieth century, artificial fibers made clothes cheaper still and easier to wash and maintain.
- (iii) In the late 1870s, heavy restrictive underclothes, which had created such a storm in the pages of women's magazines, were gradually discarded. Clothes got lighter, shorter and simpler.
- (iv) Yet until 1914, clothes were ankle length, as they had been since the thirteenth century. By 1915, however, the hemline of the skirt rose dramatically to mid-calf.

(b) The Wars:

Changes in women's clothing came about as a result of the two World Wars.

- (i) Many European women stopped wearing jewellery and luxurious clothes. As upper-class women mixed with other classes, social barriers were eroded and women began to look similar.
- (ii) Number of women workers multiplied fast. As a job, they wore a working uniform. Shorter skirts and trousers became common dresses for women.
- (iii) Bright colours faded; only sober colours were worn. Skirts became shorter. Soon trousers became a vital part of Western women's clothing; women took to cutting their hair short for convenience.
- (iv) By the twentieth century, a plain and austere style came to reflect seriousness and professionalism. New schools for children emphasized the importance of plain clothing. As women took to sports, they had to wear clothes that did not hamper movement. When they went out to work they needed clothes that were comfortable and convenient.

TRANSFORMATIONS IN COLONIAL INDIA

During colonial period there were significant changes in male and female clothing in India. This was a consequence of the influence of Western dress forms and missionary activity and due to the effort by Indians to fashion clothing styles that embodied and indigenous tradition symbols of the national movement. When western-style clothing came into India in the nineteenth century, Indians reacted in three different ways:

- (i) There was a section of society to whom western clothes were assigned, of modernity and progress. They adopted these dresses. There was another section of society, who found western style clothing as symbolic of liberation. Among these, the important ones were the dalits who had converted to Christianity.
- (ii) Another group of people were convinced that western culture would lead to a loss of traditional cultural identity. These people kept away from western clothes.

- (iii) Another group of people began to wear western clothes without giving up their Indian ones. They would wear western style clothes when out on work, and would go back to more comfortable Indian clothes when relaxing at home.

(a) Caste Conflict and Dress Change:

- (i) India had its own strict social codes of food and dress. The caste system clearly defined what subordinate and dominant cast Hindus should wear, eat, etc, and these codes had the force of law. Change in clothing styles that threatened these norms therefore often created violent social reactions.
- (ii) The Shoiners (also called Nadirs) were a community of toddy tappers who migrated to southern Travancore to work under Nair Landlords. As they were considered a 'subordinate caste', they were prohibited from using umbrellas and wearing shoes or golden ornaments. Men and women were also expected to follow the local custom of never covering their upper bodies before the upper castes.
- (iii) Under the influence of Christian missions, Shanar women converts began in the 1820s to wear tailored blouses and cloths to cover themselves like the upper castes. Soon Nairs attacked these women. Complaints were also filed in court against this dress change.
- (iv) At first, the Government of Travancore issued a proclamation in 1829 ordering Shanar women 'to abstain in future from covering the upper parts of the body'. But this did not prevent Shanar Christian women, and even Shanar Hindus, from adopting the blouse and upper cloth.
- (v) The abolition of slavery in Travancore in 1855 led to even more frustration among the upper castes who felt them losing control. In October 1859, riots broke out as Shanar women were attacked in the market place and stripped of their upper cloths. Houses were looted and chapels burned. Finally, the government issued another proclamation permitting Shanar women, whether Christian and Hindu, to wear a jacket, or cover their upper bodies 'in any manner whatever, but not like the women of high caste'.

(b) British Rule and Dress Codes:

In different cultures, specific items of clothing often convey meanings. This frequently leads to misunderstanding and conflict. Styles of clothing in British India changed through such conflicts.

- (i) When European traders first began frequenting India, they were distinguished from the Indian 'turban wearers' as the 'hat wearers.' These two headgears not only looked different, they also signified different things. The turban in India was not just for protection from the heat but was a sign of respectability, and could not be removed at will. In the Western tradition, the hat had to be removed before social superiors as a sign of respect. This cultural difference created misunderstanding. The British were often offended if Indians did not take off their turban when they met colonial officials. Many Indians on the other hand wore the turban to consciously assert their regional or national identity.
- (ii) Another such conflict related to the wearing of shoes. At the beginning of the nineteenth century, it was customary for British officials to follow Indian etiquette and remove their footwear. In the courts of ruling kings or chiefs. In 1824-1828, Governor-General Amherst insisted that Indians take their shoes off as a sign of respect when they appeared before him, but this was not strictly followed. By the mid-nineteenth century, when Lord Dalhousie was Governor General, 'shoe respect' was made stricter, and Indians were made to take off their shoes when entering any government institution; only those who wore European clothes were exempted from this rule. Many Indian government servants were increasingly getting uncomfortable with these rules.

"Women in nineteenth century India were obliged to continue wearing traditional Indian dress even when men switched over to the more convenient Western clothing."

It is doubtful if men changed over to western dresses out of reasons of convenience. They changed over to western dresses for different reasons. And these reasons were not applicable to women.

- (i) Men had to go out to work and interact with their western bosses and native subordinates. These men would wear western clothes to please their western bosses and carry favour with them; and to show off their borrowed authority to their subordinates. The women had not to go for work. There was no need for them to change to new dress.

- (ii) Social interactions of women were limited to closed family gatherings. They were more comfortable in their own traditional dresses.
- (iii) Western dresses were not easily available, and these were costly. It is obvious that women were stay-at-home type, had little say in out-the-home affairs, and were conservative and little responsive to changes.

DESIGNING THE NATIONAL DRESS

- (i) As nationalist feelings swept across India by the late nineteenth century; Indians began devising cultural symbols that would express the unity of the nation.
- (ii) The Tagore family of Bengal experimented, beginning in the 1870s, with designs for a national dress for both men and women in India. Rabindranath Tagore suggested that instead of combining Indian and European dress, India's national dress should combine elements of Hindu and Muslim dress. Thus the chapkan (a long buttoned coat) was considered the most suitable dress suitable dress for men.
- (iii) In the late 1870s, Janandanadini Devi, wife of Satyendranath Tagore, the first Indian member of the ICS, returned from Bombay to Calcutta. She adopted the Parsi style of wearing the sari pinned to the left shoulder with a brooch, and worn with a blouse and shoes. This was quickly adopted by Brahmo Samaji women and came to be known as the Brahmika sari. This style gained acceptance before long among Maharashtra and Uttar Pradesh Brahmos, as well as non-Brahmos.
- (iv) Women of Gujarat, Kogadu, Kerala and Assam continue to wear different types of sari.

(a) The Swadeshi Movement:

- (i) India accounted for one-fourth of the world's manufactured goods in the seventeenth century. There were a million weavers in Bengal alone in the middle of the eighteenth century.
- (ii) The Industrial Revolution in Britain, which mechanized spinning and weaving and greatly increased the demand for raw materials such as cotton and indigo, changed India's status in the world economy.
- (iii) Political control of India helped the British in two ways: Indian peasants could be forced to grow crops such as indigo, and cheap British manufacture easily replaced coarser Indian one. Large numbers of Indian weavers and spinners were left without work, and important textile weaving centers such as Muslimabad, Machilipatnam and Surat declined as demand fell.
- (iv) In the middle of the 20th century, large numbers of people began boycotting British or mill-made cloth and adopting khadi, even though it was coarser, more expensive and difficult to obtain.
- (v) The Swadeshi movement developed in reaction to this measure. People were urged to boycott British goods of all kinds and start their own industries for the manufacture of goods such as matchboxes and cigarettes. Mass protests followed, with people vowing to cleanse themselves of colonial rule. The use of khadi was a patriotic duty.
- (vi) The change of dress appeared largely to the upper castes and classes rather than to those who had to make do with less and could not afford the new products.
- (vii) Though many people called to the cause of nationalism at this time, it was almost impossible to compete with cheap British goods that had flooded the market.
- (viii) The experiment with Swadeshi gave Mahatma Gandhi important ideas about using cloth as a symbolic weapon against British rule.

(b) Mahatma Gandhi's Experiments with clothing:

Mahatma Gandhi made spinning on the charkha and the daily use of khadi, or coarse cloth made from homespun yarn, very powerful symbols. These were not symbols of self-reliance but also of resistance to the use of British mill-made cloth.

- (i) As a young boy, Mahatma Gandhi wore a shirt with a dhoti or pajama and sometimes a coat. When he went to study law in London he dressed in western suits so he would not be laughed at.
- (ii) Deciding that dressing 'unsuitably' was a popular political segment; Gandhi appeared in Durban in 1913 clad in a lungi and Kuna. He also shaved his head as a sign of mourning to protest against the shooting of Indian coal miners.

- (iii) In 1915, he decided to dress like a Kahiawadi peasant. In 1921, he decided to adopt the short dhoti, a form of dress he wore till his death.
- (iv) He consciously rejected the well-known cloths of the Indian ascetic and adopted the dress of the poorest Indian.
- (v) Khadi to him was a sign of purity, simplicity and poverty. Wearing it became a symbol of nationalism and a rejection of western mill-made cloth.
- (vi) He wore the short dhoti without a shirt when he went to England for the Round Table Conference in 1931. He refused to compromise and wore it even before King George V at Buckingham Palace.

(c) Nor All could Wear Khadi

Mahatma Gandhi's dream was to clothe the whole nation in khadi. Though he succeeded using khadi as a source to inspire the Indian people but there were many different opinions.

- (i) The British machine made clothes were much cheaper as compared to khadi. Poverty rate was very high in India, so most of the poor started adopting foreign clothes.
- (ii) The wealthy Parsi's of western India were among the first to adapt Western-style clothing because western clothes were a sign of modernity and progress.
- (iii) Though Moti Lal Nehru gave up his expensive Western-style suits and adopted the Indian dhoti and kurta but these were not made up of coarse material as suggested by Gandhiji.
- (iv) As the caste system in India was very rigid and western dress style was for all, so many people adopted it for self-respect and equality.

EXERCISE

OBJECTIVE DPP-8.1

1. According to sumptuary laws in France, only _____ could wear expensive materials like ermine & fur, or silk, velvet & brocade.
(A) Clergy (B) Royalty (C) Common people (D) Women
2. In England from childhood, girls were tightly laced up dressed in stays. When slightly older, girls had to wear tight fitting _____.
(A) Jeans (B) Skirts (C) Corsets (D) Shirts
3. By the 1930's women in England began agitating for democratic right. As the _____ movement developed, many began campaigning for dress reform.
(A) Social (B) Religious (C) Democratic (D) Suffrage
4. If clothes were _____ then women could work, earn their living and become independent.
(A) Tight and smartly stitched (B) Uncomfortable
(C) Short with laces (D) Comfortable and convenient
5. By the end of the 19th century, however, change was clearly in the air. People began accepting the ideas of _____ they had earlier ridiculed. With new times came new values.
(A) Capitalists (B) Socialists (C) Conservatives (D) Reformers
6. After 1600, trade with India brought cheap, beautiful and easy to maintain Indian _____ within the reach of many Europeans who could now increase the size of their wares.
(A) Cotton (B) Silk (C) Chinizes (D) Jute
7. Changes in women's clothing came about as a result of the _____.
(A) Two world wars (B) American Revolution (C) Russian Revolution (D) Aluminium Revolution
8. During the First World War clothes became plainer and simpler. Skirts became shorter. Soon _____ became a vital part of western women's clothing, giving them greater freedom of movement.
(A) Skirt (B) Trousers (C) Corsets (D) Short Shirts

9. During the Industrial Revolution, in the 19 th century, Britain began the mass manufacture_____ of textiles which it exported to many parts of the world, including India.
 (A) Cotton (B) Silk (C) Linen (D) Synthetic fiber
10. By the twentieth century, a _____ style came to reflect seriousness and professionalism.
 (A) Luxurious (B) Traditional (C) Modern (D) Plain & Austere

SUBJECTIVE DPP - 8 .2

Very Short Answer Type Questions:

1. What were the sumptuary laws in France?
2. How did the social hierarchy influence the clothing pattern in France?
3. What was the impact of the France Revolution on the clothes? What political significance did it have?
4. Why were the traditional feminine clothes criticized in the 1830's in England?
5. Why were the traditional feminine clothes criticized in America?
6. What was the movement for Rational Dress Reform?
7. What where the suggestion made by Rabindranath Tagore about Indian dresses?
8. What was the Brahmika sari?
9. What is Gandhian Cap?
10. What was peta, fez and Chapkan?

Short Answer Type Questions:

11. Did everyone begin to dress alike after the French Revolution? Why or not?
12. Did the Victorian women accept this clothing code without protest?
13. Explain the reasons for the changes in clothing patterns and materials in the eighteenth century.
14. How did change in clothing after the Franc Revolution express the idea of quality?
15. How did styles of clothing emphasis differences between men and women?
16. Clothing played a part in creating the image of frail, submissive Victorian women". Explain.
17. Did the Victorian women accept this clothing code without protest?
18. How did the clothing pattern change for the western women in the 20 th century?
19. How did Indians react to western style clothing?
20. How did the British rule affect the Indian textile industry?

Long Answer Type Questions:

21. Give any two examples of the ways in which European dress codes were different from Indian dress codes?
22. Suggest reasons why women in 19 th century India were obliged to continue wearing traditional Indian dress even when man switched over to the more convenient Western clothing . what does this show about the position of women in India?
23. Why did Mahatma Gandhi's dream of clothing the nation in khadi appeal only to some sections of society?
24. How did Indians react to the introduction of western clothes in 19 th century India?

ANSWER KEY

(Objective DPP 8.1)

Que.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Ans	B	C	D	D	D	C	A	B	A	D



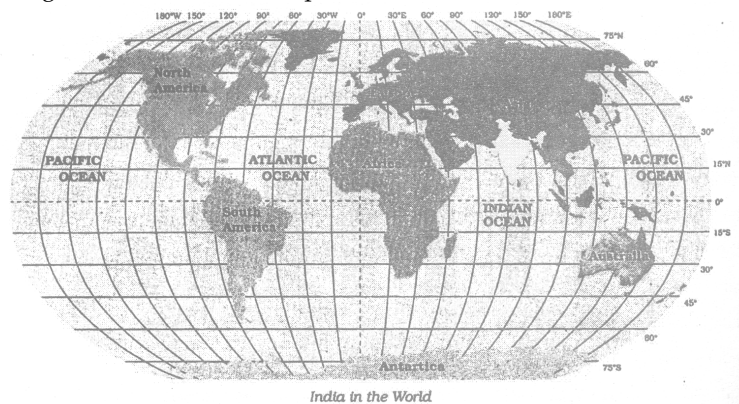
INDIA: SIZE AND LOCATION



SL - 01 (G)

LOCATION

India is a vast country. LYING ENTIRELY IN THE Northern hemisphere the main land extends between latitudes $8^{\circ}4'$ N and $37^{\circ}6'$ and longitudes $68^{\circ}7'$ E $97^{\circ}25'$ E. the Tropic of Cancer ($23^{\circ}30'N$) divides the country into almost two equal parts. To the southeast and southwest of the mainland, lie the Andaman and Nicobar islands in Bay of Bengal and the Lakshadweep islands in the Arabian Sea.



SIZE

the land mass of India has an area of 3.28 million square km. India's total areas accounts for about 2.4 per cent of the total geographical area of the world. India is the seventh largest country of the world. India has a land boundary of about 15200 km and the total length of the coast line of the mainland including Andaman and Nicobar and Lakshadweep is 7516.6 km.

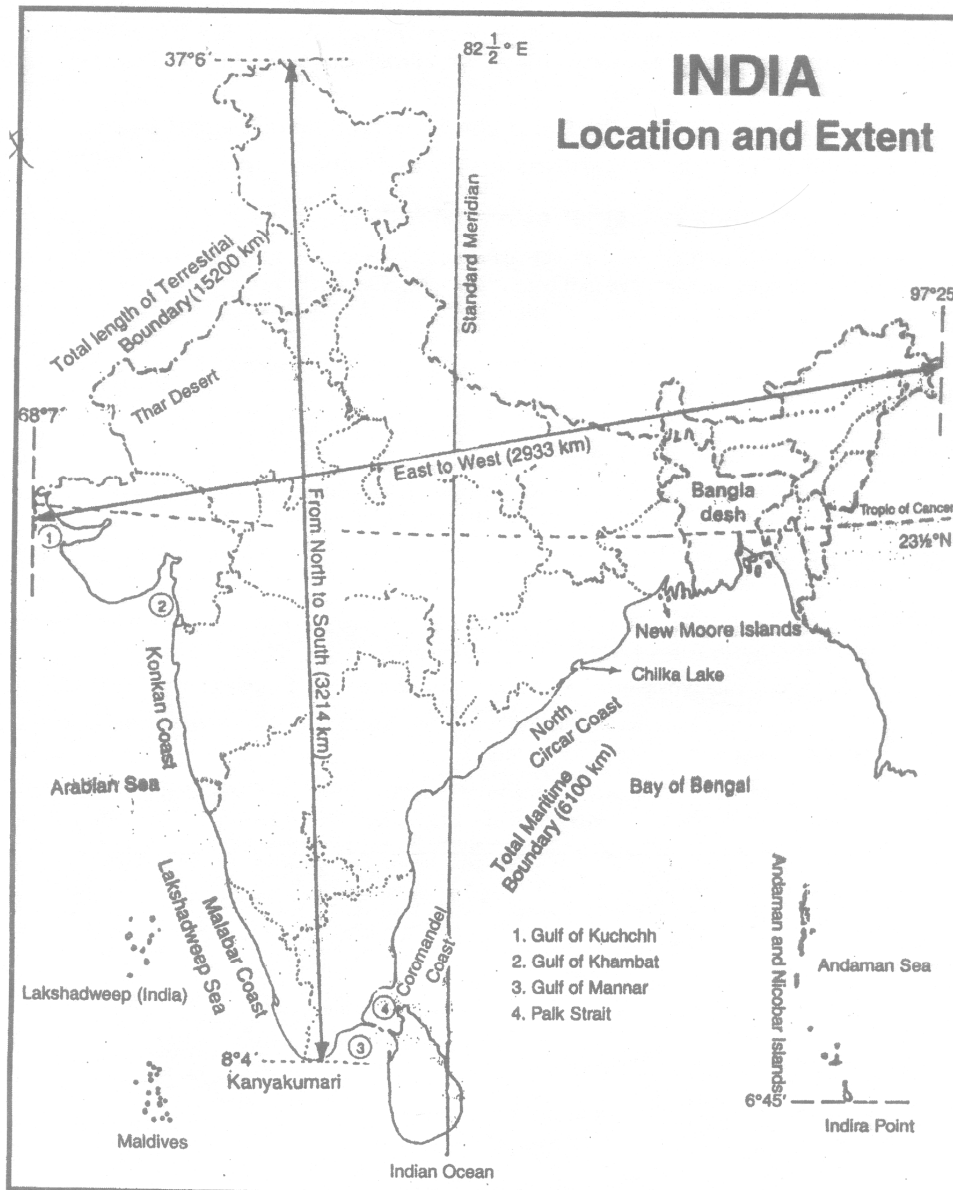
(a) India has a distinct physical and cultural identity:

Notwithstanding wide diversity, the Indian society has fostered unity and homogeneity. To a large extent this unity and homogeneity has been promoted by the geographical features of the country.

- (i) On its north, India is bounded by lofty mountains. These mountains run east-west for thousands of kilometers. These provide a natural wall against all possible intrusions.
- (ii) On the south, India is surrounded by the seas and the ocean from three sides. It means, the land is protected from outside intrusions.

Theses geographical features have ensured that:

- (i) people from outside could come only through well-defined routes, whether by sea or through passes in mountains.
- (ii) People who came from outside brought with them their cultural elements. these elements came to be assimilated in Indian culture.
- (iii) Indian society adapted itself to the new norms.
- (iv) Thus, by adopting new norms and values and accepting them as their own, unity and homogeneity came to 'be promoted.



Location and Extent of India.

(b) "The north-south extent of India is larger than its east-west extent even though the country's latitudinal and longitudinal extent in degrees is of the same value."

The north-south distance between two successive latitudes remains the same or constant, and it is 3214 km in this case. But the east-west distance between the two successive longitudes goes on progressively decreasing from the equator to the poles. This is because all the meridians merge into a single point at the poles. In India the maximum east-west extent therefore is much less than km. it is 2933 km only.

(c) Impact of the longitudinal extent of India:

The earth takes 24 hours to complete one rotation (360°) about its axis. It means the earth rotates at the pace of 15 per hour (360° / 24). As the longitudinal extent of India is about 30° longitude the time lag between easternmost and westernmost points of India is of two hours. When it is 6.00 a.m. at eastern

extremity of India it is still 4.00 a.m. at the westernmost point of India. To avoid this time confusion, time along the Standard Meridian of India (82° 30'E) passing through Mizapur (in Uttar Pradesh) is taken as the standard time for the whole country. the latitude with an odd value of 82° 30'E has been selected as the Standard Meridian of India as –

- (i) It is well divisible by 7 o 30', a standard adopted by almost all the countries of the world.
- (ii) It lies almost in the middle of India, and as such, it suits us the most.

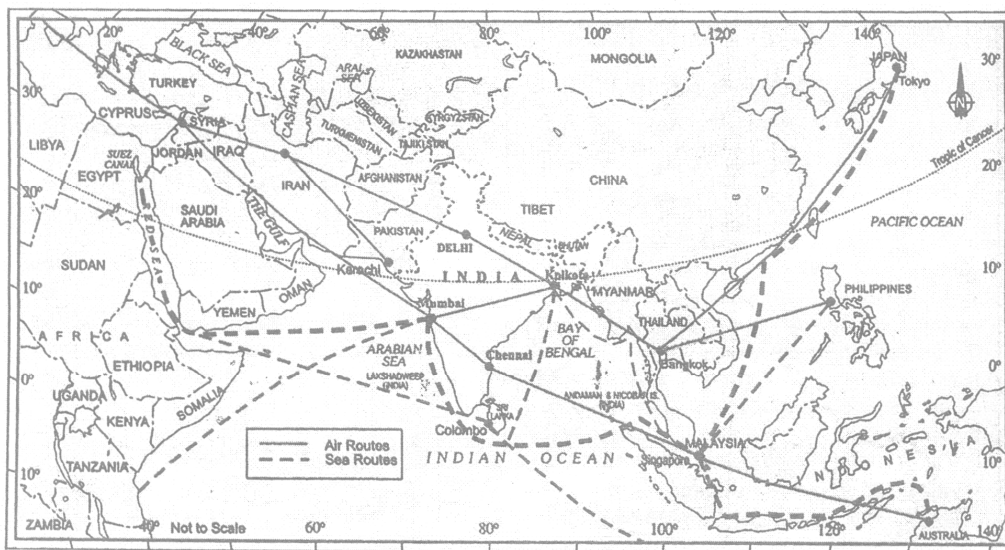
(d) Impact of the Latitudinal extent of India:

Kanyakumari is situated near Equator. here days and nights are almost equal, the maximum difference is 45 minutes only. but as we move farther towards north or south of the Equator, the difference between the length of the day and night becomes progressively larger. in north Kashmir it is as much as 5 hours, as it is far away from the equator.

INDIA AND THE WORLD

(a) Significance of India's Location:

- (i) Very thickly populated parts of the world such as China, Japan and Southeast Asia lie very close to India. This has helped in developing trade and other relations with them.
- (ii) The oil rich countries of the Persian Gulf not far from us. we receive bulk of our supplies from them.
- (iii) Being at the head of the Indian Ocean, the country occupies a strategic position and commercially favorable location in respect of Africa, Asia Australia.
- (iv) The Suez sea-route provides us the shortest route to industrial Europe and America.
- (v) The busy air-routes pass through India, connecting east, South East Asia and Australia on the one hand and Europe and America on the other.
- (vi) The third largest ocean in the world came to be known as the Indian Ocean because the subcontinent of India stands at the head of this ocean. India was the favorite destination of the traders of the world.



Indian on International Highway of Trade and Commerce

(b) India's Contacts with the outside World in Ancient and Medieval Times:

India belongs to the Eastern Hemisphere, which contains the oriental world. In ancient times, the sea played an important role in determining the nature of interaction. The central location of India at the head of the Indian Ocean was of great advantage. Countries of East Africa, West Asia, South and South-East

Asia, and East Asia could be reached through sea routes. Hence, India established close cultural and commercial contacts with these countries.

India's contacts with the outside world have continued through the ages:

- (i) The exchanges of ideas and commodities dates back to the ancient times.
- (ii) The ideas of the Upanishads, and the Ramayana, the stories of Panchatantras, the Indian numerals and the decimal system could reach many parts of the world.
- (iii) The spices, muslin and other Indian goods were taken to different countries.]
- (iv) The influence of Greek sculpture, and the architectural styles of dome and minarets from West Asia can be seen in India.

INDIA'S NEIGHBOURS

To the north of India are China, Nepal and Bhutan, and to the east, Bangladesh and Myanmar, to the west and northwest are Pakistan and Afghanistan. In the south, separated from India by the Palk Strait, lies the island country of Sri Lanka. To the south of Lakshadweep lies Maldives, Not far the Andaman and Nicobar islands lie our closest South-East Asian neighbours: Indonesia, Malaysia and Thailand.



India and Adjacent Countries

(a) The Indian Subcontinent:

India is called a subcontinent because of its vastness and distinct physical and cultural identity. The countries that form the Indian subcontinent are Pakistan in the northwest, India at the core, Nepal in the north, Bhutan in the northeast and Bangladesh in the east.

SOME INTERESTING KNOWLEDGE

(i) The southernmost point of the Indian Union - 'Indira Point' got submerged under the sea water in 2004 during the Tsunami.

(ii) Since the opening of the Suez Canal in 1869, India's distance from Europe has been reduced by 7000 km.

(iii) Before 1947, there were two types of states in India - the provinces and the princely states. Provinces were ruled directly by British officials who were appointed by the Viceroy. Princely states were ruled by local, hereditary rulers, who acknowledged sovereignty in return for local autonomy.

EXERCISE

OBJECTIVE DPP- 1 .1

- The tropic of Cancer does not pass through -
(A) Rajasthan (B) Orissa (C) Chhattisgarh (D) Tripura
- The easternmost longitude of India is -
(A) 97°25'E (B) 68°7'E (C) 77°6'E (D) 82°32'E
- What per cent of the world's land area is with India?
(A) 0.42% (B) 1.42% (C) 2.42% (D) 3.42%
- What is the length of the land boundary of India?
(A) 5200km (B) 15200km (C) 45200 km (D) 52000km
- Name the parallel of latitude which divides India into almost two equal parts.
(A) Tropic of Cancer (B) Tropic of Capricorn (C) Equator (D) Arctic Circle
- Uttaranchal, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, West Bengal and Sikkim have common frontiers with -
(A) China (B) Bhutan (C) Nepal (D) Myanmar
- If you intend to visit Kavarati during your summer vacations, which one of the following Union Territories of India you will be going to
(A) Pondicherry (B) Lakshadweep
(C) Andaman and Nicobar (D) Diu and Daman
- My friend hails from a country which does not share land boundary with India. Identify the country.
(A) Bhutan (B) Tajakistan (C) Bangladesh (D) Nepal
- Name the group of islands lying in the Arabian Sea.
(A) Andaman and Nicobar (B) Lakshadweep
(C) New Moore (D) None of these
- Which of the following country is not larger than India?
(A) Russia (B) USA (C) China (D) France
- Which island group of India lies to its southeast?
(A) Andaman And Nicobar (B) Lakshadweep
(C) Both of these (D) None of these
- Which Longitude represents the Standard Meridian of India?
(A) 97°25'E (B) 8° 7'E (C) 82°30'E (D) None of these

SUBJECTIVE DPP - 1.2

Very Short Answer Type Questions:

1. Which is the southernmost tip of Indian Union?
2. What are the degrees of latitude of the northern extremity of India?
3. Which island group of India lies to its southwest?
4. What is the north-south and east-west distance of India?
5. What is the total length of the coast line of the mainland of India including its islands?
6. Name the two routes by which India is connected with Europe, North America and South America.

Short Answer Type Questions:

7. What is the longitudinal and latitudinal extension of India? What is its importance?
8. Latitudinal and longitudinal extent of India is about 30°. Then why is North-south extent bigger than East-west extent ?
9. Why we have selected a standard meridian with an odd value of 82° 30' E?
10. The sun rises two hours earlier in Arunachal Pradesh as compared to Gujarat in the west but the watches show the same time. How does this happen?
11. Why the difference between the duration of day and night hardly felt at Kanyakumari but not so in Kashmir ?
12. What is the total land of India? Which countries of the world are bigger than India ?

Long Answer Type Questions:

13. What is the significance of India's location?
14. Describe how geographical features of India have fostered unity and homogeneity in the Indian society.
15. Give a brief account of India's contacts with the outside world in ancient and medieval times.

ANSWER KEY

(Objective DPP 1.1)

Que.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Ans	B	A	C	B	A	C	B	B	B	D	A	A



PHYSICAL FEATURES OF INDIA

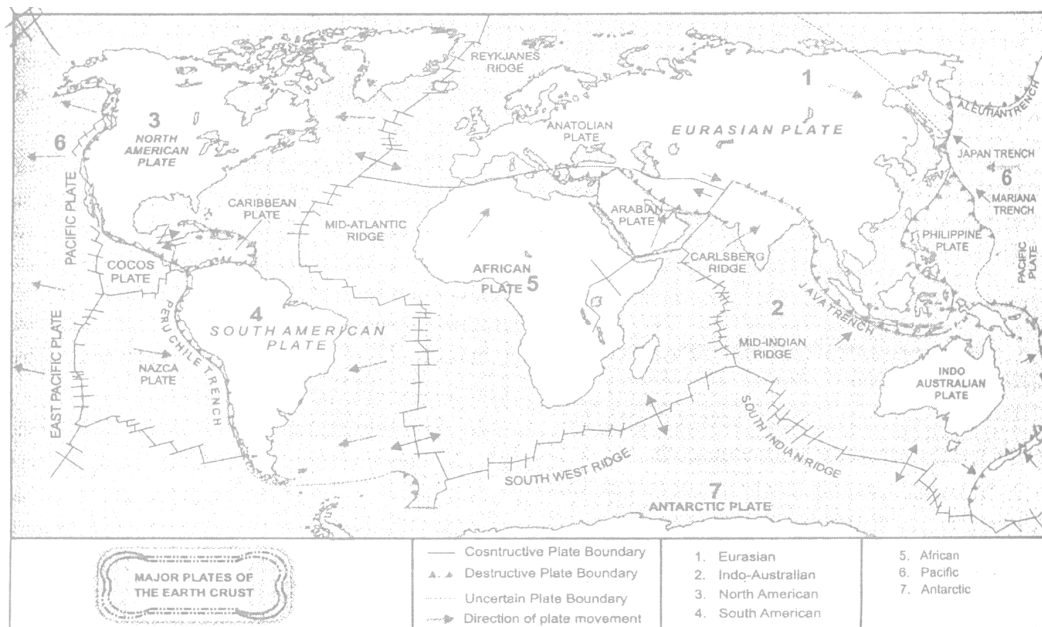


SL -02 (G)

THEORY OF PLATE TECTONIC

Our Country has practically all major physical features of the earth i.e. mountains, plains, deserts, plateaus and islands. India is a large landmass formed during different geological periods which has influenced her roller. Besides geological formations, a number of processes such as weathering, erosion and deposition have created and modified the relief to its present form.

earth scientists have attempted to explain the formation of physical features with the help of "Theory of Plate Tectonics". According to this theory, the crust (upper part) of the earth has been formed out of seven major and some minor plates.



The movement of the plates results in the building of stresses within the plates and the continental rocks above, leading to folding, fracturing and volcanic activity. broadly, these plate movements are classified into three types.

- (i) While some plates come towards each other form convergent boundary. in the event of two plates coming together they may either collide and crumble, or one may slide under the other.
- (ii) Some plates move away from each other and form divergent boundary.
- (iii) At times, they may also move horizontally past each other and form transform boundary.

The movement of these plates has changed the position and size of the continents over millions of years. such movements have also influenced the evolution of the present landform features relief of India.

(a) Formation of Himalayas:

The convectional currents split the crust into a number of pieces, thus leading to the drifting of the Indo-Australian after being separated from the Gondwana land, towards north. The northward drift resulted in the collision of the plate with much larger Eurasian plate. Due to this collision, the sedimentary rocks which were accumulated in the geosynclines known as the Tethys were folded to form the mountain system of Western Asia and Himalaya.

(b) Formation of Northern plains:

The Himalayan uplift out of the Tethys Sea and subsidence of the northern flank of the peninsular plateau resulted in the formation of a large basin. In due course of time this depression, gradually got filled with deposition of sediments by the rivers flowing from the mountains in the north and the peninsular plateau in the south. A flat land of extensive alluvial deposits led to the formation of the northern plains of India.

(c) "The land of India displays great physical variation." :

(i) Geologically, the Peninsular Plateau constitutes one of the ancient landmasses on the earth's surface. It was supposed to be one of the most stable land blocks. The peninsular plateau is composed of igneous and metamorphic rocks with gently rising hills and wide valleys.

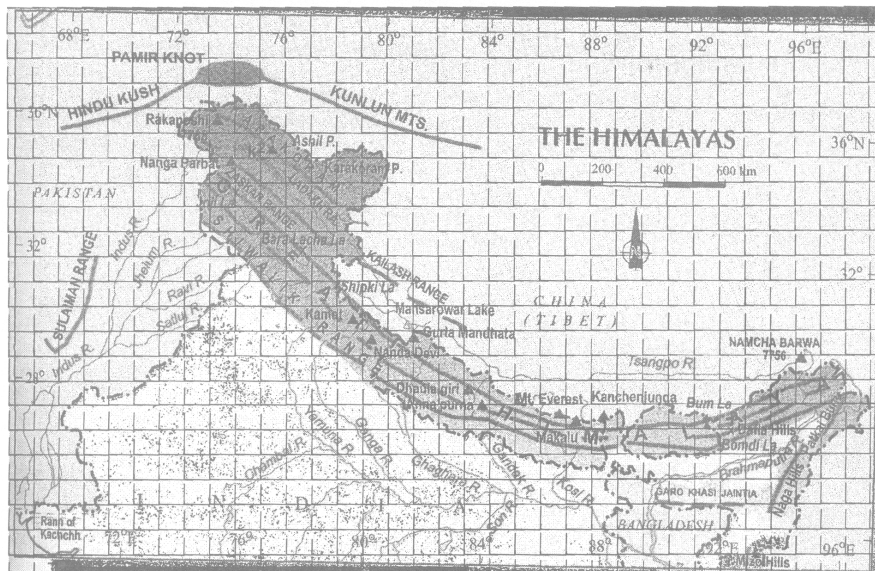
(ii) The Himalayas and the Northern Plains are the most recent landforms. From the view point of geology, Himalayan Mountains form an unstable zone. The whole mountain system of Himalayas represents a very youthful topography with peaks, deep valleys and fast flowing rivers.

(iii) The northern plains are formed of alluvial deposits.

MAJOR PHYSIOGRAPHIC DIVISION

(a) The Himalayan Mountains:

The Himalayas, geologically young and structurally fold mountains stretch over the Northern borders of India. These mountain ranges run in a west-east direction from the Indus to the Brahmaputra. They form an arc, which covers a distance of about 2,400km. Their width varies from 400km in Kashmir to 150 km in Arunachal Pradesh. The altitudinal variations are greater in the eastern half than those in the western half.



The Latitudinal parallel ranges of Himalayas:

(i) The northern most range is known as the Great or inner Himalayas or the 'Himadri'. It is the most continuous range consisting of the loftiest peaks with an average height of 6,000 meters. It contains all the prominent Himalayas peaks. The core of this part of Himalayas is composed of granite. It is perennially snow bound, and a number of glaciers descend from this range.

(ii) The range lying to the south of the Himadri forms the most rugged mountain system and is known as Himachal or lesser Himalaya. The ranges are mainly composed of highly compressed and altered rocks. The altitude varies between 3700 and 4500 meters and the average width is 50 km. The prominent ranges over here are Pir Panjal, Dhauladhar and Mahabharata ranges. This range consists of the famous valley of Kashmir, the Kangra and Kullu Valley in Himachal Pradesh. This region is well known for its hill stations.

(iii) The outer most range of the Himalayas is called the Shiwaliks. They extend over a width of 10-50 km and have an altitude varying between 900 and 1100 meters. These ranges are composed of unconsolidated sediments brought down by rivers from the main Himalayan ranges located farther north. These valleys are covered with thick gravel and alluvium.

The longitudinal valley lying between lesser Himalaya and the Shiwaliks are known as Duns. Dehra Dun, Kotli Dun and Patli Dun are some of the well-known Duns.

Division of Himalayas on the basis of regions from west to east:

These divisions have been demarcated by river valleys.

- (i) The part of Himalayas lying between Indus and Satluj has been traditionally known as Punjab Himalaya, also known regionally as Kashmir and Himachal Himalaya from west to east respectively.
- (ii) The part of the Himalayas lying between Satluj and Kali rivers is known as Kumaon Himalayas.
- (iii) The Kali and Tista rivers demarcate the Nepal Himalayas.
- (iv) The part lying between Tista and Dihang rivers is known as Assam Himalayas.

Purvanchal or the Eastern hills and mountains:

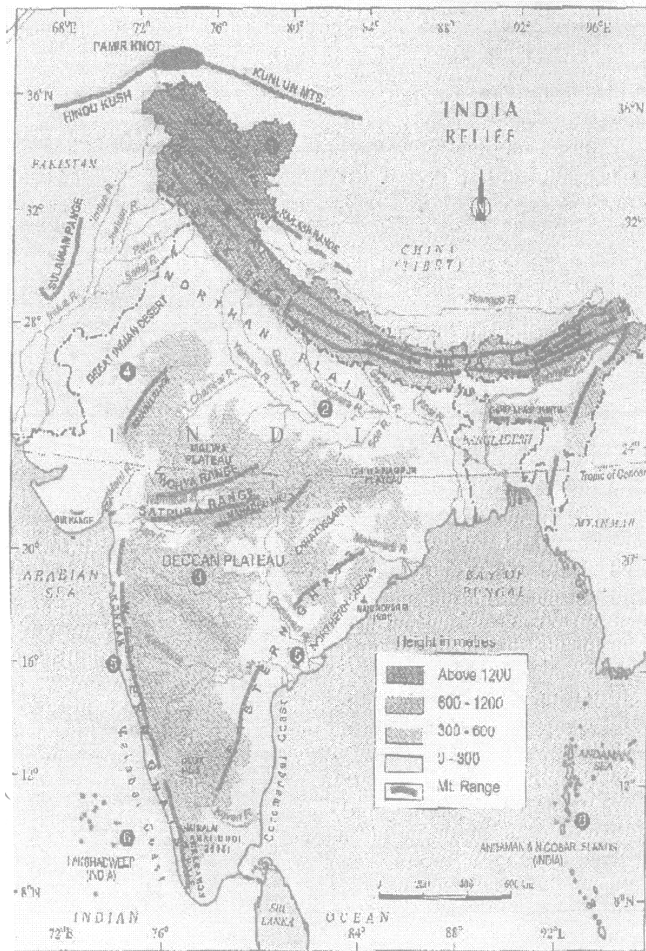
Beyond the Dihang gorge, the Himalayas bend sharply to the south and spread along the eastern boundary of India. They are known as the Purvanchal or the Eastern hills and mountains. These hills running through the northeastern states are mostly composed of strong sandstones which are sedimentary rocks. Covered with dense forests, they mostly run as parallel ranges and valleys. The Purvanchal comprises the Patkai hills, the Naga hills, Manipur hills and the Mizo hills.

(b) The Northern Plains:

The Northern plain has been formed by the interplay of the three major river systems, namely - the Indus, the Ganga and the Brahmaputra along with their tributaries. This plain is formed of alluvial soil. It spreads over an area of 7 lakh sq. km. The plain being about 2400 km long and 240 to 320 km broad, is a densely populated physiographic division. With a rich soil cover combined with adequate water supply and favorable climate it is agriculturally a very productive part of India. The rivers coming from northern mountains are involved in depositional work. In the lower course, due to gentle slope, the velocity of the river decreases which results in the formation of riverine islands. The rivers in their lower course split into numerous channels due to the deposition of silt. These channels are known as distributaries.

Divisions of Northern Plains:

- (i) Punjab Plains: The western part of the Northern Plain, is formed by the Indus and her tributaries, the larger part of this plain lies in Pakistan. The Indus and its tributaries - the Jhelum, the Chenab, the Ravi, the Beas and the Satluj originate in the Himalaya. This section of the plain is dominated by the doabs.
- (ii) Ganga Plain: Extends between Ghaggar and Tista rivers. It is spread over the states of north India, Haryana, Delhi, U.P., Bihar, Jharkhand and West Bengal.
- (iii) Brahmaputra Plain: Lies in the east of Ganga plain, particularly in Assam.



Divisions of Northern Plains on the basis of relief features :

- (i) The rivers, after descending from the mountains deposit pebbles in a narrow belt of about 8 to 16 km in width lying parallel to the slopes of the Shiwaliks. It is known as bhabar. All the streams disappear in this bhabar belt.
- (ii) South of bhabar belt, the streams and rivers reemerge and create a wet, swampy and marshy region known as terai. This was a thickly forested land full of wildlife. The forests have been cleared to create agricultural land and to settle migrants from Pakistan after partition.
- (iii) The largest part of the northern plain is formed of older alluvium. They lie above the flood plains of the rivers and present a terrace like feature. This part is known as bhangar. The soil in this region contains calcareous deposits locally known as kankar.
- (iv) The newer, younger deposits of the flood plains are called khaddar, They are renewed almost every year and so are fertile, thus, ideal for intensive agriculture.

	Bhangar	Khaddar
1	Old alluviam	New alluviam
2	Is always above the level of the flood pains	Is finer, more sandy & free from kanker modules
3	Flood plains	more fertile
4	Found away from the river-bed	found near river channels in deltas & floud
5	clayey & dark	sandy & light in colour

(C) The peninsular plateau :

The Peninsular Plateau is a tableland composed of the old crystalline, igneous and metamorphic rocks. It was formed due to the breaking and drifting of the Gondwana land and thus, making it a part of the oldest landmass. The plateau has broad and shallow valleys and rounded hills. One of the distinct features of the peninsular plateau is the black soil area known as Deccan Trap. This is of volcanic origin hence the rocks are igneous. Actually these rocks have denuded over time and are responsible for the formation of black soil. The Aravali Hills lie on the western and northwestern margins of the peninsular plateau. These are highly eroded hills and are found as broken hills. They extend from Gujarat to Delhi in a southwest-northwest direction .

The Central Highlands:

The part of the Peninsular plateau lying to the north of the Narmada river covering a major area of the Malwa plateau is known as the Central Highlands. The Vindhayan range is bonded by the Central Highlands on the south and the Aravallis on the northwest. The further westward extension gradually merges with the sandy and rocky desert of Rajasthan. The flow of the river draining this region, namely the Chambal, the Sind , the Betwa and Ken is from southwest to northeast, thus indicating the slope. The Center Highlands are wider in the west but narrower in the east. The eastward extensions of this plateau are locally known as the Bundelkhand and Beghelkhand . The Chotanagpur plateau marks the further eastward extension drained by the Damodar river .

The Deccan Plateau :

The Deccan Plateau is a triangular landmass that lies to the south of the river Narmada . The Satpura range flanks its broad base in the north while the Mahadev , the Kaimur hills and the Maikal range form its eastern extension. The Deccan Plateau is higher in the west and slopes gently eastwards.

The Northwestern Plateau :

The Northeast plateau is an extension of the Deccan Plateau in the northeast -locally known as the Meghalaya and Kabi-Anglong Plateau. It is separated by a fault from the Chotanagpur Plateau. Three Prominent hill ranges from the west to east are the Garo, he Khasi and the Jaintia Hills.

	Western Ghats	Eastern Ghats
1	Runs parallel to western coast & forms the western of deccan plateau	Runs parallel to the eastern coast , stretch from the Mahanadi Valley to the Nilgiris in the south
2	Are higher , average height 900-1600 metres	Lower than western ghats, average height 600 metres.
3	Are like a continuous wall can be crossed through passes only (Thal ghat, Borg hat and Pal ghat)	Are discontinuous & irregular, have been dissected by rivers draining into the Bay of Bengal.
4	Is the source of many large rivers for e.g. Godavri, Krishna and Kaveri	No big river originates from here.
5	Causes orographic rain by facing the rain bearing moist winds to rise along the western slopes of the Ghats	Receives rainfall only in winter season though the North-eastern monsoon.
6	The height of the Western Ghats progressively increases from north to south. Highest peaks include the Anai Mudi (2695 mt.) and the Doda Betta (2637 mt.)	Mahendragiri (1501 mt.) is the highest peak in the Eastern Ghats . Shevaroy Hills and the Javadi Hills are located to the southeast of the Eastern Ghats.

(d)the Indian Desert :

To the northwest of the Aravalli hills lies the Great Indian Desert. It is a land of undulating topography dotted with longitudinal dunes and barchans. This region receives low rainfall below 150 mm per year ; hence, it has arid climate with low vegetation cover. It is because of these characteristic features that this is also known as Marusthali. Though the underlying rock structure of the desert is an extension of the peninsular plateau, yet due to extreme arid conditions, its surface features have been carved by physical weathering and wind actions. Some of the well renowned desert land features present have are mushroom rocks, shifting dunes and oasis mostly in its southern part). On the basis of the orientation , the desert

can be divided into two parts : the northern part is sloping towards Sindh and the southern towards the Rann of Kachchh. Most of the rivers in this region are non-perennial . The Luni River flowing in the southern part of desert, the only large river in this region, is of some significance. Barchans (crescent shaped dunes) cover larger areas but longitudinal dunes become more prominent near the Indo-Pakistan boundary .

(e) The Coastal Plains :

India has a long coastline. On the basis of the location and active geomorphologic processes, it can be broadly divided into two : (i) the western coastal plains ; (ii) the eastern coastal plains.

The western coastal plains are an example of submerged coastal plain. Kandla, Mazagoan, Jawahar Lal Nehru port at Navha Sheva, Marmagao, Mangalore, Cochin, etc, are some of the important natural ports located along the west coast, Extending from the Gujarat coast in the north to the Kerala coast in the south , the western coast may be divided into following divisions-the Kachchh and Kathiwar coast in Gujarat, Konkan coast in Maharashtra, Goan coast and Malabar coast in Karnataka and Kerala respectively . The western coastal plains are narrow in the middle and get broader towards north and south. The rivers flowing through this coastal plain do not form any delta. The Malabar coast has got certain distinguishing features in the form of 'Kayals' (backwaters) , which are used for fishing , inland navigation and also due to its special attraction for tourists. Every year the famous Nehru Trophy Vallamkali (boat race) is held in Punnamada Kayal in Kerala.

As compared to the western coastal plain, the eastern coastal plain is broader and is an example of an emergent coast. These include the deltas of the Mahanadi, the Godavari, the Krishna and the Kaveri. Because of its emergent nature, it has less number of ports and harbours. The continental shelf extends up to 500 km into the sea, which makes it difficult for the development of good ports and harbours.

(f) The Islands :

There are two major island groups in India-one in Bay of Bengal and the other in the Arabian Sea. The Bay of Bengal island groups consist of about 200 islands. These are situated roughly between 6° N-14° N and 92° E-94° E. The entire group of island is divided into two broad categories-the Andaman in the north and the Nicobar in the south. They are separated by a water body which is called the Ten degree channel . It is believed that these islands are an elevated portion of submarine mountains. However , some smaller islands are volcanic in origin. Barren Island , the only active volcano in India is also situated in the Nicobar Islands.

The islands of the Arabian Sea include Lakshadweep and Minicoy. These are scattered between 8° N -12° N and 71° E- 74° E longitude. These islands are located at a distance of 280 km -480 km off the Kerala coast. The entire island group is built of coral deposits. There are approximately 36 islands of which 11 are inhabited. Minicoy is the largest island with an area of 453 sq. km. The entire group of islands is broadly by the Eleventh degree channel , north of which is the Amini Island. Kavaratti island is the administrative headquarters of Lakshadweep.

Physical divisions of India -Each region complements each other

- (i) The northern mountains are the major sources of water and forest wealth.
- (ii) The northern plains are the granaries of the country. They provide the base for early civilizations.
- (iii) The plateau is a storehouse of minerals, which has played a crucial role in the industrialization of the country.

SOME INTERESTING KNOWLEDGE

- (i) Most volcanoes and earthquakes in the world are located at plate margins, but some do occur within the plates.
- (ii) Gondwanaland is the southern part ancient super continent Pangea with Angara Land in the northern part.
- (iii) Majuli, in the Brahmaputra river is the largest riverine island in world.
- (iv) 'Doab' is made up of two words-'do' meaning two 'ab' meaning water. Similarly 'Punjab' is also made up of two words. 'Punj' meaning five and 'ab' meaning water.
- (v) The Chilka Lake is the largest salt water lake in India. It lies in the state of Orissa , to the south of Mahanadi delta.
- (vi) India's only active volcano is found on Barren Island in Andaman and Nicobar group of Islands.

EXERCISE

OBJECTIVE DPP - 201

1. A landmass bounded by sea on three sides is referred to as -
(A) Coast (B) Island (C) Peninsula (D) None of the above
2. Mountain ranges in the eastern part of India forming its boundary with Myanmar are collectively called as -
(A) Himachal (B) Uttaranchal (C) Purvanchal (D) None of the above
3. The western coastal strip, south of Goa is referred to as -
(A) Coromandal (B) Konkan (C) Kannad (D) Northern Circar
4. The southern most tip of India Union is -
(A) Indira Point (B) Tuticorin (C) Trivandrum (D) Kanya kumari
5. Name the types of plate movements.
(A) Convergent (B) Divergent (C) Transform (D) All of the above
6. Name the oldest landmass of the Indian subcontinent.
(A) The Himalayas (B) Northern Plains (C) Peninsular Plateau (D) Island groups
7. The average height of the Hamadri is -]
(A) 5000 meters (B) 6000 meters (C) 7000meters (D) 5500 meters
8. The average width of the Himachal or lesser Himalaya is -
(A) 5 km (B) 50 km (C) 500 km (D) 5500 meters
9. The Nepal Himalayas lies between -
(A) Indus and Satluj (B) Satluj and Kali (C) Kali and Tista (D) Tista and Dihang
10. The total length of the Northern Plains is -
(A) 2400 km (B) 3400 km (C) 4200 km (D) 5000 km
11. Part of the Northern Plains, which was a thickly forested region full of wildlife, where the forests have been cleared to create agricultural land and to settle migrants from Pakistan after partition.
(A) Bhabar (B) Terai (C) Bhangar (D) Coastal Plains
12. A table land composed of crystalline, igneous and metamorphic rocks.
(A) Himalayas (B) Northern Plains (C) Peninsular Plateau (D) Coastal Plains
13. The part of the Peninsular Plateau lying to the north of the Narmada River covering a major rea of the Malwa plateau is known as -
(A) Eastern Ghats (B) Western Ghats (C) Aravalis (D) Central Highlands
14. The area where the Himalayas stand today was occupied by and ancient sea called the :
(A) Panthalasa ocean (B) Red sea (C) Tethys (D) Dead Sea
15. Name the island group of India that is of coral origin :
(A) Lakshadweep (B) Rameshwaram (C) Male (D) Andman and Nicobar

SUBJECTIVE DPP -2.2

very short answer type question :

1. What are tectonic plates ?
2. Which continents of today were part of the Gondwanaland ?

3. Which is the highest range of the Himalayas ? Mention its one feature .
4. What is the width of the northern plains ?
5. How is the northern plain divided on the basis of the differences in the relief ?
6. What is barchan ?
7. What is the northern and southern extension of western coast called ?
8. Name the island group of India having coral origin .
9. Name the five rivers that makes Punjab.
10. Which is the highest peak of the Deccan plateau ?

Short answer type questions :

11. Which two forces are responsible for shaping present landform features of India ?
12. Write three facts which prove the physiographic divisions are complementary to each other.
13. How are the Himadri Himalayas different from the Himachal Himalayas ?
14. What are Shiwaliks ? Write two characteristics of it .
15. Explain for main characteristics of the northern plains of India .
16. Explain how the Himalayas act as a boon for India four different ways.
17. Distinguish between
 - (i) Converging and diverging tectonic plates. (ii) Bhangar and Khadar
 - (iii) Western Ghats and Eastern Ghats
18. Write short notes on the following .
 - (i) The Indian Desert (ii) The Central Highlands (iii) The Island groups of India

Long answer type questions :

19. "Our country has practically all major physical features of the earth" . Explain.
20. Describe the formation of Himalayas and the Northern Plains.
21. Describe the division of Himalayas on the basis of regions from west to east .
22. In how many sections the Northern Plains can be divided ? Explain each of them .
23. Differentiate between the two islands groups of India .

ANSWER KEY

(Objective dpp 2.1)

Que.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	11	12	13	14	15
Ans.	C	C	C	A	D	C	B	B	C	A	B	C	D	C



DRAINAGE



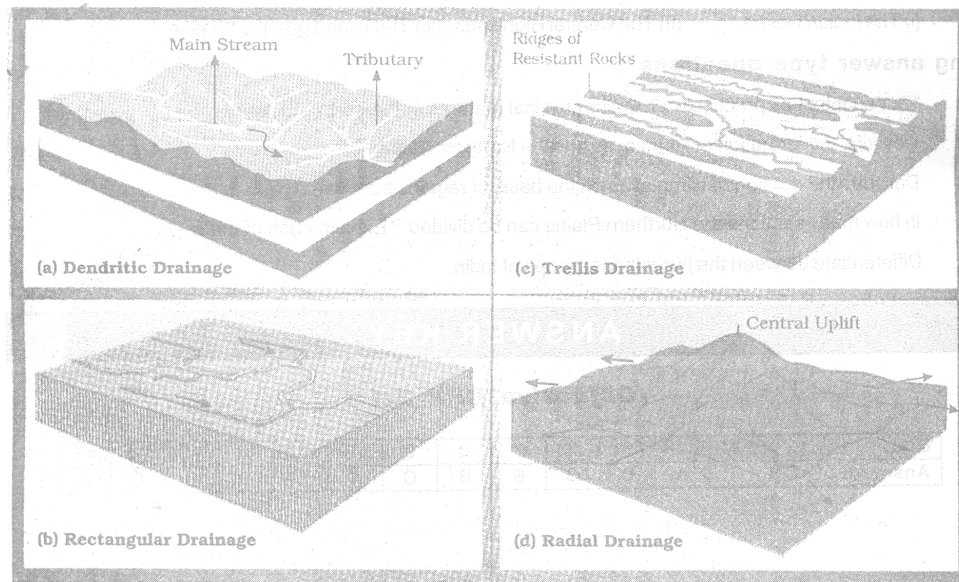
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DRAINAGE PATTERS

The term drainage describes the river system of an area. The area drained by a single river system is called a drainage basin. any elevated area, such as a mountain or an upland which separates two drainage basins is known as water divide.

The streams within a drainage basin form certain patterns, depending on the slope of land, underlying rock structure as well as the climatic conditions of the area. These are dendritic, trellis, rectangular, and radial patterns. The dendritic pattern develops where the river channel follows the slope of the terrain. The stream with its tributaries resembles the branches of a tree, thus the name dendritic. A river joined by its tributaries, at approximately right angles, develops a trellis pattern. A trellis drainage pattern develops where hard and soft rocks exist parallel to each other. A rectangular drainage pattern develops on a strongly jointed rocky terrain. The radial pattern develops when streams flow in different directions from a central peak or dome like structure.

A combination of several patterns may be found in the same drainage basin.

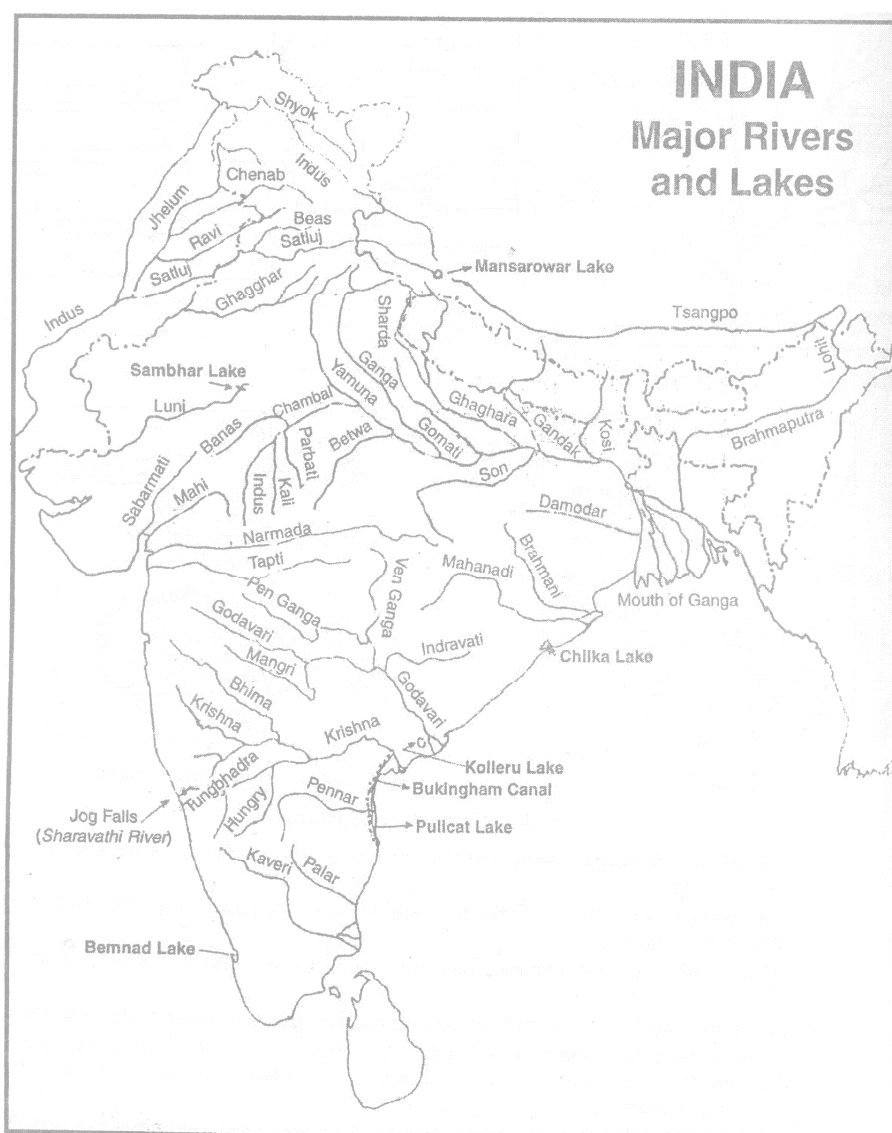


DRAINAGE SYSTEM IN INDIA

The Drainage systems of India are mainly controlled by the broad relief features of the subcontinent. accordingly, the Indian rivers are divided into two major groups :

- (i) The Himalayan Rivers and
- (ii) The Peninsular Rivers.

S.No	The Himalayan Rivers	The Peninsular Rivers
1.	These rivers originate from the glaciers.	These rivers originate on the plateau.
2.	Their catchment area is very large.	Their catchment area is very small.
3.	These rivers pass through gorge and carve deep valleys.	These rivers from shallow valleys.
4.	These rivers are young.	These have acquired maturity.
5.	These are engaged in high erosion activity.	These have very little erosional activity.
6.	These are useful for irrigation.	These are of little use for irrigation.
7.	These rivers are perennial, i.e., they flow throughout the year.	These rivers are non-perennial.
8.	Indus, Ganga, Brahmaputra Are The Main Rivers.	Godavari, Krishna, Kaveri, Narmada and Tapti are major rivers.

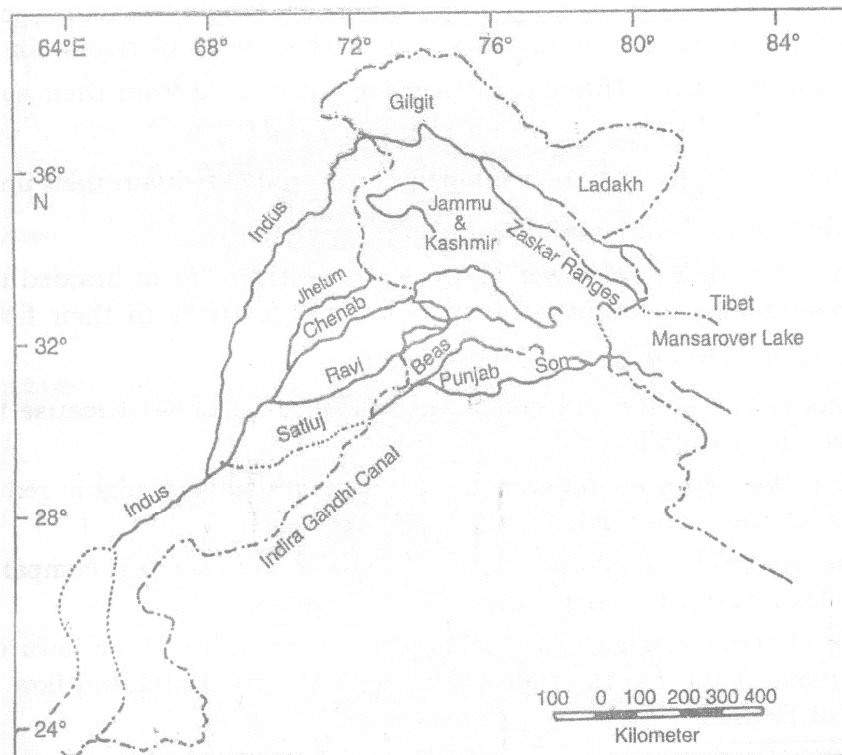


(a) **The Himalayan Rivers :**

The major Himalayan Rivers are the Indus, the Ganga and the Brahmaputra. These rivers are long, and are joined by many large and important tributaries.

(A) **The Indus River system :**

The river Indus rises in Tibet, near Lake **Mansarowar**. Flowing west, it enters India in the Ladakh district of Jammu and Kashmir. Several tributaries, the Zaskar, the Nubra, the Shyok and the Hunza, Join it in the Kashmir region. The Indus flows through Baltistan and Gilgit and emerges from the mountains at Attock. The Satluj, the Beas, the Ravi, the Chenab and the Jhelum join together to enter the Indus near Mithankot in Pakistan. Beyond this, the Indus flows southwards eventually reaching the Arabian Sea, east of Karachi. The Indus plain has a very gentle slope. With a total length of 2900 km, the Indus is one of the longest rivers of the world. a little over a third of the Indus basin is located in India in the states of Jammu and Kashmir, Himachal Pradesh and the Punjab and the rest is in Pakistan.



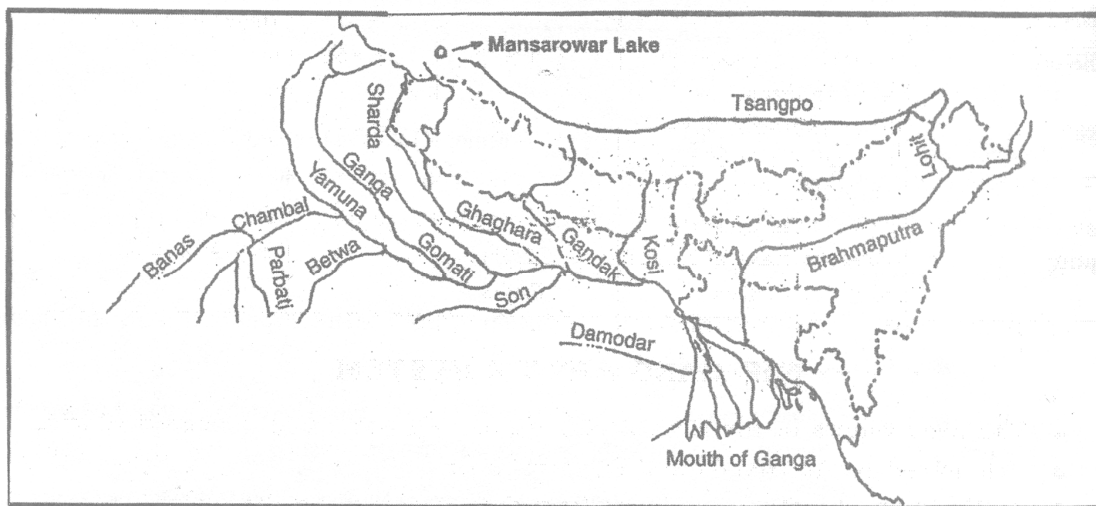
Indus River System.

- (i) The Jhelum, an important tributary of the Indus, rises from a spring at Verinag situated at the foot of the Pir Panjal in the south-eastern part of the valley of Kashmir.
- (ii) The Chenab is the largest tributary of the Indus. it is formed by two streams, the Chandra and the Bhaga, which join at Tandi near Keylong in Himachal Pradesh. hence, it is also known as Chandrabhaga. The river flows for 1,180 km before entering into Pakistan.
- (iii) The Ravi is another important tributary of the Indus. it rises west of the Rohtang pass in the Kullu hills of Himachhal Pradesh and flows through the Chamba valley of the state.

- (iv) The Beas is another important tributary of the Indus, originating from the Beas Kund near the Rohtang Pass at an elevation of 4,000 m above the mean sea level.
- (v) The Satluj originates in the Rakas Lake near Mansarovar at an altitude of 4,555 mt. In Tibet, where it is known as Langchen Khambad.

(B) The Ganga System :

- (i) The headwaters of the Ganga, called the 'Bhagirathi' is fed by the Gangotri Glacier and joined by the Alaknanda at Devprayag in Uttaranchal. At Haridwar the Ganga emerges from the mountains on to the plains.
- (ii) The Ganga is joined by the many tributaries from the Himalayas such as the Yamuna, the Ghaghara, the Gandak and the Kosi. The river Yamuna rises from the Yamunotri Glacier in the Himalayas and meets the Ganga at Allahabad. The Ghaghara, the Gandak and the Kosi rise in the Nepal Himalaya.
- (iii) The main tributaries from the peninsular uplands are the Chambal, the Betwa and the Son.
- (iv) The Ganga flows eastwards till Farakka in West Bengal, the northernmost point of the Ganga delta. The river bifurcates here; the Bhairathi-Hooghly flows southwards through the deltaic plains to the Bay of Bengal. The mainstream, flow southwards into Bangladesh and is joined by the Brahmaputra. Further down stream, it is known as the Meghna and finally flows into the Bay of Bengal. The delta formed by these rivers is known as the Sunderban Delta.



Ganga River System and Brahmaputra River System.

(C) The Brahmaputra System :

- (i) The Brahmaputra rises in Tibet east of Mansarovar Lake. It is slightly longer than the Indus. It flows eastwards parallel to the Himalayas.
- (ii) On reaching the Namcha Barwa (7757 m), it takes a 'U' turn and enters India in Arunachal Pradesh through a gorge. Here, it is called the Dihang and it is joined by the Dibang, the Lohit, the Kenula and many other tributaries from the Brahmaputra in Assam.
- (iii) In India it passes through a region of high rainfall. Here the river carries a large volume of water and considerable amount of silt. The Brahmaputra has a braided channel in its entire length in Assam and forms many riverine islands (Majuli, in the Brahmaputra River is the largest inhabited riverine island in the world).
- (iv) During the rainy season, the river overflows its banks, causing widespread devastation due to floods in Assam and Bangladesh. Unlike other north Indian rivers the Brahmaputra is marked by huge deposits of silt on its bed causing the river bed to rise. The river also shifts its channel frequently.